

Social Studies

Part-I

(Geography & Economics)

For Class X



Punjab School Education Board
Sahibzada Ajit Singh Nagar

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Preface

Punjab School Education Board, since its inception has been actively engaged in the preparation of the text books based on new syllabi. On the direction of Education Policy 1986, 10+2+3 pattern of education has been implemented. While taking into consideration, the recommendations of National Policy of Education, a number of changes have been introduced in the syllabi of classes IX and X. A sincere effort by Punjab School Education Board has been made to bring the syllabi of social studies at par with national pattern of education, to enable the students of Punjab to remain conversant with national curriculum.

Under the new education policy of Punjab School Education Board, from the year 1997, the syllabi of social studies have been revised, keeping in view the economic and social changes. Along with History, Geography and Civics, the study of Economics was included in the subject of social studies. The Punjab School Education Board has been publishing two separate books for the study of social studies. Social Studies Part I book deals with the study of Geography and Economics. Social Studies Part II includes the study of History and Civics.

I am sanguine that the study of these books will enable the children to develop a 'thinking mind' and help in their mental development. An effort has been made that these books prove to be useful for both teachers and students from every point of view.

The book in hand is of Social Studies Part I and has been translated in English. Suggestions for the improvement of the book are welcomed.

Chairman
Punjab School Education Board.

About the Geography Part of the Book

This book is based on the study of Geography of India. An effort has been made to make the study of geography simple, interesting and useful. The contents of this book have been developed by using simple language, maximum maps, graphs and line sketches to enable students understand the content matter without any difficulty. Every possible effort has been made to include latest statistics and geographical information of Punjab as well, in this book.

I am sure that the students and teachers will appreciate the contents of this book.

Co-ordinator (Geography)

About the Economics Part of the Book

From the admission year 1998, the Punjab School Education Board included the Economics subject in Part-2 of this book for the 10th class students under the subject of Social Studies. Like the 9th class syllabus of Economics, the 10th class syllabus of Economics is also in accordance with the syllabus of N.C.E.R.T., New Delhi. The first chapter of “Basic Concepts” has been included in this Part so that the students don't face any kind of problem in understanding the other chapters.

This part of the book is divided into six chapters. It provides brief knowledge about the different aspects of the Indian Economy, like the infrastructure of the Indian Economy, the development of Agriculture, Industries, Foreign Trade and Economic Planning in India. In this Part the facts have been explained with the help of statistical data and tables given at proper places.

It is hoped that this Part of the book will fulfil the needs of the teachers and students in all respects. However, efforts will be made to include any kind of suggestions from the field in the next issues of the book.

Co-ordinator (Economics)

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SYLLABUS (CLASS X)

SOCIAL STUDIES – PART I

M.M. : 30

PART- A GEOGRAPHY

1. **India** and India as a subcontinent; Relief and Major Physiographic Divisions of India and they are complementary to each other.
2. **Climate** : Diversity in climate, Monsoonal Integrity, Natural Vegetation of India.
3. **Land-use** : Forest Land, Fallow land and agriculture, Soils, Water resources, Characteristics of rainfall; Unequal distribution and failure of rainfall; Floods, Scarcity of water, Flood control, Means of irrigation and drainage, Water budget, River valley and multipurpose projects, Potential and developed Hydro-electricity and they are complementary to each other.
4. **Indian Agriculture** : With special reference to Punjab : Development of Agriculture after independence, Crops; Major crops, Fabric crops, Commercial crops, Per acre yield, Livestock, Birds, Forests and Wild life.
5. **Mineral Resources** : Minerals- Metallic and Non-Metallic, Mineral oil, Exploitation, Distribution and development, Proper development of mineral resources, its proper utilization and conservation.
6. **Manufacturing Industries** : Importance – Agro based and mineral based industries, Major industries and localization of industries.
7. **Transportation and Communication** : Role of Roads, Railways, Water ways, Major sea ports, Development of airways, Development of means of communication.
8. **People** : The Major resource of a country, Population age, Sex ratio, Structure of population, Rural and urban population, Distribution of population, Density, Qualitative and Quantitative perspective of population.

PART – B

ECONOMICS

M.M. : 20

Unit I : BASIC CONCEPTS

(Meanings with Examples only)

1. National Income
2. Per Capita Income
3. Consumption
4. Savings
5. Investment
6. Capital Formation
7. Disguised Unemployment
8. Full Employment
9. Inflation
10. Supply of Money
11. Government Budget
12. Deficit Financing
13. Public Finance
 - (a) Direct Taxes
 - (b) Indirect Taxes
14. Public Debt
15. Poverty Line
16. Growth Rate
17. Foreign Aid
18. Balance of Payments
19. Monetary Policy
20. Fiscal Policy

Unit II : Economic Infrastructure of the Indian Economy :

1. Meaning and need of well-developed Economic Infrastructure.
2. Elements of Economic Infrastructure :
 - (i) Network of Transport and Communication.
 - (ii) Sources of Power and Irrigation.
 - (iii) Banking and Financial Institutions.

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3. Economic Exploitation of Consumers and Consumer Protection Measures.
4. Public Distribution System in the Country.

Unit III : Economic Development of Indian Economy

1. Agricultural Development :
 - (i) Importance of Agriculture in Indian Economy.
 - (ii) Main Problems of Agriculture in India.
 - (iii) Role of Government in Agricultural Growth.
 - (iv) Green Revolution — Meaning and Effects.
2. Industrial Development :
 - (i) Need of Rapid Growth of Industrialisation in India.
 - (ii) Scale of Industries.
 - (a) Cottage and Small Scale Industries.
 - (b) Large Scale Industries.
 - (c) Importance of these Industries for the Industrial Development of India.
 - (iii) Causes of Slow Progress of Industrial Development in India.
 - (iv) Role of Government for encouragement of Industrial Development in India.
3. Foreign Trade in India :
 - (i) Importance of Foreign Trade in Indian Economy.
 - (ii) Volume of Foreign Trade in India.
 - (iii) Main Items of Imports and Exports.
 - (iv) Directions of Imports and Exports.
4. Economic Planning in India :
 - (i) Need and objectives of Economic Planning in India.
 - (ii) Achievement and Failures of Economic Planning in India.

PART - A
GEOGRAPHY

CHAPTER I

INDIA - An Introduction

On examining the globe carefully, we could locate a huge landmass of triangular shape, in the Indian Ocean. This landmass is none other than your own country, India, which gave its name to this Indian Ocean also. Surrounded from three sides by the Indian Ocean and in the north by the high mountains of Himalaya, India is a vast country of great capabilities. It ranks second after China in terms of population and seventh in terms of area in the world.

This huge landmass and populated country of south Asia, which is known for its old tradition is gradually entering into the changing world. Its size is so huge from east to west that when there is sunrise in the east i.e. Arunachal Pradesh, then in the west i.e. Saurashtra region of Gujarat, there is still night. Due to the variability of temperature, a wide variety of crops can be grown here.

This country of hundred crore population is comprised of almost 6 lakh villages and 5 thousand towns and cities.

Making republic, secularism and socialism as a basis of its national policy after its independence, it attracted the attention of the world community. Today India is the largest Republic country of the world. In the middle of the 1960's, it again, stunted the whole world by the tremendous increase in foodgrain production through "Green Revolution". Now it has strong agricultural and industrial base. Today the foreign capital investors are very much eager to invest their capital in the Indian economy. It had made a tremendous progress in the space technology.

But, besides these achievements, there exist many black spots. In India, highest number of world's illiterates reside. More than one third of the country's population is living below the poverty line. It has great social, political and economic inequalities. On the one hand in Kerala, 9 out of 10 females are literate. But in Bihar on the other extreme, this average is just 3 out of 10. Situation of economic inequalities is indicated by the fact, that 20 percent people of high class share 50 percent share of national income, whereas, 70 percent people belonging to lower strata poor state have just 20 percent share in the national income.

Would you like to know more about your country which is full of diversities and inequalities? How the people of India have used or misused its land, water and air resources and what are their regional patterns, is not only an important thing to know but also a subject of intensive discussion.

To search for the answers of these questions would not only be interesting for the student of geography but is also compulsory from the geographical point of view. A systematic detailed description of various elements of geography of India has been given in the proceeding pages. But before that, the general introduction of India has been given, in which a brief description about name, situation, regional or locational extent and socio-economic setup has been dealt with.

Many concepts related to the name of India are found in the ancient literature. According to that, its first name was 'Himalaya - Shet - Prayatani', which means a country between Himachal and Rameshvaram. Secondly, due to its occupance by the Aryan people, this region was also known as the 'Aryavarta'. Thirdly, after the name of 'Bharat' a strong king, who was the son of king Dushyant and Shakuntala, this country was named as 'Bharat'. Fourthly, its recent name 'India' has been taken from the north-west flowing river 'Sindhu' by the Aryan people of vedic age. The people of its neighbouring country Iran pronounced this 'Sindhu' as 'Hindu'. The people living around this river became the residents of 'Hindustan'. The Greeks converted this word 'Hindu' into 'Indos'. After reforming this word, the Romans named it as 'Indus'. In this way our country is called by different names as 'India', 'Hindustan' and 'Bharat'.

Situation

India is a giant country which extends into the south of the continent of Asia. It has a triangular shape due to the great mountainous wall of Himalayas in the north and Indian Ocean in south. It also has Arabian Sea on its one side and Bay of Bengal on the other side. Due to its location in the eastern hemisphere, it is counted among the eastern countries. The inter-national sea routes passing through the Indian Ocean connect India to the developed countries (European and American) of west on one hand and on the other with east and far-east countries of China, Japan, Indonesia and Australia. Except these, trade relations through sea route are also emerging with Africa and middle-east countries. Its trading importance also increased after the opening of the suez canal. This canal has reduced the distance by 4800 kilometres between India and parts of western Europe. In this way India has central location in the Indian Ocean. Only due to its central location, it could on the one hand oppress the militancy, which is operating in Sri Lanka and Maldives and on the other protect ocean highway men/robbers in the last decade to the other hand by utilizing its powerful navy and ultimately helped to restore peace. That is why India has important place in the group of 'SAARC' countries. Table 1.1 represents some important data about SAARC nations. This clearly reflects the importance of India in terms of area and population.

Table 1.1 SAARC COUNTRIES : A COMPARISON

S. No.	Country	Area Sq.Km.	Polulation In Lakhs (2011)	Currency	Per Capita Income (In American Dollars)	Capital City
1.	India	3,287,263	12101	Rupee	460	Delhi
2.	Pakistan	803,936	1714	Rupee (Pak)	470	Islamabad
3.	Nepal	141,059	293	Rupee (Nepal)	220	Kathmandu
4.	Bangladesh	143,998	1600	Taka	380	Dhaka
5.	Bhutan	47,000	17	Ngultrum	550	Thimphu
6.	SriLanka	65,610	202	Rupee (Srilanka)	870	Colombo
7.	Maldives	298	11	Rupee (Maldives)	1460	Male
8.	Afghanistan	647500	283	Afghani	-	Kabul

Locational Extent

India extends between 8⁰4' and 37⁰6' north latitude and 67⁰7' and 97⁰25' east longitude. The Tropic of Cancer divides the country into two parts the northern and the southern. According to area, north India is twice as big as south India. If we draw a straight line from Kashmir in the northern end to Kanyakumari, in its southern edge, its length would be 3214 kilometres. This distance would represent the latitudinal difference of 292' on land, which would be nearly 1/3 of the northern hemisphere. Similarly, from the east situated Arunachal Pradesh to the western frontier, the Rann of Kuchchh, there exists 29⁰12' longitudinal difference which is equal to 2933 kilometres distance. Due to this difference only, there is sunrise in Arunachal Pradesh, and Gujarat has still two hour left of the night.

Due to the great longitudinal and latitudinal extent it is also called as a sub-continent. Sub-continent is a big and independent region, whose land frontiers are formed by different physical features, which differentiate it from its surrounding regions. India is separated from Tibet in the north by the Agill, Muztgh, Kunlun, Karakoram, Hindukush and Zaskar mountain ranges beyond Himalayas; in the south by Sri Lanka through Palk strait, and the Gulf of Mannar; in the east by Arakanyoma which separates it from Myanmar (Burma) and in the west by Pakistan through the great Thar desert. Because of its huge area different cultural, economic and social diversities are found in India. But,

irrespective of this, there exist unity in the country, in terms of climate and culture etc.

Size and Area

The shape of India is a triangle whose base is in north and top towards the south above Kanyakumari. It is not too big and not too small in terms of area. Total area of our country is about 3287263 sq. km, which is 2.2 per cent of the world total area. In this way, according to area, India is seventh largest country of the world. The other six nations are Russia, Canada, China, United States of America, Brazil and Australia respectively. In comparison to big countries, it is just equal to the about one-seventh part of Russia and one-third part of Canada. Whereas it is twelve times bigger than from England and eight times bigger than Japan in comparison to small countries.

Neighbouring Countries

Seven nations are having common land frontiers with India. To its north-west and north, Pakistan, Afghanistan, China and Nepal are its neighbouring countries and Bhutan, Myanmar (Burma) and Bangladesh are frontier countries in the north-east.

Political Setup

Prior to Independence, India was divided into 562 small princely states and 9 British Provinces. After getting Independence on 15th August 1947, an effort was made to merge small states in the adjoining states. A State's Reorganisation Commission was constituted in 1953 to reorganize boundaries of the states on linguistic basis. In this way, whole country was divided into 14 state and 6 union territories. Afterward, these divisions lead to the formation of many states, which were given new names and many union territories were provided with the state status. Today's, Punjab also came into being after the recommendation of Shah Commission, as a Punjabi speaking state on 1st November 1966.

Present day India comprises 28 states and 7 centrally administered territories. States and their capitals are shown in the following table and map.

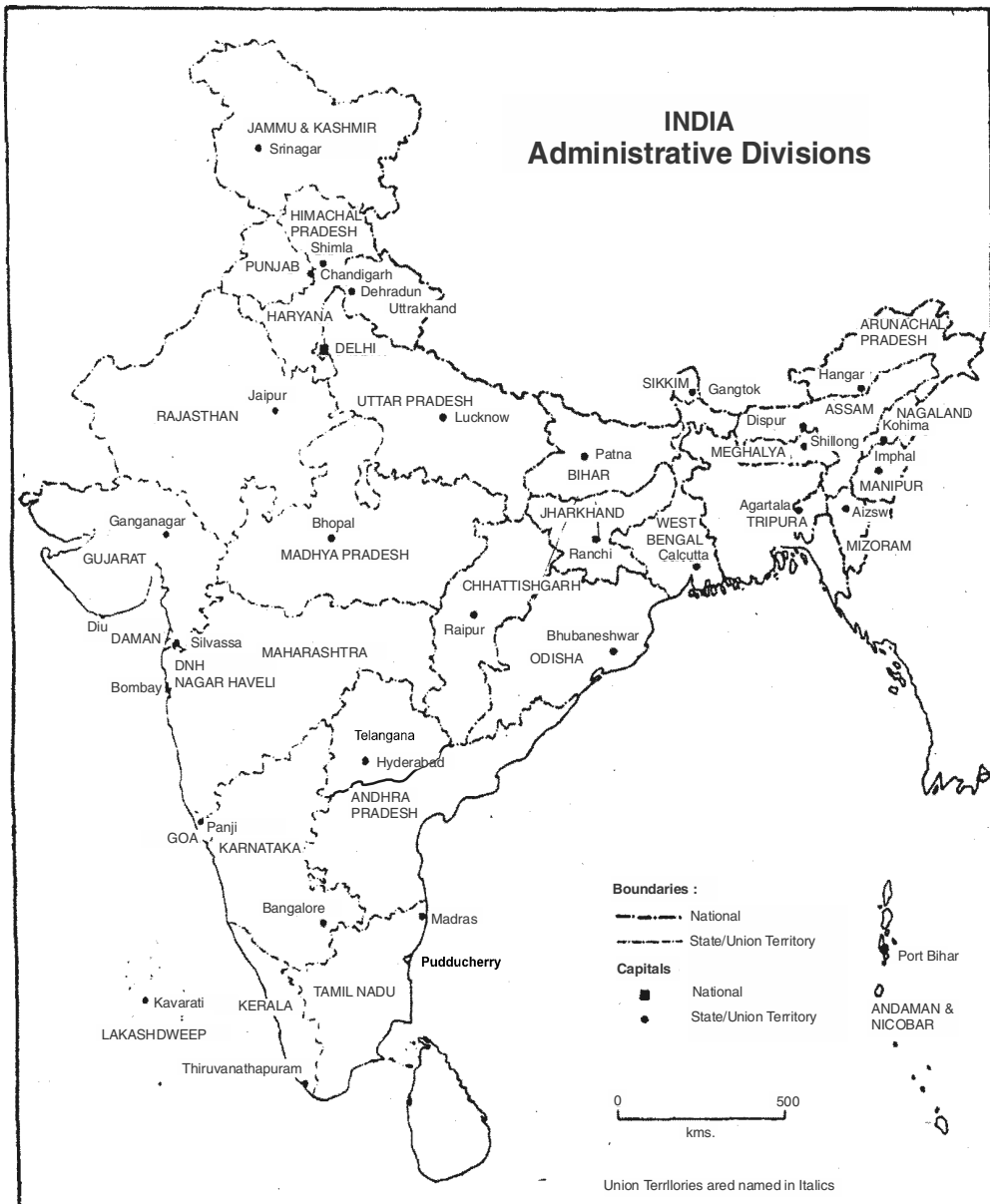


Table 1.2 : Features of Indias Population, 2011

S.No.	Name of state	Capital	Area (Sq. Km.)	Total Population	Density (Persons per Sq. Km.)	Literacy rate (Percent)
	INDIA	New Delhi	32,87,240	1,21,01,93,422	382	74.04
	(i) STATE					
1.	Andhra Pradesh	Hyderabad	1,60,205	4,93,18,668	306	67.84
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	Itanagar	83,743	13,82,611	17	66.95
3.	Assam	Dispur	78,438	3,11,69,272	397	73.18
4.	Bihar	Patna	94,163	10,38,04,637	1102	63.82
5.	Chhattisgarh	Raipur	135,191	2,55,40,196	189	71.04
6.	Goa	Panaji	3,702	14,57,723	394	87.40
7.	Gujarat	Gandhi Nagar	196,024	6,03,83,628	308	79.31
8.	Haryana	Chandigarh	44,212	2,53,53,081	573	76.64
9.	Himachal Pradesh	Shimla	55,673	68,56,509	123	83.78
10.	Jammu and Kashmir	Srinagar	222,236	1,25,48,926	56	68.74
11.	Jharkhand	Ranchi	79,714	32,966,238	414	67.63
12.	Karnataka	Bangalore	191,791	6,11,30,704	319	75.60
13.	Kerala	Trivandrum	38,863	3,33,87,677	859	93.91
14.	Madhya Pradesh	Bhopal	308,245	7,25,97,565	236	70.63
15.	Maharashtra	Mumbai	307,713	11,23,72,972	365	82.91
16.	Manipur	Imphal	22,327	27,21,756	122	79.85
17.	Meghalaya	Shillong	22,492	29,64,007	132	75.50
18.	Mizoram	Aizawl	21,081	10,91,014	52	91.58
19.	Nagaland	Kohima	16,579	19,80,620	119	80.11
20.	Oddisha	Bhubaneshwar	155,707	4,19,47,358	269	73.45
21.	Punjab	Chandigarh	50,362	2,77,04,236	550	76.68
22.	Rajasthan	Jaipur	342,239	6,86,21,012	201	67.06
23.	Sikkim	Gangtok	7,096	6,07,688	86	82.2
24.	Tamilnadu	Chennai	130,058	7,21,38,958	555	80.33
25.	Telangana	Hyderabad	1,14,840	3,53,46,865	310	67.22
26.	Tripura	Agartala	10,486	36,71,032	350	87.75
27.	Uttrakhand	Dehradun	53,483	1,01,16,752	189	79.63
28.	Uttar Pradesh	Lucknow	2,40,928	19,95,81,477	828	69.72
29.	West Bengal	Kolkata	88,752	9,13,47,736	947	77.08

(ii) UNION TERRITORIES

1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands	Port Blair	8,249	3,79,944	46	86.27
2. Chandigarh	Chandigarh	114	10,54,686	9252	86.43
3. Dadra and Nagar Haweli	Silvassa	491	3,42,853	698	77.65
4. Daman and Diu	Daman	112	2,42,911	2169	87.07
5. Delhi (N.C.T.)	Delhi	1,483	1,67,53,235	9340	86.34
6. Lakshadweep	Kavarati	32	64,429	2013	92.28
7. Puducherry	Puducherry	479	12,44,464	2598	86.55

Source : *Census of India (2011) : "Provisional Population Statistics", India Series-1, Paper of 2011, India Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India, New Delhi.*

India is the largest Republic, which was setup on 26th January 1950. In this, President is the head of country who is elected by the representatives of Parliament and States for a duration of five years. Indian Parliament is divided into two houses - the upper and the lower. Upper house is known as Rajya Sabha and lower house as Lok Sabha.

Population Profile

India ranks second only to China according to population in the world. Here, on the 2.2 per cent area of the world, 16.7 per cent of the world's population lives. According to 2011 census, its total population was 121.01 crore, with 62.4 crore males and 58.6 crore females. In this way according to the 2011 census, its population density is 382 persons per square kilometre. Only 74.04 per cent persons are literate the gender-ratio, as per 1000 males there are just 940 females.

India's population is increasing at a fast rate. According to estimates, every year there is an increase of almost 2 crore persons, which is more than the total population of Australia.

Regional Diversity: Due to its vast expanse, many diversities exist in India. That is why, many a times it is also known as the 'Land of Diversities'. These diversities exist due to the presence of, mainly four elements:

1. Huge Expanse : Due to its great east-west and north-south expansion, existence of diversities is but natural. It is called as the sub-continent only due to its regional expansion. Differences can easily be seen in every sphere of its natural or physical and human elements.

2. Relief : In India, where on the one hand oldest Aravalli Mountains of the world are found, there also exist young Himalayan Mountains. Similarly, there is peninsular plateau formed of hard and old rocks in the south and at the same time we find huge and fertile plains of Satluj - Ganga -Brahmputra made

by the newer soils brought down by the rivers originating from the Himalayan mountain ranges.

3. Climate: (a) The Tropic of Cancer passes through the centre of India and the area to its north has temperate type of climate. Most of this being far from the sea, comes mostly under the influence of continental type of climate. However, areas to the south of the Tropic of Cancer, being nearer to the Equator are under the influence of tropical type of climate. Surrounded by sea from the three sides, temperature here is always less than 40°C, due to which hot and maritime type of climate prevails in the Deccan Plateau region.

(b) The north-east receives more rainfall than the west. While Cherrapunji is counted among the world's highest rainfall receiving places, there also exists dry region of Thar desert in extreme west of India.

4. Migration : People of different tribes, castes, religions, soldiers, and rulers from neighbouring and outer world countries have been coming from different routes and settling in India from thousands of years. We could find different groups of people. For example Mongolian tribes came through China from middle-Asia and north-east regions; Tibetan people came in through northern west. Himalayan region; Aryans and Muslims came through Khyber and Bolan passes from western Asian region and settled in north-western plain areas; Dravidians settled in plateau areas of south India and Tamils came from Sri Lanka and settled in Tamil Nadu.

5. Culture : Due to different ethnic and religious groups, found in different regions of India, we find clear diversity in terms of language, life style, dress, eating habits, architecture, folk songs, folk dances, fairs, festivals and customs etc. Almost 187 languages are found in India, out of which only 23 languages are spoken by 97 per cent people of the country. However, major Indian languages recognised by the constitution are 18 in number. In regard to folk-dances, Bharat Natyam, Kathakali, Kathak, Kuchi-pudi and Manipuri developed in the South, north and north-eastern parts of the country. In relation to religion, Jainis are found mostly in Saurashtra, Buddhists in Himalayan areas, Sikhs in Punjab, Muslims in Kashmir and Telengana and Christians in north-eastern parts.

As regards agriculture, due to availability of the great alluvial fertile plains in the north, alongwith mechanization, regular water supply management and developed transport etc. agriculture has developed on modern lines. On the other hand, shifting (subsistence) agriculture is still being practised in dry (arid) Rajasthan, middle Vindhya and Maikal mountainous region, Chota Nagpur plateau, and north-eastern hilly areas of the country. Different groups of tribal population of these areas have varied customs and cultures.

Unity in Diversity

Above mentioned elements prove that India is a country of diversities. Variations are found in its physical, economic, social and cultural elements. But

irrespective of these variations, unity prevails in the Indian society. Following elements describe the unity in diversity in the country: -

(1) Monsoon Season

Our country has tropical monsoonal climate with agriculture as the main occupation, in which there is almost uniform sequence of seasons. Most of the rainfall in the country comes in the summer season. That is why agriculture and economy of the entire country depends on the onset or coming of monsoons. These winds provide water to the agricultural land of the great plains. They also help by making electricity supply certain which is generated in water reservoirs in hilly areas. In this way these winds are a great boon to life in the urban and rural areas. That is why entire population of the country eagerly waits for the monsoon winds.

(2) Religion and Culture

(a) Religious places: India is a country of many religions and devotees of these religions are scattered in different parts of our country. But these religious places being the centres of spiritual power have at different times joined thousands of people living at different places and helped to inspire the feeling of unity through religious integrity. Hindu devotees from every corner of the country visit the religious places as Jagan Nath puri, Kashi, Badrinath, Amar Nath etc. for worship. Similarly large number of people from Muslim religion visit places like Shrine (Mosque) of Khwaja Chisti at Ajmer, Jama Masjid and Bibi Ka Maqbara at Delhi for prayers. Devotees of Sikh religion come from all over the country to the places like Harimandir Sahib, Ponta Sahib, Hemkunt Sahib, Hazur Sahib (Nandedh) etc. But an interesting thing to note here is, that whether it's a temple of Hindu Gods and Goddesses, mosques of Pir-Faqir or Gurudawara's of Sikhs, people of different religions could be seen together at any one place, offering the prayers which is a strong sign of unity.

(b) Religious Saints: Besides religious places, religious Gurus, Pirs, Prophets, Sufi Saints etc. through their spiritual meetings and preaching provide strong base to the cultural integrity by generating brotherhood and communal harmony. Saints like Kabir, Guru Nanak, Tuka Ram, Surdas, Chisti, Ramanuj in every part of the country through the message of unity and religious feelings strengthened the movement of cultural integrity. Guru Arjun Dev included the writings of sufi saints of different religions in the Holy Guru Granth Sahib and established a new religious movement.

(c) Language and Art: Language plays a precious role in cultural communication and dispersal in different parts of the country. During the Vedic age, hymns were spoken in Sanskrit language only. The reason behind the impact of Vedas and Puranas from Kashmir to Sri Lanka and from Rajasthan to Manipur was that, their publicity was through the Sanskrit language. Even today, the base of all regional languages is Sanskrit. During medieval times Persian language was in the full vogue. Sultans of Delhi recognized a new language

Urdu which was the mixture of Persian and Sanskrit, all over the country. Till today this is known as Hindustani language. After independence, Hindi was given the status of national language and English was considered as the link language. Now, tri-language Agreement prevails in India. According to which Hindi would be National language, English would work as the link language and in various regions efforts would be made to develop and popularize the local regional languages. But actually importance is being given to the use of English language. Although only two per cent people of the country know and understand English properly. In this kind of a situation maximum loss and difficulty is faced by the tribals. Because in most of the states, school education is not provided in their mother tongue. They had to learn firstly their regional language, then national language Hindi and ultimately English. That is why tribal population (or people of tribal areas) had to cover a long distance of the knowledge of language to come in the main stream of the country.

According to the folk tales, folk songs sung in relation to monsoon at different places are almost the same. As for instance, Tiji in Punjab, Savan in Haryana, Kajri in Bhojpur and Malhar in Braj etc. Besides this, organizing Ballads, folk dances, music and plays under folk arts in different fairs, festivals and fete's through inter-exchange, are developing the feeling of unity in the country. Also the Indian movies, not only in entire India but also in its neighbouring countries are putting strong impact of the great Indian civilization and culture.

(d) Means of transport and communication: Development of these means had played an important role in joining the different parts of the country. Railways and Roadways by connecting villages with the towns and difficult hilly areas with the developed centres had removed the regional hurdles which came in the way of marketing goods in economy. In this way, due to the establishment of economic and social linkages people are joining the national stream and not ibkt the regional trend. Development of Doordarshan (television), Newspapers and Magazines have strengthened the national thinking.

(e) Migration: No doubt with the migration of villagers to the urban areas and with their settling in the towns have given birth to the slums near urban centres but coming in contact of people of different religious and social groups, has strengthened the feeling of brotherhood and unity.

In addition to the above mentioned elements, the central government is providing jobs to the people of different regions in public and defence services. They are transferred to different regions of the country during their job tennure. This ends regional and individual narrowness and strengthens the feeling of national unity. Similarly, one constitution, one head of the forces, one currency and democratic system etc. in the country have strengthened the feeling of unity in the country.

In this way, we may say that inspite of great diversities, unity is there, and these two are not opposite to each other but are closely related and both

provide strength to the spirit of national unity. National unity is not just a specific religion or special class or caste but is a mixed form of various cultures spread over India.

Exercise

I. Answer the following questions objectively :

1. What is the basis of naming Bharat as 'India' ?
2. What is the situation of India on the globe ?
3. What are the geographical divisions of Northern and Southern India ?
4. What is the location of India in respect of Indian ocean ?
5. Which countries came in direct contact with India because of the nearness of its coastal boundaries with Indian ocean?
6. What are the evidences for the powerful naval force of India?
7. What is the extent of India ?
8. What is area, population and per capita income of India ?
9. Compare the area, currency, population and literacy of India with that of Pakistan ?
10. What is the North-South and East-West extent of India ?
11. What is the length of land and coastal boundaries of India?
12. What do you mean by sub-continent.
13. What is cultural fusion ?
14. What is the rank of India in the world in terms of area ?
15. Which countries share the land frontiers with India ?
16. What were the political division of India before Independence?
17. What work was done by the State Reorganization Commission ?
18. When was the Present Punjab State Created ?
19. What is the present administrative division of geographical set up of India?
20. Name the largest and smallest States of India in terms of area and population.
21. What is the number of members in the two houses of Parliament ?
22. Name some of the important religious places of India.
23. To which regions of India major groups of people came through migration.
24. In which areas/fields the country has failed on large scale ?
25. Write the names of major folk dances of India.

II. Answer the following questions in short :

1. Is India a sub-continent ?
2. What type of cultural diversities are found in India ?
3. What is the composition of India's population ?
4. Write a note on India's land extent.
5. What is the contribution of Indian languages and art to the unity in diversity of India?
6. Describe India's regional diversity through any two facts.
7. Elaborate India's unity in diversity in any two factors?
8. What has been the contribution of natural diversity towards cultural variations in the country ?
9. "When the sun is rising in Arunachal, there is still night in Gujrat" Explain.
10. What is the place of India among SAARC countries ?

III. Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. How does India got its name ? Describe in detail its size and administrative divisions.
2. What is the impact of India's geographical location on its security, climate, trade and culture ?
3. "India is country of diversities" ? Explain the statement.
4. Which factors influence the regional disparities found in India ?
5. Which factors are responsible for maintaining India's unity in Diversity ?
6. "In India. Diversity and unity are neither opposite to each other and nor develop at the cost of each other, rather both are inter-related." Give your arguments in favour of and against this statement.

IV. Show the following facts on the map of Indian sub-continent :

1. India's neighboring countries (with different colours).
2. Oceanic regions adjoining India (with names).
3. States, Union territories and capitals of states of India.
4. Runn of Kuchchh, Kanyakumari, Arunachal Pradesh and Srinagar.
5. SAARC countries and their capitals.
6. States and their capitals, adjoining Bangladesh.
7. New Moor Island, Diu, Lakshadweep, and Indira Point.
8. Boundaries of Countries Joining at the Pamir Knot.
9. Mackmohan Line, Red Cliff.

CHAPTER 2

LAND

After the brief introduction about the country, we shall be getting a detailed information about its relief features.

The relief of India is not even everywhere. In the north, there exist the Himalayan mountains and the great plains formed by rivers. In its south, there exists a plateau plate which is formed by the old rocks. Being old, this triangular plate has played a very important role in the formation of the landforms of India. All other physiographic features of the country came into existence after the formation of this plate. That is why this peninsular part is also called the centre of Indian Geology. The coastal plains are formed on the three sides of this plate along the sea-coasts. In addition to these, many island groups are found in the ocean regions.

According to the estimation of the census commissioner of India, the division of physical units of the country's total area is as follows:

Mountains: 10.7 per cent, Hills:18.6 per cent, Plateau: 27.7 per cent, Plains: 43.0 per cent

The surface of India is mainly divided into five parts at the macro level (see Model 2.1): -

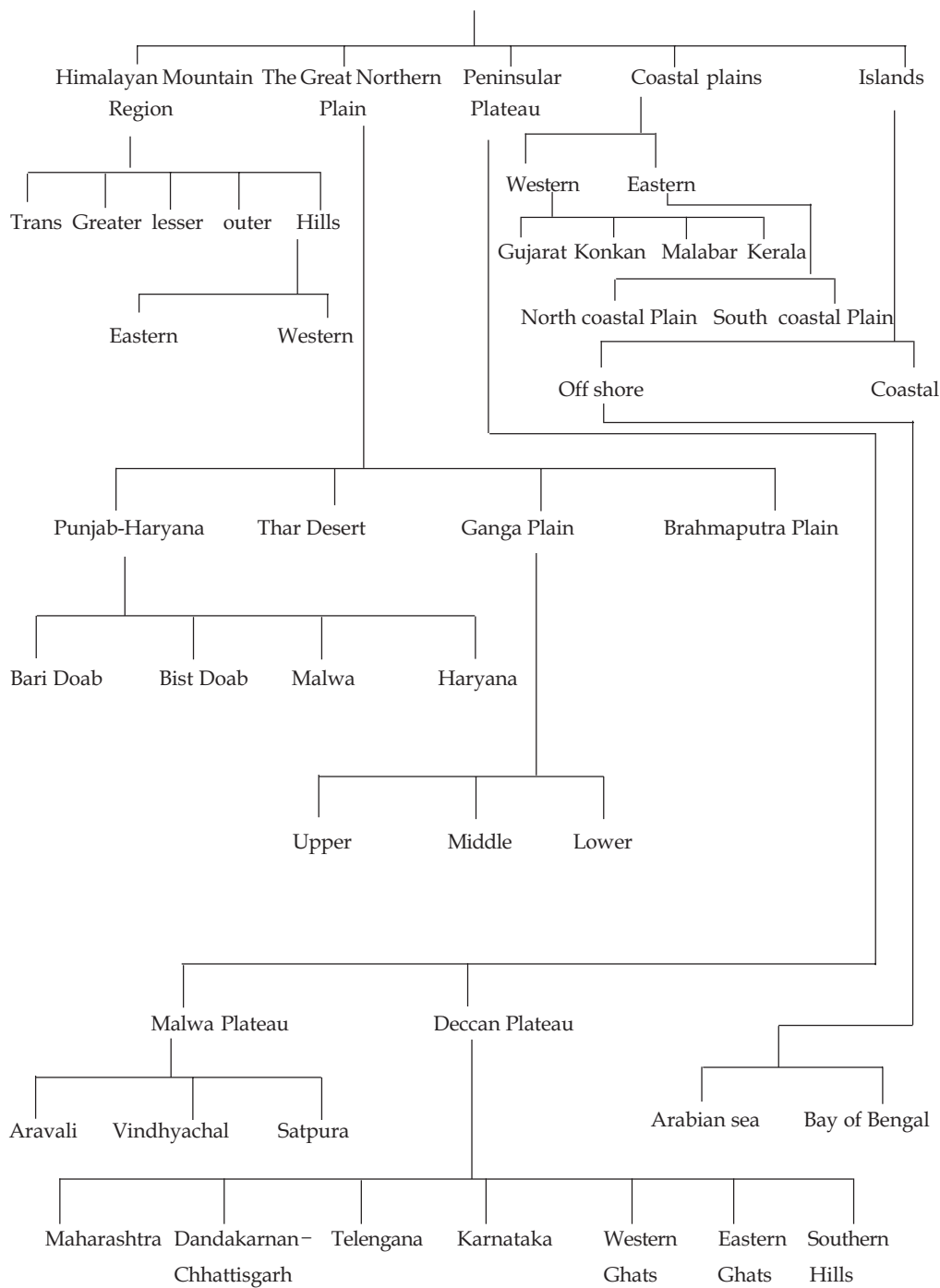
- (I) Himalayan Mountainous Region
- (II) The Great Northern Plain
- (III) Peninsular Plateau Region
- (IV) Coastal Plains
- (V) The Indian Islands

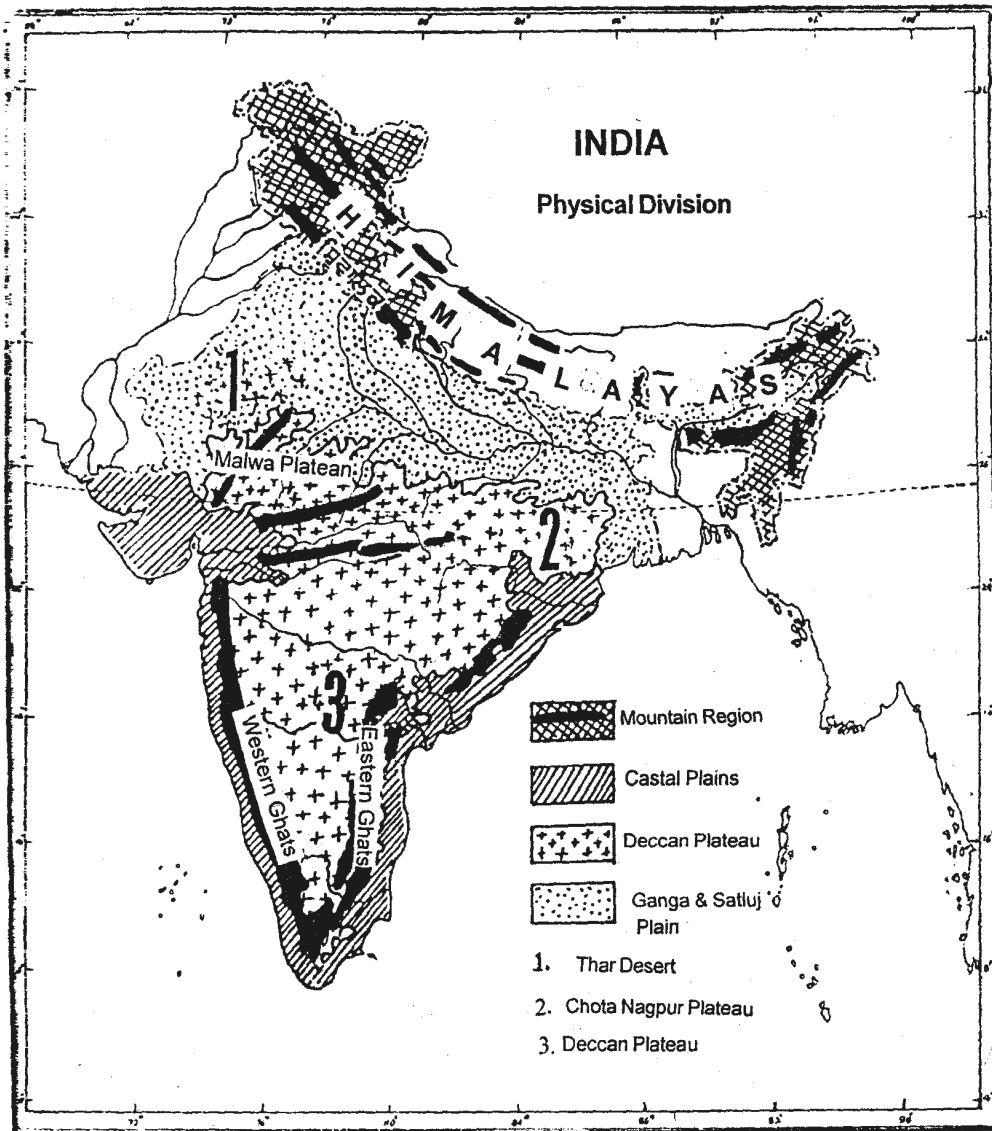
(1) Himalayan Mountainous Region

(A) Extent: Running in an east-west arced curve, the Himalayas form India's northern frontier. This great mountainous region extends for about 2400 km from Arunachal Pradesh in the east to Jammu and Kashmir in the west. Its width varies between 240 km and 320km The total area of this region is 5 lakh km² and average height is about 5100 metres or 17000 feet.

(B) Origin: - These mountain ranges began to be uplifted about 400 lakhs years ago. At the present site of the Himalayas there was a sea of Tethys and on sea bed sediments were deposited which were brought by the then rivers from the Tibetan plateau in the north and Gondwana land (Deccan Plateau) in the south. Due to the internal forces of the earth both the plates started moving towards each other. As a result folds occurred in their sediments and their height increased. These mountains are still rising. Due to the great heights, these young folded mountains are snow covered as 'Himalayas' or Him wala. These mountains are also known as the 'Himvan' or Himadri' or Himachal'.

Model 2.1: Classification of India's Physical Divisions





Based upon survey of India Map with the permission of the surveyor General of India.

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(C) Shape:- The shape of the Himalayas is like a convex curve towards our country, whose middle portion is curved till the Nepal border. Many a times it looks like a bow which has threads on its two ends in the form of mountains, reaching on one side from Safed Koh, Suleman and Kuithar to Arabian sea in the north-western part and to the other side in the north-eastern part, going upto the Bay of Bengal, along Indo-Burma hills from Arakanyoma to Tenasserim mountain ranges. Try to see the extent of these mountain ranges in your Atlas.

(D) Slope: - Slope of these mountain ranges in south towards India is very steep, whereas it has gentle slope towards China in the north. That is why it is difficult to cross these from the south. Due to steep slope and height, waterfall and narrow river valleys are found mostly on the southern slopes. They provide water to the rivers of north India, throughout the year, which is a natural boon to the great plains of India.

(E) Classification: - The Himalayan complex can be sub-divided on the basis of height into the following five sub-divisions from north to the south:

- (I) The Trans Himalayas
- (II) The Great Himalayas
- (III) The Lesser Himalayas
- (IV) The Outer Himalayas
- (V) Off - Shoots.

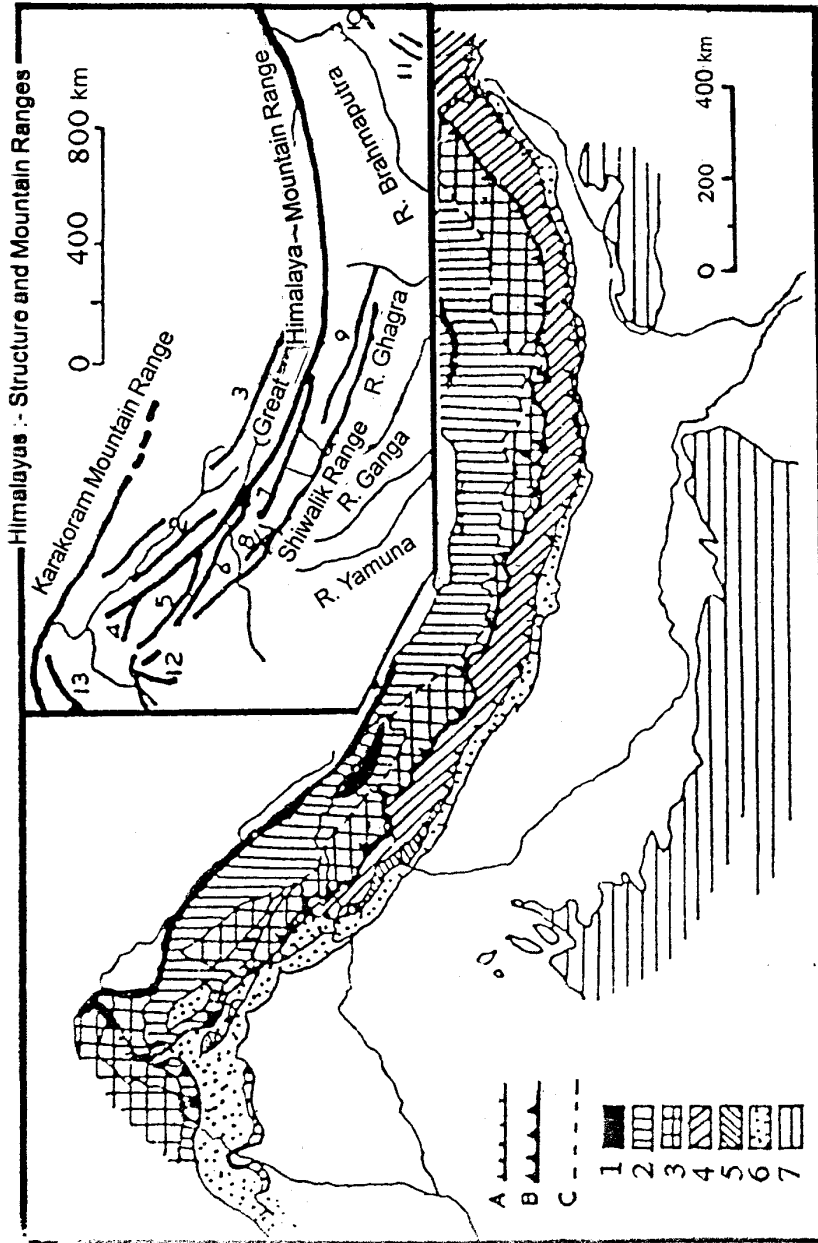
(I) The Trans Himalayas

These great ranges of the Himalayan mountains extend from the Pamir Knot in the north-west of India towards north-east parallel to each other. These are also known as 'Tibet Himalaya' because most of these fall in Tibet. Their total length is 970 kilometres. Their width at the ends is 40 kilometres while in central part, the width is almost 222 kilometres. Their average height is 6100 metres. The important mountain ranges are Zaskar, Karakoram, Ladakh and Kailash. This mountainous region is famous for high and folded peaks and for huge glaciers. Mount K2 Mount Godwin Austin (8611 metres) is the highest peak of this region and is second highest peak of the world. Hidden Peak (8068 metres), Brand Peak (8047 metres), Gaysherboom (8035 metres), Racka-Pashi (7788 metres), and Harmosh (7397 metres) etc are its other important peaks. Hispar and Batugh (57 Kilometres) and Beacko and Baltoro (60 kilometres) are the famous glaciers of this range.

(II) The Great Himalayas

(a) Name: This part of Himalayan region is also known as Himadri, or Inner Himalayas or the central Himalayas.

(b) Extent: This sub-division is the longest and highest mountain range of the country which extends from the deep Gorge of Indus river in the west to the Dihang Valley of the Brahmaputra river in the north-east. These mountains are



composed of the Archean era's crystalline metamorphic rocks like granite, gneisses and the schists of old geological ages.

(c) Size: The length of this mountain range is 2400 kilometres and average height is 6000 metres or 20000 feet. Its breadth ranges from 100 to 190 kilometres.

(d) Summits/peaks: Some of the highest peaks of the world are situated in this range. The Mt. Everest (8848 m.) is the highest peak of the world. The other important high peaks are Kanchanjanga (8598 m.), Makalu (8481 m.) Dhaulagiri (8172 m.), Mansalu (8156 m.), Choe-Olju (8153 m.), Nangaparbat (8126 m.), Annapurana (8078 m.) Nanda Devi (7871 m.), Nancha Barwa (7756 m.) and Harmosh (7397 m.).

(e) Passes: It is very difficult and dangerous to cross this mountainous sub-division. But still many passes are found to go to Tibet at the height above 4500 metres. Main examples of such passes are Burzil and Zojila in Kashmir, Lanak La, Chang La, Khurnak La in Ladakh, Bata Khepcha La, Korika and Shipki La in Himachal Pradesh, Thag La, Niti, Lipu Lekh, Tatkala Kot in Uttar Pradesh and Nathula, Jelep La in Sikkim.

The trade between India and Tibet by road is only through two passes out of from the above mentioned passes. Shipki La joins Shimla and Gartok and Jeep la joins Kalimpong and Lhasa through the Indo-Tibet roads.

(f) Valleys: Being snow bound for most of the year the mountain ranges of the greater Himalayas are also known as the snowy ranges. Because of this perennial rivers have originated. Due to the deposition of the sediments brought by these rivers into lakes at the height of 1500 metres, large valleys have been formed. The valley of Kathmandu and valley of Kashmir are famous from this view point.

(III) The Lesser Himalayas

This third division of Himalayan region is also known as Himachal or Middle Himalaya. They were originated about 30 lakh years ago. Its average height is between 3500 and 5000 metres while average width is between 60 to 80 km The 'southern spurs' of the Great Himalayas join this region. On higher reaches, the snow falls in the winter season and pleasant weather conditions prevails in summers.

(a) Ranges: Pir Panjal and Nag Tibba in Kashmir, Dhauladhar in Himachal, Mahabharat in Nepal, Mussorie in Uttar Pradesh and Thimphu in Bhutan are the main mountain ranges of this mountainous division.

(b) Valleys: This region has long and recreational valleys, like Kashmir Valley, Kangra Valley, Kullu Valley, Bhagirati Valley and Mandakini Valleys.

(c) Health resorts and tourist centres: Many beautiful tourist and health centres like Shimla, Srinagar, Mussoorie, Nainital, Darjiling and Chakrata etc. are found in this region.

(IV) The Outer Himalayas

This mountainous region of Himalaya is also known as the Shiwaliks, Sub-Himalayas and southern Himalayas. These mountain ranges extend parallel in the south of lesser Himalayas from east to west direction. Their average height varies between is 900 to 1200 metres and width is between 15 to 50 kilometres. This region was formed during the tertiary period. Long and deep sedimentary rocks are found in this region. These are formed by the deposition of clayey soil, sand stones, and slate etc. eroded by rivers from the Himalayas. Later on during the tertiary period these sedimentary rocks got converted into the folded mountains due the internal forces of the earth. These mountains blocked the passage of the south flowing rivers and formed lakes, which were filled with sediments and came to be known as 'doons'. In the east these are called 'Duars'. Most famous among these are Dehradun, Patlidun, Kothridun, Chaukhamba, Udhampur and Kotli.

(V) The Off-Shoots

The Himalayan mountain ranges at their eastern and western margins take the north -south direction. These hills found on the edges are known as eastern and western off-shoots respectively.

(a) The Eastern Off-Shoots: These off-shoots are also known as Purvanchal. These ranges start from Dihang gorge of Brahmpurtra in Arunachal Pradesh, and gets divided into two parts after making the boundary between eastern India and Myanmar (Burma):

(i) Formed by Ganga-Brahamputra, one off-shoot reaches the plains of Bangladesh, in which Dapha Bum, Patkai Bum, Garo, Khasi, Jaintia and Tripura hills are included.

(ii) The second off-shoot reaches the delta of Irawadi, starting from Patkai Bum to Naga hills, Brail, and Lusai.

Dapha Bum (4578 metres), Saramati (3926 metres) and Jpau are the main peaks in these eastern off-shoots of Himalayas.

(b) The Western Off-Shoots: From the Pamir Knot in the north-west, the Himalayan ranges gets divided into two sub-off-shoots. The first off-shoot reaches the Arabian Sea in the south-western direction running through the middle of Salt Range of Pakistan, Suleman and Kirthar. The second off-shoot joins the HinduKush of Afghanistan and Caucasus mountains.

(2) The Great Northern Plains

(i) Situation: These plains stretch from the Indus river in the west to the Brahmputra river in the east. These plains of India stretches from the arid plains of Rajasthan to the humid areas of Assam. To the north of these great plains lie the southern slopes of Himalaya mountains, while to their south these are adjoined by the northern dissected parts of the Deccan plateau.

(ii) Size: Between the river Ravi and the delta of Ganga the total length of

these plains approximate 2400 kilometres and their width is between 100 to 300 kilometres. However, their width varies from 90 kilometres in the valley of Assam in the east, and 200 kilometres in Bihar upto 500 kilometres in the Rajasthan regions in west. Its height above the mean sea level is 180 metres or 600 feet. The depth of this plain is estimated between 5 to 32 kilometres and covers a total area of about 7.5 lakh sq. km

(iii) Formation: The deposition by three main river systems has contributed to the formation of these great plains. Sutlej in the west, Ganga in the middle and lower parts and Brahmaputra in east, along with their tributaries deposited huge amount of soils. This deep and elongated trough was formed between the Himalayas and the peninsular plateau during the Tertiary era with the internal compressional activities of the earth, in which water of the Tethys had been collected after the rise of Himalayas. Rivers originating from the Himalayas and the Gondwana land had regularly been depositing sediments for a long period and in present times also due to the deposition of 3 lakh tons of alluvium every year by the Ganga river in the Bay of Bengal, this plain is continuously increasing in its length.

(iv) Surface features:

(a) Levelled Plains: Whole of the north Indian plain is flat and levelled. The slope is so gentle that generally it is difficult to recognize.

(b) River Network: This entire plain region has a network of rivers and choes due to which Doab regions have been formed. The name of our Punjab state is also due to the flow of five rivers and due to the continuous deposition of alluvium by the waters of these five rivers. In Persian language Punj means five and aab means water. Hence the name 'Punjab' has been given to this area.

(c) Landforms: Because whole of the plain is formed by the deposition of alluvium by the rivers, that is why landforms like alluvial fans, alluvial cones, meandering river terraces, natural levees, flood plains are found in it.

(d) Sediments: The deposition of different layers of soils by deposition in these plains has uninterruptedly been going on from very long times. The sediments therefore include clay, sand loam and silt in larger amounts. The clay is found more near the mouths of rivers, whereas the sands are predominant in the upper reaches.

(e) Surface variations: Although these plains are flat but when seen closely, their relief varies in terms of deposition of sediments. Due to the continuous deposition of sediments over a long period of time, the formation of following alluvial plains has taken place.

(i) Khadar plains: Due to annual floods in the rivers of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal, there is deposition of newer alluvium. Such areas which are under the influence of floods, close to the rivers are known as the Khadar plains. These plain areas are known as 'Bet' in Punjab.

(ii) **Bangar plains:** Those uplands which remains almost free from the flood water and there is greater amount of lime-stone in the older alluvium are known as Bangar plains. In Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh these are called as Reh, Kallar or Dhaya.

(iii) **Bhabar plains:** When the rivers of North India after leaving the Shiwalik hill regions, enter the flat plains, then they deposit sand, pebbles, silt, stones and gravels etc brought down by them and give rise to plains which are known locally as Bhabar or Ghar. In such plain areas, the water of small streams generally flows below the surface of land rather than on the surface.

(iv) **Terai plains:** The water that sinks underground in the Bhabar plains, reappears on the surface, and this water converts large areas along the rivers into marshy lands. This humid and marshy land, running parallel to the Shiwalik hills in a long belt, has hot and humid conditions and hence there is abundance of dense forests and wild life. This region is known as the terai plain.

(v) **Bad lands:** In north peninsular plateau and foothills of western Shiwalik hills, due to gully erosion by the rivers, streams and rain, narrow valleys and ravines are formed. The land not fit for agriculture in such plain areas is known as the bad land. The fertility of land in these plains is almost negligible.

(f) **Division:** Besides the variations in deposition of alluvium, the macro level regional distribution of these plains is equally important. This east-west extending vast plain can be divided into following four macro regions:

- (i) The Punjab-Haryana plains
- (ii) The Thar desert plains
- (iii) The Ganga plains
- (iv) The Brahmaputra plains

(i) **The Punjab-Haryana plains:** These owe their origin to the aggradational work of the Sutlej, the Beas and the Ravi rivers. This uniform and flat plain is formed by the Indus and its five tributaries. Due to the creation of the international border between India and Pakistan in 1947, greater part of it went to Pakistan. To the other side, due to the rise of the surface near Delhi, the Yamuna had started flowing towards east. Delhi and its surrounding area work as a water-divide between the Ganga and the Indus river drainage systems. Its length in east and south-west direction from Pakistan border to the Yamuna river is 500 kilometres and is 640 km long from north-east to south-west. The height of the plains varies from 300 m in the north to 200 m in the south-east. The slope of this plain is towards south-west. The low and hard residential rocks of Delhi and Mahendergarh district separate it from the Ganga plains. The total area of this fertile plain is 1.75 lakh km². The interfluves formed on the basis of river boundaries can be divided into four sub-divisions:

- (a) Area between the Ravi and the Beas is known as Bari Doab or the Majha plain

- (b) Area between the Beas and the Satluj is called Bist Doab or the Doaba region
- (c) Plain area spreading from the Satluj to the Malwa plateau is termed as the Malwa plain, and
- (d) The flat area from the Ghaggar to the Yamuna is known as the plain of Haryana.

(ii) The Thar Desert Plains: The drier and flat area extending from the southern parts of Punjab and Haryana to the Rann of Kutch of Gujarat is known as the Thar-Desert. The Aravalli mountain ranges form its eastern boundary and the international boundary falls to its west. This tract is about 640 km long and 300 km wide and covers an area of 1,75,000 sq. km. It is also called the western plain. Its height above the mean sea level is between 120 to 150 metres. Most of this arid plain was under the sea from the permo-carboniferous period until it was uplifted during the Pleistocene. The existence of several land forms features of river Sabarmati and Markanda indicate that the region was once fertile. At present seasonal streams like Bandi, Jajri, Sukri etc and many salt lakes like Sambhar are found in this region. Due to the scarcity of rain whole of the region has become sand duned. The sand dunes are 50 to 100 metres high in Barmer district. In whole of this dry region the action of wind is very fast. Westward along the Aravallis, there are found fertile plains (Rohi), important among which are the Gang Rohi and the Godawar Rohi.

(iii) The Ganga Plains:

(i) Situation: This plain is spread over the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar. Extending from Yamuna in the west, the international boundary of Bangladesh in east, Shiwaliks in the north and the northern extension of the peninsular plateau in the south, this vast and fertile plain is important from the historical, agriculture and dense population point of view.

(ii) Rivers: The Ganga, the Yamuna, the Ghaghra, the Gandaer, the Sone, the Kosi, the Betwa and the Chambal rivers have deposited a 2000 metres deep sediments here.

(iii) Landform Names: The marshy belts formed in the northern Terai region of this plain are known as Caus, whereas along the southern borders of this plain there are large Ravines which are called 'Jala' and 'Tal' or Bad lands. Beside these, the whole plain has long belts of deposits of older alluvium or Bangar and Newer deposits of Khadar alluvium which vary in height between 15 to 30 metres. These are known as 'Khol' here. The belts of sand dunes formed by the depositional action of the wind are found in the Doab region of the Ganga and the Yamuna. These are called the 'Bhur' in Muradabad and Bijnaur districts of Uttar Pradesh.

(iv) Slope: The slope of entire Ganga plain is towards east. The plain covers an area of about 3.57 lakh km².

(v) **Division:** The Ganga plains can be divided into three sub-divisions on the basis of height:

(a) **The upper Ganga plain:** This is also called the Ganga-Yamuna Doab. The Yamuna river is to its west and the gently sloping areas with 100 m. height forms its eastern border. Ruhelkhand and Awadh plains are also its parts. Besides the Ganga-Yamuna rivers, the Ramganga, the Hinden, the Chambal, the Betwa, the Kali, and the Pandu etc rivers deposits have also contributed in the formation of these plains.

(b) **The middle Ganga plain:** This plain is also known as the Bihar plain or the Mithila plain. Its height is between 50 to 100 metres. It covers an area of 35000 km² from the Ghaghra river to the Kosi river. The rivers Ganga, Ghaghra, Gandak, Kosi, Son and Rohini etc. had deposited sediments in it. Due to the very gentle slope, landforms like oxbow-lakes, natural levees, and shifting meanders are found in large numbers.

(c) **The lower Ganga plain:** This plain area of Ganga, upto an height of 50 m. above mean sea level, is a flat deltaic region lying between the gap in the Rajmahal and the Garo hill ranges. It is located in the state of West Bengal and Bangladesh. Duars of the terai tract are found in its north and the world's largest Sunderbans Delta is located in its southern parts. This alluvial plain is formed by the deposition of sediment brought down by the Ganga and its tributaries (Bhagirathi and Hugli), Damodar, Suvarn Rekha and Tista.

(iv) **The Brahmaputra plains:** These plains are also called the Assam plains. This plain region extend from the western border of Assam to the extreme north-eastern part Sadiya of Assam. It is a narrow plain which is about 640 km long and 90 to 100 km wide. The Brahmaputra, Sesari, Dibang and the Lohit rivers has brought the alluvium (soil) from the Himalayas and surrounding hill ranges and has deposited here. Due to yearly floods this narrow plain is renewed by the deposition of newer sediments. The slope of this plain is from north-east to west.

(3) Peninsular Plateau Region:

(i) **Situation:** This plateau region stretches to the south of the Great Northern Plains and is a triangular ancient tabular block which has its apex in the south at Cape Comorin (Kanyakumari). It is formed essentially of the ancient Gondwana land hard and crystalline rocks. Its base areas are adjoined by the Indian Ocean towards south, the Bay of Bengal to the east and the Arabian sea towards west. Surrounded by sea from three sides, this triangular land block is also known as the Peninsula. On the basis of its situation, surrounded from all sides by the flat plains, this plateau region is also considered as a continental plateau.

(ii) **Size:** Extending from Aravallis in the north-west to the Shilong plateau in the north-east and Kanyakumari in the south, this triangular hard block of land occupies almost 50 per cent of the total land area of the country. Its total area is 16 lakh km² and the elevation varies from 600 to 900 metres.

(iii) Surface Formation:

(a) Origin: Entire peninsular plateau was born before the origin of the Himalayas during pre-cambrian era i.e., 50 crore years ago, with the silent flow of lava which had come to the southern part of India due to the internal movements of the earth almost 7 crore years ago during the tertiary period.

(b) Structure: This plateau is formed of ancient igneous rocks. In the high hills and the plateau region, the hard rocks like Gneisses, Quartz and marble are found. These hilly regions are found in residual form due to their erosion over millions of years. Besides this, due to the pressure from the Tibet plateau, it has experienced fracturing and faulting.

(iv) Division: The peninsular plateau region is not even. Rather there exist variations in height, slope and erosion in its surface. Therefore, on the basis of east-west extending Satpura ranges and the slope of the land, this peninsular region is broadly divided into two parts. Its northern part slopes towards north or north-east and the general slope of the southern part is towards south-east. The northern part is known as the Malwa plateau while the southern part is known as the Deccan plateau.

(i) The Malwa Plateau: Bounded by the Aravalli mountains in the west; Bundel Khand and Baghel in the north; Chota Nagpur, Rajmahal Hills to the Shilong plateau, in the east; and the Satpura hills in south, this triangular landmass is called the Malwa plateau. Its apex is at the Shillong plateau. The northern border of this plateau is concave in shape. This northern part of the Peninsular plateau slopes towards the north and rivers like Banas, Chambal, Ken and Betwa has converted it into deep and narrow valleys called ravines. The Chota Nagpur plateau is to the east of this plateau. Rich in natural minerals, this dissected lava plateau includes Hazaribagh, Gaya and Ranchi plateaus also. Its average height is 900 metres. Parasnath (1365 m.) and Netrahappat (1119 m.) are its highest peaks. Due to the deposition of 100 m. thick alluvium soil in the gap between its adjoining Rajmahal hills and the Shillong plateau, there has emerged a south-east sloping plain relief. This Malwa plateau has three major mountain ranges: (1) The Aravalli mountain range (2) The Vindhya mountain range (3) The Satpura hills.

(1) The Aravalli Mountain Range: Extending for about 725 kilometres from Delhi to Gujarat (Gir Hills) in the south west direction, these parallel ranges are residential hills, which has Guru Shikhar Peak (1722 metres) of Mount Abu as the highest peak.

(2) The Vindhya Mountain Range: Actually, on the southern slopes of the Vindhya mountain ranges, the escarpment boundary of the Malwa plateau is formed, under which the rift valley is formed and Narmada river flows in this valley towards the west. The western part of these mountain ranges is formed of lava. The eastern lava free parts are called the Kaimur and Bhaner ranges.

(3) **The Satpura Hills:** The Satpura hills are formed of the seven layers of lava. Running along the southern bank of Narmada river, with the Maikal and Mahadeo hills in the east, these reach the Chota Nagpur plateau of Jharkhand. Dhumgarh (1350 m.) and Amarkantaka (1127 m.) near Panchmarhi are among the highest peaks of these hills. The length of the Satpura ranges is 1120 km Their western parts are known as the Rajpipla hills and eastern part as the Amarkantaka plateau. Rising from the eastern parts, the river Tapti also flows in the rift valley in westerly direction and enters the Arabian sea without forming a delta.

(ii) **The Deccan Plateau:** Falling between the Shatmala, Ajanta and Balaghat hills in the north; the western ghats in the west; the eastern ghat in the east; and the cardamom hills in the south, this huge plateau was formed due to the continuous flow of lava during the tertiary era (122 crore years ago). It covers an area of about 7 lakh sq. km and slopes from northwest to southeast. Its average elevation is from 300 to 900 metres. Seasonal streams had badly dissected its surface and has divided it into a number of clearly demarcated physical units: (1) Maharashtra table-land (2) Dandakaryana-Chhattisgarh region (3) Telangana plateau (4) Karnataka plateau (5) western ghats (6) eastern ghats, and (7) southern hill group.

1. **The Maharashtra Table-Land:** This plateau region is formed of the Basaltic lava rocks, which has been converted into a number of basins by the erosional activity of many rivers like Godavari, Bhima, Krishna, Vardha and Venganga. The north-western part is known as the Marathwara table land, where Godavari and Majhira basins are found. The Vardha and Venganga with the help of their basins had formed the Vidharbha region in its eastern part. The upper basins are formed by the Krishna, Bhema and Sind rivers in the south.

2. **The Dandakaryana-Chhattisgarh Region:** This region lies between the Bastar district of Chhattisgarh and Koraput district of Orissa. The upper valleys of Mahanadi and Venganga and Sivunath and Indravati river basins are found in it. This undulating, dissected and hard rock forested region is known as Dandakaryana. It has basaltic rocks of the Cuddapah age, alongwith limestone and shale. The Chhattisgarh plain formed by the Mahandi, covers an area of 7300 km² in this region.

3. **The Telengana Plateau:** The gently sloping area of the Karnataka plateau in Andhra Pradesh, which extends towards the east is known as the Telengana plateau. It is characterised by rounded hills, rolling plains, broad open river valleys and big rocky boulders. It is also called as the Andhra Pradesh plateau.

4. **The Karnataka Plateau:** Areas, situated in the middle parts of Deccan plateau, having an elevation of 600 m. above mean sea level are known as Karnataka plateau. Its height increases to 1100 m. towards the south whereas the high table land of 900 to 1100 m. is called as the Mysore plateau. The maximum height in this part of the deccan plateau is of Baba Budan Hills.

These have a width of 35-45 km. The hilly and dissected parts are known as Malnad while the rolling plain areas covered with granite layer are known as the Maidan. In the entire plateau, deep valleys had been formed due to the weathering and erosional work done by the Krishna, Tungabhadra, Pennar and Cauvery rivers.

5. The Western Ghat: The mountain range running continuously parallel to the coast for about 1600 km along the western border of the Deccan plateau, from that of the river Tapi to Cape Comorin (Kanyakumari) is known as the Western Ghat or the Sahyadris hills. Their average height is 1200 metres. The waterfalls, gorges and steep slopes present a view of the landscape of youthful stage. In this long north-south range of mountains, there are three passes: Thalghat, Bhorghat and Palghat. Jog or Gersoppa falls (250 m.) are formed on the west flowing Sharvati river. From Thalghat pass to southern hill group, Vavul Mala (2339 m.), Kudremukh (1894 m.), Pushpagiri (1714 m.), Kal Subai (1646 m.), Salher (1567 m.), Mahabaleshwar (1438 m.) and Harichandragarh (1424 m.) are among the highest peaks.

6. The Eastern Ghat: The semi-plateau areas of the Deccan plateau, which are about 800 km in length and are 500 metre high and run from the Mahanadi valley in the north to Niligiri hills in south are known as the eastern ghats. As compared to the western ghats, these are wider, dissected, parallel to the coast, and are landmasses of low and broken hills. The east flowing rivers divide these ghats into three parts - the northern, the middle and the southern.

- (i) The hill ranges of the northern division are found between Mahandi and Godavari rivers, with an average height of 900 m. In these the Mahendragiri (1500 m.) is the highest peak.
- (ii) The middle division is located between the Krishna and Pennar rivers in the Cuddapah and Kurnool districts. The Nallamalli, Palkonda and Velikonda hills are found in this part.
- (iii) In the southern division from Pennar river to the Niligiri hills, there are found Jawaddi, Gingee, Shivrai, Kollaimalai, Pachaimalai, Gondumalai, Beligir and Rangan hills.

7. The Southern Hill Group: The place where the hills from the northern parts of the Deccan plateau, join the hills of the western and the eastern ghats, in the extreme south, is known as the southern hill groups or the Niligiri hills. The Nilgiris or the Blue mountains have an average height is 1220 m. Due to the meeting of three mountain ranges coming from different directions on these hills, there is formed a 2695 m. high Anaimudi Knot. The mountain ranges like cardamom or Elami from the south; Anaimalai from the north; and Palni from northeast meet here. The highest peaks in this whole hill group are Doda Betta (2637 m.) and Makurti (2554 m.). Doda Betta, Ootacamund, Palni and Kodaikana (2195 m.) are the main hills stations.

(4) Coastal Plains

The Deccan plateau is surrounded on three sides by long low lying plains running along the coast from Kuchchh area of Gujarat through kanyakumari to the Mahanadi delta. These narrow plains have been formed by the deposition work of the sea or rivers and the emergence or submergence of ocean coasts. The coastal plains formed at the eastern and western margins of the peninsular plateau are very different from each other. As compared to the eastern plains the western plains are less wide more humid, have larger number of narrow bays, beautiful lagoons, marshy areas and parallel reefs. Therefore, on the basis of their situation, the coastal plains can be divided into two parts: (i) The western coastal plains (ii) The eastern coastal plains.

(i) The Western Coastal Plain: The narrow and flat plains extending in the north to south direction, for about 1500 km in length and 30 to 80 km in width, between the Arabian sea and the western ghats is known as the western coastal plain. They slopes towards the south and south-west. On the basis of surface characteristics these plains can be divided into four main parts. 1) The Gujarat coastal plain, 2) The Konkan coastal plain, 3) The Malabar coastal plain, and 4) The Kerala coastal plain.

(1) The Gujarat Coastal Plain: This coastal plain lies in the north of western coast. The deposition of sediments by the rivers like Sabarmati, Mahi, Luni, Banas, Narmada and Tapi has given rise to the formation of peninsular plains of Kuchchh and Kathiawad and elongated plain of Saurashtra. The Rann of Kuchchh is still marshy and below the sea level. Gir mountain ranges of lava are also found in the peninsular part of Kathiawar. The Gorakhnath (1117 m.) is the highest peak in the Girnar hills. This coastal plain of Gujarat is 400 km long, 200 km wide and 300 m. high. But after reaching Daman and Diu in Saurashtra, their width reduces to 80 km and height becomes only 150 m.

(2) The Konkan Coastal Plain: The plain stretching from Daman to Goa is known as the Konkan coast. The submergence of coastal parts is generally seen. That is why, this 500 km long plain strip reduces to the width of 50 to 80 km. Due to the impact of strong sea waves many narrow bays, gulfs, internal coves and beaches of sand etc landforms are found in this plain. The famous Mumbai island is situated in the creek of Thana. Besides these, two very small and steep sloping river valleys namely Vaitarna and Ulhas are also found in this coastal region.

(3) The Malabar Coastal Plain: Almost 225 km long and 24 km wide plain from Goa to Mangalore is also known as the plain of Malabar coast or the Karnataka coastal plain. It is narrow in the north and wide in the south. However, at many places it extends upto Kanyakumari (Cape Comorin). Submerged Estuaries of river Marmagoa, Mandau and Sheravati are found in this plain.

(4) The Kerala Coastal Plain: Nearly 500 km long, 10 km wide and 30 m

high plain areas extending from Mangalore to cape comorin (Kanyakumari) are known as the Kerala plain. It has a number of lakes (lagoons). The off-shore parallel reefs make the water of land to stand in the form of backwaters, which are locally named as Kayal. These are linked together to permit continuous navigation by country-crafts. The Ashtamudi and the Vembanad lakes are spread on a large area and are used for boating.

(ii) The Eastern Coastal Plain: These coastal plains have the Bay of Bengal to their east and the eastern ghats to their west. These extend from the delta of Subaranrekha river in the north to Kanyamumari in the south for about 2000 km Their average width is 150 km and height 100 m. As compared to the western plains, these are more wide, higher, arid, are formed of deltaic alluvium and have big lagoons. On the basis of location, these plains are divided into two sub-divisions : a) the Northern coastal plain b) the southern coastal plain

(a) The northern coastal plain: The extent of these plains is near the 16^o north latitude, from the mouth of Krishna river to the mouth of the Subaranrekha river. It is nearly 1100 km long and 120 km wide. This plain is also known as the Golconda, North Cricar and Kokunada plains. The deltaic plain of Mahanadi near the coast of Orissa is also known as the Orissa plain or the Utkal coastal plain.

Low and wider deltaic areas have been formed in this plain region by the deposition of soil brought from the Deccan plateau by the Subaranrekha, Brahmani, Mahanadi, Indravati, Godavari and Krishana rivers. Besides these deltaic regions, two big lakes are also found here. The Chilka lake is 70 km long, in which Bhargavi and Daya rivers fall. Between the Krishna and Godavari deltas is the second large lake namely the Kolleru lake.

(b) The southern coastal plains: These plains extending for about 900 km from the delta of Krishana river to Kanyakumari, are also called as the Coromandal Coast. These are much wider than the northern plains. At many places their width exceeds 150 km The rivers like Krishna, Pannar, Cauvery and Viagia have brought the soil from southern hills groups and have formed vast, fertile deltas. Pulicat lake and Cauvery delta are the main surface features of this plain.

(5) The Indian Islands

Besides the main land, Indian Republic has its control over the islands in the sea also. India has almost a total of 250 islands. On the basis of their location, Indian islands are divided into two main sub-divisions – a) offshore b) on shore.

(a) The offshore islands: The total number of such islands is about 230. According to their sea location these are sub-divided into two groups. (1) The island group of Arabian sea (2) The island group of Bay of Bengal

(1) The island group of Arabian Sea: Formed with the deposition of coral reefs in south-eastern Arabian sea these islands are known as Lakshadweep

islands. They are 25 in number and the whole group has three major parts. The northern islands are named as Amindivi, the middle as Laccadive and the southern as Minicoy.

(2) The island group of Bay of Bengal: The 350 km long chain of these islands extends to the east of Bay of Bengal in north-south direction. Among these 200 islands, some islands are the raised parts of the peaks of submerged hill and some have been formed by the volcanic eruption of lava. These islands also have three main parts. 1) The Andaman island group 2) The Nicobar 3) The other adjoining islands.

The Andaman island group alone has 120 islands. To the south these, after Ten degree channel, 18 islands fall in the Nicobar island group. In this group, the Indira point of the Great Nicobar island contains the southern most point of the territory of entire India. Besides these, the islands like Narkondam, Barren, Ratland, Baratang are also found in this island group.

(b) The onshore islands: These include Sagar, Short, Wheeler and Newmoor etc. islands near the Ganga delta. Similarly, Bharra near Chilka lake; Pamban; Mandapus, Crocodile near southern coast of Tamil Nadu, Elephanta near Mumbai and Diu near the Gujarat coast etc are some of the big islands. The Bays of Khambat and Kuchchh too have many different sized islands.

Regional Continuity and Complimentarity

Although the country has been divided into different physical units for a comprehensive study but this doesn't mean that the above mentioned mountains, plains and plateau areas are different from each other and they have been demarcated by specific boundaries on the surface. Rather, these are all interrelated and inter-dependent. Their interdependence can be seen through their region and the availability of natural reserves.

(A) Origin:

- (i) Himalayan mountains have originated only as a result of the emergence of peninsular plateau.
- (ii) The great plains have been formed by the annual deposition of material brought down from the Himalayas and the peninsular plateau.
- (iii) The formation of hills, rift valleys and faults on the peninsular plateau has been due to pressure exerted by the Himalayan ranges.
- (iv) The formation of the coastal plains had been possible due to the deposition of material brought from the peninsular ghats.

(B) Natural Reserves:

- (i) The Himalaya mountains, because of being covered with thick ice, are great reserves for the availability of water throughout the year. Their steep slopes provide ideal sites for the construction of dams for generation of

hydro-electricity. The adjoining fertile river valley plains have been formed only with the soils obtained from these mountains. The soft wood forests found on these mountain ranges are the main sources of fuelwood, various medicinal herbs and timber for furniture etc. These mountains have beautiful and winsome health resorts, rare wild life, hilly fruits, herbs and tourist places etc. which make them important. Besides these facts, in the north, the Himalayan mountains have always stood as a great wall and has not only helped in protecting the security and culture of the country from foreign invasions but they have also been protecting India from the cold blizzards generated by the continental winter high pressure system of north-eastern and central Asia. In this way life and agriculture in the plain and plateau areas of the country have been protected.

(ii) The great northern plain along the Himalayas provide support to nearly 40% population of the country. Their fertile soils, favourable climate and flat terrain has made a great contribution to extension of canals, roads, railways and cities and in the development of agriculture. Due to this, these plain areas have pride for being the food basket of the country and save the country from hunger and famines. These have created a special kind of culture and society since the Aryans to the recent times. The river Ganga is still the sacred for people all over the country and the places like Rishikesh, Haridwar, Mathura, Prayag, Ayodhya and Kashi etc. in its valley are the centre of attraction for Sufis and religious peoples living in different parts of the country. Later, in these plain areas only the Sikh Gurus, Mahatama Buddha, Mahavira Jain etc were born and different religions related with them prospered. The strong impact of these religions could be seen on Himalayas and on south India. Mughal Empires were so impressed by the towns and cities located in these plain areas that they established their capitals here and ruled the country.

(iii) The peninsular plateau is a great store house of almost all types of minerals. These include huge reserves of iron, coal, manganese, copper, mica, bauxite, etc. The modern industry of the country depends on these. The lava soils provide a base for cotton and laterite soils for tea, coffee and rubber and hence are making an important contribution to the development of agriculture and agro-based industries. The mixed deciduous species of forests like Teak & Sandal satisfy the demands of timber wood of the entire country. The water falls and dams located on both sides of the ghats of the plateau provide water for irrigation in the coastal plains and electricity for industrial development.

(iv) Country's coastal plains and islands are famous for the production and international trade of quality rice, arecanut, date-palm, coconut, spices, pepper, ginger, cloves and cardamom. Though these plains quality fish are supplied to all parts of the country. Harbours on the sea coasts of these plains connect the entire country with other countries. Sea Beaches of Goa, Mumbai, Tamil Nadu and Orissa attract tourists form all over the country.

Besides, salt used in our homes is also prepared in the western coastal plains. Thus, we find that different physical units of the land of the country are not independent and isolated units but with complete interdependence, these are contributing very strongly to strengthen the culture and economy of the country.

Exercise

I. Answer the following questions objectively :

1. Name main units of India's physical divisions?
2. What is the size of Himalayan mountain range?
3. How did Himalayan mountain regions originate?
4. Name the major peaks of Trans-Himalaya?
5. Which mountain peaks are found at the height above 8000 metres in Greater Himalayas?
6. Name the young and old mountains of India.
7. Where are rift valleys located in India?
8. What is meant by delta?
9. Name some important deltaic regions of India.
10. Which passes are found in Himalayan mountains.
11. Name the important mountain ranges of lesser Himalayan.
12. Which hill stations and valleys are found in lesser Himalayas?
13. Name the main doon valleys of our country.
14. Name the major eastern off shoots of Himalayas.
15. Which landform features formed by rivers found in the Great Northern plains?
16. Which inter-fluves are formed in North-Western plains?
17. What is the size of the Brahmaputra plain?
18. What is the extent of Aravalli Mountain range? Give the name of its highest peak.
19. What are the sub-divisions of Mysore plateau?
20. Name the major peaks of the western ghats.
21. Name the Southern mountains of the Eastern ghats.
22. Which mountains ranges meets at the Anai Mudi Knot?
23. Which Hill Stations are found in Deccan plateau's hilly region?
24. What are the sub-divisions of North-Eastern coastal plains?
25. Name the Islands in Arabian Sea !
26. Which onshore Islands are found near the coasts of India?
27. Where is the Southern frontier-point located?
28. Give any five uses of Himalayan Mountains.

29. Give any three important effects of the peninsular plateau.
30. Give any three uses of the coastal plains to the entire country.

II. Answer the following questions in short :

1. Give any two proofs of Himalayas successive upliftments.
2. Do we find any similarities between the Himalayan Mountains and the Deccan plateau?
3. Are the Himalayan Mountains still in their youth or young stage?
4. Throw some light on the surface features of the Great Himalayas.
5. Which alluvial plains have been formed in the Great Northern plains?
6. Write a geographical note on the Thar desert.
7. What could be the different divisions of Indian Islands on the basis of their location? Explain with examples and diagram.
8. What is the contribution of coastal plains to the entire country?
9. The western coastal plains of India are not only narrow but are also without Deltaic deposits, explain.
10. What is the contribution of Himalayan Regions to the development of the country as a whole.
11. How does the Peninsular plateau affect the other physical regions of India?
12. Differentiate between
 - (i) Terai and Bhabhar
 - (ii) Bangar and Khadar
 - (iii) Choe and waste land
 - (iv) Estuary and Delta

III. Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Divide the relief of India and explain in detail any one region.
2. Write a note on the origin and structure of Himalayas and are they still rising?
3. Compare the Western and Eastern coastal plains.
4. Divide the Himalayan mountains with the help of a stretch diagram and give the characteristics of all the sub-divisions.
5. Give a detailed description of size, origin and regional division of India's Great Northern plains.
6. What is the extent and surface formation of Peninsular plateau? Describe its different sub-divisions on the basis of slope of the land.
7. Compare and contrast the surface features of the Himalayas and the Peninsular plateau.
8. Explain with the help of diagram, the Western and Eastern Himalayan sub-ranges.

9. Write short notes on:
- (a) Vindhyaçal
 - (b) Satpura
 - (c) Aravalli Mountains
 - (d) Malwa plateau, and
 - (e) Nilgiri Hills
10. "Are the different physical divisions of India Separate and Independent units or they are complementary to each other?" Explain this statement with examples.

IV. Show the following on the outline map of India:

1. Karakoram, Zaskar, Kailash, Pir Panjal and Shivalik hill ranges.
2. Malwa, Chota Nagpur, Shillong and Telangana plateau regions.
3. Coromandal, Konkan and Malabar coastal areas.
4. Passes of Thal Ghat, Bhor Ghat and Pal Ghat
5. Passes of Zojila, Nathula, Jelep La and Shipikila
6. Aravalli, Palkonda, Anaimalai and Lusai Hill regions
7. Mount Abu, Darjeeling, Shimla, Kodaikanal, Jog falls and four tourist centers.
8. Mount Everest, Nanda Devi, Kanchanjunga, Mount K2 Godwin Austin, Parasnath, Kudremukh and Doda Beta Peaks.

CHAPTER 3

THE CLIMATE

The word 'Climate' refers to the particular weather conditions prevailing at a place over a larger period of time i.e. the temperature, the water content present in the flowing air at a place etc. These weather conditions are largely determined by three important factors like variations, in relief, distance from the sea and distance from the equator and it very strongly affects man and his activities.

India is a vast country. Its major physiographic units, peninsular location and position of the Tropic of Cancer clearly affect its climate. Due to the wide variations in the surface features of country, its temperature, rainfall, storms, extent of winds and clouds, too vary greatly.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

- (i) With respect to temperature, during winters while, the temperature decreases to -45°C (below freezing point) at Daras near Kargil in the Greater Himalayas, it rises to above 20°C at Chennai (Madras) in Tamilnadu. Similarly, during summers, when it crosses the 50°C mark in Jaisalmer, located west side of the Aravalli mountains, it is recorded less than 20°C in Srinagar.
- (ii) With respect to rainfall village Mawsynram, located 16 Km west of Cheerapunji in Khasi hills, experiences an average rainfall of 1080 cm while only 12 cm of rainfall is recorded in western Thar desert. In other words, Mawsynram receives as much rainfall in one day as is received in eight years in the areas west of the Aravalli mountains.
- (iii) While people of Barmer and Jaisalmer in Rajasthan yearn for clouds, in Meghalaya the sky remains covered with clouds throughout the year.
- (iv) Similarly as moderate temperature prevails throughout the year in Mumbai and other coastal areas due to the nearness to the ocean, the interior areas like Delhi, Chandigarh and Ludhiana experience extreme and harsh type of climate. That is, winters are extremely cold and summers are extremely hot.

FACTORS DETERMINING THE CLIMATE

The Tropic of Cancer passes through the middle of the country, and it divides its climate into two different types. Those parts of the country which fall to the south of the Tropic of Cancer become closer to the equator. Therefore, they have high temperature with no winter season. But their climate should have been of tropical type. In areas north of the Tropic of Cancer, due to low temperature the winter and summer seasons are there, not the climate should have been of the sub-tropical type. But this is not so because the climate of the entire country is full of diversities which is affected by many other factors, besides the location of the country.

- (i) **Distance from the Equator:** India is located near the equator in the Northern Hemisphere. That is why, except the Himalayan mountain region, high temperature prevails throughout the year in almost all areas of the country. Therefore, it is also considered as a country of hot climate.
- (ii) **Relief:** The east-west extending high mountain range of Himalayas in the north, exerts a very strong influence on the climate of India. On the one hand, this mountain range protects India from the cold blizzards blowing from Central Asia, because of which the temperatures remain above freezing point during winters in the plain areas. On the other hand, because of being high, this range act as a barrier for the monsoon winds blowing from the Bay of Bengal and divert them to the north -western parts of the country and brings change in the extremely hot and dry climate of these parts. These winds bring heavy rainfall to the sea facing slopes of Western Ghats and hilly regions of Assam. But the Deccan plateau and the trans -Himalayan regions, being located on the leaward side come in the rain-shadow zone and remain dry. Similarly, the Aravalli mountain region also remains devoid of rainfall because of its location in north-south direction parallel to the direction of southwest monsoons. Therefore, the presence of the Himalayas, is the biggest factor in maintaining the monsoon type of climate in the country.
- (iii) **Air Pressure System:** With the onset of summer season, the sunrays start falling directly on the Tropic of Cancer in the Northern Hemisphere, as a result of which the temperature of northern parts of the country starts rising. With the increase in temperature, low pressure centres (994 mb) begins to form over the North Indian Great Plains, which are also called as the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). During winters, these very plain areas get converted into high pressure zones, due to the extreme cold conditions while low pressure is created over the Indian Ocean.
- (iv) **Seasonal Winds:**
 - (a) Due to the change in the air pressure during summers and winters, seasonal winds blow in the country. Winds blowing from sea to land for six months during summers are hot and humid whereas winds blowing from land towards the sea during six months of winters are cold and dry. The different seasons in the country are based on these winds only.
 - (b) The direction of these seasonal or monsoon winds blowing over the earth's surface is also affected by the upper air circulation present at the height of 3 kms above the surface, which is also called the Jet Stream. During summers, these cold and high pressure fast winds crosses the Tibetan plateau behind the Himalayan mountain ranges and in winters are shifted to 25° C north latitude. Due to these winds, the cyclones of summers and western seasonal disturbances of Mediterranean regions reach northern parts of the country and bring heavy rainfall.

- (v) **Nearness to the Indian Ocean:** The adjoining great Indian Ocean has left a very strong imprint on the climate of the entire nation. Due to the even surface of the Indian Ocean, the south-western monsoon winds, coming from areas south of equator also blow with full speed towards India. These moisture-laden winds bring life in the life-style of the entire country by distributing the moisture absorbed from the sea. The Coromandel coast receives rainfall in winters only due to the location of Bay of Bengal and cyclones developed here also bring heavy rainfall during summers. The peninsular areas being surrounded from three sides by sea provide moderate climate to coastal areas where summers are less hot and winters less cold.

Therefore, the above mentioned factors clearly indicate that in India hot-tropical monsoon type climate is found, in which monsoon winds exert a strong impact on almost all parts of the country at different times.

INDIAN MONSOON SYSTEMS

The word 'monsoon' owes its origin to the Arabic word 'Mausam' which means change in elements (temperature, humidity, pressure and direction of local winds) due to the change in season. A surface wind that blows in a particular direction in one season but reverses completely in the other season is known as monsoon wind. The cycle of these monsoon winds is largely confined to the Tropical zone, that is, between 35°N and 20°S latitudes. This cycle of winds owes its origin to the differential heating of land and sea. Due to this change, the equatorial low pressure belt shifts towards the Tropic of Cancer in summers. This belt is known as the 'Inter Tropical Convergence Zone - ITCZ'. To fill this low pressure, south-east trade winds from the southern Indian ocean are deflected to the right by earth's rotation on crossing the equator and as a consequence a large part of the air acquires an anti-cyclonic (clockwise) circulation from south-west to north-east direction. These winds after travelling a long distance reach the west coast of India on first of June and brings heavy rainfall which is known as the 'monsoon burst'. When the winds from around the Kerala coast cross the west coast, then also moderate rainfall even before first June, which is known as the 'pre-monsoonal rainfall'. These monsoon winds provide rainfall to the entire country after June to mid-September. Heavy rainfall received by Tamilnadu in winters is brought by the retreating monsoon winds.

Besides, the above mentioned theory of temperature differential, the upper air circulation is also considered as the reason for the origin of these winds, because of which the arrival of these monsoon winds in the north-western parts of the country is attributed to the 'Jet' stream present at heights in Northern India. With its movement only, these winds bring rainfall to northwestern regions. Third and modern reason is the El-Nino current flowing near the coast of Chile in the Pacific ocean. However, its scientific analysis is yet not available.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MONSOONAL RAINFALL

The amount of average annual rainfall of the country is about 118 centimeters, which is mostly brought by the monsoon winds. This monsoonal rainfall has many characteristics in the country:

- (i) **Rainy Season and Quantity:** India receives most of its rainfall (87%) during summer, from March to September by monsoon winds. The remaining 13% of the rainfall is received after the monsoon season from September to October, 3% of which is received in the month of January and February and 10% in the month of March to May before the onset of monsoon. Nearly 74% of the rainfall in the country is received in the rainy season from June to Mid-September.
- (ii) **Variability:** The monsoonal rainfall received in India is not reliable. Sometimes it is excessive and sometimes it does not occur at all. And this variability of rainfall often results in the famine and starvation conditions. This variability goes on increasing towards the state of Rajasthan and interior areas of the country.
- (iii) **Uneven Distribution:** The distribution of rainfall in the country is uneven. The average annual rainfall varies from 250 cms. in hills of Meghalaya, and Assam and western slopes of western Ghats to less than 25 cms. in Western Rajasthan, Western Gujarat and North Kashmir.
- (iv) **Uncertainty:** The quantity of monsoonal rainfall received in India is uncertain. Sometimes, monsoon winds arrive in an area before its normal time and create a flood-like situation in many areas because of heavy rainfall. And sometimes it is insufficient or ends before its normal times which causes drought and damage to crops. Also the water which is stored for irrigation throughout the year is supplied to the canals in highly restricted amount.
- (v) **Dry Spells:** During summers, many a times monsoonal rainfall is not regular and it occurs occasionally after an interval of few days or weeks. As a result rain cycle breaks and a long and dry spell occurs in the rainy season. This dry period is known as the monsoonal break, which develops as a consequence of tropical cyclones developed in the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea.
- (vi) **Orographic rainfall:** Monsoonal rainfall actually is originated due to the cooling of moist winds by rising at heights along the mountains and plain areas. Due to this, southern or windward sides of mountains receive heavy rainfall and northern and leeward sides being in the rain-shadow area remain dry.
- (vii) **Torrential rainfall:** Monsoonal rainfall often occurs in large quantity and for days together. Therefore, there is a proverb that '*it never rains in India but it pours*'.

DISTRIBUTION OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN INDIA

A wide range of regional variations is found in the annual distribution of rainfall in India, which have a deep impact on the climate and agriculture of the country. Orographic rainfall occurs in southern slopes of the Himalayas and in western slopes of western Ghats. Southern parts of the country receive convectional rainfall and northwestern regions receive cyclonic rainfall. The entire country receives mostly orographic rainfall and every month there is rainfall in one part of the country or another. The main reason for the uneven distribution of rainfall in the country is the relationship between distance from sea and location of mountains.

The average annual rainfall in India is 118cm. The hills of Meghalaya receive the maximum rainfall which is, more than 1000 cm, whereas Thar desert receives less than 20 cm of rainfall in one year. On the basis of annual amount of rainfall, the country may be divided into five major areas :

- (a) Areas of Heavy rainfall (Above 200cm)
- (b) Areas of High rainfall (from 150 to 200cm)
- (c) Areas of Moderate rainfall (From 100 to 150cm)
- (d) Areas of Low rainfall (from 50 to 100cm)
- (e) Areas of very Low or Scanty rainfall (Below 50cm)

(a) Areas of Heavy Rainfall: These areas exist in narrow belts in which annual rainfall is more than 200cm.

- (i) In the long and narrow coastal belt from Dadra and Nagar Havelli to Trivandrum, the south -western monsoon winds coming from Arabian sea to the western slopes of western Ghats bring heavy rainfall. Konkan and Malabar coasts receives continuous rainfall (May to October) for five months.
- (ii) The second area of heavy rainfall lies in the north-eastern part of the country. It includes Darjeeling, Bengal Duars, middle and lower valleys of Assam, southern Arunachal Pradesh and mountainous areas of Meghalaya. The Shillong plateau and slopes facing Bangladesh receive heavy rainfall. Here, Cherrapunji gets 1087 cm and its nearby located Mawsynram receives 1141 cm rainfall. These places are the rainiest in the world. Arunachal Pradesh receives more than 250 cm of rainfall for six months from April to the month of September.
- (iii) Besides these, the islands of Andaman & Nicobar and Lakshadweep also fall under the category of areas of heavy rainfall.

(b) Areas of high rainfall: There are three different regions in the entire country, where rainfall is heavy and is between 150 – 200 cm. These are:

- (i) A very narrow belt of 20 km. width along the western Ghats in the north-south direction which extends from the mouth of river Tapti to the plains of Kerala.

- (ii) Second belt of heavy rainfall runs along the southern slopes of Himalayas, from Himachal Pradesh through Kumaon Himalayas and reaches the lower valley of Assam.
- (iii) Third belt extends in northsouth direction, which includes Tripura, Manipur and Mikir hills. They receive almost 200 cm. of rainfall. Table 3.1 shows the temperature and precipitation of some important stations in India. Read it carefully and note the uneven nature of rainfall and range of temperature.

(c) Areas of Moderate Rainfall : These areas receive the less reliable annual rainfall between 100 to 150cm. Three large areas of moderate rainfall are found in India :

- (i) The largest area extends in a long narrow belt along Orissa, northern Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Eastern Uttar Pradesh and Shivalik Hills, upto the hills of Jammu which is delineated by the 100cm isohyte. The hilly relief of Chota Nagpur plateau receives rainfall by the two branches of monsoon winds and cyclones of Bay of Bengal.
- (ii) The second belt of moderate rainfall is stretched for 80 km. width on the eastern coast extending from Nellore (Andhra Pradesh) to the Southern Calimere point, which is also called the Coromandal Coast. However, this coastal area receive rainfall in both the seasons(winter and summer) but retreating monsoon gives more rainfall in winters.
- (iii) The expanse of third elongated belt is from the mouth of Narmada river on the eastern slopes of Western Ghats to Kanyakumari. Here southwestern monsoon winds give rainfall while blowing down the slopes.

(d) Areas of Low Rainfall: In this category, semi-arid areas, which receive an average rainfall of 50 to 100 cm. are included. This area extends along the frontiers of India with Jammu in the north to Kanyakumari in the extreme south. It includes western Madhya Pradesh, western Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, eastern Rajasthan, eastern Gujarat, interior Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and southern Andhra Pradesh. Generally these are all rainshadow areas lying in the Western parts of the states. Monsoon winds either become dry till they reach here or due to surface configuration, they can't reach the right heights and straightaway pass along these areas.

(e) Areas of Scanty Rainfall: These dry areas receive less than 50 cm. of annual rainfall. These include the territory behind the Zaskar mountain range from Ladakh to Karakoram; areas of Kuchchh and Western Rajasthan, and southwestern areas of Punjab and Haryana. Besides these areas, about 100 km. wide belt falling in the Deccan plateau in northsouth direction also receives scanty rainfall. This area extends from Satpura hills and runs along the eastern slopes of western Ghats through the central districts of Karnataka and reaches the Kurnool district

Table 3.1 : Temperature and Rainfall statistics stations are in India

Station	Latitude	Height (In m.)	(Average - Monthly Temperature in Degree celcius, Average rainfall in centimetres)												
			January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual Aver.
Bangalore	12°58'N	909	20.5	22.7	25.2	27.1	26.7	24.2	23.0	23.0	23.1	22.9	18.9	20.2	
	CM		0.7	0.9	1.1	4.5	10.7	7.1	11.1	13.7	16.4	15.3	6.1	1.3	88.9
Mumbai	19° N	11	24.4	24.4	26.7	28.3	30.0	28.9	27.2	27.2	27.2	27.8	27.2	15.0	
	CM		0.2	0.2	—	—	1.8	50.6	61.0	36.9	26.9	4.8	1.0	—	183.4
Kolkata	22°34' N	6	19.6	22.0	27.1	30.1	30.4	29.9	28.9	28.8	28.9	27.6	23.4	19.7	
	CM		1.2	2.8	3.4	5.1	13.4	29.0	31.1	33.4	25.3	12.7	2.7	0.4	162.5
Delhi	29° N	219	14.4	16.7	23.3	30.0	33.3	33.3	30.0	29.4	28.9	25.6	19.4	15.6	
	CM		2.5	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.8	7.4	19.3	17.8	11.9	1.3	0.2	1.0	67.0
Jodhpur	26°18' N	244	16.8	19.2	26.6	29.8	33.3	33.9	31.3	29.0	29.1	27.0	20.1	14.9	
	CM		0.5	0.6	0.3	0.3	1.0	3.1	10.8	13.1	5.7	0.8	0.2	0.2	36.6
Chennai	13°9' N	7	24.5	25.7	27.7	30.4	33.0	32.5	31.0	30.2	29.8	28.0	25.9	24.7	
	CM		4.6	1.3	1.3	1.8	3.8	4.5	8.7	11.3	11.9	30.6	35.0	13.9	128.6
Nagpur	21°9' N	312	21.5	23.9	28.3	32.7	35.5	32.0	27.7	27.3	27.9	26.7	23.1	20.7	
	CM		1.1	2.3	1.7	1.6	2.1	22.2	37.6	28.6	18.5	5.5	2.0	1.0	124.2
Shillong	24°34' N	1461	9.8	11.3	15.9	18.5	19.2	20.5	21.1	20.9	20.0	17.2	13.3	10.4	
	CM		1.4	2.9	5.6	14.6	29.5	47.6	35.9	34.2	30.2	18.8	3.8	0.6	225.3
Thiruvananthapuram	8°29' N	6	26.7	27.3	28.3	28.7	28.6	26.6	26.2	26.2	26.5	26.7	26.6	26.5	
	CM		2.3	2.1	3.7	10.6	20.8	35.6	22.3	14.6	13.8	27.3	20.6	7.5	181.2
Leh	34° N	3506	-8.5	-7.2	-0.6	6.1	10.0	14.4	17.2	16.1	12.2	6.1	0.0	-5.6	
	CM		1.0	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.3	1.3	0.8	0.5	—	0.5	8.5

of Andhra Pradesh. These are all totally rain shadow areas except Rajasthan. In Rajasthan region, hot and dry winds moving from Baluchistan (Pakistan) obstruct the path of Monsoon winds of Arabian sea due to which there is no rain in this area. The Monsoon winds of Bay of Bengal Branch shower most of the rainfall in eastern parts of the country and they are almost dry when they reach this area.

Thus, we may conclude that the annual distribution of rainfall in the country has three main features:

- (i) The amount of rainfall gradually decreases from Bengal towards the west and the northwest.
- (ii) In case of peninsular plateau also, the amount of rainfall decreases as one moves from western and eastern ghats towards the interior parts.
- (iii) The windward side slopes receive higher rainfall.

CYCLE OF SEASONS

Cycle of seasons is formed due to change in the direction of monsoon winds from time to time. The Indian Meteorological Department has divided the climate of the country into following four distinct seasons; on the basis of change in winds:

- (i) The cold weather season (from mid-December to February);
- (ii) The hot weather season (from March to mid-June);
- (iii) The wet rainy season (from mid-June to mid-September);
- (iv) The season of retreating Monsoon winds (from mid-September to mid-December).

(i) The Cold Weather Season: According to Indian traditional system of seasons, *Hemanta* and *Shishira* combine to form the winter season.

(a) Temperature: In the winter season sunrays fall straight on the Tropic of Capricorn in the Southern Hemisphere. That is, why the temperature goes on decreasing from southern to northern parts of the country. The 20°C isotherm runs parallel to the 20° north latitude in east-west direction through the middle of India. Places like Mumbai and Chennai have an average temperature of upto 25°C whereas it decreases to 10°C in the great plain of north India. Whole of the entire Ganga valley experiences a severe cold season. In places like Amritsar, Jalandhar and Delhi, some times the temperature falls below the freezing point, due to the cold wave. Because of tropical location, the southern parts of the country do not experience the winter season.

(b) Pressure: With the fall in temperature, the entire northern India is converted into a high pressure area. This area comes under the sub-tropical high pressure belt with the shift in the position of Sun towards the south. This belt of high pressure, extending from the Mediterranean sea through Western Asia, Persian Gulf, Iran and Pakistan, crosses the great plains of

India and reaches the China sea. A condition of anti-cyclone is formed by the isobar of 1020 mb. in Pakistan near Peshawar and in the northwestern parts of India. Sometimes, state of Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand and Bihar also come under its influence. In southern and adjoining coastal parts of the country, isobars of low pressure of upto 1013 millibars are found.

Sometimes, the high pressure conditions in the northern parts of the country experience changes especially when many depressions (low pressure centres) enter the interior part of the country from western and northwestern parts. These are also called as the western disturbances or cyclones.

- (c) **Winds:** At the same time, high pressure areas develop over central and western Asia. Dry and cold continental winds from these areas enter the country through northwestern parts which cause a fall of many degrees in the temperature of the great plains. These northwestern cold winds, moving at a speed of 3 to 5 km. per hour are termed as the Cold Waves. On reaching the delta region of Ganga, these winds take a southerly turn towards the Bay of Bengal.

Winds blowing with a very high speed at a height of above 3 km. from the surface in the upper atmosphere, are called the 'Jet Stream'. These winds starting from the Mediterranean Ocean blow under the influence of westerlies towards the Tibetan Plateau in east direction. The Jet Stream gets divided into two branches - the northern and the southern, due to coming to high Himalayas in its way. The northern Jet streams moves north of Tibet, from west to east and the southern Jet Stream moves to the south of Himalayas till 25° north latitude. It is this southern Jet Stream, which affects the climate of the country to a very large extent. Because of this stream only about 5 cyclones enter India every month during winters, from the low pressure source region near Mediterranean ocean, after crossing Persian Gulf, Iran and Pakistan. With their arrival temperature increases and winds calm down. But after their departure western and northwestern cold winds again set themselves in motion.

- (d) **Rainfall:** During winter season, the rainfall occurs in interior places in the country. In northwestern parts, areas falling over Punjab, Haryana, northern Rajasthan, Jammu and Kashmir and Western Uttar Pradesh receives an average of 20 to 50 cm of cyclonic rainfall, which is very useful for the rabi crops. Whereas neighbouring Himachal Pradesh, Kashmir and Kumaon Hills experience snowfall. On the other hand, coastal areas of Tamilnadu and Kerala receive more rainfall in winters as compared to summers by the north-eastern monsoons.
- (e) **Weather:** Weather is pleasant in winters. Days are mainly warm (moderate) and nights are cold. Due to sharp fall in night temperature, sometimes dense or heavy fog appears. Also due to the cold waves in the plains, a sever frost occurs.

(ii) The Hot Weather Season:

(a) **Temperature:** Three and a half month long summer weather season is the longest season in India. After March, when direct rays of the sun start after crossing the equator, shifting towards the Northern Hemisphere, the temperature in the interior parts of the country start rising. The maximum daily temperature exceeds 38° C in Nagpur in the month of March, 40° C in Madhya Pradesh in April and 45° C in the month of May - June in the north -western parts. Minimum temperature at night remains between 21° to 27° C. The average temperature in the southern parts remains comparatively low (25° C) due to the nearness to the ocean.

(b) **Air Pressure:** With increase in temperature, areas of low pressure start shifting towards the northern parts. Equatorial low pressure belt extends parallel to the Himalayas in the north till Chota Nagpur Plateau and along the 25° N latitude in the south. This is also known as the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone and it attracts the monsoon winds from south to north.

In the month of May and June due to high temperature a low pressure Thermal Depression develops in the north -western parts of the country. And the southern 'Jet' stream shifts towards north of Himalayas. That is why, due to temperature inversion, a dynamic low pressure cycle develops in the air above the surface. In this way, a special situation develops in the north-west, in which till the height of 6-7 Km from the surface of the land, the low pressure cycles join each other and attract the monsoon winds fastly towards themselves.

(c) **Winds:** Due to the establishment of vast areas of low pressure in the country the local winds start blowing at different places. Hot and dry western winds move in the north -western parts during daytime, which become weak at night. Due to this, sometimes strong thunderstorms and in the afternoon, dust storms come. These cause heavy loss of life and property. After crossing the dry and hot desert areas, these western winds or westerlies become extremely hot, and are locally named as 'loo'. Many people die due to the effect of this 'loo'. Because of its continuous blowing, the north -Indian plains, become very hot and the intensity of low pressure increases further.

When hot and dry loo coming from the northwestern parts comes in contact with hot and humid winds from Bay of Bengal near Chota Nagpur plateau, it gives rise to stormy cyclones, which are again pushed to the northwestern parts by the strong southwestern monsoon winds. These tornado like cyclones are known as Norwester or Kalbaisakhis in West Bengal.

Even without the above mentioned surface wind cycles, changes do occur in summers in the upper atmosphere. The southern 'Jet' stream of the winters shifts towards the north and starts flowing in the northeastern direction in the north of the Tibet Plateau. To fill the vacuum of equatorial

low pressure in the south of Himalayas, the easterly Jet stream takes its place along the southern parts of the Tibetan plateau. It keeps on pushing the tropical cyclones towards western parts of India. In this way, due to the release of temperature during summers, the Tibetan highland turns into a radiation window around which Jet streams start moving in the clockwise direction.

- (d) **Rainfall:** Although this hot season is extremely dry but still some rainfall occurs due to the cyclonic cycle which provides some relief to the people from the scorching heat. Torrential rainfall which occurs in West Bengal is known as the Spring season rainfall. In regions such as Kerala and south Karnataka in south India, pre-monsoonal rainfall of bigger droplets occurs due to the blowing in of the sea breezes. This is locally known as the 'mango-shower' or 'Blossoms showers or Cherry showers'. Weather remains almost dry in rest of the country. Under local tradition, this season is considered to be the convergence of the summer and the spring season.

(iii) The Wet Rainy Season:

This season is also known as southwestern monsoon season. It extends from June to Mid-September in the country. At this time, the Inter-tropical convergence zone formed over northern great plains is able to attract the southeastern trade winds from the Indian Ocean beyond equator. These moisture laden moist eastern winds, after crossing the equator, change their direction due to the earth's rotation and start flowing from southwest to northeast at a speed of 30 km per hour. And on reaching the Kerala coast on 1st June, they suddenly bring heavy rainfall which is known as the 'burst of monsoon'. Due to their high speed only, these winds spread over the entire country within a period of one month.

These winds are divided into two branches by the peninsular plateau of the country. The first and the Arabian Sea branch moves towards the north along the western coast. Full of moisture, when this branch tries to cross the 2000 metres. high western Ghats, it gets cooled due to the 'lapse rate' and starts raining. The amount of rainfall goes on decreasing as the moisture decreases while moving north of the Arabian Sea. For example, Mangalore receives 330 cm. of rainfall, Mumbai 100 cm., whereas Bhuj receives only 30 cm. of rainfall. One sub-branch of this main branch moves through the valleys of Narmada and Tapi and reaches the Chota Nagpur Plateau and joins the Monsoon winds coming from the Bay of Bengal and gives more than 150 cm. of rainfall. Second branch of the monsoon winds of the Arabian sea moves towards the north, through Gujarat and Sind delta. By this time, firstly, the moisture content is largely decreased and therefore the Thar desert of Rajasthan remains dry. Secondly, due to the creation of a situation of temperature inversion by the sandy soil of the desert region, these winds are unable to enter this area. Thirdly, Aravalli mountains with lower altitude are also parallel to these winds and these just move straight without rising high, along these mountains. These moving winds on reaching

Punjab and Himachal Pradesh join the Bay of Bengal monsoon branch and as a result bring heavy rainfall near Dharamsala.

The second major and important branch of monsoon winds is known as the Bay of Bengal Branch. This branch moving from the eastern and western parts of Sri Lanka joins with the monsoon winds coming from above the Kerala hills and takes northerly direction. The monsoon winds coming down from the hills of Kerala cross the rainshadow areas of Tamil Nadu without any rain and again absorb moisture while moving over the Bay of Bengal. Moving over the Ganga Delta, the hills of Meghalaya come in their way. These saturated winds while crossing the 1500 m. high Meghalaya hills brings heavy rainfall. During this season, about 700 cm. of rainfall is received at Chirapunji and this is 60 per cent of the total rainfall received here.

After crossing Meghalaya hills, these winds fastly take northerly direction where high Himalayas come in their way. The Himalayas also divide them into sub branches, parallel to themselves by deflecting them into two directions of east and west. The eastern branch moves upward from the Brahmaputra valley to Arunachal Pradesh and provides heavy rainfall. The amount of rainfall decreases from Darjeeling (315 cm.) to Guwahati (110 cm.).

The second sub branch takes a turn towards west and through the great northern plain and gradually rising reaches the border areas of Punjab and Jammu & Kashmir. Here in this vast region these winds give 100 to 200 cm. of rainfall. The amount of rainfall also goes on decreasing with increase in distance from sea. The amount of rainfall at Kolkata is 120 cm., Patna 105 cm., Allahabad 76 cm., Delhi 56 cm., and Ludhiana 40 cm. and Amritsar receives only 25 cm. of rainfall. South of Shiwalik hills, with increase in the distance and temperature of these winds in southern parts of Punjab and Haryana, the amount of rainfall declines to only 10 to 20 cm.

During this season, although the Terai and southern slopes of hilly areas receive higher rainfall but declining trend in the amount of rainfall received is seen in these hilly areas too. For example, Nainital gets 200 cm., Shimla 130 cm. and Srinagar receives only 60 cm. of rainfall. Even if these winds continuously flow from the east and go on raining, but sometimes a dry spell or break of 3 to 4 days also occurs in between. The origin of these obstructions in rainfall is attributed to the pushing off tropical depressions of the areas around the Bay of Bengal, in the way of southwestern winds by the north trade winds. Higher number of these tropical depressions symbolises heavy rainfall. This rainy season comes to an end in the beginning of September with the fall in temperature.

(iv) The Season of Retreating Monsoons:

This season is also known as the '*Sharada Ritu*' according to the traditional system of seasons in our country. In this season, the vertical of the sun, after gradually shifting from areas south of Tropic of Cancer start moving towards the equator. Therefore due to decline in the solar radiation and due to heavy rainfall, the temperature in the northern areas falls greatly as a result of which

mights start becoming cooler. The sky is clear during daytime, and temperature increases slightly to 25°C. The amount of moisture left in the air by the recently ended rainy season is increased and such a condition is also called as the 'humus'.

In this season, the low pressure centres leave the northwestern parts and move towards Bay of Bengal to reach the Indian Ocean. These cyclones bring heavy rainfall in the eastern coastal areas and in the interior parts of Tamil Nadu.

These monsoon winds retreat in almost the same sequence as they arrive in the country. They firstly leave Punjab till 15th September, Uttar Pradesh till 1st October, Ganges Delta till 15th October and till 15th November these leave southern parts of Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. So, in the great north Indian plains, due to the increase in dry climate, this season is also known as the autumn season.

INDIAN LIFE AND MONSOONS

The climate of an area or region has a deep impact on its economic, religious and social development. The Economic progress of that region can be seen through the development of its agriculture, industry and mineral wealth. In India life is primarily dependent on agriculture. Monsoon rainfall has an important contribution in providing a strong basis for its development. Monsoon is considered as that pivotal point of the country, on which is based the entire economic structure besides agriculture. When monsoon rains are timely and in adequate amount, agricultural production in the country increases and greenery is seen all around. But their failure leads to the drying of crops. Drought conditions prevail in the country and there is shortage of foodgrains in the stocks. Similarly, if these monsoons arrive early then floods are caused. Due to their late onset however, the crops cannot be sown in time and as a result production decreases. In this way a very strong relationship is developed between the development of agriculture and monsoonal rainfall in the country, as only one third of the country's land is still without water due to the non availability of proper irrigation facilities. Not only in dry regions but the people living in areas of developed irrigation, also feel great relief at the arrival of monsoon rains with which the falling level of underground water rises. In this way the economy of the country depends on the agriculture and in turn agriculture is totally dependent on the monsoonal rains. That is why the Indian Budget is largely called as the 'Gamble of Monsoons'.

Besides agriculture, the development of industry, minerals, telecommunication systems and administrative structure is based on the availability of large amount of energy. In this, the hydel power is the most commonly used source of energy. In case of failure of monsoons, the shortage of water occurs in water reservoirs. As a result, the regular supply of water for irrigation and the generation of hydel power is reduced. This leads to the decline both in production and in human efficiency. Also due to power cuts in industries the use of mineral resources decreases and the wages of mine workers also get reduced. Therefore, the economic structure of the entire country gets badly shattered.

Besides economic life, the religious as well as the social life are also affected. Monsoonal climate makes the people fortunate. People perform *yajnas* and sing folk songs while waiting for the onset of monsoons, like *kajri* in Bhojpur, *Malhar* in Braj, *sawan* of Haryana and *Teejan* of *sawan* in Punjab etc.

Thus, monsoon winds make a valuable contribution towards having a similar kind of thinking and life style within the country. Due to this, in every sphere, whether it is arid sandy land or it is a developed irrigated area, or a humid area, each gets affected. As a result of the change in these winds according to seasons, the rainfall occurring due to the sea winds and western cyclones becomes a part of the huge monsoonal structure. It is only because of the high Himalayan mountain ranges that the effect of monsoon winds has been possible in the country, over a vast area from the Tropic of Cancer to the Kashmir in northern parts.

Exercise

I. Answer the following questions in brief :

1. Distinguish between climate and weather.
2. Name the factors affecting the climate of India.
3. Name the places in India having maximum and minimum temperature during winter season.
4. Give the names of hottest and coldest places in India during various season.
5. Name the driest and wettest regions of the country.
6. Name two places in India having moderate and extreme climate.
7. What do you mean by Inter-Tropical convergence zone (I.T.C.Z.)?
8. What is the importance of relief in determining the climate?
9. What is Jet Stream?
10. What do you mean by the term 'Monsoon'?
11. Give any five characteristics of Indian Monsoons.
12. What is 'Burst of Monsoons'?
13. What do you mean by "Loo"?
14. What is 'Break of Monsoons'?
15. What is the month wise distribution of various seasons found in India?
16. Where does EL NINO Ocean current flow?
17. What is 'kalbaishakhi' or Norwester ?
18. What is meant by 'Mango Shower' ?
19. At which places do the Monsoon winds coming from Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal meet ?
20. How would you explain the state of humidity ?
21. Name the traditional Indian system of seasons.

II. Give reasons of the following in brief :

1. Mumbai is colder than Nagpur.
2. Most of the average Annual rainfall in India comes in just four months of the year.
3. Chirrapunji receives maximum rainfall in the world.
4. Kolkata receives 145cm of rainfall where as Jasalmer receives only 12cm of rainfall by the South-West monsoon.
5. Chennai receives more rainfall during winter season.
6. North-Western India receives rainfall in winter season.

III. Answer the following questions in short :-

1. What are the regional variations in the climate of India ?
2. Give an account of the main reasons for the climate variations in the country.
3. Why does the Pre-Monsoonal rainfall occurs ?
4. Describe India's rainy season.
5. Which places receive maximum rainfall in India ?
6. Give any three characteristics of Indian monsoon.
7. What is the contribution of Western Jet stream in bringing cyclonic rainfall?
8. In spite of being close to the Arabian Sea, why does Rajasthan remain dry?
9. Why there is winter rainfall in North-Western India ?
10. How do South-East trade winds monsoon rainfall?

IV. Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Which elements affect the climate of India?
2. Describe the main characteristics of monsoon rainfall in India.
3. Explain the characteristics of different seasons of India.
4. Compare the summer and winter seasons of India.
5. Explain with the help of examples, the impact of monsoon winds on life in India.
6. Why is the Budget in India known as the Gamble of monsoons? Explain with examples.
7. In spite of vast monsoon unity, there exist wide regional disparities in India, Explain with examples.
8. What is the annual distribution of rainfall in India?

V. Represent the following on the outline map of India:

1. Low pressure area in summer and direction of winds.
2. Areas of winter rainfall and direction of North-East monsoon winds.
3. Cherrapunji, Jaisalmer, Allahabad, Chennai.
4. Regions of very less rainfall.
5. Location of Inter-tropical convergence zone in the month of June.
6. Regions of more than 200 centimetres rainfall.

CHAPTER 4

NATURAL VEGETATION, WILD LIFE AND SOILS

In earlier chapters, we have studied in detail about the variations in relief and climate, present in our country. Both these elements directly influence the natural vegetation of the country. Besides these elements, natural vegetation also depends on the type of soil and depth of the underground water found in different regions. Climate, among these, is the most important influencing element. The types of natural vegetation, their development and geographical distribution are clearly influenced by the difference in the distribution of temperature, amount of moisture, rain and snow etc. Therefore, natural vegetation of any region is considered as the mirror reflection of the climate of that region.

(A) NATURAL VEGETATION

Natural vegetation includes all those trees, shrubs, plants and grasses etc. which grow without human interference. Before studying it, the knowledge about related terms like flora, vegetation and forests is necessary. Flora includes different species of plants that grow at a specific time in a particular area. The bushes, plants, grasses etc. that grow at a place under a particular environment are known as vegetation. Whereas dense, closely grown trees, plants, shrubs, grass etc. found over a vast area are called as forests. The word forest is used mostly by geographers, administrators and forest guards, in view of the economic benefits and conservation of environment.

Each type of developed vegetation had to maintain a delicate balance with its environment to cover a long life-cycle, which depends on its qualities such as mutual cooperation and adaptability according to the season. Entire flora found in our country is not local. Rather, 40% of it consists of foreign species, which are known as Boreal or Paleo-Tropical species. These species came to India with the movement of people from Sino-Tibetan, North African and Indo-Malaysian regions. Respectively, these are mostly found on the southern slopes of Himalayas, northwestern Great Plain, northeastern states and group of Nilgiri hills in the south. Many plants of the foreign species were brought as ornamental plants for the gardens in the country. But due to hot and humid climatic conditions, their number increased so much along rivers, tanks, canals and choes that after some time it became very difficult to check their growth. These foreign species not only hampered the growth of local vegetation but also reduced the useful lands and they are also proving harmful for spreading diseases. Due to their harmful effects only water Hyacinth plant spreads into the water sources and is known as the "Terror of Bengal". Similarly, Lentana plant has quickly covered and deeply influenced the green pastures and natural forests of the country. Parthenium or congress grass has also spread

widely in the country and has increased the incidence of diseases like allergies, skin diseases and breathing problems. The wheat imported from the foreign countries during periods of shortage has also brought many unwanted weeds which are spreading fast and a lot of money is being spent on purchase of chemicals needed to eliminate them.

In this way we could say that natural vegetation of our country has not remained natural. Rather factors like fast growing population, shifting agriculture, overgrazing of pastures, indiscriminate felling of forests for fuel and timber etc. have either destroyed a large part of the natural vegetation or have transformed it. The natural vegetation growing according to local climate and soil, is restricted only to the north Himalayan region, western Thar desert and inaccessible hilly areas of Bastar-Koraput.

EXTENT OF NATURAL VEGETATION

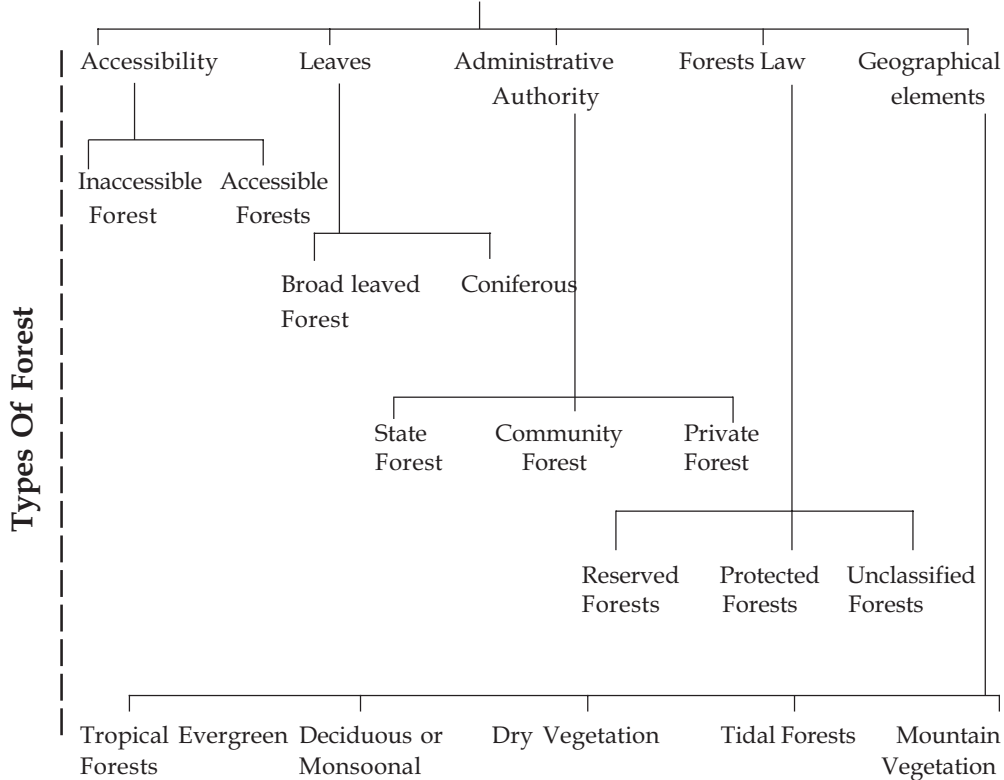
For economic development and ecological balance it is essential for every country that at least 33% of its land is covered with forests. In the world, 29.5% of the total land is covered with forests, whereas in India only 74.1 million hectares or 22.7 % of the total area is under forests. This is much lower than the 33.3 percent which is fixed by "National Forest Policy" of 1951. Currently, the area under forests is a little more than the one-fifth of the total area of the country. As compared to the world as a whole, India has a per capita forest area of only 0.14 hectares, whereas in Canada it is 22.7 hectares, in erstwhile Soviet Union 3.75 hectares, in Australia 2.85 hectares, in Myanmar 1.64 hectares and in USA 1.44 hectares. Not only the area under forests is less in our country but also the annual production from them is very low as compared to other countries of the world.

Also the regional distribution of the limited available forest area in the country is very uneven in peninsular plateau and its hills, as much as 57% of the country's area under forests is found. After this come the Himalayas where it is 18%. The western ghats and western coastal areas as well as the eastern ghats and eastern coastal areas each share 10 percent. Lowest percentage of country's forested area that is only 5% is found in the great northern plains of India.

At state level also, high proportion of forest area is found in Tripura (59.6%), Himachal Pradesh (48.1%), Arunachal Pradesh (45.8%), Madhya Pradesh and Chhattisgarh (32.9%) and Assam (29.3%). Whereas less than 15% of land is under forests in states like Punjab (2.3%), Rajasthan (3.6%), Gujarat (8.8%), Haryana (12.1%), West Bengal (12.5%) and Uttar Pradesh (13.4%). Under Union Territories, highest area (94.6 per cent) under forests is found in Andaman and Nicobar Islands and lowest (2.1%) in Delhi. The facts stated above clearly indicate that mountain states have more forests and there is great scarcity of these in the plain areas. This has made the problems of soil erosion and underground water level more serious. Therefore, there is an urgent need to increase the area under forests in the northern plain states.

Model 4.1 : Classification of Vegetation and Types of Forests

Basis of Classification



TYPES OF NATURAL VEGETATION

The natural vegetation found in India can be divided into many types on the following different bases : i) accessibility ii) shape of leaves iii) administrative control iii) forest law, and iv) geographical elements (see Model 4.1)

(i) On the basis of accessibility, 18% of the forest areas of India are such which are situated on the high slopes of Himalayas, due to which they are beyond the reach of human being or are inaccessible. We are able to utilize only 82% of the total forest area.

(ii) Similarly, valuable conifers with pointed leaves, extending over 5% of the total area under forests, are situated on the undulating slopes of the Himalayas and are inaccessible because of lack of transportation facilities, and therefore remain almost unexploited. Only broad-leaved deciduous forests of Teak and Sal are utilized by the people of the country, which account for 95% of the forest area.

(iii) Thirdly, on the basis of administrative control, forests are categorized under three heads, keeping in view the uncontrolled felling of forests and their

conservation. According to this, 95% (717 lakh hectares) of the forests are state forests, on which the government has total control. Besides these, those forests which come under the jurisdiction of local municipal and district councils, and account for 3% (20 Lakh hectares) of the forest area and are known as the community forests. Remaining 2% (9 lakh hectares) forest area belongs to the common people and is called Private Forests.

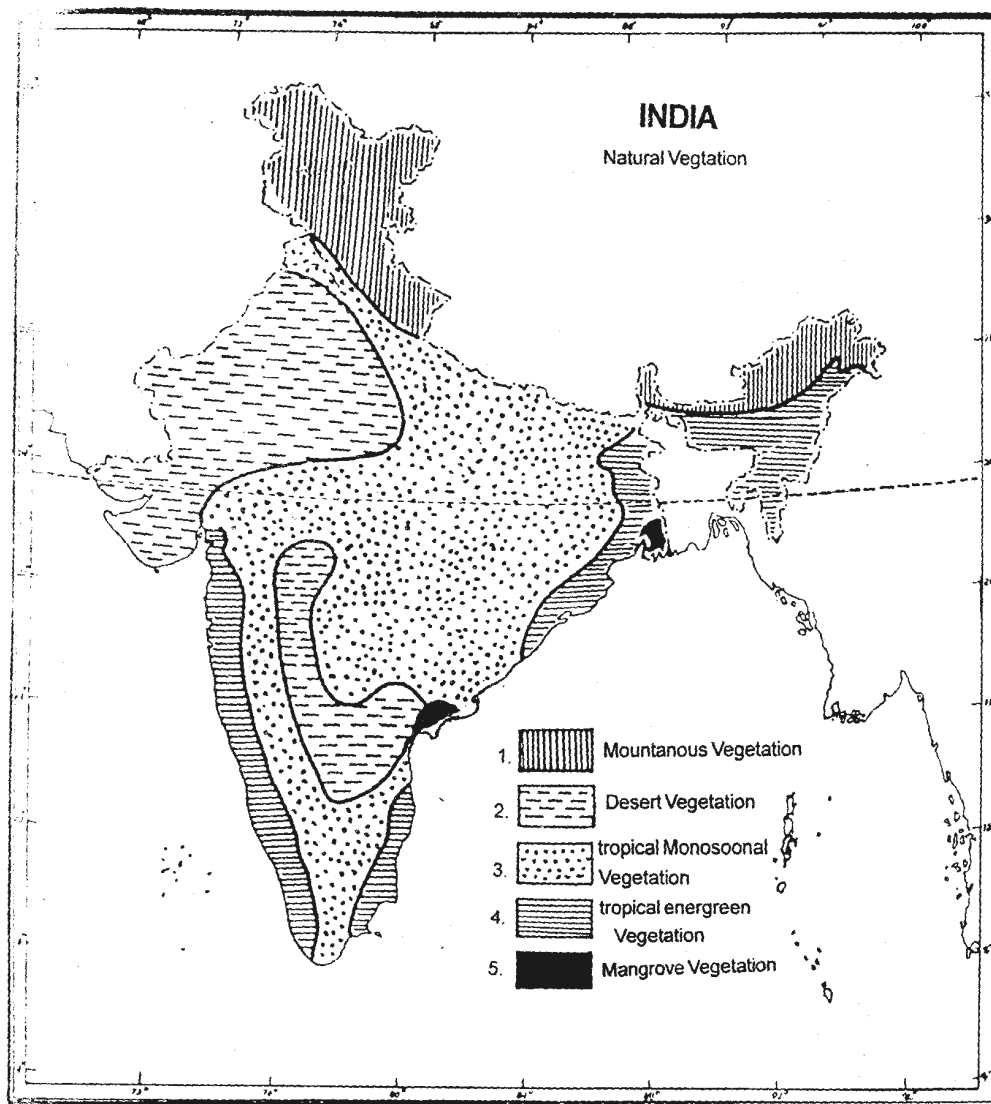
(iv) Forests are again divided into three parts on the basis of their proper utilisation, control and legal protection. Firstly, in India, 52% (394 lakh hectares) of the forest area is reserved for controlling soil erosion, conservation of environment and regular supply of timber. Cattle grazing and cutting of fuel wood are strictly restricted in these reserved forests. Secondly, 32% (233 lakh hectares) of the forests are protected forests, whose exploitation is completely restricted by the government, but are largely open to the people for getting grass, fuel wood and grazing of cattle etc. Third category includes, 16% of the unclassified forests, which have attracted little attention of the government. Various facilities are available for the people in these forests.

(v) Besides above given basis, the classification of forests is also indirectly influenced by the geographical elements. No doubt India has tropical monsoonal climate but due to variations in rainfall and relief the natural vegetation in the country varies from equatorial evergreen vegetation to Alpine vegetation of cold regions. On the basis of elements of environment, this can be classified into following divisions:

- (I) Tropical evergreen vegetation
- (II) Deciduous or Monsoonal vegetation
- (III) Dry Vegetation
- (IV) Tidal or Mangrove vegetation
- (V) Mountainous vegetation

(I) Tropical Evergreen Vegetation: This type of vegetation is found in areas of high rainfall. Therefore, it is also known as the rain forests.

- (a) **Area:** These forests extends over (i) the western parts of western ghats; (ii) Andaman, Nicobar and Lakshadweep Islands; (iii) southern and eastern slopes of lesser Himalayas; (iv) hills of the Shillong plateau; and (v) Assam, and plain areas of Bengal and Orissa.
- (b) **Climate:** In areas of this type of vegetation, the average annual temperature is about 25°C. The annual rainfall exceeds 200 cm. and amount of humidity is in the air is more than 70% throughout the year.
- (c) **Height:** This vegetation is found upto the height of about 1200 metres above mean sea level. The trees are 30 to 60 metres high and their trunk is more than 5 metres thick.
- (d) **Important Trees:** The important trees found in the rain forests are –



Based upon Survey of India map with the permission of the Surveyor General of India. © Government of India Copyright 2001.

mahogany, bamboo, rubber, coconut, pine, rosewood, ironwood, cane, hopea, nagkesar, gurjan, chaplas, mango, chap, machilush and kadam etc.

- (e) **Characteristics:** This type of vegetation is lofty, very dense, multistoried and full of mixed species of trees. The trees do not shed their leaves at one time and hence remain green throughout the year. Their trunks are straight and long but branches are very short. After the tree height of 30 metres, the branches spread all around and take the form of a canopy, so that maximum sunlight can be absorbed. The ground is mostly marshy and dark without any sunlight. There is lot of undergrowth mainly of entangled mass of vegetation like small shrubs, climbers, canes and ferns. Some times other plants grow on the stems of trees, which is known as xerophytic growth. Due to their dense canopy, they become the habitat of variety of birds and wild animals. Though this is hardwood type of vegetation but being very dense, lack of pure stands and swampy ground conditions, it is not easy to exploit these forests and also due to the lack of transportation facilities, their full economic benefits have yet not been realised. But large exploitation of these forests by the Britishers during the two world wars; secondly now a days their deforestation to fulfil the needs of increasing population and shifting type of agriculture etc. have caused a great damage to these forests in the country.

(II) Deciduous or Monsoonal Vegetation: This vegetation usually sheds leaves before the beginning of summers in order to check the excessive evaporation. Due to this the trees are saved from dry air and sunlight and are able to survive for long time on the available soil moisture. On the basis of amount of rainfall received, this deciduous or monsoonal vegetation could be sub-divided into humid and semi-arid types of vegetation.

(i) Humid Deciduous Forests:

- (a) **Area:** This type of vegetation is found in those four large areas, which receive normal rainfall between 100 to 200 cm. during the year. These are: I) Terai region of Himalayas, II) Vindhya-chal-Satpura mountain region and adjoining Chhota Nagpur Plateau and northeastern hilly states, III) Eastern slopes of Western Ghats, and IV) Southeastern Ghat's Tamilnadu region. In all these areas, trees are less dense but their height reaches upto 30 metres.
- (b) **Species of Trees:** Valuable woods like Shisham, Sal in the northern forest region and Sagon, Teak, and Sandalwood in the south are usually found. Besides, Jamun, Amaltas, Haldu, Mahua, Sakhu, Ebony, Arjun, Dhak, Shahtut, Amla, etc. are also found here.
- (c) **Grass:** Beside these trees, valuable grass 'Sabai' is also found in the Terai region. This grass is used in the manufacturing of paper. However, large tracts of these forests have been cleared for agricultural purposes.

(ii) Semi-Arid Deciduous Vegetation : This type of vegetation is found in regions of low rainfall that varies between 50 and 100 cm.

- (a) **Area :** A long strip of area under this vegetation extends from Punjab through Haryana, southwestern Uttar Pradesh, eastern Rajasthan, Kathiawar and Deccan Plateau alongwith neighbouring areas of central India.
- (b) **Trees:** Shisham or Tahli, Kikar or Babul, Banyan, Haldu etc. trees are found in abundance in this long belt. Valuable trees like Sandalwood, Mahua, Siras and Teak are also found occassionally mixed with other trees at some places. These trees often shed their leaves before the start of summers.
- (c) **Grass:** Thorny bushes and variety of grasses could be seen in these areas for long distances, which look like Savana grasslands. This grass is known as Munj, Kans (reeds) and Sabai.

This vegetation has been excessively exploited due to increasing pressure of population. Trees are being cleared indiscriminately from the lands, which are found suitable for agriculture. Therefore, there is a very strong need of plantation of trees and their conservation in this vast area, so that man and animals like sheep, goat, camels and other hibernating animals do not bring more destruction to this vegetation.

(III) Desert or Dry Vegetation: This type of vegetation is found in desert or semi-desert areas of the country where annual rainfall is less than 50 cm. Due to the scarcity of moisture these trees possess much less foliage. Leaves are glazy, small, pointed and thorny but the roots of these trees are very long.

- (a) **Major Trees:** Kikar, Babul, Jand, Tamarix are found in abundance in these areas. Besides these, vegetation like Rambans, Khair, Pipal, Palm, Khejra, Ber, Aak, Neem, Cactus and grasses like Munj are also found. Due to the scarcity of water, the vegetation is totally absent towards western borders of Rajasthan but with the tree plantation along the Indira Gandhi canal drawn from the Sutlej river in Ferozepur district of Punjab, efforts are being made to make the area green again.
- (b) **Area:** The main areas under this vegetation include parts of Rajasthan west of the Arravali mountains; southern Punjab and Haryana and the interior rainshadow areas of Deccan Plateau.

(IV) Tidal Vegetation: This vegetation is found in the deltaic areas of rivers like the Ganges, Brahmaputra, Krishna, Cauvery, Godavari and Mahanadi where sea water at the time of tides keeps on entering the roots of trees. Due to this the roots of these trees get decomposed and soil becomes marshy. Poisonous insects, pythons, snakes and crocodiles are found in the roots of these trees, which come out from the ground. Therefore this type of vegetation is also called as mangroves, swamps, littorals or Sunderban vegetation.

Here 'Sundari' tree is found in abundance. Therefore, Ganga-Yamuna delta is known as the Sunderbans delta. Besides this, other beautiful trees with valuable wood like pine, canes, coconut etc. are also found in these areas. These trees have various species of climbers grown high on their trunks.

(V) Mountain Vegetation: In India, type of vegetation is found in the Himalayan mountainous region in the north and Nilgiri hills in the south.

(a) All type of vegetation, available in the whole world, is found in the Himalayan region. On the basis of amount of rainfall these are subdivided into two parts - the eastern and the western.

Eastern Himalayan region receives more rainfall as compared to the western Himalayas. Therefore, about 4000 species of flowers and 250 types of ferns are found here. The natural vegetation found on hill slopes is affected by the difference in temperature and rainfall with increasing height. Upto the height of 1200 metres, mixed trees of deciduous vegetation are mostly found. Within 1200 to 2000 metres, dense evergreen forests are found which include the important trees of sal and magnolia. Trees like cinnamon, amura, chinauli and dilleniya are mostly found alongwith them. With the growth of canes, climbers, bushes, ferns, bamboo, long savana grass etc. alongwith these trees, the vegetation becomes denser. With the decrease in temperature within the height of 2000 to 2500 metres, temperate type of vegetation is found. This includes broad-leafed trees as oak, chestnut, laurel, maple and alder. Between the height of 2500-3500 metres, pointed leafed coniferous and alpine type wild trees are present. Among these, trees with low height like silver fir, pine, spruce, deodar, rhododendrons, blue pine, etc. are included. Beyond 3500 metres height, in areas near the snow line, plants like small natural grasses and flowers etc. grow in abundance.

In the western Himalayan region due to the lower rainfall, upto the height of 1800 metres, temperate trees like Chir (Pine), Sheesham, Saal, Semul, Jamun, Plum etc. are found. Deciduous vegetation is found in areas above Shimla at the heights of 1800 to 3000 metres which includes trees like Deodar, Pine, Blue pine, Oak, Elm, Poplar, Birch etc. Trees like yellow Pine, Silver Fir are also seen. Alpine vegetation like Pine, Juniper, Silver Fir etc. are mostly found above 3000 metres and grasslands are also found with short grasses. The local Gujjars and Gaddi tribes move to these grasslands to graze their cattle during summers.

(b) Mountain vegetation is also found in the hilly parts of the Deccan plateau. This includes the hilly areas of Bastar, Pachhmarhi, Mahabaleshwar, Nilgiri, Palni, Shivrai and Annaimalai. The combined effect of monsoon winds coming from the Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea brings rainfall of more than 200 cm. in these hill areas and in Nilgiri hills. Therefore, broad leafed evergreen forests are found upto a height of 1800 metres. Such

forests are known as Shola forests in South India. The important trees are Jamun, Machilus, Maliosoma, Saltis etc. But within 1800 to 3000 metres height, temperate coniferous vegetation is found, which consists of trees like silver fir, blue pine, birch and yellow champa. Mosses and ferns grow on these trees. Above this height only small grasses occur. In all these hilly regions vegetation cover is decreasing and land is increasingly being utilized for agriculture because of which underground water level has gone down. As a result, environmental balance has been disturbed. But now Eucalyptus and Teak plantation is being done in these areas.

IMPORTANCE AND CONSERVATION OF NATURAL VEGETATION

Natural vegetation is invaluable property of the nation in which country's ancient scriptures were written. It has both direct and indirect benefits to the country.

(A) Direct Benefits:

- (1) The country's forests provide benefits of employment to nearly 40 lakh people. Workers are needed for cutting the trees, sawing, transportation of logs, loading of timber etc. Besides these, people working as rangers, forest officers, and forest scientists etc. for the protection, management and conservation of forests also get their livelihood from the forests.
- (2) Forests provide different types of wood to the country which is used for making fixtures, furniture, fuel, paper pulp, paper and coal. Woods of Sal, Teak, Sheesham, Haldu, Palash, Arjun, Mahua from monsoonal forests and wood from Pine, Deodar, Silver fir, and Blue pine etc. from Himalayan region are mostly utilized.
- (3) The government earns about Rs. 1 billion and 80 million of national income annually by giving part of forests on contract.
- (4) Katha obtained from Khair tree is used to prepare medicines for diseases of mouth and throat, Quinine is obtained from Cinchona; medicine is prepared from Sarpagandha shrub to control blood pressure; Bahera, Harar and Amla are used to prepare many ayurvedic medicines.
- (5) Paper pulp is prepared from grasses like sabai, bhabar, and elephanta. Useful extracts are obtained from lemon grass and artificial perfumes are prepared from rosha grass.
- (6) Tanning material is prepared after drying the leaves, barks and fruits of mangrove, gambier, harar, bahera, Amla and kikar etc. Tar wood shrub found in south India is also used for leather tanning.
- (7) Lac (sealing wax) from palash and peepal, silk from mulberry, oil from tung and sandalwood, dhoop and resins etc. from saal are prepared. Grasses like bamboo, canes, coconut grass and sarkanda are used in almost

every house in rural areas of the country for preparing ropes, strings, and for thatching the roofs. Besides these, a large variety of fruits, vegetables and leaves (tej patta) are procured from natural vegetation.

- (8) About 25 million tribals live in the forests of the country.
- (9) Forests are home to the rich and diverse wildlife of the country. Therefore, as many as 80 wild life sanctuaries have been developed on 15,000 square miles area of the country, where animals can live in there natural habitats.
- (10) The green pastures facilitate the grazing of animals.

(B) Indirect Benefits: There is a long list of indirect benefits of forests. Their indirect benefit is that they provide pure and fresh oxygen for the human health. The various indirect benefits if forests are as follows:

- (1) **For Controlling the Rainfall:** In areas of dense vegetation, the amount of humidity is increased due to transpiration from the leaves. The winds blowing over such areas become cooler as result of which the water vapour starts falling on the surface in the form of rain.
- (2) **Climate:** Dense forests check the increase in temperature during summer and bring increase in temperature during winters. That is why cold and moderate climate is found in such areas, which is pleasant and good for health.
- (3) **Checking the Floods:** Roots of dense vegetation are helpful in reducing the speed of flowing water. As a result, damage through floods is reduced. Secondly, the water absorbed by the roots of plants, percolates into the soil, and hence increases the water table. On the other hand the water easily flows into the rivers with the reduction in the volume of water flowing on the surface.
- (4) **Checking Soil Erosion:** Rain water and fast blowing wind erode the top fertile soil from the land surface which is without any vegetation cover. But roots of trees hold the soil tightly and reduce the intensity of both the elements and thus save the fertile soil from being eroded away.
- (5) **Fertility of Soil:** The dried fallen leaves and twigs of trees form humus or green manure, as a result of which the soil becomes more fertile.
- (6) **Nature's Gift:** Variety of green vegetation presents a beautiful landscape which attracts the people to these dense forest areas for tourism, hunting and even for meditation in order to get mental peace. For example the governments of Punjab and Haryana respectively have developed the places like Chhatbir near Chandigarh and Pinjore near Morni Hills for the people.
- (7) **Boon to Industries:** Dense forests provide a strong base to many industries. These manufacture paper, lac, matchsticks, silk, sports goods, plywood, gum, resins etc. These goods become raw material for other modern manufacturing industries. Besides, skins of birds and animals, meat, horns,

wool, bones, honey gums etc. are also obtained which provide a base to a large number of industries of decoration, textile and candle making etc.

In this way forests are very important for us. They absorb carbon-dioxide and release oxygen which is essential for the existence of both man and animals on the earth. But their uncontrolled felling during recent years has badly disturbed the ecological balance. Due to the removal of vegetation cover from the hill slopes and plains, the problems of regular floods and soil erosion are becoming more serious. The deforestation in the Shivalik hills passing through the northern parts of Punjab, has led to an increase in area under choes or seasonal streams, thereby resulting in increase in the wastelands. At the same time, water level has gone down in the plain areas. As a consequence, problems have started arising for irrigation of agricultural land. Rapidly increasing population of the country, increasing urbanisation, industrialisation and pollution, expanding rail and road networks etc. are some of the major reasons due to which more than 13 lakh hectares of forest area is being cleared every year in the country. That is why serious attention is being paid for conserving the environment. On the basis of National Forest Policy of 1952, to maintain tree cover in 60% of mountainous areas and 20% in the plain areas, Vana Mahotsava is celebrated every year. New programmes are being launched under Five Year Plans for the development of social forestry. Protected forests are being raised along the canals, rivers, roads and railway tracks. In Rajasthan, the soil erosion and forward shift of sand dunes is being checked by growing seven grass on sand dunes. In hilly areas fast growing trees such as eucalyptus and poplar are being introduced to correct the ecological imbalance. Besides all this, we should not only participate in the noble act of plantation of trees every year but also we should fully cooperate in the conservation of forests, keeping in view the magnitude of damage done to them.

B. WILD LIFE

Besides the huge variety of vegetation, the wild -life (fauna) is also found to be equally rich and varied in our country. Actually, there exists a close relationship between the two. There are about 76000 species of wild life found in the country. The country has as many as 2500 species of fish in its fresh and saline waters. Likewise, there are about 2000 species of birds and 400 species of snakes. In addition, amphibians, reptiles, mammals and small insects and worms are also found. Among the mammals we have the stately animal, the elephant. It is typical of hot wet equatorial forests. In our country, it is found in the jungles of Assam, Kerala, and Karnataka where heavy rainfall occurs, and the forests are very dense. In contrast, camels and wild asses are confined only to the very hot and arid areas. Camel is generally the animal of the Thar while wild asses are found only in the Rann of Kuchchh. In the opposite direction, is the habitat of the one-horned rhinoceros. It lives in swampy and marshy lands of Assam and northern parts of west Bengal. Animals like Indian

Bison, the Indian Buffalo and the Nilgai are worth mentioning among the wild life of India. Deer is the characteristic of Indian wild life. It is a very sensitive and beautiful animal. Many species of deer are found in India and most common of these are Chowsenha (four horned antelope), black buck (Indian antelope), Chinkara and deer. Some other important species of deer include Kashmir stag, spotted deer, musk deer and moushk deer.

Among the predators, the Indian lion holds a special place. Barring Africa, it is found only in India. Its natural habitat is confined to the Gir forests of Saurashtra in Gujarat. Besides being the most majestic of all the animals, it is one of the most strong animals in our jungles. The famous Bengal tiger has its natural habitat in the Sundarbans of the Ganga delta.. The other major animals belonging to the cat family are leopards, clouded leopards and snow leopards. Clouded Leopards and snow leopards are confined only to the higher reaches of the Himalayas.

The eastern ranges of Himalayan mountains are the home of several fascinating animals, such as wild sheep, mountain goats, the ibex, the shrew and the tapir. Panda and snow leopard are confined only to the higher reaches.

Several species of monkeys are found in India. The Langur is the most common among them. The lion tailed Macaque is a very strange animal. It has hair around the face, which appear like a halo.

In India several species of colourful birds are also found. If tiger is our national animal, the peacock is our national bird. Pheasant, geese, ducks, mynahs, parakeets, pigeons, cranes, hornbills and sunbirds, mostly live near the wet lands in vegetated areas.

Wild life in the country has greatly reduced due to the practice of uncontrolled hunting of wild animals for amusement and destruction of forests for a very long time. This has adversely affected the ecological balance of the country. Keeping in view the importance of bio-diversity, attention is being given to the conservation of wild life in the country. In the conference of UNO held at Stockholm in 1972, the matter was discussed at international level and a lot of awareness has been generated in this regard. In this programme of namely 'Man and Biosphere' the world community was appealed to protect the ecological systems. In this context, the Wild Life Conservation Act was formulated in 1972 in India.

A total area of 83835 square kilometre, which is 2.7% of the entire area of the country and, 12% of total forest area is declared to be under national parks and wild life sanctuaries. Special attention is now being paid on the wild animals which are near extinction. Periodic counting is undertaken at national level to find out the exact number of total birds and animals. Currently there are 16 reserve areas for tigers in various parts of the country. Similarly, a special project is being run in Assam for the conservation of Rhino. The Great Indian Bustard of Rajasthan and Malwa plateau is yet another endangered

species. Even the number of lions had been dwindling for quite some time. This all is a matter of serious concern.

Efforts are being made for the protection and conservation of the great biological diversity of our country. Keeping in view the standard criterion formed by the United Nations, 13 Biosphere Reserves are being set up in the country (table 4.1). Under this scheme the first Biosphere Reserve was established in the Nilgiri hills. Its area is 5.5 thousand square Kilometres, which is spread over the border areas of Karnataka, Tamilnadu and Kerala. It was established in 1986. Under this scheme, every plant and animal species would be protected so that this precious natural heritage can be transferred to the future generations.

In each biosphere reserve, the forest land, the flora and the fauna will be preserved in their natural forms. The neighbouring areas will be utilized for research and experimentation in developing forest and forest products, and the periphery will be used for agricultural research.

TABLE 4.1
Biosphere Reserves in India

Name of Reserve	States in which it is situated
1. Nilgiri	Tamilnadu, Karnataka, Kerala
2. Namdhapa	Arunachal Pradesh
3. Nanda Devi	Uttrakhand
4. Uttrakhand (Valley of flowers)	Uttar Pradesh
5. Northern Andaman	Andaman and Nicobar
6. Gulf of Mannar	Tamilnadu
7. Kaziranga	Assam
8. Sunderbans	West Bengal
9. Thar	Rajasthan
10. Manas parks	Assam
11. Kanha	Madhya Pradesh
12. Nokrek	Meghalaya
13. Rann of Kachchh	Gujarat

The country has 63 national parks, 358 wild life sanctuaries and 35 zoological parks covering 1.3 crore square Kilometres of area.

C. SOILS

Fertile soils had remained the centre of attraction for human beings since the ancient times. Like other countries, the ancient Indus civilization and Aryan civilization too originated and developed on the fertile soils of the river valleys. The present Indian civilization also developed in areas of fertile soils

deposited by the rivers. Deposition of fresh alluvium every year by the rivers and easy availability of water for irrigation have played a major role in the concentration of population and development of agriculture in these river valleys. Because of being an agrarian, our country still depends on soil. Fertile soil fulfils the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter, to the large population abuse of the country and hence has become a very valuable resource. Elements like land, climate and vegetation play an important role in the development of this great resource. As we have discussed in earlier chapters, there exist wide variations in these elements, similarly the soils found in the country are not same everywhere. At some places, ancient hard, stony, hilly and plateau soils are present while newly deposited alluvial soils are present at some other places. Therefore, for a comprehensive study of soils of our country, knowledge about the definition, process of formation, composition and structure, types, erosion, causes of erosion and conservation is essential.

(A) DEFINITION OF SOIL

Soil is defined as an unconsolidated layer of the earth's crust formed of the weathered rock material and organic matter and can support plant life.

The thickness of this layer is found from 15-30 cm from the ground surface to many metres deep down to the bedrock or parent material. Vertical section through the upper crust of the earth is called soil profile. On the basis of colour, texture and size of particles, amount of humus, etc., soil scientists have divided the soil profile into three major layers or horizons as A, B and C respectively. **A-** horizon or topsoil contains humus due to which its colour is black. But in this layer, most of the minerals dissolve and are washed downwards by gravitational pull and get deposited in the layer beneath it. This is called the **B horizon** and is brown in colour. But amount of humus is less in this layer. Then comes the **C - horizon** at the bottom. In this layer no major change is seen in the rock materials separated from the parent rocks and it joins the parent rock. This layer is grey or light brown in colour.

(B) SOIL FORMING PROCESS

The process of soil formation is very slow and long. It takes thousands of years for nature to form one inch of soil on the surface. Various weathering agents keep on breaking the rocks of the earth. Many organic and biochemical processes then modify this weathered material. The organic material consists of both living and decayed plant and animal materials such as plant roots, fungi, bacteria, worms, insects and rodents. These get mixed with the inorganic matter and help in the formation of soil.

(A) FACTORS AFFECTING SOIL FORMATION

The texture of soils of our country is not uniform. Besides the various physical, chemical and biological processes, there are five more elements that interact with each other to form a particular soil type. These are:

(i) **Parent Rock** : In the form of bed rocks, the sedimentary rocks of the

great northern plains of the country, provide the best type of soil largely because of accumulation of different types of minerals. These are followed by igneous rocks of the peninsular plateau region which give rise to zonal soils and which are fertile due to the presence of minerals in them.

- (ii) **Climate:** Colour, structure, texture, size of particles etc. of the soil formed from parent rocks depends on the fact that for how long these have been affected by a particular climate. In regions of wet climate like West Bengal, the soil develops faster due to the faster chemical action and the presence of humus. But fertility of soil gets reduced due to the absence of vegetation in dry areas like Rajasthan. Similarly, in regions of heavy rainfall and fast winds, due to greater soil erosion the fertility is reduced.
- (iii) **Slope:** Besides climate, slope of an area also contributes in the development of soil. In hilly areas with steep slope, the run-off is fast and soil keeps on sliding under the influence of gravitational force. That is why soils are less fertile in slopes in hilly regions than in the river valleys of Ganga, Indus and Brahmaputra. The southern slopes because of being sun-facing have better soils than the north facing slopes in our country.
- (iv) **Natural Vegetation:** This is a major soil forming element, which supplies organic matter to the parent material and helps in the development of soil. But due to the major part of land being utilized for agriculture, the soils of our country lack in this element. The laterite soils, soils near water bodies, and soils of reserved forests have 5 to 10 percent organic matter in our country. In remaining areas, the soils have only less than 1% of organic matter in them.
- (v) **Time:** Besides above mentioned four elements, time is of great importance in the development of soil. Every year humus and organic matter is added to the soils and fertility of soil goes on increasing. The process continues for thousands and thousands of years before a good quality soil is formed.

Thus, five elements such as kind of parent rock, change in climate, diversity of vegetation, slope of the land and age of soil are responsible for the formation and development of soil.

(B) CLASSIFICATION OF INDIAN SOILS

In a vast country like India different types of soils are found due to the wide variety of rocks and climate in different parts of the country. They can be classified on the basis of fertility, irrigation, origin and characteristics. **Firstly**, according to the traditional practice, soils were divided on the basis of production of crops into two groups fertile soil, and (2) infertile soil. Infertile soils were further sub-divided into two parts - the saline and the barren (sandy) soils. **Secondly**, in terms of irrigation, soils dependent on rainfall were known as 'brani', whereas soil irrigated by wells were called 'chahi' and those irrigated by canals, were known as 'nahari'. And soils affected by seepage of river water

were termed as 'sailabi'. **Thirdly**, on the basis of their origin, soils are classified into two categories: (i) Zonal and (ii) Azonal. Zonal soil are also called as the local soil as they are formed on the deeply buried rocks. Azonal soils are also known as the transported soils. These are formed due to the transportation of material from the parent rocks by winds, water, glaciers or sea waves.

But the eight fold classification of soils of India , given by the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, according to the report presented by all India Soil Survey Committee in 1953 is very well recognised. These eight soil types include: (1) alluvial soil; (2) black soil; (3) red soil; (4) laterite soil; (5) desert soil; (6) saline and alkaline soils; (7) peaty and marshy soils; and (8) mountain soils.

(1) Alluvial Soils :

- (i) **Area:** These soils occupy extensive tracts of land of about 15 lakh square kilometres covering 24% of total area of the country. These soils are found in the form of stratified rocks with depth exceeding 500 metres below the ground surface.
- (ii) **Regional Extent:** These soils are found in both the northern and southern parts of the country. In north India, alluvial soil is found in Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Eastern Rajasthan, Bihar, West Bengal etc.plains of Ganga-Sutlej river valleys. Besides these areas, this soil is also extended over the valleys of Brahmaputra, Surma valleys of Assam, Mahanadi valley of Orissa, Narmada and Tapti valleys of Madhya Pradesh and deltaic areas of Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery in the South.
- (iii) **Chemical Composition:** These soils have large proportion of salts like potash, phosphorus, lime and magnesium but they are deficient in nitrogen and humus. Soils of north western parts are more porous, light coloured and with sandy -loam soil particles.
- (iv) **Soil Texture:** These soils are formed by the deposition of soil brought down by the rivers originated from the mountain slopes of Himalayas and southern plateau, in layers . Area under alluvial soils is increased by deposition of sediments by wind action in north western regions and by tides on the sea coasts. There are four main regions of alluvial soils in our country: (a) riverine, (b) terai, (c) deltaic and (d) coastal.
 - (a) **Riverine Alluvial Soil:** These soils are found in the river basins. Ganga, Sutlej, and their tributaries have extended these soils in their huge courses, and are divided into two sub -groups:
 - (i) **Khadar Soil:** This is light coloured acidic soil, which varies mostly from clayey to sandy loam in texture. Newer alluvium gets deposited due to the annual flooding. This soil is found in the flood plains and deltaic areas.

- (ii) **Bangar Soil:** It is found in plains which are more than 30 metres above the flood level and where river water does not reach the older deposits. These dark coloured soils have a mixture of sand, silt and clay, in equal proportion. In higher Bangar areas where these have lime nodules in large amounts below their layers, these are called alluvial kankar soils (for example Dadri in Haryana).
 - (b) **Terai Alluvial Soils:** These extend in areas along the Himalayan mountains, in Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal. Here rivers flow with great speed through bhabar soils, having big boulders and stones. When the slope breaks to become gentle, fine soil particles are deposited due to which the amount of fine silt increases in the soils of these areas.
 - (c) **Deltaic Alluvial Soils:** This type of alluvial soils have large amount of fine silt and therefore these are less porous, are wet, heavy and rich in humus. These are found in the deltaic areas of all the rivers of India. The Sundarbans delta is the best example where soils are world famous for the cultivation of rice and jute.
 - (d) **Coastal Alluvial Soils:** This type of soils are formed along the coast, with the deposition of disintegrated material by sea waters. These light coloured soils are less fertile due to high amount of sand in them. Their expanse is more on the eastern coast as compared to the western coast.
 - (e) **Importance:** Besides facilitating irrigation by canals and wells , these alluvial soils have contributed greatly in the advancement of agriculture by providing the easily workable soft and fertile layer of soil and availability of underground water in sufficient quantity. That is why, the areas of these soils are also termed as the 'wheat and rice bowls' of the country.
- (2) **Black Soils :**
- (a) **Area:** These soils cover an area of about 5.5 lakh square kilometres in the country. These are upto 8 metre deep below the surface.
 - (b) **Regional Extent:** These soils are found in a triangular area extending from Mumbai (Maharashtra) in the west, Amarkantak plateau in the east, Guna (Madhya Pradesh) in the north to Belgaum (Karnataka) in the south. From this area many off-shoots extend into Andhra Pradesh. Besides, these soils are also found in Bundi and Kota districts of Rajasthan; Coimbatore, Salem, Tirunelivelli and Ramanathpuram districts of Tamil Nadu; and in Bundelkhand region of Uttar Pradesh.
 - (c) **Chemical Composition:** Black soils are generally rich in iron, potash, aluminum, lime and magnesium but are deficient in nitrogen, phosphorus and organic matter.
 - (d) **Characteristics:** These soils are formed due to the disintegration of volcanic rocks. Due to presence of iron and aluminum, these soils are black in colour. Because of higher amount of basalt and clay particles,

they are also sometimes called Regur soils. These are formed with the compaction of hard, impermeable and dark coloured fine particles. With the presence of limestone nodules in the lower layers of these soils, they could retain water for long time. During rainy seasons these become difficult to work as the plough gets stuck in the mud. Similarly, in dry season, cracks upto 15 -30 cm wide and upto 1 metre depth develop on these soils in which, soil from surrounding areas gets collected which increases their fertility.

- (e) **Importance:** Endowed with inexhaustible fertility this soil is helpful in the cultivation of commercial crops. That is why, wheat, sugarcane, linseed, bajra, cotton and citrus fruits are grown successfully. Since they are ideal for growing cotton, they are also called Black cotton soils.

(3) Red Soils:

- (a) **Area:** They cover an area of about 2 lakh square kilometres, with depth to about 4 metres in the plain areas.
- (b) **Regional Extent:** They practically encircle the entire black soil region of Deccan plateau on all sides. These soils extend over whole of Tamilnadu, parts of Karnataka, north-east Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, South Bihar, eastern Madhya Pradesh and north eastern hilly states. Besides, these soils are also found in some districts of Uttar Pradesh and Aravalli mountain regions of Rajasthan.
- (c) **Chemical Composition:** The red colour of these soils is due to the presence of iron. These have developed on crystalline and metamorphic rocks which are more sandy and less clayey. They are poor in nitrogen, humus, and phosphorus. But are rich in magnesium, iron and aluminum and so can produce excellent crops like bajra, pulses, cotton, tobacco, jowar and fruits. Particles of granite, schist and gneiss are found in these soils.

These soils are found in areas with low rainfall. On the uplands, these are gravelly, sandy or stony and porous. Under irrigation, these soils provide good production with application of ammonia, superphosphate, compost fertilizers. During rainy season, iron comes on the surface in the form of iron oxides through capillary action, which increases amount of red colour in these soils. Their depth, fertility, colour etc. vary greatly with change in height because of which they are also found in red - yellow and red -brown mixtures etc.

(4) Laterite Soils:

- (a) **Area:** These soils covering 2.5 lakh square kilometres of area, are found over 4% of the total soil area of the country. Their depth is only for few cm and they are found in patches and continuously at some places.
- (b) **Regional Extent:** These soils are well developed on the peaks of the basaltic hills and plateaus of Vindhya, Satpura and neighbouring ranges

in Madhya Pradesh, eastern ghat region of Orissa, hills of western ghats of Karnataka, south Maharashtra, Malabar in Kerala and north & eastern parts of Shillong plateau in the north eastern states.

- (c) **Chemical Composition:** These soils are generally poor in nitrogen, lime, potash, phosphorus, magnesium and organic matter. But due to being rich in iron and aluminum oxides, these soils are acidic in nature and red in colour.
 - (d) **Characteristics:** These are soils of warm tropical regions, where due to heavy rain (more than 200 cm), lime, silica and salts are leached away and so oxides of iron and aluminum are left behind. Its form in which aluminum is more, is called bauxite. The word laterite means brick type and it is used for making bricks. This soil is highly rocky and infertile which soaks the water very easily but due to high amount of silica in lower areas, this soil on mixing with loamy soil becomes fertile. The laterite soils are good for producing crops like topioca and cashewnuts.
- (5) Desert Soils:**
- (a) **Area:** This soil spreads over ancient basaltic rocks over an area of nearly 1.5 lakh square kilometres of the country.
 - (b) **Region:** These extend from Indus valley in the west to Aravalli mountain in the east in the states of Rajasthan, southern Punjab and southern Haryana.
 - (c) **Chemical Composition:** These soils are rich in soluble salts but contain varying percentage of calcium carbonate. This soil is very poor in nitrogen and humus.
 - (d) **Characteristics:** These soils contain 92% sand content and 8% clay content. The origin of these soils is mainly attributed to the continuous deposition of sand brought from the sea-coast (Kachchh) of Gujarat by the fast blowing summer monsoons. Under the influence of sand storms, their very fine particles reach southern districts of Punjab and Haryana in the form of 'Bhur' soils, and sand dunes of large sized particles are left behind. During long dry weather conditions, due to high evaporation and lack of leaching, the salt dissolved in water dries on the upper layer of the soil. The colour of these sandy soils ranges from red to brown generally light brown. These soils are most porous, dry, having large sized particles and less fertile. They are also called Sierozem soils.
 - (e) **Crops:** With irrigation facilities crops like bajra, jowar, cotton, wheat, sugarcane and some vegetables are grown in these sandy soils.
- (6) Saline and Alkaline Soils:**
- (a) **Area:** The saline and alkaline soils cover an area of about 1.53 lakh square kilometres in the interior and coastal parts of the country.

- (b) **Region:** These are found in small patches in the states of Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Haryana and southern parts of Punjab. Small pockets of these soils also occur in Rann of Kachchh on the sea coast; gulf of Cambay; near the mouths of Narmada, Tapti, Mahi, and Sabarmati; in the Dharwar and Bijapur districts of Karnataka; Goa and Tamilnadu and in coastal areas of Orissa.
- (c) **Chemical Composition:** Saline soils are although rich in sodium content, but have large amount of calcium, magnesium and nitrogen in mixed form. Alkaline soils are deficient in calcium and nitrogen. They are highly impervious and have a very low water holding capacity.
- (d) **Characteristics:** In the interior areas saline soils originate due to poor drainage and higher sub-soil water table. The salts in solution percolate in the soil and go on accumulating. But during dry season, due to capillary action, these salts come to the surface and are deposited there as a white layer over the soil surface. This type of soils are known by different local names such as Usar or Reh in Uttar Pradesh, Kallar or Thur in Punjab and Rakkar, Karl and Chopan in other parts of the country. The texture of these soils is sandy to loamy sand.
- (e) **Importance:** By employing improved methods of irrigation and with application of lime and gypsum, wherever needed, these can be improved by growing crops like berseem, rice and sugarcane can be cultivated.

(7) Peaty and Marshy Soils :

These soils are found in humid regions over an area of only 1500 square kilometres. These are found in Sunderbans delta, coastal areas of Orissa, south eastern coastal parts of Tamilnadu, central Bihar and Almora district of Uttar Pradesh. As a result of accumulation and decomposition of large amount of organic matter, these are black in colour and highly alkaline/acidic in nature. That is why peat (type of coal) soils are also known as 'Kari' soils in Kerala in which many salts are dissolved. Due to the presence of iron contents in organic matter, these soils sometimes become blue coloured heavy soils. During monsoons, these soils are generally submerged under water, and hence are put to paddy cultivation after the rains stop.

(8) Mountain Soils :

These soils cover on 7.2% of the total soil area of the country. These are shallow on the mountain slopes. But in valleys or gently sloping hill sides, their depth varies from few centimetres to 2 metres. These pervious soils have large proportion of sand, gravel, pebbles and soluble organic materials. These are deficient in lime but rich in iron and hence are ideal for the cultivation of tea. That is why they are also known as 'tea soils'. Due to growth of natural forests on them on the mountain slopes, these are also called the 'forest soils'.

The mountain soils are found in lower and middle ranges of the Himalayas especially in Assam, Ladakh, Lahaul -Spiti, Kinnaur, Darjeeling, Dehradun, Almora, Garhwal and in Nilgiri hills in the south.

Their colour and character changes with height. Upto an elevation of about 1800 metres in the hot sub-tropical belt of the Himalayan slopes, the brown coloured, acidic forest soils are found, due to the decomposition of deciduous vegetation. Between 1800 and 3000 metres of elevation, the temperatures are low and poorly decomposed coniferous vegetation convert these soils into grey-brown podzolic soils. In areas of higher elevation, alpine meadow soils occur above the timber line. These are shallow, dark in color and sandy-loam or sandy-silica in texture. The organic matter is not decomposed in these soils due to sharp fall in temperature.

(E) SOIL EROSION

The removal of top 15 to 30 cm thick layer of soil by natural agents such as water, wind, glaciers and by man is called soil erosion. Usually, it is of three types:-

- (i) **Sheet erosion:** In this type of erosion, thin sheet (layer) of soil is eroded uniformly from a large area by wind or running water.
- (ii) **Mill erosion:** During heavy rainfall, water flows forming narrow channels along the slope of the land. Many finger shaped grooves are formed over the surface.
- (iii) **Badland or Gully Erosion:** In some areas, deep ravines are formed after the soil is blown out by wind or is eroded deep by water. These ravines increase in size if the erosion continues.

Different parts of the country have been affected by these three types of soil erosion.

Areas of Soil Erosion:

Following parts of the country have been severely affected by this problem:-

- (i) In outer Himalayas (Shiwaliks), the natural vegetation has been removed indiscriminately due to which huge amounts of soil has been removed to fill the river valleys. This has resulted into floods which have caused great damage to the fertile land by depositing sand and water in low lying areas. At the same time, in hilly parts land slides increase.
- (ii) In Hoshiarpur and Ropar districts of Punjab; Yamuna; Chambal; catchment areas of Mahi and Sabarmati rivers, the choes and streams have made the land barren due to lack of vegetation.
- (iii) In the arid regions of south Punjab, Haryana, and eastern Rajasthan; western Uttar Pradesh and north western Gujarat, the soil has been eroded by fast blowing winds.
- (iv) In the north eastern states including West Bengal, due to erosion through heavy rainfall, floods and side cutting of river banks, hundreds of tonnes of soil is dumped into Bay of Bengal.
- (v) In the south and south eastern India, soil erosion takes place due to steeper slopes, heavy rainfall and faulty methods of cultivation.

Causes of Soil Erosion

Soil erosion is caused due to physical factors such as high temperature, snow storms, thunderstorms, heavy rainfall, steep slopes, sandy soils etc. Cultural factors like uncontrolled deforestation and overgrazing of pastures by animals; shifting cultivation; faulty methods of cultivation; rapid expansion of transportation, communication and canal networks; mining etc. also lead to erosion of soil.

Soil Conservation

Soil is a precious resource, which is transported from one place to another by action of winds and water. To protect it from this loss and to conserve the fertile soil is moral duty of all of us. Therefore, the government has paid special attention to the problem of soil erosion by establishing Central Soil Conservation Board in 1953 and the state governments established Soil Testing Laboratories. Besides these, targets are set for the conservation of soil in every Five Year Plan. Trees are planted in rows to create windbreaks and shelter belts to reduce velocity of winds in Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Uttaranchal and Uttar Pradesh. Also the trees like Dhak, Kikar and Khejri are being planted and suitable grass is grown on the sand dunes to check their expansion. The Indian Army has made a significant contribution in this regard. Similarly, in hilly areas, contour ploughing and terrace cultivation is practised and small water reservoirs are made. In plain areas, soil can be conserved by covering it with vegetation, crop rotation, and by using manures. In the hilly areas, conservation of soil is being done by controlling the unrestricted grazing by sheep, goats and other animals and by afforestation. Jharkhand government has made strict regulations for shifting cultivation in the Chhota Nagpur plateau region.

In the end, besides the government, it is the moral and religious duty of all of us to protect the soil resources around us.

Exercise

I. Answer each of the following question in brief :

A. Natural Vegetation:

1. What is meant by Natural vegetation?
2. Differentiate between forest and flora.
3. Give the names and quantity of foreign species of natural vegetation existing in our country.
4. Which vegetation type is known as "Terror of Bengal"?
5. In which places the local Natural vegetation is found in India?
6. What percentage of land in India is covered under forests as compared to the whole world?
7. What is the regional division of forest area in India?

8. In which State and Union territories the areas of maximum and minimum forest land fall?
9. Why do coniferous forests are found more than the broad leave forests in our country?
10. Which are State forests?
11. What do you mean by Reserved Forests?
12. Name some trees of Tropical Evergreen vegetation.
13. Which factors destroy the semi-arid deciduous vegetation?
14. Give the names of trees and areas of arid vegetation.
15. What are the other names of Tidal vegetation?
16. Name the trees found at an elevation of above 2500 metres in Eastern Himalayas.
17. In which areas does Mountainous vegetation grow in Deccan Plateau?
18. What are "Shola Forests"?
19. Which trees are used for making Health Medicines?
20. Which trees are used for leather tanning?
21. What is the place of India at International level in per capita forest area?
22. What is the Chief objective of National Forest Policy?

B. Animal Life:

1. How many different types of animals could be there?
2. What type of areas are liked by Elephant to live in?
3. Which species of deer are found in India?
4. Where are lions found in India?
5. Name the animals which are found in the Himalayas.
6. Name the National Animal and Bird of India.
7. Which species of animals are endangered?

C. Soils :

1. Due to which reasons man has been attracted towards fertile soils?
2. Define Soil.
3. How is Soil formed?
4. Which are the basic elements of Soil?
5. Why are the Red Soils found on the Deccan plateau?
6. Which chemical elements are found in the Black Soil?
7. Where are laterite soils found in India?
8. Where are 'Bhur' Soil found?
9. What are different names of saline soils in different parts of the country?
10. In which areas of India are the soils suitable for cultivation of Tea found?
11. What is meant by Soil erosion?
12. What different measures are taken to check the forward extension of desert?
13. How is soil erosion controlled through countour bunding?

II. Answer each of the following questions in short :

A. Natural Vegetation:

1. Why has foreign vegetation become a problem for us? Elaborate with examples.
2. How could foreign plants be harmful for us?
3. What are the main reasons for our natural vegetation not remaining actually natural?
4. Analyse the forest area in our country at the regional and State levels.
5. How are forest lands classified on the basis of accessibility.
6. Write a short note on Deciduous or Monsoonal Vegetation.
7. What type of vegetation is found in east Himalayan regions?
8. How does natural vegetation act as a boon for industries?
9. What have been the implications of indiscriminate cutting of forests in the country?

B. Animal Life:

1. What steps are being taken for protection of Animal Life in India?

C. Soils

1. What is the contribution of Primary Rocks in the formation of soils?
2. What should be done to increase the fertility of Soil?
3. How are soils classified on different bases?
4. Write a short note on Peat and Marshy Soil.
5. What are different types of Soil erosion?
6. What are the agents of soil erosion?

III. Answer each of the following questions subjectively :

1. Explain the classification of natural vegetation of India on various bases.
2. How is natural vegetation classified on the basis of geographical elements in the country?
3. "There is found a sequence vegetation from Tropical Evergreen to Alpine Vegetation in India", explain this statement.
4. Describe the benefits of natural vegetation to the country.
5. Which elements determine the texture of soil?
6. Discuss the various types and characteristics of soils found in India.
7. What is Soil erosion? Why is it caused? What is its regional distribution? How can it be checked?

IV. Show the following map on the of India:

1. Areas of arid vegetation.
2. Mangrove Vegetation Area.
3. Areas of Black and Alluvial Soils.
4. Areas of Laterite, Red and Mountainous soils.

CHAPTER 5

WATER RESOURCES AND IRRIGATION PROJECTS

The water that falls on the surface of the earth from the atmosphere behaves in three ways, which is called hydrological cycle. Firstly, some of the water flows into streams and rivers. Secondly, it penetrates into the ground and thirdly, some of the water evaporates and returns to the atmosphere in the form of clouds to be returned to the ground in the form of rain or snow.

Although the effect of this water-cycle is different on in various parts of the earth but our country is rich in water resources. From Kashmir to Arunachal Pradesh, 40,000 Sq. km. of area is covered with snow and the snowline starts above an average elevation of 5,000 metres. Similarly, the average annual rainfall of 118 cm. over the country shows a total amount of nearly 38 lakh million cubic metres of water. Of this amount 13 lakh million cubic metres are lost due to evaporation and about 8 lakh million cubic metres penetrates into the soil and mixes with the underground water and the rest about 17 lakh m. cubic metres flows into the rivers. Roughly 85 per cent of this flows into the major rivers and the remaining 15% flows into medium and minor streams. The total catchment area of all the rivers of the country, is about 3 million sq. km. This is also called the total water resources budget of the country.

Due to uneven distribution of rainfall, in some areas there are floods while in some others there are droughts. Therefore, developed means of irrigation are badly needed in arid and semi -arid regions of the country and multipurpose projects are planned for the proper management of river water resources. Therefore, to study and analyse the entire water resources of the country, knowledge of the river system; problem of droughts and floods; irrigation and its sources; and multipurpose projects, is necessary.

(I) DRAINAGE SYSTEM

The drainage of water is essential on the surface of the earth, which is determined by the slope of land. Water flowing from higher to lower areas shapes its course in the form of perennial rivers, seasonal streams and choes etc. Water flowing in the rivers has been the centre of attraction for man since ancient times. Rivers have been used by farmers, fishermen, traders, warriors, travellers, and regional planners. The erosion and deposition of soils by them; easy availability and drainage of water; external and internal transportation; availability of facilities like irrigation and power etc., provide strong links in economic and cultural life of the country. The river Indus or *Sindh* flowing in northwestern part of the sub-continent has given name '*Hindustan*' to the

country. The religious significance of Ganges has been increasing because its water is considered sacred. Besides this, rivers like Yamuna and Saraswati are also considered sacred.

Besides religious significance, the size, speed, amount of water, height of the the ground, slope and climate hold an important place in the drainage system of rivers. The monsoon rains affects the rivers of both northern and southern parts of the country but to have complete knowledge about the shape, slope, direction, source, size and speed of the rivers, Indian drainage system has been divided into two main divisions:-

- (I) Internal Drainage System
- (II) External Drainage System

(I) Internal Drainage System:

Many rivers or streams of our country either dry up on their way in arid land or enter lake before reaching the oceans. This type of adjournment or drainage of water within land areas is known as internal drainage system. This type of drainage system is studied on the bases of places of origin and destination of rivers.

(1) Origin: This type of drainage system in the country originates on the slopes of Himalayas and Aravalli mountains.

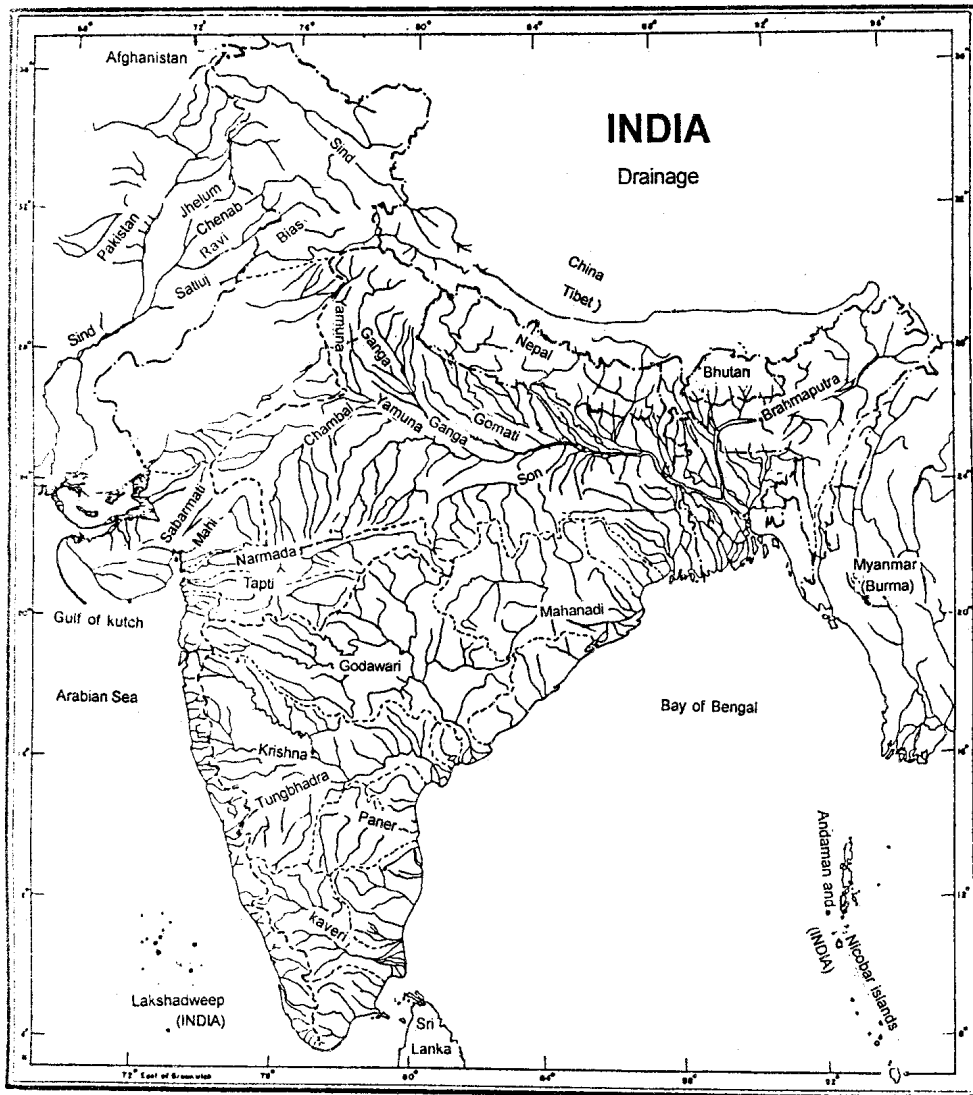
(a) Himalayan region: This region includes the internal drainage system of the Shiwaliks and Ladakh.

(i) From the Shiwalik hills, the Ghaggar river originates from almost 1500 metres high Morni hills and enters the plains near Panchkula. Then moving towards south and southwest, it reaches the Hanumangarh city of Rajasthan through Punjab -Haryana border, helped by various tributaries during rainy season. But due to irrigation and heavy evaporation it finishes on its way. Its main tributaries are Sukhna, Tangri, Markanda, Saraswati.

(ii) **Secondly**, besides Ghaggar, small rivulets like Jainti Rao and Patiali Rao flowing near Chandigarh, also form a part of this drainage system of the Shiwalik hills.

Thirdly, some rivers are also found in the Terai region, which after originating from the slopes of southern of Himalayas, disappear in the foothill Bhabar region. And after a long distance they again appear on the surface. Kosi river of this region has been this type of river since the ancient Pleistocene period.

(iii) **Ladakh region:** Besides, the Aksai -Chin river of the inter -montane plateau region of Ladakh, many more small streams also form this type of drainage system.



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(b) Aravalli Region: Many rivers originate during rainy season in these low mountainous regions. Rivers originating on the western slopes get dried before reaching the Sambhar lake, and Jaipur lake or they disappear in the sand dunes due to excessive heat and fast evaporation. Luni stream, originates near Sambhar lake and after joining the tributaries like Sukri, Jabai, Bondi and Mitri, it flows for 100 kilometres towards south. And after taking a southwest direction, it disappears in the saline and marshy areas of Rann of Kachchh.

(2) Destination: In this internal drainage system, many small rivers and streams or seasonal streams (known as *choes* in Punjab), also drain their water in deep trenches on the ground which are called lakes. These lakes are found in all the three important natural divisions: the Himalayas, the Thar desert and the peninsular plateau:-

(a) Lakes of Himalayas: Large lakes are formed, due to the internal movements of the earth, drifting of land and the closure of river courses, in the mountainous areas of Kashmir and eastern mountain ranges of Kumaon.

(i) Lakes like Dal, Wular, Anantnag, Sheshnag, Vairinag etc. of **Kashmir region** are world famous. Besides these, lakes like Pengong -Tasho, Spargur -Tasho, Lig-zi-Tang, Harnag, Dhudnag, Anchor, Tao-Murari, are also found. Gobindsagar of Himachal Pradesh and Logtak lake of Manipur are also important.

(ii) Important lakes of **Kumaon Himalayas** are Bhimtal, Chaderpal tal, Nainital, Punatal, Gugnatal, Sattal, Nakutchiatal, Khurpatal, Mlbatal, etc.

(b) Lakes of Thar Desert: These include Sambhar, Salt lake, Jivai, Chauparbara bandh, Saipad, and Jaisomand lakes. Besides these, water sources like Didwana, Panchbhadra, Lunkaransar, Kachor, Revasa, Rajasmand, Fatehsagar, Udaisagar, Pichola, are also found.

(c) Lakes of Peninsular Plateau: Natural lakes like Lonar of Maharashtra, Chilka of Orissa, Pulicat of Tamilnadu, Periyar of Kerala and Kolleru of Andhra Pradesh, etc, are included under the lakes of peninsular plateau.

(II) External/Out -land Drainage System : In this type of drainage system, rivers after moving from high mountain regions, join the oceans. On the basis of origin, destination, character and direction of flow, these types of rivers can be divided into different parts:

(i) On the basis of Origin: The uplands between the two river systems are known as water-divides or watersheds. There are two water-divides in India- Himalayan mountain range and the Vindhyan-Satpura ranges in peninsular plateau. A comparative study of rivers originating in both these regions presents wide contrast:-

Himalayan Rivers	Peninsular Rivers
1. They are perennial in nature.	1. They are seasonal in nature.
2. They are very long. Length of Ganga, Satluj and Brahmaputra exceeds 2,500 km.	2. They are smaller in length. The longest peninsular river, Godawari is only 1,465 km. long.
3. Their catchment area is spread over many lakhs sq.km. The catchment area of Ganga is 10 lakh sq. km.	3. Their catchment area is comparatively small as compared to the Himalayan rivers. The catchment area of river Godawari is only 3 lakh sq. km.
4. They are large in number.	4. They are less in number.
5. Glaciers and rainfall are their main sources of water.	5. They depend only on the monsoonal rainfall.
6. Most of these rivers are antecedent, e.g. Indus, Sutlej, Alaknanda and Brahmaputra.	6. These are consequent.
7. These rivers are in their youthful stage due to their flow on the steeper slopes. Headward erosion leads to the formation of waterfalls.	7. They have reached the old age because they flow on the simple and gentle slopes. That is why Godawari is named as Old Ganga in the South.
8. These rivers deposit lakhs of tons of silt every year in the oceans after eroding the sediments from the fold mountains. Indus river deposits 300 million tons of silt every year in the Arabian sea.	8. Their surface being made of hard rocks, very less amount of soils are eroded and deposited by these rivers.
9. In these rivers, water is thousands of cusecs. The flow of Ganga at Farakka is between 13,000 to 55,000 cusecs.	9. The amount of water flowing in these rivers is very less. Maximum flow of Godawari at Valloppram is 3,200 cusecs and minimum is 50 cusecs.
10. Very deep gorges are formed by these rivers. Gilgit of Indus, Dihang of Brahmaputra and Bhakra of Sutlej are world famous narrow gorges.	10. They flow through the less deep and broad valleys. Narmada and Tapti rivers flow through the rift valleys.
11. They often change their courses and move by forming meanders, as for example Yamuna, Saraswati, Kosi and Tista etc. That	11. Due to the hard surface base, these flow in straight and well defined courses.

is why some times the river capture occurs.	
12. Big rivers of this region often form the deltas. Sunderban Delta is famous example.	12. Their deltas are small or nominal. Narmada and Tapti end in estuaries only.
13. These rivers are economically important in terms of navigation and irrigation. In Brahmaputra ships can move down from Dibrugarh.	13. Navigation is not possible in these rivers due to the severe lack of water.

(ii) **On the basis of characteristics:** Besides the places of origin of rivers, rivers can be classified on the basis of their characteristics as perennial and seasonal rivers. Similarly, on the basis of **direction** of flow, they may be named as north, south, east and west flowing rivers. But it seems from the above divisions, that a river has been divided into too many parts.

(iii) **On the basis of destination,** therefore, Indian rivers can be divided into two main divisions, which also includes direction: (a) rivers falling into the Bay of Bengal, and (b) rivers falling into the Arabian Sea. Table 5.1 presents a brief description about the main features of rivers of Bay of Bengal and of Arabian Sea.

(II) FLOOD PROBLEM

India's large drainage system indicates towards the huge water sources which are possessed by rivers like Brahmaputra, Sutlej, Godavari, Krishna, Mahanadi, Narmada, Tapti, etc. In this drainage system especially during, southwestern monsoons, heavy rainfall in vast areas, results in the increase of water level, which destroys the banks of rivers and water flows in the form of flood which causes heavy damage to life and property. The problem of floods can be understood in terms of location of flood prone areas, the causes of floods and remedies to control them.

(i) **Major Flood Prone Areas:** The great northern plains of the country are badly affected by floods. These cover 90% of the total flood affected area of the country, which falls over eastern Uttar Pradesh, east Bihar, Bengal, Assam valley, Haryana, Punjab, and northeastern Rajasthan. About 15% of the damage occurs in the plain areas of Punjab and Haryana. Remaining 10% of the damage occurs in the lower parts of Mahanadi, Krishna, Cauvery, Godavari, Narmada and Tapti rivers.

(ii) **Causes of Floods:** Floods are mainly the result of heavy rainfall, large number of mighty cyclones, deforestation, internal movements and faulty drainage system, etc. When a daily rainfall of 15 cms or above, occurs on the higher and steeper slopes, it generally results in the rise of waters in rivers and streams flowing in the plain areas. Almost similarly, three to four severe

Table 5.1
Main features of rivers of Bay of Bengal

Name of River	Main Tributaries	Place of Origin	Total length (km) and Nature	Water Catchment area (sq.km.)	Place where it enters bay of Bengal, Delta and other facts
1. Ganga	Yamuna, Ravi, Ganga, Gaudhak Small Gandhiak, Kosi, Damodar Son, Ken, Teion, Betwa Chambal, Bhagnmati, Mahanadi, Gomti, Bhairve, Mata Bhangu and Gorai,	Gangotri glacier due to confluence of Alak Nanda and Beghirathi	2525 2415 (India) Perennial	9,51,600	In India in the name of Baghirathi-Hooghly alongwith Dwarka Ajay, Roopnaryan and Haldi a tributories enter 5 th Bay of Bengal through the Sunder bay Delta of 24 Pargana distt.
2. Brahma- Putra	Reja Sakho, Lohtaso, Nagang-hu-kai, kai chu, Gyamdhu-chu, Dibang Lohit, Subansari, Kasang, Manas, Sekiang, Badhi, Dihang, Dhansiri, Tista, Torsa, Surma Amo and sankosh.	Caim yang dung, Glacier near the Mansrover lake.	2580 885 (India) Perennial	5,80,000 2,40,000	This river is known as Sapupo in tibet, Dihang in India, Brahmaputra in Bangla Desh, its confluence with Ganga, it is known as Yamuna after that padma. After the confluenced with Surma it is Meghna etc. It makes the delta of Sunderban.
3. Subharan Rekha		Chiabasa (Jharkhand)	480 Seasonal	19500	It meets at the place Bhograi in Balser distt (Orissa)
4. Barahamini	S. Koyal Sakh Salindi and veterni	Ranchi (Jharkhand)	706 Seasonal	36000	Joins the low delta of Palmair pt.
5. Mahanadi	Sao Nath, Hassade Mavd, Ib. Ong te tail	Northern hills of bastar distt. (Chhattisgarh)	858 Seasonal	132090	Makes delta at the places of Paradip and Jagatsinghpur

6. Godawari	Sabri, Parwara Kadam, Mayru Mula, Pranlut. Penganga venganga vardha. Indrawati, Purna Dudhang	At the place of trambak in Nassik distt. (Maharashtra)	1465 Seasonal	3,13,839	Flowing through Nigam sea from Raja Mundri city lower Godawari pt. to Narsapur. Meets through delta by the Gautam Godawari and Vashist Godawari's two tributaries A last 160 km. Shipping is possible.
7. Krishna	Bhima, Tungbhadra. Musi. Koina Yarla, Varma, Panch ganga. Bhudh Ganga Ghat Prabha. Malprabha, Maiguri Tunga Gharh Neera and Kreina.	Mahableshwar (W. Ghats)	1400 Seasonal	25,9000	Flowing through the Nagarujan Sea, after Vijayvarha, Mashalli Patnam from Delta -falasdivi pt. to Digla it enter the Bay of Bengal
8. Pennar	Chitrati, Paodhamia	Tumkar (Karnatka)	1000 Seasonal	25,000	After Nellore meet the low delta
9. Cauveri	Hemavati, Harrangi, Shimsha, Lok Puvani, Arkawak, Lakshman, Tirtha Kabani, Suwaranavati, Bhawani and Amravati	Near the Kurg (Karnatka) Brahmagiri hills	850 Seasonal	80,290	Flows through Mysore lake to staineley water reservoir after reaching shri Rangam it divides in to 5-6 tributaries to its largest delta extends from Chindumbram callimar pt and Patkoi.
10. Vaigai		Kamban	600 Seasonal	12,000	After Rama Nathapuram it joins the Bay of Bengal at palk strait.

Some facts about the Drainage System of Arabian Sea.

Name of River	Main Tributaries	Place of Origin	Total length (km) and Nature	Water Catchment area (sq.km.)	Place where it joins Arabian Sea & other facts
1. Sind	Jhelam, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej, Gartag, Jaskar, Drass, Shink Sagar, Mubra, Gilgit, Hoonja, Kabul, Kuram Tochi, Jauhab Somei	Gartunger near the Mansarovar lake to Northern Kailash mt. And Singi. Khabab river's confluence	2880 709 (India) Perennial	11,65000 32,1290 India	It flows down in Arabian sea after making a delta near Karachi at the place of Ketu Bander.
	(a) Jhelam : Chenab Ravi and Sutlej	Near the Anantnag, by the confluence of Verinag spring and from two tributaries of Kolahoy mts.	400 India Perennial	24,500	Flows nearby the Shrinagar and passing through dull, Voolar lake, it enter into river Chenab near Pir Panjal
	(b) Chenab : Chandra and Bhaga	At the confluence of the river Chandra Bhaga near Bara Lacha Pass.	1200 (India) Perennial	27,000	Passing through Jammu city enter the Jhelam river near Jhang-Mughlana
	(C) Ravi	Near the Rohtang pass, by the confluence of two tributaries of Bhandal and tanta giri	725 (India) Perennial	16,000	Name : Aaskini passing through Chamba and Dalhousie enters in Jhelam River at the place of Ahmadpur old name : Irravaddi
	(d) Beas	Beas kund (Rohtang Pass)	470 (India) Perennial	26,000	Join in sutlej river near the Harike Pattan (Amritsar) Old Name : Vipasa.

	(e) Sutlej : Spiti Kali Baien, Chiti Baien Beas, Namgia Baspa, Sen Sisvan and Sirsa	Rak stal Lake near the Kailash Mt. Of Tibet	1050 (India) Perennial	24,000	It enters India through Sh. Pki Pass. Passing through Ropar enter into Jehlam near Alipur old Name : Satadaru.
2. Mahi		Dhaar Distt (Madhya Pradesh) Vindhyaachal Hills.	533 Seasonal	12,000	It enters near the Khambat city, one right hand side bay of Khambat.
3. Sabarmati	Vahal, Harro Hathth. Maththi Vatrak and Meshwa	Southern hill of Aravalli near Udaipur	416 Seasonal	54,610	Passing through Gandhinagar and Ahmedabad cities, enters through the northern bay of Khambat
4. Narmada	Burnhar, Bayar, Sher Dhuidhi, Shakar tawa, Heera Tandoni, Barna. Machak Kundi Kollar Goi, and Karyan.	From the Pond of Amartek Plateau	1312 Seasonal	93,180	Passing through Jabbalpur and Hoshangabad cities enter the Bay of Khambat at Bharoth without making delta in south.
5. Tapi		At the Maltai in Batural distt. Of Madhya Pradesh	724 Seasonal	64,750	Passing through the Bhoosawal city enters the Arabian sea at Surat through the month of river Arudh.

cyclones occur near the eastern coast of India and bring heavy rainfall, which causes heavy damage in the coastal and deltaic regions. Thirdly, due to the uncontrolled cutting of forests in areas like Shivaliks, Assam Himalayas, Chhota Nagpur and due to the prevalence of shifting cultivation in the lower slopes of Himalayas, water after eroding the soil reaches the lower parts along with the silt. Fourthly, in parts of Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh, due to flat topography and large number of developmental works (new roads, rail tracks and canals), drainage is poor. Similarly, in the deltaic areas of Bengal, Orissa and Andhra Pradesh, due to tidal action, mouths of rivers get filled with silt and as a result heavy damage takes place.

(iii) Flood Control Measures: The Government of India launched National Flood Control Programme in 1954 to control floods. This Board through its national flood control policy, suggested immediate, short term and long term measures for tackling the problem of floods. On the basis of these, steps like brick lining of embankments, desilting, raising rural areas above the flood level to protect them from floods, channel diversions, construction of dykes to be used during emergency, afforestation in mountainous areas, identifying flood areas, forecasting floods, remedial measure against floods and construction of check dams on steep slopes, etc., were taken. But this is such a serious problem that till now man has not been able to completely control the natural conditions of drainage in regions of rainfall. But the effect of floods can be certainly reduced by afforestation in high mountain areas, checking silting and soil erosion, by constructing series of water reservoirs in the hilly areas and by stopping illegal control on lands in the river basins. Recently, Ganga Action Plan to clear its water and Shramdan or voluntary service/labour for desilting of Sukhna lake in Chandigarh and private dams like Sukho Majri near Chandigarh are its unique examples.

In this way, it could be said that unprotected and unattended rivers are big engines of destruction but their care proves exceedingly useful for man and conditions of drought can be easily faced.

(III) DROUGHT PROBLEM

According to the survey conducted by meteorological department, 16% of country's total geographical area is drought -prone area and 11% of country's population is affected by it. According to the Irrigation Commission Report of 1972, those areas of the country which receive rainfall of less than 75 cm, could be affected by drought. On the basis of average annual rainfall received by a region, three levels of drought can be identified: (1) Minor drought- less than 75% of rainfall, (2) Average drought- less than 70% of rainfall, (3) Extreme and complete drought- less than 50% of rainfall.

(i) Drought Areas : These areas are mostly found in arid or semi -arid regions of the country:

(a) Malwa Region : It includes Gujarat, adjoining areas of Rajasthan,

Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana and parts of Madhya Pradesh.

- (b) Central parts of Maharashtra and Karnataka, Rayalseema, south Telangana and some areas in Tamilnadu.

Out of these, the extreme drought occurs in western Rajasthan, and Kachchh regions where the variability of monsoonal rainfall is 25% more than normal (50 cm).

(ii) Suggestions for the drought affected areas: Although rainfall is uncertain in the northwestern parts of the country, but the conjunctive use of rain water, surface water and underground water, is possible in these areas. Secondly, the introduction of specific crop pattern and deep ploughing techniques, would provide optimum protection from the drought and at the same time ensure a reasonable and reliable income per hectare of cultivated area. Thirdly, through other sources of irrigation like canals, tanks, and wells and by employing drip or sprinkle irrigation system like in Israel, we can develop the dry farming. Fourthly, by using High Yielding Variety of seeds (HYVs) developed by the Agricultural Universities, production is possible from the saline area also. Fifthly, expeditious completion of the on-going projects (extension of canals, dams, lift irrigation schemes) should be given priority in future planning. Many attempts have been made in the past three Five Year Plans for defining and developing drought areas.

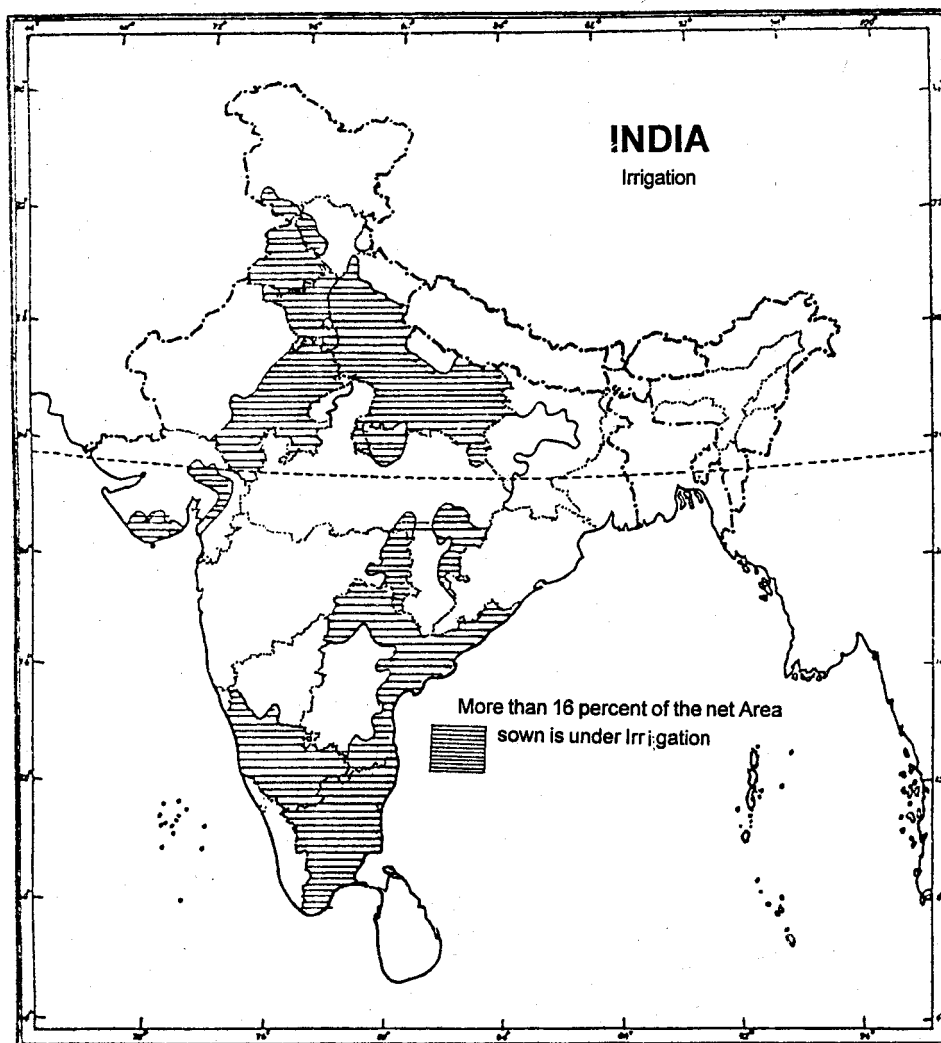
(IV) IRRIGATION

The total average annual surface run -off of rivers in India is 1,67,750 crore cubic metres and every year 42,400 crore cubic metres water seeps into the ground. In this way almost 2 lakh crore cubic metres of the usable water becomes available. Due to the limitation of physiography and present state of technology only 55,517 crore cubic metres (28%) of the water flowing in rivers could be used. Out of the total geographical area (32.87 crore hectares) of the country, only 30 crore hectares is available for cultivation. And out of this we have been able to provide irrigation to only 8 crore hectares (26.6%) of area and only 40,000 crore cubic metres (73%) of water.

But the uneven distribution, seasonal concentration and untimely burst of rainfall, prove a gamble in an agricultural country like India, where population is also increasing at a very fast rate. Therefore, there is a strong need for bringing more and more area under irrigation to fulfill the food needs of fast increasing population, by making land suitable for cultivation and by getting higher yields.

Sources of Irrigation : To make use of both the surface and ground water for irrigation in the country, mainly four sources are used : (a) Canals, (b) Wells and tubewells, (c) Tanks and (d) Others (springs, Kuhls, Bndhary, Ahar, Pine, Thingal, Doon etc.)

- (a) **Canals:** Canal irrigation accounts for the 47% of the net irrigated area in India. In the great northern alluvial plains of Punjab, Haryana, Uttar



Based upon Survey of India map with the permission of the Surveyor General of India. © Government of India Copyright 2001
THE ADMINISTRATIVE HEADQUARTERS OF CHANDIGARH, HARYANA AND PUNJAB ARE AT CHANDIGARH

Pradesh and Bihar, canals are widely used. Besides these, deltaic areas of the important southern rivers like Mahanadi (Orissa), Godavari and Krishna (Andhra Pradesh) and Cauvery (Tamilnadu) etc., also comes under their influence.

Major Canals: In Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan, major canals include the Nangal Hydrel Channel, Sirhind canal, Upper Bari Doab canal, Bist Doab canal, Bikaner canal, Western Yamuna canal and Chambal canal. Eastern Yamuna canal, Upper Ganga (Uttaranchal), lower Ganga, Agra, Sharda, Betwa, etc, are important canals in Uttar Pradesh. In Bihar, a number of grids have been developed on canals like Gandak, Kosi and Son. In the south, Tungbhadra and Upper Krishna of Karnataka; deltaic canals like Nagarjuna, Penar, Krishna and Cauvery of Andhra; Mettur, lower Bhawani and Cauvery in Taminadu; Manglam and Malampuja canals of Kerala; Bhandardara, Gangapur and Bhatagar of Maharashtra and Kakrapara, Ukai and Mahi of Gujarat etc, are counted as important canals.

- (b) **Wells:** There are more than 70 lakh wells (Kutchha and Pucca) in alluvial plain regions of the country. In place of bull or animal driven Persian Wheel wells, the number of power driven tubewells, diesel operated pump sets is continuously increasing. These are found in greater numbers in Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, Gujarat and Tamilnadu and irrigate 38% of the net irrigated area of the country.
- (c) **Tanks:** These are mostly found in the Deccan plateau region and irrigate 10% of the net irrigated area in the country. The hard and impervious rocks do not allow the water to penetrate deep into the ground. Irrigation through tanks is mainly practised in the states of Karnataka, Tamilnadu, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal.

(V) MULTIPURPOSE PROJECTS

For irrigating the extensive fertile areas and to solve the problems of flood and drought, efficient water management in the country is essential. Therefore, central government established a Flood Control Board, whose main objective or function was to store water surplus in high rainfall areas and then supply this water to be used in the arid and drought affected areas. For this, about 600 multipurpose river valley projects were started after independence. Of these only 400 projects have been successfully completed. The main purposes of the river valley projects are following: (1) to store water by linking dams and releasing it for irrigation over a long period, (2) generation of electricity, (3) development of fishing activity in water reservoirs and dams, (4) reducing the intensity of floods in the lower areas of the river, (5) checking soil erosion, (6) plantation of trees in the catchment area, (7) developing tourist places, (8) developing facilities of water transport, etc. Some important multipurpose projects of the country are:-

- (1) **Bhakhra Nangal Project:** Under this project, 518 metre long and 226 metres

high dam has been constructed across the Sutlej at Bhakhra (Himachal Pradesh) ahead of Nangal. It is considered among the highest dams in the world. Behind this dam, a huge reservoir, 80 Km. long and 8 km wide, called 'Gobind Sagar lake', with a water storage capacity of 2 lakh cubic metres has been made. From this two 1100 km long canals and 3400 km long distributaries have been taken out that irrigate about 30 lakh hectares of land. Two power houses with a generating capacity of 1205 Megawatts have been constructed below the dam. At Ganguwal and Kotla ahead of Nangal dams have been built which generate 72 MW of electricity. This project supplies electricity to Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan and Delhi regions. The Ropar thermal plant also gets water from the Nangal Hydel Channel.

- (2) **Beas Project:** Under this project, a dam has been constructed, with 6.9 lakh hectares of water storage capacity and 240 MW of power generating capacity, at Pong on river Beas in Himachal Pradesh. It provides irrigation water to 17 lakh hectares area of Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan.
- (3) **The Damodar Valley Project:** This project consists of a series of dams constructed on Damodar river and its tributaries in 1948 on the similar lines as the Tennessee Valley Project of the United States of America. In the first phase of this project, four dams at Tilaiya, Konar, Maithan, Panchet were constructed. In the second phase, four hydro-electric stations at Belaphary, Bokaro, Aiyar and Bermo were constructed. Channels were constructed for irrigation cum navigation purposes upto 2500 km by constructing an irrigation barrage at Durgapur. This entire project has made Damodar river and its tributaries, a boon, as it has helped in controlling floods due to which it was earlier called as the 'Sorrow of Bengal'. Through this project, the mineral region of south Bihar (Jharkhand) and industrial belt of Kolkata has been linked to hydro -electricity grid. The thermal plants constructed at Bokaro, Durgapur and Chandrapura provide 1100 MW of electricity. A total of 1300 MW of electricity is generated from this entire project and 5 lakh hectares of land is irrigated.
- (4) **The Kosi Project:** This is a joint project being constructed at the Bihar - Nepal border. Earlier devastating floods occurred when river Kosi used to enter the plains with water acquired from the great Himalayas and surrounding mountain ranges and many a times the river used to change its course. Therefore it was also known as the 'Sorrow of Bihar'. But now a barrage has been constructed near Hanumangarh in Nepal, on the Chatrakandra gorge of Kosi., having an installed capacity of 2000 KW (Kilowatts). From here, Western and Eastern Kosi canals have been constructed which irrigate 4 lakh hectares of land in Nepal and 8 lakh hectares in Bihar (total 12 lakh hectares). A 270 km long embankment on the western bank has been constructed to have protection from floods.
- (5) **The Hirakud Project:** Parallel to the Damodar valley project this project was started after 1948 to regulate the Mahanadi in Orissa. On this river,

three dams at Hirakud, Tikarpara and Naraj, were constructed. These had a generating capacity of 250 MW of electricity and could irrigate 10 lakh hectares of land. The Hirakud dam (in Sambalpur district) is 4800 metres long and 61 metres high. It is flanked on both sides by 21 km long concrete dykes to impound 8100 million cubic metre of water. From here, three canals have been taken out respectively from Sambalpur, Baragarh and Sasan. Navigation is possible for a distance of 117 km from Dholpur to Cuttak through small shallow draft power craft due to regulated flow in the Mahanadi.

- (6) **The Tungabhadra Project:** This is a joint venture of the governments of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka which was taken up in 1956 at Tungabhadra -a tributary of Krishna river, at Mallapuram in Bellary district of Karnataka. It comprises a 2441 metres long and 46.39 metres high dam and has a water reservoir with a spread of 37,000 hectares. The total installed capacity for power generation is 126 MW. A total of 5 lakh hectares of land is irrigated in Anantpur, Kurnool (Andhra Pradesh) and Raichur, Bellary (Karnataka) districts by three canals namely the Left Bank canal, the low level and the upper level canals.
- (7) **The Nagarjunasagar Project:** This project comprises the 1450 metres long and 125 metres high masonry dam on the Krishna river near Nandikonda village in Andhra Pradesh. Its power generation capacity is 100 MW. The water reservoir has a capacity of 808 crore cubic metres of water, on a waterspread it can be stored on 24,000 hectares of land. Through this dam, 9 lakh hectares of land is irrigated in the districts of Khammam, West Godavari, Guntur, Kurnool and Nellore, with the help of 200 km long left and right bank canals.
- (8) **The Rihand Project:** The dam comprises of a 934 metre long and 91 metre high straight gravity concrete dam constructed across the river Rihand near village Pipri in Mirzapur district of Uttar Pradesh having 300 MW of power generation capacity. The reservoir known as Govind Ballabh Pant Sagar behind the dam spreading over 466 square kilometres of area can store 1060 crore cubic metre of water. It irrigates south Mirzapur (Madhya Pradesh) and Western Palamau districts and electricity is supplied to tubewells and electrification of railways.
- (9) **The Ram Ganga Project:** Under this project, 626 metre long and 126 metre high earth and rock fill dam has been built on Ramganga river at Kalagarh in Garhwal district with a power generation capacity of 198 MW and for irrigating 6 lakh hectares of land. Its purpose was also to check the flood intensity in central and western Uttar Pradesh. From this a feeder canal has been linked to supply water to the Ganga canals. Also 200 cusecs of water is also supplied for Delhi Water Supply Scheme.
- (10) **The Chambal Project:** This project was started in 1953 -54 as a joint venture of Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh governments. The project was planned

to be completed in three phases. By the year 1971 -72, three dams - the Gandhi Sagar, Rana Sagar and Jawahar Sagar, were constructed. These had a total power generation capacity of 386 MW. These three dams alongwith Kota dam and the Left and right Main Canals irrigate 6 lakh hectares of land of the surrounding districts of both the states.

- (11) Besides these, Kakrapara on Tapti; Mayurkashi of West Bengal; Krishnarjun on Cauvery; Gandak of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar; Sabrigiri and Idukki of Kerala and Koenka of Maharashtra etc. are other major multipurpose projects of India.

Exercise

- I. Answer each of the following questions in brief :**
1. What is water-cycle?
 2. What is amount of water flows in rivers of our country?
 3. How can the country's water resources be utilized rationally?
 4. For which people had the rivers been centres of Attraction?
 5. What facilities are provided by the rivers?
 6. Which rivers of India have religions recognition?
 7. What is Inland drainage system?
 8. What is the course of river Ghaggar?
 9. Name any five rivers of Inland Water-drainage Systems of the Country?
 10. Which rivers flow to the west of Aravalli mountains?
 11. Which lakes of the Kashmir region are world famous?
 12. Name the lakes that are water reservoirs of Thar Desert?
 13. Where are the lakes of Peninsular plateau found?
 14. Which are the main water-divider in India?
 15. Name the tributaries of river Indus.
 16. Which are the Southern tributaries of river Ganga?
 17. Describe the main flood prone in areas of the country.
 18. Suggest the measures to reduce the effect of floods.
 19. Which areas of our country are drought prone?
 20. What proportion of water in India can be utilized for irrigation?
 21. What are the main sources of irrigation?
 22. Name the major canals of Punjab and Haryana.
 23. Where is the highest number of wells found in India?
 24. Where are the tanks found in large number in India?
 25. What are the main functions of multi-purpose projects?
 26. What is the significance of Gobind Sagar Lake?
 27. What is the capacity of electricity generation of the Bhakra-Nangal Project?
 28. What are the names of power houses and dams of the Damodar Valley Project?

29. Which two rivers of India are the "Homes of Sorrows"?
30. Name the states utilizing the Tungbhadra and Chambal Projects.
31. What is the size of Hirakud Dam?

II. Answer each of the following questions in short :

1. Compare the rivers of Himalayas and Peninsular India.
2. Describe the Ganga river system.
3. Why is river Godawari known as the old Ganga of the South?
4. Describe the west flowing rivers of Peninsular Plateau.
5. What is the problem of floods? What are the causes of its Severity?
6. What steps have been taken by the government to control floods?
7. What steps should be taken to solve the problems of Droughts?
8. What is the contribution of canals as sources of irrigation.
9. What is Damodar river valley project?
10. What is the budget of water resources in the country?
11. Describe any two multipurpose projects of South India?
12. "Deltas are not formed by the western coastal rivers" Explain.

III. Answer the following questions in about 250 words:

1. Describe the Inland Drainage System of India.
2. Describe the drainage system flouring into the Bay of Bengal.
3. Explain the drainage systems flowing into the Arabian Sea.
4. What is meant by the drought problem in the country? Explain its causes and areas.
5. What are the causes of floods in India? Throw some light on flood affected areas and give remedies also.
6. Give a brief description of the irrigation sources of India.
7. What is meant by multi-purpose projects? Give an account of river valley projects in India.

IV. Show the following on the outline map of India:

1. Three major river systems of the Himalayas.
2. Two major tributaries of river Ganga .
3. Any four major rivers of Peninsular Plateau.
4. Any four Deltaic regions.
5. Any three rivers of Rajasthan.
6. Gorges of rivers Brahmaputra, Indus and Sutlej
7. Narmada and Tapti rivers.

CHAPTER 6

LAND UTILIZATION AND AGRICULTURE

The total area of the country is about 32.8 crore hectares. The land utilization statistics are available for nearly 92.7% of the total area. India is among those few countries where agriculture is being practised for thousands of years in the plains of rivers. Since ancient times, large part of the country is suitable for agriculture. According to (Statistical Abstract, 2001) the statistics of 1998, the net sown area in the country was 14.20 crore hectares, while this was 11.88 crore hectares in 1950 -51. In this way, net sown area has increased by 2.38 crore hectares in the last 42 years. In other words, 2.32 crore hectares of additional land has been made fit for agriculture. Thus, more than half of the total area is now available for cultivation. No other big country of the world is so fortunate as we are in this regard. (Table 6.1)

Table 6.1: Land Use in Major Countries of the World (in Percent)

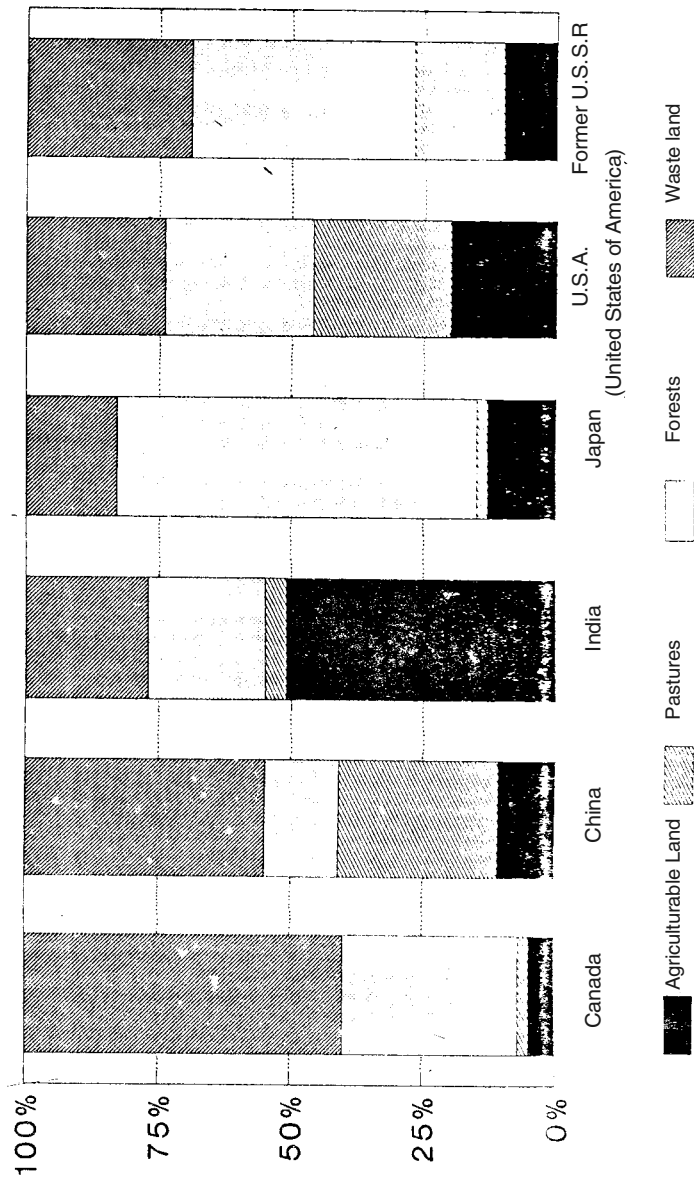
Country	Cultivated Area	Pasture Land	Forested Land	Waste Land	Total
Canada	5.0	2.0	33.0	60	100
China	11.0	30.0	14.0	45	100
India	51.0	4.0	22.0	23	100
Japan	13.0	2.0	68.0	17	100
USA	20.0	26.0	28.0	26	100
Former USSR	10.0	17.0	42.0	31	100

Land Use Pattern of India

As already mentioned, by the year 1998, nearly 2.32 crore hectares have been added to the net sown area over past four decades in India. Net sown area constitutes 47% of the total reported area. Only 1.2% of the area is under trees and groves. The fallow land constitutes 7.9% of the total area. It is that land which is not sown every year rather once in two or three years. It includes that land also which is kept fallow for a season or two and such land is known as the current fallow. The land left fallow for more than a year is called as the old fallow land. Thus nearly 51% of the total area is cultivated.

The area under culturable waste-land has remained between 5% to 6% in the past few decades. But the land under permanent pastures is decreasing. This is due to the increasing population. To fulfill the food requirements of

Land use in Major Countries of the World



this population land under pastures is being converted into agricultural land. On the other hand, urban and rural settlements are also expanding with the increasing population. With the fast increase in the developmental activities, a large area is being utilised for non-agricultural uses such as roads, railways, canals, industrial and irrigation projects. In 1998, nearly 7% of the total area was under such non-agricultural uses, while it was less than 4% in 1950-51. Although, the demand of land for these uses can not be neglected but protecting agriculturally fertile land through planned efforts, is necessary.

Table 6.2: Comparison of Land Use in India and Punjab, 1998

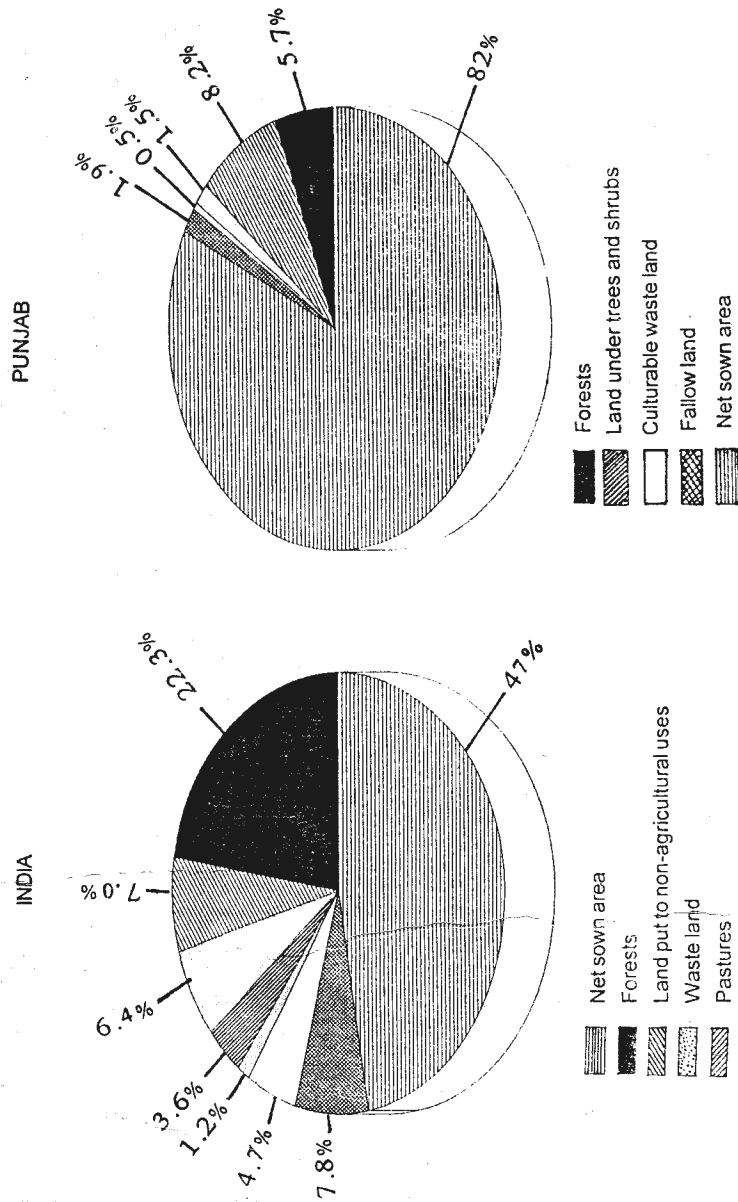
	Land Use Category	India	Punjab
	Total area (according to the available statistics)	100	100
(i)	Forests	22.58	5.76
(ii)	Area put to non-agricultural uses	7.39	7.90
(iii)	Barren Land	6.24	1.77
(iv)	Pastures Land	3.58	0.12
(v)	Land under trees and groves	1.17	0.24
(vi)	Culturable Wasteland	4.55	0.48
(vii)	Fallow Land	7.91	1.49
(viii)	Net Sown Area	46.58	82.24

Source : *Punjab Government: Statistical Abstract of Punjab, 2001, Economic Adviser of Punjab Government, Chandigarh, pp. 162-165.*

The country has 22.6% of its area under forests, which is much below the required of 33% norm. For a self-reliant economy and for maintaining proper ecological balance, at least one-third of the total area should be kept under forests and natural vegetation. According to available data, forested area in the country has increased after independence. In 1950 -51, forests accounted for only 4 crore hectares or 14.2%, which increased to 6.9 crore hectares or 22.6% in 1997-98. In spite of that, area under forests is less by nearly 11 percent or 2.9 crore hectares than the standard forested area.

There are many important advantages of increase in the forested area. A larger area under forests makes important contribution by maintaining the ecological balance and absorption of carbon dioxide. The increase in the amount of carbon dioxide in atmosphere leads to the increase in the green house effect. This in turn would raise the atmospheric temperature at the global level. The increase in the temperature will result in the melting of ice caps leading to rise in sea level endangering the low lying thickly populated coastal regions of the

INDIA AND PUNJAB : Comparison of Landuse, 1997



Note : Very little land is available in Punjab, under pastures, trees and shrubs.

world. Besides this, forests provide habitat to the wild life. They help in raising the amount of precipitation and minimising the incidence of droughts. Forests conserves not only water but also protect soil as well. In this way, they help in reducing the destruction by floods of the rivers.

About 2 crore hectares of land in India is not being utilized at this time. This land is classified as barren land. This includes the arid, rocky and sandy deserts. The high mountainous and barren lands also belong to this category. At times human beings are also responsible in increasing waste lands by their destructive activities like deforestation and over grazing. There has been a remarkable decrease in area under wasteland in the country. However, it is notable that the wasteland has declined to 6.2% (1997-98) from the earlier figure of 12.8% in the year 1950 -51. In this way, wasteland has decreased to half in the last four and a half decades.

In our own state Punjab, the land utilization statistics are available to us for 50.3 lakh hectares, which is nearly 99.9% of the total surveyed area of the state. In a way, except for 3 thousand hectares of area, land utilization statistics are available for whole of Punjab. Total net sown area in Punjab is 82.2% whereas it is only 47% for the country as whole (Table 6.2). However, the area under forests is only 5.7%, whereas this average for the whole country is 22.6%. In this way, Punjab has very little area under forests and scientifically it needs an additional 27% land to be brought under the forests. Severe lack of forests and high proportion of land under the net sown area has adversely affected the ecology of the state. In recent years, the state's intensive commercial agriculture has faced ecological problems. Problems like fall in the underground water level, increasing salinity of soils, water logging and reduction in fertility are being faced in some parts of the state. Due to higher standard of living and high economic development level, the use of land for non-agricultural purposes is 7.9% whereas this average for the entire country is 7.4%.

Contrary to it, percentage of wasteland is very less as compared to the national average. The area under wasteland in Punjab is 1.8 % of the total agricultural land, whereas this average for the entire country is 6.2%. Similarly, culturable wasteland in the state is half percent whereas in the country it is 4.6%. Clearly, most of the available land in Punjab is being utilized for agricultural purposes. This proves the predominance of agriculture in the state.

In the end, we can say that the land available for agriculture in the country is limited, and it can neither be increased nor decreased. In view of the increasing pressure on land, it is essential to plan for the use of available land. This is possible only by adopting suitable measures to check soil erosion, desertification, salinity and submergence of soils, etc. By doing this, some of the wasteland may be brought under alternative uses. Similarly, by using modern and scientific methods of farming, the productivity of the land can

also be increased. Above all, attempts should be made to strike the balance between various uses of land. This is necessary for the agricultural development of the country. In the following pages, we shall study the agricultural development in the country.

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Contribution of Agriculture in the Indian Economy

Agriculture is the mainstay of Indian economy. About two-thirds of the workers gets employment from the agricultural sector. This sector provides 29% of the national income. In foreign exports too, agricultural products have an important place. Many products from agriculture are being utilized in the form of raw material in our industries. With the development in the agricultural sector, per capita availability of foodgrains, which was 395 gm in the year 1950 has increased to 510 gm in 1991. In terms of use of chemical fertilizers also, India ranks fourth after USA, erstwhile USSR and China. The area under pulses in our country is highest in the world. In the production of cotton also, India ranks first among the countries where attempts were made first of all for producing good quality cotton. The country has attained important achievements in preparing the seed of Zinga fish and in developing technology for pest culture.

The average rate of growth of agricultural production in the country has remained at 2.7% per annum between 1949-50 to 1997-98, whereas population growth rate has been about 2% per annum. This growth rate of agriculture disproves the concept of Malthus and his disciples, who believed that the foodgrains production increases in arithmetic progression ($2+2+2+ \dots$) and population increases in geometric progression ($2 \times 2 \times 2 \times \dots$) in the world. The production of foodgrains in the country has increased more than three times after independence, that is, it increased from 549.2 lakh tons in 1949-50 and reached to 1933 lakh tons in 1997-98. Diversity has occurred in the crop rotation. Area under commercial crops has rapidly grown for increasing the exports and to fulfill the domestic demand. During post-green revolution years (1967-68 to 1997-98) the average growth rate of agriculture sector has been 2.84% per annum.

During this period, production of foodgrains has increased from 950.5 lakh tons to 1933 lakh tons, like Summer Moong, Soyabean, Sunflower, etc., have increased in the cropping pattern. Production of edible oils has also increased. Their production was 9.47 lakh tons in the year 1987. Some important statistics related to agriculture are given in the following table. (Table 6.3)

Table 6.3 : India : Increase in Production of Foodgrains, 1950 to 1997-98*(Production in Lakh tons)*

Crop	1950-51	1970-71	1990-91	1994-95	1997-98
Rice	206	422	743	818	821
Wheat	65	238	551	658	660
Other cereals	154	306	327	299	316
Total cereals	425	966	1,621	1,775	1,797
Total Pulses	84	118	143	141	133
Total Foodgrains	509	1,084	1,764	1,916	1,933

Source: (i) *India : A Reference Annual : Govt. of India, New Delhi, p. 388*

(ii) *Economic Survey : Govt. of India, New Delhi, PP. 5-16.*

In the above table, only food crops have been mentioned. But agricultural sector is not confined only to the cultivation of crops. Rather it also includes livestock raising, fishing orchard farming and forestry. Natural resources has a very special role to play in the agricultural sector. With the favourable climate and fertile soils developed agriculture can be done. In this regard, nature has been very kind to India. In the world, only one-tenth of the total area is fit for agriculture, whereas, in India two crops in a year are grown due to favourable climate. The area that can be brought under irrigation in India is almost equal to the total area available for cultivation in China.

However, inspite of the favourable physical conditions and the developments that have been taken place during these years, Indian agriculture is suffering from certain basic problems.

Main Problems of Indian Agriculture

The biggest problem of Indian agriculture is perhaps the tremendous population pressure on it. Following statistics would clearly reveal this fact. Nearly 65% of total workers and their families, in the country are dependent on agriculture for their living. This large section of the population shares only 29% of the gross income of the country. Second example of the heavy population pressure is that the density of population in the country is 264 persons per square km which is very high in itself. But the agricultural density is almost double (432 persons per square km) of it. It is due to population pressure only that even the infertile land has been brought under cultivation. Terraced farms can be seen in the higher hilly and mountainous areas. Forests and tree groves have been removed for extending the cultivation. For example, in the Uttarakhand region of the Uttaranchal, cultivation is done on lands having a slope of even more than 60%.

This has given rise to environmental problems such as soil erosion, flood and drought, etc. The per capita availability of cultivated land has come down to only one-fourth of a hectare. And when our population is stated to double in the year 2026, this per capita availability of land would further slide down to one-eighth of a hectare.

Most of the landholdings in the country are small, and are highly unevenly distributed. Due to this social tensions, violence and discontent have increased. It is important to note that nearly 58% of the landholdings in the country are less than one hectare in size. These cover only 2% of the cultivated area. On the other hand, landholdings of 10 hectares or above size category constitute only 2% of the total holdings. But these occupy more than one-fourth of the total cultivated area.

Due to smaller and very small size of most of the landholdings, these are not economically viable and efficient. Small farmers work very hard on their land to increase productivity, but their net profit is very less. It is so, because they have to hire tubewells for irrigation and other agricultural equipment from the big farmers and have to buy expensive chemical fertilizers and pesticides from the market. As a result, the actual saving of the small farmers gets reduced. Due to these reasons, Indian agriculture has been given regarded as subsistence agriculture.

Due to the decline in forests and pastures, soil erosion is enhanced and natural fertility is adversely affected. Besides this, most of our farmers are illiterate and they are not able to adopt crop rotation scientifically. It also reduces the fertility of soil. The third important factor for reduction in fertility is the practice of intensive agriculture in which one crop or the other stands always in the fields. Due to this, the soil nutrients like zinc, manganese and iron get exhausted. The farmers have to use chemical fertilizers frequently in order repeatedly to maintain the fertility of soil which in the long run affects the natural fertility of soil.

To develop agriculture in the country, it is important to check the continuous fragmentation of landholding; to give preference to land consolidation; to practice agriculture on scientific lines; to stress on the use of organic fertilizers; to get the soil tested after short periods; to encourage multiple cropping and mixed agriculture; and to utilize the sources of irrigation rationally. By adopting these measures, income from the agricultural sector can be increased.

Another kind of problem relates to irrigation. Whereas, at the national level only, 35.3% of the cultivated area is being irrigated in the states like Punjab, on the other hand, 92.3% of area receives irrigation. Thus, while there is large scope of increasing irrigation facilities in states like Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh and Karnataka, at the same time in states like Punjab, the problems of water logging and salinity are increasing. In Ferozpur

district alone, more than one lakh hectares of land has been affected by water logging.

A new problem that has arisen in regard to agricultural productivity is that after the green revolution the agricultural productivity has rapidly increased in areas of green revolution like Punjab, Haryana and Uttaranchal, while it has recorded a decline in case of eastern rice producing states like Bengal, Orissa, Bihar, Jharkhand and Assam. As a result, regional imbalances in agricultural development have increased. The government has started taking steps in this direction since from the 7th Five Year Plan (1985-90). Another fact is that during the past few years, agricultural production in areas of green revolution has started showing signs of stagnation. The production could not increase at the rate at which it started increasing in the beginning of the 1970's and 1980's for this there is a strong need of another technical breakthrough in the agricultural sector.

After green revolution, the farmers adopted those crop rotations, which became more remunerative. Specialization in agriculture is being emphasized. Perhaps this is because the farmers of green revolution regions like Punjab and Haryana have adopted the crop rotation of wheat-rice and the farmers of western Uttar Pradesh have adopted the wheat-sugarcane rotation. This has damaged the diversity in cropping pattern and has led to considerable reduction in the production of pulses and oilseeds. The daily per capita consumption of food grains in the country has although increased from 334.2 gm in 1951 to 468.5 gm in 1995 but during the same time period, the consumption of pulses has decreased from 60.7 gm to 38.1 gm per capita per day.

Still another problem of agriculture in India is the decline in investment in this sector. This investment has declined both in the private and the public sector. Neither the farmers are making any new investments in the agriculture for the past few years nor the government is paying any serious attention towards increasing the infrastructural facilities in this sector. Total public sector investment in the agricultural sector has decreased from Rs. 1769 crore in 1980-81 to Rs. 1002 crore in 1991-92. This is a matter of great concern. Government has however, taken some important steps to increase the investment in the public sector under 8th five year plan (1992-97).

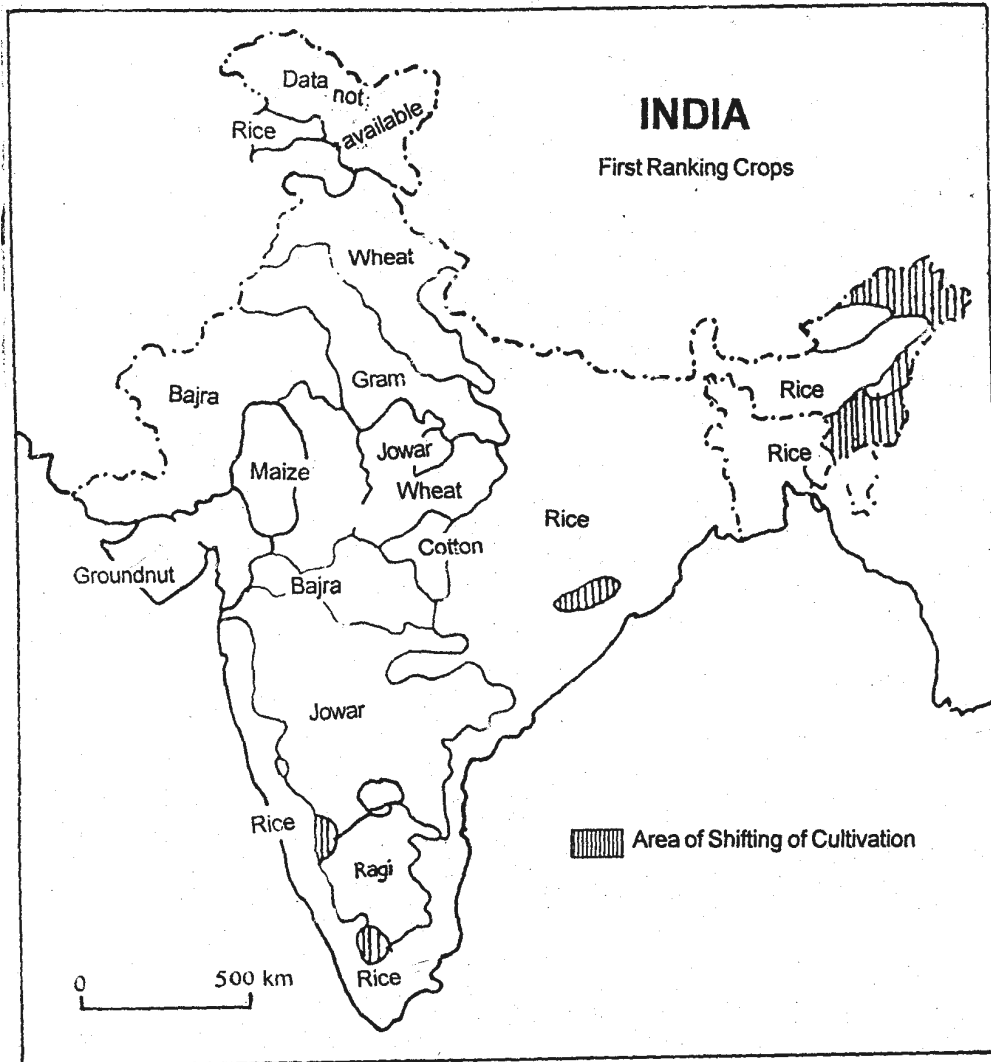
Besides this, under the various Five Year Plans, the government has taken initiatives to convert Indian agriculture from subsistence agriculture to a self-reliant and progressive industry. The zamindari system has been abolished by executing various laws. With this, the intermediaries, between the government and the landowners, have been removed. In many areas, fragmented holdings have been consolidated into larger landholdings by implementing land consolidation laws so that the farmers are able to take proper care of their farms alongwith the establishment of facilities for irrigation. The cooperative movement is being encouraged in order to enable the farmers to

solve their problems of credit and sale of agricultural produce. Lead Banks have been opened at the district level to promote agricultural development. Cooperative Banks, Land Development Banks and Nationalized Banks are also providing credit to the farmers on easy terms. Besides these, National Bank of Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) has been established to take care of the agricultural credit and to encourage rural and agricultural development. The institutions like Food Corporation of India, Indian Council of Agriculture Research (ICAR), Agricultural Universities on Demonstration of farms, Dairy Development Board etc. have been established. Agricultural Costs and Price Commission fixes the prices of various commodities by taking into account the cost of production so that the farmers do not have to sell their produce at low prices. Irrigation has also experienced significant development. The State governments provide chemical fertilizers and electricity to the farmers at subsidized rates. Punjab government has been providing free water and electricity to the farmers. In south India, Tamilnadu government is also following a similar strategy.

In spite of all this, due to some specific reasons, some farmers unions think that the government is not giving full attention and support to the agricultural sector. They object to the large differences found in the prices of produced in rural and urban sector. The security, which is provided to the agricultural society, is not at par with that which provided to the people working in the industrial and service sectors. Not only that, the prices of agricultural commodities keep on changing. Two-third of the work force of India contributes less than one-third to the national income. This fact needs a serious thinking. India is still an agrarian nation and society too is an agricultural society. This always involves a feeling of collective welfare. No solution can be expensive for the improvement of this kind of agriculture and agricultural society.

CROP SEASONS

In India, there are three major agricultural seasons of crops. These are the Rabi (winter), Kharif (summer), and the Zaid (intervening). The main reason of three seasons of crops in a year is the availability of tropical climate which facilitates the cultivation of crops throughout the year in most parts of the country. Agricultural activities commence with the onset of monsoon showers in the country. The farmers start ploughing the fields and after sowing the seed beds of paddy, they start waiting for rains. With the onset of rains in June and July, they sow their Kharif crops. In irrigated regions like Punjab and Haryana where the monsoons commence in July, the farmers plant paddy with the help of irrigation without waiting for rain. It ripens by the time the monsoon starts retreating. Rice, Jowar, Bajra, Maize, Groundnut, Jute and Cotton are the major Kharif crops. Pulses are also grown in this season. Some pulses like Arhar takes long time to ripen.



After this, the Rabi season starts. The Rabi crops depend on the moisture available in the soils. The crops of this season are sown in November and are harvested in April –May. But in the irrigated regions of commercial agriculture, like Punjab, Haryana, and western Uttar Pradesh, irrigation is used to maintain the soil moisture. The Indian agricultural scientists have also invented some varieties of wheat which mature within 100 days. Therefore, the wheat crop sown in December and first half of January get ready for harvesting by the middle of May. In addition to wheat, other major Rabi crops include Barley, Bengal gram, Mustard, Toria etc.

Besides these two major crop seasons, during the rainy season the farmers also grow vegetables, musk melon, water melon, bitter gourd, cucumber etc. in the khadar regions of the rivers. These are called 'zaid' crops. Nowadays a short cropping season is also seen in the irrigated areas, during which the fast growing crops such as Moong and Mash are grown. Such pulses are major sources of protein in our food.

India is such a vast country in terms of size that wide variations are found in weather from one part of the country to another. Due to this diversity, almost all the cereals, pulses, fruits, vegetables, fibrous crops, etc. grown in the world can be cultivated here. In the following pages we will describe some major food crops, oilseeds, beverages, and fiber crops.

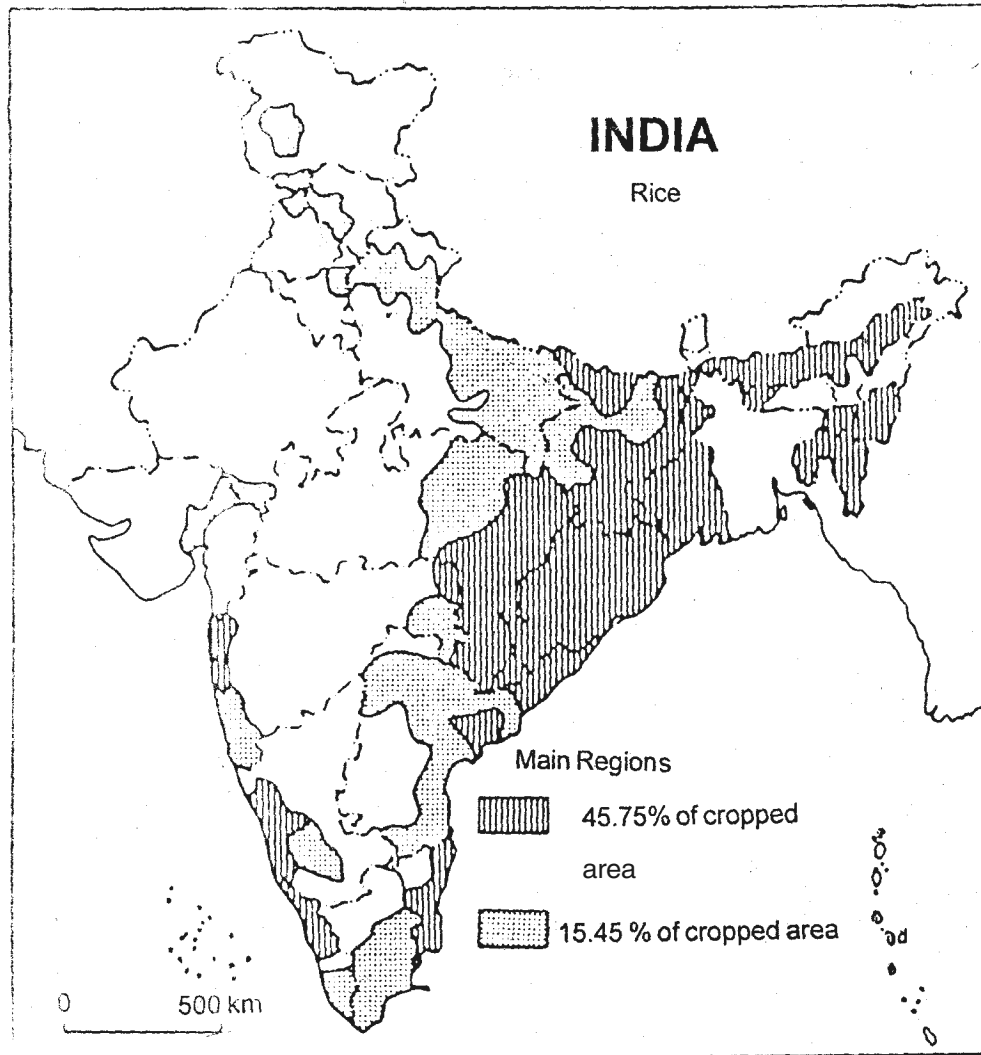
FOOD CROPS

Paddy (Rice):

This is the most important food crop of the country. India ranks second in the world in the production of paddy, after China. In 1997 –98, the food crops occupied a total area of 12.27 crore hectares out of which, 4.34 crore hectares or 34.7% of the total crop land was under rice. It is the staple food in most states of the country. In all those areas where rainfall is above 100cm rice is the staple food. In this way, 100 cm of isohyte makes the limit of the rice region of the country. This region includes the east and west coastal plains; deltaic regions; lower hills and plains of northeastern India; Himalayan foothills of west Bengal, Bihar, Eastern Uttar Pradesh; eastern Madhya Pradesh; Chhattisgarh; northern Andhra Pradesh and Orissa.

In fact, paddy is a tropical monsoon plant. Therefore, it thrives well in the hot and humid climate. Thus, it is especially produced in Kharif (summer)season. Rice needs more than 25° C of temperature and more than 100 cm of rainfall. With the help of irrigation facilities, paddy (rice) is also cultivated in low rainfall areas such as Uttaranchal, western Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab and some districts of Rajasthan adjoining Punjab –Haryana.

The areas under paddy has been continuously increasing in the country. In 1950 –51, paddy was sown on only 8 crore hectares of land and has increased to cover 4.34 crore hectares in 1997 –98. This means that area, under paddy



has increased to about 42% during the last 47 years. In other words, rice area has grown at the rate of 1% per annum. Similarly, the production of paddy has also increased tremendously. During the same period, the production increased from only 2.5 crore tons to 8.2 crore tons. The large increase has mainly been due to the increase in the yield per hectare of paddy. The yield has increased from 6.7 quintals per hectare in 1950 -51 to 18.9 quintals per hectare in 1997-98. In this way, the yield has increased about three times.

West Bengal is the largest producer of Paddy in India. The state produced 1.21 crore tons of paddy in 1997 -98. The per hectare yield of paddy is 1998 kg. West Bengal is followed by Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu, Bihar, Punjab and Orissa and each of these states produces more than 60 lakh tons of rice. In eastern Uttar Pradesh, the yield of paddy was 1867 kg. However, Punjab ranks first in terms of paddy yield which is 3132 kg per hectare. Besides these areas, large amount of paddy is produced in Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Haryana. The production is also very high in the deltas of Krishna, Cauvery, Godavari and Mahanadi rivers, due to good rainfall and irrigation facilities. In these areas two to three crops of paddy are taken in a year because of high temperatures and high rainfall conditions for most part of the year. In West Bengal, three crops of rice are grown and these are known as Aman, Boro and Aus.

In Punjab and Haryana, the climate is dry but rice is cultivated commercially in these regions by using available irrigation facilities. In these states, rice is not the staple food of the people but good quality of 'Basmati' rice is produced, which is even, exported to foreign countries, besides other parts of the country. On the other hand, in states like West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, rice has to be imported from Punjab and Haryana inspite of large production but huge domestic consumption. Government agencies like Food Corporation of India buys most of the rice from states like Punjab and Haryana for the Public Distribution System. For example, 54.9 lakh tons of rice was bought for central pool from Punjab in 1993-94 which was nearly 72% of the total rice produced in Punjab during that year and it was 40.2% of the central pool. In this way, Punjab contributes 4 quintals in every 10 quintals of rice to the central pool. In Punjab, the yield per hectare of rice is very high. For example, in West Bengal which is the largest producer of rice, the yield per hectare was 1998 kg in 1997 -98 while this was 3132 kg in Punjab.

Rice is also cultivated in the northern hilly regions, from Kashmir to Assam, by making terraced fields. The production of rice in the country has largely increased with the use of high yielding varieties, fertilizers and better technology. The agricultural exports have increased with the implementation of new economic policy of the Indian government favouring increase in exports of agricultural products. Indian paddy is rapidly becoming famous in the world market. This is considered as a great opportunity for earning foreign currency.

By encouraging exports, new opportunities can arise in increasing the production in the agricultural sector and employment sector.

Wheat

Wheat is the second major food crop of the country. India ranks 5th in the production of wheat in the world. It produces 9% of the total production of wheat in the world. In 1997 -98, the production of wheat in the country was 5.59 crore tons which was 74% of the total rice produced during that year. However, the difference in the area under these two crops is very large. The area of wheat was 2.67 crore hectares, and that of paddy was 4.34 crore hectares. This wheat area formed 59% of the total paddy area. That means, wheat was cultivated on 59% of the total area under paddy but from this area the wheat produced constituted 74% of the total production of paddy. This clearly reveals that the per hectare yield of wheat is very much higher than the yield of paddy. The per hectare yield of wheat was 24.70 quintals in 1997 -98 as compared to only 18.93 quintals for paddy. In this way, the yield of paddy was 21% less than the yield of wheat.

Phenomenal change has taken place in wheat production during the post-Green Revolution years. The green revolution in India was implemented in the year 1966 -67. In 1960-61, the production of wheat was 1.10 crore tons which increased to 2.38 crore tons in 1970 -71 and further increased to 6.94 crore tons in 1996 -97. No other crop has recorded such a high increase in production after the green revolution. While wheat has experienced about five times increase during 1960 -61 to 1996 -97, rice on the other hand could increase by less than two and a half times in terms of total production. Perhaps it is because of the tremendous increase in the production of wheat that many people often regard the 'green revolution' as the 'wheat revolution'.

The wheat and rice producing areas are quite different. Whereas on one hand, the major production regions of paddy are, coastal plains of eastern and western India, the major wheat growing region on the other hand are north and northwestern India. Here wheat is mainly grown in Punjab, Haryana, western Uttar Pradesh, districts of Rajasthan adjoining Punjab and Haryana and Madhya Pradesh. Besides these, wheat is also produced in Bihar, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest wheat producing state in the country. It produced more than 2.22 crore tons of wheat in 1996 -97. It is followed by Punjab and Haryana in the second and third place respectively. After these come the states of Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Bihar. These six states together produce 94% of the total wheat of the country. The production of Uttar Pradesh, Punjab and Haryana is nearly 70%. In this way, wheat is highly concentrated in these three states of the country as compared to paddy which is more wide spread.

However, in terms of production, Punjab is although ranked second in

the country but it occupies first place in yield per hectare of wheat and contribution to the central pool. The yield per hectare of wheat in Punjab is 38.77 quintals whereas the national average is 24.7 quintals. The cultivation of wheat in Punjab is done on a large scale. Farmers here grow wheat as a commercial crop. In 1996 -97, Punjab contributed 64.9 lakh tons of wheat to the central pool which is more than half (50.6%) of the total wheat procured in the country. Therefore, more than half of the wheat sent to the central pool for Public Distribution System is contributed by the Punjab farmers. This is a very important contribution of the farmers of Punjab to the national service.

At the time of sowing, wheat requires cold and moist climate and at the time of ripening, warm and dry climate is needed. Between 50 to 75 cm of rainfall is favourable for this crop. Therefore, Rabi season is best for the wheat crop.

Rain showers during winter season and availability of adequate irrigation facilities are highly beneficial for growing wheat. Sometimes winter cyclones coming from the Mediterranean sea bring very good rainfall in northwestern India. This rainfall proves very useful for the wheat crop. But sometimes, large damage also occurs due to hailstorm and heavy fog or ground frost. The farmers of Punjab, Haryana and Uttaranchal, western Uttar Pradesh have assured irrigation through tubewells. As a result, good crop of wheat is generally obtained. In a way, farmers of these parts, have to a large extent removed the large variations caused by Indian monsoons by acquiring high yields of wheat with the help of irrigation. However, the same is not true for the paddy regions. Most of the paddy crop in the country, even today depends on the monsoons.

Millets

Jowar, Bajra, Goara, Maize, etc. are the millets which are sown in the Kharif season. Jowar and Bajra are mainly produced in the arid parts. Bajra is mostly sown in the rain shadow regions of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka and Gujarat and in those dry regions of Rajasthan which receive low rainfall. Besides these, it is also grown in Jhansi, Jaloun, Hamirpur and Banda districts of southwestern Uttar Pradesh. Jowar is mainly grown in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh.

In Punjab, millets like Jowar, Bajra and Goara were grown earlier. But with the development of irrigation facilities, farmers of Punjab have adopted the highly productive crops like wheat and rice in place of low productive crops like millets. Therefore, a sharp decline is noticed in the cropped area under crops like Bajra, in last few decades. In 1960 -61, the cropped area under Bajra in Punjab was 1.23 lakh hectares which declined to only 9000 hectares in 1994 -95. In this way, about 1400% decline has been recorded in the area under Bajra. Similarly, the area under Jowar has also decreased from 6000 hectares to 500 hectares during this period. The area under Bajra and Jowar has also declined in the whole country. Jowar occupied 1.84 crore hectares

in 1960 -61 which declined to 1.15 crore hectares in 1994 -95. Area under Bajra has also decreased from 1.15 crore hectares to 94 lakh hectares during this period. The yield per hectare of Bajra and Jowar respectively was 700 and 779 kg in 1994 -95.

Maize which is actually an American crop, was sown on an area of 61 lakh hectares in 1994 -95. However, its area was only 44 lakh hectares in 1960-61. Although area under maize has slightly increased during the last 34 years, but its cultivation is limited to only few areas. For example in a progressive state like Punjab, a large decline has been noted in maize area. Here in 1960-61, Maize was sown on 3.27 lakh hectares of land and declined to 1.73 lakh hectares in 1994 -95. Due to decline in area under maize, in Punjab, the production has declined. However, the decline in production has been very slow. This is due to the increase in the yield per hectare. The yield per hectare of maize in Punjab was 11.3 quintals in 1960 -61 which increased to 18.6 quintals per hectare in 1994 -95. Similarly, the per hectare yield of maize increased in the country as a whole to 15.7 quintals during the same period. Although the yield per hectare of maize has increased considerably but this increase has been very low as compared to rice and wheat. Secondly, the yield per hectare of maize has increased in most other parts of the country except Punjab. But the situation gets totally reversed in case of yield of wheat and rice. The yield per hectare of these two crops is very high in Punjab as compared to other parts of the country.

Pulses

India is the largest producer and consumer of pulses. Pulses are the major source of protein for a majority of people. Most of the people are poor and are vegetarians. Pulses are cheap as compared to meat and are major source of protein for the vegetarian people. Gram, Arhar, Moong, Mash, Massar and peas are considered as the major pulses. Except the heavy rainfall areas, pulses are grown in all parts of the country. Moong, Mash and Massar are produced in the Kharif as well as in Rabi seasons. All pulses help in increasing the fertility of soil. Generally, pulses are mixed with other crops. The farmers of western Uttar Pradesh grow early maturing varieties of Moong, Mash and Massar, mixed with sugarcane.

The area under pulses has decreased in the country. The main reason is the area under pulses is being shifted to the more profitable crops like rice and wheat after the green revolution. The pulses were sown on 2.60 crore hectares of area in 1960 -61 which decreased to 2.30 crore hectares in 1994 -95. In this way, the area under pulses has recorded a decline of 30 lakh hectares in the last 34 years. The production of pulses has increased slightly. During the same period, the yield per hectare of pulses has increased from 5.39 quintals to 6.10 quintals. However, the major cause of concern is that the per head consumption of pulses has declined to about half. In the year 1955, the per capita consumption of pulses was 71.1 gms which has decreased to 37.2 gm in 1994.

The situation in Punjab is still more serious. Here, the rotation of wheat and rice has eliminated nearly all other crops. In 1960 -61, pulses were cultivated on 9.3 lakh hectares of land in Punjab. This declined to only 95000 hectares in 1997 -98. With this, the per capita consumption of pulses has also recorded a great decline, from 175 gm per day in 1960-61 to only 10 gm per day in 1997-98. Such a sharp decline in the consumption of pulses is a serious matter not only in Punjab but in other parts of the country also. This has happened because of the fact that the green revolution has brought a revolutionary increase in the production of rice and wheat. The pulses have not been able to help in increasing the production of crops. In the post - green revolution years, a large part of area under pulses has been diverted towards more productive crops like wheat and rice. This has especially happened on a large scale in the states like Punjab where commercial agriculture is predominant.

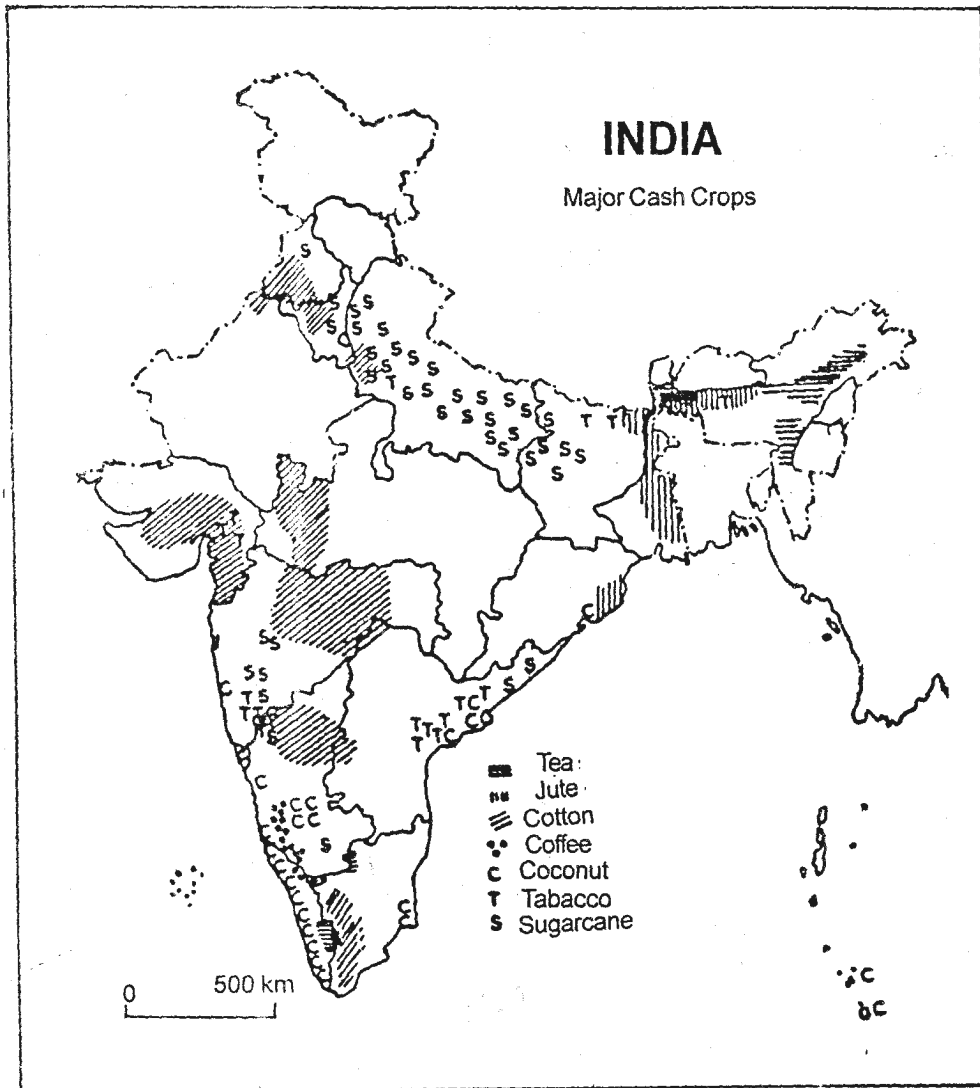
Our government however, has certainly paid some attention in the past few years to increase production of pulses. But stringent measures are needed for developing new, high yielding varieties of seeds of pulses. In the past few years, there has been some increase in the early maturing rabi crops of Moong, Mash and Moth. In the total production of pulses, the share of rabi pulses was double as compared to the kharif crops in 1994 -95. At this time, the production of rabi pulses was 94 lakh tons whereas it was 47 lakh tons in case of kharif pulses.

In the following table, the data regarding the production of food crops have been given. Analyse these figures in your class. In which period the increase in the production of food grains was the maximum? When was the increase in production of wheat was maximum during this period? What does the comparative analysis of increase in the production of rice and wheat indicate? In which period the pulses recorded maximum increase? Try to find answers to these questions.

Table 6.4: Average Annual Increase in the India's Foodgrain Production (percentage)

Time Period	Rice	Wheat	Pulses	Total Foodgrains
Average combined growth rate				
1967 -68 to 1995 -96	2.90	4.72	0.93	2.67
1980 -81 to 1995 -96	3.35	3.62	1.21	2.86
1990 -91 to 1996 -97	1.52	3.62	1.07	1.70

Note: To measure the growth rate the triennium ending 1981-82 has been taken as the base.



FOOD BUDGET OF INDIA

The food needs of any country are determined by the size of population and its standard of living. If the population is growing rapidly, then larger amount of food is required. But with the rise in standard of living, the food habits of human beings also experience a change. With this, the use of foodgrains starts decreasing and that of eggs, milk, meat and fruits starts increasing. Also, the amount of cereals in food of villagers is more than the urban people. Therefore, if the proportion of urban population is higher then the consumption of foodgrains will be less as compared to the consumption of other products.

As per 2001 census, the total population of India is 102.7 crores. This population is three times the total population of the country at the time of independence. The doubling period of the population in the country is 35 years. The growth rate has however experienced a slight decline during the last decade. Even then the population is expected to reach 150 crore by the middle of 21st century. At the end of 21st century, the population of India will be between 160 to 170 crores.

For such a large population, we require about 40 crore tons of foodgrains. Currently, the production is 9 crore tons. In this way, we need to increase the production by a large amount. At the same time, there is very little scope of increase in the net sown area, since the use of land for non -agricultural purposes is increasing. Therefore, we can increase production by increasing multiple cropping and by using more and more of modern technology. Between 1990-91 to 1996-97, the production of foodgrains increased at the rate of 1.7 per cent per annum while the population increased by 1.9%. This is a matter of great concern. If the production of foodgrains declines slightly even between 3 - 4%, we will have to import large amount of foodgrains. The second important thing is that our requirement of foodgrains is demand based rather than need based. In other words, a section of population of the country is such that needs foodgrains, but due to the lack of purchasing power, is not able to get these. In this way, many people of the country do not get food to eat inspite of availability of foodgrains. If we make an estimate of this hidden demand then we would come to know that the country requires much more foodgrains.

There are some serious problems of agriculture of the country which need earnest attention. Among these, three are major problems. First, the decreasing public-sector investment in agriculture and less utilization of agricultural infrastructure in the present agriculture. The second problem is related to the production of new varieties of high yielding seeds. The progress in this sector is almost nil. For the past few years, research on developing new seeds has been going on at snail's pace. Development of such seeds for pulses, oil seeds, vegetables and fruits is very strongly needed. Third important problem is related with the very low growth rate in the agricultural sector and the diversification of cropping pattern. We have to increase the reforms in the

agricultural sector similar to the industrial sector because reforms in these two sectors cannot be separated. All these things have to be kept in mind to fulfill the increasing demand of foodgrains and for increasing the pace of development of agriculture.

COMMERCIAL CROPS

These are also called cash crops. These include mainly sugarcane, oilseeds, cotton, jute, rubber, wool and tobacco. Among these, jute, cotton and wool are also called the fibre crops. In the following pages, a detailed description of sugarcane, oilseeds and cotton is given.

Sugarcane

Sugar makes a chief component of our daily diet. In villages, people are very fond of eating rawsugar (*Gur*) and jaggery. Naturally, sugarcane is indigenous to India and in terms of production, India occupies fifth place in the world. Although, sugarcane is grown in many parts of the country, the major sugarcane producing states are Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu, Karnataka, Gujarat, Haryana and Bihar. Among these, Bihar produced the lowest 44 lakh tons while Uttar Pradesh was the largest producer with 10.5 crore tons of sugarcane in 1993 -94. During this period, a total of 22.7 crore tons of sugarcane was produced in the country.

In 1960 -61, sugarcane covered 24 lakh hectares of area in the country. This area increased to 40 lakh hectares in 1997 -98. During this period, the production also increased from 11 crore tons to 27.63 crore tons. Similarly, the yield per hectare also increased from 46 quintals to 70 quintals. Fast changes keep on taking place in the sown area, production and yield per hectare of sugarcane. This happens due to the fluctuations in the market price of sugar, damage to sugarcane crop because of diseases and effect of bad weather on yield per hectare.

In Punjab, the area under sugarcane was 1.50 lakh hectares (estimated) in 1995 -96. In the previous year 1994-95 this area was only 80 thousand hectares. The area under sugarcane has experienced considerable changes in the state during the past 35 years. The crop occupied 1.33 lakh hectares of area in 1960 -61. It declined to only 71 thousand hectares in 1980 -81. After this also its area has been experiencing many changes. Similar changes have also occurred in the yield per hectare. The production of sugarcane was about 9.2 lakh tons in 1995 -96 whereas this production previously was only 4.95 lakh tons in 1994 -95. In 1960 -61, total production was 4.86 lakh tons. Sugarcane has suffered greatly both in terms of production and area due to the rapid changes that have taken place in the crop pattern. In 1970s and 1980s, the farmers adopted the wheat -rice crop rotation in place of other crops. The Punjab government is now trying to break this crop rotation. It is encouraging the farmers to grow sugarcane. The farmers are offered higher per quintal price of sugarcane than in many northern states, so that they get attracted

towards its cultivation. The rapid increase in the area under its cultivation in 1995 -96 as compared to the previous year is the result of these efforts. The government is also trying to find other solutions to expand the cultivation of sugarcane in the state.

Sugarcane requires well-drained fertile soil. It also needs large amount of chemical fertilizers and organic manure. Hot and humid climate is favourable for its higher yields. It grows well in areas with about 100 cm of rainfall. Infact, good crop of sugarcane is procured in the irrigated regions with adequate sunshine. As it is a tropical plant, the climate of the state of Tamilnadu is best suited for its cultivation. The yield per hectare of sugarcane in this state is 40 per cent higher than the national average.

Oilseeds

Edible oils are obtained from various oilseeds such as groundnut, mustard, toria, sunflower, cottonseed, coconut, etc. As you know, the edible oils are essential part of our food. Almost all vegetables and other food products are cooked in these edible oils. Groundnut is a major oil seed and is a kharif crop which depends on the normal but timely rainfall. Sarson (mustard) and toria are rabi oilseeds and are grown in both irrigated and unirrigated areas. Fluctuations in the yield per hectare, total production and the market prices have a chief feature of these crops.

Mustard and toria are mainly grown in wheat growing regions of north and central India like Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Groundnut is mainly cultivated in the western and southern India especially in Gujarat and Maharashtra.

The demand of edible oils is rapidly increasing in the country. Since it is not fulfilled through domestic production, therefore, large quantity of edible oils is imported. The demand of edible oils is increasing by 5% per annum and the growth rate of population is 2% per annum. Try to discuss the reasons of this difference in your class. Groundnut and mustard together constitute nearly 60% of the total oil seed production of the country. Nowadays, the producing area of soyabean and sunflower is increasing.

Different crops of oilseeds in the country occupied 2.63 crore hectares of land in 1997 -98. Earlier, oilseeds were grown on total of 1.38 crore hectares of land in 1960 -61. In 1980 -90 decade, the production area of oilseeds in the country has increased from 1.76 crore hectares to 41 lakh hectares. An astounding increase in the production has been noticed during this decade (1980 -90). The total production was 94 lakh tons in 1980 -81 which increased to 1.86 crore tons in 1990 -91. Earlier in 1960 -61, the production was only 70 lakh tons which increased to 2.20 crore tons in 1997 -98.

In contrast to this, Punjab has experienced decline in the area under oilseeds. The area under oilseeds, which was the highest with 3.15 lakh hectares in 1975 -76 reached the lowest mark with 1.4 lakh hectares in 1990 -91.

However, the area has increased marginally after that but on the whole the area has remained almost static. In 1994 -95, total production area was 1.48 lakh hectares. In 1995 -96, the area was 2.70 lakh hectares. Large changes have occurred in the production also. The total oilseed production was 2.63 lakh tons in 1975 -76. In 1990 -91, the production declined to the lowest level with 93 thousand tons. In the year 1994 -95, the production was 1.85 lakh tons while the production in 1995 -96 was 3.26 lakh tons.

Madhya Pradesh holds the top position in oil seed production in the country. In this state 45.77 lakh tons of oilseeds was produced in 1993-94. Maharashtra is ranked second with 23.46 lakh tons of oilseed production. After this, comes Karnataka which produced 19.40 lakh tons followed by Gujarat with 15.72 lakh tons. These four states together account for nearly half of the total oilseeds production in the country.

Cotton

Cotton plant is indigenous to India. Evidence exists of cotton being cultivated even during the time of the Indus valley civilization. During that period, people used to spin yarn and weave cloth and then it was exported to the middle east Asian countries. In that period, this cotton was called as '*Sindhu*' by the Babylonians and '*Sindo*' by the Greeks.

Cotton is mainly grown in the Deccan plateau black soil areas of the country. Gujarat and Maharashtra are the main cotton producing states. Besides these, other major states producing cotton are Andhra Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh and Tamilnadu. All these states together contribute 99.5% to the total production of cotton in the country. Maharashtra produces the highest, 26.25 lakh bales of cotton. Then comes, Gujarat in the second place producing 16.23 lakh and Punjab is ranked third producing 15.15 lakh bales of cotton. Andhra Pradesh and Haryana are ranked fourth and fifth and produce 13.40 lakh and 11.24 lakh bales of cotton respectively. All these figures are for the year 1993 -94, when these five states together produced about 77% or more than three-fourths of the total cotton production of India.

In 1997 -98, cotton was cultivated on 89 lakh hectares of land. During this year, 1.11 lakh bales of cotton were produced. Before this, in the year 1985 -86, the area under cotton was 75 lakh hectares and the production was 30 lakh bales. Previously in 1960 -61, the net sown area was 70 lakh hectares and 56 lakh bales of cotton were produced. In 1960 -61, the yield per hectare of cotton had increased from 125 kg to 249 kg.

In Punjab, there has been a notable increase in both the area and production of cotton during the past few decades. Cotton covered 4.47 lakh hectares of area in 1960 -61 which increased to 7.2 lakh hectares in 1992 -93. In 1993 -94 this area was 5.77 lakh hectares. Similar increase has also been noticed in the production. In 1960 -61 the production was only 7 lakh bales but in 1993 -94 it became 15.16 lakh bales. It is clear from these figures that large changes

continue to take place in the production of cotton. Why is it so? Is it due to the crop: diseases ? Or is it because of some natural reasons? Is it due to wide fluctuations in market price of cotton or is there any other reason?

Potatoes

Potato was brought to India in the 16th century by the Portuguese. Today it has become an important local vegetable. Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Bihar and Punjab are its major producers. In 1993-94 it was cultivated on 10.80 lakh hectares of land and more than 1.80 crore tons of potatoes was produced. Out of this more than 85% or 1.52 crore tons was contributed by these four states. In our country, a very good quality of potato seed is produced in Lahaul and Spiti valley of Himachal Pradesh which is considered free of diseases.

The farmers of Punjab have also shown interest in the cultivation of potatoes. Since 1960 -61, the area under potatoes in Punjab has been increasing continuously. In 1960 -61 this area was only 9 thousand hectares which increased to 30 thousand hectares in 1994 -95. Similarly, the production has also increased from 1.29 lakh to 6.03 lakh tons. The farmers of Punjab are also producing good quality and cheaper seed potatoes as compared to the farmers of Himachal. The demand for potatoes produced in Punjab has been increasing for the last few years. Potatoes are mainly grown in Jalandhar, Hoshiarpur, Patiala and Ludhiana districts of Punjab.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In India, the farms, farmer and his animals, combine together to make an agricultural system. Animals, are really the true friends of the farmers. In the last few years, animal husbandry has proved very beneficial for the small farmers and workers. Animals have become source of employment and supplementary income for a large majority of the people of villages and small towns especially drought prone, hilly and other backward areas. According to the National Sample Survey (NSS) of 1987 -88, the growth rate of employment in the animal husbandry sector was 4.15% during 1972 and 1988 whereas the growth rate of employment in the agricultural sector as a whole was only 1.1%.

In the last few years, large increase in the number of milch cattle is an indicator of the development of dairy farming. Dairy farming has developed especially in the Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan. It is estimated that more than one -fourth of the income from agricultural sector comes from the animal husbandry sector. Besides providing milk and manure to the farmers, cow also provides bullocks for the working in the fields. Because of this important utility, cow is considered as a mother in India and is even worshipped by the people. In domestic animals about one -fourth or 24% are bullocks and three -fourth or 76% are cows.

In the country, Uttar Pradesh has the largest (611 crores) cattle wealth. Other states having large cattle wealth are West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar,

Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. These seven states together account for 68.3% or more than two-thirds of the cattle of the country. Punjab occupying the 13th rank in the country, has a 96.7 lakh of cattle heads. While in terms of human population, it occupies the 14th place.

Large cattle wealth is found in India. The number of animals was about 48 crores. It included about 20 crore cows and bullocks, about 8 crore buffaloes, nearly 5 crore sheep, 11 crore goats and remaining 4 core consisted of other animals. In this way, cows and bullocks constituted nearly 45% of the total animal wealth of the country.

Horticulture

India ranks second in the world in the production of fruits and vegetables. Brazil and China both are the largest producers of fruits and vegetables in the world. In our country, the production of fruits and vegetables has reached about 3.9 crore tons and 6.5 crore tons respectively.

Our country has various types of agro-climatic conditions. Therefore, it is possible to grow a large variety of horticultural crops, which include fruits, vegetables, flowers, spices and orchard crops. Many types of horticulture crops are grown in India. These range from tea and coffee in the high hilly parts to coconut in the coastal areas of India. Therefore, it is clear that there exist immense potentialities for growing different types of horticultural crops in the country.

India ranks first in the world in terms of production of banana, mango, coconut and cashewnut. Besides this, India is one of the ten largest producers of mosambi, apple, kinnow, pears, etc. It is also amongst the ten large producers of potato, tomato, onion and peas, while in the production of cauliflower, it again occupies first place in the world. Horticultural products such as fruits, vegetables, flowers, cashewnuts, spices, etc. comprise nearly 25% of the total agricultural exports.

The production of flowers has been encouraged in the country during recent years. This is mainly because of the growing demand of flowers in foreign countries. Flowers have a huge foreign demand. In 1994-95, India exported flowers worth Rs.30 crores. To increase the export further, 200 export-oriented units have been recognised. In the eighth five year plan Rs. 250 crores were allocated for the development of green houses, drip irrigation etc.

In apple production, Jammu & Kashmir and Himachal Pradesh top the list. Maharashtra leads in production of oranges and bananas; Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu and Maharashtra lead in mango; while Tamilnadu, Karnataka and Kerala are the major producers of cashewnut. In our own state, Punjab, the production of fruits has increased in recent years.

In the year 1995 -96, Punjab produced 7.6 lakh tons of fruits while in 1985 -86, this production was only 4.3 lakh tons. Hoshiarpur, Ferozepur,

Amritsar and Faridkot are the chief fruits growing districts in Punjab. Fruit farming is gaining importance. This can be seen from the fact that in 1981-82, fruits were cultivated on only 28.8 thousand hectares of land in the state. By 1995 -96, this area reached 84.4 thousand hectares. Kinnow orchards occupy the maximum area i.e. 26.6 thousand hectares. Kinnow is followed by oranges and malta.

Forests

Forests play a very major role in maintaining the ecological balance. . Forests are an economic resource. These provide us timber and fuel wood. The teak forests of the monsoon regions provide valuable timber for construction purposes. These deciduous forests extend from mountains of western ghats in the south to the Himalayas in the north. Sal is the second most important and useful tree found in these forests. The area of sal forests is comparatively more than the area of teak forests. The malta (sweet orange) tree is however, found largely in eastern India.

In high rainfall regions of India Bamboo, Mahogany and Rosewood trees are found. These extend over the states of Kerala and Assam. In the Sunderban region, Sundri trees of mangrove species are found and their wood is used for making boats and boxes.

Softwood obtained from coniferous forests of Himalayas is used for making furniture, packing boxes and fixtures for buildings. Wood pulp is also made from soft wood which has a very high demand in the paper industry.

Besides timber, forests also provide lac, resins, gums, coal fuelwood, herbs, fodder and grasses. These days, social forestry is being promoted on planned lines in the country. Its main objective is to bring barren lands under forests, to provide employment opportunities to the rural people and to solve the problem of fuelwood in the villages.

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions objectively :

1. Name the crops which are sown in Kharif Season.
2. Which are the crops sown in Rabi Season.
3. What is difference between Green Manure and Fertilizer.
4. What is Agricultural Production?
5. What are milch cattle?
6. What is fallow land?
7. What is the percentage area of our country under forests?
8. How much area should be under the forests from the scientific point of view?
9. How much percentage area in Punjab is under forests?
10. What is the percentage of agricultural land in the world?
11. How much percent of land is under agriculture in India?

12. Which is the largest wheat producing state of our country?
13. Which state of our country contributes largest amount of wheat to central pool?
14. What is the net sown area of our country?
15. What are the causes of decreasing pasture lands?
16. How much more percentage area should be under forests?
17. What is agricultural density in India?
18. What is the average per capita culturable land?
19. Name the state that produces largest amount of Rice.
20. What is the rank of Punjab in terms of per hectare production of wheat?
21. What is the rank of India in terms of producing pulses in world?
22. After the green revolution, what type of change occurred in production of pulses in Punjab.
23. At the end of 21st century, how much foodgrain required for the Indian population.
24. Write down any three problems of nowadays of Indian agriculture.
25. What is the rank of India in world in production of sugarcane?
26. Name the crops of oil-seeds.
27. Name any two states those produce maximum amount of ground- nuts.
28. In which decade the area under oil seeds production has increased the most.
29. Which are the main cotton producing states of our country?
30. What is the per hectare production of cotton in our country?
31. Which are the main potato producing states of India?
32. Name the potato producing districts of Punjab.
33. What part of total income from Agriculture amounts to animal rearing?
34. What is the rank of Punjab in country in respect of cattle wealth?
35. Which part of the country amounts the highest cattle wealth?
36. What is the rank of India in world in respect of fruits and vegetables?
37. Name the apple producing states.
38. What is the importance of forestation?

II. Answer the following questions in short :

1. Why is agriculture known as basic main stay of economic system?
2. What are the main features of Green Revolution?
3. Which items are included in Agriculture side?
4. Explain the difference between Agricultural product and productivity.
5. What is the difference between Milch cattle and working load animals?
6. What is the difference between current Fallow Land and old Fallow Land?
7. What climatic conditions are required for the wheat cultivation?
8. Name the main paddy growing areas of our country.
9. Discuss the required condition for the production of Sugar Cane.
10. What are main uses of Forests?

11. Why a Indian agriculture is known as subsistence agriculture?
12. Why some people call green revolution as wheat revolution?
13. Explain the efforts made to the development of Animal wealth.
14. What are reasons that are responsible for the increase in land use under non-agricultural uses?
15. Write in brief about the importance of forests.
16. What effect incurred after independence on the requirement of foodgrains per head?
17. What are the reasons of small land holdings in India, how these affect Indian agriculture?
18. Name the main paddy producing states.
19. What are the causes of high per acre yield of wheat in Punjab?
20. What are the causes of decrease in area under pulse cultivation?
21. Write down the benefits of Dairying Industry.
22. What expectation could we have in future keeping in view the present scenario of Agriculture?
23. Why productions of pulses and oil seed is still low?
24. What are main problems of Indian Agriculture?
25. Explain the changes that have been occurred rapidly in the diversification of crop rotation after Green Revolution.
26. Explain the effects that have been occurred in agriculture due to low public sector investment in Indian Agriculture.
27. What are the indications that depict that Indian agriculture is advancing towards commercial agriculture leaving behind the subsistence type of agriculture?
28. After comparing the land use pattern of Punjab with India, highlight the special features.
29. While describing the changes that have taken place in sugarcane producing areas during the present time also investigate its causes.
30. What efforts have been made by Government of India for the development of Agriculture?
31. Give an information regarding the problems arise due to regional imbalances in Agricultural production.

III. Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Explain in detail the problems being faced by the Indian Agriculture.
2. Discuss in detail the Food Budget of India.
3. Write an explanatory essay on Green Revolution of India.
4. Explain in details about the cultivation of paddy in India.
5. Explain in detail about the cultivation of wheat in India.
6. Write about the cultivation of pulses in India.
7. While discussing the main problems that have been faced by cultivation of sugar cane, also discuss its present status.

8. Highlight the causes that lead the decrease in area under oil-seed after the Green Revolution and what steps have been taken by the government to increase the cultivation of oil-seeds.
9. Write an comprehensive essay on the cotton production in our country,
10. Explain the main features of Horticulture in India.

IV. Show the following on the map of India.

1. Main wheat producing areas.
2. Main Jawar Bajara producing areas.
3. Main cotton producing areas.
4. Main Rice (paddy) producing areas.
5. Potato producing states.
6. Main oil seeds producing areas.
7. Sugar cane producing areas.
8. Main pulses producing states.
9. Maize producing areas.
10. Main Horticulture states.

CHAPTER 7

MINERALS AND POWER RESOURCES

A large number of valuable mineral resources are hidden in the womb of mother earth. Some of them are hidden deep under the ocean floor. These mineral resources are of great importance in the present day economic development of nations of the world. The base of economic and industrial power of England - the creator of industrial development in the modern period has been the easy availability of the minerals like iron, coal, gold, copper, aluminium, etc.

India is also considered sufficiently rich in mineral wealth. According to an estimate, India has one -fourth of the total iron ore reserves in the world. Our country has largest reserves of manganese, which is mainly used in the iron and steel industry. Many reserves of coal, limestone, bauxite and mica also are present in India. But non-ferrous minerals like lead, zinc, copper and gold are found in very small quantities. Sulphur reserves are almost nil in the country, although sulphur is the chief base of modern chemical industry.

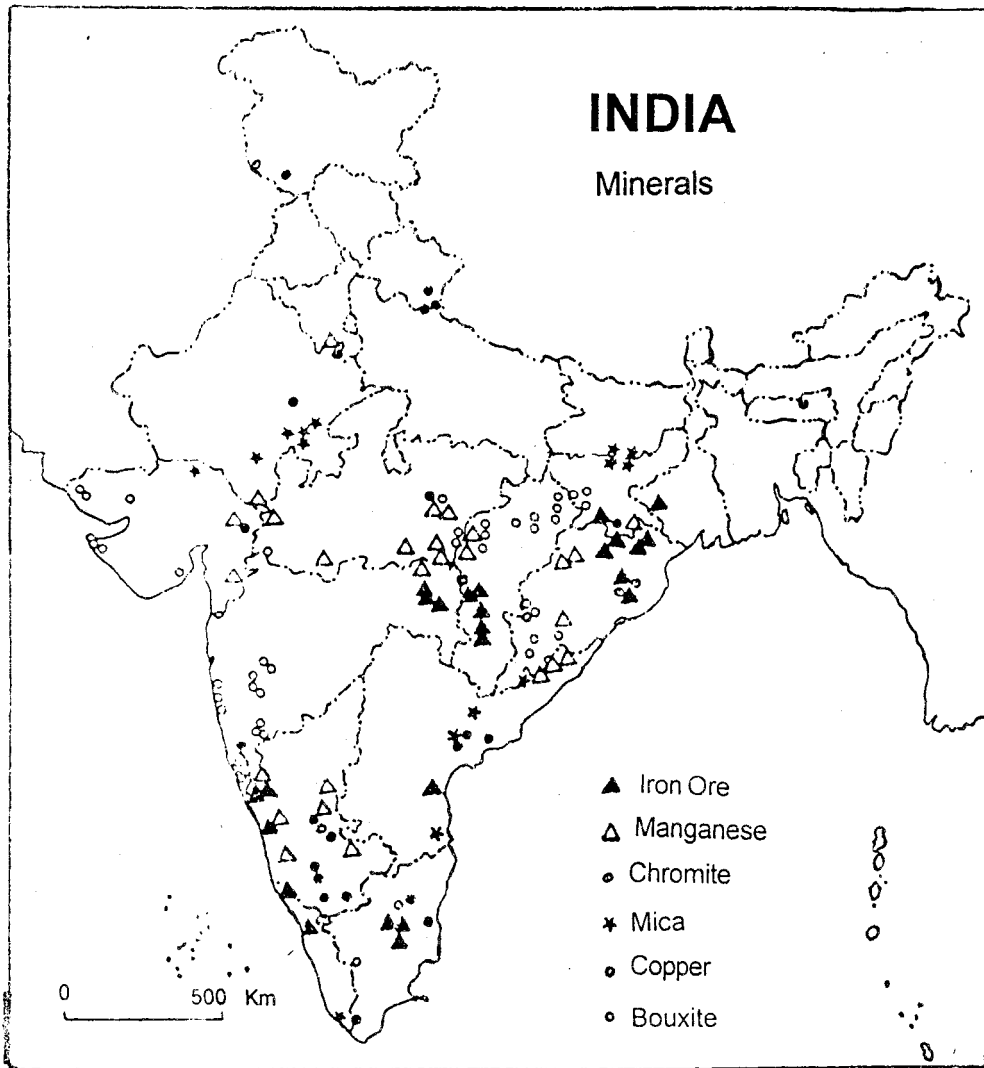
In our country, water power and nuclear power resources, are also found in large quantities. Their use is growing very rapidly because of their vast power potentiality and their environment friendly nature. That is why solar energy is also being used as a power resource. Solar energy is the invaluable energy resource provided by nature. Its use will increase more rapidly as a future power resource.

According to the Indian constitution, the utilization of minerals and the framing of laws related to these resources is a state subject. But central government makes laws for gearing the development of minerals under the Mines and Mineral Industry Act, 1957. According to this act, the government of India reserves the following rights:

- (i) To issue licence for extracting all minerals and give mining contracts, except for minor minerals.
- (ii) Development and Conservation of minerals and
- (iii) To renew and rotate the old mining contracts after sometime. This act was implemented on 1st June, 1958 and many amendments have been in it in 1972 and 1986. The major mineral resources of India are being described below:

1. IRON ORE

The best quality haematite and magnetite iron ores are found in India. These contain of 60 -70% of the iron content. Haematite ore is mainly found in Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Goa



and Karnataka whereas magnetite ore is mainly found in Maharashtra and Karnataka along the western coast. Besides these, iron ore is also found in Kerala, Tamilnadu and Andhra Pradesh.

According to an estimate, the total reserves of useful iron ore in the country are 12.74 billion tons. Of which haematite consists of 9.600 billion tons and magnetite consists of 3.14 billion tons. More than 50% of iron ore in India is found in Bihar, Singhbhum district of Jharkhand and surrounding Keonjhar, Bonai and Mayurbhanj districts of Orissa. Besides these, iron ore is also found in Hazaribagh, Palamau and Sahibganj districts of Orissa.

Iron ore is also present in Raipur, Durg, Rajnand Gaon, Bastar, Raigarh, Bilaspur districts of Chhattisgarh and Balaghat and Jabalpur districts of Madhya Pradesh. The iron ore found in the Bailadila region, is famous for high production and export. Bellary, Chitradurga and Chikmagalur districts of Karnataka are also major centres of iron ore. Kudremukh mine of Karnataka is very famous for export of iron ore.

The production of iron ore in the country is continuously increasing. In 1951, the production was only 4 million tons which increased to 50 million tons in 1987 and reached 71.5 million tons in 1997-98. As a result of the government policy of increasing the public and private sector investment in mining industry, the production of iron ore has recorded a rapid increase in the past few years. Japan is the major importer of the iron ore of our country. Besides this, Iran had invested in the Kudremukh mines through which iron products were to be imported from India.

2. MANGANESE

It is used as a raw material in the manufacturing of steel. Its mixture is used for increasing the strength of steel. Our country has vast reserves of manganese. The total reserves are estimated to be around 176 million tons. Orissa state is the largest producer of this mineral. It is followed by Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra and Karnataka. States like Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Gujarat and Bihar also produce manganese.

The main centres of mining of manganese are: Keonjhar, Kalahandi, Mayurbhanj (Orissa); Balaghat, Chindawara, Jabalpur, Jhabua (Madhya Pradesh); Nagpur, Bhandara and Ratnagiri (Maharashtra); Panchmahal (Gujarat); Chitradurga, Tumkur, Shimoga, Chikmagalur, Belgaum, North Kanara and Dharwar (Karnataka). Besides these, some reserves are present in Singhbhum (Jharkhand); Vishakhapatnam, Nizamabad (Andhra Pradesh); Banaswara and Udaipur (Rajasthan).

India occupies fourth place in the world in the production of manganese ore, after Brazil, South Africa and former USSR. The total production of country was 1.8 million tons in 1996 -97. Before this, in 1991-92, total production was 1.55 million tons.

3. MICA

India is the largest producer of mica in the world. India alone exports 60% of the total world exports of mica. Among its main producing states are Jharkhand, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. Half of total mica is found in Bihar. Hazaribagh district in Jharkhand; Gaya and Monghyr (Bihar); Nellore (Andhra Pradesh); Ajmer, Tonk, Bhilwara and Jaipur (Rajasthan) are chief districts that produce mica. In 1991-92, the country produced nearly 34000 tons of mica. It is mostly used in the electrical industry. The country earns foreign currency worth about 28 crore rupees through its export.

4. BAUXITE (ALUMINIUM)

Bauxite is an ore of aluminium which is largely consumed by the electricity industry. Aluminium being a lighter metal and good conductor of electricity, is mostly used in aircraft and electric goods. India occupies fifth position in the world in the production of this ore. The total reserves of bauxite in India are estimated to be around 2.530 billion tons. The major states producing bauxite ore are Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Goa, Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Tamilnadu and Uttar Pradesh.

Palamau (Jharkhand), Khera (Gujarat), Jabalpur (Madhya Pradesh) have mines of good quality bauxite. Besides these, good quality bauxite is also found in Bilaspur and Bastar (Chhattisgarh), Balaghat (Madhya Pradesh), Salem (Tamilnadu), Chitradurga and Belgaum (Karnataka), Kolhapur (Maharashtra) and Jammu (Jammu & Kashmir).

In 1951, the total production of bauxite was 68 thousand tons which increased to 1.9 million tons in 1979 and 5.9 million tons in 1996 -97. India exports bauxite to Japan and European countries.

5. COPPER

Copper is used for making utensils for domestic use. Being a good conductor of electricity, it has proved very useful for the electrical industry. The main producing regions of Copper in India are: Singhbhum (Jharkhand), Balaghat (Madhya Pradesh), Jhunjhunu, Alwar (Rajasthan). Besides these, Copper is also extracted in small quantities from Khammam (Andhra Pradesh), Chitradurga, Hassan (Karnataka) and Sikkim. The total estimated production of copper ore in India is 2.86 billion tons. From this about 2.85 million tons of copper metal is estimated to be obtained. In 1997 -98, 4.496 million tons of copper ore was produced in the country.

6. GOLD

This is very important and costly metal. It is used for the manufacture of jewellery, for keeping as reserves in banks and for meeting the deficit in balance of payments in foreign trade whenever the need arises.

Our country has very small reserves of gold. Gold is mainly extracted from **Kolar field mine** (Kolar district) and Hutti mines (Raichur district) of Karnataka. Besides this, gold is also extracted in small quantities from Ramgiri gold region of Anantpur district in Andhra Pradesh. Kolar mines are one of the deepest mines in the world, because of which the extraction from these mines is most costly in the world. Total gold ore reserves are estimated at 88 lakh tons. The production of gold is decreasing in the country. In 1951, India produced 7000 kg of gold, which decreased sharply to 2636 kg in 1979 and further to 1931 kg in 1986. However, the production has slightly increased to become 2032 kg in 1991-92 and 2700 kg in 1996 -97.

7. LIMESTONE

Limestone is found in large quantities in our country. It is used in cement industry and for white washing of the houses. Though it is produced in almost all states but major production regions fall over Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Tamilnadu, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Jharkhand, Orissa, Rajasthan and Karnataka. The total limestone reserves in India are estimated at 76.450 million tons. In 1996 -97, 764 million tons of limestone was extracted.

From the distribution of above mentioned minerals it is very clearly noted that the state of Punjab has no place in the production of any of these minerals. This is because of the fact that most of the state is alluvial plain made of soils brought and deposited by rivers, which is very fertile for agriculture. The mineral resources are mainly found in the regions with igneous and metamorphic rocks.

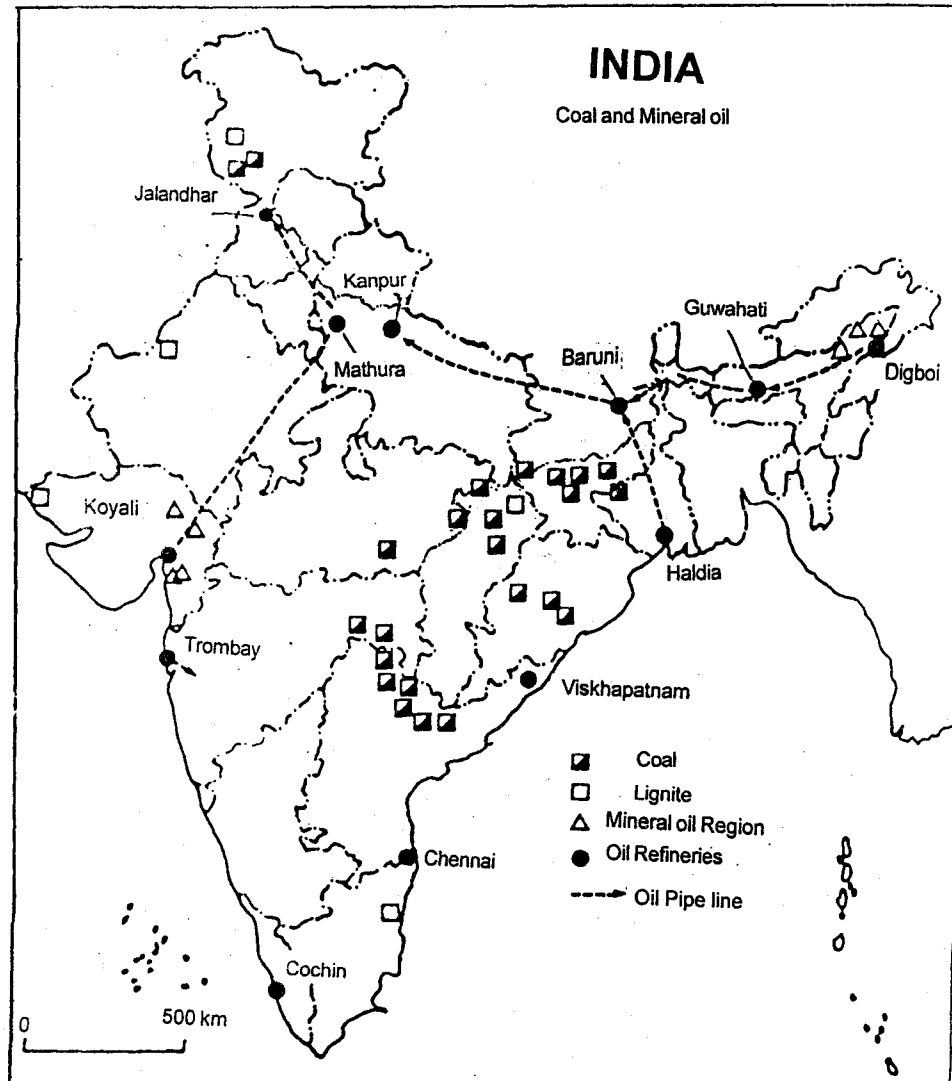
SOURCES OF ENERGY

Now we will briefly explain the distribution and usable reserves of some major sources of energy. Coal, mineral oil and hydroelectric power are the three major sources of energy. The fourth source of energy is nuclear power.

1. COAL

It is the most important industrial fuel till present. Alongwith this, it is used as an important raw material in iron and steel and chemical industries. 60% of the total carbonic demand in the country is fulfilled from coal and lignite.

Coal is the most extensive of all the mineral reserves. Our country is one of the three largest coal producing countries in the world. China and United States of America are the only countries that produce more coal than India. Almost all the coal reserves of the country are found in south Indian rocks belonging to the Gondwana age. An examination of the distribution of coal reserves in India, reveals that, three -fourth of the total coal reserves are present in Damodar valley region. The major coal areas here are Raniganj, Jharia, Giridih, Bokaro and Karanpura. All these areas fall in Bengal, Bihar and Jharkhand



states. Also, Singrauli, Umaria, Suhagpur, Solhat, Korba and Ramgarh districts Madhya Pradesh; Deogarh and Talcher of Orissa; Chanda district of Maharashtra and; Singreni district of Andhra Pradesh are the major mining regions.

After independence, coal mining industry was nationalized. It was done to avoid exploitation of mining workers, to manage mines in a planned manner and to preserve environment in such regions. The main coal regions of the country now are: Raniganj, Jharia, eastern and western Bokaro region; Panchkanhan and Tawa valley; Singrauli; Chanda -Wardha region, Talcher and Godavari valley region etc.

The total coal reserves in the country are estimated to be 196 billion 20 million (19602 crore) tons. Out of this, 16632 crore tons consists of non -coking coal and 2970 crore tons consists of coking coal. According to a news item, on January1, 1997, the total coal reserves of India were 20465.3 crore tons. The Coal India Limited (CIL) which is a government organization is responsible for the management and administration of coal. This is the second largest organization in the world which employs 6.64 lakh workers. Coal has proved very useful in the generation of electricity and gas. Thermal plants of the country operated with the help of coal. This also helps in the decentralization of industries and saves on transportation cost.

The production of coal has increased rapidly after independence. The production has increased from 32.8 million tons in 1950 -51 to 113.9 million tons in 1980 -81. In 1989 -90, it reached 200.01 million tons and it was 296 million tons in 1997 -98. During this time, the consumption of coal has also increased manifold. After 1991, the production has been increased by changing the economic policy of the country and by encouraging foreign investment in mining industry.

Lignite, which is the poorest form of coal, is also called as brown coal. Its total reserves are comparatively less and are estimated to be around 27.5 million tons. Its major part, about 90% is found in Tamilnadu in Neyvelli and its surrounding regions. The entire state has benefited from the large reserves of lignite as the state gets electricity from the thermal plants set up in Neyvelli.

Nearly 90% of coal produced in India is used in thermal power plants. Punjab has three thermal power units, two in Ropar and one in Bathinda town. With these, the problem of shortage of electricity has been solved to a large extent. There is a great demand of coal in the iron and steel industry. One - fifth of the total production is used in this industry. Most of the remaining part is used in brick kilns, rail engines and for providing energy to the cement and fertilizer industries.

2. MINERAL OIL AND NATURAL GAS

The consumption of mineral oil as a source of energy has increased significantly in the world. Countries having its excessive reserves have entered

the category of rich countries through oil exports. These are mainly the Middle East countries like United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, etc.

India has many areas with known reserves of mineral oil. But commercial production is carried out from a very little area. According to an estimate, oil reserves are spread over 10 lakh square km of area in the country which is equal to one-third of the total area of the country. These are found in the Ganga and Brahmaputra plains; coastal belts; and continental shelves; Gujarat plains; Thar desert; and Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

At the time of independence, oil was extracted only in Assam state of the north eastern India from a very small field. It is the only field which is functioning for last 100 years. In the refineries located nearby at Digboi, oil is refined before being exported by pipeline to other parts of the country.

Mineral oil and natural gas was discovered in the plains of Gujarat and coastal regions after independence. Oil was being extracted from the reserves here at Ankleshwar. After this, the discovery of extensive off-shore reserves, 115 km away from the coast of Mumbai was a heartening incident for the country. This region is known as 'Bombay High'. Here the ship 'Sagar Samrat' specially manufactured in Japan was employed for discovering the oil. This was a challenging task in which the country became ultimately successful. In view of the huge demand for oil explorations are going on in the new areas. These are spread in the deep sea near the deltaic coasts of Godavari, Krishna, Cauvery and Mahanadi rivers. In Assam, new reserves have been struck. Recently, vast oil and natural gas reserves have been discovered by an Indian private company, Reliance industries, in the Krishna -Godavari basin.

In 1950-51, the production of crude oil in the country was about 3 lakh tons. It increased considerably to 68 lakh tons in 1970 -71 and 3.30 crore tons in 1990 -91 and then reached 3.28 crore tons in 1996 -97. But in 1988 -89, the crude oil production was 3.41 crore tons. During the same time, the consumption of oil has also increased tremendously. Therefore, government is encouraging oil exploration in the country. In this direction, the government has approved five new oil development projects since 1990. These projects include the development of recently discovered oil fields of Neelam, Mukta and Panna in the Bombay high basin and development of remaining reserves of L -II and L -III of Bombay High which is worth a total of rupees 8000 crore.

To increase the pace of oil exploration, government has invited bids for oil and natural gas exploration in 72 blocks of the country (39 off -shore and 33 on -shore) from the foreign companies besides two present Indian companies, the Oil and Natural Gas commission (ONGC) and Oil India Limited (OIL). Only 24 bids were received from 31 companies. Of these, oil exploration contracts have been given approval in 4 blocks. Simultaneously, the government is also willing to drill oil in the medium and small sized oil fields and tenders for the same have been invited.

Huge amount of oil is imported from foreign countries to fulfill the domestic demand. In 1990-91, the total production of crude oil and petroleum products was 2.94 crore tons for which country had to pay 107 billion rupees in the form of foreign currency. The continuous growth of imports of petro products is a matter of great concern. In 1996-97 India had to import 5.41 crore tons of petro products imported which has increased to double in last five years. Crude oil and petroleum products hold an important place in the deficit of imports and exports.

There are 12 oil refineries in the country at present with a total refining capacity of 5.74 crore tons per annum at the end of 1999.

The increase can take place with the expansion of these refineries which might enhance the capacity by 82 to 87 lakh tons. Besides these, 4 new refineries with a total capacity of 125 lakh tons have been approved. These are Cauvery basin (Tamilnadu), Numaligarh (Assam), Karnal (Haryana) and Mangalore (Karnataka). According to another decision of the government, 3 new oil refineries will be established with a total refining capacity of 6 million tons. These will be set up in eastern, central and western India. At the same time, proposals for setting up of refineries in private sector will also be approved.

Natural gas plays very important role in our life. Its reserves are usually found along with the oil fields. Therefore, where ever oil reserves are found, natural gas is also found at that place. However, natural gas may also occur separately. Such separate regions have been found in Tripura and Rajasthan. Besides these, off-shore reserves of natural gas have been found in deep sea areas of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Tamilnadu, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa.

In 1980 -81, the total production of natural gas was 235.80 crore cubic metres, which increased to 2231 crore cubic metres in 1995 -96. The production of this gas is rapidly increasing. For example, during 1994-95 and 1995-96, 15.1% growth rate was recorded in its production.

Natural gas is a clean and very good source of energy. It is used as a raw material in petro-chemical industry. Establishment of powerhouses based on natural gas takes less time as compared to other sources of energy. It also helps in increasing the agricultural production in the country. Nowadays, it is also used in manufacture of fertilizers. Natural gas is easily transportable over long distances, easily through pipelines from one place to another. At present, gas is being transported from regions of Mumbai and Gujarat to Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. The "Hajira-Bijaipur, Jagdishpur" gas pipeline which is 1730 km long runs from Hazira on the west coast through Bijaipur in Madhya Pradesh to Jagdishpur in Uttar Pradesh. Through this, gas is supplied to 6 fertilizers plants and 3 power plants. A government institution called the 'Gas Authority of India Ltd. (GAIL)' was entrusted with this task in 1984. This authority also plans and constructs pipelines for distribution of

natural gas. It has also taken up the responsibility of construction of many other pipelines. These pipelines may be laid in the Tatipaka-Kakinada region (Andhra Pradesh) and in Maharashtra and areas around Delhi.

The gas used for cooking is called as the Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG). Its use is increasing for cooking purposes both in the villages and cities. This is a fast and clean fuel. Its demand as domestic fuel for other industries will help in reducing the indiscriminating cutting of our forests. Since, there is a wide gap between the demand for the cooking gas and its fulfillment through the domestic sources, therefore, LPG has to be imported. In this area, alongwith the Gas Authority of India Limited (GAIL), other organizations like Oil and Natural Gas Commission (ONGC), Indian Oil Corporation (IOC) and Hindustan Petroleum Corporation (HP) are also working. Now, private investment is also being welcomed in this sector. This policy is a diversion from the country's policy prior to 1991. Earlier this industry was fully under the government control.

3. THERMAL AND NUCLEAR POWER:

Thermal power is generated by using coal, petroleum and natural gas in thermal power houses. These mineral resources which are used as a raw material in the generation of thermal power are also called as the fossil fuels. They can not be used more than once or they are non-renewable resources. This is their major disadvantage or demerit. Large quantity of coal -ash is left behind near the thermal power houses after the use of coal which endangers the surrounding environment. On the other hand, the use of coal and petroleum also causes pollution in the atmosphere. Therefore, thermal power like the hydel power is free of pollution for the far off areas similar to the hydel power.

Electricity can also be generated from the atomic fuel or heavy water besides coal, petroleum and gas. You might be knowing well about the hydel power. Electricity generated from water is called hydel power; from coal, petroleum and gas is called as thermal power and that produced from atomic fuel or heavy water is known as atomic power.

Electricity is widely used in our agriculture, industry, transportation, communication and domestic works. In a way today's life seems impossible without electricity.

In 1995-96, the total electricity generation from these three sources was 351 billion. Nearly three-fourth (74.9%) of this was generated in the thermal power houses. The remaining 23.5 per cent of the electricity was generated in hydel power houses and only 1.60 per cent by the atomic power. The share of thermal power is increasing very fastly with the passage of time.

The installed capacity of electricity in the country was 8.18 thousand MW till 1994 -95. A further increase of 30858 MW units was to be achieved during the 8th five -year plan (1992 -97) but increase of only 14799 MW of units

or 48% was attained in the first four years of the plan. Therefore, large gaps are found in the actual production and installed capacity in the country. The electricity is supplied to different parts of the country by the National Grid System. Our Punjab is located in the northern region of this grid. The National Thermal Power Corporation is responsible for the construction of thermal power stations and generating electricity etc. in the country. In Punjab, thermal power stations are located at Ropar and Bathinda. A new plant named Sri Hargobindpur Thermal Plant has been started on 29 December, 1997 at Lehra Mohabbat in Bathinda district. The production capacity of its first unit is 210 MW. Its second unit is proposed to be opened on June of next year.

Besides these, there are many more hydel power projects out of which Bhakhra-Nangal project is the most important and has the largest capacity of electricity generation.

Immense progress has been made in the transmission and distribution of electricity in the country. In 1950, the length of the transmission lines was 10,000 circuit km which increased to 2.18 lakh circuit km in March 1992. In addition, there are 400 KW high voltage transmission lines. Their length was 26,000 circuit km in March 1992. Besides this, first 500 KW HVDC bipole Rihand-Dadri transmission line is also working with a length of 820 km. An inter-regional link line is also working presently which links western and northern regions. The major objective of the introduction of National Power Grid System is to encourage the centralized system in the electricity power sector and to transmit power from one system to another system so that available resources of the country could be used optimally. Even today only 60 -62% of the total installed capacity of the electricity power production centres of the country, is being utilized. Proper care and attention can only increase the work efficiency.

In the five-year plans, more attention has been paid to the expansion of electric power in the rural areas. The schemes related to rural electrification are executed both by the state governments and rural electrification boards. Till 1991-92 a total of 4.88 lakh villages have been electrified and 96 lakh electric tubewells have been installed in these villages. In this way, 84% of the villages have been electrified. In Punjab, all villages have been electrified. The main objective under the rural electrification project is to give special attention to provide electricity to the tribal regions and *Harijan Mohallas* in the villages.

ATOMIC POWER

Atomic power stations established in those regions where the other sources of energy are not available or sufficient are not fulfilling their need. India is considered a progressive country in the peaceful utilization of the atomic power in the medical and agricultural areas.

Vast reserves of some atomic minerals are found in the country. There are mines of Uranium in some parts of Bihar and Rajasthan. Monazite sand

found in coastal areas of Kerala is a primary source of atomic energy from which Thorium is extracted. Cherolite, Zirconium and Palesar are also atomic minerals. India has their vast reserves. Widespread reserves of graphite have also been discovered in mountainous parts of eastern India.

The country has 4 centres of nuclear energy. These include Tarapur on the Maharashtra -Gujarat border; Rawatbhata near Kota in Rajasthan; Kalapakkam in Tamilnadu, and Nowrang in the Bulandshahr district of western Uttar Pradesh. In the 1994-95, their total production was 5.6 billion KW which was a little less than 2% of the total electricity production of the country. Continuous exploration and development tasks are going on in the country so that proper care of atomic power houses, their maintenance and manufacture of atomic fuel, could be accomplished in the country itself. Nuclear reactors are needed for generating electricity from the atomic fuel. These are imported from foreign countries. Some countries which are very rich in nuclear power do not want that countries like India should use this power independently in their country. Therefore, they are trying to bring Indian nuclear program under the international inspection. Recently, they have again tried to get signed an international treaty from India. The Indian reaction to this suggestion is that this treaty is discriminatory and this will restrict the poor countries like India from using the atomic power for peaceful purposes. Due to such an international policy, the country is facing problems in the supply of related necessary equipment. Therefore, the scientists of the country are investigating to find alternative methods. Recently, the Indian scientists achieved great success when they successfully repaired one of the units of Rawatbhata atomic reactor in Rajasthan through indigenous techniques which was not operational for a long time. This not only saved crores of rupees of foreign currency but also have brought laurels to Indian nuclear program.

NON -CONVENTIONAL SOURCES OF ENERGY:

In these sources, the use of energy like solar energy, wind energy, tidal energy, geo -thermal energy and energy derived from organic products, is very old. To run the boats, the use of wind, flowing water and human power dates back to the ancient times. Earlier, a large number of wind mills preparing flour. These wind mills were being used for were also used for irrigation purposes.

In the present period, their importance is increasing day by day due to their specific characteristics and some drawbacks of conventional sources. One of the main characteristics of these sources is that all these inexhaustible resources are renewable or mostly are still unused. The biggest advantage of the non-conventional sources is that they are very cost effective. Besides this, they can be used in the coastal, hilly or desert like remoter and barren lands. On such lands, the laying of electricity lines and their management is very costly. The utilization of such non-conventional sources of energy should be

encouraged in these kind of areas. It also strengthens the policy of decentralization.

The centralised system of electrification has some disadvantages also, besides having some advantages. It is very costly to construct large transmission lines and big power distribution centres. Also many administrative problems can also occur. Problems like lack of decentralization, and pollution etc. also come to the fore. Keeping all these things in view, stress is being laid on greater use of non-conventional sources of energy. Government has given top priority to increasing the use of non-conventional sources of energy. Besides decentralization, these have a special role to play in afforestation; conservation of environment, power saving; creation of employment opportunities; improvement in health and sanitation; social and women welfare; irrigation and production of organic fertilizers in agriculture, etc. In March 1981, the central government established a high powered authority board to locate more sources of energy. In 1982, the department of non-conventional sources of energy was set up by the centre in the form of power ministry. The state governments have also established separate agencies for the non-conventional sources of energy. With the cooperation of general public, preference is being given to works like provision of cooking gas at the local level, small irrigation projects, drinking water and street lighting etc. These works are of great importance in the remote areas, hilly regions and for the poor people.

Wind mill energy is very helpful in providing irrigation facilities in the rural areas. It is estimated that wind is used for producing 2000 MW of electricity. Gujarat, Tamilnadu, Maharashtra and Orissa are the most important areas where windmill centres are working at many places and electricity produced by these centres is added into the grid system.

Tidal energy is a cheap and inexhaustible source of energy. Runn of Kachchh and Cambay are the most suitable places for generating electricity through tidal energy because tidal water rise very fastly in these narrow inlets.

Geo -thermal energy has not yet been properly introduced in the electricity generation of the country because it is available in very small amount in the country. Efforts are being made to produce electricity from hot water geysers located in Manikaran in Himachal Pradesh.

Getting energy from trees is also being paid attention through planting more trees on barren and eroded regions. In these regions, fast growing trees are being planted so that they can be used as fuel wood. With this, solution can be found to problems of rural unemployment and fuelwood.

Electricity is also being generated from urban waste in the big cities. In our country most of the garbage is bio-degradable. In Delhi, a machine is already functioning for generating electricity from urban waste. Such efforts are also being made in other cities. With this the problem of collecting and dumping of large heaps of city garbage is solved and also electricity is generated from waste.

The '**Power village scheme**' has been implemented by the government of India in remote rural areas having barren lands. This has been done with the objective of fulfilling requirements of electricity in these remote villages. Under this scheme, 'gobar gas plants' have been established in the villages by using organic matter, cow dung, human excreta etc. These have been established at individual, community and village levels. In the larger cities, biogas machines are also being operated from the sewerage water. The Power Village Scheme was completed in 184 villages till March 1993. Besides this, this scheme was at different stages of completion in other 222 villages. The survey related to this has been completed in 1680 villages and it is going on in 344 villages.

A program for **smokeless stoves is being planned** at the national level. Its major objective is to save fuel and solve the problem of rural women for collecting fuel wood. Maximum amount of energy is used in the kitchen, in which wood is used on a large scale. In the traditional domestic stoves, large quantity of wood is consumed and also lots of smoke is produced. The scheme of smokeless stoves was started in the country in December 1983. It is estimated that one smokeless stove can save about 700 kg of fuelwood in a year. The use of these stoves save 20 to 35% of fuelwood. Till March 1993, about 142 lakh developed type of stoves had been installed in the country.

SOLAR ENERGY

Solar energy is an inexhaustible source of energy. It is omnipresent and also has large potentialities. Solar energy can be used very cheaply for water-heaters, cooking, air-conditioning, refrigeration, removing water salinity, distillation etc. Till March 1993, an area of 2.80 lakh km² had been established for collecting solar energy in the country where it was used for the above works. By the same time, 2.40 lakh solar cookers had been sold in the country. In a state like Rajasthan, where solar radiation is available for most of the year without any climatic disturbance, the solar energy is going to will be helpful in providing electricity to the widely scattered villages. It is a future source of energy because other sources of energy like coal and petroleum will be finished in the near future.

Exercises

I. Write short note the following objectively :

1. Name the important minerals?
2. In which states is Haematite iron found in India?
3. What are the uses of Manganese?
4. How much manganese reserve is in India?
5. What is the position of India amongst the manganese ore producing countries of the world?
6. Name the position of India amongst the Mica producing countries in the world?

7. Name the states that produce more than half of the total production of Mica.
8. Name the industries in which Mica is used as raw material.
9. Which mineral is obtained from Bauxite ore?
10. What are the uses of Copper?
11. Name the place and state where maximum gold is produced.
12. In which industry is the lime stone used to the maximum?
13. What is the place of India in coal production in the world.
14. What is the percentage of coal reserves found in Damodar valley.
15. Which organisation controls the managements of coal production?
16. Name the four major atomic energy producing centres.
17. What is Wind Energy?
18. What do you understand by smokeless stove?
19. Which material is extracted from Bailadilamins?
20. Name the material extracted from kolar mines?
21. From which place in the country is lignite coal extracted?
22. What is the other name given to lignite?
23. For which work is the ship 'Sagar Samrat' used?
24. How many oil refineries are found in India?
25. Which energy is derived from Uranium?

II. Answer the following questions in short :

1. Describe the role of minerals in the national Economy.
2. Name the manganese producing states of India?
3. Name the major Bauxite producing centres.
4. Name the copper producing centres in India.
5. What are the causes of non availability of minerals in Punjab?
6. Name the coal producing centres in India.
7. Name the main coal producing centres in Orissa.
8. What were the causes of nationalisation of coal production?
9. Name the non conventional sources of Energy?
10. Describe the importance of wind energy in India.
11. What is the role of Indian Govt. in mining industry?
12. From which districts in Madhya Pradesh is iron extracted?
13. Name all the institutes associated with exploration, refinement and regional distribution of oil.
14. Why solar energy is said to be future energy reserve?
15. What is the importance of natural gas in manure industry?
16. What are the problems faced in the regional distribution of hydroelectric energy in India?

17. Describe in brief the importance of mineral reserves in India.
18. Describe about the main iron ore producing centres of India.
19. Describe the efforts made in the field of exploration and refinement of oil in India after independence.
20. Describe about development in the electrification process in villages after independence.
21. Write in detail about 'Power village scheme'.
22. Write about a program for Smokless stoves is being planned at the national level.
23. Describe solar energy as an inexhaustible source of energy. Which parts of the country can make maximum utilizations of solar energy?
24. Write a short note on the progress made in generation of hydro-electricity?
25. Describe about the peaceful utilization of atomic energy in India. Also Write about the related international pressures due to this.

III. Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Describe in detail the main problems which are being faced with the increase in coal production.
2. Describe in detail the process of mineral oil and gas production.
3. Describe about the progress made by India in development of atomic energy.
4. Write about the importance and development of non conventional sources of energy.
5. Describe the role and importance of energy in industrialization of India.

IV. Show/Mark the following on the map of India.

1. Iron ore producing areas.
2. Manganese producing areas.
3. Coal producing areas.
4. Centres of atomic energy.
5. Iron producing areas of Damodar Valley.
6. Four major reserves of Bauxite.
7. Gold producing areas in Kolar.
8. Lignite coal producing areas.
9. Natural Gas producing areas.
10. Oil refineries

CHAPTER 8

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

Large scale production by using heavy machinery is known as manufacturing industry or large-scale industry. Through this whole process of industrialisation, the form of goods is changed to enhance their value and use. The main elements of this process include the raw material, capital, machinery and labour. The industrial development of any country depends upon its economic progress.

In an agrarian country like India, it has become very essential to encourage the manufacturing industry for raising employment opportunities, increasing national income, earning foreign currency and for bringing faster agricultural development. The development of agro -based industries is especially useful for strengthening the economic system of the country. Besides providing more of employment opportunities, this leads to decentralization of industries and promotes cooperation between agriculture and industries. While industries provide developed agricultural equipment, fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides for increasing agricultural production, the agriculture provides various types of raw materials required for the industry and food products for industrial labour. Therefore, agriculture and industry should not be seen separate from each other rather they should be considered complementary to each other.

At one time industrial self -sufficiency was the principle of the industrial policy of the government of India. But over time, there has been considerable shift in this thinking. Nowadays, the industrial policy is inclined towards increasing imports through which specialization, efficiency, working skill, competition, privatization etc. have been given more impetus. Through the New Economic Policy of 1991, large changes have been made in policies related to various issues of the economic system such as finance, foreign trade, capital, foreign investments, development of agriculture, industry and human resource. This has resulted in increase in the economic growth rate, availability of foreign capital, new employment opportunities, national income from the industrial sector and industrialization of the new regions etc. According to 1991 census, 2.87 lakh persons (excluding Jammu and Kashmir) were employed in the industrial sector which constituted of 3.5% of the total population and 12% of the total workers. According to figures of 1994 -95, about 28% of the total national income came from industry on the basis of 1980 -81 prices. The country earned 20602 million U.S. dollars (Rs 64,688 crore) of foreign currency from the industrial export during this year.

Regional Pattern of Industrialization

It is very important for a geography student to study regional pattern

of industrialization. Because regional imbalance of industrialization give rise to many serious problems. To solve the problem of imbalance, it is necessary to understand regional pattern of industrialization.

To know the present regional pattern of industrialization in the country, one must understand the changes that took place in the Indian economic system during the British rule. Before the British rule there was a vast network of household and small scale industries in the country. Small scale units were producing a variety of goods required by agriculture and for household needs, very efficiently. Household industry and agriculture were very intimately related. At the same time, Indian made cotton and silk textiles were very popular in the western countries. The Britishers who entered India by sea routes, started their trade from the ports of Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai and Karachi (Now in Pakistan). From these ports, the manufactured goods from England were sent to the Indian market and raw material from India was exported to England. Indian industry suffered a lot due to the economic policies of the Britishers. The household industry was shattered. The main centres of household industry such as Agra, Varanasi, Cuttack, Lahore (Now in Pakistan), Dhaka (Now in Bangladesh), Hyderabad, Pune, Thanjavur and Madurai gradually became weak whereas places like Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai and Karachi started developing into centres of power.

Gradually, a new kind of economic pattern has emerged in the country. The old economic centres have become the hinterland areas. Port cities like Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Karachi have become the core areas. In this way, the regional pattern of industrial and economic system has been completely reversed. Now, port cities have become the centres of economic and industrial power.

Besides these, the Britishers had developed some regions for supply of the raw material and for producing goods for their own needs. For example, they invested lot of money for agricultural development, especially the Upper Ganga -Yamuna Doab for sugarcane; Bengal for jute; Assam valley for tea and western Punjab (Now in Pakistan) for cotton. However in contrast, the mineral rich undivided Bihar, Orissa and those parts of Madhya Pradesh which fall under the Chota Nagpur Plateau remained completely ignored.

Therefore we inherited a pattern full of regional imbalances in economic and industrial growth from the Britishers at the time of independence. To remove these regional imbalances, industries have been set up in the backward regions of the country through five -year plans after independence. For example, Chota Nagpur Plateau, which has copious mineral resources, is an industrially backward area and has been chosen for establishing very big units of iron and steel industry in the public sector. Besides this, new industries have been set up in the backward areas under the Backward Area Development Programme.

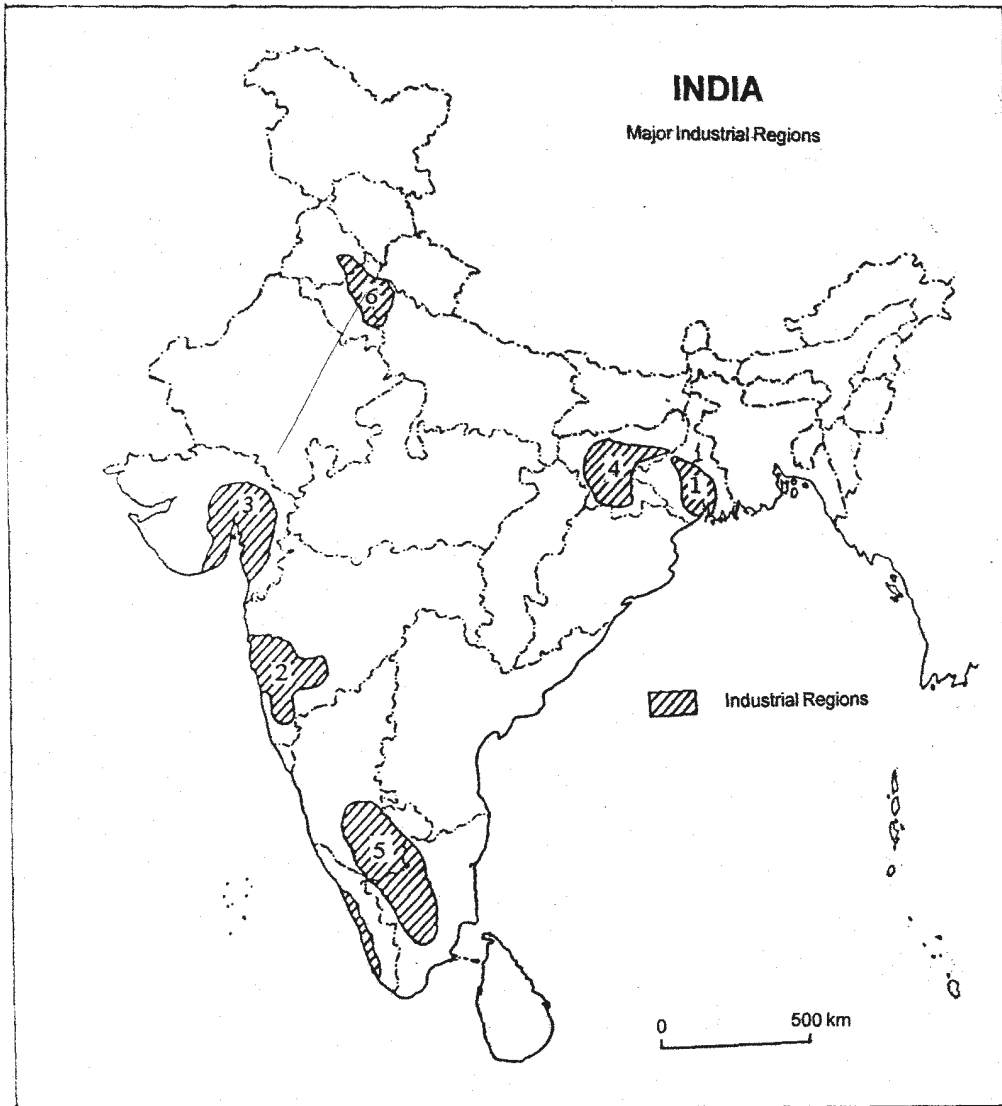
But despite these attempts by the government, the regional pattern of industrialization in the country is still imbalanced. One of its main reasons is that, most of the private investment has been in those regions where industrial activities were already established. The very first objective of private sector is to earn profit. Therefore its investment in these backward areas is absent as these areas also lack basic facilities. In this way, industrialization has been limited to a few major regions only. Most of the remaining areas of the country are backward industrially backward. In a broader perspective, northeastern part of the country (except Assam valley) industrially very backward. This part includes the states of Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Tripura, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Assam. Besides these, eastern Uttar Pradesh, northern Bihar, Orissa and most of the Andhra Pradesh, Vidarbha and Marathwara in Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh and eastern part of Madhya Pradesh, western Rajasthan and parts of Gujarat are industrially backward regions. The major industrial regions of the country are the following:

1. Kolkata -Hooghly Industrial Region

This region stretches along the Hooghly River, which is a tributary of Ganga, in about 80 Km of area. Kolkata is the most predominant centre of this industrial region. The other main industrial centres are Rawra, Kanchanpura, Bhatapura, Naihati, Barrackpore, Titagarh, Serampore, Dumdum and Alipur. Nearly, 7.50 lakh workers are engaged in the industries of this region. Jute industry has the maximum concentration in this region and employs more than 40% of the total industrial workers of the region. Other industries of this region are engineering, chemical, food -processing and paper industry.

This region was chosen in the 17th century by the Britishers and the other European rulers for setting up the industries. This was due to its close proximity to the Bay of Bengal and strong association with the fertile plains of north Bengal. Gradually, this region became the major centre of trade between India and Britain. But this region suffered a setback due to the shift of capital from Kolkata to Delhi in 1912 and opening of Suez canal in 1969. During the British rule, Kolkata was linked to other states by rail and road and trade and industrial relations of this region were strengthened.

The jute industry of this region suffered badly with the partition of the country in 1947. Most of the jute producing area went to east Pakistan (now Bangladesh) while the jute industries were left in India. The problem of refugees during partition also led to heavy economic loss to the industry. The industrial development of the region faced stagnation after sometime the decade of 1950 -60 only due to the emergence of problems like inundation and siltation of Kolkata port, bad transportation, weak communication facilities and political instability. Government however, has made attempts to improve the port facilities in last few years. An oil refinery has been established near the Haldia port. By making a barrage at Farakka, efforts have been made to solve the problem of siltation and water shortage in summers. This region enjoys the



- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Kolkata-Hugli Region | 2. Mumbai-Pune Region |
| 3. Ahmadabad-Baroda Region | 4. Chota Nagpur-Damodar valley Area |
| 5. Madurai-Coimbatore-Banglore Region | 6. National Capital Industrial Region |

8.1

abundant supply of minerals from the Chota Nagpur plateau, power from Damodar Valley Corporation and efficient water transportation facilities etc. The country earns huge amounts of foreign capital by exporting tea, jute, jute textiles from this port. Due to all these reasons, it is considered the biggest industrial region of the country.

2. Mumbai -Pune Industrial Region

This region engulfs the industrial centres of Mumbai, Pune, Ambernath, Pimpri, Trombay, Nasik and Tarapur etc. It has a major concentration of textile industry, in which 41% of the total workers are engaged. The total number of workers working in this region is about 6.70 lakh. Other major industries of the region include the engineering, chemical, pharmaceutical and petro-chemical industry. Besides these, industries like ship -building, electrical, transport, film and food -processing industry are also important. In the beginning, There was a very difficulty in bringing coal to be used as a source of energy from the remotely placed mines in the states of Bengal, Bihar and Jharkhand. But this problem has been solved to a large extent with the production of hydel power in the Western Ghats. Also, country's first atomic power plant has been established in Trombay for the generation of electricity, from where electricity is supplied to major industrial centres of this region.

Mumbai has a special importance as a port which is very beneficial for the development of this region. The port of Mumbai is nearer to the European market and to the oil regions of the Middle East. Besides this, the class of hard -working and skilled Gujarati and Parsi communities have played special role in changing this region into an important industrial region of the country.

3. Ahmedabad -Vadodara Industrial Region

It is located north of the Mumbai -Pune industrial region. The main industry of this region is the cotton textile industry. Three -fourth of the total industrial labour is engaged in this industry. Ahmedabad, Jamnagar, Surat, Vadodara, Rajkot and Khera are the principal industrial centres. This region falls in the centre of the largest cotton producing areas of the country. This has facilitated the establishment of cotton textile in this region. Surat is the principal centre of silk industry. Besides textile industry, chemical and light engineering goods are also manufactured in this region. Foreign trade of this region takes place through the Kandla port.

4. Chota-Nagpur -Damodar Valley Region

This region is situated in the major mineral resource region of the country. It receives coal from Jharia, Raniganj, Bokaro and Burnpur and iron ore from Singhbhum, Keonjhar and Mayurbhanj etc. The iron and steel industry of the country is concentrated in Jamshedpur, Bokaro, Durgapur, Rourkela, Bhilai, Burnpur, Kulti and Asansol in this region. A chemical fertilizers industry is situated at Sindri. This region obtains electricity from the Damodar Valley Corporation and minerals like iron ore, coal, manganese, copper, etc. from the

mineral resource regions of Chota Nagpur. This region is well -linked to other parts of the country by rail and road transportation. The major problem of this region is the increase in demand for electricity, communication facilities, etc.

5. Madurai -Coimbatore Region

In this region, a large section of workers work in the cotton textile industry. Bangalore is major centre for aircraft manufacturing industry, automobile, telephone and machine tools industry. In the last few years, Bangalore has emerged as an important centre of computer industry. It is also called as the "Silicon Valley" of India. Cotton and silk textile industry has an important place in Madurai and Coimbatore region. Foreign trade takes place through the Chennai (Madras) port.

6. Malabar Coast Industrial Region

The principal industrial centres of this region are Cochin, Trichur, Ernakulem, Alwaye, Kozikhode, Keolan and Kalamajari. Food -processing, rice mills, coconut and soap manufacturing industry are the major industries of this region. Oil refining and chemical manufacturing are the other major industries. Cochin is the principal port of this region, through which the foreign trade takes place.

7. National Capital Region

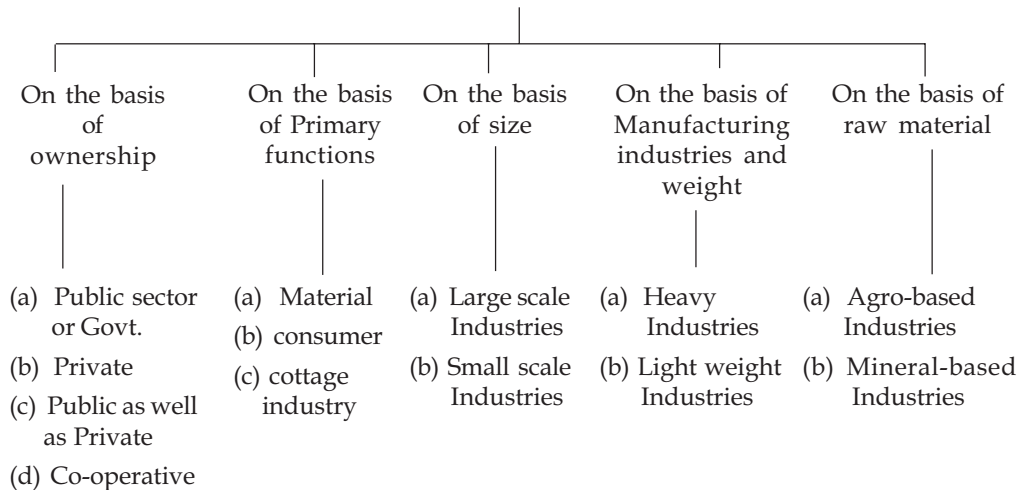
Besides the national capital Delhi, the other major centres of this region are Meerut, Bulandshahr, Aligarh, Mathura, Agra, Gaziabad, Muzaffarnagar, Saharanpur, Bagpet, Muradabad and Bareilly of Uttar Pradesh; Rewari, Panipat, Karnal, Gurgaon, Sonapat, Faridabad and Rohtak of Haryana. In addition, Jaipur and Alwar of Rajasthan are also located in this region. The principal industries of this region are readymade garments, cotton textiles, electronics, motor engineering, oil refinery, agricultural equipment and chemical fertilizer industry. Maruti Udyog is operating in Gurgaon in which India's first small car of the country is manufactured. This car is manufactured in cooperation with the Japanese company 'Suzuki'. Presence of national capital Delhi, availability of market, transportation facilities, etc. have an important contribution in the industrialization of this region.

Besides the seven principal regions, some minor industrial centres and industrial belts have emerged on the industrial map of the country. In Punjab, all the industrial cities of Rajpura, Ludhiana, Kapurthala, Phagwara, Jalandhar upto Amritsar along the G.T. (Grand Trunk) road form one such industrial belt. Similarly, Kanpur -Lucknow belt in Uttar Pradesh; Jaipur, Ajmer, Kishangarh, Jodhpur in Rajasthan are the other minor industrial centres. Besides these, some industrial centres have developed at major cities like Hyderabad, Nagpur, Bhopal, Vishakhapatnam etc.

CLASSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES

Industries are classified in many ways. In the following table, classification has been done on different bases.

Table 8.1
Classification of Industries



The manufacturing industries classified on the basis of raw material as agro -based and mineral based industries have been described as follows :

(A) AGRO-BASED INDUSTRIES

Industries, which obtain raw material from the agricultural sector, are called agro -based industries. The major agro -based industries comprise the textile industry, jute industry, sugar industry, vegetable oil industry and paper industry. We will briefly describe these industries in the same sequence.

Textile Industry

The raw materials used in this industry like cotton, jute, silk or wool are obtained directly or indirectly from agriculture. Silk and wool are obtained from silkworms and animals respectively whereas cotton and jute are obtained directly, due to being grown in the soil.

In the textile industry, **cotton textile industry** becomes the principal industry because of its importance and vast extent. Our country has an old tradition of manufacturing and wearing cotton textiles. Cotton textiles of India were very popular in Middle Eastern and European countries. It is because of the popularity of these textiles only that the Britishers imposed heavy taxes and restrictions on the export of Indian cotton textiles to Europe. This was done to harm the Indian cotton textile industry and to increase the demand of cotton textiles manufactured in Britain. Extending in every village, this industry

was a rural and cottage industry in which a simple spinning wheel was used as a machine.

The establishment factories in this industry started during the British rule in the beginning of 19th century (1818 A.D.). With the setting up of the first textile mill in Fort Golster (in Howrah) near Kolkata. But the real beginning was made in 1854 with the setting up of a cotton textile mill (Bombay Spinning and Weaving Company Limited) at Mumbai.

In 1996 -97, there were 8288 textile mills in the country, which employed about 805,126 workers, who were involved in both the spinning and weaving of textiles. Nowadays, whole country is passing through the phase of reorganisation of industry. It seems impossible for textile industry of the organised sector to compete with the powerloom industry. Almost all the mills are attempting to modernize their machines so that exports could be increased. Some new mills are being set up with the objective of 100% export. This will lead to progressive increase in the production and exports in the cotton textile industry. Government has always made efforts for striking a wise balance between the tradition and modernity; centralization and decentralization; less labour intensive and more labour intensive, in order to provide more employment opportunities in this industry. This was done because lakhs of rural workers in all corners of the country depend on this industry for their living and it is the basic duty of the government to provide employment to the people. However, on the other hand, it is also necessary to encourage the modern fast mills with large investments, in order to earn foreign currency by importing textiles in the competitive international market.

Between these two sectors of small scale (cottage) and large scale industries, there exists a third sector also which includes labour intensive handlooms and powerlooms. The post weaving activities are performed with man -driven and power -driven machines. After agriculture, the handloom and powerloom industry is the second largest industry from employment point of view. In 1997 -98, the handloom industry produced 7263 million metres of cloth and provided employment to about 76 lakh workers. The powerloom industry on the other hand produced 8830 million metres of cloth and provided employment to 45 lakhs of workers. In spite of the government assistance, the development of handloom industry is not encouraging. A large number of rural weavers are dependent on this industry for their living. Therefore, there is a need to find new methods to make it more active and viable.

Most of the cotton textile industry of the country is concentrated in Maharashtra and Gujarat. Mumbai in Maharashtra and Ahmedabad in Gujarat are the principal centres. Besides these, the centres like Coimbatore in Tamilnadu; Nagpur and Sholapur in Maharashtra; Kolkata in West Bengal; Kanpur in Uttar Pradesh; Indore in Madhya Pradesh; and Delhi, are important.

In the last few years, readymade garment industry has developed very

rapidly. These are exported to foreign countries as per demand through different fashions and designs with strict market competition. However, India is facing lot of competition from China, Taiwan, Korea and Bangladesh in this industry. Therefore, a continuous care of developments in the industry and liking of the foreign consumers should be taken. Country can earn valuable foreign currency from the exports from this industry. Jaipur, Delhi, Mumbai, Coimbatore, Chennai and Ahmedabad are the principal centres of readymade garment industry.

Woollen textile industry is also becoming important in the textile industry. You must be aware that Punjab occupies a special place in the woollen textile industry. Amritsar, Dhariwal and Ludhiana in Punjab are its major centres. Other centres of woollen textiles are Mumbai, Bangalore, Jamnagar, Kanpur and Srinagar. This industry is largely in the unorganized sector and comes in the category of small scale industries.

India is ranked fifth in the world in terms of number of wool producing sheep. The number of sheep in the country is about 5 crore and in 1997 the production of wool was 4150 tons. The main reason for the low production is the inadequate supply of wool. In India, the per sheep production of wool is only 900 gm as compared to 5320 gm in Australia and New Zealand. Therefore, the production of wool in India is nearly six times less than in Australia.

In our country, sheep rearing and wool production is mostly done by the tribal people. Low productivity, poor quality of wool, lack of facilities, absolute technology, poor quality of sheep, lack of education among tribals alongwith their shifting nature, come in the way of development of woollen textile industry.

Huge amount of wool is imported from the foreign countries due to the low domestic production of wool. In 1997, the country produced 4.1 crore kg of wool. To fulfill the demand of this industry, 1.6 to 1.8 crore kg of wool was imported from the foreign countries. Due to lack of technology, unorganized structure and very small size of units, the exports from this industry are very small but there is a large scope of increasing the exports from this industry.

The Indian made **silk textiles** are popular all over the world. Silkworms are reared on the mulberry leaves. Nearly 90% of silk production belongs to this type. It is also called sericulture. This agro -based industry is working on about 3.32 lakh hectares of land in 52000 villages of the country. More than 90% of the silk industry based on mulberry is concentrated in the states of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu and West Bengal. In 1997 -98, the total silk production from the mulberry was 14,110 tons. India is the second largest producer of natural silk after China. The production of silk in China was 35800 tons. In our country, more than 70% of the silk is consumed in the handloom industry. The production and productivity of raw silk are both

very low in the country. To fulfill the demand of this industry, raw silk is imported from the foreign countries. During the eighth five -year plan, the target was to produce 21400 tons of raw silk for which Central Silk Board prepared a National Sericulture Plan for 12 states of the country. This plan was implemented in cooperation with the Sweden Development Corporation.

Varieties of silk produced from mulberry include tassar, mooga and eri. Mysore, Kanjivaram (near Chennai), Varanasi, Srinagar, Murshidabad and Amritsar are the major centres of silk production. The major problems, which the industry is facing, are the shortage of skilled labourers, lack of capital and modern technology etc. Secondly, the major problem of silk textile industry in Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Assam and Orissa is that while the skilled weavers are available in these states but raw silk has to be imported from far located producing areas of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamilnadu. To solve these types of problems, it is necessary to increase the production of raw silk in new areas.

Synthetic textile industry depends on man -made synthetic fibres. In India, synthetic fibres like rayon, terene and dacarene are produced. These are produced by chemical processes from wood pulp, coal and petroleum. Good quality textiles are produced after mixing these synthetic fibres with cotton, silk and woollen yarn. This gives very good results. These types of textiles are not only durable and attractive but are easy to handle also. These can be dried easily after washing and do not need to be ironed regularly. These types of textiles are very popular in the middle and lower class people. But due to higher use of artificial fibres in these clothes, they can be harmful to the human skin which can sometimes lead to various skin diseases. Therefore, now people especially educated and belonging to rich class have strongly started disliking these types of clothes. Factories producing synthetic fibres are located in Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Delhi, Surat, Kolkata, Amritsar and Gwalior.

Jute Textile Industry

Jute is used for manufacturing gunny bags, carpets etc. This industry is a legacy of the British rule to India. The first jute mill (powerloom) was set up in 1859 near Kolkata. Gunny bags made of jute are mostly exported. Due to this, the industry has developed very rapidly. But this industry suffered heavily after independence in 1947. Almost all the jute mills remained in India while three -fourth of the jute area was transferred to the then eastern Pakistan (the present Bangladesh). In 1997 -98, the country produced 1.8 million bales of jute. The number of jute mills in the country is 426 in which 1,86,929 lakh of workers are employed. This industry provides employment to a total of 40 lakh jute producers. In 1990 -91, total production of jute goods was 14.30 lakh tons.

This industry brings huge amount of foreign currency to the country. But in 1986 -87 it had to face lot of problems. Its main reasons were the

decreasing demand for the jute goods; large gap between the production cost and selling price; and tough competition from the synthetic materials. In 1986, the government of India announced a clear policy to remove the problems of jute industry. Under this policy, some decisions were taken such as creation of Jute Mill Modernization Fund of rupees 150 crores; creating a Special Jute Fund of rupees 100 crore; exemption of duty on the import of modern machinery for the jute mills, and making compulsory for some industries to use only the jute material for packing their products etc. But the pace of modernization is very slow. The increasing use of goods made of synthetic materials has become a big challenge for the jute industry. Therefore, if jute industry is to be saved from this difficulty, then its inherent strength needs to be revived and it will have to face the modern challenges.

Coconut -Jute Industry

The economic development in India has been influenced by the manufacturing of different kinds of goods from the materials obtained from coconut. Coconut producing areas of states of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Orissa, Goa and Assam and union territories like Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Lakshadweep and Pondicherry, come under this industry. About 5.5 lakh people are directly or indirectly involved in this industry in which number of women is large. The country earns about 70 crore rupees of foreign currency through exports of this industry. The peel and husk of coconut are basic raw materials of this industry. In 1989 -90, the estimated production of coconut in India was 9283 million. Till now only 50% of total peel and husk of coconut is being used in the country and the production could be increased in future by encouraging this industry.

The two types of fibre produced in this industry are white and brown. In early 1990's, the production of white fibre was more than one lakh tons and that of brown fibre was about 70 thousand tons. The country earned nearly rupees 70 crore through exports from this industry.

In the eighth five -year plan (1992 -97) of the country, emphasis was laid on increasing the use of raw material, modernization of the machines, increasing the competition, making the labour more skilled through training etc. This was done to increase exports and employment opportunities.

Sugar Industry

India is largest producer of both sugar and sugarcane in the world. Sugar industry is the second largest agro -based industry of the country. In 1950 -51, there were only 138 sugar mills in the country whose number has now increased to more than 400. Sugarcane is a weight losing raw material. Therefore, sugar mills are established in their raw materials producing regions. The production of sugar is increasing continuously in the country, but it keeps on fluctuating from time to time. Sugar production has increased from 11.3 lakh tons in 1950 -51 to 132 lakh tons in 1997 -98. The per capita availability of sugar has also increased considerably during the same period.

Large part of sugarcane is consumed in the Gur and Khandsari industry. The rural people like gur, shakkar and khandsari more than sugar. In 1997 – 98, the total production of sugarcane was 27.06 crore tons more than 40% of which was used for making gur and khandsari. In the years when there is heavy demand for gur and khandsari, the farmers sell most of their produce to the small jaggery making units instead of sugar mills and get higher prices for their crop. Due to this and also because of sugarcane diseases, the production of sugar remains fluctuating from season to season. On the other hand, with the increase in domestic consumption, the demand of year in the country is increasing year after year. The sugar export of the country is also uncertain. Export was restarted in 1990 –91, after it discontinued for many years.

The sugar industry in the country first started in the private sector. But later, mills were also established in the cooperative sector. Most of the sugar mills in Maharashtra are in the cooperative sector, while in Uttar Pradesh these are mostly in the private sector. More than half of the mills in the country are in the cooperative sector. The industry in the beginning was concentrated in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. But gradually it is extending to the southern states of Maharashtra, Tamilnadu and Karnataka because the climate of south India is more suitable for sugarcane cultivation. In these southern states, the sugar content (sucrose) is 0.5% more as compared to other areas. Punjab government has also been encouraging sugarcane cultivation in the state. Here, the procurement price of sugarcane is fixed higher than in the neighbouring states of Uttar Pradesh and Haryana. Currently a total of 19 sugar mills are operating in the state. In your class, try to know the location of these sugar mills. In 1995 –96, Punjab produced about 4 lakh tons of sugar out of a total of 165 lakh tons of sugar produced in the country.

Sugar mills of the country are facing many difficulties. Obsolete machinery, low production capacity, politicization in the fixing the price of raw material (sugarcane), pressure from the Kissan Unions, etc are the major obstacles. On one hand, the sugar mill owner take huge loans from the government on low rates of interest, and on the other hand, they do not make timely payment to the farmers. Besides these, there are many shortcomings in the government policy regarding sugar industry. The by –products of sugar industry like molasses and bagasse, can be further used in the form of raw material in factories related to the sugar industry itself. For this, the ban on the manufacture of molasses which the government does not allow for various reasons. But to reap real benefits, sugar complexes can be established.

Vegetable Oil Industry

To extract oil from oilseeds has been an old tradition in the villages of India. Workers engaged in this traditional work were known as Teli (oilmen). India is largest producer of oilseeds and its vegetable oil in the world. In our country, use of vegetable oil for cooking purposes is liked very much. We

often cook all the vegetables in vegetable oil. As a result, the consumption of oil is also maximum in our country. In spite of producing nearly 1.5 crore tons of Til (oilseed), we have to import edible oil from the foreign countries. The major oilseeds produced in our country are groundnut, mustard, toria, sunflower seeds, soybean and coconut.

In 1950 -51, the total production of oilseeds was 5.2 million tons which increased to 22.2 million tons in 1997 -98. In this way, an increase of more than 4 times has been recorded. But because of the fast increase in population, the per capita consumption of edible oil has increased only two times from 2.5 Kg per capita in 1955 -56 to 5.4 Kg in 1996 -97.

Therefore, large amount of edible oils are imported from foreign countries. Nowadays, refined oil is becoming popular as an edible oil, which is available in branded containers or packets. Refined oil 'dhara' manufactured in the cooperative sector is a very popular brand of refined oils. Besides this, many other brands are also available in the market. In Rajpura city of Punjab, the Amrit Vanaspati Company manufactures a popular brand of 'Bansri' refined oil. Its other major centres in north India include Ghaziabad, Agra and Delhi. Gujarat is largest producer of groundnut oil. In this state, a very large area is given to groundnut cultivation. This industry is spread in almost all areas of the country because one kind of oilseed or the other is grown in all the places, it has a demand in all areas. Keeping in view the increasing domestic demand, the Indian government is making efforts to encourage production of oilseeds, development of new seeds and their productivity etc. through 'Oilseed Technology Mission'.

Paper Industry

The first modern paper mill in the country was established in 1870 at a place called Ballygunj near Kolkata under the name of 'Royal Paper Mills'. Before independence, there were only 15 paper mills in the country. The total production was one lakh tons. The demand of paper is increasing day by day with the increasing population and spread of education. As a result, it is becoming very difficult to fulfill this growing demand. Another regarding this problem is that keeping in view the importance of forest resources and continuous deforestation, it is becoming difficult to provide wood pulp to the paper industry. Therefore, use of raw materials like bamboo, sabai grass and sugarcane bagasse is being encouraged continuously as alternatives to wood pulp. Besides these, waste paper and rags after recycling are also being used as a raw material. In 1995 -96, the production of paper and card board was 23 lakh tons. To fulfill the continuously increasing demand, paper is imported in the country.

You must be knowing that the paper used in your daily newspaper is different from the paper used in your copies and books. The paper used in the newspaper is called newsprint. Keeping in view its demand, the Indian

government had established a factory manufacturing newsprint at Nepanagar in Madhya Pradesh. Nowadays, its production capacity is 50,000 tons per year which is far less than the required 3 lakh tons of newsprint. Most of the paper mills of the country are located in the states of Maharashtra and West Bengal. But now they are also being established in other areas.

Some major paper mills of the country are: Balarpur, Kalyan and Sangli (Maharashtra); Mysore Paper Mills Limited, Bhadravati; Yamunanagar and Faridabad of Haryana; Modinagar, Saharanpur, Vasantnagar and Lucknow of Uttar Pradesh.

(B) MINERAL -BASED INDUSTRIES

Mineral resources of a country have an important place in modern civilization and in the systematic functioning of its economic system and its industrial development. Many industries use mineral resources for their raw material. Large reserves of minerals and their proper utilization is an indicator of economic power of any country. The United States of America and Russia have established themselves as major powers in the world only due to large reserves of minerals found in their country and their utilization in the economic development of the country. Due to the extensive reserves of mineral oil found in Middle Eastern countries like United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Iran and Iraq, a large number of petro -chemical industries could be established, in these countries. Iron and steel industry; engineering industry; automobile spare parts industry; ship and aircraft industry; electrical industry; electronics industry; chemical industry; petro -chemical industry; fertilizer industry; and cement industry etc., all depend on one mineral resource or the other. This fact can be easily understood by any person that how much is the contribution of all these industries in the economic development of a country. We will briefly describe these industries in relation to India.

Iron and Steel Industry

The art of smelting of iron ore in the country is very old. The Iron Pillar located in Delhi testifies this, as it is more than 1600 years old. But manufacturing steel on modern lines is comparatively new. After many unsuccessful attempts, pig iron was produced successfully for the first time in 1874 in factory by the Bengal Iron Works located at Kulti (West Bengal). Afterwards in 1907, Sri Jamshedji Tata who was also awarded the highest civilian award of India 'Bharat Ratna', later on established a factory in the public sector in Jamshedpur in Bihar and this city was also given his name. This factory is known as Tata Iron and Steel Company or TISCO. In 1919, the Indian Iron and Steel Company (IISCO) was established in Burnpur (West Bengal). Later on, factory at Kulti was also taken over by IISCO. A new factory was set up in 1923 at Bhadravati (Karnataka) known as Vishveshwaraya Iron and Steel Company. In 1950, the country produced 15 lakh tons of pig iron and 10 lakh tons of steel. Whereas in 1997-98, nearly 2.34 crore tons of steel was manufactured.

The iron and steel industry of the country experienced rapid strides after independence. In the 2nd five -year plan (1956 -61), not only, the production capacity of steel plants was expanded at large scale but three new plants were established in the public sector with foreign collaboration. These three new plants at Rourkela (Orissa), Bhilai (Chhattisgarh) and Durgapur (West Bengal) had a total capacity of 30 lakh tons. These were established by a public sector company, the Hindustan Steel Limited. This company is the largest producer of steel in the country. Its total capital is Rs 700 crores. In 1964, a new steel plant was set up in the public sector at Bokaro (Jharkhand). Production of steel in this plant started in 1972. After this, Bhilai and Bokaro plants were established in collaboration with the erstwhile USSR; while Durgapur and Rourkela were set up in collaboration with Britain and Germany respectively. This is the largest organised sector of the country in which more than 3 lakh workers are employed. The government has set up Steel Authority of India Limited (SAIL) in 1973 to ensure coordinated development of industry in the public and private sectors. The public capital of SAIL in March 1993 was Rs 5000 crore. Excluding TISCO, all other big steel plants are under this authority. Their production capacity is mentioned in table below:

Table 8.2
The Production capacity of some of the main steel plants of India
(thousands tons)

Name of the Industry	Raw Steel	Salable Steel
Bhilai	4,000	3,153
Durgapur	1,150	938
Raurkela	1,456	1,170
Bokaro	4,000	3,156
IISCO	384	406

** All these steel plants are under the steel authority of India.*

This is the reason that this industry got concentrated in Chota Nagpur plateau region of Bihar, West Bengal, Jharkhand, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. The Chota Nagpur plateau has huge reserves of iron ore, coal and limestone. The iron and steel industry based on these raw materials is the basic industry for all the industries. This industry provides raw materials to the Heavy Engineering and Tools industry. Besides these, other light, medium, small and household industries also depend on this industry. As a result, iron and steel industry is considered as an indicator of the modernization and industrial development of a country. Heavy investment; modern and cheap transportation and communication facilities; power resources; development of high level of technology and modernization, are very essential components of this industry.

Our neighbouring country China has made a faster progress in this industry, as compared to us, inspite of the fact that we made a very good beginning. In the decades of 1950s and 1960s, the production of iron and steel in India was more than China. Later on, Chinese industry grew much faster than India. In 1988-89, China produced 5.9 crore tons of steel while India was struggling to achieve a target of just one crore tons of steel. The plants in our country lack high degree modernization and specialization. The Government is paying special attention to their modernization. The production of various steel products is given below:

Table 8.3

INDIA: STEEL PRODUCTION, 1951-1997

Name of Products	Total Production (in Lakh Tons)	
	1950-51	1996-97
1. Salable Steel	10.4	73.1
2. Steel Pind	14.7	147.5
3. Salable Pig iron	16.9	20.6

Source: (i) Economic Survey 1996-97, Govt of India Page-128

(ii) India 1984, Govt of India page 384

Besides the big steel manufacturing plants in the country, the country also has more than 200 small factories. These are often called Mini Steel Plants. Till 1993, 177 units with a total capacity of 73 lakh tons had started producing steel. The Mini Steel Plants Scheme has two main objectives. First, the decentralization of steel industry, and second to shorten the distance between the consuming area and the steel plants. Mini Steel Plants are generally being set up in the consumption areas. These factories work through electric furnaces of steel and they use scrap iron and sponge iron as their raw material.

During 1971 general elections, the then Prime Minister announced the establishment of 4 new steel plants in south India. The first of these integrated plants was established in Vishakhapatnam (Andhra Pradesh). Modern technology has been incorporated in this plant. Its first unit manufactured about 15 lakh tons of steel during the first phase from 1989 to 1991. The unit of second phase was started in 1992 with the objective of export. In 1992-93, steel worth Rs 212.41 crore was exported from this plant. Second plant was again established in Andhra Pradesh at Kotagundam in which sponge iron is manufactured. Its production capacity is 60,000 tons. Third plant was set up at Salem (Tamilnadu) with a production capacity of 65000 tons. It produces stainless steel. It started working in March 1992. Besides these, the opening

of steel plants at Vijaynagar (Karnataka) and Marmagao (Goa) are at different phases of their completion.

India exports steel also to other countries. In 1995 -96, country exported 20 lakh tons of steel worth Rs 1940 crores which is an encouraging feature of this industry. With this, not only our steel will be able to compete at the world level but also production cost will have to be lowered comparatively. Besides all these, the country will earn foreign currency.

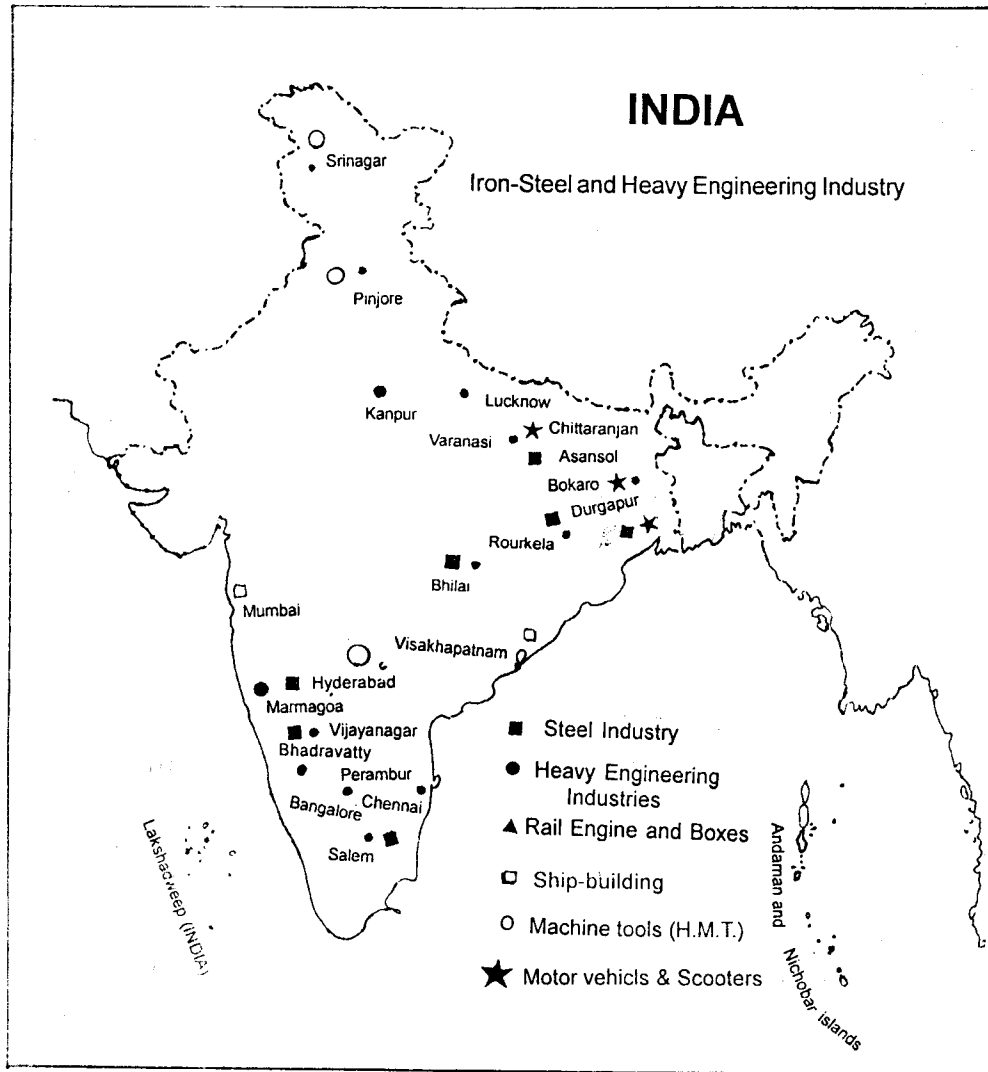
Engineering Industry

The engineering industry of the country has developed very rapidly after independence. It provides a strong base to different kinds of heavy and light engineering industries by producing both capital goods and consumer goods. Most of the capital goods are required in the power, chemical fertilizer, cement, steel, mining, textile industry and petro -chemical industries and this demand is generally fulfilled through domestic production. Simultaneously equipment used for construction and irrigation projects, diesel engines, tractors, transport equipment etc. are also manufactured in the country, which is a matter of great pride. With this achievement, not only the self esteem of country has arisen but self sufficiency, increase and diversity in industrial development; new employment opportunities; saving of foreign currency etc., have been obtained. Besides this, with the opening of units of engineering industry at new places, the area of industrial development has expanded in the country. This is an important step in the direction of the decentralization and removal of regional disparities.

Now the country has achieved so much success in this industry that India is not only cooperating other countries in establishing such projects but also earning foreign currency by exporting various engineering products.

Engineering industry is very vast and diverse industry which is classified into many types. This industry is divided into two parts on the basis of size of products and investment: (a) Heavy engineering industry and (b) Light engineering industry. Besides this, the industry can also be divided into two parts on the basis of nature of goods produced: (a) Capital goods industry and (b) consumer durable goods industry. On still another basis, the industry can be classified into: (a) Mechanical engineering industry and (b) Electrical engineering industry. Mechanical engineering industry includes the machine tools, rail wagons, automobiles, sewing machines, motor cycle, power engines and diesel engines etc. In the electrical engineering industry power transformer, electrical motors, fans, bulbs, radio receivers, electric cables and aluminum cables etc. are the major consumer goods. Nowadays, electrical engineering industry has reached to cover computer, telecommunication system, rocket and satellite technology.

The plants of the Heavy Engineering industry Limited, which is a public sector enterprise, are operating well in different industrial regions. The Bharat



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Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL), Hyderabad; petrol mining machines used in the coastal areas; BHEL Bhopal electricity generation equipment and BHEL Ranchi iron and steel industry, are located in different parts of the country. In our neighboring state Haryana, a tractor manufacturing factory of Hindustan Machine Tools (HMT) is located at Pinjore. In the factories of HMT, good quality machines and tools are manufactured. Machine Tool industry produced goods worth Rs 1104.6 crore in 1992 -93. Previously, in 1970 -71, the value of its production was only Rs 43 crore. A brief description of major engineering industries is given below:

Automobile Industry (Transport Equipment Industry)

This industry can be divided into rail and road transport equipment industry. In rail equipment, locomotives, passenger coaches and goods railway wagons are the major equipment. Being a public sector undertaking, the Indian railways manufactures its own equipment.

Three types of locomotives are manufactured in the country. These are operated with coal, diesel and electricity. Keeping in view the cost of transportation of coal from one place to another and problems of pollution, efforts are now being made to stop the use of steam engines. These are being replaced by diesel and electric engines. These types of engines are more powerful and consume less fuel.

The diesel locomotives are manufactured at Varanasi (Uttar Pradesh) by the Diesel Locomotives Works Limited. In Chittranjan (West Bengal), where the first steam locomotive was manufactured, now electric locomotives are manufactured. Small engines of meter gauge are manufactured by the TELCO company at Jamshedpur.

The first plant for manufacturing passenger coaches was established at Perambur near Chennai in 1955. Second such plant was set up near Kapurthala in Punjab. It has a production capacity of 1000 passenger coaches per year. Coaches of goods trains are manufactured at many places in the country. In 1992 -93, nearly 25000 wagons of goods trains were manufactured in the country.

Till the beginning of 1986, the Chittranjan factory had manufactured 1082 electricity operated and 512 diesel locomotives. However by the same time, the Varanasi unit manufactured 2089 diesel operated engines. Indian railways is fully self -sufficient in manufacturing its equipment.

Road transportation has spread very fastly after independence. With this, the need for means of transport like buses, trucks, cars, etc., has also increased manifold. Before independence, the production of transport equipment was very low in the country. In 1950 -51, the total production of buses, trucks and cars was only 8600. The production of total automobiles increased upto 5.06 lakh in 1994 -95. Of these, the number of cars and jeeps was 3.11 lakh. Besides this, the production of motor- cycles, scooters, mopeds, etc. was 21.95 lakh in 1995 -96 while it was nil in 1950 -51.

With this, there has been an astonishing growth in tractor and cycle manufacturing industry. Although India did not record any achievement in tractor manufacturing till 1950 -51, but the country manufactured 1.58 lakh tractors in 1994 -95. In 1971, the country manufactured only 71000 tractors. The production of cycle industry is also encouraging. In 1950 -51, only 99000 cycles were manufactured and the number reached upto 89.01 lakh in 1994 -95. The most popular 'Hero' cycle of north India and the 'Hero' moped are manufactured in a factory located at Ludhiana in Punjab. Similarly, there is a tractor manufacturing factory of 'Swaraj' tractors SAS Nagar (Mohali) in Punjab.

The tremendous progress of automobile industry is attributed to the policies of the government. The government first welcomed foreign policies (collaboration) in this industry. It granted permission to the Italian company 'Piazo' to set up factories in the joint sector. Secondly, under the new industrial policy of 1991, the automobile industry was completely delicensed. Currently, there are 5 units of passenger cars, 2 units of jeeps, 24 units of two -wheelers and 19 units of tractor manufacturing, working in the country.

Electronics Industry

This is a new and fast growing industry of the country. At the time of independence, only radio sets were being manufactured in the country. But in recent years and especially during the 8th five -year plan (1992 -97) this industry has developed very quickly. During this plan, the production in the electronics industry has increased by 41%. In the year 1995 -96, the value of trade from this industry was Rs 21675 crores, out of which Rs 2550 crores were earned from the exports of computer software. Besides this, Rs 5400 crore were earned from the electronics consumer goods, Rs 2400 crore from the industrial consumer goods, Rs 2225 crore from computer systems, Rs 3600 crore from electronic spare parts and Rs 3110 crore were earned from the export of communication and broadcasting equipment.

The government has started the Software Technology Park Project with the objective of increasing exports from this industry. Under this project, 521 units have been registered. Out of these 157 units got permission only in the year 1995 -96. In addition, 153 units have been granted permission under the Hardware Technology Park Project. Besides the government, several Multi National Corporations (MNCs) are also investing in this industry in our country. Its main reason is the big market of the country and availability of cheap and technically skilled persons in the country. The Bangalore city (Karnataka) of the country has become a major centre of software technology. Besides this, Pune, Mumbai (Maharashtra), Chennai (Tamilnadu) and Delhi are the other major centres. In north India, SAS nagar (Mohali) in Punjab is called the electronic city. The future of development of this industry in the country is very bright.

Chemicals Industry

Preparation of chemicals is also a major industry in the country. It is

ranked fourth after iron and steel, engineering and textile industries. This industry has developed quickly in the last few years. It recorded 11.4% increase in the year 1995 -96 alone. The country earned Rs 1234 crores as foreign currency from the exports of carbonic, acarbonic and agricultural chemicals. This industry includes drugs, dyes, chemical pesticides, plastics, soaps and paints etc.

India is one of the leading countries of the world in the pharmaceutical industry and different types of drugs are prepared in the country. The country is self sufficient in the manufacturing of drugs. But some life saving drugs are imported from foreign countries. We also export some drugs to other countries. In 1995 -96, the cost of Bulk Drugs and Formulation, manufactured in the country, was Rs 10947 crores. Besides this, drugs worth Rs 2337 crores were also exported in 1997 -98, half of which consisted of bulk drugs. Bulk drugs especially include antibiotics, vitamins, penicillin. Recently, there are many proposals of foreign investment for setting up many factories in this industry in the joint sector. Simultaneously, demand is being made for developing the already existing industries and for research and Development. After the announcement of 'New Drug Policy' of 1986, the licensing system in the industry has been abolished. After that also, many proposals have been received for the manufacture of bulk drugs. Now the MNCs, interested in production of bulk drugs are free to set up all the ancillary industries. With the delicensing of this industry and large scale entry of the MNCs, many people fear that now drugs will become more costly which will create into many hardships to the poor and middle class people. This fear is not baseless also. The new Economic Policy which was implemented in 1991 and after the signing of the 'Dunkel Proposals' by India, the prices of medicines have increased very sharply.

About 250 units of this industry are operating in the organised sector. Out of these, 5 units are in the public sector and 6 units are working in the joint sector. The various public sector units are mentioned below:

- (1) **The Indian Drugs and Pharmaceuticals Limited (IDP Ltd.):** This is the first unit under which there are five factories located at Rishikesh (Uttaranchal), Hyderabad (Andhra Pradesh), Chennai (Tamilnadu), Gurgaon (Haryana) and Muzaffarpur (Bihar). Besides these, their ancillary industries are working at Jaipur, Lucknow nad Bhubaneshwar.
- (2) **The Hindustan Antibiotics Limited (HAL):** This second unit was set up (at Pimpri, Pune) in March 1954 by incorporating units manufacturing penicillin, streptomycin, ampicillin, gentamycin, hamycin, aureofungin. Three ancillary companies in the joint venture have been set up in the states of Maharashtra, Karnataka and Manipur. The factories of these drugs are respectively located at Nagpur, Bangalore and Imphal.
- (3) **The Smith Stanstreet Pharmaceutical Limited (SSPL):** This is one of the three nationalized drug companies whose management was took over by the Indian government in October 1977 after the nationalization.

- (4) **The Bengal Chemicals and Pharmaceutical Limited (BCPL):** This fourth large company is the second, which was nationalized in 1980. Two of its factories are located in West Bengal, one in Karnataka and one in Maharashtra (Mumbai).
- (5) **The Bengal Immunities Limited (BIL):** This fifth large unit was nationalized in 1984 and hence is operating in the public sector.

Besides these, nearly 5000 units are manufacturing drugs and pharmaceuticals in the small industrial sector. About 100 of these units are manufacturing bulk drugs.

Petro -Chemical Industry

This industry which is a part of the chemical industry, is one of those industries which have contributed very strongly to the development of Indian economy. The growth rate of this industry has been 12.5% per annum as compared to only 8% for the entire industrial sector and 10% for the chemical industry as a whole. Petro -chemicals, due to qualities are fastly replacing the traditional raw materials like wood, lead, glass, metal, etc. For example, the use of plastics has brought revolutionary changes. Plastic industry alone employs more than 2 lakh of people, and this number was likely to exceed 3 lakh people by the year 2000.

The public sector company 'Indian Petro -Chemical Limited' has greatly helped this industry in every sector due to this industry has grown very rapidly. The use of petro -chemical products is continuously increasing in the country. This was 7.5 lakh metric tons in 1979 -80 which increased to 29.73 lakh metric tons in 1990 -91. It was expected to be more than 70,00,000 metric tons by 2000. Keeping in view the demand, the government has sanctioned an investment of Rs 25000 crores after linking together many petro -chemical complexes. This will make the country self -sufficient in petro -chemical products.

The goods produced by this industry were earlier considered a necessity for the higher class people. But nowadays, these goods have become part of daily life of common man. The major products are machine oil, grease, menthol, synthetic fibres like nylon, polyester and synthetic sugar, etc.

Under the Petro Chemicals Department, three units of petrochemicals are working in the public sector. The Indian Petrochemicals Corporation Limited (IPCL), is the leading public sector company, which is producing different products like polymer, artificial carbonic chemicals. A very big industrial complex of IPCL was established at Vadodara (Gujarat) in 1973. Here only its Olefin complex was set up in 1978. The second olefin complex was set up in Nagothane (Maharashtra). Recently, its third complex has been completed in 1996 at Gandhar in Gujarat.

Petrofils Cooperative Limited (PCL) is a joint venture company of the government and the weavers cooperative societies. Its two factories produce

polyester filament yarn and nylon filament yarn in Vadodara and Naldhari (Gujarat). This company transacted a business of worth Rs 295 crore in 1992-93.

The third centre of petrochemicals is a training institution. This institution is known as the Central Plastic Engineering and Technology Institute (CIPET) and is located at Chennai. Its main objective is the development of skilled human resources and to provide technical services to the plastic industry. Besides this, the national laws, and best quality production, special advise and services, etc. are also provided to the plastic industry. Eight new centres were established to fulfill the increasing demand of training in the area of plastic industry. These are located at Ahmedabad, Bhopal, Lucknow, Bhubhneswar, Imphal, Amritsar and Mysore.

This industry is growing fastly due to the fact that the petro -chemical goods are becoming an important part of daily life.

Fertilizer Industry

Application of fertilizers to the soil is very essential for intensive agriculture. In a country like India where the base as well as growth rate of population is very large, the increase in production of fertilizers is all the more essential. To maintain the fertility of soil there is a great demand of chemical fertilizers in the country. This demand has increased especially after the Green Revolution. Therefore, it was important to expand the fertilizer industry of the country.

Although the production of chemical fertilizers in the country had started before independence but the actual development started with the establishment of a factory by the Fertilizer Corporation of India (FCI) at Sindri (Jharkhand) in 1951. Before this, the country's first factory had been established at Ranipet (Tamilnadu) in 1906. This industry developed rapidly after 1966. In the sixth five year plan (1980 -85), Rs 2367 crores were allocated for the development of this industry. Today, India is ranked fourth in the production of nitrogenous fertilizers. At present, there are 59 major units nitrogenous, ammonia sulphate and super phosphate fertilizers. In 1950 -51, a total of 85 thousand tons of nitrogenous fertilizers were produced. The production increased to 85.31 lakh tons by March 1993. During the same period, the production of phosphatic fertilizers also increased from 63 thousand tons to 28.22 lakh tons. But due to the demand being much more than the domestic production, large amount of fertilizers is imported from the foreign countries. The per hectare use of chemical fertilizers in the country was only 0.55 Kg in 1950 -51, which has now reached 71 Kg. In Punjab, the per hectare use of chemical fertilizers is more than double the national average. It is about 164 Kg per hectare. The demand of fertilizers in the country was estimated to be around 2 crore tons by the year 2000.

The public sector has a great contribution in the fertilizer industry of the country. The first plant in this sector was established at Sindri (Jharkhand)

in 1951 while the second was set up at Nangal in Punjab. The third plant was established at Trombay. After this, the Fertilizer Corporation of India (FCI) was set up in 1961 to take over the management of chemical fertilizer factories at Sindri and Nangal under one managing unit. Later, the National Fertilizers Limited (NFL) was instituted in 1974. But soon both (FCI and NFL) were organised into four companies on the basis of geographical factors and feedback in 1978. The NFL was given the responsibility of the manufacture, stocks and distribution of fertilizers in north western India. It also operates in Punjab. Of the 5 NFL plants, 3 plants are operating in Punjab at Nangal and Bathinda. In Nangal, there are 2 plants producing nitrate and urea while the factory at Bathinda produces only urea. The other 2 plants are located at Vijaypur and Panipat. In the beginning, the chemical fertilizer plants were always located near the sources of raw material but now with the availability of natural gas via pipelines to even in the remote areas, the decentralization of this industry has become possible. For example, a chemical fertilizers plant has been set up at Jagdishpur (Uttar Pradesh) by transporting natural gas through 1730 km long pipeline from Hazira in Gujarat through Vijaypur (Madhya Pradesh). But despite such a large expansion of the fertilizers industry, fertilizers are to be imported from the foreign countries due to large demand in our country. In 1997 -98, the country imported 1.05 crore tons of fertilizers, worth Rs 5628 crores.

Cement Industry

The increasing demand of cement in any country is a symbol of its industrial development and high standard of living. Cement is greatly needed for construction purposes. The first cement factory in our country was established in 1904 at Chennai (Madras). After that, the industry is continuously growing. During the decade of 1980's, the average economic growth rate of this industry was more than 8%. But due to the demand exceeding production, the country had to import about 20 lakh tons of cement every year upto 1984 - 85. This industry recorded a fast growth during the 7th five -year plan (1985 - 90). At present, India is ranked fifth in the production of cement after China, erstwhile USSR, Japan and USA.

Till March 1993, there were 97 large and 250 small factories with a total production capacity of 680 lakh tons. In 1992 -93, total production of cement was 541.4 lakh tons. The units of the industry are found both in the private and public sector. Limestone is the major raw material of this industry. The development of this industry was brought under special focus during the 8th five -year plan and as a result its expansion and modernization were taken up.

In brief, the manufacturing industry of the country is gradually towards progress and stability. But simultaneously several problems like industrial pollution, imbalances in the industrial development, industrial unemployment etc., are also arising. Being the students of geography, our main concern is with the increasing regional disparities in industrial development.

EXERCISES

(I) Answer the following questions objectively :

1. What is manufacturing industry?
2. How does manufacturing industry depict the development of a country?
3. When the new Industrial policy of India was being implemented.
4. How many workers are engaged in a manufacturing industry?
5. How much share is added by manufacturing industry towards the National Income?
6. Name the major industrial units established in Chota Nagpur Plateau.
7. Which is the largest Industrial Region? Where is it located?
8. When and why the Kolkata-Hooghly region has been established?
9. Name the Industrial Region to which the Jute industry belong?
10. Name the main centres of the Mumbai – Pune Industrial Region.
11. Name the main Industries of Mumbai – Pune Industrial Region.
12. Where the main centres of Ahmedabad-Vadodara Industrial Region situated?
13. Name the main centres of Ahmedabad-Vadodara Industrial Region.
14. Name the Industrial Region, which exports its products through the port of Kandla.
15. Which city of India is known as ‘Silicon Valley’ and in which state is it located?
16. Name the main centres those manufacture aeroplanes in India.
17. Which Industrial Region exports its products through the port of Kochi and name the state of India where this port of Kochi is located?
18. Where is Maruti Industry located, name the product that is manufactured by this Industry?
19. On the basis of raw material how many kinds of industries are there in India?
20. Give a classification of Industries on the basis of the size of Industry.
21. What is the difference between Public sector & Private sector Industries?
22. Name the raw material used in cotton textile Industry.
23. Name the raw material, which we get from agricultural sectors.
24. When was the cotton textiles Industry established?
25. Name the main centres of cotton textiles Industry.
26. How much less is wool production per sheep in India as compare to Australia?
27. For which Industry is Kanjivaram famous.
28. Name the main centres of production of artificial fibre cloth.
29. When and where the 1st paper mill has been established?
30. Where is the factory that manufacture the paper for newspaper?
31. Name the main paper manufacturing States of India.
32. Which manufacturing factory is there in Jamshedpur?

33. Find out, whether the Iron and Steel Industry is of Private sector or Public sector in Bhilai.
34. Name the three Public sector Iron and Steel Industries.
35. What do you understand by Mini Steel Plant?
36. Which major factory is there in Vishakhapatnam and what is its Importance.
37. Where are the Diesel Engine manufacturing centres in India?
38. Where is the Cycle manufacturing unit in Punjab?
39. Where is the Sawaraj tractor manufacturing located and name the state.
40. Which city of Punjab is known as 'Electronic City'?

(II) Answer the following questions in short.

1. Name the areas, which are backward from the industrial point of view.
2. Name the major Industrial Region of India.
3. Which are the main Industries in Kolkata – Hooghly Industrial Region.
4. What factor played a special role in the Industrial development of Mumbai – Pune Industrial Region?
5. State the main Industries of Chota Nagpur. Enumerate Damodar valley Industrial Region.
6. Which are the main Industries of Madurai – Coimbatore Region?
7. Name the main Industrial centres of National Capital Industrial Region.
8. Which factors affect the Industrial development of National Capital Region.
9. What are the main problems of Jute Industry?
10. What are the main problems being faced by wool Industry of India?
11. Give an account of development of Sugar Industry in India.
12. What are the main problems being faced by Paper Industry?
13. What are the advantages of Mini Steel Plant Scheme?
14. What are the advantages of development of manufacturing Industries?
15. What are the main Characteristics of New Industrial Policy?
16. What was the structure of Industry of India before independence?
17. What changes are incurred in the Industrial set up during the British rule?
18. Explain the main problems, which are being faced by Kolkata – Hooghly Industrial Region?
19. Name the Public sector Pharmaceutical Industrial units in India.
20. What are the main characteristics of Chota Nagpur – Damodar – valley Region?
21. Write about the main Industries of National Capital Region.
22. What are the main problems being faced by textile Industry of India?
23. Explain the hand – loom Industry of India.
24. What are the main problems being faced by the sugar Industry ?

25. Explain the silk textile of the country.
26. Throw light on the importance of Mineral Based Industry.

(III) Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Why an India like country should encourage the development of Manufacturing Industry.
2. Explain the regional set up of Industrialization of India.
3. Explain the regional imbalance of a country.
4. Explain in detail about the National Capital Industrial Region.
5. Write in detail the textile Industry of India.
6. Give in detailed explanation of Jute Industry in India.
7. Give in detail about the sugar Industry of India.
8. Explain in detail Iron and Steel Industry of India.
9. Write an essay on Engineering Industry of the country.
10. Give a detailed explanation of fertilizer Industry of the country.

(IV) Show on the map of India.

1. Kolkata - Hooghly Industrial Region.
2. Ahmdabad - Vadodara Industrial Region.
3. National Capital Industrial Region.
4. Malabar coast Industrial Region.
5. Main centres of Cotton textile Industry.
6. Main centres of Jute Industry.
7. Main centres of artificial fibre textiles.
8. Main centres of Transport Equipment Industry.
9. Main centres of Chemical Industry.
10. Main centres of Fertilizer Industry.

CHAPTER 9

MEANS OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

INTRODUCTION

The carrying of goods and people from one place to another is known as transport whereas sending of a message from one place to another is known as communication. The means used to perform these tasks are respectively known as means of transport and communication. For example aircraft, bullock cart, bus, train, helicopter etc. are means of transport whereas radio, television, post and telegraph, telephone, fax, wireless etc. are means of communication.

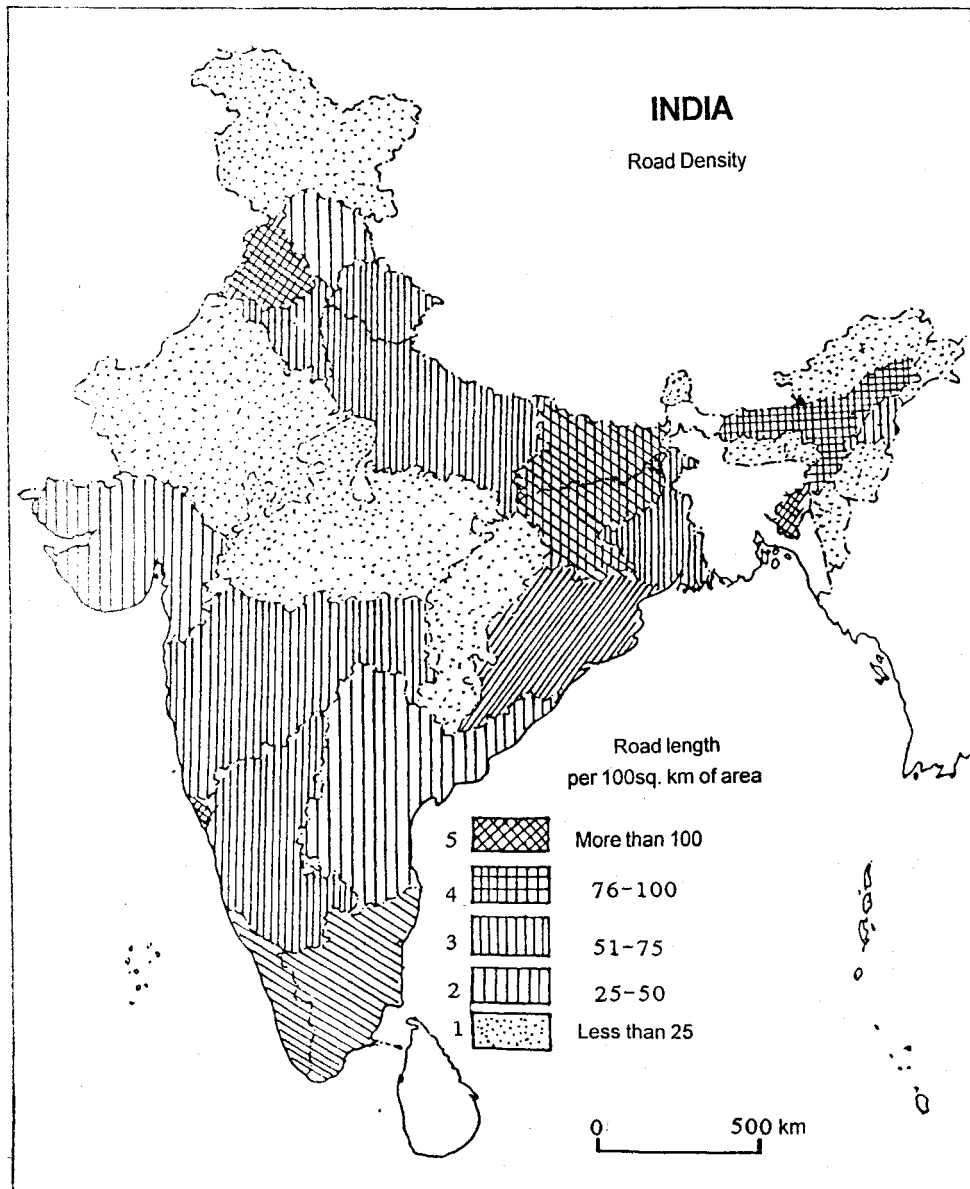
Due to rapid progress in the means of transport and communication it would not be wrong to call today's world as a global village. All the three spheres of the earth i.e. land, water and air have become the actual mediums of means of transport. The roads and railways have formed a network of means of transport on the surface of earth. The waterways are utilized for movement across deep seas, shores and inland waters by means of ships and boats. The atmosphere not only makes movement by an aircraft possible but also supports the communication system for sending and receiving of messages fastly.

Today, not only the entire country but the whole world has become a market. The interdependence of one area or country on another area or country is increasing. Hence the exchange of goods and services is increasing day by day. Due to this mutual exchange the importance of means of transport and communication on the economic and social life of the people is increasing day by day. In this chapter you shall study that, how the means of transport and communication are contributing in the development of economic and social system of our country. Actually, these means can be termed as the lifeline of any country.

ROAD AND RAILWAYS

Roads instead of railways are the country's oldest and most important systems. Secondly, roads are easy to construct as compared to others. Roads can be constructed even on steep slopes. Therefore, you must have seen that in hilly areas roads are major means of transport. In your neighbouring state Himachal, roads are the chief means of transportation. There is minimal use of trains here. Roads can pass through dense forests and desert areas. These can be brought to our doors. But can rail transport be brought upto the door of our home?

Roads are mainly of two types : surfaced and unsurfaced. Besides these, in some areas transportation is also done by foot paths. The surfaced roads are more durable and easy as compared to the unsurfaced roads. They are built of



cement, concrete and coal tar. The surfaced roads are all weather roads. The movement of traffic is not possible on unsurfaced roads during the rainy season as the mud make them useless.

After independence there has been a rapid increase in the construction of roads in the country, which is the result of the Government's Road Development Plans. In 1951, India had a total length of 1,57,019 kms of surfaced roads, which increased to 12.6 lakh kms in 1995. In this way there has been an 8 times increase in the length of surfaced roads in the country since independence. On the other hand the total length of the unsurfaced roads in 1951 was 2,42,923 kms which increased to 9.83 lakh kms in 1995. In 1995 the total length of roads in the country was 22 lakh kms. In this respect India occupies third place in the world. But in terms of efficiency and speed, the transport system in the country is very weak. Even today, about 45 percent of the total roads of the country are unsurfaced roads.

After independence the work of construction of surfaced roads has been very fast. Besides length, there has also been a remarkable increase in the road density (area and population). In the year 1951 there was only 12 km of road length for every 100 sq. km of area, which increased to 67 km per 100 sq. kms of area in 1995. But this density of our country is very low in comparison to the density in developed countries like Japan, and United States of America. In the year 1988-89 in comparison to the national density of 56 km per 100 sq km of area, the density of roads in Kerela was 321 km per 100 sq. km whereas in Jammu and Kashmir it was only 10 km. In atleast 13 states of the country this figure is lower than the national average.

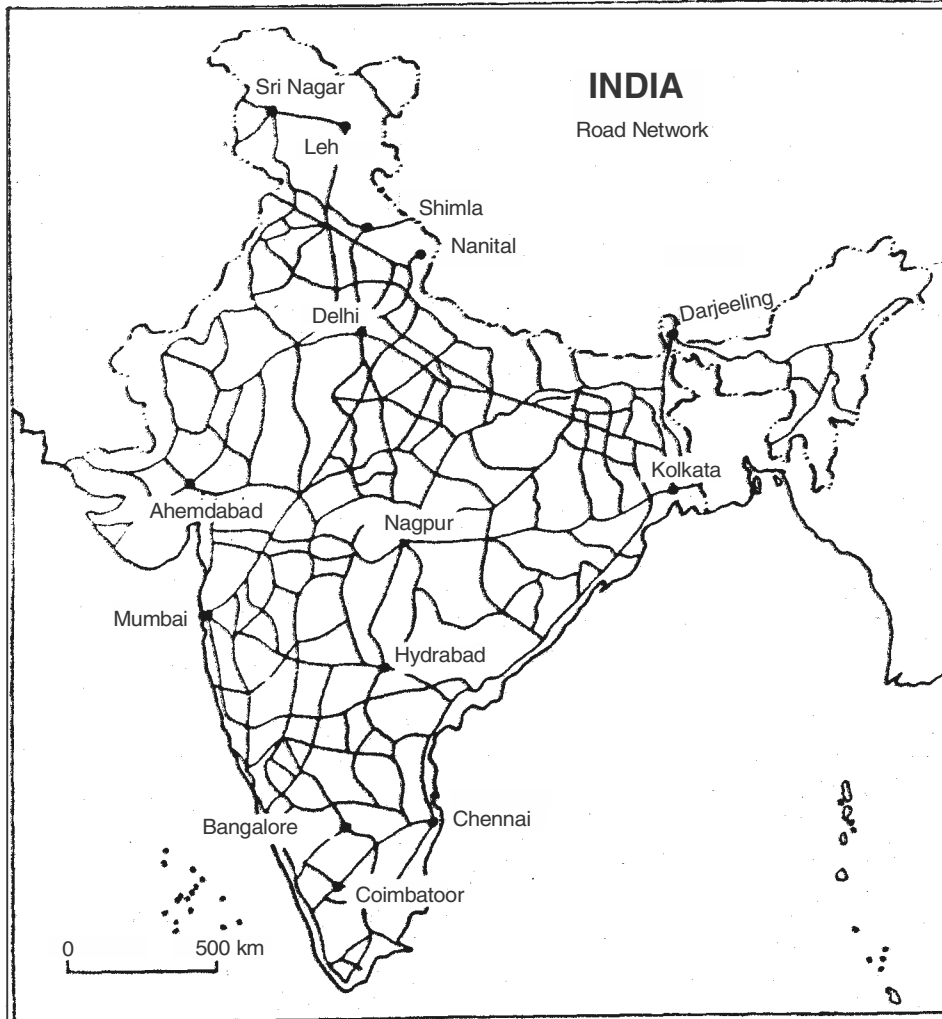
The roads can also be classified on another basis according to which roads are of three types (i) National Highways (ii) State Highways (iii) District and Village Roads. The construction and maintenance of National Highways is the responsibility of the Union Government. To accomplish this task the Union Government has established Public Works Department (PWD). The responsibility of all other roads is with the State Governments.

On March 31st 1994, the total length of National Highways was a little more than 34,000 km. During the last 44 years, there has been an increase of 54.5 percent in their length. This road length is only 2 percent of the total road length, whereas these are used for transporting goods in the country.

In your Atlas, observe carefully the National Highways marked on the map of India, locate the first five (1-5) National Highways and draw them. Also find out the places from where they start and end.

The importance of national highways is clearly judged by the transport of passengers and goods. This also shows the contribution of the Union Government in the development of these roads. During the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) the Central Government had spent Rs. 200 crores per annum on road development. During this plan, the Central and the State Governments

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together spent Rs 6180 crores. The share of the State Government in this expenditure was 17%. In the Seventh Five Year Plan a total of Rs. 1481.7 crores were spent on the State Highway. During the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) a target was made to increase this amount to Rs 2460 crores. The government has taken a loan of 13.3 crore U.S. dollars from the World Bank for the development of National Highways in five states of the country namely Gujrat, Haryana, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and west Bengal. You must be aware that from amongst the National Highways, the longest and the most important Highway is known by the name of Grand Truck Road (G.T. Road). It is also known as the Sher Shah Suri Marg and in Punjab it passes through important cities such as Rajpura, Ludhiana, Jalandhar and Amritsar.

The Union Government also takes care of another category of roads. These are called the Border Roads. Try to find out the total length of the International Boundary along the states of Gujrat, Rajasthan, Punjab, Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Sikkim, West Bengal, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Manipur, Mizoram and Tripura. The physiography of all these areas is extremely uneven and is made up of inaccessible, hard rocks. The atmosphere is also not good from health point of view. Hence you can judge for yourself that the construction as well as maintenance of roads in these areas is not only expensive but highly risky also. The construction of these roads is essential for guarding our boundaries and for connecting the people living in the border areas with the main land. Our soldiers protect our boundaries by staying in these areas. It is very important to construct and maintain these roads for continuous supply of food as well as arms to the soldiers.

In this context, the Leh-Manali highway which has been constructed to fulfill the needs of border security is the world's highest roadway. This road negotiates four passes of Laddakh region (Jammu & Kashmir). The height of these passes varies between 4875 to 5485 metre above sea level.

Road transport though is becoming very important these days but it is equally risky. The number of vehicles as well as speed on road are both increasing at a fast pace. For checking accidents and for maintaining the speed of transport issues such as maintenance of roads, road construction, road technology, expansion of roads, road surveys and research etc. are becoming highly important. Therefore, the widening the roads, their strengthening, making double or multi laned roads, making suitable parking arrangements, carefully following the rules and signs of road transport and research in road design have become very important so that precious lives are not lost.

The management of transport in the states is State subject. The State Governments have established the Public Works Department for construction and maintenance of roads. Whereas for effective commuting of passengers, the State Government's have formed State Transport Corporations. In India the buses are being run by both the private and the public sectors. The share of

public sector in buses is 40 percent while the remaining 60% buses are running in the private sector. In the year 1994-95 the total number of buses in public sector was 4.3 lakhs. However in 1950-51 this number was only 34,000. Nearly 5 crore passengers travel daily in these buses. Around 7 lakh employees are employed in these. The carriage of freight/goods by road is completely in the private sector. The total number of trucks registered in 1950-51 was only 81,888 which has risen to around 18 lakhs in the year 1994-95. This is almost 6 percent of the total number of vehicles registered in the country.

RAILWAYS

Indian Railways is the country's largest government department. More than 16 lakh regular employees are employed in the railways. Besides this, many people are employed temporarily. Railway Department is under the Central Government whereas most of the buses ply under the supervision of State Government and the private sector. Indian railway constitutes a very important segment of the economy of the country. That is why the Railway Budget is presented separately from the union Budget of the country.

In India, the first railway line was built in 1853. This was constructed during the British rule for sending raw material outside India and for supplying manufactured goods for distribution in the Indian market. Hence it can be said that construction of railways during the British rule was done basically for the exploitation of the Indian economy. This is often called the colonial economy. Due to these reasons there was a fast expansion of railways in India during the British rule. The railway network in India is very vast. The initial role was definitely for strengthening the colonial rule but railways have benefited the country too. The importance of railways in the Indian economy has increased tremendously in comparison to the other means of transport. Besides this, railways have contributed significantly in the social and cultural integration of the country.

The recently completed 760 km long rail route for railway transport connecting Mumbai to Mangalore has no parallels in the history of Indian Railways. Known by the name of Konkan Rail project it is the world's first scheme of its kind. Since independence, this is the most challenging project. The work on this project began in the year 1991. At that time the total expenditure on it was estimated as Rs 1042 crores which has now increased to Rs 3500 crores. Around 172 bridges and 92 tunnels have been built on this rail line. The longest rail tunnel of the country i.e. 6.44 km lies on this railway route. The distance of Mangalore and Thiruvananthapuram (Trivandrum) from Mumbai would reduce considerably on this rail route and business opportunities would increase. It is hoped that this rail route would provide the Indian Railways with an income of Rs 300 crores annually.

The Indian Railways has 3 different gauges: (i) Broad gauge (1.69 metre) (ii) meter gauge (one metre), narrow gauge (0.77 metre). The narrow gauge is

confined to a few hilly areas where only light trains can run. The trains running on the Kalka-Shimla rail route are a beautiful example of a narrow gauge. The trains moving on metre gauge are not required because in plain areas such trains have proved troublesome both in terms of capital and time when it comes to the carriage of cargo. These should have been replaced a long time back. The finances required must have been the main reason. The policy of the Indian railways has always been of replacing these gauges as soon as possible. But these could not be replaced for a long time. However there has been some progress in this direction during the past few years. For example the metre gauge between Delhi - Jaipur has recently been converted into a broad gauge. On the other hand the metre gauge running from Bathinda in Punjab to Ganganagar in Rajasthan and Ganganagar to Jodhpur has been converted into a broad gauge. Now we can travel from Chandigarh to Jodhpur directly without changing any train, which has been only possible because of the conversion of metre gauge into broad gauge.

In India more than 95% passengers travel in second class compartments. The main reason being that travelling by the first class and air conditioned compartment for most of the people is expensive. That is why there is always a heavy rush or crowd in the second class compartments. In such type of crowded compartments there is often shortage of public facilities. The passengers who have to travel over long distances have to face many problems. Provision of facilities in the second class, expansion of reservation and checking corruption in it etc. can bring some improvement in the present situation. Over the past few years computerized reservations have been expanded on a large scale. Although a few steps have been taken in the direction of more public facilities but still a lot needs to be done.

The major income of railways is from freight charges. In the year 1994-95 the income of railways from freight charges was Rs 15.3 crores. In contrast, the income earned from second class passengers was only Rs 6.1 crores. Because of poor earnings, the lack of facilities is mainly there. Actually, due to political reasons, the government has kept the ticket fare of second class very low in comparison to others classes. On an average the first class ticket fare for longer distance is 6 times greater than the second class fare. There is no logic for this. The government should make travelling by second class more comfortable with additional facilities on logical basis.

On the other hand, railways have to be attuned in accordance with the developments taking place in agriculture and industrial sector of the country. In agriculture, railways annually carry food products as well as fertilizers. Similarly coal, minerals and mineral oil are the main goods transported by railways over long distances. Electrification of railway tracks, establishment of thermal plants near coal mines and lignite mines, greater use of hydroelectric power and natural gas in production of electricity etc. are some of the efforts

that have been made. The use of different pipelines for petroleum and natural gas have been the right steps in this direction.

By introducing fast, long distance trains, the railways have tried to cover long distances in lesser time. The speed of these trains is more than 100 kms per hour. The "Shatabdi Express Trains" are among the fastest running trains in the country. Their speed is 140 km per hour. The Shatabdi trains were introduced in the year 1985 on the birth centenary of our first Prime Minister Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru. That is why these are known as "Shatabdi Trains". On one hand, these trains connect the important cities like Chandigarh, Bhopal, Jaipur, Agra, Amritsar, Lucknow etc around the National Capital Region of Delhi. On the other hand they reduce the pressure of passengers travelling daily to Delhi from nearby cities. For example the distance between Chandigarh and Delhi has been reduced from earlier 5 to 6 hours to 3 hours by the Shatabdi Express. Therefore, any person who wants to go to Delhi for his business or official work for a day can reach Delhi very comfortably by 10 a.m., complete his work by evening, start back for Chandigarh at 5 p.m. and reach his home by 8 p.m. This was not possible before. Besides Shatabdi trains, the Rajdhani Express trains have also been started by the government with the motive of connecting the state capitals with Delhi in the least possible time. Find out for yourself the names of a few Rajdhani Express trains. The number of long distance trains is being increased in the country. The Guwahati - Trivandrum Express train, covering a distance of 3974 km is the longest. There are 8 Express Trains which cover between 2000 to 3000 km of distance. Find out which all are these trains? Which two places do they connect? How much time do they take? From which states do these pass? Which all major stations fall on their way?

The Indian railways also carry out the task of quickly transporting essential goods at destined places. The high speed wagon trains are used for this purpose. The railways are delivering goods to the houses of people through container services. Transportation and distribution takes less time through container services. Also with this the luggage remains safe, without any risk of theft. From economic point of view also the container services have proved beneficial for both the railways as well as the consumers.

Any discussion of Indian railways shall be incomplete till we do not mention cheap transport to the metropolitans. These services exist in Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata and Delhi. In Kolkata Metro Railway runs under the ground. Recently Metro service has also been started in part of Delhi.

Many measures have been taken to make railways modern with all facilities. On very busy rail routes a double rail track is being spread. Special efforts are being made for the electrification of other main rail routes. By now, more than 1/10th of the total rail routes have been electrified. With this two objectives have been achieved simultaneously. One, the railways do not have to carry coal from far off places for its own steam engine. Secondly, the increase

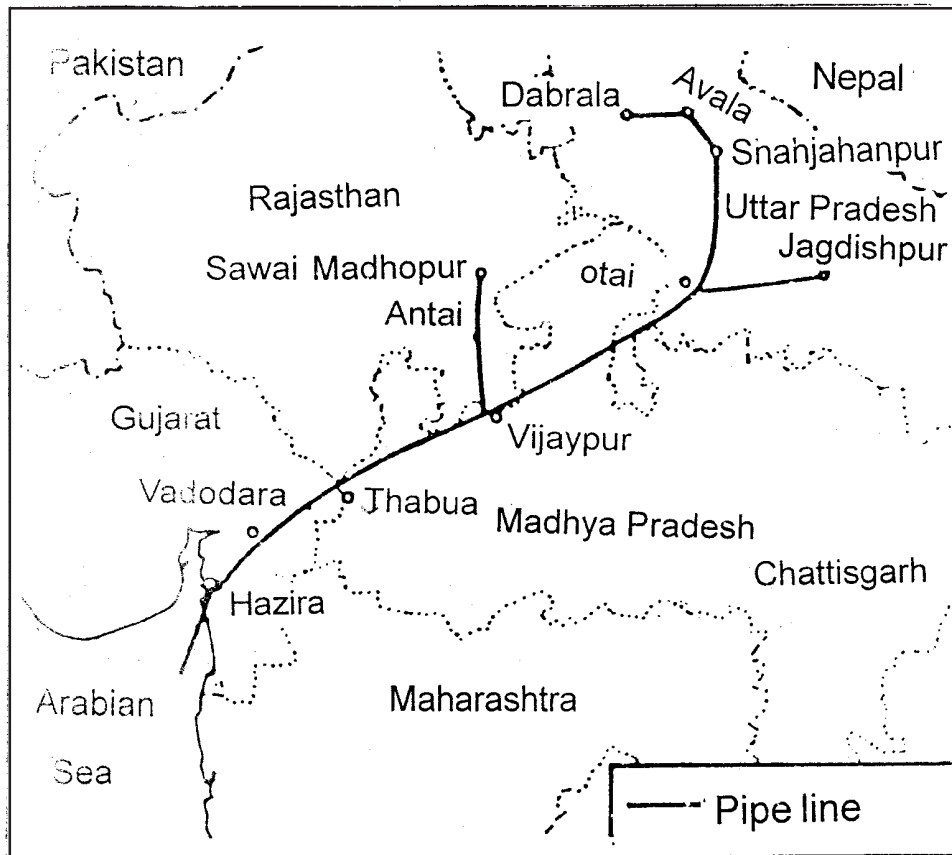
in the speed doubles the efficiency of railways due to which the journey become harmonious, clean and hence pollution free.

Similarly there has been an increase in the number of diesel engines. The diesel engine being more powerful, can pull greater number of wagon and passenger compartments. The third main measure has been of making the signals automatic. Automatic signals have been installed on many big rail routes. Along with this, micro wave system has been started to make railway communication fast and trustworthy. In the direction of modernization the latest and most important step has been the provision of a mobile phone facility to the driver and the guard in Shatabdi and Rajdhani Express trains. This has been done to establish immediate communication between both of them at the time of any emergency. From security point of view it is a praiseworthy step.

PIPE LINE TRANSPORT

Transport through pipe-line is a new thing in India. The transport of diesel, petrol and natural gas from the producing areas to refining areas and again delivering these to consumers through pipelines is a great facility. This kind of arrangement is known as pipeline transport. The oil and gas refineries in Baraulia in North Bihar and in Mathura in west Uttar Pradesh are situated very far away from the producing areas. These refineries will face a number of problems in relation to transportation. Secondly, concentration of such industry will take place in the producing areas. In both these situations the economy of the country might have to face serious consequences or it has already been facing. For example, if due to any reason, any strike takes place in states like Gujrat and Assam where crude oil and natural gas producing areas exist or there is a strike in some other state that falls in between the producing and consuming regions, then the all consuming areas of country might face the difficulty. So, the de-centralization of industry and need to make arrangement for provision of very essential goods like mineral oils and gas near to consumers has developed the dependence on pipeline mode of transport. Although it is true that a lot of money is spent in spreading these pipe lines. But, because of varied advantages involved the money spent on the pipe line transport is thought to be rightly spent. In this, neither the time is wasted nor any other kind of wastage is done.

Presently pipelines link Naharkatia oil fields to Guwahati and Barauni; from Guwahati to Siliguri; Koyali to Ahmedabad; Haldia to Barauni. Besides these, a network of pipeline has been spread in the oil fields in Gujrat to Koyali. In Gujrat, a 1220 km long pipeline has been spread from Salaya to Mathura via Viramgam. A pipeline has also been laid from Barauni to Kanpur uptill Delhi. Another pipeline also exists for carrying petroleum products from Mathura via Delhi and Ambala to Jalandhar. A pipeline has been laid between Mumbai and Pune, for supplying petroleum products to the consumers of Maharashtra, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. The Hajira-Vijaypur-Jagdishpur gas pipeline is



9.3

1730 km long. The natural gas from here is supplied to 6 fertilizer factories and 2 thermal power plants. The initial capacity of this pipeline is 1.82 crore cubic metre per day. With these facilities, the people of Delhi will also get electricity natural gas(Fig 9.1).

WATER WAYS

India has a long history of travel and trade through water ways. In the ancient times the Indian traders carried out trade through seas with south-east Asia and the middle east. Even after independence efforts are being made for the development of water transport. Our country has a long coastline and its protection is very important. Along with this the discovery of the ocean mediums and utilizing them is very important from the point of view of economic

development of the country. Fishing industry is becoming a very important industry from economic point of view. The Indian fisherman with the help of boats catch fishes from deep seas, export them and earn valuable foreign exchange for the country. Besides this you must be aware that India occupies 12 nautical miles of area along the coast. A few of its important off-shore crude oil producing areas exist in deep seas. You must have heard the name of Bombay High Oil Zone. The economic zone of the country extends upto 200 km along the coast in deep seas. The area of this zone is nearly 20 lakh sq. km.

The estimate of the sea routes of country can be made from the figures of it's international trade. Both export and import are important for our economic prosperity and progress.

The trade value has increased 145 times in the last 44 years. During the same period, the imports have increased nearly 155 times whereas the exports have increased only 136 times. This has resulted in an increase in fiscal deficit of the country. The fiscal deficit which was Rs 100 crores in 1970-71, has risen to Rs 7297 crores in 1994-95. The highest trade deficit amounting to Rs 10640 crores was in 1990-91. There has been some fall in the fiscal deficit over the last few years but the decrease in international trade is really a source of worry.

Since independence our exports are mostly based upon agro industry. The chief items of export include (i) cotton yarn and textiles (ii) jute goods (iii) leather and skins (iv) tea (v) tobacco and tobacco products (vi) vegetable oils and its by products etc. But the face of our export is under going a change slowly and gradually. This is an indication of the development which has taken place in our economy. Now, the chief items of export are (i) diamond & jewellery (ii) cotton textiles and readymade garments (iii) tea (iv) machines and transport equipments (v) iron-ore (vi) leather, leather goods and footwear.

In this way we can see that the composition of export items has greatly changed. In the early decades, only raw material or semi finished goods were exported whereas in the 1980's and 1990's the number of those good increased whose value has been raised due to workmanship and expertise. Diamonds, gems and jewellery, readymade garments, leather goods and shoes etc are some good examples of such articles. Now, the engineering goods are also being exported. In the 1990's the Indian government has brought about far reaching changes in its economic policy. The important ones among these changes are the removal of the licensing system for setting up industry, encouraging industries in private sector and the investment, attracting foreign investment and encouraging the exports. The issues such as privatization in Indian economy, competition, globalisation and liberalization etc have been encouraged with this policy which is often called the New Economic Policy. The main objective of all these is to accelerate the rate of economic development in the country. A lot of emphasis has been placed on increasing the exports. According to this policy restrictions have been removed in the agriculture sector also due to which the prospects of export from the agriculture sector have risen. The export

of vegetable oil floriculture and horticulture ; Hops (opium-poppy) ; Cashew – nuts, fish and fish products and other tinned foods has been encouraged.

During the last few years, attention has been paid for increasing the export of light engineering goods and refined and expensive electronic goods. Bangalore in Kranataka, S.A.S. Nagar (Mohali) in Punjab and Parwanu in Himachal Pradesh have been established as the electronic townships of India to encourage the export of electronic goods.

Knowledge of ports through which goods are sent is also essential along with exports and imports. The trade relations through seas with other countries are established via these ports.

MAIN PORTS

As you know India has a lengthy coastline. Along this coastline, favourable conditions are available for buildings ports. The government of India has carried out the task of constructing ports in many of these areas. Port is a place where ships are provided with the facility of entry–exit, halt and loading-unloading of cargo. At present our country has 12 major ports with varying facilities.

Table 9.1

India Description of Main Ports

Name of Harbour	State in which they are established	Type of Port	Main trading item
1	2	3	4
1. Mumbai	Maharashtra	Natural	Petroleum and petroleum products, machines, dry products
2. Nheva Shiva	Maharashtra	Natural	Petroleum and petroleum products, machines, dry products, cotton and woollen cloth
3. Kandla	Gujarat	Tidal	Minerals oil, Sugar, Petroleum Products Manures, Foodgrains, Salt, Cotton, Cement.
4. Marmagoa	Goa	Natural	Iron ore, Petroleum Manganese and dry products
5. New Mangalore	Karnatka	Tidal	Manures, Vegetable oil, Granite stone, Iron ore,

6. Kochin	Kerala	Natural	Rubber and its products, cashew nuts, coffee, medicines, coconut, items made of coconut fibre
7. Tuticorn	Tamilnadu	Natural	Petroleum Products, Manure raw material, other items.
8. Chennai	Tamilnadu	Manmade	Coal, Salt, vegetable oil, chemicals, tea, cotton etc.
9. Vishakha Patnam	Andhra Pradesh	Manmade	Hides and leather, Tabacco, paper, cloth, Crude oils Manures.
10. Paradip	Orissa	Natural	Mica, leather Hides, Iron ore, Petroleum product, Manures.
11. Kolkata	W.Bengal	Manmade	Iron ore, coal
12. Haldia	W.Bengal	Tidal	Jute and jute products, tea, Iron and steal, Mica, cotton cloth, salt, zinc, Manures, Mineral oil, paper and coal
		Natural	Mineral oil, Petroleum products, Manures and dry products.

Among major parts, Mumbai handles the maximum traffic and is the biggest port of the country. This natural harbour is very huge. It handles more than 1/4th of India's foreign trade. The second main port is the Marmagoa situated in Goa. Kandla (Gujrat) holds a principal position among the ports constructed after independence. The coming up of this port has not only reduced the load of import and export from the Mumbai port but has also provided a big facility to the northern and western states like Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh & Jammu & Kashmir. Among the newly made ports the Mangalore (Karnataka) holds the most important position. Nheva-Shiva or Jawahar Lal Nehru Port is a new port equipped with modern facilities. This has been constructed to relieve load at other side of the Mumbai port. The Mumbai port is one of the busiest ports of the country.

Kochi (Kerela) on the west coast is one of the main ports of India. It is situated at the Vainbanad lake's backwaters. It's a natural harbour. Besides these 12 major ports, there are many minor ports in the country. Some of these are used for fishing also besides the trade.

The major rivers of India such as Ganga, Brahamaputra, Godawari, Krishna, Mahanadi and Tapti are navigable for about 5200 km. This type of water transport is known as Inland Navigation. It is navigable even by motor

boats. But, presently only 1/3rd of the navigable waters are being utilized. Besides these, there are also a few navigable canals which are rarely being utilized. Like Brahmaputra it is hoped that boats would begin to ply between Farakka and Patna in Ganga. Water transport is far more cheaper as compared to road transport as the expenditure involved in travel and maintenance is very low. Even if it takes more time to transport cargo from one place to another by water the lesser transport costs result in lower price of consumer goods which is very helpful to the trade.

DEVELOPMENT OF AIR TRANSPORT AND FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

Air transport has started the era of revolution in the transport sector. There was a time when moving from one part of the country to another used to take many months. But with the coming up of motorcars and rail cars an amazing change occurred in the situation and now with the introduction of air transport the era of revolution has started. Super fast Rajdhani Express Trains cover the distance between Delhi and Kolkata or Mumbai in 17 hours. The same journey can be completed in less than 2 hours by an aeroplane. This journey is not only the fastest but it's also comfortable.

Another quality of this transport is that with this uneven, hilly, sandy, densely forested areas and huge oceans can be conveniently crossed. The areas which are inaccessible by land transport are easily accessible by aeroplanes. Do you know that in areas such as Siachin Glacier (Kashmir) eatables and other commodities for our soldiers who protect the National Boundaries, can only be delivered by airways. Besides all this, travelling by air saves times too.

Due to all these reasons and because of economic development, use of aeroplane facility is increasing day by day. In 1947, Indian aeroplanes provided the facility of air transport to 3.10 lakh people. This figure rose to more than 1 crore in 1985. Ten years later i.e. in 1995 this number increased to 2.56 crores. In 1953 the Indian Government set up two separate corporations – the Indian Airlines and the Air India, in the public sector. The Indian Airlines was given the responsibilities of operating domestic flights whereas Air India was for catering to international air transport. After a few years it was felt that the international air services by “Indian Airlines” are not sufficient. Also there were certain remote areas where these services were absent and should have existed. Therefore, in 1981, a third airline under the name ‘Vayudoot’ was incorporated in the private sector to provide transport services to such areas.

The “Indian Air lines” have connected the capitals of all states. Besides this, the services are also available for most of the principal industrial and tourism centres. The four major cities of India namely Mumbai, Kolkata, Delhi, Chennai and Thiruvananthapuram have international airports. Rajasansi airport of Amritsar has been changed into an international airport. Besides these, the country has 81 civil airports and 150 air traffic control centres. The responsibility of their operation lies with the Civil Aviation Ministry. In the year 1994-95,

“Indian Airlines” had nearly 62 aircrafts. The new aircraft of Indian Airlines is named as “Air Bus-320”.

Air India in all has 26 air crafts. Boeing 747 Air Bus “A” 310 and Air Bus “B” 310 are included in this. In almost 60 countries the Indian air service companies operate. These are considered slightly cheaper than foreign air services such as British Airways and Lufthansa. But from security point of view, it is not that acceptable. This is the opinion of those travelling by foreign airways.

During the last few years, the government has privatized domestic air transport services. These air services are known by the name of Air Taxis. Due to the large developments and relaxation in the rules, some private air services like Sahara India air services have entered the field. This would definitely bring satisfaction to air travellers because this would result into competition among private air services as well as with public sector services. With this it is hoped that air travel would not only provide more facilities but would become cheap too. Stage is being set to construct country’s first private sector International Airport at Kochi in (Kerala). This would be a revolutionary step in the direction of privatization of air services.

COMMUNICATION FACILITIES AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT

In today’s world fast and developed communication facilities are considered as an indicator of modernisation and economic development. In a developing country like India, to bring about a rapid change in the economy and society, the development of communication facilities can be considered as very important investment. Telecommunication and post and telegraph system can be visualized as two major riders of any advanced communication facility.

Among the mediums of communication the cheapest, important and closely related to the common man’s life is the medium of telegraph. India has the largest postal network. In the year 1993-94 the country had 1.52 lakh post offices where as the number of post offices in the United States of America were 40000. China had 51000, France had 17000 while South Korea had slightly more than 3000 post offices in the same year. In India, these post offices provide services to five and half thousand people and in the area spread over 21.0 sq km. In Saudi Arabia this ratio is 15 people to one thousand sq km area whereas in Pakistan it’s 8000 people to 62 sq km area. Among the total 1.52 lakh post offices of India, 16.0 thousand are in cities and the rest 1.32 lakh are spread over villages.

After independence, in 1951, only 23.3 per cent of the villages had the facility of daily post delivery system.

In order to make the postal delivery system fast, a Postal Index Number (Pin code: consisting of 6 digits) and Speed Post have been started. Besides, courier services have been started in major cities, in the private sectors. Do you know the Postal Index Number (Pin Code) of your village or area? Do you write the pin code on every letter that you send by the post? Do you know that by using a pin code you add wings to your letter that reaches its destination very quickly. The task of bringing and sending post can be done both by airways and surface transport. The capitals of all states of our country are linked by air postal services.

The second important mode of communication is the telegraph system. With this our urgent messages reach from one place to another very quickly. In the post offices you must have often seen people sending their personal messages through a telegram. With a teleprinter these messages are delivered very fast from one place to another. In the year 1947 the country had a total number of 3324 telegraph offices. Their number has increased to 37000 in year 1996. However, Government of India discontinued department of Telegraph in 2014.

Telephone is another very important and fast mode of communication. In the Eight Five Year Plan (1992-97) the government of India decided to spend 3.26% of the total plan outlay on tele-communication whereas in the Seventh Plan, this expenditure was only 2.03%. Therefore, there has been a revolutionary change in the telephone services. The Subscriber Trunk Dialing Services (STD) has not only been expanded on large scale but it has been privatized also. Small telephone booths can be seen even in small towns from where we can make calls with in minutes to not only within the country but outside the country as well. In 1947-48, there were only 321 telephone exchanges in the country and the working telephone connections were 82000 in number. Their number has increased amazingly. Presently there are 21000 exchanges and 1.26 crore connections in the country. Do you know that the large scale expansion of the tele-communication facilities have been possible only due to the tele-communication satellites? Now the country has the many automatic exchanges.

In 1986 Mahanagar Telephone Corporation was setup for improving and increasing the telephone services in Mumbai and Delhi. Telex services are being developed in major cities of the country. The Indian Government had installed Videsh Sanchar Corporation in 1986. The main objectives of this

corporation are to bring efficiency in the international communication services and to expand it. In the Eighth Five Year Plan, around 800 crore rupees were spent for this corporation.

The development and expansion of communication technology in today's world is becoming an important measure of the development of any country. Alongwith this, in democratic setup the importance of information system has increased further, as it is not possible to know peoples participation in democratic system and in developmental works without complete information. Radio, television and computers are the electronic means of communication. Besides communication, they also provide entertainment. At the time of independence the country had very few radio stations from where the radio broadcast was possible to limited areas of the country. Today, people in every nook and corner of the country are connected with the All India Radio. Radio broadcast is carried out at three different levels - the national, state and local level. The channels of national broadcast are in Nagpur whereas channels of foreign services are situated in Aligarh and Bangalore. The All India Radio broadcasts its programmes in 23 different languages. In the year 1969 Vividh Bharti Seva was launched for providing business information. Today, almost everybody in the country is aware of the type of advertisements and entertainment provided by this service. There are 39 centres of Vividh Bharti in our country.

Television which is one step ahead of radio, is being liked very rapidly. Today, about 80% population of the country is enjoying the information and entertainment provided by the television. In rural areas, television sets have been given to the panchayats on a large scale for showing doordarshan programmes. By January 1990, nearly 50032 community television sets had been presented in various parts of country. The government has also allowed the foreign television channels to operate in India. Hence you can enjoy the foreign channels through a dish antenna. These days, the star news, Aap Ki Adalat on Zee T.V., knowledge of wild animals and sea life on Discovery channel, Geographical Channel, sports reports on ESPN etc. are becoming popular among the people. The government has setup the "Parsar Bharti Board" for giving full autonomy to telecommunications. This Board started functioning in the month of November, 1997. The renowned journalist Shri Nikhil Chakarabarty, was appointed first Chairman of this Board. The objective of the Board is to make the communications reliable, autonomous and economically more viable.

Out of the electronic modes, computer is becoming day by day popular and fast mode of communication. The 21st century is going to be a computer century. The computer is making an important contribution not only in storing the vast information and data but also in processing the data. Besides this it has also proved quiet helpful in the exchange of information and messages. With a computer, through electronic mails and internet we can send and receive information and messages from every corner of the world in a few minutes. Today, through internet, we can get latest information of various papers and journals quickly. By using a C.D. Rom and sound blaster card computer can be used like television as an audio-visual medium for teaching the students many different topics in the class room, in an excellent and entertaining manner. The day is not far when computer would be used as a strong medium of education at every scale.

EXERCISES

(I) Answer the following questions in brief :

1. Define the means of Transport.
2. Differentiate between Transport and Communication.
3. Give some examples of means of Transport.
4. Television related to means of Transport or Communication?
5. How many types of Roads are there in India?
6. Why the hilly areas are lack in Railways.
7. Which type of means of Transport are included in waterways?
8. How many times is there increase in construction of surfaced roads after independence?
9. What is the position of India in world from the point of view of length of roads?
10. What is the road density in Kerala?
11. In which state of country the average road density is the lowest.
12. Who is responsible for the construction and maintenance of National Highways and which department has been established to accomplish this task?
13. During the seventh five-year plan, how much average expenditure in incurred annually on the National Highways?
14. Name the world's highest roadways in our country and also tell its height above the sea level.
15. Which department has been established by the state governments for the construction and maintenance of road.

16. When and for what purpose the first Railway was made?
17. What is the length of Konkan Railway and name the two stations of the railway.
18. How many bridges and tunnels have been constructed on Konkan Railway ?
19. When was the Konkan Railway inaugurated.
20. How many types of gages of rail tracks are there in India?
21. Name the fastest trains of the country and tell their speed?
22. Why do the Shatabadi Rail name as?
23. Why does the Rajdhani Rail name as?
24. What is pipe line transport?
25. Up to how many nautical miles the India's coast extends.
26. What is the length of Indian coastline?
27. Name the main ports of our country.
28. What is inland Navigation?
29. Which Public sector agencies have been established to cater Domestic Airline services?
30. What is the name of Public sector department that provides International Airline services?
31. Which areas are being catered by Vayudoot air services.
32. Which Airport of Punjab has been changed to the status of International – Airport.
33. Where is the first private sector airport going to be established in the country.
34. What is the number of Post Offices in our country. How much population on the average is served by one post office?
35. Which are the Electronic means of Public Communication.
36. What are advantages of Disc Antenna?
37. In how many languages does all India Radio broadcast its programmes?
38. For what purpose was the Parsar Bharati Board set up.

(II) Answer the following questions in short :

1. Why are the means of transport & communication known as the life lines?
2. Is it right to call the world 'GLOBAL VILLAGE'.
3. Explain with example the of road development in context of Regional imbalances.
4. To which states the world Bank has given loans for the construction of National highways.
5. Which International boundary states are connected through Border Roads and what is the objective behind constructing these roads?
6. What are the characteristic features of Leh-Manali Border Road?

7. "India's Railways is the biggest department of the country" Explain this fact.
8. What was the objective behind the development of roads during British Rule?
9. In which part of country the narrow gage railways are running and why?
10. Name some of the Shatabdi and Rajdhani rails.
11. Write about the container services of Indian Rails.
12. Write about the Metro Services of Indian Rails.
13. What are the uses of water ways?
14. Discuss the short note on Internal Navigation of India.
15. Explain in short note on the changed policy in respect of privatisation of Airline services.
16. How does the Postal Index Number affect the postal delivery?
17. What types of services is being conducted by Vivid Bharti Seva.
18. Compare and contrast the Roads and Railways.
19. Explain the national importance of National highways.
20. What are the main drawbacks of transport system?
21. Explain in detail the construction and maintenance of Border Roads.
22. What factors should be kept in mind while constructing of roads during the modern times?
23. Explain in detail the bus transport services in our country.
24. What is the contribution of Rails in economic and social development of a country?
25. Give in details the future plans of Railways.
27. What is the objective behind the beginning of future plans of Shatabadi Rails?
28. What is the importance of sea routes from the economic and national security point of view?
29. Explain the New Economic policy in context of Industries.

(III) Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Explain in detail the speeding development in constructing the road after Independence.
2. Explain the merits and demerits of Roads ways in India.
3. "Konkan Railway Project is a challenging project" in the history of Indian Railways, explain this fact.
4. Discuss the modernization programme of Indian Railways in detail.
5. Explain in detail the pipe line transport facility.
6. "Airway has brought the beginning of revolutionary age in transport services" Investigate this fact in detail.

7. Explain in detail revolutionary changes that has been occurred in the previous years.

(IV) Show the following on the map of India.

1. Five National Highways, with these places starting and end.
2. Leh- Manali Roadways.
3. Railways from Roha to Mangalore.
4. Kalka - Shimla Railways with four stations.
5. Railways of Chandigarh-Jodhpur with five stations.
6. Railways of Delhi - Chandigarh and Delhi - Jaipur of Shatabdi Rails.
7. Guwahati - Thiruvananthapuram Railways with main stations.
8. Hajira-Vijaypur- Jagdishpur pipe line.

CHAPTER 10

POPULATION

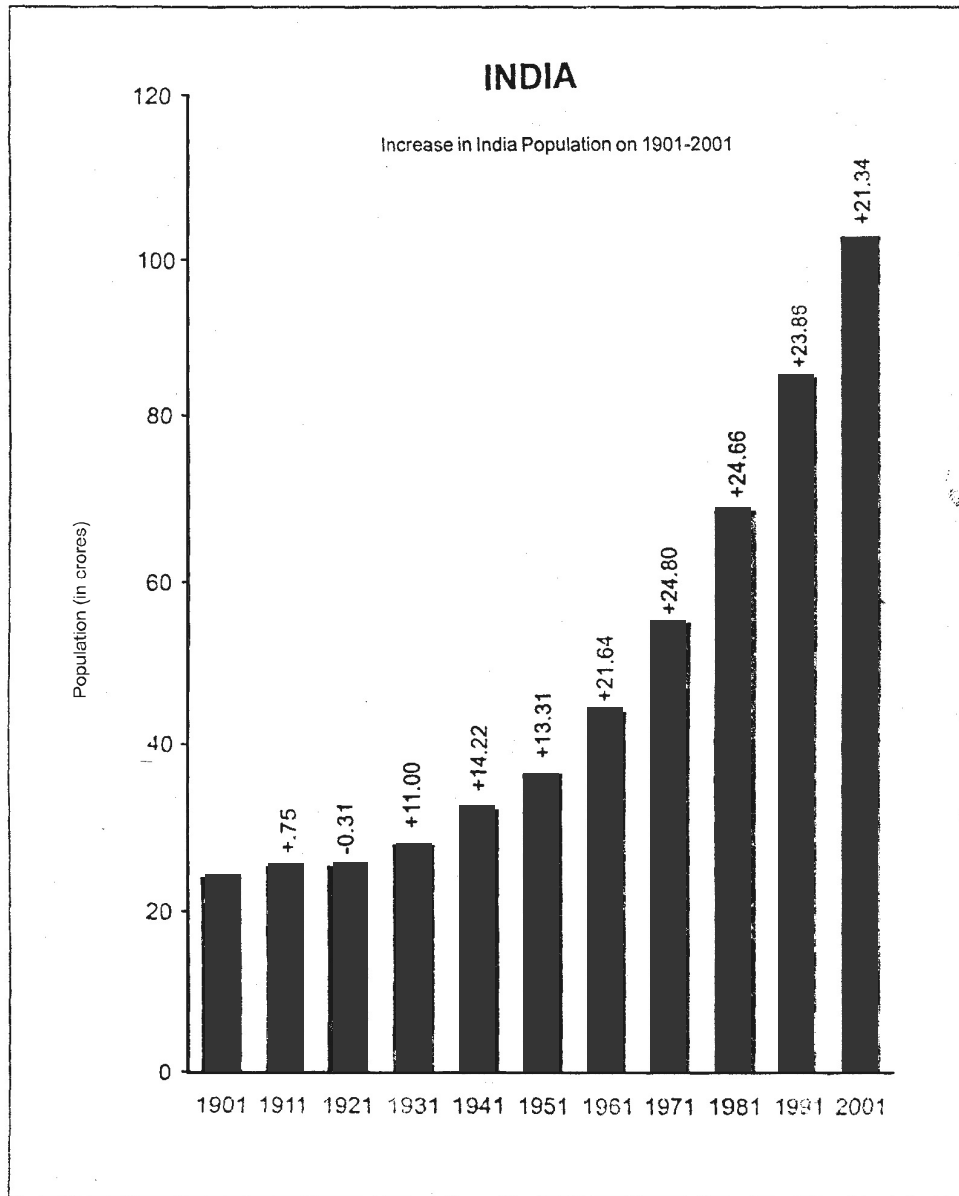
Population : As a Resource

A physically and mentally strong citizen is most important and valuable resource of any country. Be it the matter of country's security or its economic development, an intelligent and adept citizen can support the country in a planned way.

In today's knowledge and information-based world, the role of human resources in country's development is being realized more than before. Now, all the countries of the world, especially developing countries are paying more attention towards the development of human resource. Students, can you think, why it is so? The credit for the ongoing fast development in countries known as 'Asian Tiger' comprising South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaysia, is given to the heavy investment done on human resource during the last few decades. In the development of human resource, not only the indicators like education, technical skill, health, and way of upbringing, but also other indicators like human character and way of thinking, culture and civilization, castes and national pride should also be included. Only then the human resource development can become the complete approach.

In India too, more attention is now being paid to the development of human resource. According to India - based economist, Prof. Amartya Sen, the most important and pathetic mistake of the Indian planning is of not paying full attention to the development to human resources. He considers this as one of the factors in our economic backwardness. According to him, the benefits of economic development in independent India have not reached the poor, women and weaker and deprived sections of society due to the less attention paid to the issues of social justice. Therefore, great social, economic and political inequalities have emerged along with economic development. One main reason relating to caste, religion and regional agitations seen nowadays in different parts of the country, is not paying full attention to the development of human resources.

Keeping in view the important contribution of human resource in the entire development of a country, the present chapter is devoted to the study of many characteristics of population of India like distribution, density, growth, age- structure, gender -ratio, rural -urban distribution, education, economic composition etc.



INDIA : POPULATION CENSUS**Growth and Distribution of Population in the past**

Indian sub continent is one of the few regions of the world where concentration of population has been recorded since olden times. In Indian sub continent, the birth and development of one of the world's oldest civilizations has taken place. According to an estimate, at the time of Akbar's death in 1605, the population of India was 10 crore. It is estimated that it was 19 crore in 1750 and 23.3 crore in 1850. This population used to witness a generally gradual increase but during wars, epidemics and drought/ floods it used to decline steeply. Nowadays fast changes have taken place these problems. The modern medical science and technology have overcome the deaths due to epidemics and starvation. As a result, the population of India, which was 23.8 crore in 1901, became 35.9 crore in 1951 and increased to 102.7 crore in 2001 and to 121 crores in 2011. In this way, the population of India has increased more than four times from the beginning of this century till present and since independence, it has increased three times which is clear from the table below:-

Table 10.1 India : Population, 1901 -2011

Year	Population	Decimal Growth Rate (%)	Mean Annual Exponential Growth Rate (%)	Increasing growth Rate after 1901
1901	23,83,96,327	—	—	—
1911	25,20,93,390	+ 0.75	0.56	+ 5.75
1921	25,13,21,213	-0.31	-0.03	+5.42
1931	27,89,77,238	+11.00	1.04	+17.02
1941	31,86,60,580	+14.22	1.33	+33.67
1951	36,10,88,090	+13.31	1.25	+51.47
1961	43,92,34,771	+21.51	1.96	+84.25
1971	54,81,59,652	24.80	2.20	+129.94
1981	68,33,29,097	+24.66	2.22	+186.64
1991	84,63,02,688	+23.86	2.14	+255.00
2001	1,02,70,15,421	+21.34	1.93	+330.80
2011	1,21,01,93,422	+17.64	1.79	+366.74

Source : Census of India, 2011, Final Population Totals

Draw some conclusions from this table. A look at this table reveals that population has steeply increased after the years 1921 and 1951. Due to this,

the years 1921 and 1951 have been considered as 'population divides'. One of the main reasons of steep increase after these decades has been the sharp fall in the death rate.

Our country is considered as the second most populous country after China (100 crores). This population is more than the total population of the United States of America and the Soviet Union. More than seven times the population of Pakistan lives in India.

Implications of Large Population :

The huge population of the country has many implications some of which are positive and some negative. In the positive implications, first of all, it is the large population due to which India has political recognition in the world. Along with this, a huge market becomes available for selling the Indian goods within the country itself and secondly, vast human power also becomes available. Large domestic market and human power together helps in the fast economic development. On the other hand, the negative implications of large population include heavy pressure of population on the resources, low per capita income and lack of housing facilities, long queues, problems of management of large population etc.

Inter-state variations in Population :

India consists of 28 states and 7 Union territories. The total population of these is about 121 crores and 01 lakhs. Therefore, the average population of each state comes out to be 4 crores. Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state of India which has about 16 crore of population. On the other hand, the least populated state is Sikkim with 5.4 lakh of population. In India, there are nearly 10 states which have more than 5 crore of population. These includes the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Karnataka and Tamilnadu. Besides this, National Capital Region of Delhi, which is a Union Territory, also has more than 5 crore of population. Similarly, in the second place, there are 8 states, where the total population is less than 50 lakhs. Except Sikkim, these include the states of Mizoram, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Manipur, Goa and Tripura. In our own state Punjab, the population is more than 2.75 crores. Population wise, Punjab is ranked 15th among the 29 states of India and it accounts 2.5% of the total population of the country.

It is clear from Table 10.2 given on the next page that there exist wide inter state disparities in the distribution of population. For example, on the basis of total population, the population of the largest state Uttar Pradesh is about 374 times more than the population of smallest state of Sikkim. Can you think about the implications of the variations in distribution of such large population? Some implications may be such as large difference in the number of members of Parliament from different states. For instance, 85 members are elected for the Lok Sabha from Uttar Pradesh whereas Sikkim is represented

Table 10.2 : Statistics of States and Union Territories of India

S.No.	Name of state	Area (Sq. Km.)	Total Population	Density (Persons per Sq. Km.)	Literacy rate (Percent)	Gender Ratio Females Per Thousands Males)
INDIA		32,87,263	1,21,01,93,422	382	74.04	940
(i) STATE						
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1,60,205	4,93,18,668	306	67.84	—
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	83,743	13,82,611	17	66.95	920
3.	Assam	78,438	3,11,69,272	397	73.18	954
4.	Bihar	94,180	10,38,04,637	1102	63.82	916
5.	Chhattisgarh	135,039	2,55,40,196	189	71.04	991
6.	Goa	3,702	14,57,723	394	87.04	968
7.	Gujarat	196,024	6,03,83,628	308	79.31	918
8.	Haryana	44,212	2,53,58,081	573	76.64	877
9.	Himachal Pradesh	55,673	68,56,509	123	83.78	974
10.	Jammu and Kashmir	222,236	125,48,926	56	68.74	883
11.	Jharkhand	79,614	3,29,66,238	414	67.63	947
12.	Karnataka	191,791	6,11,30,704	319	75.60	968
13.	Kerala	38,863	3,33,87,677	859	93.91	1084
14.	Madhya Pradesh	308,087	7,25,97,565	236	70.63	923
15.	Maharashtra	307,713	11,23,72,972	365	82.91	946
16.	Manipur	22,327	27,21,756	122	79.85	987
17.	Meghalaya	22,492	29,64,007	132	75.50	986
18.	Mizoram	21,081	10,91,014	52	91.58	975
19.	Nagaland	16,579	19,80,602	119	80.11	931
20.	Odisha	1,55,707	4,19,47,358	269	73.45	978
21.	Punjab	50,362	2,77,04,236	550	76.68	843
22.	Rajasthan	342,239	6,86,21,012	201	67.06	926
23.	Sikkim	7,096	60,76,888	86	82.02	869
24.	Tamilnadu	130,058	7,21,38,958	555	80.33	995
25.	Telangana	1,14,840	3,53,44,865	310	67.22	—
26.	Tripura	10,486	36,71,032	350	87.75	961
27.	Uttarakhand	53,331	1,01,16,752	189	79.63	991
28.	Uttar Pradesh	2,40,928	19,95,81,477	828	69.72	908
29.	West Bengal	88,752	9,13,47,736	1102	77.08	947

S.No.	Name of state	Area (Sq. Km.)	Total Population	Density (Persons per Sq. Km.)	Literacy rate (Percent)	Gender Ratio Females Per Thousands Males)
(ii) UNION TERRITORIES						
1.	Andaman and Nicobar Islands	8,249	3,79,944	46	86.27	878
2.	Chandigarh	114	10,54,686	9252	86.43	818
3.	Dadra and Nagar Haweli	491	34,28,053	698	77.65	775
4.	Daman and Diu	112	2,42,911	2169	87.07	618
5.	Delhi	1,483	1,67,53,235	9340	86.34	866
6.	Lakshadweep	32	64,429	2013	92.28	946
7.	Pudducherry	492	12,44,464	2598	86.55	1038

Source : *Census of India (2011) : "Provisional Population Statistics", India Series-1, Paper of 2011, India Registrar General and Census commissioner, India, New Delhi.*

by only one member. From our own state Punjab, 13 members are elected for the parliament, while 67 are from Bihar. On the other hand, problems like the distribution of financial aid to the states by the centre on the basis of their population, difficulty in administration of bigger states and the rise of voice for the formation of smaller states out of the bigger states etc., are the result of uneven distribution of population.

Population Distribution and Density :-

The study of regional distribution of population provides a basis for understanding the various aspects of population. Therefore, an understanding of regional distribution of population is very essential. Firstly, we should have a clear understanding of the difference between horizontal distribution of population and density of population.

The distribution of population is related to the place and density is associated with a ratio. The distribution of population indicates whether the regional pattern of population is nucleated, agglomerated or linear etc. On the other hand, in density, emphasis is given on the ratio between the man and land and is related to the size of population and area.

The history of human settlements in India is very old. Therefore, the population resides in regions suited to human settlement. But the distribution of population is very strongly affected by the fertility of land. Being an

agricultural country, the regional pattern of distribution of population in India depends upon the agricultural productivity. That is why, large concentration of population is found in areas where the agricultural productivity is high. Other than agricultural productivity, natural physical factors also play an important role in the regional pattern of distribution of population.

Some important characteristics of the distribution of population in India are as follows:-

1. The distribution of population is very uneven. The population is very dense in river valleys and coastal plains while it is sparse in the hilly, desert and drought affected areas. It is important to mention here that the northern mountainous areas have only 16% of the country's area on which only 3% of population lives whereas 40% of population resides on only 18% of area in northern plains. Similarly in Rajasthan only 2 percent population lives on 6 % area of the country. In other words, in more than half of the districts, more than average or below average population resides.
2. Most of population lives in rural areas. Out of the total population of the country, about three-fourths lives in villages whereas only one -fourth resides in urban areas. The rural population is widely distributed in 5 lakh rural settlements. Urban population is heavily concentrated in big cities. One -third of the total urban population is found in 302 cities with more than 1 lakh population.

Many problems arise from this type of distribution of population. It is not only expensive but difficult also to provide basic facilities and amenities like linking the widely spaced different sized villages by roads, and developing their interaction with the neighbouring cities; education, pure drinking water facility, security and health facilities. On the other hand, problems like pollution, transportation difficulties, shortage of houses and lack of pure drinking water facility etc. are arising in the big cities.

3. Another important feature of this type of distribution of population is the settlement of minority groups in the sensitive border areas of strategic significance. For example, in northwestern India on the strategic Indo-Pak border there is large concentration of Sikh population in Punjab and Muslim population in Jammu and Kashmir. Similarly, in the northeast, Christian population is more concentrated in areas bordering China and Myanmar. This type of distribution results into many social, economic and political complexities.
4. The population is heavily concentrated in the coastal plains and river valleys while its distribution is sparse in the mountainous, plateau and desert areas. If we see the distribution of population on the map, it looks like a demographic divide.

Density of Population

The 12101 lakh or 121.01 crore of population of India resides on 32.8 lakh square km of area. On this basis, if we assume that the population is evenly spread throughout the country then the density of population comes out to be 382 persons per square km. In other words, it can also be described as average density of population. However, large variations are found in the density of population at regional level. The density of population is highest (1102 persons per square km) in Bihar and lowest (17 persons per sq km) in Arunachal Pradesh. This difference is very sharp in the centrally administered territories, e.g. the density of population is 9340 persons per square km in National Capital Region of Delhi, whereas it is only 46 persons per sq km in Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

A look at the population density map reveals that areas of high density of population extend from Punjab in the northwest to the deltaic areas of Ganga in West Bengal in the east. In addition to this, density of population is very high in the eastern and western coastal plains. In contrast, the density of population is low in the central parts of the country like Madhya Pradesh and adjoining parts of the states of Chhattisgarh, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Orissa. On the whole, the Himalayan region in the north too makes a low density area.

Spatially, high density (more than 400 persons per sq km) areas fall over the deltaic parts of Sutluj, Ganga, Brahmaputra, Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery rivers where agriculture is well developed due to the fertile soils and adequate rainfall. Besides these, high density of population is also found near large industrial and administrative centres like Ludhiana, Gurgaon, National Capital Region of Delhi, Kanpur, Patna, Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai, Ahmedabad, Bangalore and Hyderabad. In this way, the density of population is high in the areas where due to adequate rainfall and irrigation, intensive agriculture could develop and where industrial cities have developed. Can you identify the densely populated areas on the map? After identification, can you find out the reasons as to why the density of population is high in these areas? Can you find any relationship between physiography, rainfall distribution, urban industrial development in the country and density of population?

In contrast, the areas of low density of population (below 200 persons per sq km) are the physically handicapped regions. These areas include, in the Himalayan ranges in the north the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Arunachal Pradesh, Sikkim, Nagaland, Manipur, Mizoram and Meghalaya; in the west the desert areas of Rajasthan, and marshy areas of Gujarat; in central India and interior Peninsular plateau the states of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, eastern Maharashtra, eastern Karnataka, western Andhra Pradesh and few parts of Tamilnadu.

Besides these areas, the regions which lie outside the high density areas are known as moderately densely populated areas (200 to 300 persons per sq km). Generally these areas are transitional to the low and high density areas and are less in number. From this it can easily be inferred that there exist wide variations in the regional distribution and density of population in India.

1. The traditional rice producing areas of the country are the most densely populated areas.
2. After this, the second position is of the wheat producing areas. During the last few years, the difference in the density of population of wheat and rice producing areas has gradually decreased. This is because large amount of population is migrating as workers from the rice producing eastern states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa and West Bengal to wheat producing states. That is why, labourers get employment in wheat growing regions of Punjab, Haryana and Western Uttar Pradesh.
3. The third place in the density of population comes of the bajra and Jowar producing areas, where the density is low. In sum, the density of population and production potential of different parts of the country are strongly correlated.
4. In the different parts of the country, there is a lack of strong inter-relationships between density of population and economic development. In other words, it would not be wrong to say that all areas of high pressure of population are either economically backward or are developed. For example, in Punjab - Haryana plains the density of population and development level are both very high. But on the other hand, in the middle Ganga plain, the density of population is very high but the level of economic development is very low.

POPULATION COMPOSITION

First of all, it is very essential for us to know as to why should we study the population composition of a country. For the socio-economic planning, data regarding different features of the population of a country such as age structure, gender composition, occupational structure etc. are needed. The different elements of the population composition have a strong relationship with the economic development of the country. Whereas, on one hand these elements of population composition are affected by the economic development, the growth and level of economic development on the other hand are affected by them. For example if the percentage of children and old people is very high in the population of a country then the country has to allocate more financial resources on the basic amenities and facilities like health and education. On the other hand, in age structure, if the percentage of working age group is high then a good and large contribution in economic development can be expected. We will discuss briefly the age, sex and occupational composition of the population of India in order.

(I) Age Composition

Age structure of any country or area can be measured with the help of three elements. These elements include fertility, mortality and migration. Any change in one of these elements affects the other two. These three elements together affect the economic and social conditions and also on the age structure. For example in the countries where the birth rate is high, the percentage of adult age group will also be high. In contrast to this, in those countries where the birth rate is low and the life expectancy is high, the percentage of child age group will be very less. In rich countries, child age group (0 -14 years) constitutes only 20.5% of the total population whereas in poor countries this is 35.7 per cent. On the other hand, in the age group of 65 years and above, 12.7% population is in case of persons in the rich countries and only 4.5% population in the poor countries.

Table10.3 : World - Age Structure

Region	Population in Age Group (Percentage)		
	0-14 yr	15-64 yr	65+ yr
World	33.4	60.7	5.9
High Income Countries	20.5	66.8	12.7
Middle Income Countries	36.6	58.6	4.8
Low Income Countries	35.7	59.8	4.5
United States of America	21.2	66.7	6.1
China	27.6	66.0	12.4
India	35.7	59.5	4.8

India, which comes in the category of poor countries, has 35.7% of its population in the age group of 0 -14 years and only 4.8% in the 65 years and above age group. Rest of the 59.5% of population falls in the 15 to 64 years of age group. In the world as a whole, however, 60.7% of the population is in this age group whereas in rich countries the percentage of population in the age group of 15 to 64 years is 66.8. In our neighbouring country China, 66.7% of the population is in this particular age group.

Actually, the 15 to 64 years age group is considered as the working age group, while the remaining population in the other two groups is the dependent population. After having a look at Table 10.3, it is observed that the population of this working age group in India is very less not only in the world but also in comparison to our neighbouring country China and the rich countries. Therefore there is a tremendous pressure of dependent population in the country.

The analysis of age structure has many advantages. The knowledge of the total population in the child age group of 0 -14 years makes the government know very clearly facilities required to be provided in education, health and social services sector. Accordingly, new schools, health centres, community centres, etc. can be constructed. Along with this, the knowledge of number of people having voting rights is essential for the democracy. As per the statistics of age structure, there should be 54% voters in the country, but their proportion is about 60%.

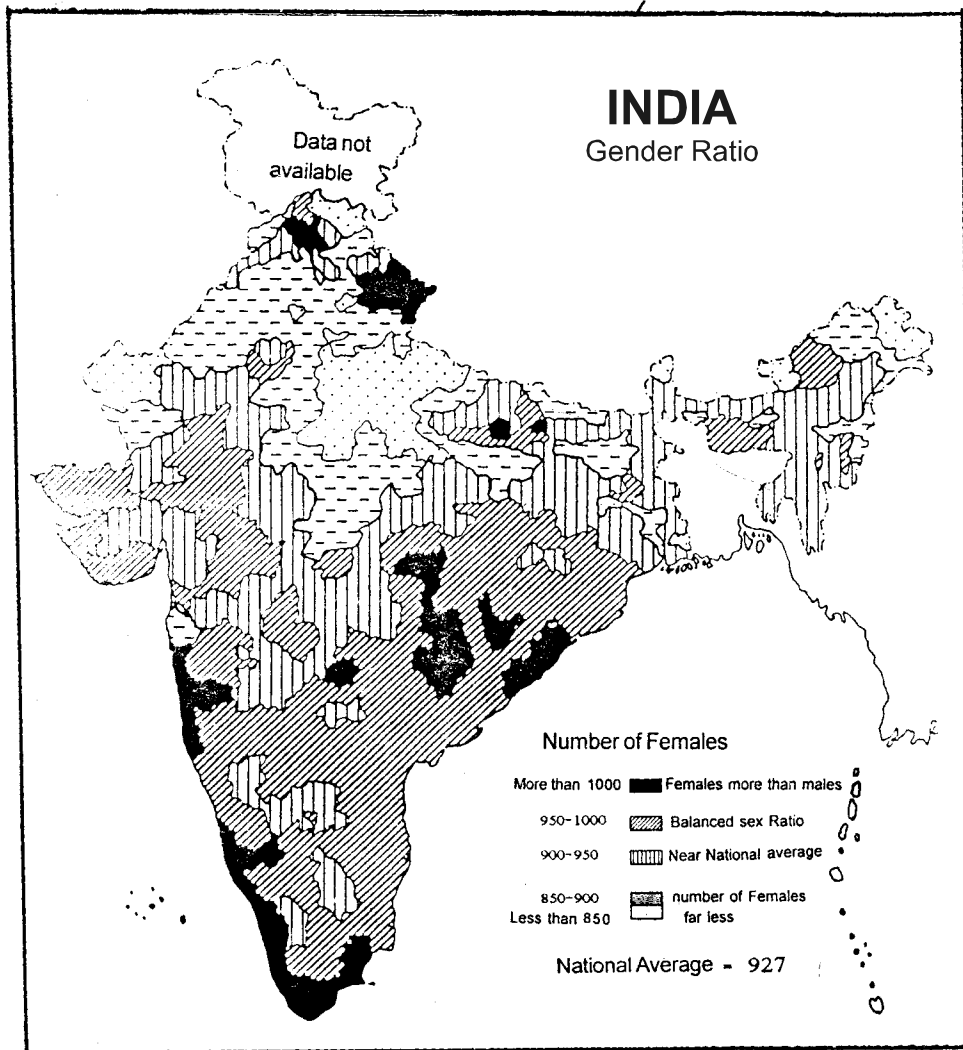
(II) Gender Composition

The population of a country can be used to know the social, cultural, economic and political conditions prevailing in that country. In India, sex ratio is understood in terms of number of females per thousand males. These days women are treated at par with men. In most of the rich countries, the number of females is more or higher than the number of males. In developed countries, the average gender ratio is 1050 females per 1000 males whereas it is 964 in the developing countries. As per the 2011 census, the gender ratio in India is 940 females per thousand males. This is one of the lowest averages in the world. However, this ratio is 910 females per thousand males in Pakistan but low male -female ratio in our country is a source of worry. The gradual decrease in this ratio is still a more serious concern.

In 1901, the gender ratio in India was 902. For rural areas, this ratio was 980 and for urban areas it was 910. After independence, this ratio declined to 946 in 1951. At that time, this ratio was 965 in rural areas and 859 in the cities. In 1991, when this average was 927 for the entire country, it was 939 for rural areas and 894 for the urban. The average increased to 933 in 2001 and to 940 to 2011. In this way, the sex ratio has improved after independence in the urban areas but it has rapidly declined in rural areas, though the sex ratio is still high in rural areas as compared to the urban areas.

The analysis of sex ratio on the basis of population categories given below shows that the sex ratio is highest (1009/1000) among Christian population. On the other hand, the sex ratio is lowest (893/1000) in the Sikh population. In the Hindus and Muslims it is respectively 931 and 936. In Jains, this ratio is 940 while in the Buddhists it is 953. In this way, however, it is considered that the Muslim population is responsible for the low sex ratio in India, where the females are given less rights, but in contrast to this view point, the number of females is slightly high in the Muslim households than in the Hindu households in India.

It is very difficult to know the definite reasons for the low gender ratio in India. One of the main reasons however, is considered to be the low status of women in the Indian society. In the family system too, they are given lower status as compared to men. That is why in the child age-groups, less attention is paid to the issues like health, nutrition and care of the girl child. Therefore, the death rate is high among the girls as compared to the boys in the age group of 0 -6 years.



In this age group, the gender ratio has declined from 976 in 1961 to 945 in 1991. The other reasons include, the low counting of women as compared to men during population census, or reporting the number of males deliberately high during census, low birth rate of females, female foeticide due to social pressures etc.. In 2001, however, improvement can be seen in the age group of more than 7 years from 923 to 935 in the last ten years.

TABLE 10.4 : India - Gender Ratio

Religious Group (Census Years)	Gender Ratio (Females per thousand Males)
1901	972 (Rural = 980, Urban = 910)
1911	964
1921	955
1931	950
1941	945
1951	946 (Rural = 965, Urban = 859)
1961	941
1971	930
1981	934
1991	927 (Rural = 939, Urban = 894)
2001	933
2011	940
Religious Group	
Christians	1009
Budhists	953
Jains	940
Muslims	936
Hindus	931
Sikhs	893

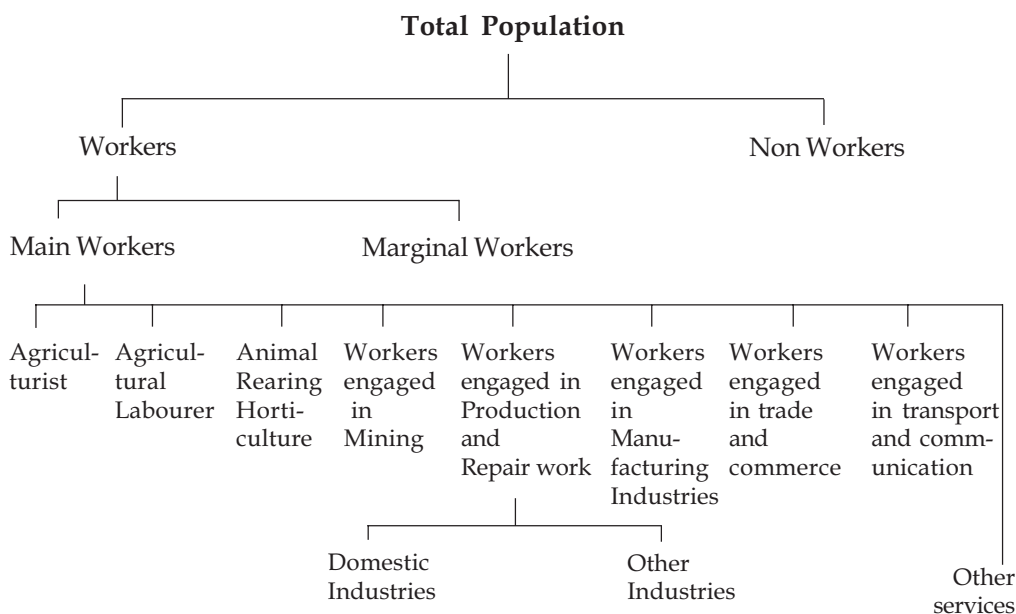
At the state level, the sex ratio is highest (1084) in Kerala but it is lowest (866) in National Capital Region of Delhi. Except Delhi, the states with low sex ratio are Haryana, Punjab and Jammu & Kashmir, where this ratio is less than 900. Except Kerala, the states with sex ratio of more than 950 include the states of Uttaranchal, Chhattisgarh, Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Pondicherry, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Orissa and Tamilnadu. The gender ratio of our Punjab is 893, which is comparatively more than the neighbouring

states of Haryana, Delhi and Uttar Pradesh but is less than Himachal Pradesh and Rajasthan. In total, the gender ratio is comparatively more in South India than the North India. The female -male ratio is relatively higher in the tribal areas of the Northeast and central India. In states of northern India especially Haryana, Punjab, western Uttar Pradesh, western Rajasthan, northwestern Madhya Pradesh, Union Territories and big cities, the sex ratio is relatively less than the other states.

(III) Economic Composition:

The study of the economic composition of population is very significant. Such a clearly explains the economic, demographic and cultural attributes of the area, which provide a basis for formulating future plans for its social and economic development.

In India, the population is divided into two categories as workers and non-workers. This category of workers is further divided into two groups as main workers and marginal workers. The main workers are those working people who have worked in any kind of economic activity for six months or (183 days) more. Marginal workers are those workers who were involved in some work for some time in the last year but have not took part in any kind of economic work. This category includes the students and housewives who are involved in the educational and household duties etc. The main workers are further classified into nine sub categories which is more clear from the following chart.



In India the ideas behind the classification of population on the basis of economic structure has been changing. It will not be wrong to say that this idea has changed in all the censuses conducted since 1951. This concept of classifying people as workers and non-workers, was introduced for the first time in 1961 census. But the definition of a worker has been changing. Therefore it is difficult to make any comparisons of the data on economic composition.

In India, the total percentage of main workers was 37.50% (except Assam and Jammu & Kashmir) according to the 1991 census. In the rural areas, this figure was 40% while in urban areas it was 30.2 per cent. In this way, only one-third of the total population is economically active. In other words, nearly two-third of the population is economically dependent on one-third of working population. The low proportion of labour force or high proportion of dependent population is attributed to the high growth rate of population. The dependency ratio of population increases due to many reasons such as large number of children encouraging the women to work outside, because to social constraints and lack of education and awareness.

The other main feature of economic structure, is that a large part of the total workers is engaged in the primary sector. Due to the agrarian base the Indian economy, about two-thirds of the total main workers earn their livelihood from the agriculture and allied activities. Only 11.6% workers are employed in the industries, which comprise only 10% of the total population. The remaining 20.5% workers are engaged in the tertiary services like trade and commerce, transportation and communication and other services. On the one hand, there is large pressure of population on the agricultural sector due to low manufacturing activities in the country, and on other hand, many new tertiary services have become a burden on country's economy. More than adequate workers are there in government and foot loose industries which puts extra burden on the Indian economy. To come out of this problem, we need to develop our industry in such a way so that maximum number of people get employed. Also there is a strong need of industrial development in areas far from the big industrial cities. For this it is important to provide a basic structure for industries in the backward areas on priority basis.

It is very important for the country to pay attention to issues like fast growth of national capital, eradication of regional and social inequalities increase in employment opportunities, environmental security, etc. for its economic development. It is almost impossible to know the capability of the nation in achieving all these goals on the basis total population, its density and distribution.

Therefore, the knowledge of economic composition of population, gender ratio, age structure, growth rate, health and education becomes very essential.

(IV) Residence (Rural-Urban Population):

India is still known as the country of villages. There are nearly 5 lakh 50 thousand villages in the country. In the beginning of the 20th century, 9 out of every 10 were living in a village. At the same time in 1901, the total urban population was only 2.6 crores (equal to the total population of Punjab at present). By the census year 1991, the urban population increased to 21.50 crore. In this way, the urban population has increased eight times in the past 90 years. In contrast to this, the total population of India has increased about three and a half times in the last 9 decades. Whereas, the rural -urban population ratio was 1:9 in 1901, it has changed to 1:3 in 1991. The urban population has rapidly increased after independence due to the increase in industrial development and administrative services.

You can see from the table that although urban population in India is only 25.6% but its base is very high (215 million) which is more than the total population of United States of America. Besides the large base, the urban population is increasing very fastly. Urban population is growing more than two times faster than the rural population. Similarly the population of large cities is increasing at a much faster rate than the population of medium and small towns. This can be seen from the fact that about 65% of the total urban population of the country in 1996 was living in Class I towns with a population of one lakh or more. There are about 300 such cities in the country. In 1961 i.e. 30 years ago, the number of cities in this category was only 106. Heavy concentration of population in the big cities has become a matter of great concern. Out of these 300 Class I towns, 23 cities are included in the category of metropolitan cities. A metropolitan city is a whose population is 10 lakh or more. 7 crore people live in these 23 metropolitan cities which makes one half of the total population (13.10 crore) of all such cities. There is heavy pressure on the basic amenities and facilities in big cities mainly due to rapid increase in their population. Sometimes people here do not get even the basic facilities. According to an estimate more than one -fourth of the total urban population of India lives in slums where there is lack of even basic public facilities. Problems like child labour, nutritional deficiency, unemployment, crime, illegal works etc. are related to slums.

On the other hand, in the villages, the problem of unemployment is becoming more serious. Therefore, a large number of young people are migrating

to the cities in search of employment. The size of land holdings is declining with the increase in population. Also the rural youths are getting fascinated towards the cities and their diversion from agricultural activities is increasing. Due to these reasons, large numbers of young people from rural areas of villages are migrating towards the cities in search of employment. The number of metropolitan cities in the country is increasing fastly. There were 12 metropolitan cities (or urban agglomeration) in the country in 1981, which increased to 23 in 1991.

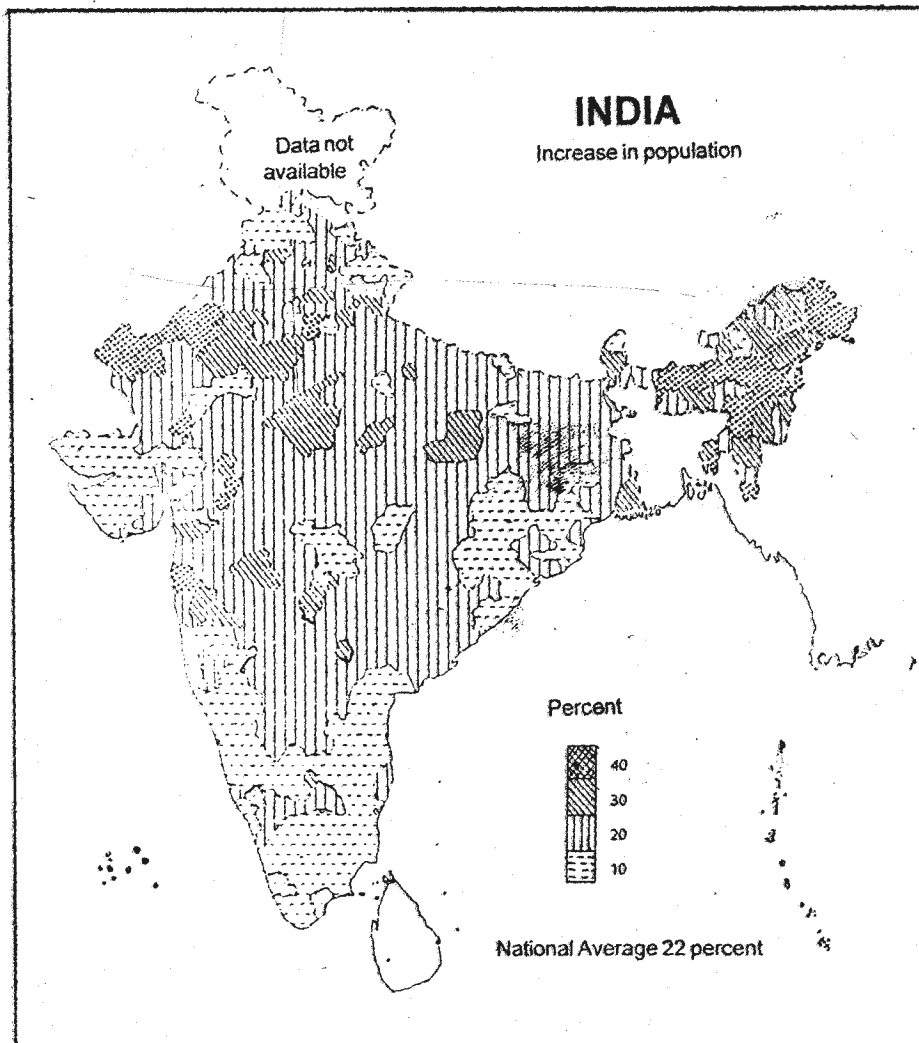
(V) Cultural Composition of Population :

India is a country of diversities. People belonging to many races and castes reside here. The major races include Dravidians, Mongols and Aryans. Besides these, some people belong to the Caucasian race also. Over time, these races have blended in such a way that their original characters seem to be disappointing and characteristics have started emerging. Even then the Indians are quite diverse this in fact is the major characteristic of this country. Actually the completeness and pride of a culture lies in its diversity. To give respect to other's religion, cultural exchange and interaction are distinct features of Indian culture. The culture of India and blending of races are unique example in the world.

People of in the same religion speak different languages. Languages, races, religions, castes do not follow any boundaries. Despite the racial, religious, linguistics and regional diversities we all are Indians. Our society is a bouquet of mixed cultures. It can be compared with a garden where the flowers of different colours and shades have blossomed, each flower having its unique identity. But a colourful and picturesque scene is created after intermixing of all these diversities.

India is a home to the followers of the Hindu, Islam, Sikh, Christian, Buddhist, Jain and other religions. However, all these religions are equal before the law and they have all kinds of freedom. Every one is given equal rights and have to perform same duties.

Also many languages are spoken in India. Some are of these have originated out of Sanskrit and some from Dravidian. The main languages of India are Assamese, Oriya, Urdu, Kannada, Kashmiri, Gujarati, Tamil, Telugu, Punjabi, Bengali, Malyalam, Sanskrit, Sindhi and Hindi. All these have been accorded constitutional status. The four languages of south India -Tamil, Telugu,



Kannada and Malayalam are Dravidian languages. But it is not that all the people who speak these four languages belong to Dravidian race or the people speaking languages born out of Sanskrit belong to the Aryan race. Find out which language is spoken in a particular different region of India.

Majority of people in India speak Hindi language. Also many people can understand this language even though this is not their mother tongue. Hindi is also the state language of the country. Many linguistic experts are of the opinion that despite the many languages and some external differences in their literature, they have many similarities. All the Indian languages have their own dialect. Structurally, they are almost similar. An interesting feature is that a common all India vocabulary has evolved over time due to the various unifying forces. Many languages do not have much difference even in their scripts. In spite of this, some people use differences in language to divide the people on the basis of language and race for their own vested interests.

We together have to construct a unified, powerful and rich India by following democratic and socialist principles. Fifty-five years have passed since our independence. Our achievements are not less in these 55 years but the country has to find solutions for problems such as social and regional inequalities, unemployment, population growth, etc. by having fast development. Therefore, there is strong need to develop our human resources from all respects as the mental, intellectual and physical in an integrated manner.

(VI) Growth of Population

It is generally said that the population of India is increasing at a very fast rate. Why is it so? We have to think over it. Natural growth rate of population depends upon the difference between the growth rate and the death rate. Higher the birth rate, the higher will be the natural growth rate. Lesser difference between the two will result in the low growth rate. The third element, which affects the growth of population, is migration. The growth rate can be high even if the natural growth is low due to migration. For example both the birth and death rates of urban population are low in comparison to the rural population. But growth rate of urban population is two times more than the rural population. The main reason for this is the large scale migration of people from rural areas to urban areas.

Table 10.5 : India - Growth of Population, 1901-2011

Decade	Birth Rate (Per thousand)	Death Rate (Per thousand)	Natural (Decadal) Growth Rate (Percent)	Annual Growth Rate (Percent)
1901-11	49.2	42.6	6.6	0.6
1911-21	48.1	47.2	0.9	0.09
1921-31	46.4	36.3	10.1	1.01
1931-41	45.2	31.2	14.0	1.40
1941-51	39.9	27.4	12.5	1.25
1951-61	41.7	22.8	18.9	1.89
1961-71	41.2	19.0	22.2	2.22
1971-81	37.2	15.0	22.2	2.22
1981-91	32.7	11.7	21.0	2.14
1991-2001	N.A	N.A	N.A	1.93
2001-2011	N.A	N.A	N.A	1.79

From the above table it is clear that highest birth rate was during 1901-11 decades. Afterwards, it has been gradually decreasing, with some exceptions. The birth rate was lowest (32.7 persons/1000) in 1981-91. On the whole it has recorded one-third decline during the last 90 years. In contrast, there has been a steep decline in the death rate. The death rate has declined from 47.2 per 1000 to only 11.7 persons per 1000 during the last 9 decades. It is therefore obvious that whereas the birth rate is declining slowly, the death rate has recorded a sharp decline. Hence it seems that for arresting the growth rate of population attention is required to be paid on bringing down the birth rate.

The main causes, why death rate has declined sharply is improvement in overall environment along with the expansion in the health facilities. In addition to these, the other main reasons have been: spread of education, changes in the traditional rituals and increasing awareness among people. Now the death rate is at its all time low. Further decline in death rate is expected to be less and very slow. Therefore to check the growth of population we have to lay emphasis on decreasing the birth rate. Greater stress is to be laid upon decreasing the death rate among the poor sections of society where it is still at a higher level. At the same time, we will have to make the people aware of the problems by reducing poverty, unemployment and women illiteracy.

Government is now paying more attention to the programs like improvement in mother –child health care services, women education, women rights and on awareness programs rather than sterilization programs. A family with two children is considered as an ideal family. Thus if we really want to increase the growth rate of the economy, improve the living standard of our people, control the problems of poverty and unemployment, we will have to check the growth of population.

(VII) Education and Health

Education is a key factor for the overall development of the human being. In India, at the time of independence only 14% of the people were literate. The meaning of literacy is limited the activity of writing and reading of one own name. The percentage of literate population has increased 74.4% in the country by 2011 census and it was 52.21 per cent in 1991. In absolute terms, earlier only 6 crore people were literate in our country but now this number has increased to 67.37 crores which means that the percentages of literates has increased by 11 times. But it is important to know that the number of illiterate population has also increased during this period. There were 30 crore illiterate persons in 1951 but after 50 years this number has increased to 35 crores in 2001.

According to the Directive Principles in the constitution of our country, it is the responsibility of the government to provide free education to all of children 14 years age. But even after 66 years of independence, this has become a day light dream. There are many problems also in this regard. It is difficult to provide educational facilities in 5.5 lakh villages spread for and wide in the country. It is a very difficult task to open a school in every village and to convince every parent to send his/her children to school. However, preference has been given to open a school in every village of the country. Now there are more than 5 lakh primary schools in the country. In the year 1951, their number was only 2 lakh. The number of middle schools has also increased by ten times during this period. Earlier, there was one middle school after every 15 primary schools but now there is one middle school after every 4 primary schools. Besides this, some state governments have made the provision of mobile schools and night schools. To encourage education of girls, hostel facilities are being made available to them. But large drop outs in many states is a matter of great concern for the respective state governments. Examples of such states are Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand and Rajasthan. These states have low proportion of literate population, as compared to the other states. But in contrast, Kerala is a state where the percentage of literate population is highest among all states of the country.

It needs to be added that even today 25 per cent children reach upto the middle (8th) standard in the country. In this way, three –fourth of the

children are deprived from the real benefits of education. There is severe shortage of higher and technical education.

As regards the health services, there has been significant expansion in these after independence. Life expectancy has also increased considerably. Health services have also improved due to the development of education and increasing awareness. The per capita consumption of food items has increased with the increase in production of food materials. In 1951, the per capita daily consumption of food grains was 350 grams which has increased to 478 grams (in 1986-87). But due to poor purchasing power, many people in the country, are still not able to get two square meals.

Currently, there is only one hospital for every one lakh of population and only one bed for every 1400 persons in the country. This is not at all an encouraging situation. People living in villages and urban slums are suffering from water borne diseases due to the lack of drinking water. To provide for pure drinking water is a national problem. The government is trying to check this problem under the Rajiv Gandhi National Drinking Water Programme. Fortunately the deadly diseases like chicken pox, cholera, plague which were frequent in earlier times, have been overcome, but the incidence of Malaria in some parts of the country has now become a subject of great worry. There is little possibility of achieving the target of providing proper health facilities to all by the government even after having great improvement in health services.

The population in the country is not only large as compared to the available resources but it is also increasing at the very rapid rate. It is not only important to provide food to the people but also it is important to improve their standard of living. For this, greater stress is also to be laid on the issues like health, education, social services, social security and technical education. Only then the importance of human resources can be enhanced. This valuable feature can be found in an adept citizen, who is an invaluable resource of any country. A highly skilled and qualified citizen has a strong desire and natural instinct to raise his standard of living. This reflects upon the efficient use of the limited available resources. Therefore, so it is very important for us to conserve our environment and limited resources. Our approach towards the environment and resources should be scientific.

EXERCISES

(I) Answer the following questions in brief :

1. What is the most important and valuable resource of a country?
2. What do you understand by development of human resource?
3. What is the most important and pathetic mistake of the Indian Planning according to Dr. Amertya Sen?

4. What problem is being faced by our country for not paying full attention to the development of Human resources?
5. What was estimated population of India at the time of Akbar' s death?
6. What were the causes of slow increase in population before Independence?
7. What was the population of India in the year 1901?
8. Why the 1921 and 1951 years have been considered as population divides?
9. What is the population of India in the year 2001?
10. What is rank of India in world from the point of view of population?
11. Write the name of the states with highest and lowest population.
12. Name the states which have population more than five crore.
13. What is the population of Punjab in the year 2001 and what is the rank of Punjab from the population point of view?
14. What percentage of population of India lives in Punjab?
15. How many times the population of Sikkim is less than that of Uttar Pradesh?
16. What percentage of population lives in Himalayan Mountainous region?
17. How many cities are there in India with a population less than one lakh?
18. How much percent of population of our country live in Plains.
19. How much percentage of population of our country live in villages?
20. What is the average density of population in our country?
21. Name the states having highest and lowest density of population.
22. What is density of population of India?
23. Which union territory has the highest density of population?
24. Name the elements that determine the age structure.
25. What is percentage of population that fall in the 0 - 14 years age group in our country?
26. What is percentage of population fall in the 15 - 64 year's age group in our country?
27. What is the percentage of population that are voters?
28. What do you understand by sex ratio.
29. What is sex ratio of the population of the year 2001?
30. What are the rural & urban sex ratio?
31. What are the factors that are responsible for the decrease in rural and urban sex ration?
32. What is the sex ratio among the Sikh segment of our country?
33. In which two categories can we divide population of India on economic basis.
34. Which people are called main workers in India.
35. What is the percentage of main workers in our country.
36. In which state of India, the percentage of main worker is the highest.

37. When was the concept of classifying the people as workers and non-workers introduced for the first time in India census?
38. What percentage of labourer is there in rural areas?
39. What percentage of population is engaged in Primary Industry?
40. What is total urban population?

(II) Answer the following questions in short :

1. What problems arise due to uneven distribution of population in states?
2. What is the difference between regional distribution of population and density of population?
3. What are the factors that affect the distribution of population?
4. What is the sex ratio of states of North India?
5. What is the importance of economic structure of population?
6. In how many categories we can divide Main Worker Labourers, name them.
7. Why a percentage of male workers is less than female workers?
8. What negative effects are affecting Indian economy due to comparatively less workers engaged in manufacturing activities?
9. Why is India known as country of villages?
10. Name the languages spoken in our country.
11. What are characteristic features of regional distribution of population?
12. Which are the states those have high density of population.
13. What are the causes of high density of population in Plains?
14. What are the areas of low density of population?
15. Why is it necessary to study the structure of population?
16. Name the areas with small population.
17. Why are the Bajra Producing areas have low population?
18. What is the importance of study of age structure?
19. What are the causes of low sex ratio in India?
20. What are the causes of increase in urban population in India?

(III) Answer the following questions subjectively :

1. Explain the regional structure of density of population in India.
2. Explain in detail the state wise structure of sex ratio in India.
3. Explain the main characteristics of regional structure of distribution of population.
4. What problems are arising due to increase in urban population in metro cities?
5. Write a note on the cultural structure of population of India.
6. Write an essay on problem of population increase in India and also enlighten the solution to this problem.

7. Study critically the efforts being made for the expansion of Education in India.

(IV) Show the following on the map of India.

1. Areas with high density of population.
2. Two state with high literacy.
3. States with more than five crore population.
4. Two states of highest and lowest population.
5. Areas with high growth rate of population.

PART - B
ECONOMICS PORTION

CHAPTER 1

BASIC CONCEPTS

There are some words in Economics which have special meanings. These words are called basic concepts. Some of the basic concepts of Economics are as given below:-

1. NATIONAL INCOME

National income is defined as the sum total of factor incomes viz. rent, wages, interest and profit accruing to the normal residents of a country for their productive services during a definite period of time. Income is a flow. As such it is related to a particular period of time. Normally this period is of one year duration. Thus, National Income is the earned income by the normal residents of a country during one year.

National Product is another term synonymous to National Income. Thus, when we express the result of economic activities as the sum total of market value of final goods and services produced in a country during one year, it is known as National Product. On the other hand, when we express it by the sum total of the factor incomes i.e. wages, rent, interest and profit earned during one year, then it is called National Income.

1.1 Definition

According to Durnberg, "National Income is the net factor income earned by normal residents of a country in the form of wages, rent, interest and profit in one year. This is the sum of domestic factor income and net factor income."

1.2 Example

At the time of calculation of National Income, goods and services are multiplied by their prices. If the quantity of national product is multiplied by the current prices we call it national income at current prices or Monetary Income. Conversely, if the quantity of national product is multiplied with the prices of some fixed period i.e. base year, the result obtained is called National Income at constant prices or Real National Income. Prices keep on changing. As a result of it National income is subject to increase or decrease without any change in the quantity of goods and services. In order to estimate the real economic progress of a country, the national income of different years should be measured at the prices of some particular period of a year. On account of constant prices, real income will only change with the change in quantity of goods and services. When depreciation is included in the national income of a country it is known as gross national income. Conversely when depreciation is deducted, it is known as net national income. When net factor income earned from abroad is deducted

from the national income then the remaining income will be called as the domestic income. Therefore,

$$\text{Net National Income} = \text{Gross National Income} - \text{Depreciation}$$

2. PER CAPITA INCOME

Per Capita income is an important concept regarding the Country's economic welfare or standard of living of the people.

2.1 Definition

Per capita income is defined as the average income earned by the people of a country in a definite period of time.

2.2 Example :-

The per capita income is just an average income. It does not mean that the income of every individual in the country is equal to it. The income of some individuals may be more than it and the income of some may be less than it. For example the per capita income of India in 1994-95 was Rs.8,237 and that of Punjab it is Rs. 68998 in 2010-11.

Per capita income is calculated by dividing the national income by population i.e.

$$\text{Per capita Income} = \frac{\text{National Income}}{\text{Population}}$$

Per capita income at current prices is known as monetary per capita income or at constant prices it is known as real per capita income.

It is not necessary that an increase in the national income of a country will always lead to an increase in the standard of living of the people. Standard of living of the people depends on per capita income. For example, suppose the real national income of a country increases by 4% per annum and there is also 4% increase in population growth, then there will not be any increase in per capita income. It means there is no increase in the standard of living of the people or rate of economic development of the country. Therefore, the rate of economic growth of a country will increase only when there is continuous growth of real per capita income.

3. CONSUMPTION

The word consumption is used in two senses. In the first sense as a process and in the second as an expenditure. In the sense of a noun it is the activity which satisfies human wants directly like the use of water for quenching thirst and use of food for the satisfaction of hunger etc. Thus consumption is that process by which a person uses the utility of a good in order to satisfy his wants. In the expenditure sense consumption means that total expenditure which is incurred on the consumption goods.

Under national income whatever many people spend on the purchase of goods and services for the direct satisfaction of their wants is called consumption or total consumption expenditure. Suppose, the total income of an economy is Rs.2,000 crore, out of which Rs.1,500 crore is spent on the consumption of goods and services, then it will be said that total consumption expenditure of an economy is Rs.1,500 crores and savings are of Rs.500 crores because

$$\text{Income} = \text{Consumption} + \text{Saving.}$$

or 2000 crores = Rs (1500 + 500) crores.

Here, we use the word consumption in the senses of total expenditure.

3.1 Definition

Consumption means expenditure made on consumption during one year in an economy.

3.2 Example

Consumption depends on many factors like income, price of commodity, fashion etc. Thus it can be said that consumption is a function of many factors, means it depends on many factors. Income has the most effect on the consumption. In the words of Keynes, "total consumption expenditure of an economy mainly depends on income". It can be said that consumption is a function of income, which means it depends on income. Generally with the rise in income consumption also increases but increase in consumption is less than that of income. There will be how much change in consumption in comparison to the change in income it depends on the propensity to consume. Propensity to consume is of two types, like

(i) Average Propensity to consume (APC)

The ratio of total consumption to total income is called average propensity to consume. This implies that people will spend how much part of their income on consumption and how much part they save. This is obtained by dividing the consumption by the income or

$$\text{Average Propensity to Consume} = \frac{\text{Consumption}}{\text{Income}}$$

For example when out of the income of Rs.100 crores, Rs.80 crores are spent on consumption then

$$\text{Average Propensity to Consume} = \frac{80}{100} = \frac{8}{10} = 0.8 \text{ or } 80\%$$

This implies that people spend 80% of their income on consumption and they save 20%.

(ii) Marginal Propensity to Consume (MPC)

The ratio of change in consumption to change in income is called marginal propensity to consume i.e.

$$\text{Marginal Propensity to Consume} = \frac{\text{Change in Consumption}}{\text{Change in Income}}$$

For example if income increases from Rs.100 crores to Rs.200 crores then change in income is Rs.100 crores ($\Delta y = \text{Rs.200 crores} - \text{Rs.100 crores} = \text{Rs.100 crores}$)

Let us suppose that on account of change in income consumption increases from Rs.80 crores to Rs.120 crores, than change in consumption is

$$\text{Rs.40 crores } (\Delta C = \text{Rs.120 crores} - \text{Rs.80 crores} = \text{Rs. 40 crores})$$

$$\text{Therefore Marginal Propensity to Consume} = \frac{40}{100} = .4 \text{ or } 40\%$$

This shows that with the increase in income people will spend 40% of it on consumption and save 60% of it. Marginal propensity to consume is more than zero (0) and less than one (1). Rise in income leads to increase in expenditure but increase in expenditure is not as much as there is increase in income. Thus, increase in consumption is less as compared to the increase in income.

4. SAVING

After deducting consumption from income whatever amount remains it is called saving. The difference between income and consumption is called saving like -

$$\text{Saving} = \text{Income} - \text{Consumption}$$

4.1 Definition :

According to Keynes, "In fact saving is more than the consumption expenditure. If for example, an economy is generating income worth Rs.2000 crores and its consumption expenditure is Rs.1,500 crores, then saving will be of Rs.500 crores ($\text{Rs.2,000 crores} - \text{Rs.1,500 crores} = \text{Rs.500 crores}$)

Like consumption saving is also a function of income.

Thus, Saving depends on level of income. Generally saving increases with the increase in income and decreases with the decrease in income. The relationship between saving and income is expressed by propensity to save. Propensity to save of two types: (i) Average Propensity to Save (ii) Marginal Propensity to Save.

(i) Average Propensity to Save (APS)

Average propensity to save is the ratio between total saving and total income at a given level of income.

$$\text{Average Propensity to Save (APS)} = \frac{\text{Saving}}{\text{Income}}$$

For example, if income is Rs.100 crores and the saving is Rs.20 crores then Average Propensity to Save i.e.

$$\text{APS} = \frac{20}{100} = 0.2 \text{ or } 20\%$$

(ii) Marginal Propensity to Save (MPS)

Ratio of change in saving caused by change in income is called Marginal Propensity to Save.

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{\text{Change in Saving}}{\text{Change in Income}}$$

If, for example, income increases from Rs.100 crores to Rs.200 crores, it means there is change of Rs.100 crores in income i.e. ($\Delta Y = \text{Rs.200 crores} - \text{Rs.100 crores} = \text{Rs.100 crores}$). Consequently if saving rises from Rs.20 crores to Rs.80 crores then there will be Rs.60 crores change in saving i.e., ($\Delta S = \text{Rs.80 crores} - \text{Rs.20 crores} = \text{Rs.60 crores}$). Therefore,

$$\text{Marginal Propensity to Save (MPS)} = \frac{60}{100} = 0.6 \text{ or } 60\%$$

It indicates that 60% of the income is saved.

5. INVESTMENT

In Economics, "Addition to capital is called Investment." During a year that part of income which is not spent on consumption but is saved for the use of capital formation is called investment. When production is more than consumption during an accounting year, that is called Investment.

5.1. Example

Machines, tools and equipments, raw-materials, rails, roads, buildings, industries means of transport etc. are the examples of investments. Investment is that part of production which is used for further production of goods and services. Investment means, "Increase in real capital which leads to generation of income."

5.2 Definition

According to Prof. J.R. Hichs, "An addition in capital stock is called investment."

5.3. Determinants of Investment

Investment mainly depends upon two factors; one is, rate of profit and the other is, rate of interest. Rate of profit is also called as marginal efficiency of capital.

Every producer compares the rate of profit viz marginal efficiency of capital and rate of interest at the time of investment. He will continue to make investment, till MEC or rate of profit and rate of interest are equal. If the expected profit is greater than the rate of interest, the entrepreneur will increase the investment. On the contrary, if the rate of interest appears to be higher than expected profit, then there will not be any inducement to invest.

5.4 Types of Investment

Investment is mainly of two types:

- (i) Induced investment
- (ii) Autonomous investment

(i) Induced Investment

Induced investment is that investment which depends upon the level of income and profit. It increases with the expectation of rise in income and profit and it decreases with the decrease in its expectation.

(ii) Autonomous Investment

Autonomous investment is that investment which is independent of the level of income. It is not influenced by the expected rate of profit. In fact, it is that investment expenditure which is incurred by the government with a view to promote the level of aggregate demand in an economy, when level of aggregate demand falls short of aggregate supply (resulting in fall in the level of prices and there is reduction in rate of profitability and increase in unemployment) the government intends to push up the level of aggregate demand by way of its own investment - expenditure. Therefore autonomous investment becomes independent of the expectation of profitability and level of income.

In addition to above, there are other types of investments like gross investment and net investment.

(iii) Gross Investment

Total production of capital goods in an economy during one year is called gross investment. This include two types of investments i.e. one is net

investment and other is replacement investment. Replacement investment is that investment which is to be done on the modernisation or replacement due to the depreciation of capital. It maintains the present level of investment. Therefore;

$$\text{Gross Investment} = \text{Net investment} + \text{Replacement Investment.}$$

(iv) Net Investment

Net investment is that investment which results in an increase in capital stock. Deduction of replacement investment or depreciation expenditure from gross investment we can find net investment. Therefore;

$$\text{Net Investment} = \text{Gross Investment} - \text{Cost of Depreciation}$$

In fact net investment results in capital formation.

6. CAPITAL FORMATION

In Economics, that part of income by which more production is possible than before, is called capital formation. The part of income which is not spent on consumption is called saving. If we spend our savings to increase the quantity of capital goods like machines, tools, industries, stock of raw-material or final products etc. then it is called investment. As a result of investment capital goods are produced. An addition to capital stock is called capital formation.

Meaning :- Nowadays, the meaning of word capital formation is taken in two senses:-

(i) Limited Meaning of Capital Formation

According to the limited meaning of capital formation only an addition in the physical stock of physical goods like machines, buildings, industries, raw-material etc is called capital formation.

(ii) Broader Meaning of Capital Formation

According to the broader meaning of capital formation, an addition in the physical stock of capital is not only called capital but it also includes social overhead cost like roads, bridges, rails, canals or increases in human qualities. In fact, the capital formation means addition in the stock of physical and human capital.

6.1 Definition

According to Todaro "Capital formation takes place at a time when part of current income is saved and the same is invested to increase in future income and output. e.g. new industries, machines, tools and raw material etc, promotes physical capital of any nation. Similarly investment in human factors can increase their efficiency".

6.2 Type of Capital Formation

Capital formation can be of two types:-

- (i) Gross Capital formation and
 - (ii) Net Capital formation
- (i) Gross Capital formation means total investment. This includes both net investment and replacement investment or depreciation.
 - (ii) Conversely, net capital formation means an addition to net investment. In order to find out net investment, depreciation etc. is to be subtracted from gross investment. In fact, Capital formation means an addition to net investment.

7. DISGUISED UNEMPLOYMENT

In many underdeveloped countries of the world the population growth is more but sources of employment are less. Thus large number of people remain unemployed in these countries. The main occupation of these countries is agriculture. This is the only occupation in which people get some what employment. Due to lack of employment opportunities in other occupations all the members of a family engage themselves to work in agriculture. As a result more people are doing the same work which can be done by few people. Thus unemployment is disguised in this way.

7.1. Definition

When more number of labourers are engaged in a work than actually required for it, then excess workers unemployment is termed as disguised unemployment. Under such a situation less number of workers for work are needed as compared to the more number of workers actually engaged in that work. It means there are some extra or excess workers engaged in that work.

7.2 Example

In underdeveloped countries, due to the lack of employment opportunities in industries and other fields people are doing work in their own family farms. If some of the workers are withdrawn from the agricultural farms, even then total production will not change. Though such people seems to be employed but actually they are disguised unemployed. This can be explained with the help of an example. Suppose any family has a farm of 4 acres. Four members of that family can work efficiently in this farm with the existing methods of cultivation. But if that family has 8 members and due to the shortage of employment opportunities in other fields, all of the 8 workers are employed in that farm, then it will be said that out of these 8 only 4 workers are actually disguised unemployed. But no one from this lot will consider himself as unemployed worker because all the members are doing some what work. Actually they are doing some part of others work. If four out of these workers

are withdrawn from work even then total production will not change. Thus, their unemployment is called disguised unemployed.

8. FULL EMPLOYMENT

Generally full employment is a situation in which no body is unemployed. In reality it is not an appropriate concept. In the full employment situation there are so many kinds of unemployments. According to classical economists the full employment means a situation in which generally all the people get employment who are willing to work at the prevailing rates of wages.

8.1 Definition

As per Prof Lerner, "Full employment is that situation in which all the people who are willing to work at current rates of wages and they get work without any difficulty."

According to Prof Hansen, "Full employment means non-existence of involuntary unemployment."

Involuntary unemployment is a situation when workers are ready to work at current rates of wages but they do not find any work.

Classical economists agree that such a situation is not generally possible but they also agree if there is no involuntary unemployment and other types of unemployments are found even then such a situation will be called full employment.

8.2 Different types of Unemployment Under Full Employment Situation

As per classical economists following types of unemployment are found in the full employment situation.

(i) Voluntary Unemployment

When labourers are not ready to work at the existing rates of wages or are not willing to work on their own will and inspite of the availability of the work then such an unemployment will be called Voluntary Unemployment.

(ii) Frictional Unemployment

This unemployment arises due to the shortage of raw-materials, immobility of labourers, inadequacy of speical kinds of employment opportunities or due to the wear and tear of machinery.

(iii) Seasonal Unemployment

This unemployment arises due to the changes in season, fashion and interests. For examples, ice factories are closed during winter season.

(iv) Structural Unemployment

This unemployment rises due to the structural changes in the economy, like changes due to the exports etc.

(v) Technical Unemployment

This unemployment arises due to the changes in the techniques of production, like when the labourers do not know how to operate new machines etc.

Despite the existence of above mentioned unemployments, if there is no involuntary unemployment than such a situation will be called full employment.

9. INFLATION

According to Dictionary, the english word 'inflation' means 'expansion or Increase'. When air is filled in the bladder of the football, there it gets inflated. Similarly, in relation to price level 'inflation' means constant rise in prices. In Economics, the constant rise in prices is called inflation.

9.1 Definition

- (i) According to Shapiro, "Inflation is a continuous and extreme rise in general price level."
- (ii) According to Peterson, "The specific meanings of inflation is the permanent and continuous increase in the general price level".

9.2 Example

In India, since the end of the First Five Year Plan (1956), the price level is constantly rising. For example, in 1956 the petrol price was Rupee one per litre which increased to Rs. 69/- per litre in 2012. In 1956, the Gold was Rs.100/- per 10 Gms, which increased to Rs. 33000/- per 10 gms in 2012. Inflation rate in 2011 was 9 percent whereas it fell down to 6.6 percent in January 2012.

Inflation can be shown with the help of price index. Price index is that number by which we know that in comparison to a particular year (which is called a base year) how much changes takes place on an average price level during the current year.

There can be many reasons for inflation but the main cause is that demand for goods is more than their supply. When the demand for goods exceeds their supply then prices start increasing and the problem of inflation arises.

10. SUPPLY OF MONEY

Generally money supply means currency and deposits of banks available with the people of the country.

10.1 Definition

Few definitions of the supply of money are given as following:

(i) According to M.R. Edgmond, "Supply of money means currency and demand deposits available with non-banking public."

(ii) Following concepts of money supply are given by Reserve Bank of India:

$$M_1 = \text{Currency with Public} + \text{Demand Deposits of Banks} + \text{Other Deposits with R.B.I.}$$

$$M_2 = \text{Currency with Public} + \text{Demand Deposits of Banks} + \text{Other Deposits of R.B.I.} + \text{Deposits of Post Office Saving Banks}$$

$$M_3 = \text{Money with Public} + \text{Demand Deposits of Banks} + \text{Other deposit of R.B.I.} + \text{Time deposits of Banks}$$

$$M_4 = \text{Money with Public} + \text{Demand Deposits of Banks} + \text{Deposits of R.B.I.} + \text{Time deposits of Banks} \\ + \text{total deposits of Post Office Saving Banks.}$$

10.2 Supply of Money in India

Following factors are included in the supply of money in India:-

- (i) Currency Notes and Coins available with public (total amount of deposits in Government treasury, excluding the currency of banks and state co-operative banks).
- (ii) Demand deposits of banks and State Co-operative banks (Excluding inter demand deposits of banks).
- (iii) Amount of other saving accounts of R.B.I.
(Excluding the deposit amount of the accounts of International Monetary Fund).

10.3 Elements of Supply of Money

The elements of the supply of money are given as follows:

(1) Currency :

It includes those notes and coins which are in circulation. In India, coins are issued by Govt. of India. Coins in the denomination of Rs.10, Rs.5, Rs.2, Rs.1, Paise 50, Paise 25, are in circulation in India. In our country note of Re one is issued by the Ministry of Finance of the Govt. of India and rest of the notes are issued by Reserve Bank of India. Reserve Bank issue the currency note of Rs.1000, Rs.500, Rs.100, Rs.50, Rs.20, Rs.10, and Rs.5 By keeping reserve of gold and foreign exchange worth Rs.200 crores, Reserve Bank can issue the currency notes of any denomination.

(2) Bank Deposit

Bank deposits are of two types i.e. Time deposit and Demand deposit.

Time deposit is for a fixed period of time. Such type of deposit can not be withdrawn with cheque whereas the amount kept in the form of demand deposit can be withdrawn at any time by the will of depositor. Generally supply of money includes demand deposits.

11. GOVERNMENT BUDGET

Every government prepares the detailed account of its estimated revenue and expenditure. It is called Government Budget. Indian Government generally present its budget in Lok Sabha on Feb 28th of every year.

11.1 Definition

Government Budget is an annual statement of estimated revenue and expenditure of the government.

11.2 Types of Budget

The government budget can be of three types:-

(i) Balanced Budget

A balanced budget is that budget in which revenue and expenditure of the government are equal.

(ii) Surplus Budget

Surplus budget is the budget in which revenue of government exceed its expenditure. As a result of it, there is a deficiency in the aggregate demand. Such type of budget is suitable for a situation when there is increase in aggregate demand.

(iii) Deficit Budget

The deficit budget is the budget in which expenditure of the government exceeds its revenue. As a result aggregate demand increase. Such type of budget is suitable when there is a situation of deficiency of aggregate demand.

11.3 Example

Following are the main items of the Budget of Government of India:-

- (a) Items of Revenue :- Corporation tax, income tax, import-export duty, excise duty, central sale tax, interest and income from government enterprises.
- (b) Main Items of Expenditure :- Defence, police, Administration, education, health, social welfare, industry, agriculture, planning, rural development etc. As per proposed budget of 2011-12 govt. of India estimated the revenue of Rs. 7,89,892 crores and expenditure of Rs. 12,57,729 crores.

12. DEFICIT FINANCING

Deficit financing is the method by which government meets the budgetary deficits by taking loans from the Central Bank. Central Bank meets this deficit by printing new currency notes. Consequently money supply increases and prices are expected to rise. Deficit financing is one method to meet the

deficit of Govt. Budget. When aggregate expenditure exceeds aggregate revenue then the government has to face deficit. When any of the following methods is taken in order to meet this deficit, then it is called deficit financing.

- (i) Borrowing from Central Bank by government to meet the deficit. Central Bank gives this loan by printing new currency notes.
- (ii) This deficit is met by taking out the cash balance from government treasury.
- (iii) To issue new currency notes by the govt. other than already issued by the Reserve Bank of India.

By applying the above three methods there is an increase in the supply of money in the country. In India the major portion of the Deficit financing is met by taking loans from the Reserve Bank. Government gives government securities to Reserve Bank in return for taking loans. Reserve Bank prints new notes by keeping government securities in reserve fund and gives loan to the government. In this way, the supply of money increases which results in rise in the price level.

12.1 Definition

According to Dr.V.K., R.V. Rao, “ When the Government deliberately keeps the differences in public revenue and expenditure and creates deficit in the Budget and meets this deficit by such method which increases the supply of money, then it is called deficit financing.”

13. PUBLIC FINANCE

It is the combination of two words i.e. Public + Finance. Public means group of people who are represented by the government and finance means monetary factor. Thus Public Finance means the financial sources of the government i.e. revenue and expenditure. That portion of economics in which the problems of revenue and expenditure are discussed is called public finance. Thus, public finance is the study of the problems of government institutions concerning central, state and local governments. Public finance includes revenue of government i.e. tax, interest, profit etc. Public expenditure includes defence, Administration, education, health, industries, agriculture etc. Public debts are also studied under Public Finance.

The economic activities of the government of the country have also increased with the passage of time. The area of public finance has also been widened. It studies not only the revenue and expenditure of the government but it also studies all economic activities of the Govt. concerning special economic objectives like full employment, economic development, income and equal distribution of wealth, price stability etc.

- (ii) **External Debt** :- External debts are debts which are obtained from foreign and international institutions, foreign banks etc. These are taken in the shape of foreign exchange. The principal and the interest of all these debts are to be repaid in the form of foreign exchange.

15. POVERTY LINE

One method to measure the poverty of any country is the concept of poverty line. The number of people below the poverty line are considered to be poor.

15.1 Definition

The concept of poverty line means that money which is necessary for an individual for the minimum level of consumption. The level of poverty line considered to be equal to that amount which is essential for the survival of an individual to fulfill the minimum monthly requirements. Minimum needs include minimum human necessities of food, clothing, housing, education and health etc. Non-fulfilment of these minimum needs cause lot of sufferings and distress to the human being and as a result there is a loss of their health and efficiency. Consequently, to increase production or to get rid of poverty in future becomes difficult. Poverty and fall in productivity are thus inter-related.

15.2 Extent of Poverty Line in India

With the change in the level of prices the extent of poverty line also changes. Expert Committee appointed by the Planning Commission in 1962 had adopted the minimum consumption level in order to fix the poverty line. As per the committee, those people will be considered below the poverty line whose monthly consumption is less than Rs.20 per month on the prices of 1960-61. In 1968-69, the people getting less than Rs.40 were considered to be below poverty line. According to the above given yardstick, the population below poverty was 17.67 crores and 21.6 in the year 1960-61 and 1968-69 respectively. On account of rise in the cost of living index in year 1976-77, the people were considered to be below poverty line whose income was below Rs.62 in rural areas and Rs.71 in urban areas. In 1977-78 the number of such people in rural and urban areas was 23.9 crores and 5.5 crores respectively.

According to the approach of Sixth Five Year Plan those people will be considered to be below poverty line whose monthly consumption expenditure based on the prices of 1979-80 was less than Rs.76 in rural areas and Rs.88 in urban areas. The number of such people was 26 crore in rural areas and 5.7 crore in urban areas. So 31.7 crore population was living below the poverty line in the entire country. According to the organised group under Sixth Five Year Plan, at 1984-85 prices, an expenditure of Rs.107 per person for rural areas and Rs.122 per person for urban areas was considered to be below poverty line.

According to Seventh Plan, at 1988-89 prices, per month consumption of Rs.152 in urban areas and of Rs.132 in rural areas was considered to be below poverty line. According to the National Sample Survey, at 1993-94 prices, people spending Rs.229 in rural areas and Rs.264 in urban areas will be considered to be below poverty line. In 2009-10 those people will be considered below the poverty line whose daily consumption is Rs 28.65 in urban areas and Rs 22.42 in rural areas.

According to National Income Survey, the number of persons living below the poverty line was 20 crore in 1987-88. In 1993-94, 32 crore people were living below poverty line in the country. This was 36% of the total population. In 1993-94, 35% people in rural areas and 41% people in urban areas were living below the poverty line. So the number of people living below the poverty line is continuously increasing. In 1996-97, 30% of the total population was living below the poverty line. According to the economic survey- 2007-08 26 Crore people are poor in India. More than $\frac{1}{5}$ of poor in world line in India.

In India the number of poor people is different in different states. It is estimated that maximum number of poor people are in U.P., Bihar, M.P. and Orissa. In the year 2009-10, In U.P. 37.7%, in Bihar 53.5%, in Orissa 37% and in Tamil Nadu 17.1% of population is living below poverty line. In Punjab 15.9% population, which means minimum of all other states is living below the poverty line. In Haryana 20.1% and in H.P. 9.5% population is living below poverty line.

16. GROWTH RATE

The economic progress of every economy is explained by growth rate. Growth rate implies that in comparison to a particular year with any other year how much percentage change took place in any economic element e.g. national income, per capita income etc. Growth rate is always expressed in percentages.

16.1 Definition

Growth rate is that percentage rate from which it is known that in comparison to one year how much percentage change has taken place in national income or per capita income in any other year.

16.2 Example

The calculation of growth rate can be made clear with the help of an example. Suppose in 1996 per capita income in India was Rs.8000. This increased to Rs.10,000 in 1997. The growth rate of per capita income can be achieved with the following method:-

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Change in per capita income in 1997 as compared to 1996} \\ &= \text{Rs.10,000} - \text{Rs.8000} = \text{Rs.2000} \\ \text{Original per capita income} &= \text{Rs.8000} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Per Capita Income Growth Rate} &= \frac{\text{Change in Per Capita Income}}{\text{Original Per Capita Income}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{\text{Rs. } 2000}{\text{Rs. } 8000} \times 100 = 25\% \end{aligned}$$

∴ Per Capita Income Growth Rate = 25%.

17. FOREIGN AID

In Economics, the term foreign aid is used in wider sense. It includes foreign capital, foreign loan and foreign grants.

17.1 Definition

Foreign Aid means capital investment, loans and grants in any country by foreign govts, foreign individuals, foreign trade organisations, foreign banks and international institutions.

17.2 Types of Foreign Aid

Foreign aid can be received in the following forms:-

- (i) **Foreign Capital :-** By foreign capital we mean investment in the productive activities of any country by the foreigners. Foreign capital can be invested in three ways:-
- (a) In the first form, foreign capital can be invested in the form of Direct Foreign Investment which means foreign companies can set-up companies in other countries and manage them.
 - (b) Foreign Capital's second form is foreign co-operation, under this foreign and domestic entrepreneurs set-up joint ventures.
 - (c) Foreign Capital's third form is portfolio investment. This investment is done by foreign companies in the shares or debentures of the companies of any other country.

(ii) **Foreign Loans :-**

Foreign loans are taken from foreign countries, trade organisations and international institutions. The foreign loans which are taken for long time and at low rate of interest, are called soft loans. Contrary to it, those loans which are taken for short period and at higher rate of interest, are called hard loans.

(iii) **Foreign Grants :-**

Foreign grants are that part of foreign aid which are received from foreign governments and institutions as assistance and which are not to be repaid. No interest is to be paid on it.

18. BALANCE OF PAYMENT

Different countries of the world trade with each other. They trade in goods, services and capital. The goods and services received by a country from other countries are called imports e.g. India imports petrol from Iran. On the contrary, the goods and services sent by one country to other countries are called exports. For example, India exports tea to Iraq. One country has to make payment to other countries for imports and other countries get money for exports. The account of receipts and payments of the govt of one country from other countries during a period of one year is called Balance of Payments.

18.1 Definition

In the words of Kindal Burger, "A country's balance of payment is the chronological record of economic transactions done by the residents of that country with the foreigners."

18.2 Items of Balance of Payment

Items of balance of payment can be divided into two parts"-

- (1) **Items of Current Account** :- The main items of current account are as follows :-
 - (i) Import and export of tangible goods e.g. cloth, machines, tea etc. which are clearly visible. The difference in import and export of these goods is called Balance of Trade.
 - (ii) Intangible or invisible goods e.g. the services given by Insurance companies, banks, doctors, engineers, shipping, foreign travels, govt. transactions, investment, income, charity, gift tax and advertisement etc. are included in the items of current account of imports and exports.
- (2) **Items of Capital Accounts** :- The main items of capital account are private loans, bank capital, govt. capital, import and export of gold etc.

If imports on current account are more than exports then balance of payment is of deficit or unfavourable nature as India's balance of payment is of deficit or unfavourable nature. This deficit is corrected through capital account. This deficit is corrected either by sending gold or foreign currency or by taking loans from foreign countries. If exports are more than imports then balance of payment becomes favourable. As a result of it there is a flow of gold or foreign currency. If exports and imports are equal then balance of payment is favourable. Infact deficit or surplus on current account is balanced through capital account. Therefore, it is said that balance of payment is always balanced.

19. MONETARY POLICY

Monetary policy is that policy through which the govt. of any country or the Central Bank in order to achieve certain objectives controls,

- (i) the supply of money
- (ii) the cost of money or rate of interest and
- (iii) the availability of money

Main aims of monetary policy :- (I) Stability of price (II) Full employment (III) economic development (IV) Stability in Exchange Rate (V) Decrease in economic inequality.

19.1 Definition

According to D.C Austen, “ Monetary policy is related to affect the level and structure of aggregate demand by controlling the rate of interest and the availability of credit.”

19.2 Methods of Monetary Policy

Following are the main methods of monetary policy which are adopted by Central bank i.e. Reserve Bank to control the credit:-

- (i) **Bank Rate :-** Bank rate is an important method of credit control. Bank rate is that rate of interest at which the Central Bank of the country provides credit to other banks. With the increase in bank rate, the rate of interest increases and credit becomes costly. On the contrary, if bank rate declines, credit becomes cheaper. In order to overcome depression the bank rate is lowered. As a result of it, credit creation takes place and there is increase in demand. In order to overcome inflation, bank rate is increased and as a result of it there is credit contraction and there is decrease in demand.
- (ii) **Open Market Operations :-** By open market operations we mean buying and selling of securities in the open market by the Central Bank of the country. During depression central bank purchases securities. As a result of it, there is increase in the direct and indirect cash reserved with the banks. With the increase in cash reserves, there is multiple increase in the accumulated cash balances. As a result of it, there is credit expansion and increase in demand. During inflation, central bank sells the securities. As a result of it, the cash reserve with the banks are reduced. With the reduction in cash reserves, there is multiple decrease in the accumulated cash balances with the banks. Consequently, there is credit contraction and decrease in demand.
- (iii) **Change in Minimum Reserve Ratio :-** All the banks are required to keep a fixed percentage of cash reserves with the central bank. For example, if the minimum CRR is 10% and a bank has cash reserves of worth Rs.100 crores, then it will have to deposit Rs.10 crores with the Central Bank and with the balance of Rs.90 crores it will create more credit. If the CRR is lowered then banks will be able to create more credit which means they will be able to provide more credit. During

the times of depression CRR is lowered and during inflation CRR is increased.

- (iv) **Change in Liquidity Ratio** :- According to this method every bank is required to keep a fixed proportion of its deposit amount in the form of cash. It is called liquidity ratio which means banks can not lend this money. During depression Central Bank reduces this liquidity ratio. As a result of it banks are able to provide more credit. In this way there is credit expansion and there is increase in demand. During inflation Central Bank increases the liquidity ratio. As a result, Banks can give less credit to the public. Thus there is a credit Contraction.
- (v) **Change in Marginal Requirement of Loan** :- By change is margin requirement we mean the difference between the security on loan at the current prices and the amount of loan. For example if a person has given a security worth Rs.100 and if the marginal requirement is 20% then bank can give credit worth Rs.80 retaining Rs.20 as marginal requirement. If the marginal requirement is increased then the public will be able to get less credit and there will be credit contraction. On the contrary, If the marginal requirement is decreased there will be credit expansion. In short, during depression the marginal requirement is decreased and during inflation, marginal requirement is increased.

20. FISCAL POLICY

In the modern age, there has been tremendous increase in the economic activities of the Government. Govt. by bringing changes in its income and expenditure, can affect the aggregate demand to a large extent. The policy related to the government's income and expenditure is called as fiscal policy. The objectives of the fiscal policy are : (i) Economic development (ii) Price Stability (iii) Exchange Rate Stability (iv) Full Employment and (v) Economic Equality.

20.1 Definition

In the words of Dalton, "To achieve the pre-determined objectives, the policy of the govt. regarding income, expenditure and credit is called fiscal policy."

20.2 Method of Fiscal Policy

- (1) **Public Income** :- There are three main elements of public income.
- (i) **Taxes** :- Tax is such a necessary payment which is paid to the govt. according to the law. Taxes are of two types : -
- (a) Direct taxes and (b) Indirect taxes

Direct taxes are those taxes which are imposed on the income and wealth of an individual e.g. income tax, wealth tax and gift tax etc. On the

contrary, indirect taxes are those taxes which are imposed on the commodities. The burden of these taxes is shifted to some other individual. For example, Sale tax, Production tax and Entertainment tax etc.

- (ii) **Public Debt :-** The amount which is collected by the govt. from public as loans is called public debt.
 - (iii) **Deficit Financing :-** Deficit financing is that method with which government meets its deficit by taking loans from the central bank. Central bank gives these loans by printing new notes. As a result of it, supply of money increases.
2. **Public Expenditure :-** The expenditures incurred by the government are called Public Expenditure. These can be of four types:-
- (i) **Public Works :-** The expenditure incurred on the roads, dams and bridges etc.
 - (ii) **Public Welfare Works :-** The expenditure incurred on education, public health etc.
 - (iii) The expenditures on the security and law and order of the country like on Police, Prisons etc.
 - (iv) The expenditure on subsidies given to the producers to increase production, exports and transfer payments.

In this way, Government can control depression and inflation by making changes in public revenue and expenditure.

QUESTIONS

- I. Very short Answer Type Questions :**
1. Define national income.
 2. Define per capita income.
 3. What is meant by consumption?
 4. Define marginal propensity to consume.
 5. What is meant by average propensity to consume?
 6. Define marginal propensity to save.
 7. Define investment.
 8. What is meant by induced investment.
 9. What is meant by autonomous investment.
 10. What is capital formation.
 11. What is meant by disguised unemployment?
 12. Define full employment.
 13. What is meant by inflation?
 14. What is meant by supply of money?

15. Write a note on government budget.
 16. What is meant by deficit financing?
 17. How many people are considered to be below poverty line in India?
 18. How growth rate is determined?
 19. What is meant by foreign aid?
 20. Define balance of payment.
 21. What is meant by monetary policy?
 22. What is meant by fiscal policy?
- II. Short Answer Type Questions :**
1. Define National Income. What is the difference between National Income and Domestic Income?
 2. What is meant by Per Capita Income? How can you estimate Per Capita Income?
 3. What do you mean by Consumption? Define Average Propensity to Consume and Marginal Propensity to Consume.
 4. What do you mean by Savings? Define Average Propensity to Save and Marginal Propensity to Save.
 5. Define Investment. What are the elements of determining the Investment?
 6. What is meant by Capital Formation? What is the difference between Gross Capital Formation and Net Capital Formation?
 7. Define Disguised unemployment. Explain it with the help of an example.
 8. What is meant by full employment? What is the meaning of structural unemployment and Technical Unemployment?
 9. What is meant by inflation? Explain it.
 10. What is the meaning of supply of money? Explain the concepts of supply of money given by Reserve Bank of India.
 11. What is Budget? What are the main components of income and expenditure in the budget of Indian Govt?
 12. Define deficit financing? What methods are included in it.
 13. What is meant by Public Finance? Explain direct and indirect taxes, with examples.
 14. What is meant by Public Expenditure? How many types of public expenditure are possible?
 15. Explain the concept of Poverty Line. What are the limits of poverty line in India?
 16. Define growth rate. How it can be calculated?
 17. What is meant by foreign aid? What are its main forms?
 18. Define balance of payment. What are the main items of balance of payment?
 19. Define monetary policy. What are its main methods?
 20. Define fiscal policy. What are its main methods?

CHAPTER 2

INFRASTRUCTURE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY

1. INTRODUCTION

Every man as a consumer and producer, for the satisfaction of his wants demands not only goods but services as well. For example, a consumer demands not only food, clothing and housing, radio or refrigerators etc but he demands services like health, education and transport etc. as well. Such services are called consumer services. In the similar way, a producer needs various kinds of services such as transport services to transport raw-material to industries and finished goods from industries to the market, power for the operation of machines, irrigational facilities to irrigate the farms, for increasing the efficiency of labour educational and health services are needed. Such services are called producers services or inputs for the provisions of services both for producers and consumers some facilities like construction of power houses, roads, buses, hospitals and schools have to be created. All such common facilities creating production services are a part of capital stock like the stock of other capital goods such as machine tools, raw-material and goods manufacturing factories.

Thus capital stock is of two types, one which produces goods like factories or machines and the others which provide services like roads, power houses, canals, hospitals and schools etc.

2. MEANING OF INFRASTRUCTURE

The part of the Capital stock of the economy which is necessary from the viewpoint of providing various kinds of services is called infrastructure. In short, infrastructure means those activities, facilities and services which are helpful in the operation and development of other sectors. For example, Roads, Rails and buses offering transport services, canals and dams facilitating irrigation of land and hospitals providing health services are considered as infrastructure.

2.1 Importance of Infrastructure

For the development of every country infrastructure like electricity, transport and means of Communication are of vital importance. This is the first phase of economic progress. Their sufficient quantity means a strong base and their insufficiency is the greatest hindrance in the path of economic development.

In every underdeveloped country there is a need of availability of infrastructure in a sufficient quantity. Lack of infrastructure facilities will create hurdles in the development of industries and agriculture sectors, as a result of it their rate of growth will come down. For example, we daily feel that industrial and agriculture sectors suffer a lot on account of shortage of power. Similarly, if there is a lack of transport facilities then industries will not be able to get raw-material and their finished goods will also not reach the market in time.

Thus, insufficiency of economic infrastructure will bring down the rate of growth of production sectors like industries and agriculture etc. On the contrary, the sufficient availability of economic infrastructure will be helpful in acceleration of their development.

According to World Development Report, 1994, "The sufficient availability of infrastructure will be helpful in determining the success of one country and failure of another, in the diversification of production, expansion of business, solution of the problem of growth of population, reduction of poverty and improving the environment."

Solid base of infrastructure increases production and decreases cost. But its development should be fast and ahead of other sectors development. According to the World Bank, the development and infrastructure has a direct and proportional relationship. This implies that one percent increase in infrastructure will lead to one percent increase in productivity. Some economists like Nurkse, Hirschman etc. call infrastructure as the social overhead cost.

3. ECONOMIC INFRASTRUCTURE

Economic infrastructure refers to that capital stock which offers various types of productive services directly to the producers. For example, country's transportation system like Railways, Roads, Airways provides services to the one part of production and distribution system only. Similarly, Banking System, money and capital market provide services to the other part of industries and agriculture.

Following are main components of economic infrastructure:-

- (i) Transport and Communication
- (ii) Electric Power
- (iii) Irrigation
- (iv) Banking and other Financial Institutions

Now we shall take up their detailed discussion as following :-

3.1 Transport and Communication

Transport system of any country means all the different modes of transport which are used to carry people and goods from one place to the other. These means includes railways, roadways, airways and water transport. Communication means includes post and telegraph as well as services of telephone, radio and television network etc.

3.2 Means of Transport

Means of transport facilitate the movement of goods and people from one place to another. In an economy, which mode to transport will be more appropriate depends upon the nature of economic interdependence between different regions of the country. If different regions of the country are

economically interdependent as were village communities in India, there we need those transport means which are the cheapest for short distance routes. That is why there is a more use of bullock carts, camels, mules and traditional boats etc. as a means of transport in India. If on the other hand, different regions of the country are highly interdependent then we need those means of transport that will cover longer distance with heavy loads as a cheapest and fastest mode. The examples are Railways, Buses, Trucks, Ships and aeroplanes. In order to bring parity between economic development and industrialisation there is a increased tendency of economic interdependence between different regions of the country. Big industries in the country have to bring their raw-material from far-flung areas and to sell their finished products at distant places. Similarly, people have to travel long distances in connection with their business and employment. Thus, modern modes of transport like railways, buses, trucks, ships and aeroplanes are of paramount importance in India. Some of the important means of transport are given as follows :—

1. Railways

Railway is the cheapest means of transport for bringing passengers and heavy materials from the longer distance. The first railway line in India was made in 1853 between Bombay and Thana. Indian Railways is the biggest organisation in Asia and ranks 4th in the world. Total length of the railway track in India is 115,000 kilometers. On an average, almost 20000 trains run every day between 7500 stations transporting about 20 million passengers and 2.8 million tons of goods.

2. Road Transport

Road transport is emerging as another important means of transport in India. There has been a significant growth of roads after independence. This includes trucks, buses, cars, scooters, motor-cycles, cycles, bullock-carts etc. Road transport system in India includes various national highways, state highways, district roads, rural roads and border roads. In different states of India, State Road Transport Corporations have contributed a great deal to the growth of road transport. They have spent a huge expenditure on the development of good buses, Bus Depots, Bus Stands and tourist resorts in order to make the road transport more facilitating and comfortable. The significance of road transport in India is increasing day by day.

3. Water Transport

In India, the third important means of transport is water transport. Among the developed countries, Indian Shipping occupies first position, 2nd position in Asia and 16th position in the world. Water transport is divided into three categories:

- (i) Inland Water Transport
- (ii) Coastal Water Transport

(iii) Sea Transport or International Water Transport

Water transport is facilitated through various harbours (ports) at Mumbai, Kolkata, Haldia, Chennai, Bangalore, Vishakhapatnam. 'Indian Shipping Corporation' and 'Mughaldines' are the two important water transport companies in the public sector in India. Besides, there are many shipping companies in the private sector.

4. Air Transport

It is the fastest but costliest means of transport in India. In India (i) Indian Airlines Corporation, (ii) Air India International and (iii) Vayudoot, are three important public sector undertakings in the area of air transport. Indian Airlines officially merged into Air India on 27 February 2011. On 1st April, 1997, flight operations of Vayudoot were transferred to Indian Airlines and its employees were absorbed into Indian Airlines and Air India. After 1992 various private companies have also entered in air transport sector. In India there are 17 International Airports which are controlled by International Airports Authority of India.

3.3 Means of Communication

Means of communication are to be considered as a part of both social as well as economic infrastructure. Post, Telegraph, Telephone, Radio, Television, Fax, Cinema, Newspaper and Magazines etc. are the important means of communication in India. In the context of economic infrastructure, means of communication give useful information on changes in the market demand and supply situations. On the basis of this information producers, investors and consumers take important economic decisions. It is difficult to take decisions regarding production and distribution without the proper information about demand and supply conditions.

In the context of social-infrastructure, Radio, Television, Newspaper and Magazines play an important role in the spread of education and the knowledge of people. Thus, the means of communication are very vital for every economy.

4. ELECTRIC POWER

Electric power or Electricity occupies very significant place in the economic infrastructure of every country. The quantum of electricity consumed by a country is being considered as the index of its industrialisation and economic development. Prior to independence per capita power consumption was very low in India, but it has shown sustained rise after independence. The increasing consumption of electric power shows more establishment of modern industries and developing nature of the economy.

There are three important sources of power in India :-

- (i) **Thermal Power**
- (ii) **Hydel Power and**
- (iii) **Nuclear Power**

- (i) **Thermal Power :-** Thermal power is generated by the use of coal at thermal power stations. This is the chief source of power generation in India. It constitutes 68% of total power generation in India.
- (ii) **Hydro-Electric Power :-** Hydro-electric power is generated by building high dams on the fast flowing rivers and by moving machines with this water. Development of Multi-purpose River Valley Projects have helped in increasing the generation of hydro-electric power in India.
- (iii) **Nuclear Power :-** India is one of the few countries in the world which have the capacity to generate nuclear power. India has huge quantity of minerals to generate nuclear power but still very less quantity of nuclear power is being generated.

During Five Year Plans, rural electrification has increased manifold. In many states like Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Himachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh etc, there is a complete rural electrification. However, still 16% of the villages in India are without electricity. In rural areas, a huge quantity of power is being used to operate pumpsets for minor irrigation purposes.

4.1 Irrigation

Agricultural water requirements can be met in two ways – first by natural means like – rainfall and second through permanent means of irrigation like – wells, tubewells, ponds, canals etc. Significance of these means of irrigation for agriculture purpose is evident from the following factors:-

- (1) **Uncertainty of Rainfall** – In India, rainfall depends on monsoon and monsoon is uncertain. In every four or five years there are draughts and sometimes there is heavy rainfall. Besides, the time of rainfall is uncertain. Sometimes monsoon starts very early and sometimes it starts very late. It is, therefore said that, “Indian agriculture is a gamble of monsoons.”
- (2) **Unequal Distribution of Rainfall** – Distribution of rainfall is highly unequal across different regions of the country. In some regions, there is very high rainfall while in others it is very low. Therefore, in regions of deficient rainfall irrigation has become very significant.
- (3) **Timing or Duration of Rainfall** – In India, duration of rainfall due to monsoon is also very limited. Rains occur largely from July to September. Winter rainfall occur only in states like Punjab, Haryana and Tamil Nadu. Therefore, irrigation is very much essential in order to grow two crops in a year. In India irrigational projects are mainly of two types:-

- (i) **Large Irrigational Projects or Multipurpose River Projects**

Multi-purpose projects are those projects which serve many objectives

simultaneously like irrigation, flood control and generation of electricity. Under these projects dams are constructed to store up the flood water of rivers during the rainy season. Many purposes are served by the sources of stored water like:

- (1) The stored water under this source is brought to the fields for irrigation through canals and water channels throughout the year. So it makes the irrigation possible for whole of the year.
- (2) The electricity is generated when the stored water is thrown from the height of the dam. Electricity is used not only for industries, railways, commercial and domestic purposes but it is also used for operation of pumpsets and tubewells to irrigate the fields.
- (3) Floods can be controlled by making check dams on the rivers. Bhakra-Nangal Projects, Damodar Valley Projects are the notable examples of multi-purpose irrigational projects in India.

(ii) Minor Irrigation Projects

The main projects in minor Irrigation projects include tubewells, wells, power operated pumpsets as well as small catchment areas. These projects are very much important for irrigating water deficient areas.

5. BANKING AND OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Monetary economic infrastructure in Indian economy means banking system, non-banking institutions, capital market and the controller of all these i.e. RBI (Reserve Bank of India). These monetary institutions are explained in the following ways :-

(i) Money-lender

In India, traditional bankers or money lenders are crediting or debting money from good old times. They charge a very high rate of interest.

(ii) Reserve Bank of India

This is the Central bank of India. It was established in 1935. Its main functions are: to issue currency notes, to acts as a banker of government banks and to regulate and control the monetary system of the country.

(iii) Commercial Banks

Commercial banks occupy an important place in the banking system of India. These banks generally give short term loans. In 1969, 14 Banks and in 1980, 7 more banks i.e., total 21 commercial banks have been nationalised. Nationalisation implies that government of the country has become the owner of these banks. Now the banks are expanding their branches in urban as well as in rural areas. Nationalised banks have given more importance to social welfare along with profitability. These banks offer loans to the poor and backward sections of the society at the low rate of interest.

(iv) Specific Banking Institutions

After independence, many specific financial institutions were established to meet the long term credit requirements of agriculture, industry and foreign trade. For example, Industrial Development Bank of India, Indian Industrial Finance Corporation and small Industries Development Bank etc. were established to meet the credit requirements of the industrial sector. For agricultural sector, credits are offered by Co-operative societies, Rural Agriculture Banks, Land Development Banks and National Agriculture and Rural Development Bank (NABARD). Import-Export Bank is established to give financial help to foreign trade.

(v) Non-Banking Financial Institutions

These are those financial institutions which raise money from the public and other sources and offer loan of that money or make investment. However, these institutions do not deal in the routine banking functions such as withdrawal of money through cheque system, issuing the draft and discounting the bills of exchange etc. Unit Trust of India and Life Insurance Corporation of India are the two notable examples of non-banking financial institutions in India.

(vi) Stock-Exchange

These are those institutions which deal in the sale and purchase of shares and debentures of companies. All these institutions are also called share markets.

In short, in the economic development of the Indian Economy, the financial infrastructure such as education, health and housing, and economic infrastructure such as transport, irrigation, power, banking etc. play a very significant role.

6. CONSUMER EXPLOITATION AND PROTECTION

The modern era is an era of consumerism. A variety of new goods are supplied in the market daily for the utility and comfortability of the consumers. New food products, new fashion garments, decorative items, household gadgets, new means of transport, modern means (equipments) of entertainment like – coloured television, video etc. are being invented and produced continuously. Advertisements and publicity are being used at large scale to introduce or to make available these goods to the consumers. Now a days a consumer chooses his consumption material on the basis of attractive advertisements and publicity of different producers. In this way, they are exploited in many ways. To protect the consumers from such type of exploitation, Consumer Protection Measures have been started.

6.1 Consumer Exploitation

In modern Indian Economy, consumer is the most confused and unorganised person. Trading classes are putting their all out efforts to exploit the consumers. Adulteration, sub-standard packed goods, use of non-standard

weights or misleading and fabricated advertisements and unfair Monopolistic and Restricted Trade Practices (MRTP) are such activities which exploit the consumers in a large extent. Guarantee and warranty of durable goods like – refrigerator, television, air-cooler, washing machines and means of transport seems to be an imagination. Traders do not care for their promises and guarantees but they try to get rid of their responsibilities. According to a Judge of Madras High Court, “Consumers have to pay high rates of freight for unhygienic rail wagons and insanitary conditions of rail-toiletries. They have to foot the bills of telephones without getting any service from them. They have to drive their vehicles on risky roads. Pedestrians do not find any footpaths. Postal services (Dak or letters) do not reach in time. They have to eat adulterated food. They have to drink polluted water and breathe in poisonous air. In spite of the monopoly of Government on goods and services, inadequate supply of essential goods and public services like power, transportation, communication and banking services are uncountable examples which explain the tragic story of the consumers.

Producers and traders exploit the consumers in many ways such as:-

- (i) Mis-information regarding quality of the product,
- (ii) Adulteration,
- (iii) Use of non-standard weights and measures,
- (iv) Supply of sub-standard products,
- (v) Non-fulfilment of the sales guarantees,
- (vi) No timely supply of goods, even after taking the advance.

6.2 Meaning of Consumer Protection

Consumer protection means the protection of the buyers of consumers goods from the exploitation of the unfair trade practices of the producers.

6.3 Methods of Consumer Protection

To protect the interests of the consumers and small producers from the monopolists and big producers, ‘Monopoly and Restrictive Trade Practices Act’ was passed in 1969 in India. This led to the establishment of Monopoly and Restrictive Trade Practices Commission. This commission check the malpractices of big producers such as to increase the price by creating scarcity of the good in the market, to decrease the quality of the goods and to stop the competition etc. In 1991, by making changes in this Act for checking unfair trade practices it was made more effective than before. However, the main limitation of this act is that it does not protect the consumers from the exploitation by medium and small scale industries and traders.

For protecting consumers interests from all categories of producers, ‘Consumers Protection Act, 1986’ was passed and this act came into force from 1987. This act covers all goods and services other than those specifically exempted

by the central government. All public, private, joint and co-operative enterprises come within the purview of this act. In accordance with this act, in order to redress the grievances of the consumers at very low expenses and for their early disposal, 'Consumers Disputes Redressal Forums,' have been established at the (i) district (ii) state and (iii) national levels. Along with this, 'Consumer Protection Councils' have also been established to protect the interests of consumers at the central and state level.

6.4 Main Features of Consumer Protection Act, 1986 -

The main features of Consumer Protection Act, 1986 are as follows :-

- (1) **Scope** - All sellers of private, public and co-operative sectors come within the purview of this act.
- (2) **Simple and Inexpensive Redresses** - This act offers simple and inexpensive redressal to the consumers' grievances. The complainant need not engage any advocate. He has to lodge his complaint in writing, mentioning the name and address of the party against whom the complaint is being lodged.
- (3) **Three-Tier Grievances Redressal Machinery** - Under this act in order to solve the problems of consumers a three-tier machinery has been set up :-
 - (i) **District Forum** :- This forum decides the complaints the value of which is less than Rs. 5 lacs.
 - (ii) **State Forum** :- These forums decides the complaints involving an amount which is between 5 lacs and 20 lacs.
 - (iii) **National Forum** :- This forum decides complaints which are more than 20 lacs in value.
- (4) **Complaint** :- Consumer can lodge the following type of complaints within two years from the date of the purchase of the good in case:
 - (i) He has to suffer a loss because of the unfair trade practice of the trader.
 - (ii) There is any defect in the purchased goods or services.
 - (iii) The trader has charged more than the written price or the price fixed by the government.

6.5 Consumer Education

To protect the interests of the consumers, it is very much essential to educate them. It is with this view that the consumer's week is celebrated throughout the country between March 15 and March 21 every year. During these days more stress is given on awareness among the consumers regarding their rights. The occasion is marked by various exhibitions, Seminars and street plays. Consumers are apprised of the possible unfair trade malpractices of

short-weights and measures, adulteration and the like. To arouse awareness among the consumers publication of 'Upbhokta Jagran' (consumer awareness) was launched in 1991. Central Consumer Protection Council has been established by the Central government. Similarly at state level, State Consumers Protection Councils have been set-up. In fact, the importance given to the consumers protection is a significant sign towards economic progress.

6.6 Consumer Organisation

Today, there are about 500 consumer organisations. These organisations have contributed a lot to protect the interests of the consumers some of these organisations are :

- (1) Consumer Direction Society, Mumbai.
- (2) Consumer Action Forum, Kolkata.
- (3) Citizen's Forum.
- (4) The Voice, New Delhi.
- (5) Mumbai Customer Panchayat System etc.

7. PUBLIC DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM

The Government of India tries to distribute the necessities of life like wheat, rice, sugar, kerosene oil, cloth etc. to the poor people of the country at low prices. To meet this objective, Public Distribution System, has been set-up.

7.1 Definition :- Through Public Distribution System Government distributes the necessities of life like foodgrains, sugar, kerosene, coarse cloth etc. at concessional prices through Fair Price shops at fixed quantity to the general public especially to the poor sections of the society.

7.2 Necessity :- The need of Public Distribution System was felt because market forces of demand and supply could not distribute the necessities of life like foodgrains, sugar, kerosene, coarse cloth etc. from the social point of view. The effective forces of demand and supply are responsible for the following causes :-

- (1) Inadequate Production:- In India the supply of essential commodities of life is less than demand because of three reasons:-
 - (a) Inadequate Production,
 - (b) Lack of warehouses and selling facilities,
 - (c) Hoarding which results like speculative and black marketing evils.
- (2) Poverty :- Poverty ridden consumers are less expected to purchase essential goods at market price. As a result of it the problems of starvation and mal-nutrition are expected to arise.

7.3 Constituents of Public Distribution System

There are three constituents of Public Distribution System in India:-

- (i) **Procurement at Minimum Prices :-** Government of India procured the foodgrains at the prices fixed on the recommendations of the commission for Agricultural costs and prices. If the market prices fall below these prices, then the government itself purchases the produce of farmers at these fixed prices. This process is called procurement of grains. This ensures the farmers about the complete knowledge of the prices for his produce and he does not reduce his production for fear of fall in the prices. In 1988, the government procured 140 lakh tons of foodgrains at the fixed prices. In 1996-97 this procurement increased to 167 lakh tons and this increased to 555.08 lakh tons in 2009-10.
- (ii) **Buffer stock :-** The second component of Public Distribution system is to keep the stock of necessary items like foodgrains and sugar etc. by the government. This stock is called Buffer Stock. For the safe storage of these stocks enough arrangement of godown has been made. When there is shortage of food grains, the government releases the supply from the buffer stock and thus check the prices from rising.
- (iii) **Fair Price Shops :-** The government has opened about 5 lakh Fair Price Shops to distribute the essential commodities at low prices through Ration Cards. On these shops, the quantity of the commodities available to the people at the reasonably fixed prices has been fixed by the government which means Rationing has been done. In 1988, 180 lakh tons and in 1996-97, 190 lakh tons of goodgrains were distributed through these fair price shops. Besides foodgrains, these fair price shops also distribute sugar, kerosene, coal and coarse cloth. Every Fair Price Shop serves population of about 2000.

For the distribution of goods like tea, soaps, cereals and Iodised salt to the population living in hilly and draught areas, a new scheme has been started. It is called Improved Public Distribution System. Under this system, Food Corporation of India supplies the foodgrains at special concessional prices to different states and Union Territories. Under this Public Distribution System the fixed price is reduced by 50 paise per kilogram.

QUESTIONS

I. Very Short Answer Type Questions :

1. What is meant by infrastructure?
2. What are the main components of economic infrastructure in India?
3. Name the various modes of transport in India?
4. What do you mean by irrigation?

5. What are the major sources of irrigation in India?
6. Write a short note on Reserve Bank of India?
7. Write a note on the Commercial Banks of India?
8. What are the specific banking institution of India?
9. What do you mean by consumer protection?
10. Write a short note on Public Distribution System.

II. Short Answer type Questions :

1. What do you mean by infrastructure? Why is it required?
2. What are the main kinds of infrastructure in India?
3. Write briefly on transport, electric-power and irrigation as components of economic infrastructure.
4. What are the main monetary institutions of India?
5. What do you mean by consumer exploitation? What are the main methods of consumer protection?
6. What do you mean by Public Distribution System? Explain the present position of Public Distribution system in India.

CHAPTER 3

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

1. INTRODUCTION

India is considered to be an agrarian economy because 68 % of its population is still dependent on agriculture for livelihood. After Independence Indians inherited a backward agricultural economy from the Britishers. Mahatma Gandhi considered agriculture as "Soul of India". In this context Nehru had also said, "Agriculture needs utmost priorities." Emphasising the importance of agriculture Dr. V.K.R.V. Rao said, "If the vast mountain of development is to be crossed under Five Year Plans, then the targets fixed for agriculture will have to be achieved". In the words of eminent Indian scholar Dantewale, "For the economic development of Indian economy, success in the field of agriculture leads the country to the path of economic progress".

2. MEANING OF AGRICULTURE

The term "Agriculture" in English language is derived from two words, 'Agri' means field and 'Culture' means cultivation. Webster Dictionary states, "Agriculture is the art or science of production of crops and livestock on a farm".

3. IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURE IN INDIAN ECONOMY

Planning Commission has rightly said, "Development of agriculture is most essential for the success of the plans. Growing population of India depends on agriculture for food. Industry, commerce, foreign trade and transport of the country depend entirely on Indian agriculture." Importance of agriculture to the economy of the country is clear from the following factors :-

(1) Contribution in National Income

About 40% of national income of India comes from primary sectors like agriculture and forestry etc. During the period of planning, share of agriculture in the national income has been ranging between 51% and 29%. As compared to the other sectors like industry, trade etc. the share of agriculture in India's national income is very large, although it is gradually diminishing. In the developed or rich countries of the world, agriculture is fairly developed but its percentage contribution to the national income is very small.

2. Source of Food Supply

Agriculture provides food to population and fodder to livestock in India. Therefore, agriculture is a source of subsistence for men and animals. With the progress of agriculture, food problem of the country has been solved by and large. A healthy individual should get 750gms of food grains per day. In India availability of milk, eggs, fish etc. is very little. Hence the need of cereals is

much. Indians get small quantity of vegetables, pulses and edible oils. Their average availability should be 25.5gms per person but it is only 14.6gms. In this respect Freeman has rightly observed, "Our progeny might say satirically that their ancestors in the 20th century reached the moon successfully but failed to provide bread and butter to its children."

3. Agriculture and Employment

In Indian Economy, the maximum employment opportunities are available in the agriculture sector. According to the 1951 census, the contribution of rural workers to working population was 80%, out of which almost 82% rural workers were getting employment from the agriculture sector. It can be said that in accordance with 1901 census, the 60% of population was engaged in agriculture sector, whereas in 1996-97 only 64% population was getting employment from agriculture. India's two-third of population is dependent on agriculture sector for employment. According to 1991 census, there were 22 lakh people who were working as cultivators and 12 lakh people working as landless agricultural labourers. Thus, inspite of backwardness in agriculture sector and poverty in rural areas, the main source of employment is agriculture in India. According to Economists, in India, industries specially large scale industries are not expected to create more employment opportunities in near future. Thus agriculture will remain a source of employment not only in present but also in future in India.

4. Agriculture and Industry

In an underdeveloped country like India, in the early stage of economic development, agriculture plays an important role in the industrial development because of the following reasons:-

- (i) Industries get raw materials like cotton, jute, sugarcane, oilseeds, rubber, foodgrains etc. from agricultural sector.
- (ii) With the increase in productivity of agriculture, income of people goes up and they are in a position to demand more of industrial goods.
- (iii) As a result of increase in the productivity of agriculture, demand for labour in agriculture sector will fall, and that labour force will be able to work in industries.
- (iv) Because of Industrial development, income will rise and with the increase in the demand of foodgrains, agriculture will also develop.
- (v) Many cottage industries like oil expellers, handlooms etc. depend upon agriculture for raw material.

5. Source of Livelihood

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood of Indian farmers. Agriculture in India is also a source of livelihood for non-agricultural rural families like weavers, artisans, barbers, washermen etc. Large number of rural families also

depend on agriculture as their subsidiary occupation.

6. **Agriculture and Foreign Trade**

In the foreign trade of India, agriculture plays an important role. The contribution of agricultural products in India's total exports is very large. Large quantities of Tea, jute, cashewnuts, tobacco, coffee, spices etc. are exported from India.

7. **Internal Trade**

Large number of Indians spend more than 80% of their income on foodgrains, tea, sugar, milk etc. Thus, agriculture is of great importance to the internal trade of the country. Foodgrains trade provides employment to large number of people and revenue to the government by way of taxes.

8. **Transport**

Means of transport like railways, motors, bullock-carts etc. earn large part of their income by carrying foodgrains and agricultural products from one place to the other.

9. **Government Income**

State Government earn large part of their revenue from agriculture. Many taxes are imposed on agriculture, e.g. land revenue, irrigation charges, agricultural income tax etc.

10. **Capital Formation**

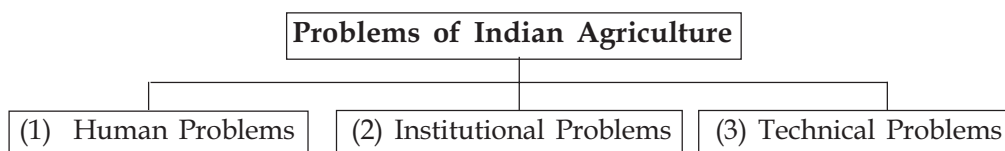
Good deal of Country's capital is invested in agriculture. From the point of view of fixed capital investment, agriculture sector occupies the first place. Capital worth millions of rupees is being invested in the means of irrigation, livestock and tools, tractors etc.

It is clear from the above account that "The prosperity of the farmers is the prosperity of India." Development of agriculture is also necessary for the success of economic planning.

4. **MAIN PROBLEMS OF INDIAN AGRICULTURE**

Indian agriculture is quite backward. It has to face so many problems. The problems of Indian agriculture can be divided into three categories:-

1. Human Problems;
2. Institutional Problems; and
3. Technical Problems



4.1 Human Problems

1. Pressure of Population on Land :- Heavy pressure of population on agriculture is one of the principal causes of backwardness of Indian agriculture. In 1901, the number of dependents on agriculture was 16 crores 30 lakhs. Now it has increased to 38 crores and 30 lakhs. As a result of it the availability of land per individual which was 0.43 hectares in 1901 has been reduced to 0.23 hectares. Now the pressure of population on land has resulted in the problem of subdivision and fragmentation. With this problem, disguised unemployment has increased.

2. Social Atmosphere :- In India the environment in rural area has been a great obstacle in the development of agriculture. Indian farmers are illiterate, so they are unable to adopt the knowledge of latest modern techniques of agriculture easily. Indian farmers are fatalist, superstitious and conservative. They are in the grip of casteism. On account of ignorance and casteism, Indian farmers are used to fight on petty issues and engaged in litigations, by which lot of time and money is wasted. This social environment of villages is proved to be a great hurdle in the development of agriculture.

4.2 Institutional Problems

(i) Small size of Holdings :- Most of the farms are very small in India. The average size of farms is 2.3 hectares. In Punjab the average holdings is of 3.77 hectares. About 70% farms are even less than 2 hectares whereas in America the average holding is of 122 hectares. In India, the farms of a farmer are not only small but also scattered due to fragmentation. Due to the small size of farms it is very difficult to adopt scientific methods of cultivation. This makes the animals, tools and means of irrigation as useless.

(ii) Land Tenure System :- The major reason for backwardness of agriculture is land tenure system. Although in post-independence era Zamindari system has legally been abolished, yet the condition of the cultivator is not satisfactory. He has to pay high rent. Land owners deal with him in an arbitrary manner. They evict the tenant at their discretion. Under such circumstances increase in agricultural productivity can not be expected from the cultivators.

4.3 Technical Problems

(i) Inadequate Irrigational Facilities :- Indian agriculture depends largely on rainwater. Due to uncertainty of rainfall, agricultural production also becomes uncertain. That is why Indian agriculture is called a "Gamble in Monsoon". Hardly 34% of cultivated land has been covered by permanent means of irrigation during the period of planning. Owing to lack of irrigation facilities farmers are able to grow only one crop in a year.

(ii) Old Agricultural Implements :- Old type of implements are still used in cultivation in India. In this scientific age, Indian farmers are using agricultural implements and tools such as wooden plough, sickle, hoe, spade, etc. There is

very nominal use of tractors and other modern machinery. Due to the use of old tools and implements in cultivation the productivity of land does not increase which results in low agricultural production.

(iii) Traditional Technique of Cultivation :- In India the techniques of cultivation are traditional. Crop-rotation is not practised properly. Consequently due to this and other reasons agricultural production decreases a lot.

(iv) Lack of improved seeds :- Indian farmers do not make judicious use of better quality seeds. First reason is that, they do not understand their importance; secondly, their supply is not well-organised in the country; thirdly, good variety of seeds being costly, the poor farmers can ill-afford them. Hence due to these reasons productivity per hectare is low.

(v) Lack of Manure :- Manure plays an important part in good cultivation. Indian farmers do not make use of it in proper quantity. About 60% of cow dung, which is very cheap and suitable as manure, is used as a fuel. Chemical fertilizers are expensive and are imported from foreign countries. Its use, therefore, is restricted.

(vi) Defective Agricultural Marketing System :- The Marketing System of agricultural production is far from satisfactory. As a result, the farmers do not get proper price for their produce. For want of efficient means of transport, the farmers are compelled to sell their produce to the village money-lenders who pay a very low price. On account of inadequate storage facilities, farmers have to sell their produce immediately after harvest, when the price of produce is minimum. This has to be done because farmers do not have godowns for storage of their produce.

(vii) Diseases of Crops and Attacks of Pests :- Crops are destroyed in large quantities by crop diseases, monkeys, rodents etc. Insects and locusts also play havoc with standing crops. According to Sh. N. Singh, Soil Conservation advisor to Govt. of India, "Every Year Crops worth Rs.100 crores are destroyed by the insects in India."

(viii) Lack of Credit Facilities :- Poor farmers in India face lot of difficulties in getting loans. They do not get sufficient credit at proper time from banks and co-operative societies. Even now they have to depend upon creditors and money-lenders especially for consumption loans. Farmers have to pay a large part of their income to money-lender in the form of interest. The farmer is compelled to sell his produce to money-lender at throw-away prices.

(ix) Weak Cattle :- Because of the lack of agricultural machinery cattle play an important role in Indian agriculture. But Indian cattle are weak and their mortality rate is also very high. Farmers have to keep many heads of cattle. Due to this on the one hand, they have to spend more and on the other hand, expenses on their upkeep rises. Hence, cost of agricultural production increases.

In short it can be said that three types of factors i.e., human, institutional and technical are responsible for low agricultural productivity and backwardness of agriculture in India.

5. ROLE OF GOVERNMENT IN AGRICULTURAL GROWTH

Government of India has played the following important role in the development of agriculture.

(1) Land Reforms :- After independence, Government has introduced several significant measures relating to land reforms like:

- (i) Abolition of Zamindari System.
- (ii) Acts have been passed in different states to improve land tenure system by providing ownership rights to the cultivators.
- (iii) Maximum ceiling on land holdings has been fixed.
- (iv) Till 1996, Consolidation of Holdings was completed on land measuring 619 lakh hectares in the whole country. "Consolidation of Holding is an activity by which farmers are asked to get land of the same size and kind at one or two places in lieu of their small and fragmented Holdings-scattered at many places."
- (v) Co-operative farming has also been developed.
- (vi) To improve the lot of landless Cultivators, Acharya Vinoba Bhave had started the Bhoodhan Movement.

Thus, land reforms have contributed significantly in the development of agriculture production.

2. Increase in Area Under Cultivation

During Five Year Plans, efforts have been made for the development of agricultural sector. During the period of planning, area under cultivation has increased by 38%. In 1950-51, total sown area was 13 crores hectares, now it has gone up to about 18.5 crore hectares. In order to increase the net sown area, barren and waste land has been made cultivable in Punjab. Lands rendered uncultivable for the whole year has been reduced. Efforts have been made to cultivate the land wasted due to soil erosion. In the area covering about 4.2 crore hectares, more than one crops are being sown every year.

3. More Irrigational Facilities

In order to increase the productivity of agriculture, irrigational facilities have been expanded. Several major and minor irrigation projects were launched in the country. In 1951, hardly 17% of total land was covered by irrigational facilities which has now extended upto 34% of land. In Punjab, facilities of irrigation are available to 95% of area under agriculture. With coming up of Multi-Purpose Projects and tubewells area under irrigation has increased considerably. Areas where irrigational facilities are not possible, dry farming techniques have been introduced. In the year 1995-96, irrigation for 876 lakh hectares could be possible. In Punjab the facility of irrigation is available for 73 lakh hectares of land. Total expenditure on irrigation in Seventh Plan amounted to Rs.16,590. In Eighth Plan, a sum of Rs.32,280 has been spent and now irrigated area has increased to 894 lakh hectares.

4. Reforms in Delivery system

Government has made many reforms in distribution and marketing of agricultural inputs and output. Emphasis has been made on the establishment of Co-operative societies in order to provide the essential agricultural inputs like - improved seeds, manure etc., to the farmers. In this regard, the required credit was made available to the farmers through the organised sector like co-operative societies, Regional Rural Banks, commercial Banks etc. Its purpose is to protect the farmers from the exploitation of money-lenders. In order to enable the farmers to get fair price of their agricultural produce and to protect them from the exploitation of traders and money-lenders and for bringing improvement in the agricultural policy, Regulated Markets, Co-operative Marketing Societies, other Government Organisations like Food Corporation of India, NAFED, MARKFED, HAFED have been set up. These institutions are mainly performing the work of agricultural marketing and processing of agricultural produce keeping in view the welfare of the farmers.

5. Agricultural Research And Development

Indian Government has established many institutions, schools etc. for agricultural research and development. Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) is the most prominent institute among all agricultural research institutes of the country. This institute has branches all over the country. In India 27 Agricultural Universities have been opened. These institutes have made research for improved seeds of wheat, Rice and many other crops. The farmers have been educated about the improved techniques of agriculture. Scientific methods have been invented for farming in dry areas.

6. Development of Agricultural Land

During five year plans, many efforts have been made for the development of agricultural land. Arrangements have been made for levelling of land, sloping of land, contour bunding, terracing of land etc. in order to conserve the soil.

7. Improvement of Animal Husbandry

During five year plans, key village schemes were introduced with a view of improving the breed of the cattle. To treat the cattle diseases, veterinary hospitals have been set up. To develop cattle wealth of the country, 86 Intensive Cattle Development Projects (ICDP) have been set-up. All the development measures for cattle are adopted in these projects.

8. Improvement in Agricultural Marketing

Main objective of improving marketing of agricultural produce is to ensure reasonable price to the farmers for their produce. Measures have been taken especially in two directions in this regard.

- (i) Regulated markets are managed by the market committee appointed by the Government. Their objective is to protect the farmers from the

exploitation by the middlemen. In such markets, metric system of weights and measures is used. By 1996, as many as 6969 mandis have been regulated. There are 144 regulated markets in Punjab.

- (ii) Co-operative Marketing Societies have also been established for improving agricultural marketing. These societies sell the produce of their members at reasonable prices. They make arrangements for cheap and quick means of transport and also for grading of the produce. These societies provide facilities of godowns and warehousing. In 1996-97, the co-operative marketing societies have marketed agricultural products worth Rs.9503 crores.

9. Proper Agricultural Price Policy

Government has made significant contribution in agricultural development by introducing the Proper Agricultural Price Policy. Government has opened many institutions. In order to provide the farmers the stable prices and profitability of their produce and to implement the Guaranteed Agriculture Price Policy, the Government has established many institutions like Agriculture Cost and Price Commission. This commission advises the Government about the agriculture price policy. The minimum support price and cost price of agriculture goods are also decided by this commission. The second purpose of the Government's price policy is to set-up the Food Corporation of India keeping in view the protection of the interests of the consumers. This corporation buys the foodgrains at the minimum support price fixed by the Government and keeps that in the buffer stocks. When the prices of foodgrains start rising, then the Government sells the foodgrains at a reasonable price in the market out of this buffer-stock. In this way, the rise in prices is regulated. Government also fixes the maximum prices of many agricultural products. The Government sells many agricultural products like grains, sugar, oil etc. through the Fair Price Shops under Public Distribution system.

10. Agricultural Trade Policy

There are two main aspects of Indian Agricultural Trade policy :-

- (i) Regarding foodgrains the agricultural trade policy is the policy of Import Substitution. It means that, Governments' policy is to produce the foodgrains within the country rather than to import it.
- (ii) Regarding cash crop like - cotton, Jute, Tea, Coffee etc., the agriculture trade policy is the policy of Export Promotion. Government is very much encouraging the export of cash crops. Agricultural trade policy of the Government has a positive effect on agricultural development.

11. Credit Facilities

Co-operative credit societies have been developed to provide adequate credit facilities to the farmers at low rate of interest. Number of Land Development Banks has increased. At present, there are 82,000 Primary Agricultural Credit Societies and 1,440 Primary Land Development Banks functioning in the country. After nationalization, commercial Banks have been giving liberal loans to agriculturists. Regional Rural Banks and Farmer's Service Societies have been established to provide credit facilities to the farmers. On 12th July, 1982, National Bank for Agricultural and Rural Development (NABARD) was established to grant huge loans for agricultural development. In 1996-97, different institutions provided credit worth Rs.28,817 crores to agricultural sector. In Punjab, there are about 4205 Agricultural co-operative Societies which have been given loans worth Rs.852 crores.

12. Agriculture and Five Year Plans

In the Five Year Plans, about Rs.23,500 crores have been incurred on agricultural development. As a result of it the foodgrains production has doubled than earlier. Progress achieved in the agricultural sector during different Five Year Plans period is mentioned as follows:-

1. **First Plan (1951-56) :-** During this plan, Rs.290 crores were spent on the development of agriculture. Foodgrains production increased to 693 lakh tonnes.
2. **Second Plan (1956-61) :-** During the second plan, an expenditure of Rs.549 crores was incurred on the agricultural development. Consequently, foodgrains production went upto 823 lakh tonnes.
3. **Third Plan (1961-65) :-** Development of agriculture involved on expenditure of Rs.1,089 crores during this plan. But due to several causes production of foodgrains fell to 723 lakh tonnes.
4. **Fourth Plan (1969-74) :-** In the fourth plan, expenditure on agricultural development amounted to Rs.2,320 crores and production of foodgrains increased to 1,047 lakh tonnes.
5. **Fifth Plan (1974-78) :-** During Fifth Plan, Rs.4865 crore were spent on agricultural development. As a result, production of foodgrains increased to 1320 lakh tonnes.
6. **Sixth Plan (1980-85) :-** In the Sixth plan, Rs.6,623 crore were spent on the development of agriculture. The production of foodgrains increased to 1,465 lakh tonnes.
7. **Seventh Plan (1985-90) :-** An outlay of Rs.12,792 crore was spent for the development of agriculture in this plan. The foodgrains production rose to 1,760 lakh tonnes.
8. **Eighth Plan (1992-97) :-** In the Eighth Plan, there was a proposal to incur Rs.22,280 crore on development of agriculture, Rs.35,263 crores

on rural development, Rs.6837 crores on special regional programmes and Rs. 33,280 crore on irrigation and flood control. In this way, the target was to spent 22% of total expenditure on the development of agriculture sector. The main objective of this plan was to increase the agricultural production through agricultural development and diversification, in order to attain the goal of self sufficiency in food products and export of agriculture products. In the Eighth Plan, the target was fixed to produce 2100 lakh tonnes of food grains, 2750 lakh tonnes of sugarcane, 140 lakh bales of cotton and 95 lakh bales of Jute. But actually the foodgrains production was 1924 lakh tonnes, sugarcane production was 2830 lakh tonnes, cotton 131 lakh bales and Jute 89 lakh bales.

9. **Ninth Plan (1997-2002) :-** In the Ninth Plan, the expenditure on agriculture sector which include development of agriculture, irrigation and rural development was Rs.1,55,392 crores.
10. **Tenth plan (2002-07) :-** During this pln Rs 58,933 crore expenditure an agriculture was proposed.
11. **Eleventh plan (2007-12)–** During this plan the annal average increase in agriculture was 3.5% whereas the target was at 4%.

6. GREEN REVOLUTION

The term Green Revolution is a combination of two words - "Green" and "Revolution". Green stands for greenery. Revolution means so sudden and fast changes that the spectators were wonder - struck. This term has been used for the progress of agricultural production. Because of the several agricultural reforms initiated during the period of first three plans in India, in 1967-68, the production of foodgrains increased by about 25% as compared to the last year i.e., 1966-67. Such a tremendous increase in the production of foodgrains in any one year was nothing short of a revolution. That is why, the Economists gave this spectacular increase in foodgrains production, the name of Green Revolution.

6.1 Definition

"Green Revolution refers to an extra-ordinary increase in agricultural production especially in Wheat and Rice, which was made possible due to the adoption of new techniques of High Yielding Varieties of seeds."

In the words of J.G. Harrar, "The Green Revolution is the word generally used to describe the spectangular increase in the production of foodgrains that took place during 1968 and it is still continuing.

6.2 Features of Green Revolution

- (i) The year 1968 was the initial year of Green Revolution.
- (ii) Pant Agricultural University, Pant nagar (U.P.) made an appreciable contribution to it by evolving a new variety of seeds.

- (iii) Indian Agricultural Research Institute (I.A.R.I.), New Delhi has also made lot of contribution in this regard in bringing the Green Revolution.
- (iv) Credit of bringing Green Revolution in India goes to Dr. Norman E. Borlaugh and Dr. M.N. Swaminathan.

6.3 Main Elements of the Success of Green Revolution

In India, many factors are responsible for bringing this revolution in Agriculture. Following factors are worth mentioning :-

- (i) **High Yielding Varieties of Seeds :-** Use of High Yielding Variety (HYV) of seeds has played an important role in bringing the Green Revolution. First of all, these seeds were used in 1966. In India, Dr. Norman E. Borlaugh played an important role in the use of these seeds. The Indian Agricultural Research Institute (IARI) and Agricultural Universities have played an important role for the use of these improved seeds. By the end of Eighth Plan, 750 lakh hectares of land had been covered by HYV seeds. In Punjab, about 55 lakh hectares of land is cultivated by HYV seeds.
- (ii) **More use of Chemical Fertilizers :-** It is because of the increased use of chemical fertilizers that the production of foodgrains has gone up significantly. In 1967-68, 11 lakh tonnes of chemical fertilizers were used which increased to 139 lakh tonnes in 1996-97. By the end of Eighth Plan, consumption of chemical fertilizers was estimated to be 183 lakh tonnes. In Punjab, about 1285 thousand tonnes of chemical fertilizers were used.
- (iii) **More Irrigational Facilities :-** Expansion of area under irrigation has contributed a lot in bringing the Green Revolution. In 1965-66, irrigational facilities were available only to 320 lakh hectares of land whereas in 1995- about 1,082 Lakh hectares of land has been provided with irrigational facilities. In Punjab, in 2010-11, 7724 thousand hectares of land is under irrigation.
- (iv) **Use of Modern Agricultural Machinery :-** Green Revolution has been encouraged by the rapid increase in the agricultural implements in India. Farmers are making maximum use of tractors, tubewells, crushers, diesel engines etc.
- (v) **More Credit Facilities :-** As farmers are getting more credit facilities which enabled them to purchase and use HYV seeds, fertilizers and machines. In 1967-68, credit amounting to Rs.400 crores was made available through co-operative societies. In 1996-97, agriculture sector obtained Rs.28,817 crores worth of institutional credit. In Punjab, the Agricultural co-operative societies has given credit amounting Rs.852 crores.
- (vi) **New Techniques of Agriculture :-** Due to Intensive Agriculture Development Programme (I.A.D.P.) and latest inventions of All India

Agricultural Research i.e., (I.A.R.I.), a great attention was given to new agricultural techniques like crop rotation, fertilizers, water and use of improved seeds.

- (vii) **Plant Protection Measures :-** Earlier, there was no proper arrangement to protect the plants against diseases. Green Revolution has been made possible by plant protection measures. Under these measures pesticides are being used on the crops in the farms.
- (viii) **Price Incentives :-** With the huge increase in agricultural production there was a fear of fall in the prices of agricultural produce. For this purpose the government has established Agricultural costs and Prices Commission to fix the minimum prices of foodgrains. The Government itself purchases crops at these minimum prices, so that farmers could get reasonable prices for their produce.
- (ix) **Rural Electrification :-** Rural electrification has played a great role for the extension of green revolution. To improve the quality of rural life and to provide power to agricultural equipments, rural electrification programme has been introduced.
- (x) **Soil Conservation :-** Soil Conservation programme has been launched so as to extend Green Revolution. It has two objectives :- (i) to check the soil erosion and (ii) for reclamation of land. As a result of it, the area under cultivation has increased.
- (xi) **Marketing Facilities :-** In the past, the farmers were not getting fair price of their produce. That is why they could not invest much capital on the development of agriculture. But now there is a lot of improvement in the marketing of agricultural produce. Now by giving more care and expenditure than before by the farmers, the agricultural production has increased which ushered in an era of green revolution.

7. MAIN EFFECTS OF GREEN REVOLUTION

Green Revolution has brought many effects on the economy of India. It has provided a new base to the economy of the country. Its main effects are as follows:-

- (i) **Solution of Food Problem :-** As a result of Green Revolution, in 1967-68, and in the following years, production of crops increased rapidly. The year 1967-68 is called the year of Green Revolution. In this year, the production of foodgrains had increased to 950 lakh tonnes in India and in Punjab, the foodgrain production has increased to 119 lakh tonnes. Consequently, per capita availability of foodgrains has also increased. Import of foodgrains have decreased considerably. In this way, Green Revolution has proved helpful in solving the food problem of the country to a great extent.

- (ii) **Effect on Rural Employment :-** As a result of green revolution, mechanization of agriculture has increased and on the other hand agricultural activities have also increased. It was feared that unemployment will increase with the use of machines but due to the cultivation of more crops in a year the demand for labour has increased. On account of this, rural population has got the employment.
- (iii) **Reduction in Import of Food grains :-** In India, there has been a considerable fall in the imports of foodgrains due to Green Revolution. In the words of Prof. Dantewala, "Green Revolution has given breathing time and planners will now attend to Indian Plans."
- (iv) **Development of Industries :-** Green Revolution has a favourable effect on the development of industries. There is a considerable increase in the setting up of chemical fertilizers, tractor and diesel engine manufacturing industries.
- (v) **Effect on Prices :-** During the Third Five Year Plan, prices, especially prices of agricultural commodities, had a sharp rise. However, due to Green Revolution, the pace of price-rise slowed down.
- (vi) **Prosperity of the Farmers :-** The Green Revolution has very much improved the economic condition of the farmers. Their standard of living has gone up very much than before.
- (vii) **Ploughing Back of Profits :-** The one good effect of the Green Revolution is that now the farmers are also induced to invest large part of their income on the development of agriculture.
- (viii) **Change in Thinking :-** Green Revolution has completely revolutionized the thinking of the Indian rural people. Now they are convinced that with the help of science they can change their misfortunes into fortunes.
- (ix) **Effect on Consumers :-** Poor Indians spend about 80% of their income on agricultural commodities. Green Revolution has helped them to balance their budget and raise their standard of living.

In short, the main aim of the Green Revolution is to satisfy the hunger of hungry people and to accelerate the rate of economic growth. Green Revolution is heading towards this objective.

QUESTIONS

I. Very Short Answer Type Questions :

1. What is the contribution of agriculture to National Income in India?
2. "Agriculture is the main source of employment in India." Write a short note on it.
3. What are the main land reforms of India?
4. What do you mean by Green Revolution?
5. How has Green Revolution helped in solving the Indian food problem?

II. Short Answer Type Questions :

1. Describe the importance of agriculture in Indian economy.
 2. Describe the main problems of Indian Agriculture.
 3. Explain the contribution of government in the development of Indian agriculture.
 4. What do you mean by Green Revolution? What are the main Effects of Green Revolution?
 5. Write the main elements of success of Green Revolution.
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CHAPTER 4

INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

1. INTRODUCTION

For economic progress of underdeveloped countries like India, industrialisation occupies an important place. Only through industrial development by increasing the rate of production and employment the rate of growth of Indian economy can be increased. Prior to Independence, industrial development was very low in India, but after Independence, government laid great emphasis on the industrial development of the country. As a result of it, many new industries were established in the country and production capacity and the efficiency of the existing industries were also enhanced. Under the Five Year Plans, the industrial development has also been given much importance.

1.1 Need for Rapid Industrialisation

From economic point of view industrialisation is very much important in India. The need for rapid and balanced growth of industrialisation is due to many causes which are as follows :-

1. Help in Establishment of Balanced Economy

Indian Economy is an unbalanced economy because the bulk of working population and capital of the country is engaged in agriculture. There is uncertainty in agriculture. Industrialisation will make the economy a balanced one and it will reduce the dependence on agriculture.

2. Increase in Employment

Through industrialisation, new industries are established. As a result of it, the millions of unemployed persons get work in these industries, and it will solve the unemployment problem of the country. In 2009-10 the share of industries in the total employment of the country was 21.9%

3. Increase in National Income

In India, industrialisation will bring better and proper utilisation of natural resources. It will increase total production, employment national income and per capita income of the country. The contribution of industries in the national income of India is about 28 percent.

4. Less Pressure of Population on land

About 70% of India's population depends on agriculture, Which is the main cause of the backwardness of Indian agriculture. The development of industries will reduce the pressure of population on agriculture. As

a result of it the size of the agricultural holding increases and there will be more agricultural development.

5. Essential for National Defence

Through industrialisation many industries like iron, steel, aeroplanes, defence, production etc. can be established which are very important for the security of the country, because these industries manufacture large quantity of war materials.

6. Self-dependence

Industrial development makes provision for the production of essential goods in the country. As a result there will be less dependence on other countries and our country will become self-sufficient in the production of large number of goods.

7. Production of Socially Useful Goods

Through industrialisation the production of essential goods like cloth, cycles, electric goods, paper, oil etc. has become possible.

2. GROWTH OF INDUSTRIALISATION IN INDIA

Before independence there was a lopsided development of industries in India. The basic big industries like - machines, iron and steel, electrical goods, and the industries relating to the means of transport were having very little impact in the country. There were only the consumer goods industries like cloth, jute, sugar, matches etc. in the country. Small scale and cottage industries were also not well developed. But after the independence, industrialization of the country has been done to a great extent. As a result of it, India ranks 10th in the industrialised countries of the world. The main features of the same are as follows:-

(i) Strong Industrial Base

With the economic planning the industrial base of India has become stronger than before. The share of consumer goods industries was 70% in 1951. Whereas, now it is only 30%. In the planning period, with the development of basic industries like steel, machines, electric goods, engineering goods there has been more variety in production. Many new and important goods are now being produced in the country. As a result of it, the industrial development has become more balanced.

(ii) Modernisation

The production techniques of many industries have been improved by modernisation of industries. The production techniques of new industries has been kept at the most modern level. Foreign technical assistance

has been obtained for this purpose. As a result of it, the quality of industrial production has improved.

(iii) Development of Public Sector

In public sector many different industries have been set up through heavy investment which were essential for rapid growth of economic development and in which private sector was not interested. In 1951, the public sector's total investment was Rs.29 crores which increased to Rs.20,2020 crores in 1998.

(iv) Building Up of Infrastructure

For industrial development, the infrastructure like - electricity, roads, railways, means of communication, finance etc. are very much required. Under five year plans, a lot of infrastructure has been built up like : Many new industries have been set which are manufacturing electrical goods, railway engines and wagons, telephone equipment etc. and many industrial financial institutions have also been set up in India.

(v) Increasing Share of Industries in National Income and Exports

The percentage contribution of industries has been increasing in national income of India. In the First Five Year Plan, only the 16% of total national income was contributed by industries, but during the whole Five Year Plans period, due to the impact of industrial development, about 28% of national income was contributed by industrial sector. In India, about 45% of total exports is contributed by industries.

(vi) Increase in Foreign Collaborations

During the planning period a large number of industries have been established with the help of foreign assistance. As a result of new industrial policy, it is expected to rise more rapidly. Now Indian have established different industries in foreign countries like - Malasia, Indonesia, Nepal etc.

(vii) Increase in Industrial Production

Due to five year plans, industrial production of the country has increased to a great extent. Many new goods are being produced in our country. The estimate of the increase in industrial production during the planning period can be made by the following table:-

Table : Production of Important Industries

S.NO.	INDUSTRY	UNITS	1950-51	2006-07
1.	Finished Steel	lakh tonne	10	5,020
2.	Coal	lakh tonne	328	4,620
3.	Petrol	lakh tonne	03	340
4.	Pure Copper	thousand tonne	7.1	39
5.	Paper	thousand tonne	116	4,139
6.	Cement	Lakh tonne	27	1,547
7.	Bicycle	Thousand	99	10,598
8.	Tractors	Thousand	Nil	311
9.	Scooter and Motor Cycles	Thousand	Nil	8,436

(Sources :- Eighth Five Year Plan Vol. II and Economic Survey, 2007-08).

It is clear from the above table that before the start of Five Year Plans i.e. before 1951, some products like machinery, tractors, scooters etc were not produced at all in our country. But now these goods are being produced in the country in a greater quantity. India stands at number 10 in industrialised world in the industrial production because of the industrial development during the planning period.

Present Industrial Structure

India's present industrial structure includes the following industries :-

(i) Public Sector, Joint-Sector and Private Sector

In India three types of undertakings are found i.e. Public, Joint and Private Sector. Public sector undertakings are those undertakings which are owned by the government. Joint sector undertakings are those undertakings which are jointly owned by the government and the private sector. Private sector undertakings are those undertakings which are owned by private persons.

(ii) Non-Factory Manufacturing Units

These are of two types

- (a) Cottage industries
- (b) Small industries

(iii) Factory Manufacturing Units

Factory manufacturing units are of two types.

- (a) **FERA Companies** :- These companies make production on large scale and use foreign exchange in a larger quantity.

- (b) **MRTP Companies** :- These companies work under Monopoly and Restrictive Trade Practices Act (MRTP-Act) and they produce on a very large scale.

In the industrial production of India the importance of cottage and small scale industries is more in comparison to other industries except public sector undertakings. About 40% of total production of the country is contributed by these undertakings. The percentage share of "FERA Companies", MRTP companies and other private companies in the total production is less than the cottage and small scale industries in our country.

4. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

"Cottage industries are those industries which are completely or partially run by the members of a family either as a whole time business or as a part time business". Mostly these type of industries are run by the artisans in their homes. Machines are rarely used. Usually these industries fulfil the local requirements. These industries are run by the members of the family. Workers on labour basis are rarely used. They need very less capital. Since these industries are mainly situated in villages, so these are also known as "Village or Rural Industries".

(a) Importance

Following are the main advantages of these industries :-

- (i) Employment opportunities have increased in the Villages because of the establishment of cottage industries.
- (ii) Artistic costly goods are also produced in these cottage industries.
- (iii) Tendency of shifting population from villages to cities is reduced by their establishment in the villages.

(b) Causes of Decline

The main causes of decline of cottage industries of India are as follows:-

- (i) 'Cottage industries' production cannot compete with the cheap production made by modern industries.
- (ii) They do not get cheap finances in an adequate quantity.
- (iii) Village artisans do not have the knowledge of modern business progresses, researches, designs and techniques of selling and advertising.

(c) Measures for Development

Various measures have been taken up for the development of cottage industries like :-

- (i) Khadi and Village Industries Commission has been set-up which looks after the special needs of these industries.
- (ii) Economic assistance is given to promote sales of these industries.

- (iii) Many institutions have been set-up to give them advice regarding the improvement in designs and to boost up their production and sales.

4.1 Small Scale Industries

Meaning

Small scale industries were defined on different basis but since June, 1997 all those factories were included in small industries which have an investment of Rs.3 crore in fixed capital. In ancillary industries the limit on capital is fixed as Rs.3 crore and in Small industries the limit on capital is fixed as Rs.25 lakh. In 1996-97, there were 27.24 lakh tiny industries in India whereas in Punjab there were 1.88 lakh tiny industries and 415 large and medium scale industries. In 2003-04 there were 115.22 lakh industries in India.

4.2 Difference Between Small Scale and Cottage Industries

Clarifying the difference between small scale and cottage industries, the Fiscal Commission has written that "Cottage industries are normally set-up in rural areas and these are related to agriculture and they provide full time employment to the people. Whereas small-scale industries are set-up in cities and semi-urban areas and they provide full time employment to the workers."

The main differences in these are as follows :

- (i) Cottage industries are normally set up in villages and they are spread throughout the country, whereas small scale industries are mostly set-up in cities.
- (ii) In cottage industries, only family members work whereas in small-scale industries, work is done through hired workers.
- (iii) Cottage industries normally fulfil the local needs whereas small-scale industries produce goods for cities and semi-urban areas. So their production market is very large.
- (iv) In cottage industries, production is done with the help of simple tools and very less capital is required. Whereas small scale industries are run with power and more working capital is also required.
- (v) In cottage industries, traditional goods like khadi mats and shoes etc. are produced whereas in small-scale industries modern goods like Radio, Television, Electrical and Electronics goods etc. are produced

4.3 Importance of Small-Scale and Cottage Industries

The importance of small-scale and cottage industries is clear from the following factors:-

- (i) **More Employment** :- In cottage and small-scale industries, more employment can be given by investing less of capital. These industries are labour-intensive. Therefore, there is more possibility of increase in

employment opportunities with the development of these industries.

- (ii) **Equal Distribution of Wealth** :- Income and wealth are equally distributed because of these industries. Its reason is that in these industries capital is not centralised in the hands of a few people rather it is divided in a smaller quantity. Therefore, whatever income is generated from these industries, its benefit goes to the maximum number of people.
- (iii) **Decentralisation** :- Mostly big industries have the tendency of being centralised at one place in cities. As a result of it the economic development of the country becomes unbalanced and there is always a fear of these industries being destroyed by the enemy during the days of war, whereas small-scale industries are spread over the entire country and there is no fear of these being destroyed during the days of war. As a result of it, the demerits of urbanisation in cities, like, shortage of houses, increase in prices, exploitation of women and children etc. are avoided.
- (iv) **Increase in Production** :- There is a keen possibility of increase in production of the country by these industries. Out of the total industrial production 60% is obtained from big industries and 40% from cottage and small scale industries.
- (v) **Exports** :- There is a lot of importance of these industries in the exports of the country. In 1996-97, in the total exports of the country the small scale sector's contribution was 34%. In the export of non-traditional goods like electrical goods, electronic equipment etc. small scale sector's share was 38%.
- (vi) **Use of Local Resources** :- Small scale industries use those resources which they get locally. These resources are not required by big industries.
- (vii) **Less Pressure of Population on Agriculture** :- Land has been divided into smaller pieces because more population is dependent on agriculture. Every year 30 lakh more people are added to become dependant on agriculture. To reduce the burden on land, establishment of cottage industries is very much essential.
- (viii) **Suitable for under-developed country like India** :- In India capital is scarce and workers are in abundance. Such type of industries are labour-intensive. Therefore in an underdeveloped country like India, these industries are even more important.
- (ix) **Artistic Goods** :- The production of artistic goods is possible only through these industries. In India such type of goods are manufactured by these industries like Banarsi Sarees, Ornaments and Ivory goods etc.
- (x) **Individual Taste** :- These industries can produce according to the taste of every customer. Thus these industries have special importance to fulfil the individual tastes of the people.

- (xi) **Complementary of Large Industries** :- These industries are complementary to big industries. These industries can produce those goods which are also used in big industries like small parts of cycles, motors, machines etc. can be manufactured in a cheaper way in small scale industries.
- (xii) **Experience from Foreign Countries** :- These industries played an important role in the development of the countries like Japan, America and England. In Japan 83% of population work in these industries. In America these industries give employment to 65% of labourers and in England 30 lakh people work in these industries.

4.4 Problems of Cottage and Small Scale Industries

The main problems of cottage and small scale industries are as follows:-

- (i) **Problem of Raw Material and Power** :- These industries do not get raw material in sufficient quantity and whatever material they get it is of poor quality and for it they have to pay higher prices. As a result of it production cost increases. These industries have also to face the problem of the shortage of electricity and coal.
- (ii) **Problem of Finance** :- In India credit is not available to these industries in sufficient quantity. They have to depend on money-lenders for finance who charge very high rate of interest.
- (iii) **Old Methods of Production** :- In these industries mostly old methods of production are used. Old tools like oil press for oil expelling or handlooms for weaving clothes are used. As a result of it the quantity of production decreases and poor qualities of products are manufactured. Their demand in the market goes down.
- (iv) **Problems of Marketing** :- The entrepreneurs of these industries face many problems in selling their products at fair price and quantity because the outward look of the products produced by these industries is not good.
- (v) **Competition with Large Scale Industries** :- The main problem of these industries is that they have to compete with the goods produced in big industries. Goods produced by big industries are comparatively cheaper and of good quality. Thus, the small scale industries cannot compete with big industries.

4.5 Measures For Improvement

- (i) **Restricted Production Programme** :- According to this programme, the production of some goods has been reserved for small scale industries and expansion of big industries is prohibited. Thus 836 goods have been reserved to be produced by small scale industries.
- (ii) **Purchase by Government** :- Government also purchases a lot of goods manufactured by small scale industries. National Small Industries

Development Corporation helps a lot to the small scale industries in selling their goods to the Government.

- (iii) **Financial Help** :- Government banks and state financial corporations provide sufficient finance at lower rate of interest to the small scale industries. For this purpose Small Industries Development Bank has been set-up.
- (iv) **Marketing Facilities** :- Special efforts have been made for selling goods manufactured by these industries. In different parts of the country, stores and shops are opened to sell the goods produced by these industries. In foreign countries, publicity is done through advertisement, exhibitions and fairs in order to sell their products.
- (v) **Technical Assistance** :- To provide technical assistance, Small Industries Service Institutions (SISI) have been set-up in all the states by Small Industries Development Organisation.
- (vi) **District Industries Centres** :- To fulfil all the requirements of cottage and small industries a District Industries Centre has been set-up in each district of the country.
- (vii) **Industrial Estates** :- For the development of these industries, Government has set-up industrial estates. In these industrial estates, government acquires the land and then develops it. Buildings are constructed for industries. Arrangements are made for water, electricity, gas, rail and safety purposes. After that the government sells these sheds at low price or on rental basis to the industrialists.
- (viii) **Other Concessions** :- Small scale industries are given different types of tax incentives and other financial incentives which are not available to big industries.

5. LARGE SCALE INDUSTRIES

The role of large scale industries is very important for the economic development of India. The major share of fixed capital invested in industries has been invested in big industries. A large portion of the total industrial production is received from these industries.

5.1 Classification of Large Scale Industries :- In India large scale industries have been classified into four categories:-

- (i) **Basic Industries** :- Basic industries are those industries which provide necessary inputs to agriculture and industries. The examples are : steel, iron, coal, chemical fertilizers, aluminium and electricity.
- (ii) **Capital Goods Industries** :- Capital goods industries are those industries which produce machinery and instruments for agriculture and industries. These include machines, mechanical instruments, tractors, truck etc.
- (iii) **Intermediate Goods Industries** :- Intermediate goods industries are those industries which produce those goods which are used for the production

of other goods. The examples of these are tyres, mobile oil etc.

- (iv) **Consumer Goods Industries** :- Consumer goods industries are those industries which produce consumer goods. These include – Sugar, cloth, paper industries etc.

5.2 Importance of Large Scale Industries

The importance of large scale industries in industrialisation of India is clear from the following factors:-

- (i) **Production of Capitalistic and Basic Goods** :- For the industrialisation of a country, capital goods like machines, instruments and basic goods like steel, iron, chemicals are of great importance. The production of these capital and basic goods is possible only by large scale industries. For the production of these goods, large quantity of capital and latest techniques are required. Its arrangement is possible only by large scale industries. In Punjab large scale industries produced goods worth Rs.13,500 crore in 1994-95.
- (ii) **Economic Infrastructure** :- Economic infrastructure like means of transport, electricity, communication facilities etc. are very much required for industrialisation. Only big industries can produce means of transport like railway engines and wagons, trucks, motors, planes etc. The production of big electrical equipments, transformers, means of communication like telephone, radio, transistor etc. is possible only by large industries. Thus large scale industries, by providing the means of economic infrastructure can speed up the pace of industrialisation.
- (iii) **Research And High Technique** :- For industrialisation of any country, research and high techniques are of very much important. A lot of money and able researchers are required for this purpose. Only large scale industries can arrange required money for research and able researchers.
- (iv) **Increase in Productivity** :- Because of large investment in big industries, per unit capital is more. Per unit productivity increases a lot because of it. Prices decrease because of increase in productivity and as a result demand increases. By the increase in quantity of industrial production, the chances of setting up of new industries increase which results in the development of cottage and small scale industries. As a result of it the tendency towards industrialisation increases in the country.
- (v) **Availability of Economies** :- Because of the establishment of large scale industries goods are produced on large scale and at low cost. As a result of it industries start enjoying many types of economies which results in the reduction of their costs. Their competitiveness increases in the internal and external market. As a result of it the setting up of many new and export-oriented industries becomes possible.
- (vi) **Establishment of Ancillary Industries** :- The large scale production of some goods like aluminium, steel, cars etc. is possible only in large

scale industries. The setting up of some ancillary units is encouraged because of these industries. For example with the setting up of Maruti Udyog Ltd. the establishment of many ancillary industries like rubber, plastic, electricity etc has become possible. These Industries produce raw material for Maruti Udyog. In this way the development of industrialisation has taken place in the country.

6. Causes For Slow Progress of Industrial Development of the Country :-

Though India's place in the industrialised countries of the world is 10th yet india's industrial development is very slow and it is at a very lower rate. The industrial history of India tells that whereas very less attention was given to the setting up of industries before Independence, but special measures have been taken for the setting up of industries after Independence especially during Five Year Plans period since 1951. That is why there has been some improvement in economic conditions. Causes of the slow progress of India's industrial development are as follows:-

- (i) **Foreign Rule** :- The English rule remained in India for about 150 years. During this period they destroyed the cottage and small scale industries of India and made it raw-material exporting market. Even those few industries which were set-up in the country, were the results of the efforts of private individuals. The English Government followed the Discriminating Protection Policy for the industries. Only a few industries got the benefit of this policy.
- (ii) **Scarcity of Capital** :- For the development of industries, capital is very much needed. In India majority of the people are poor and they can not accumulate capital. Those people who have capital, they prefer to invest the same in more safer activities like purchase of property, Govt. bonds, business, Gold or construction of houses etc. and they do not take the risk by investing the money in industries.
- (iii) **Shortage of Skilled Workers** :- Skilled hard working and honest workers are very much required to run the modern industries in a proper way. There is shortage of skilled and honest workers in India. Most of the workers here are the farmers doing agriculture. They come to cities for jobs for some time. They do not try to take the necessary training to work in industries. Thus the work done by them is of poor quality and is very costly.
- (iv) **Shortage of Cheap Energy Resources** : Cheap energy is required to run the industries. There are three main energy resources in India - coal, oil and electricity. The coal which is available in India is of poor quality and the coal mines are situated only in specific areas, like Bihar and West Bengal. A lot of money is being spent in sending the coal to different parts of the country. Abundance of electricity can be generated in India but even this has not been fully developed. India has to depend

on other countries for oil. Oil prices have increased many folds since 1973.

- (v) **Shortage of Efficient Managers** :- In India there is a shortage of able and efficient managers and industrialists. India has always been a agriculture dominating country because of the prevalence of social atmosphere, orthodox thinking of the people and lack of educational facilities. Even educated people want to do clerical or government service rather than running an industry.
- (vi) **Shortage of Raw Material** :- In India raw-material for industries is available in very less quantity and of poor quality. After the partition of the country there was a shortage of jute and cotton-etc. A lot of money was to be spent in importing these goods from foreign countries which resulted in the increase of production costs. Poor quality goods were produced because of the poor quality of raw-material. The shortage of a few minerals like tin, glass, sulphur, zinc etc. has proved great hindrance in the industrialisation of our country.
- (vii) **Poverty** :- India is a poor country. The demand for costly industrial goods remains limited because of poor people. The rate of industrial progress is very slow due to the lack of demand. Due to poverty, savings are less and as a result investment is also less.
- (viii) **Shortage of Financial Organisation** :- Every industry needs finance from time to time. If that finance is available at low rate of interest and in sufficient quantity then industries can progress a lot. There is a shortage of financial organisation like industrial banks providing long term loans to industries at low rate of interest. Before Independence there was no industrial bank. Now some financial organisations have been set up but these are also not able to fulfil the whole needs of industries.
- (ix) **Unplanned Development** :- In India, Industries have not been set-up in any planned way. In few cities like Mumbai, Kolkata, Ahmedabad, Chennai, Delhi, Bangalore etc., most of the industries have been set-up, whereas other areas of the country have remained industrially backward. This unplanned setting-up of industries is harmful from the economic point of view, improper from war point of view and unwanted from social point of view.
- (x) **Less Development of Transport and Communication** :- For the development of industries it is essential that transport and communication means are fully developed so that raw-materials to the factories and finished goods to the market are easily sent. But in India these means are less developed. Even telephone, telegram, postage etc. were not developed upto the satisfaction level. For foreign trade we have to depend mainly on foreign ships.

- (xi) **Government Interference** :- Before 1991, there were many Government restrictions on industries. Some industries were not allowed to be set-up in private sector. There were different types of restrictions on the expansion of large industries. A lot of time was wasted in getting the approval from the government for setting-up of the industries. There was slow development of industries due to the government interference. But now with new liberal industrial policy, this problem has been solved to a great extent.

7. ROLE OF GOVERNMENT FOR ENCOURAGEMENT OF INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

To speed up the pace of Indian economy, to achieve the target of self reliance and to increase the means of employment and income the government of India has given great importance to the development of industries under Five Year Plans. As a result of it, the development of industries has been very fast which is clear from the following facts :-

- (i) **Public Sector Outlay During Five Year Plans and Increase in Industrial Production Growth** :- In India the process of Five Year Plans was started in 1951. A very huge amount of money has been invested for the development of industries in public sector from the 1st Five Year Plan upto the Eighth Five Year Plan. As a result of it the role of industrial development has increased.

Expenditure on industries in public sector is increasing right from the First Plan. As a result of it, Industrial Production Growth rate has also been continuously increasing.

- (ii) **More Credit Facilities** :- To speed up the industrial development Government has set-up many financial institutions in the country for providing loans to industries like-Industrial Finance Corporation in 1948, National Industrial Development Corporation in 1954, Refinance Corporation in 1958, Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI) in 1955, Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI) in 1964, Unit Trust of India and Small Industries and Development Corporation of India (SIDCO). Through these financial institutions, financial requirements of the industries are met.

- (iii) **Establishment of Basic Industries** :- The Government of India has given more emphasis on the establishment of basic industries in order to increase the pace of economic development in the country. There were only 5 units in public sector in 1951 which have increased to 264 in 1996. Similarly capital investment has increased from Rs.29 crores, to Rs.118492 crores. The private sector is also developing side by side. In this way India has become self-sufficient in case of Industrial consumer goods.

- (iv) **Development of Means of Transport** :- The means of transport are very much important for the industrial development. Thus means of transport have been developed tremendously in the country so that industries can be decentralised and their goods can be sent to far away places with ease.
- (v) **Development of Power Sector** :- Cheap electric power is very much essential for the development of industries. For this purpose, multi-purpose project plans and thermal power houses were set-up under Five Year Plans to increase the production of electricity. Electricity production has increased from 5.1 billion Kilowatts in 1951 to 296.7 billion kilowatts in 1996. With the increase in electricity production and fulfillment of power requirements of the industries, the production of industries has increased many-fold.
- (vi) **Invention Promotion and Import Substitution** :- For the promotion of inventions in the country, Inventions Promotion Board' was set-up in 1960. Its' main objective is to give financial and technical assistance for inventions. Similarly in order to achieve self-sufficiency in case of the raw material and new techniques which were earlier being imported from foreign countries, the import Substitution Board was set-up in 1966. It's main purpose is to encourage import substitution.
- (vii) **Industrialisation of Backward Areas** :- For the development of backward areas main stress is being given on the industrialisation of these areas. In order to encourage the setting up of industries in the industrially backward areas of the country after identifying industrially backward areas, many facilities like subsidy, credit at cheap rates, supply of electricity and of raw material etc. are given. For the development of backward areas a target of 100 development centres and Rs.3000 crores of investment were earmarked in the Eighth Five Year Plan.
- (viii) **Renewal of Sick Industrial Units** :- For the renewal of sick industrial units in the country, Board of Industrial Finance and Reconstruction and National Renewal Fund were set-up. For example government has taken control over 125 sick cotton textile units and National Textiles Corporation has been set-up for the management of these units. Similarly efforts are being initiated for the renewal of 58 industrial units of public sector which were running in losses. In 1992-93 a loan of Rs.500 crore was given on concessional rates to the National Renewal Fund by International Development Agency.
- (ix) **Establishment of Technical Development Board** :- Technical Development Board was set-up in 1976. Its main objective was the modernisation of industrial units and upgradation of technology in industrial capital goods, technical knowledge, Drawing and design and consultancy services from foreign countries to make them capable of

adopting latest technology. Now a limit of Rs.2 crore per annum has been fixed to import essential goods regarding upgradation of technology. Keeping in view the requirements of units permission can be granted to import capital goods exceeding this limit.

- (x) **New Industrial Policy and Industrial Development :-** In July 1991, revolutionary changes were made in industrial policy. Now except for 18 industries there is no need of obtaining a licence for setting-up other industries. In 1999 only 6 industries had to obtain licence. Through this liberal policy efforts have been made to encourage foreign investment. By this policy efforts are being made to encourage privatisation and pushing the economy towards Free Market Economy. Every possible effort is also being made to improve the public sector.

In this way by taking up the above mentioned steps by the government, industrial development has been encouraged a lot in India. As a result of it the country has become almost self-sufficient in industrial goods.

QUESTIONS

I. Very Short Answer Type Questions :

1. Explain any one important factor needed for rapid industrialisation in India.
2. Give any two examples of basic industries.
3. What is meant by Cottage industries?
4. What is meant by small scale industries ?
5. State one problem of small scale industries ?

II. Short Answer Type Questions (Answer in about 50-60 words) :

1. Explain the reasons behind the need for rapid and balanced industrialisation in India.
2. Explain the present situation of industrial development of India.
3. What do you mean by small scale and cottage industries in India? What are their problems?
4. What is the importance of small scale and cottage industries in India?
5. Distinguish between small scale and cottage industries in India and suggest remedies to solve their problems.
6. Explain the role of large scale industries in industrialisation of India.
7. Discuss the importance of large scale industries.
8. What are the reasons responsible for slow progress of industrialisation in India?
9. Write a short note on the role of government to encourage the development of industrialization in India.

CHAPTER 5 INDIA'S FOREIGN TRADE

1. INTRODUCTION

Foreign trade is the trade between one country and the other countries. Goods sent from one country to the others are called Exports. For example, India exports tea and jute products to England. Goods that a country gets from other countries are called Imports. The difference between the value of exports and imports of a country during one year is called Balance of Trade. On the other hand, the difference between the value of exports and imports of all types of goods, services and capital from a country during one year period is called Balance of Payments. As a matter of fact, balance of trade is also a part of balance of payments. If the value of exports of a country is more than the value of its imports, then its balance of trade will be favourable. On the contrary, if the value of exports is less than the value of imports then balance of trade will be unfavourable.

Because of unfavourable balance of trade the foreign exchange reserves of the country fall short, and because of favourable balance of trade, the foreign exchange reserves of the country rise. When foreign liability of a country increases on account of unfavourable balance of trade, the same is discharged either by getting foreign loans or out of the gold reserves of the country or through already saved foreign currency of the country.

2. IMPORTANCE OF FOREIGN TRADE

Foreign trade has an important place in the economy of every country. In the words of Robertson, " Foreign trade is an engine of growth". Its importance to Indian economy is as under :-

- (i) **Full Utilization of Natural Resources** :- A Country establishes and runs those industries from which it gets maximum comparative advantage. It sells its products in those countries from where it gets highest price. Consequently, it makes the maximum utilization of its natural resources.
- (ii) **Encouragement of Industrialisation** :- Through the medium of foreign trade a country can easily obtain necessary equipments, raw-materials and technical know-how for developing its industries. Thus industrial development is encouraged in the country.
- (iii) **Improvement in International Co-operation and Harmony** :- As a result of foreign trade, citizens of different countries come into close contact with one another and they know their ideas and viewpoints. This promotes cultural co-operation and mutual confidence.
- (iv) **Availability of Cheap Goods** :- As a result of foreign trade we get cheap and quality goods from other countries. Consumption of such goods add to the economic welfare of the people and their standard of living improves.

- (v) **Geographical Development :-** Due to balance of foreign trade each country specializes itself in the production of those goods in which it enjoys maximum natural advantage or minimum cost of production. Thus, foreign trade activities make possible the geographical development in the country.
- (vi) **Improvement in Production Capacity :-** Due to foreign trade, industrialists of the country live under the constant fear of foreign competition. They are aware of the fact that if they failed to produce high quality goods at low prices, demand for their goods will fall. They are, therefore, always engaged in improving their efficiency and technique of production.
- (vii) **Check on Monopoly Power :-** Because of foreign competition, monopolistic tendencies in the field of foreign trade are kept under control. In this way, industrialisation of the country is encouraged.
- (viii) **Availability of Raw-Materials :-** Foreign trade makes essential raw-materials easily available to different countries. This encourages the industrialisation of the country.
- (ix) **Equality in Price Level :-** Due to foreign trade there is a tendency for the prices of goods and services to become equal in almost all countries of the world.
- (x) **Availability of Foreign Exchange :-** Foreign trade is the most important source of earning foreign exchange.
- (xi) **Revenue to the Government :-** By imposing export and import duties, the government earns a great amount of revenue.

Importance of Imports and Exports for Indian Economy

2.1 Importance of Imports :-

The following is the main importance of imports for Indian economy.

- (i) **To Meet the Shortage of Essential Consumer Goods :-** Indian economy can meet the shortage of essential consumer goods like foodgrains, edible oils, sugar etc. through imports. For example, in 1994 due to less production of sugarcane in the country, there was shortage of sugar. To meet this shortage of sugar, it was imported in huge quantity from foreign countries.
- (ii) **To meet the Need of Capital Goods :-** India needs many capital goods like machinery, equipments etc., for its industrial development. Out of these some capital goods can not be produced at all in India. In this way, the need of capital goods like machinery can be met through imports.
- (iii) **To obtain Important Inputs :-** For industrial and agricultural development of India, many important inputs like petrol, chemical fertilizers, minerals etc. are needed. These cannot be produced in sufficient quantity in the country. Thus, their shortage can be met through imports.

2.2 Importance of Exports

The importance of exports in Indian economy is as follows:-

- (i) **Export of Surplus Production** :- In India the production of some products like tea, jute etc. is more than its domestic needs. The advantageous and large scale production of these products is possible due to the exports of these to the foreign countries.
- (ii) **To obtain Foreign Exchange** :- India requires foreign exchange for its imports. This foreign exchange can be obtained by exporting its products.

3. VOLUME OF FOREIGN TRADE

Before independence, foreign trade was not much. In 1934, India's total foreign trade was of Rs.186 crores. But since independence, volume of India's foreign trade has increased many fold. In 1951, the value of India's foreign trade was Rs.1250 crore which rose to Rs.28,26,116 crore in 2010-11 out of these exports are of Rs 11,42,649, crore and import are of Rs 16,83,467 crore.

3.1 Volume of Foreign Trade During Plans

Now India has trade relations with almost all the countries of the world, and the list of import and export goods include thousands of commodities. The following table shows the volume of foreign trade of India during Five Year Plans period after independence :-

TABLE 1
Volume of Foreign Trade (Rs. In crores)

YEAR	IMPORT	EXPORT	TOTAL
1950-51	650	600	1,250
1960-61	1,122	642	1,764
1970-71	1,634	1,535	3,169
1980-81	12,549	6,711	19,260
1990-91	43,193	32,558	75,751
2000-01	2,30,873	2,03,571	4,34,444
2009-10	1,363,736	8,45,534	2,209,270
2010-11	1,683,467	1,142,649	2,826,116

(Source : *Economic Survey, 2011-12*)

It is clear from the table 1 that :-

- (i) In 1950-51 the imports of India stood at Rs.650 crore and these went up to Rs.1,683,467 crore in 2010-11.
- (ii) The exports of India which were Rs.600 crore in 1950-51, went up to Rs.1,142,649 crores in 2010-11. Despite various export pro motion schemes in India, exports are less than imports.

4. MAIN EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF INDIA

India exports and imports about 7500 goods. The imports and exports are increasing continuously. The main imports and exports of India are as follows :-

4.1 Chief Items of Import :- Mostly India imports the following items from foreign countries :-

- (i) **Machinery :-** In order to meet the needs of industrialization, India's maximum imports are of machinery. These machines are imported from America, England, Germany, Japan, Russia and Europe. In 2011 the machinery worth Rs.1,23,233 crores was imported.
- (ii) **Iron and Steel :-** India is still not self-sufficient in the production of iron and steel. It imports large quantity of steel from abroad every year. It is mostly imported from Germany, America, England, Italy and France. In 2011 iron and steel worth Rs.2,5192 crores was imported.
- (iii) **Non-Ferrous Metals and Metal Products :-** India also imports non-ferrous metals like Zinc, Copper, tin and their products from abroad. These are imported from Malaya, Brazil and America. In 2011 the imported value of these metals was worth Rs.1,535,87 crores.
- (iv) **Petroleum and Petroleum Products :-** India imports 35% of its demand for petroleum and petroleum products from foreign countries. This petrol comes from Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia. In 1997-98 India imported Rs.3,32,594 crore worth of petrol and petroleum products.
- (v) **Transport Equipments :-** Means of transport are most important for the economic development of the country. India imports motors, ships, Aeroplanes and other transport equipments from foreign countries. The means of transport are imported mainly from Germany, Italy, Japan, America, and Britain. In 2011 the value of these imports was worth Rs.1,91,47 crore.
- (vi) **Chemical Fertilizers :-** In India the use of fertilizers is very essential for increasing agricultural production. India has been importing fertilizers on a large scale especially from America, Russia and countries of Eu. In 2011 the value of imported fertilizers was worth Rs.1,75,68 crores.
- (vii) **Foodgrains :-** After 1947, India suffered serious shortage in the production of foodgrains. This shortage was met by imports. The foodgrains are imported from America, Australia, Canada, Burma (Mayanmar) and Argentina. In 1975, foodgrains worth Rs.1,058 crores were imported. However, after Green Revolution imports of foodgrains declined sharply. In the year 2011 only Rs.159 crores worth of foodgrains were imported from foreign countries.
- (viii) **Cashewnuts :-** India imports unprocessed cashewnuts from abroad and it is re-exported after processing. In 1970-71, cashewnuts worth Rs. 29

crores were imported. In 2011 the value of their import rose to Rs.3476crores.

- (ix) **Paper** :- India imports paper from many countries like Sweden, Czechoslovakia etc. In 2011 India imported paper and paper board worth Rs.5800 crores.
- (x) **Chemical and Medicines** :- India imports from abroad many kinds of chemicals, machines, dyeing materials etc. In 2011 it imported Rs.6161crores worth of chemicals and Rs.1,301 crores worth of medicines.
- (xi) **Edible Oils** :- Imports of edible oils and oilseeds has risen very much in the last few years. In 2011 India imported oils worth Rs.21826 crores. India imports these oils from America and Canada etc.
- (xii) **Precious Stones** :- Imports of precious stones has also increased tremendously in India. These are polished and then re-exported. In 2011 India imported precious stones worth Rs.63,515 crores.

4.2 Main Items of Exports

Special efforts have been made to promote exports from India since independence. Main items of exports of India are as follows:-

- (i) **Jute Products** :- India occupied the first place in the export of Jute products, but in 1994-95 it fell down to 25th. It was the main source of dollar earning for India. Jute manufactured products are mostly exported to America, Argentina, Australia, Russia, Britain and Canada. In 2011-12- jute products worth Rs.1025 crores were exported.
- (ii) **Tea** :- India is the largest exporter of tea in the world. In 1997-98 tea worth Rs.1662 crores was exported. Britain, U.S.A., Canada, Egypt, Iraq, Germany and Japan are the main buyers of tea. Large quantity of tea is also exported to Russia these days. Britain is the largest importer of Indian tea.
- (iii) **Cloth and Apparels** :- India exports cotton fabrics and garments. In 2011 India exported cotton fabrics worth Rs.14648 crores and readymade garments worth Rs.29758 crores.
- (iv) **Metallic Ores** :- India exports manganese, mica, iron ores etc. to America and Japan. In 1997-98 India exported iron worth Rs.1,763 crores and mica worth Rs.101 crores
- (v) **Spices** :- Different kinds of spices like black pepper etc. are exported from India. These spices are exported England, Germany, Italy, France, Iran, Saudi-Arabia, America etc. In 2011 the export value of these spices was worth Rs.5967 crores.
- (vi) **Leather and Leather Products** :- India exports leather, footwear and leather products to foreign countries. The main buyers of these are :

- England, U.S.A., France, Germany and Russia. In 2011 the leather, leather products and footwear worth Rs.10552 crores were exported.
- (vii) **Oil Cakes** :- India exports oil cakes in large quantity. Its main buyers are Japan, Holland and Britain etc. In 2011-12 the export value of oil cakes was worth Rs.4450 crores.
 - (viii) **Tobacco** :- India also exports tobacco in large quantity. It is exported mainly to England, Japan, Russia and Nepal. In 2011-12 value of tobacco exported was worth Rs.1621 crores.
 - (ix) **Coffee** :- Export of coffee from India has been rising. Coffee is exported from India to U.S.A., Italy and Hungary etc. The coffee worth Rs.2297 crores was exported in 2011-12.
 - (x) **Gems and Jewellery** :- These has been maximum rise in the export of Gems and Jewellery from India. Various types of jewellery are exported to Hong-Kong, America and Belgium from India. In 2011-12 jewellery worth Rs.107744 crores was exported.
 - (xi) **Cashew Kernels** :- India earns a good revenue from the export of cashew kernels. India exports cashew kernels to Russia, America and Japan etc. In 2011-12 cashew kernels worth Rs.2016 crores were exported.
 - (xii) **Engineering Goods** :- India exports engineering goods to Sri Lanka, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Burma (Mayanmar), Malasia, Indonesia. In the year 1970-71 only the goods worth Rs.130 crores were exported, but in 2011-12 the engineering goods worth Rs.4,40,634 crores were exported.
 - (xiii) **Handicrafts** :- Handicraft goods manufactured by cottage industries like ivory goods etc. are exported to America, Germany, Saudi Arabia and Middle East countries. In 2011-12 the value of these exports was Rs.2044 crores. In 1994-95, from Punjab Hosiery goods worth Rs.348 crores, Rubber goods worth Rs.182 crore, sports goods worth Rs.102 crores and machinery tools worth Rs.181 crore were exported.

5. DIRECTION OF TRADE

Direction of Trade means, the countries from where India imports and the countries to which India exports her goods. Before in dependence, most of India foreign trade was with England and commonwealth countries. But at present, the share of Asia and ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) in total trade increased from 33.3 percent in 2000-01 to 57.3 percent in the first half of 2011-12. Share of Europe and America fell from 42.5 percent to 30.8 percent respectively. During the period of 2008-09 to 2010-11, UAE (United Arab Emirates) became India's largest trading partner followed by China and USA.

5.1 Change in the Direction of Exports:

In India's exports, the share of Asia and ASEAN increased from 38.7 percent in 2000-01 to 56.2 percent in 2010-11. The share of Europe and USA fell from 46.9 percent to 30.8 percent during the same period. UAE has the largest share in India's exports with a share of 11.9 percent in 2011-12.

5.2. Change in the Direction of Imports:

Asia and ASEAN continued to be the major source of India's imports. The share of Asia and ASEAN has risen from 28.6 percent in 2000-01 to 61.5 percent in 2011-12. The share of Europe and U.S.A fell considerably. China has the largest share in India's total import with a share of 11.7 percent. China is followed by UAE (7.6 percent), Switzerland (6.6 percent), Saudi Arabia (6 percent) and USA (4.7 percent) in 2011-12.

TABLE 2
Share in India's Trade

Sl.	Country	Share in total Trade 2011-12 (April-Sept)
1.	UAE	9.25
2.	China	9.27
3.	USA	7.23
4.	Saudi Arabia	4.44
5.	Switzerland	4.28
6.	Hong kong	3.15
7.	Germany	3.04
8.	Singapore	3.62
9.	Indonesia	2.79
10.	Belgium	2.09
11.	Korea	2.14
12.	Japan	2.15
13.	Iran	1.68
14.	Nigeria	2.39
15.	U.K	2.06
	Total of Top 15 Countries	59.55

Source : Economic survey 2011-12

It is clear from Table-2 that in 2011-12 top 15 countries share in India's foreign trade is 60% whereas in 2000-01 it was 55.5 percent. In 2007-08, USA was in the top position whereas in 2011.12 it is in third position. UAE is in the top position followed by china.

QUESTIONS

I. Very Short Answer Type Questions :

1. What do you mean by the directions of foreign trade of India?
2. What are the main two exports of India?
3. What are the main two imports of India?
4. What is the importance of exports for Indian Economy ? Write any one.
5. What is the importance of imports in Indian Economy? Write any one.

II. Short Answer Type Questions (Answer about 50-60 words) :

1. Explain the importance of India's foreign trade.
2. Explain the importance of imports and exports in Indian economy.
3. Explain the volume of foreign trade of India.
4. Describe the main Exports and imports of India.
5. Write a short note on change in volume and direction of India's foreign trade after independence.
6. Describe the direction of foreign trade of India.

CHAPTER 6

ECONOMIC PLANNING IN INDIA

1. INTRODUCTION

After independence, the Govt. of India had started the series of Five Year Plans for the removal of poverty and to achieve the goal of economic growth with social justice. Since 1951, a continuous process of Five Year Plans has been in operation in the country. By this time, we have completed Eleven Five Year Plans and Five One Year Plans. Eleventh five year plans commenced from April 2007 and completed on 31st March 2012. Twelfth five year plan commenced from April 2012 and will complete on 31st march 2017.

1.1 Definition :- Economic planning is a process under which set objectives of economic development are sought to be achieved in a determined period of time. Keeping in view the available resources of the country. The rapid rate of economic progress achieved, first of all, by Socialist Government of Russia by adopting proper technique of economic planning, served as a great source of inspiration to other countries of the world and they started taking keen interest in economic planning. Economic planning refers to that process wherein (i) a central planning authority, (ii) keeping in view the resources of the country, (iii) in a given period of time (iv) seeks to achieve pre-determined objectives and (v) makes an effort to control economic factors. To formulate the plans in India, the Planning Commission was set up in 1950.

2. NEED OF PLANNING

The foremost objective of the Directive principle of the Indian Constitution is to make available the required resources and to secure subsistence level for all people and raising their standard of living rapidly. To achieve both of these objectives, it is essential, that there should be sustained economic development of the country. Rapid rate of economic development requires that the resources of the country are properly utilized. This objective cannot be achieved by the market forces of demand and supply based on profit motive. It can be achieved by planned development of the economy. Thus for the rapid economic development of the country, there is a need for economic planning.

Nature of economic planning for underdeveloped countries like India, has been developmental planning. Economic planning is an important instrument for rapid economic development of India. It is because of the following reasons that India has adopted the path of economic development.

(i) Vicious Circle of Poverty :- India has been caught in the vicious circle of poverty. Thus, there is shortage of both demand and supply. This

shortage cannot be made up by the private sector. Adoption of economic planning objective by the government can alone break this vicious circle of poverty.

- (ii) **Efficient use of Resources** :- In an underdeveloped country like India, private entrepreneurs are misusing the country's resources. As a result of it, economic development of the country is adversely affected. The main objective of economic planning is to make the most efficient use of country's resources keeping in view its national and social interests. This scarcity can be over-come only by planning.
- (iii) **Balanced Structure of Production** :- Production structure of the country is unbalanced. Agriculture plays an important role. Industry and trade are less developed. Thus economic planning is essential for their development.
- (iv) **Development of Infrastructure** :- Means of transport, electricity, irrigation etc. are very much crucial for the economic development of the country. There is scarcity of these means in India. Economic planning is very much essential for the development of these means of infrastructure.
- (v) **Problem of Human Resources** :- India has large population and its qualitative aspect is deplorable. Economic planning is needed to bring down the growth of population and improve its quality.
- (vi) **Balanced Development** :- Private sector does not have enough capacity to develop all sectors of the economy. It is through economic planning alone that risky industries requiring huge capital investment and delayed prospects of profit, can be established.
- (vii) **Capital formation** :- Savings of the people can be collected and invested through economic planning. Capital can also be obtained from abroad. Thus economic planning is necessary to increase the rate of capital formation.

3. OBJECTIVES OF PLANS

The main objectives of economic planning in India are :-

- (1) Economic development and
 - (2) Social Justice
1. **Economic Development** :- The foremost objective of Indian economic planning is economic development of the country. The main indicators of economic development are :-
- (i) Increase in the rate of growth of real national income,

- (ii) Increase in the rate of growth of real per capita income. This can be possible only when the rate of growth of population is less than the rate of growth of national income.
- (iii) Increase in the standard of living of the people and
- (iv) Increase in the level of employment.

2. Social Justice :- The Directive Principles of Indian Constitution have considered the social and economic justice as a basic goal of politics. Accordingly, the main objective of planning is to determine the social and economic justice. There are several aspects of social justice like : (i) To reduce the inequalities in the distribution of income and concentration of economic power, (ii) Balanced development of agriculture, (iii) Economic development of the weaker and backward sections of the society.

4. Progress under Plans or Achievements Under Planning

The achievements of the Indian Planning under Public Sector are as follows:-

Table 1 : Expenditure of Public Sector under Five Years Plans

Plans	Time Period	Total expenditure of Public Sectors (Rs. crore)	Rate of Increase (%)
1. First Five Year Plan	1951-56	2,069	3.6
2. Second Five Year Plan	1956-61	4,672	4.1
3. Third Five Year Plan	1961-66	8,577	2.5
4. Three One Year Plans	1966-69	6,625	3.9
5. Fourth Five Year Plan	1969-74	15,779	3.3
6. Fifth Five Year Plan	1974-79	39,426	5.0
7. Sixth Five Year Plan	1980-85	1,10,467	5.4
8. Seventh Five Year Plan	1985-90	2,21,436	5.8
9. Two one year plan	1990-92	1,23,120	3.3
10. Eighth Five Year Plan	1992-97	4,85,457	6.7
11. Ninth Five Year Plan	1997-2002	8,59,000	5.35
12. Tenth five year plan	2002-2007	15,25,639	7.7
13. Eleventh five year plan	2007-2012	36,44,718	8.1
14. Twelfth five year plan	2012-17	N.A	9.0(target)

(Source: Economic Survey, 1999, Ninth Plan)

Table II : Public Sector Expenditure on Punjab's Five Year Plans

Plan	Total Expenditure (Rs. Crore)	Plan	Total Expenditure (Rs. Crore)
1. First Plan (1951-56)	163	7. Seventh Plan (1985-90)	3,547
2. Second Plan (1956-61)	151.43	8. Eighth Plan (1992-97)	8,577
3. Third Plan (1961-65)	256.23	9. Ninth plan (1997-2002)	9.76
4. Fourth Plan (1969-74)	425.47	10. Tenth plan (2002-07)	14,823
5. Fifth Plan (1974-79)	940.57	11. Eleventh plan (2007-12)	32,626
6. Sixth Plan (1980-85)	1957	12. Twelfth plan (2012-17)	N.A

(Economic survey 2011-12)

The progress in different sectors of Indian economy during the period of planning is as follows :—

- 1. Economic Development or Increase in National Income :-** Increase in national income is an index of economic development. During planning period in India, national income has remained on an average at the rate of 3.7 percent per annum. Though, the real rate of growth of national income has been very low than the targeted rate of growth. As a result of it, the planning has successfully broken the cycle of stagnation in the economy. During the Eleventh plan growth rate of 9.1 percent was achieved.
- 2. Increase in Per Capita Income :-** Before independence, increase in per capita income in India was almost zero but during the planning period it has increased to 1.7 percent. Per capita income has risen during all the plans, except the Third Plan.
- 3. Increase in the Rate of Capital Formation :-** Capital formation is very much essential for the economic development of a country. Rate of capital formation during the plans has increased. The rate of capital formation depends on the rate of savings and investments. During Five Year Plans, the rate of savings and investments has increased. In 1950-51, the rate of savings was 5.5 percent of national income but it rose to 32.4 percent in 2010-11.
- 4. Institutional Reforms in Agriculture and Green Revolution :—** Contribution of Plans to the development of agriculture has been two-fold - on the one hand, there have been land reforms in the country. On the other, since 1966, emphasis has been laid on the technological

development of agriculture. It resulted into Green Revolution. During the period of planning, production of foodgrains has increased threefold. During the period of planning there has been much development in the agriculture sector. In 1950-51 the production of foodgrains was 550 lakh tonnes, whereas in 2010-11 the production of foodgrains was 250.4 Million tonnes.

5. **Development of Industries :—** There has been considerable achievement in the field of industry due to plans. Growth of basic industries and capital goods industries such as iron, steel, machinery, fertilizers, chemical industries etc. has been tremendous. Public sector has been expanded. India has become self-sufficient in the field of consumer goods industries. Due to modernisation of the industries, the productive capacity of industries has tremendously increased. The rate of growth of industrial production has risen about by 8 percent.
6. **Development of Infrastructure :—** Infrastructure facilities comprise of mainly means of transport, and communication, irrigation facilities and production capacity of power etc.
7. **Social Services :—** During the plans, social services like education, medical care, health, family planning etc. have also improved considerably, which is clear from the following points :—
 - (i) Death rate reduced from 27 per thousand in 1951 to just 7.2 per thousand in 1998.
 - (ii) Average expectancy of Life improved from just 32 years in 1960 to 65.4 years in 2011.
 - (iii) Epidemics like malaria have been fully eradicated.
 - (iv) In education sector, number of school going children has risen by three times as compared to 1951 and the number of college students has risen by five times.
 - (v) In health sector, the number of beds and doctors, nurses and medicines in hospitals and medical facilities like family planning clinics have considerably increased in the hospitals. The number of hospitals and dispensaries has increased to 43,000. Now one doctor is available for every 1900 persons.
8. **Employment :—** During the plans, considerable efforts have been made to increase the level of employment. First Plan offered employment to 70 lakh persons, In Fourth Plan 180 lakh people got the employment.

Eighth Plan targetted at offering employment to 80-90 lakh persons every year.

9. **Removal of Poverty** :— During the planning period, the percentage of population living below poverty line has been reduced. In 1972-73, the 51 percent of total population was living below the poverty line. Out of which 54% were from rural areas and 46% from urban areas. In 1996-97 the percentage of population below poverty line has been reduced to 30%.

5. FAILURES OF PLANS

The main failures of Indian plans are as follows :-

- (1) **No substantial increase in the Standard of Living** :- All the Five Year Plans of India aimed at raising the standard of living of the people. In fact, what to say to improving the living standard, even the basic necessities of life have not yet been provided to the people. On an average, a normal healthy person needs 2508 calories of food per day, but in India per capita availability of food is 2400 calories. An individual gets 16 meters of cloth per annum. Regarding housing, the condition is deplorable. In 1950-51, per capita income at 1980-81 prices was Rs.1127. In 2006-07, it increased to Rs.22,533 at 1999-200 prices. In India, 30 percent of population still lives below the poverty line. Despite 62 years of planning, poverty alleviation programme has not met with much success. The aspirations that poor and middle-class people had on the plans had met with poor success.
- (2) **Rise in Prices** :- Price stability was another objective set for each plan. But almost all the plans witnessed considerable rise in price-level. First Plan is the only exception when price level came down, but the price level rose to 6.3% on an average in the Second Plan, in Third Plan it rose to 5.8%, in Sixth Plan there was 9.7% increase in the prices and in Seventh Plan increase in price level was 6.7%. Eighth Plan witnessed an increase of 8.7% in the price level Till March 2007 increase in price level was more than 6 percent. At present increase in price level is upto 7.4%.
- (3) **Increase in Unemployment** :- During the period of five year plans the rate of unemployment has been rising. At the end of First Five Year Plan, 53 lakhs persons were unemployed and 206 lakhs at the end of Fifth Plan. Even after Sixth Plan 92 lakh persons were unemployed. In 1997-98 the number of unemployed persons was 4 crore. In last 20 years, employment opportunities have increased by 2.2 percent while the

supply of labour has increased by 2.5 percent resulting in an increase in unemployment. In 2009, number of unemployed persons rose to 3.82 crore.

- (4) **Less Growth in Productive Sectors** :- In the Five Year Plans, growth rate of production was slow in every sector. Priority should have been given to the development of agriculture in all the plans, but it was not done. Capital intensive industries were given precedence over agriculture and village industries. Green Revolution was actually reduced to wheat and rice revolution.
- (5) **Inequality in the Distribution of Income and Wealth** :- The main objective of Five Year Plans was the equal distribution of income and wealth. But the plans witnessed further accentuation of inequality. Rich class became richer and poor class became poorer. This inequality is found not only in industrial sector but in agriculture sector also. According to an estimate, 3% of households own roughly 50 percent of cultivable land. Slogan of socialism given to the nation during the period of planning remained a mere slogan.
- (6) **Inefficient Administration** :- An expert team of U.N.O. observed that the main shortcoming of Indian planning was with reference to its implementation. Plans are formulated after good deal of discussions and deliberations but their objectives are not achieved due to inefficient administration, dishonesty, vested interests and red-tapism etc.
- (7) **Lack of Strong Foundation** :- Even after the completion of Nine Plans, still the economic base is far from being strong. We are still dependant mainly on nature for the development of agriculture. In 1965-66, 1966-67, 1979-80 and 1982-83, the entire economy was out of gear due to the failure of monsoons. Import of foodgrains have to be increased. A little shortfall in agricultural production in 1982-83 affected the entire economy adversely. Again, Gulf war in 1991 and Iraq war in 2003 badly disrupted our economy.
- (8) **More Ambitious Plans** :- Indian Plans are criticised on the ground that their aims are very much ambitious. Two factors may account for it : firstly there is shortage of resources and secondly, faulty implementation of the Plans. There was a wide gap between the targets of growth rate and their achievements during the period of planning. The average growth rate of Indian economy has been 4.1 percent as against the targets

of 5 percent. This gap between targets and their achievements is a testimony of failure of planning in our country.

- (9) **Paradox of Saving and Investment** :- Although during the planning period, there has been appreciable increase in the rate of saving and investment, yet the growth rate of economy has been very slow. Several factors account for this paradox :-
- (i) Capital output ratio is very high in India. It is around 6:1 and has been rising constantly. Due its increase the increase in investment is followed by relatively less increase in production.
 - (ii) Considerable part of investment is in the form of foodgrains and not in the form of permanent capital formation. As a result of it, despite the increase in the investment there is no corresponding increase in production.
 - (iii) Large portion of investment is made in traditional sectors instead of modern one.
10. **Foreign Exchange Crisis** :- In 1991, Indian economy had to face an acute foreign exchange crisis. It is because of large amount of foreign borrowings, payments of interest on these loans and low rate of increase in exports for the implementation of the plans. Thus, plans have failed to meet the deficits in balance of payments of the country.
11. **Eighth Five year plan (1992-97)** :- The Eighth Five year plan in India Started in April 1992 and completed on 31st March 1997. During the plan there was a target to spend Rs 4,34,100 crore in Public sector whereas the real expenditure was Rs, 4, 74, 121, crore.
- 6.1 **MAIN OBJECTIVES OF EIGHTH FIVE YEAR PLAN**
- I. **Objectives** :-
1. To achieve the growth rate of 5.6 percent per annum.
 2. To achieve the goal of full employment by the end of 20th century.
 3. To reduce the growth rate of population.
 4. To eliminate illiteracy among the people in the age group of 15 to 35 years.
 5. Growth of agriculture in such a way as to achieve the self-sufficiency in food and generation of surplus output for exports.
 6. Provision of safe drinking water and primary health services to all villages in the country.

7. Strengthening of social overhead costs, in other words means of energy, transport and communication etc. will be developed.

6.3 MAIN ACHIEVEMENTS OF EIGHTH FIVE YEAR PLAN

Eighth Plan which started on 1st April, 1992 was completed on 31st March, 1997. It has the following achievements:-

1. **Growth Rate** :- The target of Eighth Plan was to achieve the growth rate of 5.6 percent per annum, but actually the growth rate was 6 percent.
2. **Progress in Agriculture Sector** :- The growth rate for agriculture sector was proposed to be 3.1% but it has actually increased to 3.5%. Production of foodgrains has increased from 1684 lakh tonnes to 1934 lakh tonnes.
3. **Increase in Industrial Production** :- The period of Eighth Plan was a period of liberal Industrial policy. The target of industrial production was fixed as 7.6% per annum which had actually increased to 11.7 percent.
4. **Increase in Foreign Trade** :- The growth rate of exports for eighth plan was proposed to be 13.6% which had actually increased to 21.9%.
5. **Check on Inflation** :- During Eighth Plan rate of inflation has decreased which was proposed to be 12% but actually it was 7%.
6. **Increase in Rate of Saving** :- For this Plan, the target of saving rate was 21.6% but actually the saving rate was 23.9%.

Lastly, it can be said that Eighth Plan has been successful to a great extent to fulfil the hopes of the people and the government.

7. Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002)

According to the Approach Paper, Ninth Plan was started on 1st April 1997 and it was completed on 31st March 2002. Total investment on public sector was proposed to be Rs.8,59,000 crores.

7.1 MAIN OBJECTIVES OF NINTH FIVE YEAR PLAN

Following were the main objectives of the Ninth Five Year Plan :-

1. To achieve the rate of growth at 7% per annum.
2. To increase the rate of saving from 26.2 percent to that of 28.6 percent.
3. To increase the opportunities for employment and to give priority to agriculture and rural development.
4. To increase the growth rate in order to keep price stability.
5. To ensure food and nutritional products to the poor.

6. To make provision of minimum basic social services such as safe drinking water, primary education, health care facilities etc.
7. To reduce the growth rate of population.
8. To enable the backward section of society to participate in the socio-economic changes and developmental plannings.
9. To develop the Panchayati Raj and Co-operative institutions.
10. To achieve the objective of self-reliance in the country.
11. Try to combat the poverty in the country.
12. Lastly, the Ninth Plan aims at achieving the goal of growth with Equity.

Tenth Five year plan (2002-07)

In India, Tenth Five year plan Started on 1st April 2002 and completed on 31st March 2007. The average growth rate during The plan was 7.8% per year.

8.1 MAIN OBJECTIVES OF THE TENTH FIVE YEAR PLANS

1. To achieve the growth rate of 8 percent.
2. To double the growth rate of per capita income in next ten years.
3. To reduce poverty ratio by 5 percent till 2007 and by 15 % till 2012.
4. Promoting employment
5. To provide elementary education to all till 2007.
6. To reduce sex discrimination by almost 50 percent.
7. To reduce the rate of growth of population by 16.2 percent during the period of 2001 to 2011.
8. To increase the literacy rate by 75 percent during the planning period.
9. To reduce infant mortality rate to 28 per thousand
10. To reduce maternal mortality rate to 1 per thousand.
11. To provide drinking water in almost all the villages.
12. To ensure equal growth in all the states.

8.2 MAIN ACHIEVEMENTS OF TENTH FIVE YEAR PLAN

1. **Economic Development** – A growth rate of 7.8 percent per year has been achieved during this period.
2. **Progress in Agriculture sector** – In 2006-07 the production of food grains increased to 2,173 lakh tonnes and the area under irrigation increased to 551 lakh hectares.

3. **Development of Infrastructure** – During the planning period there was a great development of Infrastructure including transportation irrigation, Roadways, electricity etc.
4. **Self-Sufficiently** – Self sufficiency has been achieved during the tenth plan. The percent of import in the natural income has been reduced. The percent of Exports increased from 20.9% during ninth plan to 24.8% in 2006–07.
9. **Eleventh Five year plan (2007–12)**
Eleventh plan Commenced from 1st April 2007 and completed on 31st march, 2012. The targeted average growth rate during the plan was 9 percent per year.

9.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE ELEVENTH FIVE YEAR PLAN

1. To achieve development in various fields including reduction in poverty.
2. To develop quality of education and health facilities.
3. To make policy for the second Green Revolution
4. Promoting employment opportunities.
5. To protev environment.

QUESTIONS

I. Very Short Answer Type Questions

1. When and why Economic Planning has started in India?
2. How many plans have so far been executed in India?
3. Describe main objective of Indian planning.
4. Write any main achievement of planning period.
5. What are the main two failures of plannings.
6. Describe one main objective of Tenth Plan.

II. Short Answer Type Questions (Answer in about 50–60 words)

1. What is the meaning of Economic Planning?
2. What is the need of planning for economic development of India?
3. Describe the main objectives of Planning in India.
4. Explain the successes of planning.
5. In which year Planning Commission was established? What are two primary objectives of planning in India?

6. Explain the failures of economic development of India.
7. Write a short note on the objectives and targets of Eighth Five Year Plan.
8. Write main achievements of Tenth plan ?
9. Describe the main objectives of Eleventh Five Year Plan.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Part II

(History & Civics)

For Class X



Punjab School Education Board
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PREFACE

Punjab School Education Board ever since its inception has been actively engaged in the preparation of text books based on new syllabi. On the direction of Education Policy 1986, 10+2+3 pattern of Education has been implemented. While taking into consideration the recommendations of the National Policy of Education, a number of changes have been introduced in the syllabi of classes IX and X. A sincere effort has been made to bring the syllabi of social studies at par with the National pattern of Education, to enable the students of Punjab to remain conversant with the National curriculum.

The Board, from the year 1997 onwards, under the new education policy has revised the syllabi of Social Studies keeping in view the changes taking place in economic and social conditions. Along with History, Geography and Civics, the study of Economics has also been included in the subject of social studies. The text-book of social studies has been published in two volumes. Geography and Economics form part one of the text book and the second part includes the study of History and Civics. In this text book History part deals with the history of Punjab whereas civics portion includes the thorough study of the working of Government of India at the centre and state level and foreign policy of India in context of the United Nations.

This book has been prepared under the able guidance of Mrs. Jagbir Kaur Brar, Director Academics. The co-ordination of the Civics portion has been done by Mrs. Kanwaljit Kaur, Subject Expert (Pol. Science) and History Portion has been coordinated by Mrs. Seema Chawla Expert (History). The designs and maps developed by Artist Mr. Manjit Singh has made the study of this book interesting.

Study of these books will invoke new thoughts and ideas in the learners and will widen their mental horizon. Though every effort has been made to make this book useful, we would thankfully welcome suggestions from the field.

Chairman

Punjab School Education Board.

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LESSON -1

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF PUNJAB AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON ITS HISTORY

The word 'Punjab' is a combination of the two Persian words 'Punj' and 'Aab'. Punj means five and Aab means water. Thus, Punjab means a land of five rivers. These five rivers are -the Satluj, the Beas, the Ravi, the Chenab and the Jhelum. Punjab is situated on the North-Western frontiers of India. In 1947, due to the partition of India, Punjab was divided into two parts. Its western part became Pakistan. The Eastern part of Punjab became North-Western frontier province of the present Indian Republic. Three rivers- the Ravi, the Chenab and the Jhelum flow through Punjab situated in Pakistan which is now known as the 'West Punjab'. The Indian Punjab known as the 'East Punjab' has only two rivers - the Beas and the Satluj. The name 'Punjab' has become so popular that its people prefer to call it 'Punjab' only instead of 'West' or 'East' Punjab. In this book we will study about ancient Punjab that lies between the two rivers, the Yamuna and the Indus.

1. Changes in the Name of Punjab

Punjab has been named differently in different times. In the Vedic- Age, the land of Punjab was called the land of seven rivers instead of the land of five rivers. At that time, along with five rivers, in the extreme west, the river Indus (Sindh) and in the extreme east the river Saraswati (which has become dry in these days) have been described in the Vedic literature. For this reason, the area around these seven rivers was called '**Sapta Sindhu**'. During the Ramayana and the Mahabharata period, Punjab was known as '**Panchnada**'. At times, it was also called '**Braham Vrata**'. The Greek historians named Punjab, **Pentapotamia** which in Greek means the land of five rivers. For some time, Punjab was known by the name **Taki** after a powerful tribe of the same name. Hieun Tsang, a Chinese traveller, called the region between the Indus and the Beas foothills to Panchnada as **Tsekai**. After the advent of the Turks, this province was named as Punjab under the influence of the Persian language.

2. Boundaries of Punjab at Different Times

The boundaries of Punjab have been changing frequently. The Rigvedic Punjab included the area which was irrigated by the rivers Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, Satluj and Saraswati. During the Mauryan and the Kushan period, the western boundary of Punjab extended upto the mountains of

Hindukush and Taxila became its part. Under the Indo-Bactrian and Indo-Parthian rulers, Punjab was a separate kingdom and Sakala (Sialkot) was its capital. During this period also, the boundary of Punjab touched the present Afghanistan. During the period of Delhi Sultanate, the Lahore province of Punjab extended upto Peshawar. During the Mughal period, Punjab was divided into two provinces-Lahore and Multan. During the period of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, the eastern boundary of Punjab was the river Satluj and the Khyber pass was its western boundary. At that time, Lahore was the capital of Punjab. In this way the plains between the rivers Satluj and Yamuna got separated from Punjab and came under the rule of the British. After Maharaja Ranjit Singh's rule, there was again a big change in the boundaries of Punjab. After the Indian Revolt in 1857 A.D., the British extended the boundaries of Punjab upto Delhi.

In 1901 A.D., Lord Curzon separated the area beyond the river Indus of Punjab and formed a new province named North-West Frontier Province. In 1911 A.D., the Viceroy Lord Hardinge separated Delhi from Punjab and made it the capital of Hindustan. But the most significant partition took place in 1947 at the end of the British rule in India. Punjab was divided into two parts - the East Punjab and the West Punjab. As a result, the districts of Punjab with greater Muslim population were given to Pakistan. Out of a total of 29 districts of Punjab, only thirteen districts were given to the Indian Punjab.

In 1956 A.D., due to the reorganisation of the states, the principalities of Malwa were merged with Punjab after their dissolution. On November 1, 1966, once again the region of Punjab was limited due to the reorganisation of the state on linguistic basis. Punjab was again divided and two states i.e. Punjab and Haryana were formed. Some part of the Punjab was included in Himachal Pradesh. The districts of Amritsar, Jalandhar, Ropar, Kapurthala, Gurdaspur, Hoshiarpur, Ferozepur, Ludhiana, Patiala, Sangrur and Bhatinda were included in Punjab at that time. The districts of Rohtak, Hissar, Gurgaon, Karnal, Ambala without tehsil Ropar and tehsil Jind became parts of Haryana. Shimla and tehsil Una, district Kangra were included in Himachal Pradesh. The sub-mountainous region of Chandigarh was made the capital of Punjab. The area of today's Punjab has reduced due to this division.

3. Physical Features of Punjab

The history of Punjab under study, is a triangular piece of land that lies between the rivers Indus and Yamuna. In the north are the hills of the Himalayas and in the south of it, is Rajasthan and large deserts of Sind. In the east, the river Yamuna flows and in the west there are the hills of the Sulaiman and the Kirthar. Geographically, Punjab can be divided into three parts:-

(A) The Himalayas and its North-Western Mountains.

- (B) The Sub-Mountainous Region.
 (C) The Plains.

(A) The Himalayas and its Northern and Western Mountain Ranges

The mountains of the Himalayas are in a continuous series in Punjab. There are many valleys in these mountains. The width of these mountains is about 250 kilometres to 350 kilometres. The height of these mountains is not uniform. For the defence of our country these mountains act as a strong wall. That is why these hills are divided into three parts i.e. the Greater Himalayas, the Mid Himalayas and the Outer Himalayas.

A continuous series of the range of the Greater Himalayas in the east spread towards Nepal and Tibet. In the west also, it is called the Greater Himalayas. This mountain separates Lahaul, Spiti and Kangra districts of Punjab from Kashmir. In these hills lie the beautiful valley of Kulu and the Rohtang Pass. The height of these mountains is approximately 5851 metres to 6718 metres. These hills are always covered with snow.

The Mid Himalayas is often called the Pangi range of hills. These hills run across from the Rohtang Pass to Chamba and separate the valleys of the rivers Chenab and Ravi. Their height is approximately 2155 metres. The hill range of outer Himalayas runs parallel to the Mid Himalayas. These hills run across from Chamba and Dharamshala through Kashmir upto Rawalpindi and Gujarat districts. The height of these hills is 923 metres approximately. This region is called 'Sub-mountainous' area. These hills are also called the hills of Dhauladhar.

The name of western hills of the Himalayas is the Sulaiman and the Kirthar. There are many passes in these hills out of which **the Khyber, the Kuram, the Tochi, the Bolan and the Gomal** are famous. Through these passes Punjab (India) could establish relations with Central Asia. Through Khyber Pass, the western intruders entered Punjab.

The Advantages of the Himalayas

The Himalayas is a high mountain range. Its peaks are always covered with snow. That is why water flows in the rivers of Punjab throughout the year. As a result, the land of Punjab is fertile. Because of the fertile land of Punjab, the people living here are economically prosperous.

There are thick forests on the Himalayas. These forests provide medicinal plants and wood because of which Punjab enjoys good economic conditions. Snow clad mountains and thick forests act as barriers for the invaders. The Himalayas serve as a defence guard on the northern borders of Punjab.

The monsoons strike against the Himalayan mountains and cause rainfall. If in the north of Punjab, there had been no mountains, Punjab would have been a dry and a cold region. The agriculture would have been scanty.

Due to the Himalayas there are many beautiful tourist places in Punjab like Shimla, Mandi, Chail and Solan etc. (now in Himachal Pradesh). Tourists from far and wide have been using these hill stations, which had helped in improving its economic condition too.

The western hills of the Himalayas, the Sulaiman and the Kirthar, the two passes also have been a boon to Punjab. Through these passes we have been able to maintain transport facilities with Central Asia. Our trade, art and civilization all flourished through these passes. The mountains of the Himalayas act as a lifeline of Punjab.

(B) The Sub-Mountainous Region

In the south, along with the Himalaya mountains, the ranges of the Shivalik and Kasauli form a congested part which is known as the sub-mountainous region of Punjab. The approximate height of this area is 308 meters to 923 meters. It includes the eastern part of Jhelum, the northern part of Ropar and Ambala, the lower hills of Kangra, the northern area of the districts of Hoshiarpur and Gurdaspur, some area of Gujarat district and some parts of Sialkot district. There is plenty of rainfall in this region. The soil is sandy and rocky. That is why the area is neither fertile nor thickly populated. The main crops of this region are maize, rice and wheat.

(C) The Plains

If we consider the land of Punjab as a whole, it will appear as a continuous slope.

The land of Punjab can be divided into two parts the 'Eastern Plains' and the 'Western Plains'. The region between the Yamuna and the Ravi is called the Eastern Plains. This area is mostly fertile. It is thickly populated. The region between the rivers Indus and Ravi is called the Western Plains. This area is not as prosperous as region of Eastern Plains.

From the times of Akbar, the region between every two rivers was called a **Doab**. The Punjab was divided into 5 doabs. The important feature of these doabs is that the name of every doab is made up of first word of two rivers names. The following five doabs of Punjab still exist.

1. **Doab Sindh Sagar** : In this doab, the area lies between the river Indus (Sindh) and the river Jhelum. This area is not very fertile.
2. **Doab Chaj** : The region between the river Chenab and the river Jehlum is

called Chaj doab. This doab is more fertile than Sindh Sagar doab. Gujarat, Bhera and Shahpur are famous cities of this doab.

3. Doab Rachna : This doab is between the river, the Ravi and the river Chenab. It is very fertile. Sialkot, Gujranwala, Sheikhpura etc. are the famous cities of this doab.

4. Doab Bari : This doab is situated between the river Beas and the river Ravi. The land of this doab is more fertile than the rest of the land of Punjab. It is in the mid of Punjab so it is called **Majhas** also. The residents are called **Majhails**. The big and famous cities of Lahore and Amritsar are in this doab.

5. Doab Bist Jalandhar : The region between the rivers the Satluj and the Beas is called Doab Bist, Jalandhar. This area is famous as Doaba also. The land of this doab is very fertile. Jalandhar, Hoshiarpur and Kapurthala are the famous cities of this doab.

Besides these above five doabs, there is another part of plains that lies between the rivers Sutlej and Yamuna. It is a long, broad and fertile piece of land. The area between the river Sutlej and the river Ghaggar is called **Malwa**. Patiala, Ropar, Sirhind, Ludhiana, Ferozepur, Ambala and Bathinda etc. are the famous cities in it. The inhabitants of this area are called 'Malwai'.

The part of the plains which is between the river Ghaggar and the river Yamuna is called **Bangar**. Kurukshetra, Panipat, Karnal, Thanesar and Rohtak are the famous cities of this area.

Influence of the Physical Features of Punjab on its History

1. Punjab as a Gateway to India : The physical features of Punjab have greatly influenced the history of this land. Its geographical conditions have made it as a 'Gateway to India'. In the North-West of Punjab, the mountains of the Himalayas act like a strong wall. Except the Europeans, all the invaders from the west came through this route to try their luck in India. The Khyber pass was the direct route to enter Punjab and it was easy to cross. All the foreign invaders from Alexander (326 B.C.) to Shah Jaman (1798 A.D.) had been invading India via Punjab from Central Asia through the passes of the Sulaiman and the Kirthar hills. As a result, the Punjabis had to resist the invaders more than any others. This was the reason, many important battles like the two battles of Terrain (Trawari) and the three battles of Panipat were fought here. Due to its geographical position, Punjab had to bear the brunt of foreign invasions.

2. Effects of the Rivers of Punjab : The rivers of Punjab have deeply influenced its history. These rivers act like boundaries between the states because of their continuous flow throughout the year. The river Satluj had been serving as a boundary between the empires of the Britishers and Maharaja Ranjit Singh.

Even today, a part of the river Ravi forms Indo-Pak border. Many times these rivers checked the advance of invaders. Trade was also carried through them which helped in bringing prosperity in Punjab.

3. Effects on the temperament of the Punjabis : The physical features of Punjab had not only influenced its political condition but also the culture of the Punjabis. The Punjabis always anticipated invasions from the north-western frontiers. Therefore, the Punjabis were always armed. As a result they became warriors and brave. Unity, liberty and development of India depended on the strength of the Punjabis. Because of their interaction with the foreigners, the Punjabis could adopt their good habits. The Punjabis thus always remain ahead of other people.

4. Mostly Punjab remained under the Foreign Rulers: Whenever any foreign invader made a plan to conquer India, he made Punjab his first target. So any number of invaders who came to India from the side of North-Western frontiers, first of all captured Punjab. The Alexander, the Kushans and the Hunas established their kingdoms here. Due to its geographical position, Punjab remained part of the Gaznavi empire for about 150 years. Ahmed Shah Abdali and Shah Jaman had been making efforts to annex Punjab into Afghan rule claiming their ancestral right. Due to the geographical position of Punjab, the Britishers reached Punjab in the end because the Britishers had entered India from South-Eastern side.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 10-15 words.

1. Name the words and the language from which the word Punjab has been derived. Write its meaning also.
2. What was the impact of the partition of India on Punjab?
3. In which period was Punjab called Sapta Sindhu and why?
4. Geographically, in how many parts has Punjab been divided? Write the names of the parts.
5. Write the names of the four Passes situated in the western ranges of the Himalayas.
6. If Punjab had no Himalayas in the North, what type of area would it have been?
7. What is the meaning of a doab?
8. What is the area between the river Satluj and the river Ghaggar called? What are the inhabitants of this area called?
9. How was the Doab Bist Jalandhar named? Write the names of any two famous cities of this area.

10. Why is the Doab Bari called Majha? What are the residents of this area called?

(B) **Answer the following questions in about 30-50 words.**

1. Write any four advantages of the Himalayas.
2. Write briefly about any three doabs.
3. How did the rivers of Punjab affect the course of its history?
4. Give information about the boundaries of Punjab in different periods.
5. How did the Himalayan mountains influence the history of Punjab?

(C) **Answer the following questions in about 100-120 words.**

1. Describe the mountain range of the Himalayas and its North-Western hills.
 2. Describe the plains of Punjab.
-

LESSON-2

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS OF PUNJAB BEFORE GURU NANAK DEV JI

Guru Nanak Dev Ji was born in 1469 A.D. Political and social conditions of Punjab were despicable before his birth. The rulers were weak and divided. Punjab was facing external aggressions. The rulers at that time were fanatics. The Hindu society was divided into castes and sub-castes. The position of women was deplorable. The morality of people had declined. They were involved in baseless superstitions.

POLITICAL CONDITION

Punjab Under the Rule of the Lodhi Sultans

1. Behlol Khan Lodhi, 1451-1489 A.D. : After becoming the Sultan of Delhi, Behlol Khan Lodhi appointed Tatar Khan, the Nizam of Punjab and Shahzada Nizam Khan, the Nizam (Sikandar Lodhi) of Sirhind. Behlol Lodhi decided to appoint Sheikh Yusuf as the Nizam of Multan and ordered Tatar Khan and his own son Barbak Shah to proceed to Multan for his help. But Hussain defeated the royal armies. So Behlol Lodhi lost control over the sub-province of south Punjab. Inspired by the independence of Multan, the Nizam of Punjab, Tatar Khan also declared independence. Behlol Lodhi sent his son Nizam Khan (Sikandar Lodhi) to punish Tatar Khan. Nizam Khan inflicted a strong defeat on Tatar Khan. Consequently, the Lodhi rule was established in Punjab.

2. Sikandar Lodhi, 1489, 1517 A.D. : After the death of Behlol Lodhi, Sikandar Lodhi became the Sultan of Delhi. He is known as a famous Sultan of the Lodhi dynasty. He centralised his administration and exercised full control over his chiefs and jagirdars. He appointed Daulat Khan Lodhi as the Nizam of Central Punjab. The borders of Lodhi's province were from Behra (Sargodha) to Sirhind. Dipalpur was also a strong sub province of Punjab. But in Doaba Chaj, the Gakhars were supreme. Among all these rulers, the position of Daulat Khan Lodhi was strong because Sikandar Lodhi regarded him as one of the four chiefs of the Lodhi tribes. The Sultan of Delhi collected taxes from them and in lieu of it, he did not interfere in their local administration so that being north-west frontier province they may not have alliance with foreign rulers. During the times of Sikandar Lodhi, Punjab formed a very small part of the Lodhi empire. Sikandar Lodhi regarded it his duty to remove the grievances of his subjects. But his duties and justice was confined to Muslims only. He hated the Hindus. He derived pleasure in destroying the Hindu idols and temples.

3. Ibrahim Lodhi, 1517-1526 A.D. : Ibrahim Lodhi ascended the throne after Sikandar Lodhi. He was a wise and an intelligent ruler. He was a brave soldier and to a great extent a successful general also. Although he was hard working and honest yet he was unsuccessful during his rule.

Although he himself was an Afghan, he could not understand the nature and character of the Pathans (Afghans). He tried to create discipline among the Pathans ignoring the policies of his father and grandfather. Ibrahim's empire from Behra to Bhiar was left in name only. The pathans were democratic in nature. They considered the sultan not more than a chief. They revolted against him and Ibrahim Lodhi failed to suppress these revolts.

In Lodhi's kingdom, Punjab was a province (suba). But the Punjab at that time was divided into two subas i.e. Lahore and Multan. Further the suba of Punjab was divided into parganas as Sirhind, Sultanpur and Dipalpur. These parganas were directly under the control of the Sultan.

4. Daulat Khan Lodhi and Punjab : Sikandar Lodhi made Tatar Khan, the governor (subedar) of Punjab. After his death, his son Daulat Khan was appointed governor of Punjab. So long as Sikandar Lodhi was alive, Daulat Khan remained sincere to him. But the rigid, suspicious and proud nature of Ibrahim Lodhi forced Daulat Khan Lodhi to hate him. Taking into consideration the attitude of the Sultan, Daulat Khan decided to establish his own independent rule. He started making plans against Ibrahim Lodhi. During these days Alam Khan (Uncle of Ibrahim Lodhi) also had a desire to rule over Delhi. As a result, he started conspiring with Daulat Khan Lodhi.

When Ibrahim Lodhi came to know about the activities of Daulat Khan Lodhi and Alam Khan, he called Daulat Khan Lodhi to Delhi. He did not go to Delhi himself, but he sent his son Dilawar Khan.

When Dilawar Khan reached Delhi, Ibrahim Lodhi arrested him. But soon Dilawar Khan escaped and reached Lahore. Therefore, Daulat Khan Lodhi was convinced that Ibrahim Lodhi would punish him. As a result, in order to let down Ibrahim Lodhi, he broke his ties with Delhi and started making new plans for himself.

Alliance Between Daulat Khan Lodhi and Babur

In 1519 A.D., Zahir-ud-Din Babur, the king of Kabul invaded Punjab. Firstly, Babur conquered Bajaur. At the same time he annexed Bhera also. Inspired by his conquests, Babur sent one of his messengers Mulla Murshid to Ibrahim Lodhi. Daulat Khan Lodhi stopped the messenger at Lahore. Babur entrusted the administration of his conquered areas to Hindu Beig and himself returned to Kabul. After some time, the people of Bhera revolted and forced

Hindu Beig to run away. This irritated Babur and he again invaded Punjab in September 1519 A.D. After conquering Bhera once again, Babur conquered Sialkot also. From here Babur proceeded towards Sayyidpur (Eminabad). The defence forces of Sayyidpur resisted the invading army of Babur very bravely. Ultimately, Babur became victorious and killed the defence force. The people of Sayyidpur were treated inhumanly. Many people were enslaved. Guru Nanak Dev Ji was also imprisoned. Guru Nanak Dev Ji has described these atrocities in his **Baburbani**.

In the years 1520-24 A.D., Daulat Khan Lodhi tried to strengthen his position in Central Punjab. As a result, Ibrahim Lodhi turned more hostile towards him. Ibrahim Lodhi decided to recapture Punjab after punishing Daulat Khan Lodhi at the first available opportunity. As a result, Daulat Khan Lodhi sent his son Dilawar Khan to Kabul to meet Babur and invited him to attack Punjab. On the other side, Ibrahim Lodhi sent his armies against Daulat Khan Lodhi and as defeated. Babur reached near Lahore in 1524 A.D. without any resistance. Here, the armies of Ibrahim Lodhi under Behar Khan tried to resist Babur but he defeated Behar Khan. Babur occupied Lahore. He also occupied Jalandhar and Dipalpur easily. Daulat Khan Lodhi hoped that after occupying these areas, Babur would hand over the possession to him and he himself would return to Kabul. But Babur gave him only the areas of Jalandhar and Sultanpur. At this Daulat Khan Lodhi rebelled. He was defeated and he escaped to the hills. Babur handed over the area of Sultanpur to Dilawar Khan, the son of Daulat Khan Lodhi. He gave Dipalpur to Alam Khan, the uncle of Ibrahim Lodhi. He handed over Lahore to his representative Abdul Aziz. Babur returned to Kabul. Babur realised that more preparation was required to invade Delhi.

Alam Khan and Punjab

The Afghan chiefs were angry with Ibrahim Lodhi due to his bad behaviour. To show their anger, they planned to enthrone Alam Khan as the Sultan of Delhi. For this purpose they decided to take help from Babur but in 1524 A.D. as Babur returned to Kabul after making arrangements of his conquered areas, Daulat Khan Lodhi collected his armies and snatched Lahore from Abdul Aziz. After that he ousted Dilawar Khan from Sultanpur and defeated Alam Khan at Dipalpur. Alam Khan took shelter with Babur who was at Kabul. After that Daulat Khan Lodhi attacked Sialkot but he failed in his attempt. Ibrahim Lodhi sent his armies to curb the increasing power of Daulat Khan and to turn out the army of Babur from Punjab. Daulat Khan Lodhi defeated his army. As a result, Daulat Khan Lodhi's independent rule was established in Central Punjab.

After reaching Kabul, Alam Khan signed a treaty with Babur. The terms of the treaty were:

1. Babur would give military assistance to Alam Khan to secure the throne of Delhi.
2. Alam Khan would accept the legal possession of Babur over the areas of Punjab.

In order to help Alam Khan, Babur sent **edicts**, to the Mughal rulers of Punjab.

When Alam Khan reached Lahore, he found that instead of the Mughal king's rule, Daulat Khan had established his rule. It saddened Alam Khan. Considering Alam Khan's feelings, Daulat Khan Lodhi sent him a proposal of help, against Ibrahim Lodhi. Alam Khan liked his proposal. Therefore, he joined Daulat Khan. Alam Khan attacked Delhi with his help. The armies of Ibrahim Khan defeated him. As a result of it the dreams of Alam Khan to conquer Punjab or the kingdom of Delhi were dashed to the ground.

Babur's Conquest of Punjab

In November 1525 A.D. Babur proceeded from Kabul to Punjab with 12,000 soldiers. First of all Babur decided to punish Daulat Khan Lodhi. Daulat Khan Lodhi with his son Gazi Khan fled from Lahore when he came to know of the bad intentions of Babur. At last, Daulat Khan Lodhi surrendered before Babur.

From Lahore Babur advanced towards Sirhind, the sub division of Punjab. First of all he conquered Ambala. To conquer Hansi and Hissar-Feroza he sent his son Humayun. Babur advanced towards Delhi to conquer Panipat. He camped at Panipat. Ibrahim Lodhi, the Sultan of Delhi also advanced towards him with a force of 1,00,000 soliders. His army was divided into four divisions - forward force, central force, left and right hand forces. There were about 5,000 elephants in front of the forces.

On the other side Babur kept 700 ox-wagons in front of his force. He tied the ox-wagons with leather ropes. Behind ox-wagons there was artillery. Behind artillery there was forward force and central force. On the right and left were **Tulgama** forces. In the end a big force of cavalry was hidden.

For one week, Babur kept quiet. On April 21, 1526 A.D. first the army of Ibrahim Lodhi attacked. His army stopped on coming close to the ox-wagons of Babur and the artillery of Babur started bombardment. The elephants of Ibrahim Lodhi, on getting injured, turned back and crushed their own forces. The **Tulgama** forces of Babur advanced from right and left and besieged the

enemy from behind. Ibrahim Lodhi and his 15,000 soldiers were killed. Babur conquered the whole of Punjab.

Social Condition

The society before Guru Nank Dev Ji was divided mainly into two parts - the Muslim society and the Hindu society.

Social Condition of the Muslims : Before Guru Nank Dev Ji, there was a government of the Muslim rulers. So, the Muslims could acquire higher posts in the administration. They were treated with respect. The government justice was also done in their favour.

At that time the Muslim society was divided into four classes. Amirs and Sardars, Ulema and Sayyids, middle class and slaves.

1. Amirs and Sardars : They belonged to high class and were given high jobs. The Sardars were given lands. They collected the land revenue. This money was spent on their needs.

The duty of the Sardars was to participate in the campaigns. They remained busy in fighting with each other. Their interest was to become independent from the Delhi government. Therefore they took no interest in the local administration.

They lived in huge **havelis** (big houses) and were polygamous. They kept men and women as servants who were called 'slaves'. Being rich they were pleasure loving and corrupt.

2. Ulemas and Sayyids : The religious class of the Muslims was also divided into classes. The Ulemas were the leaders of the religious class. They were the scholars of Persian and religious literature.

Besides the Ulemas, there was another class of Sayyids. They considered themselves the descendents of Bibi Fatima, the daughter of Hazrat Mohammed. They also commanded great respect in the society. Both the above classes were regarded scholars and religious leaders of the Muslim law.

Sheikhs, Mullahs and the Qazis also belonged to this class. These people were also scholars of the religious law. They were also regarded religious leaders of Islam and took full advantage of the ignorance of the people. The Qazis were given the task of dispensing justice. Many of them were greedy.

3. Middle Class : The Government employees, soldiers, traders and farmers belonged to this class. Their economic condition was good. Among them people on high posts with the government were regarded as belonging to high social status.

4. Slaves : The workers (weavers, potters, labourers, slaves and eunuchs (Khusras) had the lowest position in the Muslim society. The defeated men in the battle ground, were enslaved. They were brought from foreign countries also. The eunuch slaves were kept in the royal women's harems to serve the queens (Begams). Many slave women were a source of entertainment for the Amirs and the Sardars. They were given enough food to eat. Their social condition depended on the nature of their masters. The slaves could get rid of slavery or acquire high place by showing their bravery and cleverness.

Food : In the Muslim society, butter and spices were used in plenty. Halwa and sharbat were popular sweets. Biryani (Pulao) and korma was the favourite food of Amirs, Sardars, Sayyids, Sheikhs, Mullahs and Qazis .

In the Muslim society , narcotics were used commonly. The Muslims were mostly non-vegetarian. Wheat loaf and roasted meat was their daily food which was available in the market. The Muslim workers generally took lassi (butter- milk) with their food.

Dress of the Muslims : The Muslims belonging to high class wore gaudy and expensive dresses. They wore clothes made of silk and fine cotton. Rich people used to wear turbans with turlas (End of turban which sticks up the middle). The turban was called **Cheera**.

The royal slaves wore waist bands. They kept handkerchiefs in their pockets. They wore red shoes, and on their heads an ordinary **Kulla**.

People of religious class wore linen. They tied turbans of seven yards and left one end of the turban on their back. They wore simple shirts and trousers, socks and shoes also. The Sufis wore loose gowns.

The Muslim women wore blouse, ghagra, (long skirt) and tight pyjamas with it. For purdah burqa was used. The women of high class moved about in closed cabins with a group of men and women slaves.

Ornaments : The officers used to wear rings of gold and silver. They wore pearls, beads and stones also. The ornaments made of gold and silver were used.

Entertainment : Chess, Chauser (dice), horse riding, horse race etc. were the favourite games of sardars and chiefs. Watching dances and listening to songs was also a favourite hobby of the rich people. The game of dice was prevalent among both the rich and the poor. Common people enjoyed seasonal festivals and religious pilgrimages.

Superstitions and Ignorance : With the increase of goods and wealth, there was also an increase in superstitions among the Muslims. People believed in miracles, magic, charms and amulets. At every step, good and bad omens were considered. Ignorance reigned supreme.

Condition of Women : Women did not have an honorable position in the Muslim society. Women were kept in harems in the **Havelis** of Sardars and Amirs. To serve their wives women slaves and concubines were kept. The custom of purdah was common. In common Muslim houses, there were separate apartments for women called 'Zenana Khana'. The women of these houses used burqa while going out. The Purdah was not compulsory for rural Muslim women.

Social Condition of the Hindus

Before Guru Nanak Dev Ji the Hindus were in a poor condition. They were considered zimi or slaves. They had to pay the **zazia** and the pilgrimage tax. At times Hindus adopted Islam to escape from the harsh treatment meted out to them. The Hindu fakirs (saints) were not allowed to preach spiritual education. The defiants were either killed or detained in the jails. The Hindus did not have religious freedom. They were not given protection. As a result the social condition of the Hindus was deplorable.

1. Caste System : The Hindu society was divided into **Brahmins, Khattris, Vaish** and **Shudras**. Sub-castes had emerged from these castes. The Brahmins forgot their duties towards society and became selfish. They protected their class by keeping the Muslim rulers happy. The Brahmins involved the Hindu people in superstitions, useless rituals and ceremonies. The Brahmins were minting money in the name of religion. They also practiced untouchability.

The interaction between the castes and sub-castes of the Hindus was not enough. Their customs were different.

The condition of the Vaish and the Khattris was good to some extent. The condition of the shudras was pitiable. Their dwellings were outside the villages. For them the doors of temples and pilgrimages were closed. If a Shudra touched a Brahmin or a person of high caste, it was considered a sin. The condition of Shudras in the Hindu society of that time was despicable.

2. Food : The Hindus took simple and vegetarian food. Mostly the food of the common Hindu was cereals, vegetables, wheat, rice, milk, curd and ghee. They were also fond of khichri (rice mixed with cereals) besides loaf. They also used butter milk. Special care for the purity of the kitchen was taken.

The Hindu people regarded eating meat as a violation of the religious rules. The people of low castes used to eat meat but it was not a part of their daily diet. They also used alcohol, opium, bhang, charas etc.

3. Dress : The Hindus dressed poorly as compared to Muslims. They wore dhoti and kurta. They tied turbans on their heads. Villagers and poor people wore lain cloth only. The People of high class families used to wear silken and colourful clothes. Mostly people used to wear Khadi.

The Hindu women wore salwar, shirt and dupatta. They wore sarees too. Rural women wore only langri dhoti. The common people walked barefoot.

A Brahmin put a frontal mark (tilak) on his forehead. He used to wear dhoti with golden border. Saints and Jogis used the skin of deer to sit upon. They used to wear tight loin cloth (langot). They wandered about with shaved heads and rings in their ears. They kept a Kasa (a bowl made of bronze) in their hands.

4. Entertainment : The Hindus had meagre economic resources at that time. Being workers, they had little leisure. Therefore they had a very few sources of entertainment. They entertained themselves by gambling. They also enjoyed celebrations of seasonal festivals.

5. Superstitions and Ignorance : The Hindus at that time were illiterate and ignorant. They were engrossed in false rituals and superstitions. To please gods and goddesses they made valuable sacrifices. They believed in tricks, charms, magic and amulets.

6. Position of Women : Before Guru Nanak Dev Ji, the position of women was deplorable. The birth of a girl child was not regarded auspicious. Many people killed the girls after birth. The girl was married at a very young age. The husband had more than one wife. The evil custom of sati was also prevalent. The wife had to burn herself alive on the pyre of her dead husband.

For women, the proper place was their in-laws house. It was considered proper for women to live within the four walls of the house. While going out they had to be in **Purdah**. The Woman education was not given due importance at that time.

Exercise

(A) Answers the following questions in about 10-15 words.

1. Who was Behlol Khan Lodhi ?
2. Describe any one quality of Ibrahim Lodhi.
3. Describe two shortcomings of Ibrahim Lodhi.
4. When did Babur conquer Punjab and whom did he defeat in this battle?
5. Define the classes into which the Muslim society was divided.
6. Write the main terms of treaty between Alam Khan and Babur.
7. What do you know about the Ulemas?
8. What was the difference between the food of the Hindus and the Muslim societies?
9. Who were the Sayyids?

10. Describe the Muslim middle class.
11. Describe the dress of the Muslim women.
12. Describe the source of entertainment of the Muslims.
13. Describe the superstitions observed by the Hindus.

(B) Answer the following questions in about 30-50 words.

1. Describe the religious policy of Sikandar Lodhi.
2. Describe the administration of Sikandar Lodhi.
3. Describe the revolts during the rule of Ibrahim Lodhi.
4. Why did Dilawar Khan Lodhi go to Delhi? How did Ibrahim Lodhi treat him?
5. Describe the Sayyidpur attack of Babur.
6. Write about Babur's invasion of 1524 A.D.
7. What efforts were made by Alam Khan to conquer Punjab?
8. Describe the strategy of war between the army of Ibrahim Lodhi and Babur at Panipat.
9. Write a note about the Amirs and Sardars.
10. Write about the religious leaders of the Muslims.
11. Describe the slave class.
12. What were the food habits of the Muslims?
13. Write about the dress of the Muslims.
14. Mention the position of women in the Muslim society.
15. Write about the caste system prevalent before Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
16. Write about the army administration of Babur and Ibrahim Lodhi.

(C) Answer the following questions in about 100-120 words.

1. Describe the political condition of Punjab before Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
2. Describe Babur's conquest of Punjab.

LESSON - 3

GURU NANAK DEV JI AND HIS TEACHINGS

A. Birth and Parentage : There is a controversy about the date of birth of Guru Nanak Dev Ji. According to the Janamsakhi of Bhai Bala Ji, Guru Nanak Ji was born on full moon day of Kartika in 1469 A.D. But according to Puratan Sakhi - Meharban and Janam Sakhi of Bhai Mani Singh, Guruji was born in Vaisakh (April) Samvat 1526 Vikrami or April 13, 1469 A.D. The date of birth in April is considered correct by many scholars amongst modern historians. But the Sikhs still celebrate Guruji's birthday on Kartika's full moon day. His birth place was the village Talwandi now called Nankana Sahib after Guru's name, district Sheikhupura in the South-West about 64 kms. from Lahore. Guruji's mother's name was Tripta. His father Mehta Kalu was a Patwari of Bhati Jagirdar Rai Bular. He belonged to the Bedi Kshatriya family. Guruji's sister's name was Nanaki.

B. Childhood and Education : As a child Guru Nanak Dev Ji was exceptionally bright and serious in nature. Unlike other children of his age, he had little interest in games. With his friends he always praised the Almighty. He used to bring food and clothes from his home and distribute among the poor children.

At the age of seven Guru Nanak Sahib was sent to the pathshala (School) of Pandit Gopal. There he learnt Devnagri and Maths. The Janamsakhis of Guru Nanak Dev Ji reveal that Guruji made the Pandit think deeply by asking question about God. Later Guruji was sent to Pandit Brij Lal to study Sanskrit. He was sent to Maulavi Qutub-ul-Din to learn Persian.

C. Ceremony of the Sacred Thread : While Guru Nanak Devji was studying, his parents wanted him to wear the sacred thread 'Janeu' according to the old Sanatani (Hindu) ritual. To perform this ritual Sunday was fixed. All the near and dear ones were invited to this special ceremony. Before reciting the basic Chant (Mool Mantra), Pandit Hardyal made Guruji sit in front of him and asked him to wear the sacred thread. It is said that Guru Sahib refused to wear it. He demanded a thread made of virtues rather than the thread of cotton. This sentiment is expressed in the Bani as:-

*Dayia Kapah Santokh Satu Jatu gaudhi Satu vatu.
Eh janeu Jio Ka hai ta pane ghatu.*

Asa di Var (P 471)

D. Various Occupations of Guru Nanak Dev Ji : Guru Nanak Dev Ji had

great interest in spiritual knowledge. Many Pir and Fakirs used to come to jungles near Talwandi. So the company of Saints, Pirs and Fakirs provided Guru Nanak Ji an opportunity to gain spiritual knowledge. Guruji lived in the company of Pir, Fakirs (spiritual masters and holy men of Muslim faith) and Saints. He had discussions with them also. He distributed the prasad of spiritual knowledge among the people of his village. All this behaviour appeared very strange to Guru Nanak Dev Ji's father. Kaluji began to remain sad after watching the indifferent attitude of Guru Nanak Dev Ji towards the worldly affairs. Ultimately, to bring change in the interest of Guruji, Mehta Kalu Ji entrusted him with the task of taking buffaloes to fields for grazing. Guruji took the animals to fields but did not look after them. He attuned himself with God. The buffaloes ruined the crops in the fields. Mehta Kalu received many complaints about it. Mehta Kalu got fed up with these complaints and asked him to look after the family farming work. Guruji showed no interest in that work too. Mehta Kalu Ji tried to involve him in trade. Mehtaji gave him twenty rupees and asked him to do honest and profitable deal in the market. Because of his young age and inexperience Bhai Bala was also sent with him. On the way Guruji met a group of Fakirs who were hungry. Guru Nanak Dev Ji bought ration for the entire amount and fed the fakirs. When he returned emptyhanded Mehta Ji got very upset. Guruji told the truth. This incident is called 'Sacha Sauda' (True Bargain)

E. Marriage of Guru Nanak Dev Ji : Guru Nanak Dev Ji always remained deeply engrossed in the meditation of God. To change his mind Mehta Ji decided to marry him off. At the age of 14 he was engaged to Bibi Sulakhani, the daughter of Mul Raj, resident of Batala (District Gurudaspur). Next year he was married. Bibi Sulakhani gave birth to two sons - Sri Chand and Lakhmi Das. Guru Sahib even after being married did not deviate from his path.

F. Service at Sultanpur Lodhi : Mehta Kalu Ji sent Guru Nanak Ji to Sultanpur Lodhi in 1486-87 A.D. for a change in place. Guruji lived there with his brother-in-law (sister Bibi Nanaki's husband) Jai Ram. Guruji had the knowledge of Persian and Mathematics. So on Jai Ram's recommendation, the Faujdar of Sultanpur Lodhi, Daulat Khan gave Guruji the job of distributing grains in the Government Modi- khana (Store of grains). He worked with great sincerity and honesty. Even then a complaint was lodged against Guruji. The accounts of Modikhana were found correct after verification.. Guruji also called his wife Bibi Sulakhani to Sultanpur Lodhi. Here he led a simple and pious married life. In the morning he bathed in the rivulet flowing by the city, recited the Nam of God and donated some part of his earnings to the needy persons.

G. Enlightenment : According to the Janam Sakhis Guruji went to take bath.

in the rivulet (Bein) as usual. He did not return home for three days. The rumour that Guruji was drowned spread in the Modi Khana. The relatives and other friends of Guruji got worried. After three days of deep meditation he was spiritually enlightened. It is said that he got enlightenment in 1499 A.D.

When Guru Nanak Dev Ji returned to Sultanpur Lodhi, he was quiet. When forced to speak, he uttered, "Na Ko Hindu, Na Ko Musalman". When Daulat Khan, Brahmins and Qazis asked the meaning of this sentence, Guru Sahib said that both the Hindus and the Muslims have forgotten the true principles of their religions. The meaning of these words was that there is no difference between the Hindus and the Muslims. He started his message with these important teachings. Guru Sahib spent the rest of his life in spreading his spiritual knowledge. He resigned from his job and began his long Udasis (travels).

Udasis or Travels of Guru Nanak Dev Ji

After attaining spiritual enlightenment Guruji began his Udasis (travels). The main aim behind these udasis was to show the true path of life to the misled souls. His aim was also to criticise the useless rituals and customs. Guru Nanak Dev Ji travelled far and wide to remove the darkness of ignorance with his divine knowledge.

It is a difficult task for the historians to prepare a chronological order of these Udasis. The main source of these, descriptions is Janam-Sakhis of Guruji.

There is a controversy regarding the number of Udasis undertaken by Guruji among the historians. On the basis of the Puratan Janam Sakhi and the Vars of Bhai Gurdas, some historians claim the number of Udasis undertaken by Guruji is four whereas some historians claim it to be five in number. But Dr. Fauja Singh and Dr. Kirpal Singh proved the number of Udasis as three which is regarded as correct. The description of these Udasis is as follows:

1. **The First Udasi :** The First Udasi of Guru Nanak Sahib began approximately in 1500 A.D. He visited the eastern and the southern areas of India. During this time Bhai Mardana accompanied him. He was Guruji's rababi too. During this Udasi Guruji visited the following places:

Starting from Sultanpur Lodhi first of all he came to Sayyidpur (Aminabad). There Guruji made Lalo his disciple. He also refused to accept food from Malik Bhago because he had earned his livelihood through corruption and cheating.

From Sayyidpur Guruji reached Tulumba. He met a cheat named Sajjan. He called himself a saint but acted like a cheat. Sajjan was so impressed by the

Bani and the personality of Guruji that he left cheating for ever. He became a follower of Guruji. Thus Sajjan's dera became a place of worship (Dharamsala).

From Tulumba Guru Nanak Dev Ji reached Kurukshetra. Many people had gathered there because of the Solar eclipse. Guruji preached the people gathered at Kurukshetra not to believe in the superstitions of solar and lunar eclipses. He asked them to worship God and do good deeds, which is the real dharma.

From Kurukshetra, Guruji reached Panipat. From Panipat, Guruji came to Delhi. Guruji reached Haridwar from Delhi. Here Guruji saw people throwing water for their ancestors facing the sun early morning. Guruji started throwing water in the opposite direction to remove the superstitions of the people. When people asked Guruji as to what he was doing, he said that he was irrigating the fields in Punjab. When people made fun of him Guruji told them that when his water could not reach a few miles away then how could their water reach their ancestors, crores of miles away. Many people present there were impressed by Guruji.

After Haridwar, Guruji reached Gorakhmata via Kedarnath, Badrinath, and Joshimath. He met the followers of Gorakhnath there. Guruji taught them that one can not achieve salvation by wearing rings in ears, applying ash on the body, holding a stick in hand, shaving one's head and renouncing the world. The Yogis were impressed by Guruji's teachings and the name of Gorakmata became Nanakmata.

From Gorakhmata Guruji came to Benaras. He met Pandit Chaturdas there who was also impressed by Guruji's teachings. Chaturdas and his followers too, became Guruji's followers.

From Benaras, Guruji reached Gaya, a famous Buddhist pilgrimage. Here he made many followers.

From Gaya he went to Patna and Hazipur and influenced people by his thoughts. Guru Nanak Dev Ji reached Assam via Bengal and Bihar. At Dhubari Guruji met Shanker Dev.

At Kamrup (Assam) Guruji taught a witch named Nurshah that true beauty lies in high character.

Guruji reached Silhit via Guahati and Shillong. He met Saint Sheikh Jalal there who was also impressed by the teachings of Guruji.

From Silhit Guruji reached Dhaka. There he met the leaders of different religions.

Guruji reached Jagannath Puri in Orissa via Cuttack from Dhaka. In Puri temple, Guruji saw that many people were worshipping idols and

performing god Vishnu's Arti. He told people that idol worship is useless. God is Omnipresent. The Nature always performs Arti for the Omnipresent God.

From Puri Guruji proceeded towards the South. He reached Sri Lanka via Guntur, Kanchipuram, Trichnapalli, Nagpattam, Rameshwaram and Tirvandrum. The evidence of Guruji's visits to these places found in the Jaffna area of Lanka. The King of Lanka Shiyabh or Shiyath was greatly impressed by Guruji's personality. He became a follower of Guruji. The queen of Lanka and many other people also became his followers. There he appointed one of his followers named Jhanda Baadhi to promulgate the name of God.

While he was coming back from Lanka he reached Pakpattan spending few days in Panar, Bidar, Ujjain, Ajmer, Mathura, Rewari, Hissar and Takhatapur (Moga). He met Sheikh Braham or Sheikh Ibrahim the 10th successor of Sheikh Farid at Pakpattan. The Sufi Saint was impressed by the thoughts of Guruji. Guruji reached Sultanpur Lodhi via Dipalpur from Pakpattan.

2. The Second Udasi : After spending some time with his family, Guru Nanak Dev Ji started his Second Udasi (travel) in 1514 A.D. This time he went towards North. In this travel he was accompanied by a blacksmith Hasu and a Chhimba named Siha. During this travel Guruji went to the following places.

Passing through the regions of Jalandhar and Hoshiarpur Guruji entered the present Himachal Pardesh. First of all he met Pir Buddan Shah who became a follower of Guruji. Guruji visited places like Bilaspur, Mandi, Suket, Rawalsar, Jawalaji, Kangra, Kulu and Spiti. People from different communities became his followers.

After crossing the Spiti valley Guru Nanak Ji entered Tibet. From here he reached the Mansarovar Lake and the Kailash mountain where he met many siddh yogis. Guruji told them that, instead of sitting on hills they should go to the plains and enlighten people lost in the darkness of ignorance.

After visiting Kailash mountain Guruji came to Ladakh. Even now he has many followers there who have built a Gurudwara in Guruji's memory.

Guruji reached the Amarnath Cave in Kashmir via Sakardu and Kargil. Later he visited Pahalgam and Mattan. At Mattan he met a Pandit Brahmadas who was famous for his knowledge of the Vedas and the Shashtras. Guruji taught him that by reading Scriptures only, salvation can not be attained. From here, Guruji came to Baramullah, Anantnag and Srinagar.

While returning from Kashmir Guruji stopped at Hasan Abdal situated to north west of Rawalpindi. An arrogant Muslim Fakir Vali Kandhari tried to kill him by throwing a stone from the hill. But Guruji stopped the stone with his hand. At present a beautiful Gurudwara named 'Panja Sahib' stands there.

After crossing the rivers Jhelum and Chenab, Guru Nanak Dev Ji reached Sialkot. He impressed his followers by his teachings. From Sialkot he went to his residence at Kartarpur.

3. The Third Udasi : In 1517 A.D, Guruji began his Third Udasi (travel). This time he wore a blue dress like a Muslim Haji. During this Udasi, he visited western Asia. Mardana also accompanied him.

Guruji began this Udasi from Pakpattan. After meeting Sheikh' Brahm he reached Multan. Here he met a famous Sufi Saint Sheikh Bahaudin who was greatly impressed by Guruji's thoughts.

Guruji reached Mecca (birth place of Hazrat Mohammad) by the sea all the while preaching on way to Uch, Shukar, Miyani and Hinglaz. At Mecca he slept with his feet towards the Kaaba. Qazi Rukun-ud-Din objected to it. Guruji told the Qazi politely "You may turn my feet towards that direction where Allah is not present." On hearing Guruji's words, the Qazi was enlightened and he realised that Allah is there not only in Mecca but he is Omnipresent.

Guruji reached Medina from Mecca. A tomb of Hazrat Mohammad has been built here. Guruji exchanged views on religious matters with Imam Azim Khan. A lot many people were impressed by Guruji.

Guruji reached Baghdad after completing the journey of Medina. There he met Sheikh Behlol. Influenced by his Bani he became his follower. Words in Persian language inscribed on the tomb of Sheikh Behlol, situated two kms. away from the city is a proof of Guruji's visit to Baghdad.

From Baghdad Guruji reached Kabul via Iran and Kandhar. Babur , a Mughal empror was the ruler of Kabul at that time. Guruji promuglated his teachings at Kabul. Many people were impressed by Guruji.

After crossing the Khyber pass Guru Nanak Dev Ji reached Sayyidpur passing through Peshawar, Hasan Abdal and Gujarat. At that time Babur had invaded Sayyidpur. During this invasion Babur committed many atrocities on the people and imprisoned many of them. Guru Nanak Dev Ji was one of those prisoners. When Babur came to know about it, he himself came to meet Guruji. He was greatly influenced by the personality of Guruji. He released Guruji and other prisoners along with him. Guru Nanak Dev Ji has severely criticised the invasion of Babur in Babarbani.

In 1521 A.D. Guru Nanak Dev Ji completed his last Udasi (travel). Later he toured in Punjab around Kartarpur only. He spent last eighteen years of his life in Kartarpur as an ideal family man.

Guru Nanak Dev Ji at Kartarpur (1522 - 39A.D)

In 1522 A.D, Guruji settled down at Kartarpur with his family. Till his last breath he stayed there. During this period, Guruji gave his teachings a definite shape. He wrote **Banis** like **Var Malhar, Var-Majh, Var Asa, Japuji Sahib, Onkar, Patti, Thit** and **Bara Mah** etc. at Kartapur. Guru Nanak Dev Ji introduced the system of **sangat** and **pangat** and gave it a practical shape. It helped remove the disparity between the high and the low strata among mankind. During these years Guru Sahib showed a spiritual way to lead an ideal married life. When Guru Sahib realised that his end was near, considering **Bhai Lehna** the most worthy disciple Guru Sahib appointed him as his successor.

Guru Sahib left for his heavenly abode on September 22, 1539 A.D. He was loved by both the Hindus and the Muslims. Till today he is remembered as **Baba Nanak Shah Fakir, Guru of Hindu, of Musalman Pir.**

The Teachings of Guru Nanak Dev Ji

Guru Nanak Dev Ji did not preach deep abstruse philosophy. Rather he expressed his teachings associated with practical and religious life in a very simple way. To spread his teachings he used the simple language of the people. His teachings were not imaginary but associated with real mundane life. The gist of his teachings is that man should recite the **Nam** of God with sincere heart and should do good deeds while leading a pure worldly life of truth. The description of his teachings is like this.

1. **Concept of God :** Guru Nanak Dev Ji had deep faith in God. In the beginning of "The Japu Ji Sahib" a main hymn - "EK ONKAR SATNAM, KARTA PURAKH, NIRBHAU, NIRVAIR, AKAL MURAT, AJUNI SAIBHUNG II GUR PRASAD" contains a gist of his concept of God which is explain:
 - (a) **The Unity of God :** Guru Nanak Sahib preached the unity of God. According to him, Almighty is above all gods and goddesses. According to him God is one.
 - (b) **God is Omnipotent and Omnipresent :** According to Guru Nanak Dev Ji God is Omnipotent and Omnipresent. He cannot be imprisoned in any Temple or Mosque. He lives in all living beings of the world. According to Guruji God has both the forms **Nirgun** and **Sagun**.
 - (c) **God is Great and Supreme :** According to Guru Nanak Dev Ji God is Great and Supreme. It is not possible for a man to describe his greatness and supermacy. Many people have praised God in their songs. In thousands of books his greatness and

supermacy has been written about. Nevertheless, it is beyond a human being to describe his grandeur. He is Akal Murat.

(d) **God is Formless** : According to Guru Nanak Dev Ji God is formless. God has no colour, no form, no shape. Therefore idol worship of God is not possible. He is Ajuni, i.e. He does not take birth.

(e) **God is Merciful** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji said God is Merciful. He not only looks after His people but also provides them things necessary for living. According to Guru Nanak Dev Ji whatever man gets through his blessings.

Importance of the Hukam of God

Guru Nanak Dev Ji gave importance to the Hukam of God. According to him the world goes on with His Hukam. We should accept His Hukam. Guruji writes in **Japuji Sahib** that who accepts the Hukam of God is spiritually inclined towards him.

1. **Recitation of Nam** : According to him the recitation of Nam helps man become one with God. It also helps in his Attainment. Guru Nanak Dev Ji says that just as water and soap are required to clean the clothes similarly, recitation of gods Nam is essential to purify the heart. Through recitation of Nam one can get rid of the sorrows of life.

2. **Self Surrender** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji gave importance to surrender of self and ego. According to him to get his blessings surrender of self or ego is essential. Those who do not surrender themselves or their ego are not blessed with the grace of God.

3. **Importance of Guru** : According to Guru Nanak Dev Ji attainment of God is impossible without the help of Guru. Deep darkness of ignorance prevails without Guru. He acts like a boat for a person to reach his destination. Guruji regarded Shabad or logos only as the Guru.

4. **Faith in Theory of Karma** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji believed in the principles of Karma (action). He had a deep faith that a man is born and dies according to his Karma. Guruji told people that they should recite Nam, along doing good deeds so that after death their souls get salvation.

5. **Belief in Brotherhood** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji preached brotherhood and universal brotherhood of man. He said that all the people of the world are brothers. He also said that the people should live together with love. He began his teachings with "No Hindu, No Musalman" which means the Hindus and the Muslims are the same.

6. **Emphasis on Morality** : Alongwith the meditation of God, Guruji laid a lot of stress on the principles of morality. He asked his followers to lead a pious life, to speak the truth, not to steal, to earn their livelihood honestly, not to hurt anyone and to help the needy. According to him one who does not have moral values cannot become a devotee of God.

7. **Sach Khand** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji believed in Sach Khand. According to him Sach Khand is the mental condition in which the difference of happiness and sadness, man and woman, hope and disappointment, laughing and crying, high and low is removed. In this way the soul becomes one with God.

8. **Disbelief in Penance** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji was not in favour of renouncing the world and doing penance in jungles and caves. He said that man should forego love for materialistic things, surrender ego and live amongst the people like a flower of lotus lives in muddy water. Guruji set an example for his followers by spending later years of his life in Kartarpur as contented family man.

9. **Condemnation of Caste System** : The Hindu Society was divided into four main castes - Brahmin, Kashatriya, Vaish and Shudra and many sub-castes. People of high caste hated the people of low caste. They did not keep any relations with them but Guruji treated them alike. For him Hindus and Muslims, high and low were all equal. That is why he severely criticised the caste system and untouchability. He tried to eradicate untouchability establishing the Langar and Pangat system.

10. **Condemnation of Rituals** : Guru Nanak Dev Ji severely criticised the rituals prevalent in the society. He opposed idol worship. According to him it is useless to make idols of God. He said that Yajnas and Sacrifices are useless. He criticised pilgrimages, fasts, remaining in jungles and watering the sun etc. According to him leaving all rituals aside one should adopt the virtues of truth, contentment and forgiveness.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in about 10-15 words.

1. Explain the controversy regarding the date of birth of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
2. Which incident is known as Sacha Sauda ?
3. To which place did Guru Nanak Dev Ji's wife belong ? Write the names of her sons.
4. What words were spoken by Guru Nanak Dev Ji after attaining Enlightenment and explain their meaning?

5. What work was done by Guru Nanak Dev Ji at Sultanpur and with whom?
6. Name the four Banis composed by Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
7. What did Guru Nanak Dev Ji preach at Kurukshetra ?
8. Write Guru Nanak Dev Ji's visit to Benaras.
9. What did Guruji preach the Sidhs and Yogis at Gorakhmata?
10. Explain Guru Nanak Dev Ji's views on God.
11. What type of sacred thread did Guru Nanak Dev Ji want?
12. What is the meaning of Sacha Sauda ?

(B) Answer the following questions in about 30-50 words.

1. Write in brief the concept of God of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
2. Which places did Guru Nanak Dev Ji visit during his Second Udasi (travel)?
3. Describe the sacred thread ceremony of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
4. What professions did Guru Nanak Ji adopt in his early life ?
5. Write about the places Guru Nanak Dev Ji visited during his First Udasi (travel).
6. Write about the important places visited by Guru Nanak Sahib Ji during the Third Udasi (travel).
7. Give details of the times spent by Guru Nanak Dev Ji at Kartarpur.

(C) Answer the following questions in about 100-120 words.

1. Write about any six teachings of Guru Nanak Dev Ji in detail.
 2. Write in detail about the First Udasi (travel) of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
 3. Throw light on the childhood of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
 4. Describe the time period spent by Guru Nanak Dev Ji at Sultanpur Lodhi.
 5. Describe the early life of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
 6. Describe the Udasis (travels) of Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
 7. Explain in detail the concept of God according to Guru Nanak Dev Ji.
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LESSON-4

CONTRIBUTION OF SIKH GURUS FROM GURU ANGAD DEV JI TO GURU TEGH BAHADUR JI

The Sikh religion spread extensively from the times of Guru Angad Dev Ji to Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji. During the period of these Gurus, the Gurmukhi script became prevalent. Guru Sahib strengthened the system of Langar and Pangat. During this period, Manji System was established, new religious customs were formed, new cities and new religious places were founded. Masand System also came into existence during this period and Guru Granth Sahib was compiled and established. At the same time the Sikh Gurus removed the shortcomings of the Sikh religion. The contribution of the Gurus in the propagation of Sikh religion is as follows.

Contribution of Guru Angad Dev Ji (1538-1552 A.D.)

In 1538 A.D., Guru Nanak Dev Ji considering the dedicated services of Bhai Lehna Ji entrusted the Guru Gaddi to him. He changed the name of Bhai Lehna to Angad. Guru Angad Devji worked for the development of the Sikh religion which united the Sikhs. His great works are described below:

1. **Improvement of Gurmukhi Script :** Many languages were prevalent in Punjab at that time. Guru Angad Sahib in order to give final shape to the writings of Guru Sahib improved Punjabi script and named it Gurmukhi. Guru Sahib prepared a **Balbodh** (a primer) to popularise Punjabi script. Improvement in Gurmukhi script and its propagation were the great works done by Guru Angad Dev Ji.
2. **Compilation of the Hymns of Guru Nanak Dev Ji :** The second great work of Guru Angad Devji was the collection of the hymns compiled by Guru Nanak Dev Ji. A major part of his hymns was entrusted to him by Guru Nanak Dev Ji before his death. Guru Angad Dev Ji collected and compiled the hymns which were in the custody of others.
3. **Langar System :** Guru Angad Dev Ji promoted the Langar System introduced by Guru Nanak Sahib. The Langar (food) was provided to the poor and **shelterless** without any discrimination. Guru Angad Dev Ji's wife Mata Khivi Ji herself served Langar. The popularity of Guru Ghar (the house of the teacher) spread far and wide with the introduction of the Langar system.
4. **Condemnation of Udasi Sect :** After the death of Guru Nanak Dev Ji, his son Sri Chand started Udasi Sect. According to this sect, stress was laid on Brahmacharya and sacrifice. But renunciation had no place in Sikh religion. At

that time it was necessary for Guru Angad Dev Ji to negate the concept of renunciation. If Guruji had not paid attention to this system, gradually the Sikh religion would have merged in Hinduism.

4. Sangat System : Guru Angad Dev Ji convened a religious meeting at Khadur Sahib every morning. During these meetings, he asked the Sikhs to lead a disciplined life. He asked every Sikh to recite 'Nam' and to practice moral values. He stressed that every Sikh should earn an honest livelihood and while fulfilling family responsibilities serve the society. As a result, common people were attracted to Sikhism.

6. Physical Training to the Sikhs : Guru Angad Dev Ji wanted the Sikhs to be strong not only at heart but he wanted them to be physically strong as well. He got a wrestling ground made for this purpose at Khadur Sahib. He asked his Sikhs to exercise there. It helped his successors, Guru Hargobind Ji and Guru Gobind Singh Ji to form an army of strong men.

7. Hymns of Guru Angad Dev Ji : Guru Angad Dev Ji not only collected the hymns of Guru Nanak Dev Ji but also composed 62 hymns of his own. Along with the hymns of Guru Nanak Dev Ji, the hymns of Guru Angad Dev Ji were also incorporated in the **Adi Granth** by Guru Arjan Dev Ji.

8. Compilation of Janam Sakhi : Guru Angad Dev Ji compiled the Janam Sakhi of Guru Nanak Dev Ji. It is called the Janam Sakhi of Bhai Bala. But many historians do not agree to this view. According to them, the language of the Janam Sakhi is not of Guru Angad Dev Ji's period.

9. Foundation of Goindwal Sahib : In 1546 A.D., Guru Angad Dev Ji laid the foundation of Goindwal Sahib. Guru Sahib asked his trustworthy Sikh Baba Amardas to look after the construction work. Thus, with the construction of Goindwal Sahib, it became a place of pilgrimage for the Sikhs. The Sikhs came from far and wide to visit Goindwal Sahib.

On March 29, 1552 A.D. Guru Angad Dev Ji died. Prior to his death he had entrusted the Guru Gaddi to Guru Amardas Ji.

Contribution of Guru Amardas Ji (1552-1574 A.D)

In 1552 A.D., Guru Amardas Ji became the Third Guru. He was 73 years old. Although he faced many difficulties, yet he strengthened the institutions started by his predecessors. He undertook many commendable tasks which are as follows :

1. Construction of Baoli at Goindwal Sahib: Guru Angad Dev Ji laid the foundation of a Baoli (Source of water) at Goindwal Sahib. Guru Amardas Ji completed the work of Baoli in 1559 A.D. Eighty four steps of this baoli were

constructed. Guru Amardas Ji proclaimed that if a Sikh recites the Japuji Sahib at every step and bathes on reaching the eighty fourth step, he will get absolved of the bondage of eighty four lakh cycles of birth and death. As a result the Sikhs got an independent religious place for pilgrimage.

2. Expansion of the Langar System : The Langar System which was started by Guru Nanak Dev Ji and Guru Angad Dev Ji continued and was further expanded during the period of Guru Amar Das Ji. The Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Shudras, all had to take langar together without any discrimination sitting in a Pangat (line). Guruji ordered that no body could meet him without having langar. The Mughal Emperor Akbar and the King of Haripur also had to eat langar before meeting Guru Sahib. This system became a means of propagation of Sikh religion.

3. Compilation and Composition of Guru Hymns : Guru Angad Dev Ji collected the Hymns of Guru Nanak Dev Ji. The compilation of the hymns could not be completed by Guru Angad Dev Ji. So, Guru Amardas Ji continued the task. He himself composed nine hundred and seven hymns. He also collected hymns and bhajans of many saints of India. During Guru Amardas Ji's time, a lot of material was collected for the Adi Granth Sahib, which came to be called the Holy Granth of the Sikhs.

4. Manji System : During Guru Amardas Ji's period, the number of Sikhs increased. As a result, it became very difficult for Guruji to deliver sermons personally to the Sikhs residing at different places in Punjab. In order to fulfil the requirement of the Sikhs, Guru Amardas Ji established Manji System. He divided his spiritual realm in twenty two parts. Every part was called **Manji**. Guruji appointed an influential Sikh for every Manji. The duty of the Sikh was to preach the sermons of Guru Sahib in his area. He received gifts from the Sikhs which were carried to Guru Sahib. Because the Sikh delivered sermons sitting on the Manji (cot) therefore, it was called **Manji** system. With this system, the Sikh religion spread all over the country during the times of Guru Amardas Ji.

5. Separation of the Sikhs From Udasis : Guru Angad Sahib criticised the Udasis sect of Baba Sri Chand. Even then the influence of Udasis did not reduce. At this, Guru Amardas Ji made it clear to the Sikhs that the renunciation principle of Udasis is against the sermons of Guru Nanak Sahib. He told the Sikhs through letters and Hukamnamas that the followers of renunciation of Udasis sect can not be considered the Sikhs of Guru Sahib. As a result, the Sikhs liberated themselves from the Udasis and the principle of renunciation. The Sikhs started leading a family life and recited '*Nam*' according to Guruji's Hukam or injunction. Thus, Guru Amardas Ji maintained the unique identity of Sikhism. Guru Amardas Ji gave a separate identity to Sikhism .

6. Social Reforms : Guru Amardas Ji was a great social reformer. Guru Nanak Dev Ji criticised the evil customs prevalent in the society. Guru Angad Dev Ji carried forward the social work started by Guru Nanak Dev Ji. But it was a very difficult task to change the age old social laws, beliefs and customs. Guru Amar Das Ji took the initiative of handling this difficult task. His main objective was to free the Sikhs from the useless and complicated traditions. He brought about the following reforms in this context. He wanted to arouse the feeling of affection between the Hindus and the Sikhs.

A. Condemnation of Caste System and Untouchability : Guru Amardas Ji condemned the caste system and untouchability. He said that those people are foolish and ignorant who are proud of their caste. In order to remove caste system and untouchability, he had ordered that whosoever comes to meet him will have to forego his pride of belonging to a particular caste and sit in a Pangat to have Langar. He who eats langar would not question as to who had prepared the Langar.

B. Criticism of Sati System : The custom was prevalent in the Hindu society for centuries that after the death of the husband, the widow had to burn herself alive on the pyre of her husband. Guru Amardas Ji condemned this custom. He said that the woman who immolates herself cannot be called a sati. In the real sense, a sati woman is the one who bears the grief of her husband's death and lives a life of virtue, contentment and piety.

C. Condemnation of Purdah System : In the medieval ages, women mostly lived within the four walls of their house. They used to come before menfolk in Purdah or burqa. The purdah was a great hindrance in the physical, mental, and spiritual development of women. Guru Amardas Ji criticised this custom. He ordered the women to serve langar and sit in sangat without purdah.

D. Prohibition of Intoxicants : Alcohol and the use of other intoxicants was a social evil in the medieval ages. Guru Amardas Ji severely criticised the use of intoxicants. He ordered the Sikhs to stay away from these evils.

E. New Place of Pilgrimage : Guru Amardas Ji built Baoli Sahib (Source of water) at Goindwal Sahib as a new place of pilgrimage for the Sikhs. It was different from that of Hindu place of pilgrimage in the following ways.

1. It was constructed by the joint labour of the Sikhs.
2. It did not need a priest.
3. No idol of God and Goddess was worshipped here.
4. It had 84 steps. These steps signified that by reciting the Japuji Sahib once on every step, a person will be liberated from 84 lakh cycles of birth and death.

5. The presence of Guru Sahib and the place of pilgrimage in the same city increased its importance.

F. New Mode of Celebrating Festivals : Guruji asked the Sikhs to celebrate the festivals of Baisakhi, Maghi and Diwali in a new manner. During these festivals, the Sikhs used to visit the places of pilgrimage. During the times of Guru Amardas Ji, these festivals were celebrated at Goindwal Sahib. The main objective of celebrating these festivals in this manner was to encourage brotherhood amongst the Sikhs. It also helped in the propagation of the Sikh religion far and wide.

G. Reforms in Birth, Marriage and Death Ceremonies : Guru Amardas Ji reformed the customs of birth, death and marriage ceremonies prevalent amongst the Hindus. Guru Sahib ordered the Sikhs that devotional hymns should be recited at the time of death.

Guruji brought reforms in the marriage ceremonies. Guru Amardas Ji composed bani named Anand Sahib. Guruji asked the Sikhs to recite Anand Sahib at the time of birth, marriage and other occasions of happiness.

As a result of the reforms done by Guruji, the Sikhs stopped believing in useless and complicated social customs thereby separating themselves from the Hindu Society.

H. Akbar's Visit to Goindwal Sahib : The most important incident during Guru Amardasji's period was the visit of Akbar, the Mughal emperor to Goindwal Sahib. He came to meet Guru Amardas Ji as he was aware of his spiritual greatness. After the victory of Chittor in 1567 A.D., he reached Goindwal Sahib. According to the rules laid for the langar system, he first sat in a pangat and took langar. He was impressed by Guruji's personality. On Guruji's advice, Akbar abolished the pilgrimage tax. On Guruji's direction, Akbar abolished land tax for a year. As a result, people became devotees of Guruji. Akbar gave land to Bibi Bhani, the daughter of Guruji.

I. Appointment of Successor : Till the age of 95 years, Guru Amardas Ji gave guidance to the Sikhs. Before his death in 1574, A.D., he decided to appoint his successor. Leaving both his sons Mohan and Mohari, he appointed his son-in-law Bhai Jetha his successor, keeping in view his capability. He became the Fourth Guru of the Sikhs and was known by the name of Guru Ram Das Ji.

Contribution of Guru Ram Das Ji (1574 -1581A.D.)

Guru Ram Das Ji, the Fourth Guru remained the Guru from 1574 A.D.- to 1581 A.D. During these years, he made the following significant contributions for the development of Sikh religion.

1. **Foundation of Ramdaspur or Amritsar :** The great contribution of Guru

Ram Das Ji to Sikh religion was laying the foundation of Ramdaspur now called Amritsar. Guru Amar Das Ji had also thought of establishing it as a place of pilgrimage. The Mughal Emperor Akbar gave land comprising of a few villages to Bibi Bhani, the daughter of Guruji. Guruji entrusted the land to his son-in-law, Ramdas, during a meeting with the Sikhs and there started the digging of two sarovars Santokhsar and Amritsar.

After ascending the Guru Gaddi, Guru Ram Das Ji started living at Amritsar. He asked his Sikh devotees and traders to settle and trade there. Gradually many people settled around the sarovar. Many shops opened there. As a result, a bazaar named Guru ka bazaar got established there. With it came into existence a full fledged city which was called Guruchak, Chak Guru Ramdas or Ramdaspur. Later on, the city got renamed as 'Amritsar' after the name 'Amritsar Sarovar'.

The establishment of this city gave a big boost to the development of the Sikh community. The Sikhs got another place of pilgrimage. The Sikhs got a commercial centre also.

2. Beginning of the Masand System : A large amount of money was required for digging of Amritsar and Santokhsar Sarovars. Guru Ramdas Ji sent his devotees to various places to collect funds for this purpose. These Sikhs were called 'Masands'. While collecting funds, they also propagated Sikhism. As a result of Masand system, the Sikh religion was propagated and many non-Sikhs also adopted Sikh religion.

3. Reconciliation Between the Sikhs and the Udasis : On becoming aware of the popularity of Guru Ramdas Ji, the founder of Udasis sect Baba Shri Chand Ji went to meet Guru Ramdas Ji. An important discussion was held between them. Baba Sri Chand Ji was highly impressed by the modesty and high character of Ramdas Ji. At last, he agreed that Guru Sahib was the real successor of Guru Gaddi because of his excellent qualities. As a result, the Udasis stopped opposing the Sikhs.

4. Other Measures for the Development of Sikhism : Guru Ramdas Ji performed many works for the development of the Sikh religion. During his times, the institutions of Sangat, Pangat, Manji system etc. were carried forward. To reform the society, Guru Ramdas Ji composed **going round worshipped object (Guru Granth Sahib) by the bride and bridegroom at the time of marriage.** He also composed shabads or hymns and ghorian (songs) to be sung by women at the time of marriage when a bridegroom mounted a ceremonial mare. He ordered the Sikhs to sing these compositions at the marriage functions. Guruji also composed 679 shabads.

5. Friendly Relations of Guru Ramdas Ji with Mughal Emperor Akbar : As long as Guru Ram Das Ji remained on the Guru Gaddi had friendly relations

with the Mughal emperor, Akbar. Once the prices of commodities fell down in Punjab. As a result the condition of farmers became critical. When Guruji told Akbar about it, he abolished the land revenue for one year for the farmers of Punjab. It increased Guruji's popularity and prestige among the common people. Many Hindus and Muslims also adopted Sikhism.

6. Principle of Hereditary Succession to Guru Gaddi : Guru Ramdas Ji entrusted Guru Gaddi to his youngest and able son Arjan Dev Ji. The principle of hereditary succession of the Guru Gaddi was a significant event in the Sikh history. But it should be remembered that along with the principle of hereditary succession, the basis of getting Guru Gaddi remained by and large qualities and capabilities.

Contribution of Guru Arjan Dev Ji (1581–1606 A.D.)

Arjan Dev Ji was the Fifth Guru from 1581 A.D.-1606 A.D. Although he had to tolerate the opposition of his elder brother Bhai Prithi Chand, fanatic Hindus and Muslims, yet he performed many important tasks for the development of the Sikh religion. The functions are as follows :

1. Completion of Works of Guru Ram Das Ji : Guru Amardas Ji laid the foundation of Ramdaspur (Amritsar). He got started the digging of two sarovars -Amritsar and Santokhsar. But he could not complete it. Guru Arjan Dev Ji completed the construction work of these sarovars. He also got completed the construction of Amritsar city with the help of Baba Buddhaji.

2. Construction of Harimandar Sahib : Guru Arjan Dev Ji got constructed Harimandar Sahib in the middle of Amritsar Sarovar in 1588 A.D. It is said that the foundation stone of Harimandar Sahib was laid by Sufi Fakir Mian Mir in 1589 A.D. Four doors were kept on four sides of Harimandar Sahib which depicts that the Mandar is open for the people of all castes and creeds. The construction of Harimandar was supervised by Baba Buddha Ji and Bhai Gurdas Ji and it was completed in 1601 A.D. In September 1604 A.D. the *Adi Granth* was placed in Harimandar Sahib. Baba Buddha Singh Ji was appointed the first Granthi (or reader-custodian). The construction of Harimandar Sahib has been the most important task undertaken for the establishment of Sikhism.

3. Foundation of a few Cities : Guru Arjan Dev Ji laid the foundation of the city of Tarn Taran situated beside Amritsar between the Ravi and the Beas rivers in 1590 A.D. The land of this city was bought from the people of Khara village by Guruji and the work for digging a sarovar started there. The Sarovar was named Tarn Taran. It means that the person taking holy bath in the sarovar would get rid of the cycle of birth and death. Gradually a city was established around this sarovar, which became a place of pilgrimage for the Sikhs.

With the establishment of the city of Tarn Taran many people adopted Sikhism who later on proved to be great soldiers. After the construction of Tarn Taran, Guru Arjan Dev Ji in 1593 A.D. laid the foundation of one more city near Jalandhar. It was named 'Kartarpur' or the city of God. Guruji also got a well dug there which was named 'Gangasar'. As a result this city became a centre for propagation of Sikhism in Jalandhar Doab.

Guru Arjan Dev Ji after a long period was blessed with a son in 1595 A.D. To celebrate the birth of his son, Guruji laid the foundation of a city called 'Hargobindpur' named after his son.

Guru Arjan Dev Ji also got a well dug from which six rehats drew water to remove the scarcity of water a few miles away from Amritsar. Gradually a city was established around it which is called Chhahrattah.

4. Construction of Baoli Sahib at Lahore : On the request of the devotees of Lahore, Guru Arjan Dev Ji visited Lahore. He stayed in Dabbi Bazar at Lahore and planned to construct a baoli there. With the construction of the baoli, Lahore also became a place of pilgrimage for the Sikhs.

5. Organization and Development of Masand System : Guru Arjan Dev Ji organised and developed the Masand System properly. During his period, the number of Sikhs increased to a great extent. For the development of Sikh religion, he laid the foundation of Harimandar Sahib, Santokhsar, TarnTaran, Kartarpur and Hargobindpur. To complete these projects, finance was required. Sikh sangat could not manage enough finance through offerings. Therefore, Guru Arjan Dev Ji reorganised Masand system. For Masand System, the following rules were framed.

1. Every Sikh was asked to offer 1/10th of his income as 'Daswandh' or tithe.
2. Special representatives were appointed to collect 'Daswandh'. They would deposit the collected amount in Guru Ki Golak at Amritsar on the day of Baisakhi.
3. The Masands would send their representatives to the places where they were unable to visit personally. These representatives were called 'Masandia' or 'Sangatia'.
4. Masands would also preach Sikh religion while collecting money.

The Masand System proved useful for the development of Sikh religion. This also helped Guru Sahib get a fixed amount to give a practical shape to the plans regarding organization and development of the Sikh religion. The Masands contributed appreciably in the propagation & development of Sikh religion. It also helped increase the prestige and popularity of Guruji.

6. Compilation of the Adi Granth : The Sikhs increased in number till the period of Guru Arjan Dev Ji. It was not possible for the Sikhs from far off areas to reach Guruji. Many people started composing 'Bani' in the name of Guruji. Guruji compiled 'the Adi Granth', realising the need to provide the knowledge of complete, pure and factual Bani of the Gurus. Guruji himself went to Goindwal Sahib and procured the hymns of the earlier Gurus from Baba Mohan, the son of Guru Amardas Ji. This Bani included 976 hymns of Guru Nanak Dev Ji, 62 hymns of Guru Angad Dev Ji, 907 hymns of Guru Amardas Ji and 679 hymns of Guru Ramdas Ji. Guru Arjan Dev Ji also collected the hymns of many Saints and Bhagats like Kabir, Namdev and Farid. After collecting the entire material, Guru Arjan Dev Ji began the great work of compilation of 'Adi Granth' on the banks of 'Ramsar Sarovar' in a lone and beautiful place. Guru Arjan Dev Ji dictated the 'Adi Granth' and Bhai Gurdas Ji wrote it. The compilation of 'Adi Granth' was completed in 1604 A.D after many years of hard work. It included 2216 hymns of Guru Arjan Dev Ji.

The Compilation of the Adi Granth was a significant and a great contribution of Guru Arjan Dev Ji to the development of Sikh religion. The Sikhs acquired their own holy religious Granth.

7. Encouragement to trading of horses : Guru Arjan Dev Ji wanted his Sikhs to lead a prosperous life. He encouraged his Sikhs to engage in trade. He asked his Sikhs to engage especially in trading of horses across the Indus river. It helped Sikhs to become rich and there was also an increase in Guruji's treasure. This also led to the formation of an efficient 'Khalsa' army during the times of Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji and Guru Gobind Singh Ji.

8. Social Reforms : Like Guru Amardas Ji, Guru Arjan Dev Ji also preached in favour of widow remarriage. Like his predecessors, he continued Sangat and Pangat system. Guruji asked the Sikhs to restrain themselves from the use of intoxicants. Guru Arjan Dev Ji established a separate Basti or home for lepers in Tarn Taran. He also arranged for free food, clothes and medicines for them.

9. Propagation of Sikhism : Guru Arjan Dev Ji toured the region of Majha to preach Sikhism. In the beginning, he visited Khadur Sahib, Goindwal Sahib and Sarhali. He visited Bhaini also on the invitation of one of his followers. After taking delicious food prepared by his wife, Guruji renamed Bhaini village as 'chola'. After Bhaini, Guruji visited Khanpur and then village Khara. It is on the land of this village that Guruji founded Tarn Taran. From here he went towards Jalandhar and laid the foundation of Kartarpur. Guruji also visited places like Goindwal Sahib, Khemkaran, Chunia, Lahore and Dera Baba Nanak. Guruji preached Sikhism everywhere and made many people the followers of Sikhism.

10. **Guru Arjan Dev Ji's Friendly Relations with Akbar** : Like Guru Amar Das Ji and Guru Ram Das Ji, Guru Arjan Dev Ji also had friendly relations with emperor Akbar. Prithi Chand, Brahmins and fanatic Muslims tried to instigate Akbar against Guru Sahib but the liberal emperor Akbar did not pay heed to anyone. On the contrary Akbar abolished the land revenue of the farmers of Punjab for one year on the recommendation of Guruji. Thus Guruji became more popular amongst the farmers of Punjab. It also led to an increase in the number of Sikhs.

11. **Sense of Self Sacrifice for Sikhism** : Two Mughal emperors Akbar and Jehangir were the contemporaries of Guru Arjan Dev Ji. Akbar liked Guruji mainly because the objectives of his teachings was to establish a society free of caste system, discrimination, superstitions and religious fanaticism. But Jehangir did not like the increasing popularity of Guru Arjan Dev Ji. He was also annoyed with the fact that along with the Hindus, the Muslims were also influenced by Guru Sahib Ji. Prince Khusro revolted against his father Jehangir. When the royal forces chased Khusro, he fled to Punjab and met Guruji there. Jehangir who was already finding an excuse to take action against Guru Arjun Dev Ji fined him Rs. 2 lakhs for helping rebellious Khusro. Considering the fine illogical, Guruji refused to pay it. Because of this, he was physically tortured, leading to his **martyrdom** in 1606 A.D.

Contribution of Guru Hargobind Ji (1606 A.D. - 1645 A.D.)

After the martyrdom of Guru Arjun Dev Ji, Guru Hargobind Ji ascended the Guru Gaddi. He remained on Guru Gaddi till 1645 A.D. and made sincere efforts for the development of Sikh religion. Guruji awakened the feeling of fearlessness and self confidence in Sikh community by adopting the policy of 'Miri-Piri'. Guru Hargobind Ji gave religious as well as practical education to the Sikhs by the construction of the Akal Takhat. He introduced many reforms for the development of Sikh religion.

New Policy of Guru Hargobind Ji

1. **Adoption of two Swords - Miri and Piri** : Before Guru Hargobind Ji all Gurus had shown spiritual path to the Sikhs. To awaken the feelings of fearlessness and self confidence in Sikhs Guruji used the power of both 'Miri' and 'Piri' keeping in view the need of the hour. Miri sword showed the worldly path and sword Piri was sign of religious path. This incident left a deep impact on the Sikh history.

2. **Adoption of Royal Symbols** : Guru Hargobind Ji gave up the use of rosary

and adopted two swords. He also decorated kalgi in a royal style on his forehead. He kept 52 bodyguards which increased his royal prestige. People started calling him by the name of '**Sacha Patshah**'

3. Offerings of Horses and Arms to the Guru : Guru Hargobind Sahib sent messages to his Sikhs and masands to get horses and arms in place of money from Sikhs as offerings. The orders of Guru Sahib were obeyed in toto. As a result a large number of horses and weapons were offered to Guruji. It facilitated the formation of Sikh army.

4. Organisation of Sikh Army : Guru Hargobind Sahib had 52 bodyguards. The youth of Majha, Doaba and Malwa also agreed to serve Guruji. He gave them one horse each and a weapon. He divided 500 Sikhs in 5 groups (jathas). These jathas were headed by 9 Jathedar - Vidhi Chand, Pirana, Jetha, Pera and Langah. He also recruited Pathans in his army without any racial discrimination. Its General was Painde Khan.

5. Change in the Daily Life of Guruji : Guru Hargobind Sahib used to get up early, take bath, and go to langar dressed in royal attire. All the soldiers and Sikhs ate langar under his supervision. Guruji would take rest for a while after having langar. He would later on go for hunting with his attendants, hunting dogs and 'Baaz'. He asked Abdul and Natha Mall Dandia to sing 'Varan' of Vir-Ras (stories of brave people) in the durbar, to motivate the Sikhs. Guru Sahib also established a special musical group who on the beats of Dholak, carrying mashals sang Hymns loudly and with great zeal while doing parkarma of Harimandar Sahib.

6. Construction of Akal Takhat : Guru Hargobind Sahib got the Akal Takhat constructed on the western side in front of Harimandar Sahib. A 12 feet high platform was erected inside which looked like a throne. In Harimandar Sahib, Guruji imparted religious and political education to his Sikhs while sitting on that platform. From there he distributed weapons to his soldiers and Bards would sing inspiring varan and songs of bravery. Here, he gave prizes and announced punishments to Sikhs also. Near Akal Takhat he would encourage the Sikhs to exercise in the wrestling ground. Therefore, the construction of Akal Takhat was a challenge to the power of Mughal emperors.

7. Fortification of Amritsar : Guru Hargobind Sahib got constructed a wall around Amritsar city for its protection. He also got constructed a fort named Lohgarh. Military equipment was also kept in the fort as per the requirement.

A new life was infused in the Sikhs who were disappointed after the martyrdom of Guru Arjan Dev Ji.

Other Measures undertaken by Guru Hargobind Ji for Propagation and Consolidation of Sikhism

Shah Jehan in February, 1628 A.D became the next Mughal Emperor after the death of Jehangir in October, 1627 A.D. Guruji's relations were strained with Shah Jehan. He fought the battles of Amritsar, Lahira and Kartarpur with Shah Jehan. Besides these battles, Guru Hargobind Sahib also performed great works for the propagation and consolidation of Sikhism. The description of the great works done by Guruji are as follows:

1. Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji's Settlement at Kiratpur Sahib: The king of Kalhur, Kalyan Chand who was a devotee of Guru Hargobind Sahib gifted land to Guruji. Guru Sahib built a city Kiratpur, on this land. In 1635 A.D. Guruji settled in this city. He spent the last ten years of his life preaching religion here.

2. Religious Travels of Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji : After being released from the fort of Gwalior, Guru Hargobind Sahib developed friendly relations with the Mughal Emperor Jehangir. Guruji undertook journeys to propagate Sikh religion. First of all, he visited Lahore from Amritsar on foot. He built a Gurudwara, Dera Sahib, at Lahore in the memory of Guru Arjan Dev Ji his father. From Lahore Guru Ji reached Kashmir via Gujranwala, Bhilmar (Gujarat). Guruji established Sangat here and appointed Bhai Sewa Das as head of the Sangat.

Guru Hargobind Ji went to Nankana Sahib. He spent some time in Amritsar on his return and then went to Nanakmata in Uttar Pradesh (Gorakhmata) After spending some time at Nanakmata, he propagated Sikh religion and reorganised sangat established earlier by Guru Nanak Dev Ji. On his way back he went to Malwa region of Punjab staying for sometime in Takhatapura, Daroli Bhai (Ferozepur). From there Guruji again returned to Amritsar.

3. Sikh Missionaries to various Places : Guru Hargobind Ji remained busy in battles till 1635 A.D. So he appointed his son Baba Gurdittaji to preach and spread Sikh religion. Baba Gurdittaji appointed four missionaries namely Almast, Phul, Gonda and Balu Hasna to spread Sikhism. As a result, almost propagated Sikhism in Nanakmata and Dhaka; Gonda and Phula in Doaba and Malwa region; Balu Hasna in Kashmir, Hazara and Pothohar. Besides these missionaries, Guru Hargobind Ji sent Bhai Bidhi Chand to Bengal and Bhai Gurdas to Kabul and Benaras to spread Sikh religion.

4. Appointment of Guru Har Rai Ji as Successor : When Guru Hargobind Ji realised that his end was near, he declared his grand son Har Rai (son of younger son Baba Gurdittaji) as his successor.

Contribution of Guru Har Rai Ji (1645 - 1661 A.D)

After the death of Guru Hargobind Ji the Seventh Guru Har Rai Ji ascended the Guru Gaddi. He was a soft hearted and a peace loving person. He made the following contributions for the spread of Sikhism.

1. Preaching of Sikh Religion : Guru Har Rai Ji spent most of his time as a Guru at Kiratpur Sahib. Many people embraced Sikhism during his times. Bhagat Gir, Bhai Sangatia and Bhai Gonda were prominent among them . Bhai Sangatia was named Bhai Pheru by Guruji. He was appointed missionary for areas of Central Punjab, Lahore, Kasur, Chunia etc. Similarly Bhai Punjab, Bhai Bhagat, Bhai Bhundar were sent to Malwa to preach and establish Sangat.

Guru Har Rai Ji himself undertook religious travels. He first stayed at Kartarpur. From there he went to Mukundpur (Jalandhar). From Mukundpur he went to Dosanjh. After staying there for some time he reached Malwa.

2. Guru Har Rai Ji Blessed Phul : During his missionary travels at Malwa from a small village Nathana (Bathinda) two brothers Kala and Karamchand used to visit Guruji. One day Kala brought his two nephews Sandal and Phul to meet Guruji. Phul started rubbing his stomach in front of Guruji. When Guruji asked Kala about the reason for this act, he told him that Phul was dumb, he wanted to convey that he was hungry. Guruji blessed Phul that he would become great, famous and a rich man. The horses of his progeny would drink water from the river Yamuna. They would rule for generations. Their prestige would increase in proportion to the seva rendered by them. The blessings of Guruji proved to be true. The Progeny of Phul later became rulers of the states of Patiala, Nabha and Jind.

3. Help extended to Dara Shikoh : In 1658 A.D. there was a struggle for succession amongst the sons of the Mughal Emperor Shah Jehan. Aurangzeb was declared victorious in this war. After being defeated in the battle of Samugarh (1658 A.D.) Dara Shikoh fled towards Punjab. He had friendly relations with Guru Har Raiji, because he himself was a religious and liberal Muslim. He had visited Guruji many times earlier also. After his defeat, he came to Guru Har Rai Ji for getting help. Guruji blessed him.

4. Guru Har Rai Ji called to Delhi by Aurangzeb : After ascending the throne, the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb called Guru Har Rai Ji to Delhi. He wanted to enquire about the help extended to Dara Shikoh by him. He also wanted to know whether the Sikhs were against the Muslim religion. Guruji sent his 14 years old son Ram Rai to Delhi instead of himself. Aurangzeb asked the meaning of 'Musalman' used in the hymn *Asa di Var*:

*Mitti Musalman ki pere pai kumhar
Ghar Bhande ittan kian jaldi kare pukar*

Ram Rai answered cleverly that the word 'Musalman' had been written wrongly. The actual required word was beiman (meaning dishonest). This answer satisfied Aurangzeb. But Guru Har Rai Ji was saddened and he asked Ram Rai not to come in front of him again.

5. Appointment of the successor : Guru Har Rai Ji got angry with Ram Rai because he had acted in a cowardly manner in front of Aurangzeb by changing the wording of Guru Nanak's 'Bani'. Although Ram Rai sought forgiveness from Guru Har Rai Ji on reaching Kiratpur Sahib yet he was not pleased. Guru Har Rai Ji appointed his five year old son Har Krishan as his successor after this incident.

Contribution of Guru Har Krishan Ji (1661 - 1664 A.D.)

In October, 1661 A.D. the Eighth Guru Har Krishan Ji ascended the Guru Gaddi. At that time he was 5 years and 3 months old. He was called Bal Guru as he became a Guru in his childhood. He remained the Guru till March 30, 1664 A.D. During his short period as a Guru, he did great works for the propagation of Sikhism.

1. Opposition of Ram Rai : Ram Rai could not tolerate the ascending of his younger brother Har Krishan to Guru Gaddi. He declared himself the guru in connivance with many selfish and corrupt masands. But the Sikhs refused to accept Ram Rai as guru because Guru Har Krishan was spreading and preaching Sikhism according to the dictates of Guru Har Rai Ji. It disheartened Ram Rai and he went to Delhi. He complained against his brother (Guru Har Krishan Ji) to Aurangzeb and claimed his right over the Guru Gaddi. Aurangzeb decided to settle the dispute between Guru Harkrishan and Ram Rai Ji.

2. The Guru called to Delhi by Aurangzeb : Aurangzeb was an expert in the art of diplomacy. He wanted to take advantage of the disunity between the brothers (Guru Har Rai and Guru Har Krishan). He sent a message to Guru Har Krishan Ji to reach Delhi. The Bal Guru in 1664 A.D. alongwith his mother and few Sikhs started his journey from Kiratpur Sahib to Delhi. On the way he preached Sikhism and thousands of people joined him as Sangat.

3. Guru Har Krishan Ji in Delhi : Guru Har Krishan Ji reached Delhi preaching Sikhism on the way. He stayed in King Jai Singh's palace. To judge the wisdom of Guruji, Raja Jai Singh asked his queen to sit amongst the slave women who were all dressed like the queen. Then he asked Guruji to sit in the lap of Maharani. Bal Guruji saw the faces of all the women carefully. Finally he recognised the Maharani and sat in her lap. Raja Jai Singh was influenced by the wisdom of Guruji. At present, Gurudwara Bangla Sahib has been constructed at this place.

4. Guru Har Krishan Ji and the Sick People : When Guruji reached Delhi, people there were suffering from diarrhoea and small pox. Guruji and the Sikhs looked after the sick and needy people.

Death

During his stay in Delhi, Guruji was afflicted with small pox. He left for his heavenly abode because of high fever. He asked for a five Paisa coin and a coconut before his death. He circumambulated these things thrice and uttered 'Baba Bakala' which meant that his successor was in the village Baba Bakala (Amritsar) and that he was his grandfather.

Guru Har Krishan Ji died on March 30, 1664 A.D.

Contribution of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji (1664 - 1675 A.D.)

In March 1664 A.D. Guru Har Krishan Ji said these words before his death in Delhi - 'Baba Bakala'. So on August 11, 1664 A.D. Dargah Mall and some other persons reached Bakala with a coconut and a five paisa coin given by Guru Har Krishan Ji. Keeping the coin and coconut before Tegh Bahadur Ji they appointed him the successor of Guru Har Krishan Ji. Bhai Gurditta Ji (son of Baba Buddha ji) who was present there put a tilak on his forehead. The Ninth Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji, remained on Guru Gaddi from 1664-1675 A.D. During this period, the works done by him are described below:-

Travels of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji

After ascending the Guru Gaddi, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji decided to undertake journeys of different places to spread the message of truth and love amongst the people. He travelled almost the entire northern India, Punjab, Bengal and Assam. The objective of his journeys was to propagate Sikh religion and the welfare of human beings.

1. Amritsar : Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji first of all reached Amritsar from Bakala alongwith Makhan Shah and Dargah Mall. They reached there on November 22, 1664 A.D. In those days, Harimandar Sahib was under the control of Harji Meena son of Meharban (descendent of Prithi Chand). Hearing the news of the arrival of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji, he closed all the doors of Harimandar Sahib. Guru Sahib could not have a glimpse of Harimandar Sahib. Guru Sahib stayed at a place called Tham Sahib or Thara Sahib.

2. Walla : On the invitation of some Sikh devotees and a woman named Harriyan, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji visited Walla, a village 6 kms. away from Amritsar. At Walla, the women offered Langar and water to Guruji with great respect. They asked for pardon on behalf of Masands of Harimandar Sahib who had misbehaved with Guruji.

3. **Ghukewali or Guru Ka Bagh** : Starting from the village Walla Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Ghukewali the village situated towards North West. Guruji stayed with Lal chand, the son of Bhai Ghuka. Guruji named the village Guru Ka Bagh, admiring the greenery of that village. He also got a well dug at that place realising the needs of the people.

4. **Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji's Visit to Other Places of Majha** : From Ghukewali, Guruji visited other places of Majha. He went to Khadur Sahib, Goindwal Sahib and Tarn Taran where many Sikhs came to meet him. From there he reached Khemkaran, where Chaudhary Raghpat Rai gifted a mare to Guruji.

5. **Bakala** : From Khemkaran, Guruji reached Bakala. There many people were jealous of Guruji. So Guruji decided to leave Bakala and reached Kiratpur Sahib where he started preaching Sikh religion. But there also Dhir Mall did not let him live in peace. Therefore Guruji made up his mind to leave Kiratpur Sahib also.

6. **Bilaspur** : Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji was in Kiratpur Sahib when the king of Bilaspur, Raja Dipchand died. Guruji reached Bilaspur to join the Kirya ceremony of the king. Queen Jalal Devi, the wife of late Raja Deepchand warmly welcomed Guru Sahib and arranged for his comfortable stay.

7. **Foundation of Chak Nanaki** : When Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji was in Bilaspur, he told the Queen Jalal Devi about the reason of his leaving Kiratpur and his plans to build a new city near Kiratpur. Guruji purchased land on June 19, 1665 A.D. by giving Rs. 500 to the queen and laid the foundation of a new town which was named Chak Nanaki.

8. **Saifabad** : In August 1665, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Saifabad via Ropar, Banur and Rajpura. The Mansabdar Nawab Saif-ud-Din himself was a liberal and religious man. When the news of Guruji's arrival reached him, he himself came to welcome him. He took Guruji and his companions to his palace. Guruji stayed there for a few days and preached Sikhism. Gurudwara Bahadurgarh (Patiala) is established there.

9. **Kaithal** : Starting from Saifabad, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Kaithal. He met a poor carpenter there. The carpenter took Guruji to his house. The carpenter's wife welcomed Guruji. A congregation was convened there. From Kaithal Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji started for Kurukshetra. On the way, he went to those religious places in Pehowa which were built by the Sikhs in the memory of the earlier Gurus.

10. **Kurukshetra** : Guruji and his companions reached Kurukshetra. This city was a city of yogis, saints and brahmins. He visited and paid his homage in the Gurudwaras known for commemorating the visits of Guru Nanak Dev Ji, Guru Amardas Ji and Guru Hargobind Ji. Starting from Kurukshetra, Guru Tegh

Bahadur Ji reached Delhi via Banibadarpur, Karmanakpur. After having met Rajput Raja Ram Singh of Delhi he started his journey towards Eastern India. He reached Patna via Mathura, Agra, Kanpur, Benaras, Sasram and Gaya.

11. Patna : Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Patna by the end of May, 1666 A.D. Guruji stayed in Patna from June to September. A large number of devotees came to meet Guruji and to listen to his sermons every day. At that time, Guruji's wife Mata Gujri was pregnant. After leaving her at Patna, Guruji decided to travel to Dhaka.

12. Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji at Dhaka : Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Dhaka (Capital of present Bangladesh) in the middle of October, 1666. At that time Dhaka was an important city of India. It was also a propagation centre for the Sikh religion. There were two types of sangats in Dhaka. One was established by a Udasi holyman. Bhai Natha was the Chief of Udasis in this Gurudwara. The second sangat was under the leadership of Bhai Blaki Das. He was the Chief Masand of all the sangats of Bengal. Guruji was given a warm welcome by them.

Guru Gobind Singh Ji was born to Mata Gujri on Dec. 22, 1666 A.D. in Patna. Guru Teg Bahadur Ji received this good news while he was in Dhaka.

13. Travels of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji in Bengal : With the help of Raja Ram Singh, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji also travelled to other places in Bengal. He also visited Silahat, Chittagaon. From here he went to Komila, Laksum, Daulat Ganj, Sitakund and Hathajari via Agartala. In the end of 1667 A.D., he went to Chittagaon. He established a centre of Sikhism in Chittagaon.

14. Dhubri : The Ahom ruler Chakradhwaj Singh of Assam forced the Mughals to leave Guahati. Aurangzeb sent a large force under the leadership of Raja Ram Singh. He requested Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji to come alongwith him.

In the beginning of 1669 A.D., Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji encamped at Dhubri. Raja Ram Singh encamped in Rangmati along with his Mughal army. The Ahomas strongly resisted the Mughal army. In the end Guru Sahib helped Raja Ram Singh and Chakradhwaj Singh to sign an agreement of peace. This led to the end of the war. Soon Guru Sahib prepared himself to go back.

From Assam, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Delhi after visiting many places in Bihar and U.P. From there he reached Lakhnaur via Rohtak, Kurukshetra and Pehowa.

From Lakhnaur, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji reached Nanaki Chakk via Bakala. By the time many new buildings had been constructed in the city. Therefore, Guru Sahib settled there with his family.

Travels to Malwa and Bangar Regions of Punjab

In the beginning of 1672-73 A.D., Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji made up his mind to spread Sikhism in Malwa and Bangar regions of Punjab. For this purpose, he stayed in Malwa and Bangar regions for two years. Historical Gurudwaras have been constructed at the places where Guruji went to preach Sikhism. Journeys undertaken by Guru Sahib in this area are described below: Starting from Chakk Nanaki, Guru Sahib went to Saifabad for the second time. He was warmly welcomed by Saif-ud-Din. From Saifabad, Guru Teg Bahadur Ji went to Patiala. He also visited the place where presently Gurudwara Dukhniwaran Sahib has been constructed. From there, he went to Gurudwara Motibagh. From Patiala Guruji went to Mallowall village. There was a scarcity of water in this village. Here Guruji got a well dug for the people. From Mallowall he went to village Sekhon. From Sekhon he reached Dhillwan, Khiva, Samau, Bhukhi, Khiyala, Mour, Talwandi Sabo, Bathinda and Dhamdhan. He tried to remove the grievances of the people of these backward villages. Impressed by his personality, thousands of people became his devotees.

Martyrdom of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji: Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji went to Anandpur Sahib after visiting the villages of Malwa. The Kashmiri Pandits appealed to Guru Teg Bahadur Ji that Aurangzeb was forcing them to embrace Islam. Guruji decided to sacrifice himself on hearing the appeals of the pandits. On his arrest Guruji was asked to embrace Islam which he flatly refused. He was martyred on 11 Nov, 1675, at Chandni Chowk, Delhi.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 10-15 words.

1. Name the Guru who was earlier known as Bhai Lehna Ji.
2. Define Langar system.
3. Name the Guru who laid the foundation of Baoli at Goindwal Sahib.
4. Name the Guru whom Akbar visited.
5. Write two objectives of the Masand system.
6. Who was the fourth Guru of Sikhs? Which city was founded by him?
7. Who laid the foundation of Harimandar Sahib?
8. What is the significance of four doors on the four sides of Harimandar Sahib?
9. When and which city was founded by Guru Arjan Dev Ji between the Ravi and the Beas rivers?
10. Name the four cities established by Guru Arjan Dev Ji.
11. Define the meaning of Daswandh.

12. Why was the Adi Granth compiled?
 13. What do you know about the Langar system?
 14. What was preached by Guru Angad Dev Ji to Sikhs through Sangat system?
 15. What was the contribution of Guru Angad Dev Ji towards Langar System?
 16. Write about the wrestling ground established by Guru Angad Dev Ji.
 17. What do you know about Goindwal Sahib?
 18. Write the views of Guru Amardas Ji on Caste system?
 19. What were the views of Guru Amardas Ji about the Sati System?
 20. How was Goindwal Sahib founded by Guru Amar Das Ji different from other religious places?
 21. What reforms did Guru Amardas Ji introduce for marriage, birth and death ceremonies?
 22. Write about the importance of Ramdasapur or Amritsar.
 23. Write about the importance of the meeting between Guru Ram Das Ji & Akbar.
 24. Write about the Baoli Sahib (water source) of Lahore.
 25. What was the need of the compilation of the Adi Granth by Guru Arjan Dev Ji?
 26. Write two merits of trading in horses during Guru Arjan Dev Ji's times.
 27. Write two social reforms brought about by Guru Arjan Dev Ji.
 28. Write about the relationship between Guru Arjan Dev Ji and Akbar.
 29. Why did Jehangir want to kill Guru Arjan Dev Ji?
 30. Write the importance of the swords- Miri and Piri.
 31. Describe the royal symbol used by Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji.
 32. How did Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji fortify the city of Amritsar?
 33. How and where did Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji spend his last ten years?
- (B) Answer the following questions in 30-50 words.**
1. Describe the Baoli Sahib (Water source) at Goindwal Sahib.
 2. What is the meaning of the Manji system and why was it started?
 3. What reforms were introduced in marriage ceremonies by Guru Amardasji?
 4. How did Guru Amardasji separate the Sikhs from Udasis sect?
 5. Write about the Anand Sahib.
 6. Write about the foundation of Ramdasapura or Amritsar.
 7. Write about the agreement between Sikhs and Udasis.
 8. Write about Harimandar Sahib.
 9. What do you know about Tarn Taran Sahib?

10. Describe the Baolis (Water sources) constructed during the times of Guru Sahibs.
 11. What were the benefits of the Masand System for Sikh religion.
 12. Describe the organisation of the army by Guru Hargobind Sahib.
 13. Write about the daily life of Guru Hargobind Sahib Ji.
 14. What do you know about the Akal Takhat?
 15. Throw light on any four works done by Guru Angad Dev Ji for the development of Sikhism.
 16. How was Masand system useful for the development of Sikhism?
 17. Write a note on the martyrdom of Guru Arjan Dev Ji.
- (C) **Answer the following questions in 100-120 words.**
1. What is the contribution of Guru Angad Sahib in development of Sikh religion?
 2. What were the works done by Guru Amardas Ji in the development of Sikh religion?
 3. Describe the reforms introduced by Guru Amardas Ji.
 4. What efforts were made by Guru Ram Das Ji for the development of Sikhism?
 5. What was the contribution of Guru Arjan Dev Ji to the development of Sikhism.
 6. Describe the cities built during the periods of various Gurus.
 7. Describe the origin, development and merits of the Masand System.
 8. Describe the new policy of Guru Hargobind Ji.
 9. Besides the New Policy what were the works done by Guru Hargobind Ji for the development of Sikhism.
 10. Describe the works of Guru Har Rai Ji in the development of Sikhism.
 11. What is the contribution of Guru Harkrishan Ji to the development of Sikhism.
 12. Describe the travels of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji in Eastern India.
 13. Describe the travels of Malwa undertaken by Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji.

LESSON-5

GURU GOBIND SINGH JI'S LIFE; CREATION OF KHALSA; AND HIS PERSONALITY

Guru Gobind Singh Ji was the Tenth and the last Guru of the Sikhs. Guru Nanak Dev Ji laid the foundation of Sikh religion. Eight of Guru Nanak Dev Ji's successors gradually preached and propagated the Sikh religion. But the task of completing the propagation of Sikh religion was accomplished by Guru Gobind Singh Ji. In 1699 A.D, he gave final shape to the Sikh religion by creating the 'Khalsa'. He nurtured the feelings of courage, bravery and unity amongst the Sikhs. He resisted the atrocities of Mughal Empire with his limited resources and with the help of a few Sikh soldiers. Before his death, he brought Guru system to an end and divided the power of the Guru between the Guru Granth Sahib and the Khalsa. Therefore, he had qualities of a spiritual leader, an organiser, a native soldier, an intelligent scholar and a fine reformer. His life, Creation of the Khalsa, battles fought by him and his personality are described as below:

Life of Guru Gobind Singh Ji (1666-1708 A.D.)

Guru Gobind Singh Ji received good education during his life time. He himself sent his father for self sacrifice. He created the Khalsa and brave soldiers to fight against the atrocities of the Mughal Empire. He also composed excellent literature. His whole life was full of struggle.

(A) Birth and Parentage : Guru Gobind Singh Ji was born on December 22, 1666 A.D. at Patna (capital of Bihar). His mother's name was Mata Gujri. He was the only son of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji.

Mata Gujri was staying with her family in Patna when Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji was travelling through the eastern provinces of India. According to Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji's wish, the new born child was named Gobind Dass. After some time, he was also given the name Gobind Rai.

(B) Childhood in Patna : Gobind Rai Ji spent first five years of his life in Patna. During childhood, he used to play such games which showed that one day he would become a great religious leader. He used to organise races and wrestling matches amongst his companions. He himself participated in them. He used to divide his friends into two groups and made them fight mock battles. He used to hold the court to settle the disputes of his companions.

After meeting Gobind Rai Ji, a Muslim Fakir of Ghuraam (Patiala) Sayyid Bhikan Shah prophesied that one day this child would become a great seer (Paigambar).

(C) **Dastar Bandi Ceremony at Lakhnaur** : Guru Gobind Rai Ji along with his mother, grandmother, maternal uncle and other Sikhs reached Lakhnaur in 1671 A.D. Dastar ceremony of child Gobind Rai was performed here. His elder maternal uncle tied a green coloured turban on his head. On this occasion, Sahibzada Gobind Rai wore beautiful clothes and was decorated with arms.

(D) **Education** : In the beginning of 1672 A.D., Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji started living with his family at Chak Nanaki (Anandpur Sahib). Proper arrangements were made for the education of Gobind Rai Ji. Qazi Pir Mohammad taught him Persian and Pandit Harjas imparted knowledge of Sanskrit to him. He learnt horse riding and the art of using weapons from Rajput Banjar Singh. He acquired the knowledge of Gurmukhi from Bhai Sahib Chand and Bhai Mati Dass at Lakhnaur.

(E) **Attainment of Guruship and Martyrdom of Father** : In May 1675 A.D. a jatha, of Kashmiri Pandits came to meet Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji. They told Guruji about the atrocities committed by Mughals on Kashmiri Pandits. After listening to them, Guruji said that there was a need to sacrifice a great soul at this juncture. On hearing this, Gobind Rai said that who could be a person greater than you to make a sacrifice. Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji decided to sacrifice himself on listening to these words from his son.

Entrusting the Guru Gaddi to Gobind Rai Ji, Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji started his journey towards Delhi along with his companions. On the way he was arrested near village Malikpur. On November 11, 1675 A.D., Guru Teg Bahadur Ji and his companions were martyred at Chandni Chowk in Delhi. After a few days, Bhai Jaita (Bhai Jiwan Singh Rangreta) reached Kiratpur Sahib with Guruji's head. Guru Gobind Rai hugged him and said. - "Rangrete Guru Ke Bete". The head of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji was cremated at Anandpur Sahib.

(F) **Marriage of Guru Sahib** : Some scholars have mentioned that Guruji had three wives - Mata Jito Ji, Mata Sundari and Mata Sahib Kaur. But some scholars are of the view that Mata Sundari was the second name of Mata Jito and after taking Amrit, she was known by the name of Sahib Kaur. Guruji had four sons called Sahibzadas. Baba Ajit Singh, Baba Jujhar Singh, Baba Zoravar Singh and Baba Fateh Singh.

(G) **Organization of Army** : For the protection of Sikh religion, Kirpal Chand considered it essential to organize Guru Sahib's army. Therefore, he announced on behalf of Guru Sahib that a Sikh who had four sons should get two of his sons in the army of Guru Sahib. The Sikhs were also ordered to offer horses

and armaments to the army instead of other thing. As a result, Guru Sahib could gather countless soldiers and war materials within a short span of time.

(H) Royal Symbols and Regal Court of the Guru : Guru Gobind Rai Ji like his grand father also adopted royal symbols . He started decorating his turban with Kalgi. He used to sit on a seat which looked like a throne. He started holding diwans or discourses for his Sikhs in beautiful and costly tents. He started keeping elephants and horses with him along with brave Sikhs. He used to go for hunting in the jungles of Anandpur Sahib. He got a Nagara which was called Ranjit Nagara.

(I) Guru's Activities at Paonta Sahib : Bhim Chand King of Bilaspur did not like the activities pursued by Gobind Rai Sahib at Anandpur Sahib. Therefore, on some pretext, he wanted to clash with Guruji. But Guru Sahib did not want to waste his armed power in fighting with him. So on the invitation of Medini Parkash, king of Nahan, Guruji went to Nahan. He chose a quiet and beautiful place on the bank of the river Yamuna in Nahan state. The place was named 'Paonta Sahib' which means "a place to keep foot". Guruji appointed 52 poets who along with Guruji enriched the Sikh literature by composing literary works.

To prepare the sikhs for war he translated the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. He trained his Sikhs in the art of horse riding, archery and sword play etc. Guru Sahib included 500 pathans of Pir Budhu Shah of Sadhaura in his army.

(J) Battles of Pre-Khalsa Period : Before the creation of the Khalsa, Guru Gobind Rai Ji had to fight a battle at Bhangani in 1688A.D. Guruji defeated king Fateh Shah and his companions in this battle. This was the first and a significant victory for Guruji. After this victory, Guruji again came back to Anandpur Sahib. He got four forts i.e Anandgarh, Kesgarh, Lohgarh and Fatehgarh constructed at Anandpur Sahib.

When the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb who was in the South came to know about the increasing power of Guru Gobind Rai, then in 1694 A.D. he ordered the rulers of Punjab to wage a war against Guruji. The Fauzdar of Kangra province sent his son Khanzada to fight against Guruji. The Sikhs defeated him.

After the failure of Khanzada, in beginning of 1696 A.D., Fauzdar of Kangra province sent Hussain Khan to fight against Guruji but he got entangled in a fight against the kings of the hill states. Prince Muazzam tried to crush the power of Guru Sahib and kings of the hill states. He was successful in crushing the power of kings from the hill states but he did not take any action against Guruji.

(K) Creation of the Khalsa : Guru Gobind Rai Ji created 'the Khalsa' in 1699 A.D. on the day of the Baisakhi. He prepared Amrit and selected Panj Piaras – Daya Singh, Dharam Singh, Mohkam Singh, Sahib Singh and Himmat Singh. Then Guruji also drank Amrit from selected five Sikhs and suffixed the word 'Singh' with his name also. As a result, the five Sikhs, became Singhs and Guruji's name became 'Guru Gobind Singh'.

(L) Battles of Post-Khalsa Period : The period after the creation of Khalsa is called 'Post Khalsa Period'. During this period, Guruji remained busy in fighting various battles. He fought the first battle at Anandpur Sahib in 1701 A.D, the battle of Nirmoh in 1702 A.D, the battle of Basauli in 1702 A.D, the second battle of Anandpur Sahib in 1704 A.D., the battle of Shahi Tibbi, the battle of Sirsa and the battle of Chamkaur Sahib in 1705 A.D. After leaving Chamkaur Sahib and passing through places like Machhiwara and Dina Guruji reached Khidrana, (Muktsar). He defeated the Mughal army in 1705 A.D. at Khidrana.

From Khidrana, Guruji went to Talwandi Sabo from where on, he went towards the south.

(M) Death of the Guru : Guru Gobind Singh Ji reached Nanded (South) in Sept., 1708 A.D. He sent Madho Dass to Punjab with the name Banda Bahadur.

The fauzdar of Sirhind sent two pathans to kill Guru Sahib at Nanded at time. They visited the darbar of Guru Sahib. One day, in the evening one of the pathans got the opportunity to kill Guruji. At that time, Guruji's personal attendant had gone to sleep. Guruji was also half asleep at that time. The pathan on getting an opportunity attacked Guruji in the stomach with his dagger. Guruji died on Oct, 7, 1708 A.D. because of deep wounds.

THE CREATION OF THE KHALSA - 1699 A.D.

Guru Gobind Rai Ji created the Khalsa on the day of Baisakhi in 1699 A.D. This event is regarded as very significant in sikh history. There were some causes behind this event which were responsible for the creation of the Khalsa.

Causes :

(1) Measures taken for the Development of Sikhism by the previous Nine Gurus : The seeds of the Khalsa were sown by Guru Nanak Dev Ji. He criticised idol worship and useless rituals. By starting sangat and pangat system, he attacked the caste system. He raised his voice against the atrocities committed at that time. Guru Nanak Dev Ji's successors adopted the path shown by him. Guruji created Khalsa in order to remove all evils in the Sikhs, to inculcate courage, bravery and to give separate identity to the Sikhs.

- (2) **Aurangzeb's Atrocities on Hindus** : Aurangzeb wanted to make India a Land of Islam. He committed atrocities on the Hindus keeping this in mind. Their holy temples were demolished. They were dismissed from high profile Government jobs. Special tax was imposed on them. Restrictions were imposed on their religious customs. In this way, the Hindus were forced to adopt Islam. Therefore, he sacrificed the life of his father to protect the Hindus and he tried to organise a strong and powerful army in the form of the Khalsa.
- (3) **Unreliability of the Kings of Hill States** : Before the creation of the khalsa, Guru Gobind Rai Ji tried to develop friendly relations with the kings of hill states. In the battle of Nadaon (1690 A.D.) he helped them fight against the Mughals. But later on they joined the Mughals. At this stage, Guruji realised that he should not depend on any one. To build up his power, he created the Khalsa.
- (4) **Rigidity of the Caste System** : Although the predecessors of Guru Gobind Rai Ji condemned the caste system, it still prevailed in the Sikh Society. So Guru Sahib created the Khalsa eradicating caste system, by including people from different castes and religions.
- (5) **Guruji's Mission of Life** : Guru Gobind Rai Ji wrote in his autobiography 'Vichitra Natak' that the aim of his life was to propagate the religion in the world, to protect the saints and destroy the tyrants. It was necessary to create the Khalsa to fulfil this objective.

BIRTH OF THE KHALSA

Selection of the Panj Piaras : Guru Gobind Rai Ji convened an assembly on the day of Baisakhi at Anandpur Sahib in 1699 A.D. Approximately 80,000 people were present there. Guruji took out his sword from the sheath and said loudly, "Is there any one among you who can sacrifice his head for religion." Guruji repeated these words thrice. When Guruji called out for the third time, Daya Ram (Khatri), a resident of Lahore offered himself for sacrifice. Guruji took him to a nearby tent. Again he came out of the tent and as earlier demanded the head of another person. This time Dharam Dass of Delhi (jat) came forward to sacrifice himself. Guru Sahib took him to the tent. Like this Guruji five times demanded the heads of five different persons. Daya Ram, Dharam Dass, Mohkam Chand, Sahib Chand and Himmat Rai offered their heads for sacrifice. After some time Guruji brought these five persons clad in orange coloured clothes before the people. Guruji was also wearing the same ceremonial clothes. People were surprised to see the five persons alive. Guruji gave them the title of the 'Panj Piara'.

Khande di Pahul : After this incident, Guruji put pure water and patasas

(Sugar Plums) in an iron vessel and started stirring it with the khanda. While stirring, Guruji recited the hymns of Japuji Sahib, Anand Sahib, Jaap Sahib, Sawaie and Chaupai. The 'Amrit' prepared in the iron vessel was given to 'Panj Piaras'. Guruji gave them the name of the Khalsa. He asked them to suffix Singh with their names.

Guruji also drank Amrit from the 'Panj Piaras'. He himself became Gobind Singh from Gobind Rai.

Principles of the Khalsa : Guru Gobind Singh Ji laid principles for the duties to be performed by the Khalsa, which are as follows :

- (1) For entering the Khalsa Panth, every one has to drink Amrit, thereafter he would be called a Khalsa.
- (2) Every Khalsa will use 'Singh' with his name and a Khalsa woman will use 'Kaur' with her name.
- (3) Every Khalsa will wear the five emblems (kakars) - Kes (hair), Kangha (comb), Kara (iron bangle), Kachhera (long underwear) and Kirpan (Sword).
- (4) Every Khalsa will believe in one God. He will not believe in any god or goddess and idol worship.
- (5) He would get up early in the morning and after taking bath, recite the five Banis - Japuji Sahib, Jaap Sahib, Anand Sahib, Sawaie and Chaupai.
- (6) The Khalsa will earn his livelihood honestly and donate 1/10th of his earnings as 'Daswandh' and use it for religious purposes.
- (7) The Khalsa will not believe in caste system and class discrimination.
- (8) The Khalsa will wear weapons. He will always be ready to fight religious war.
- (9) The Khalsa will not use tobacco and other narcotics. He will not eat meat.
- (10) The Khalsa will keep high moral character.
- (11) The Khalsa while meeting each other will wish "Wahe Guruji Ka Khalsa, Wahe Guruji Ki Fateh."

Significance and Results of the Creation of the Khalsa

With the creation of the Khalsa, there was a revolutionary change in the minds of the people.

- (1) **Completion of the Work begun by Guru Nanak Dev Ji :** Guru Nanak Dev Ji laid the foundation of the Sikh religion. All his successors worked for the development of the Sikh religion. Guru Gobind Singh Ji completed the work undertaken by his predecessors by creating 'the Khalsa'.

(2) **End of the Masand System :** The Fourth Guru, Guru Ram Dass Ji started the Masand system. The masands made a significant contribution for the propagation and the spread of the Sikh religion. But they became selfish, greedy and corrupt during the time of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji. So Guru Gobind Singh Ji ordered all his Singhs not to keep any relation with the masands. As a result, the Masand system came to an end.

(3) **Increasing Importance of the Khalsa Sangat :** The Khalsa Sangat was given the right of serving 'Khande Di Pahul'. The Sangat was given the right to settle disputes amongst the Sikhs. As a result, the importance of Sikh Sangat increased.

(4) **Increase in the Number of Sikhs :** First of all Guru Gobind Singh Ji served Amrit to his own Sikhs and christened them Khalsa. Guru Sahib ordered that any five members of the Khalsa can further induct any person in the Khalsa Panth by serving Amrit to him. This resulted in an increase in the number of the Sikhs.

(5) **Infusing New Spirit into the Sikhs :** With the establishment of the Khalsa, a new spirit was infused into the Sikhs. After drinking Amrit, they started to call themselves as 'Singh'. They forgot the discrimination of caste system. On being called Singhs the feelings of fear and cowardice were removed. They also maintained a good moral character.

(6) **Successful Resistance of the Mughals :** Guru Gobind Singh Ji infused the feelings of bravery and courage among the Sikhs by creating the Khalsa'. He taught the sparrows to fight with the eagle and one Sikh with 1 ¼ lakh enemies. As a result, the Sikhs of Guruji fought successful battles with the Mughals between 1699- 1708 A.D. Guruji successfully resisted the power of the Mughal army with his limited resources and a handful of soldiers.

(7) **Warfare between the Guru Ji and the Rajas of the Hill States :** The Rajas of the hill states became nervous with the creation of the Khalsa. Particularly the hill Chieftain Bhim Chand of Bilaspur became scared of the military activities of Guru Sahib. As a result, he formed alliances with many other chiefs of the hill states. They made up their mind to suppress the power of Guru Sahib. Therefore, after the creation of the Khalsa, Guru Sahib had to fight many battles with the Rajas or chieftain of the hills states.

(8) **Separate Identity of the Sikh Community :** Many places of pilgrimage for the Sikhs were constructed from the period of Guru Nanak Dev Ji to Guru Gobind Singh Ji. The Holy Book of the Sikhs, the Adi Granth Sahib was also compiled. The Sikhs started celebrating the festivals and following the customs in their own way. With the creation of the Khalsa and observance of 5 (Kakars) k's, the Sikhs separated their outward identity from the common people. The men of the Khalsa became 'Singh' and women 'Kaur'.

(9) **Khalsa Saved Hinduism from Extinction** : Aurangzeb was committing atrocities on the Hindus. In Punjab the Khalsa only resisted his atrocities. Influenced by the Khalsa, the people of other states also started resisting the atrocities of Aurangzeb. As a result, the Hindu religion was saved from all sides. Therefore, the Hindu religion was saved from extinction.

(10) **Death blow to Superstitions** : The Khalsa did not believe in the old superstitions of the Hindus due to its principles. The Khalsa gave up believing in performing Yajnas, sacrifices, keeping fasts, idol worship and other superstitions. As a result, the Khalsa gave a death blow to superstitions and ignorance.

(11) **Democratic Elements in Sikhism** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji after serving Amrit to the Panj Piaras himself also drank Amrit from their hands. He also ordered that any five Singhs or Sangat can offer Amrit to any one. Before his death Guruji established democracy by delegating fully the Guru power to Guru Granth Sahib and the Khalsa. Thus, Guru Gobind Singh Ji was the first democrat of the country.

(12) **Rise of Political Power of the Sikhs** : With the organisation of the Khalsa feelings of courage, bravery, fearlessness, and self sacrifice were awakened in the Sikhs. As a result, the Sikhs continued their struggle with the Mughals under the leadership of Banda Bahadur even after the death of Guru Sahib. They occupied many areas of Punjab. After the death of Banda Bahadur, the Sikhs had to face many problems. But they maintained firm belief in their religion. After the Mughals, they resisted the Afghans with great courage and bravery. At last, several independent states (Misals) in different parts of Punjab were established.

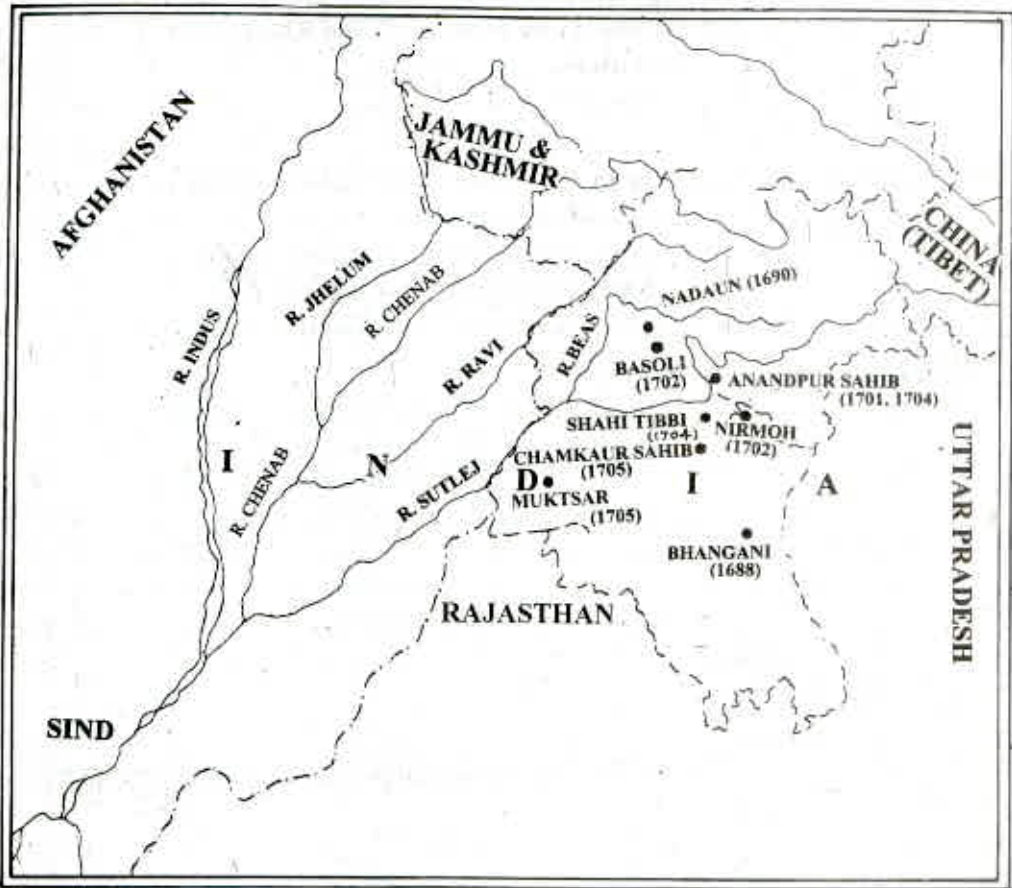
The Battles of Guru Gobind Singh Ji against the Political and Religious Tyranny

Guru Gobind Singh Ji was a saint and a great soldier. His spiritual and political activities were neither tolerated by the Rajas of hill states nor by the Government. The rulers committed atrocities on them and forced them to fight against them. Therefore, Guruji had to fight many battles with the opposition. Some battles were fought before the creation of the Khalsa which were called the Pre-khalsa Battles and some were fought after the creation of the Khalsa which were known as the Post- Khalsa Battles.

The Battles of Pre-Khalsa Period

(A) **Conflict with Bhim Chand Raja of Bilaspur** : There were many reasons of conflict between Bhim Chand Raja of Bilaspur and Guru Gobind Rai Ji. The first cause of conflict was that Guruji was against idol worship whereas Bhim Chand was in favour of idol worship. Secondly, Guruji started organising the

PUNJAB BEFORE 1947 A.D. BATTLES OF GURU GOBIND SINGH JI



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Map No. 1

army. Bhim Chand considered these activities as a threat to his state. Thirdly, Guruji adopted royal emblems. Bhim Chand feared that a new state was being established in his neighbourhood. Fourthly, Bhim Chand demanded annual tribute from Guruji, which he refused. Once Bhim Chand paid a visit to Guruji at Makhawal (Anandpur Sahib) where he was given a warm welcome by Guruji. But he became jealous on seeing Guruji's elephant (gifted by Ratan Chand King of Assam) and beautiful tent (gifted by Duni Chand of Kabul).

Bhim Chand demanded 'Prasadi' elephant and the tent gifted by Duni Chand on the engagement ceremony of his son from Guruji which he refused sensing the bad intentions of Bhim Chand. As a result Bhim Chand launched an attack on Anandpur Sahib but he was defeated.

(B) The Battle of Bhangani, 1688 A.D. : Guru Gobind Singh Ji went to Paonta Sahib due to his disagreement with Bhim Chand Raja of Bilaspur. In fact, he did not want to fight with any one. While staying in Paonta Sahib, he encouraged his own literary activities and of his 52 poets. He fought the battle of Bhangani in 1688 A.D.

Causes : Guruji did not want to fight the battle of Bhangani but the Rajas of hill states forced him to do so.

The main causes of the battle were :

- (1) The Rajas of hill states considered military preparations made by Guru Gobind Singh Ji as a potential danger to them.
- (2) Guruji was against idol worship but the Rajas of hill states firmly believed in idol worship.
- (3) Guruji recruited 500 Pathanas in his army who were ousted from the Mughal army. The Rajas of hill states were sincere to the Mughal government. That is why they did not approve of this gesture of goodwill of Guruji.
- (4) The Mughal fauzdars around instigated the Rajas of hill states against Guruji.
- (5) Guruji had an old enmity with Bhim Chand.
- (6) The immediate cause of this battle was that the Sikhs did not allow the marriage party of son of Bhim Chand to pass through Paonta Sahib which was on its way to Garhwal. As a result all the Rajas of hill states present in the marriage party made up their mind to fight against Guruji.

Events : Guru Gobind Singh Ji chose the place of Bhangani to fight against the Rajas of the hill states. As the battle started, the army of 500 Pathans sent by Pir Budhu Shah of Sadhaura deserted the army of Guruji. But Guruji continued the battle with his few companions. At the same time, Pir Buddha Shah of

Sadhaura along with his four sons and seven hundred followers joined Guruji. The fight continued for nine hours on September, 1688 A.D. Guruji showed his acts of bravery by leading his army. It encouraged the Sikhs. As a result, the Rajas of hill states suffered a great loss. They fled after their defeat. At last, Guruji secured a grand victory.

The Significance of the Battle : The victory in the battle of Bhangani was Guru Gobind Singh Ji's first significant victory.

- (1) With this victory, the power of Guruji increased.
- (2) Guruji realised that if he organised his followers, then he would successfully resist the Mughals.
- (3) The Kings from the hill states particularly Raja Bhim Chand stopped opposing Guruji and developed friendly relations with him.
- (4) Guruji left Paonta Sahib and again settled at Anandpur Sahib.
- (5) Guru Sahib constructed four forts - Anandgarh, Kesgarh, Lohgarh and Fatehgarh at Anandpur Sahib.

(C) The Battle of Nadaun, 1690 A.D. : The battle of Nadaun was fought between the union of the Kings of hill states and the Mughals. In this battle Guruji supported the kings of hill states. The only reason behind it was that after developing friendly relations with Guruji, Bhim Chand the King of Bilaspur and the kings of other hill states stopped paying annual tribute to the Mughals. Those kings constituted a union under the leadership of Bhim Chand. On not receiving annual tribute from them Bhim the Mughal subedar of Jammu, Mian Khan sent an army under the leadership of Alif Khan against the Kings of the hill states in 1690 A.D. In this battle, Kirpal Chand King of Kangra cooperated Alif Khan. Guru Sahib favoured Raja Ram Singh and the Kings of hill states. The battle of Nadaun took place thirty two kilometers away from Kangra on the banks of the river Beas. In this battle, Guru Sahib and his companions proved their bravery. Alif Khan was defeated and he fled from the battle field.

After the victory of Nadaun, Bhim Chand made an agreement with Alif Khan without the consent of Guru Sahib. Guru Ji was deeply hurt by Bhim Chand's act of deceit.

(D). Mughal Campaign against Guruji and the Kings of Hill States, 1694 A.D.

Khanzada Rustam Khan's Campaign of 1694 A.D. : The Mughal emperor Aurangzeb came to know about the increasing power of Guru Gobind Rai Ji. He ordered the Mughal fauzdar of Punjab to take action against Guru Sahib. To give practical shape to the order, Dilawar Khan the fauzdar of Kangra province sent his son Khanzada Rustam Khan, against Guru Sahib. He crossed

the river Satluj on a cold winter night along with his army to suddenly attack Guruji in 1694 A.D. The Sikhs were already prepared for the war. The Sikhs had thrown only a few bomb at them which forced Khanzada and his army to flee from the battlefield out of fear. In this way, Guru Sahib secured victory over the Mughals without fighting a battle.

(2) **Hussain Khan's Campaign of 1696 A.D.** : After the defeat of Khanzada, Dilawar Khan sent his bravest soldier Hussain Khan to attack Anandpur Sahib, in the beginning of 1696 A.D. On the way Hussain Khan demanded tax from the kings of Guleir and Jasvan. They made excuses for not paying the tax. They decided to fight against Hussain Khan. Bhim Chand (Bilaspur) and Kirpal Chand (Kangra) also joined Hussain Khan. Guruji sent his few Sikhs to fight against Hussain Khan. Though all the Sikhs were martyred, Hussain Khan suffered a defeat and was killed.

After the death of Hussain Khan, Dilawar Khan sent an army under the leadership of Jujhar Singh and Chandel Rai but before it could reach Anandpur Sahib the army was defeated by Raja Raj Singh (Jasvan) and it fled back.

(3) **Prince Muazzam's Campaign** : The Mughal emperor Aurangzebe on getting news of the defeat of Mughals in Deccan. So he sent prince Muazzam to fight against Guru Sahib and the Kings of hill states. On reaching Lahore, he sent a huge army against the Kings of hill states under the leadership of Mirza Baig. He was successful in defeating the Kings of hill states .

Battles of Post-Khalsa Period, 1699–1708 A.D.

The period from the creation of the Khalsa (1699 A.D.) to the death of Guru Gobind Singh Ji (1708 A.D.) is called Post Khalsa period. During this period, Guru Sahib remained busy in fighting battles.

(1) **The First Battle of Anandpur 1701 A.D.** : After two years of the creation of the Khalsa, Guru Gobind Singh Ji had to declare war against the Kings of hill states. The main cause of this battle was that the kings of hill states became nervous by the creation of the Khalsa. The principles of the Khalsa were also against the religion of the Kings of hill states. So Bhim Chand the ruler of Bilaspur asked Guru Sahib to either leave Anandpur Sahib or pay appropriate rent for it. Guru Sahib rejected his demand. As a result, in 1701 A.D. armies of Bhim Chand and other Kings of hill states besieged Anandpur Sahib. Guru Sahib, Sahibzada Ajit Singh (14-15 years old) and other Sikhs made the enemies suffer a great loss. As a result, the disappointed Kings of hill states wanted to enter into an agreement with Guruji. Guruji who also did not want to fight with them made the agreement. According to the agreement, Guruji left Anandpur Sahib and went to stay at Nirmoh near Kiratpur Sahib.

(2) **The Battle of Nirmoh, 1702 A.D.** : Bhim Chand realised that it was impossible to finish the power of the Sikhs. He asked for the help of the Mughal government to finish their power. As a result, in the beginning of 1702 A.D, on one side the army of Bhim Chand and on the other side the Mughal army under the leadership of subedar of Sirhind attacked Nirmoh. The Gujjars staying nearby helped the invaders. On the other hand, Guru Gobind Singh Ji and his Sikhs got ready for war. The Sikhs fought the enemies bravely. The battle continued for a night and a day. At last, Guruji defeated the army of the enemy and forced them to flee.

(3) **The Battle of Satluj, 1702 A.D.** : Although Guruji won the battle of Nirmoh, yet he decided to leave Nirmoh. He had not yet crossed the river Satluj that the enemy attacked him again. The army of Guruji fought against the enemy valiantly. The battle continued for four hours. Guruji won this battle also.

(4) **The Battle of Basauli, 1702 A.D.** : After crossing the river Satluj, Guruji and the Sikhs went to Basauli. The army of Bhim Chand chased the army of Guruji but Guruji again defeated them. Since the rulers of Basauli and Jasvan were Guruji's friends, therefore, Bhim Chand thought it useful to have a treaty with Guruji. The treaty was signed in the middle of 1702. As a result, Guruji again came to Anandpur Sahib. Guruji did not have to fight any battle for the next two years.

(5) **The Second Battle of Anandpur Sahib, 1704 A.D.** : The Kings of hill states began to feel jealous on watching the increasing power of Guruji. The federation established by them asked Guruji to leave Anandpur Sahib. When Guruji rejected their demand, they attacked him but Guruji defeated them and forced them to return.

Bhim Chand and other Kings of hill states asked help from the Mughal Government. The Fauzdar of Sirhind, Wazir Khan came there with his army. Wazir Khan, Kings of hill states and Ranghars together attacked Guruji. The Sikhs from inside the fort failed the enemy's attack. Then the enemy besieged Anandpur Sahib on all sides. As a result, it became impossible for the Sikhs to continue the battle. The Sikhs wanted to leave Anandpur Sahib but Guruji did not agree. So forty Sikhs wrote 'Bedawa' a disclaimer and left the company of Guruji. At last, at the instance of Mata Gujri, Guruji left Anandpur Sahib on December 21, 1704 A.D.

(6) **The Battle of Shahi Tibbi** : As soon as the enemy came to know about Guru Gobind Singh Ji having left Anandpur Sahib, they captured Anandpur Sahib. They chased the Sikhs. Guruji ordered his Sikh Uday Singh to resist the enemy. He along with his 50 companions resisted a huge army of the enemy at

Shahi Tibbi. Although all the Sikhs were martyred, yet they killed hundreds of enemies.

(7) **The Battle of Sirsa :** When Guru Sahib and his companions reached the river Sirsa, the enemy also approached near them. Guruji left his main Sikh Bhai Jiwan Singh Rangreta (who had brought head of Guru Teg Bahadur Ji from Delhi and reached Kiratpur Sahib and whose earlier name was Bhai Jaita) along with about hundred Sikhs tried to resist the enemy. They resisted the enemy valiantly. In the battle, the enemy suffered heavy losses. At that time the Sirsa river was in flood. Guruji, hundreds of his Sikhs and companions, along with the horses jumped into the river. Many Sikhs were drowned. A lot of valuable literature was also washed away. In this confusion many Sikhs and two younger Sahibzadas, Zorawar Singh and Fateh Singh along with Mata Guji Ji were separated from him.

(8) **The Battle of Chamkaur Sahib, 1705 A.D. :** After crossing the river Sirsa, Guru Gobind Singh Ji, some of his Sikhs and his elder sahibzadas, Ajit Singh and Jujhar Singh reached Chamkaur Sahib via Ghanola and Kotla Nihang. At that time he had only forty Sikhs with him. There, they took refuge in a 'Kachhi Garhi'. When the enemy attacked them, they resisted them valiantly. Both the Sahibzadas of Guru Sahib gave a proof of their bravery. At last they both became martyrs. While resisting the enemy valiantly, three out of the five 'Panj Piaras Sahib Singh, Mohkam Singh and Himmat Singh were also martyred. At last Guruji was left with only five out of forty Singhs. They forced Guruji to leave Chamkaur Sahib in form of Hukum urged by a Hukamnama (written or spoken letter giving some order) issued by them. Bhai Daya Singh and Bhai Dharam Singh came out of the Garhi with him. Other Singhs became martyrs while fighting.

Guru Gobind Singh Ji reached Kidrana via plains of Machhiwara, Alamgir, Dina Kangar etc.

(9) **The Battle of Khidrana, 1705 A.D. :** When Guru Gobind Singh Ji reached the Dhab of Khidrana a large number of Sikhs had joined him. The Singhs who wrote Bedawa and left Guruji also reached there. Mai Bhago specially reached there along with them to fight in favour of Guruji. Guruji had about 2000 Sikh soldiers at that time. On the other side, Wazir Khan, Subedar of Sirhind with a huge army of 10,000 soldiers reached there. A fierce battle took place at Dhab of Khidrana on December 29, 1705. In the battle, Guru Sahib and his companions gave a proof of extraordinary courage. They fought valiantly. Due to the scarcity of water it was difficult for Mughals to fight the battle. As a result, the Mughals had to flee after defeat. Although Mai Bhago was badly wounded and all forty Singhs who wrote Bedawa also became martyrs yet Guruji won the last battle.

Guruji keeping in view their bravery tore Bedava in front of their leader Bhai Mahan Singh. Those Sikhs are remembered in the history as '40 Muktas'. In their memory, Khidrana was named Muktsar.

The Personality of Guru Gobind Singh Ji

Guru Gobind Singh Ji is known as a great personality in the history of Punjab. He was a great man, good organiser, brave soldier, worthy scholar, great poet and great spiritual leader.

(A) Guruji as a Person

(1) **Impressive physique and Charming Personality** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji was very handsome. He had a tall stature, fair complexion and stout body. His forehead was broad, eyes big and shining. He wore clean and beautiful clothes. He was always equipped with arms. He put kalgi aigrette on his dastar (turban). He held a white hawk in his right hand. That is why he is remembered by his devotees as '*Kalgidhar Dashmesh*' or '*Chitte Bazan Wale*'.

(2) **Courageous and Fearless** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji faced many problems even in his childhood. Even then he worked with extraordinary courage, bravery and self confidence. He gave proof of his courage, bravery and fearlessness while fighting with the kings of the hill states and the Mughals. He wrote a letter like Zafarnama to Aurangzeb without fear. In that letter Guruji criticised the atrocities committed by Government on innocent people and justified battles fought against the Mughals.

(3) **A Man of Strong Determination** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji was a man of strong determination. He decided at the age of nine that he would fight against the Mughal government for the protection of religion. To fulfil his determination, he sacrificed the whole of his life. He got success in fulfilling his determination and kept a balanced approach throughout his life.

(4) **Embodiment of Sacrifice** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji sacrificed all comforts of his life for the protection of religion. He sacrificed his father, four sons, mother and his beloved Sikhs. For the protection of his religion, he was always ready for any sacrifice.

(5) **High Moral Character** : Guru Gobind Singh Ji hated fraud and lies. He had no greed for wealth and lust for rule. Whatever money was collected in form of offerings was used for religious works and spent on the poor people.

Guru Sahib dealt with people with humility, love and generosity. He was not proud in anyway. He considered himself a humble servant of God.

Guruji was sympathetic towards the poor and low caste people. He

embraced Bhai Jaita (Jiwan Singh Rangreta) calling him 'Rangreta Guru Ka Beta' when he brought the head of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji from Delhi to Kiratpur Sahib. Three out of the five 'Panj Piaras' were Shudras.

(6) **Liberal and Tolerant in Religious Views** : The Mughal emperor Aurangzeb got Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji martyred, due to his religious fanaticism. But even then Guru Gobind Singh Ji felt no hatred for the Muslims.

Due to Guru Sahib's liberal and tolerant nature, Muslims like Pir Mohammad, Buddhu Shah, Nihang Khan, Nabi Khan, Gani Khan became Guruji's close friends. Guruji's army had Muslim soldiers also.

(B) As a Poet and Scholar

Guru Gobind Singh Ji had deep knowledge of Punjabi, Hindi, Sanskrit and Persian. He was a well versed poet also. Though many of his compositions were washed away in Sirsa river, yet many of his compositions are still available. The Jaap Sahib, the Bachitar Natak, the Zafarnama, the Akal Ustat, the Shastra Nam - Mala, the Chandi Di Var are his prominent compositions.

Guru Gobind Singh Ji being a poet liked the company of other poets. In Paonta Sahib, he had 52 poets. In Talwandi Sabo, many poets came to him. His famous poets were Senapat, Nand Lal, Udai Rai, Ani Rai, Sukhdev, Hans Raj, Lakhan and Gopal.

(C) As an Organizer

Guru Gobind Singh Ji was an excellent organizer. The creation of the Khalsa by Guru Sahib is its living proof. As a result, people of low caste got a new life. Guruji's followers were filled with enthusiasm. Those people who had not even touched the sword became great warriors.

Being a good organiser he introduced democratic principles. After offering Amrit to the 'Panj Piaras' he himself took Amrit from them. He also said "Guru is in Khalsa and Khalsa is in Guru."

Before he breathed his last, he advised the Sikhs that from then onwards, they should regard the Guru Granth Sahib as their Guru. They would make their decisions in the presence of the Guru Granth Sahib. He also said, wherever five Khalsas would gather, I would be present in them. This proves that Guruji was the founder of a democratic system.

(D) As a Military General

Guru Gobind Singh Ji was a brave warrior and a native commander. Since his childhood he got proficiency in horse riding, fighting with swords and archery. While in Paonta Sahib he organised an army of brave Sikhs.

The proof of his being an able and successful general is that he fought against the powerful Mughal army successfully. In the battle of Chamkaur Sahib his forty sikhs only put the huge Mughal army in quandry.

Guru Gobind Singh Ji led the Sikhs in every battle. Like an able general he knew when, where and how to fight the enemy. Like the battles of Bhangani and Khidrana he chose an appropriate place for every battle.

Guru Gobind Singh Ji never attacked first. He always fought a defensive battle. The kings from hill states and the Mughals deceived him many times. But Guruji always kept his words. In fact he always fought religious wars.

(E) As a Religious Leader

Guruji like his predecessors was a great religious leader and Guru of the Sikhs. Although he was busy in military exploits but he was fought war like religious war. He used to preach to his Sikhs; Always worship God, keep your character high, keep away himself from lust, anger, greed, attachment and pride. He like his predecessors wrote religious hymns like the Jaap Sahib, the Akal Ustat etc. He gave final shape to the Adi Granth Sahib. He propagated Sikh religion.

This proves that Guru Gobind Singh Ji had a multifaceted personality.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 20-25 words :

1. When and where was Guru Gobind Singh Ji born? Write the names of his parents.
2. Which games were played by Guruji in his childhood at Patna?
3. Name the teachers from whom Guru Gobind Singh Ji received his education.
4. What was the problem of Kashmiri Pandits? How did Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji solve it?
5. Name the forts constructed by Guru Gobind Singh Ji after the victory of Bhangani.
6. Write the names of the 'Panj Piaras'.
7. How did Guru Gobind Singh Ji attained **martyrdom**?
8. Which Banis were recited while preparing Khande Di Pahul?
9. When and where was the Khalsa created?
10. What was the impact of the Khalsa on Bhim Chand King of Bilaspur?
11. Write the immediate cause of the Battle of Bhangani?
12. What was the cause of the battle of Nadaun?

13. What was the earlier name of Mukatsar? Why was it named so?
14. To whom did Guruji write a letter named 'Zafarnama'?
15. Write the names of Guru Gobind Singh Ji's four famous compositions.
16. Why is Guru Gobind Singh Ji called the founder of the democratic system?

(B) Answer the following questions in 30-50 words :

1. How did Guru Gobind Singh Ji spend his childhood at Patna?
2. Write about the royal emblems of Guru Gobind Singh Ji.
3. Describe the principles of the Khalsa.
4. What were the causes of the Battle of Bhangani?
5. Describe the Mughal campaigns against Guru Gobind Singh Ji and the kings of hill states.
6. Describe briefly the second battle of Anandpur Sahib.
7. Write a note on the battle of Chamkaur Sahib.
8. Describe the battle of Khidrana.
9. Describe the personality of Guru Gobind Singh Ji as a general.

(C) Answer the following questions in 100-120 words :

1. What do you know about the life of Guru Gobind Singh Ji?
2. Why did Guru Gobind Singh Ji create the khalsa?
3. What was the significance of the creation of the Khalsa?
4. Describe the Pre Khalsa battles of the Guru Gobind Singh Ji.
5. Describe the Post Khalsa battles of Guru Gobind Singh Ji.
6. What do you know about Guru Gobind Singh Ji as a man?
7. Describe the battles of Chamkaur Sahib and Khidrana.

(D) In the given map of Punjab, show any four places where battles were fought by Guru Gobind Singh Ji.

LESSON - 6

BANDA SINGH BAHADUR AND THE SIKH MISALS

Rise of Banda Bahadur : Guru Gobind Singh Ji, before his death, had ordered his Sikhs to accept Guru Granth Sahib as their religious Guru. During the last days of his life, Guruji visited the south. At Nanded Sahib, he met Bairagi Madho Das. Guru Gobind Singh Ji baptised him as a Sikh and renamed him Gurbax Singh. But Madho Das became popular by the name of 'Banda Bahadur'.

When Banda Bahadur heard from Guruji about the atrocities committed on the Sikhs by the Mughal Government, he was greatly distressed. He was enraged when he came to know about the martyrdom of Guru Tegh Bahadur Ji, Mata Gujari and the Sahibzadas. He requested Guruji to visit Punjab. He wanted to punish the treacherous Mughal officials for their crimes. Guruji accepted the request of Banda Bahadur. Guru Sahib gave him five arrows from his bow, a khanda and Nagara as a symbol of his power. He ordered Bhai Vinod Singh, Bhai Kahan Singh, Bhai Baz Singh, Bhai Daya Singh and Bhai Ran Singh to accompany and assist Banda Bahadur in Punjab. At the time of departure, Guru Sahib gave the Hukamnamas to Banda Bahadur for the Sikhs of Punjab. In these Hukamnamas, Guruji wrote to the Sikhs that Banda Bahadur would be their political leader. They should assist Banda Bahadur in the religious wars against the Mughals.

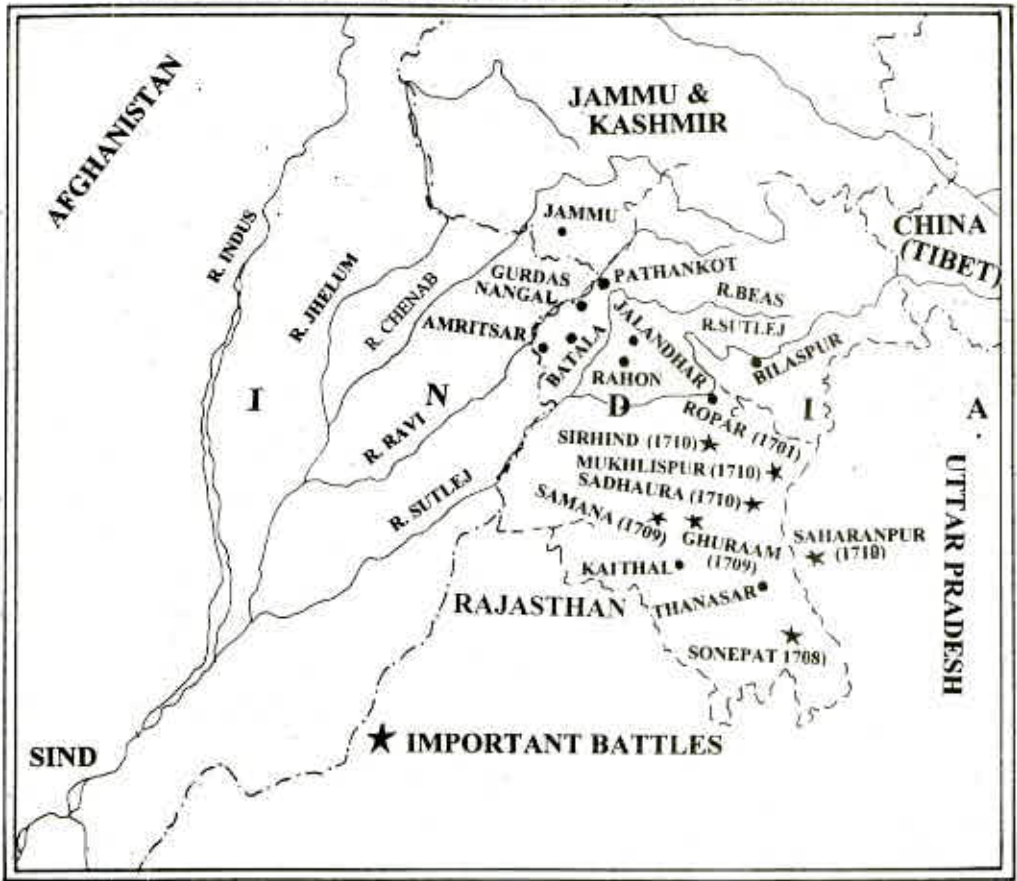
After reaching Delhi, Banda Bahadur sent the Hukamnamas of Guru Gobind Singh Ji to the Sikhs of Malwa, Doaba and Majha. Quickly, thousands of Sikhs gathered in Delhi under the leadership of Banda Bahadur. After organising the army, Banda Bahadur and his followers advanced towards Punjab with great zeal to take military action against the cruel Mughals.

Attack on Sonapat : While advancing from Delhi to Punjab, Banda Bahadur attacked Sonapat though at that time, he had only five hundred Sikhs in his army yet fauzdar of that place could not dare to resist them on hearing the bravery of Sikhs. The fauzdar and his army fled from the city.

Seizure of Royal Treasury of Bhoona : When Banda Bahadur reached near Kaithal from Sonapat, he came to know that some Mughal soldiers were camping in village Bhoona with a large amount of collected land revenue in their custody. Banda Bahadur attacked Bhoona keeping in view the requirements of his soldiers. The fauzdar of Kaithal tried to resist Banda Bahadur but he was defeated. Banda Bahadur snatched the entire amount from the Mughal soldiers.

Conquest of Samana : After conquering Bhoona, Banda Bahadur advanced towards Samana. The executioner (Jalad) Sayyid Jalal-ud-Din of Guru Tegh

PUNJAB BEFORE 1947 A.D. IMPORTANT BATTLES OF BANDA BAHADUR



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Map No. 2

Bahadur was a resident of that place. Shashal Bag, and Bashaal Bag, the executioners of the younger Sahibzadas (Jorawar Singh and Fateh Singh) of Guru Gobind Singh Ji, also belonged to Samana. Banda Bahadur attacked Samana on November 26, 1709. The battle continued in the streets of the city for many hours. The Sikhs destroyed the beautiful palaces of Samana. About 10,000 Muslims were killed. The families of Sayyid Jalal-ud-Din, Shashal Bag and Bashaal Bag were killed. Banda Bahadur became victorious. He got lots of money. Fateh Singh was appointed as the ruler of Samana.

Conquest of Ghuram : After staying for one week in Samana, Banda Bahadur attacked Ghuram. The Pathans of that place tried to resist the Sikhs but they had to flee from that place to save their lives. Banda Bahadur and his Sikh soldiers also got money from Ghuram.

Attack on Kapuri : After Ghuram, Banda Bahadur reached Kapuri via Thaska, Shahbad and Mustafabad. The ruler of Kapuri, Qadam-ud-Din was very corrupt and committed atrocities on the Hindus. Banda Bahadur defeated and killed him. His haveli was also set on fire.

Conquest of Sadhaura : The ruler of Sadhaura Usman Khan also committed atrocities on the Hindus. He got Pir Budhu Shah killed because he had helped Guruji in the battle of Bhangani. Banda Bahadur attacked Sadhaura. Soon the Sikhs defeated Usman Khan. They looted the city. Many Hindus and Sikhs farmers who were illtreated by Usman Khan also joined the army of Banda Bahadur. The Muslims who had fled to take shelter in the haveli of Pir Budhu Shah were also not spared by the Sikhs. Now a days this haveli is known as Qatal garhi.

Conquest of Mukhlipur : After Sadhaura, Banda Bahadur attacked Mukhlipur. He conquered and captured it easily. The fort was renamed Lohgarh. Later on Banda Bahadur chose this city as capital.

Battle of Chappar-Chiri and Conquest of Sirhind : The real target of Banda Bahadur was to conquer Sirhind. The subedar of Sirhind, Wazir Khan had troubled greatly Guru Gobind Singh Ji. He sent forces against Guruji during the battles of Anandpur Sahib and Chamkaur Sahib. The two younger Sahibzadas of Guruji were bricked up alive in a wall. Wazir Khan killed thousands of innocent Sikhs and Hindus. These incidents made Banda Bahadur and the Sikhs very angry with Wazir Khan. As the news of advancement of Banda Bahadur towards Sirhind reached Punjab, thousands of people gathered to fight under the command of Banda Bahadur. The nephew of Sucha Nand, an official of Sirhind also joined the army of Banda Bahadur. On the other side, there were 20,000 soldiers in Wazir Khan's army. The regiment consisted of gunmen and soldiers from infantry, artillery and cavalry.

A fierce battle took place between the two armies on May 22, 1710 A.D. at Chappar Chiri, 16 kms. to the east of Sirhind. To demoralise the Sikh soldiers, the nephew of Sucha Nand along with his soldiers also fled from the battlefield. Banda Bahadur himself came forward to encourage his soldiers. The Sikhs attacked the enemy with great courage. Fateh Singh killed Wazir Khan. Confusion prevailed amongst the soldiers of the enemy. A large number of soldiers of the enemy were killed by the Sikh soldiers.

After the victory of Chappar-Chiri on May 24, 1710 A.D. Banda Bahadur attacked the fort of Sirhind. As a result, 500 Sikhs were killed in the war. But the Sikhs became successful in capturing Sirhind. The Sikhs got about 2 crore rupees from the treasury of Wazir Khan. Banda Bahadur acquired lots of money from Sucha Nand and the houses of other officials.

The dead body of Wazir Khan was hung on a tree. Sucha Nand who had committed atrocities on the Sikhs was arrested and taken in a procession. The Sikh soldiers looted and plundered the city.

Administration of the Conquered Territories

After the victory of Sirhind, Banda Bahadur appointed Baz Singh as ruler of Sirhind. Aali Singh was appointed as his Naib. Fateh Singh had already been appointed the ruler of Samana. Ram Singh and Vinod Singh was given the responsibility of administration of Thanesar.

Banda Bahadur made the hilly area of Mukhlispur his capital. The fort of Mukhlispur was repaired as per the needs and was renamed Lohgarh. Banda Bahadur became the king but he never considered himself to be the king.

Banda Bahadur abolished the Zamindari system in the areas conquered by him. He did commendable work by changing the status of the peasants to land owners.

Conquest of the Ganga-Yamuna Doab : Many Hindus and Muslims began to adopt Sikhism under the leadership of Banda Bahadur. The residents of village Unarsa also became Sikhs. Jalal Khan, the fauzdar of Jalalabad could not tolerate it. He arrested many sikhs of that place. Banda Bahadur along with his soldiers moved towards Unarsa to liberate the arrested Sikhs.

The Sikhs attacked Saharanpur after crossing the Yamuna river. The fauzdar of that place, Ali Hamid Khan fled to Delhi. His officials resisted the Sikhs but were defeated. The Sikhs changed the name of Saharanpur to Bhag Nagar.

Banda Bahadur advanced towards Behat from Saharanpur. The pirzadas

of Behat used to commit atrocities on the Hindus. Banda Bahadur killed many pirzadas.

After Behat, Banda Bahadur attacked Ambeta. The Pathans of Ambeta were very rich. They did not resist the Sikhs. With the result the Sikhs acquired lots of money.

The Sikhs attacked Nanota, on July 21, 1710. The sheikhzadas, who were experts in the art of archery, resisted the Sikhs. But the Sikhs killed 300 sheikhzadas and became victorious.

Banda Bahadur sent a letter to his main enemy Jalal Khan of Unarsa through his messenger. He wrote to him to liberate the Sikh prisoners and accept his suzerainty. But Jalal Khan refused to accept it. He also insulted the messenger. As a result, Banda Bahadur attacked Unarsa. A fierce battle took place and the Sikhs became victorious.

Occupation of the Jalandhar Doab : After the victory of Sirhind, the Sikhs of Jalandhar Doab raised their arms to finish the Mughal empire. They forcibly dismissed the Mughal officials of Jalandhar Doab and appointed Sikhs in their place. They sent a message to Shamas Khan, the fauzdar of Jalandhar Doab to make reforms in the administration. Shamas Khan declared Jihad (religious war) against the Sikhs. As a result, lakhs of people gathered under his leadership. The Sikhs also sent a message to Banda Bahadur at Jalalabad to seek his help. The Sikh soldiers reached Rahon to resist the enemies. On October 12, 1710, a fierce battle took place and the Sikhs became victorious. As a result, the Sikhs occupied the entire region of Jalandhar Doab.

Capture of Amritsar, Batala, Kalanaur and Pathankot : Like the Sikhs of Jalandhar Doab Sikhs of this region also prepared themselves to fight against the Mughal Government to liberate themselves. About 8,000 Sikhs occupied Amritsar and the area around it. After that they attacked Batala and Kalanaur. They forced the Mughal officials to flee from there. The Sikhs occupied the police post and the tehsils. Some Sikhs of Batala and Sathiala occupied Pargana (Sub-Division) of Pathankot.

The Haidri Flag Crusade : Encouraged by their victory, the Sikhs attacked Lahore. The subedar of Lahore Sayyid Aslam Khan was discouraged. The fanatic Muslims led him at that time. They hoisted a green coloured Haidri flag and declared Jihad. A large number of Muslims gathered under that flag. They sent their forces in Bharat village (Lahore) and near Kotla Begam against the Sikhs. But the Muslims were defeated and had to return. As a result, the Sikhs became the owner of Punjab from Lahore to Delhi.

Bahadur Shah's Measures against the Sikhs

When the Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah came to know that the Sikhs had spread terror in the Mughal rulers of Punjab then he fully concentrated his attention on Punjab. On June 27, 1710 A.D. he advanced towards Punjab from Ajmer. He ordered the subedars of Delhi and Avadh, the nizams of Muradabad, Allahabad and fauzdars to advance towards Punjab alongwith their armies.

Battle of Aminabad : Bahadur Shah sent a huge army under the leadership of Firoz Khan Mewati and Mahawat Khan to fight against the Sikhs. Vinod Singh and Ram Singh resisted the enemy on October 26, 1710 A.D. at Aminabad (between Thanesar and Trawari). They forced Mahawat Khan to retreat. But due to the presence of enemy in large number, the Sikhs had to suffer defeat. The living and the dead Sikhs as well were insulted. Their dead bodies were hung on the side of G.T. Road. The fauzdari of Sirhind was entrusted to Firoz Khan Mewati by Bahadur Shah.

Battle of Sadhaura : When Banda Bahadur got the news of the defeat of Sikhs, he attacked the enemy along with his soldiers. At that time, a huge army of Mughals was at Sadhaura. On December 4, 1710 A.D. as the army of the enemy set out in search of right camping place then the Sikhs attacked them. The Sikhs fought bravely. They inflicted heavy losses of the enemy but in the evening a large number of soldiers of the royal army joined the army of the enemy. Therefore, the Sikhs left the fight and took refuge in the fort of Lohgarh.

Battle of Lohgarh : Bahadur Shah also reached there by that time. He himself decided to take action against Banda Bahadur. He ordered Wazir Muniyam Khan to proceed towards the fort to estimate the strength of the Sikhs. But disobeying the orders of the emperor, he attacked the fort of Lohgarh on December 10, 1710 A.D. The other Mughal sardars also attacked the fort. The Sikhs fought valiantly with the enemy. A large number of soldiers were killed on both the sides. The Sikhs had to face difficulties due to scarcity of food in the fort. It became impossible for them to continue the fight for long. A Sikh named Gulab Singh wore a dress like that of Banda Bahadur to help to bring him out of the fort. Banda Bahadur went out with Sikh soldiers but Gulab Singh sat on the place of Banda Bahadur. Banda Bahadur left towards the hills of Nahan.

Muniyam Khan again attacked the fort in the morning of December 11, 1710. A.D. Soon the Mughals won the fort. Gulab Singh was killed. They were saddened by Banda Bahadur's escape. Bahadur Shah sent his army under the leadership of Hamid Khan towards Nahan to chase Banda Bahadur. Bahadur Shah reached Lahore via Sadhaura, Badauli, Ropar, Hoshiarpur, Kalanaur etc.

Banda Bahadur's Activities in the Hills : After reaching the hills, Banda Bahadur sent Hukamnamas to the Sikhs so that they could come and meet him. In a short time, a large number of Sikhs gathered in Kiratpur Sahib. First of all, Banda Bahadur sent a Parvana (order) to Guru Gobind Singh Ji's old enemy Bhim Chand, the ruler of Bilaspur. Banda Bahadur asked him to accept his suzerainty. Banda Bahadur attacked Bilaspur on his refusal. A fierce battle took place. Bhim Chand's 1300 soldiers were killed. The Sikhs became victorious.

The kings of other hill states were frightened by the victory of Banda Bahadur. Some of them accepted to give gifts to Banda Bahadur. The Sidhsen the king of Mandi, declared that he will become the follower of Sikh Gurus after accepting the order of suzerainty.

Banda Bahadur proceeded towards Kulu from Mandi. Mann Singh, the ruler of Kulu arrested him cleverly. But soon Banda Bahadur was successful in escaping from the prison.

Banda Bahadur advanced towards Chamba state from Kulu. Raja Udai Singh of Chamba gave him a warm welcome. He married one of his daughters to him. In the end of 1711 A.D. a son was born to Banda Bahadur. He was named Ajai Singh.

Battle of Bahrapur : When Banda Bahadur came out of the hills of Raipur and Bahrapur to attack the plain regions, then the fauzdar Baijeed Khan Kheshagi of Jammu attacked him. On June 4, 1711, a battle was fought near Bahrapur. In the battle, Baz Singh and Fateh Singh showed their bravery. As a result, Sikhs became victorious. Banda Bahadur attacked Raipur, Bahrapur, Kalanaur and Batala after the victory of Bahrapur. He captured these places. But these victories were not long lasting.

Banda Bahadur again had to take refuge in the hills. But Mughal Government could not succeed in crushing his power.

Banda Bahadur Re-established his Power : The Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah died at Lahore on February 18, 1712 A.D. His son Jahandar Shah succeeded him. But soon he was dethroned and Farrukhsiyar became the emperor of India. Taking the advantage of the situation, Banda Bahadur again occupied Sadhaura and Lohgarh in 1712 - 13 A.D. He again got the fort of Lohgarh repaired and made it the capital of the 'Khalsa'. He again attacked the areas from Multan to Jalandhar including Lahore and Jehlum to Ambala regions. He held a darbar at Amritsar on Baisakhi and also took part in the fair.

Farrukhsiyar's Measures Against the Sikhs

After becoming emperor, Farrukhsiyar ordered the subedar of Kashmir Abdus Samad Khan to act against the Sikhs. After calling the subedar of Lahore

Mohammad Amin Khan to Delhi, Samad appointed Abdus Samad Khan as subedar of Lahore. Abdus Samad Khan won the forts of Sadhaura and Lohgarh in Oct., 1713 A.D. with the intention to crush Banda Bahadur.

Battle of Gurdas Nangal : In 1715 A.D. Banda Bahadur re-occupied Kalanaur and Batala after descending from the hill states. Very soon the Mughals gathered a huge army under the leadership of Abdus Samad and waged a war against Banda Bahadur. At the time of attack, Banda Bahadur was at Kot Mirza Jan (between Kalanaur and Batala). Suddenly the Mughal army attacked Sikhs. The Sikhs fought bravely but had to recede towards Gurdas Nangal. The Sikhs took refuge in the haveli of Duni Chand. The Sikhs dug a trench around the fort and filled it with water to keep away the enemies. The Mughal army besieged the haveli in 1715 A.D. The Sikhs valiantly fought against them. The Mughal army suffered a heavy loss. The siege continued for eight months. At last the food reserves with the Sikhs were finished. For many days, they ate grass, leaves and flesh of horses and other animals. Vinod Singh wanted to leave the haveli but Banda Bahadur wanted to fight till his last breath. At last, Vinod Singh and his companions left the Garhi. As a result the strength of the Sikhs was reduced. It became impossible for them to fight under these conditions. On December 7, 1715 A.D. the besiegers became successful in occupying the haveli. Banda Bahadur and two hundred of his companions were imprisoned.

End of Banda Bahadur : After arresting Banda Bahadur from Gurdas Nangal, he was brought to Lahore. He and his companions were made to wear caps and they were taken in a procession in the bazars of Lahore.

After a few days Banda Bahadur and his companions were sent to Delhi under the charge of Zakariya Khan. The Sikhs were again taken in a procession in Delhi on February 27, 1716 A.D. The massacre of the Sikh prisoners began on March 5, 1716 A.D. Every day one hundred Sikhs were killed. Before killing every Sikh was asked to embrace Islam. But the Sikhs firmly held on to their religion. At last all Sikh prisoners were massacred within a week.

Banda Bahadur and his twenty six of companions were killed after one month. The Mughal officials wanted to know about the treasury of Banda Bahadur. When Banda did not tell about the treasury then Banda Bahadur and his companions were again taken in a procession for a second time through the bazars of Delhi on June 19, 1716. They were asked to embrace Islam, but they did not agree to it. Banda Bahadur was asked to kill his son Ajay Singh but he refused. His son's heart was taken out and thrust into his mouth. Even then, he did not lose his balance and remained calm. Thereafter the eyes of Banda Bahadur were taken out, his hands and feet were cut off but he remained calm. The body of Banda Bahadur was cut into pieces but he sacrificed himself with a peaceful mind.

The Sikh Misals

The Sikh Misals were established gradually in accordance with the change in circumstances. After the murder of Banda Bahadur in 1716 A.D. the atrocities began to be committed on the Sikhs. The Mughal rulers of Punjab Abdus Samad Khan, Zakariya Khan and Yahiya Khan committed atrocities on the Sikhs. Fed up these cruelties, the Sikhs took refuge in the hills and the jungles to save their lives. The Sikhs formed small groups (Jathas) here. These groups attacked the Mughal armies whenever they got a chance and looted the treasury of Government and other things. In 1734 A.D. Nawab Kapur Singh organised groups Buddha Dal and Taruna Dal with an objective to organize the Sikh power. Every jatha had its own leader, a Nagara and a flag, but they ate together.

After the death of Zakariya Khan, the Sikhs organised twenty five jathas in 1745 A.D. Gradually these jathas rose to sixty five. With the increase in atrocities committed on the Sikhs by Mughals and the invasions of Ahmad Shah Abdali, Nawab Kapur Singh realised the need of greater unity amongst the Sikhs. Dal Khalsa was organised on the day of Baisakhi in 1748 A.D. at Amritsar to fulfill this objective. Under the Dal Khalsa twelve jathas were organised. These were called Misals.

Misal is an Arabic word. Its meaning is equal or same. The main feature of Misal was that the jathedar of a misal and his followers did not believe in discrimination. According to Sikh religion, they believed in equal status for all.

Ranjit Singh became the master of Sukarchakya Misal in 1797A.D. At that time there were eleven other Misals in Punjab. Each Misal ruled in its own area. Earlier they resisted the Afghans unitedly. But when the danger of being attacked by Afghans subsided then they no longer remained united. They all became greedy and selfish. They became busy in extending their own misals. They started fighting with each other. Fortunately at the rise of Ranjit Singh, none of the Misal was strong. The warriors of strong Misals had either died or grown old. At that time, no Misaldar had the courage to resist Ranjit Singh. The twelve Misals are described below.

Faizalpuria Misal : Faizalpuria Misal was the first misal to be established. Nawab Kapur Singh was the founder of this Misal. First of all, he occupied Faizalpur village near Amritsar. He named it Singhpur. Therefore, this Misal is also called 'Singhpuria Misal'.

After the death of Nawab Kapur Singh his nephew Khushal Singh became the leader of Faizalpuria Misal in 1753 A.D. He was a brave and worthy chief. He expanded his Misal to Jalandhar, Nurpur, Behrampur and Patti.

After the death of Khushal Singh his son Budh Singh became the chief

of the Misal. Unlike his father he was not brave and courageous. Ranjit Singh defeated Khushal Singh and he annexed Faizalpuria Misal to his own empire.

Bhangi Misal : It was situated in the North-West of the Sutlej river. It was the strongest amongst all the Misals situated in that area. Lahore, Amritsar, Gujarat and Sialkot were the important cities of this Misal.

Bhangi Misal did not remain as strong as it was earlier by the time of Ranjit Singh became the Misaldar. At that time Sardar Gulab Singh and Sardar Sahib Singh were the Misaldars of Bhangi Misal. These sardars were incapable and evil doers. They spent their time in drinking and taking narcotics. They did not take interest in the administration of their Misals. Besides this, the ruler of Afghanistan, Shah Jaman also weakened the Bhangi Sardars. The people of that Misal were also fed up with them.

Ahluwalia Misal : This Misal was very powerful during the rule of Jassa Singh Ahluwalia. The cities of Sultanpur Lodhi, Kapurthala, Hoshiarpur, Nur Mahal were under its rule. Bhag Singh became the leader of this Misal from 1783 A.D. onwards. Fateh Singh Ahluwalia was the successor of Bhag Singh. Ranjit Singh acted wisely and established friendly relations with him. Ranjit Singh used his power and services for the expansion of his own empire.

Ramgarhia Misal : Ramgarhia Misal was one of the famous Misals of Punjab. Jassa Singh was a Ramgarhia. He was the most powerful sardar of this Misal. When Ranjit Singh came to power, Jassa Singh had grown old. After his death, Jodh Singh became his successor in 1803 A.D. He was also a brave warrior and capable leader. Ranjit Singh developed friendly relations with him taking into consideration his powerful status. As long as Jodh Singh was alive Ranjit Singh did not fight with him. Shri Hargobindpur, Kalanaur, Batala, Qadain and Riarki regions were under this Misal.

Sukarchakiya Misal : Charat Singh was the chief of Sukarchakiya Misal. He occupied Gujranwala, Aminabad, Wazirabad, Jalalpur and Dadan Khan village. After Charat Singh his son Mahan Singh, became his successor. He expanded his Misal by conquering Rasul Nagar (Ram Nagar) and getting Alipur (Akalgarh). Some Bhangi sardars left Bhangi Misal and accepted the suzerainty of Mahan Singh on being impressed by his conquests. Mahan Singh threw out all the Bhangi chiefs from the regions of Multan, Bahawalpur, village Bhatiyana and Shahiwal. In 1792, A.D. after the death of Mahan Singh, his son Ranjit Singh became his successor.

Kanhaiya Misal : Jai Singh Kanaheya was the chief of Kanaheya Misal. He was a resident of Kanaha village situated in the east 24 kms. from Lahore. The Misal was named Kanaheya after the name of that village.

Jai Singh Kanaheya was a brave and courageous warrior. Gurdaspur, Hazipur and Mukerian regions were under this Misal. At the time of Ranjit Singh's rise, Jai Singh Kanaheya and his son Gurbax Singh had died. During that period, Sada Kaur (mother-in-law of Ranjit Singh) was the chief of the Misal. She was a capable and a clever woman. She helped her son-in-law Ranjit Singh in the expansion of his empire.

Phulkian Misal : The chief of Phulkian Misal was Chaudhari Phul (1627-1689A.D.). This misal ruled over the regions of Patiala, Nabha and Jind. The Misal was named Phulkian after the name of Phul. Baba Aala Singh, Amar Singh, Sahib Singh, Gajpat Singh, Hamir Singh were the rulers of this Misal. At the time of Ranjit Singh's rise, Sahib Singh at Patiala, Bhag Singh at Jind and Jaswant Singh at Nabha were the chiefs of Phulkian Misal.

Dallewalia Misal : Gulab Singh was the chief of Dallewalia Misal. He was the resident of Dallewal village near Dera Baba Nanak. So the Misal was named Dallewalia Misal. Tara Singh Gheba was the famous leader of this Misal. Phillaur, Rahon and Nakodar regions came under this Misal.

Nakai Misal : Hira Singh was the founder of this Misal. Taking advantage of the disturbances in Punjab caused due to Afghan attacks he captured a region called 'Naka' near Labore. Therefore the Misal was named Nakai.

Karorsinghia Misal : Karora Singh was the founder of this Misal. This misal was named Karorsinghia after his name. Karora Singh was a resident of Panjarhia village. Therefore, the Misal was also called 'Panjarhia Misal'. The famous leader of this Misal was Baghel Singh, the successor of Karora Singh. He extended the area of the Misal by conquering Bhunga, Nawan Shahar, Rurka etc. Many areas between the rivers Markanda and Yamuna were under him. He made Chalaundi (between Karnal and Jagadhari) his capital.

Nishanwalia Misal : Sangat Singh and Mohar Singh were the founders of this Misal. This Misal was named Nishanwalia Misal because they used to carry Nishan Sahib (flag) of the Khalsa. Ambala and Shahbad Markanda regions came under this Misal.

Shahid Misal : Sudha Singh was the founder of this Misal. He was a mahant of Talwandi Sabo. Baba Deep Singh of this jatha became a martyr while fighting against the enemies. Therefore this Misal was named 'Shahid Misal' after him. Karam Singh and Gurbax Singh of this Misal occupied many areas in the east of the Sutlej river. Many people of this Misal were Akali (Nihang). Therefore this Misal was also called 'Nihang Misal'.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 20-25 words.

1. What were the orders given by Guruji to the Sikhs of Punjab in the Hukumnamas?
2. Why did Banda Bahadur come to Punjab from Sindh?
3. Why did Banda Bahadur attack Samana?
4. What was the reason for attacking Bhoona village by Banda Bahadur?
5. Why did Banda Bahadur attack Sadhaura?
6. Why did Banda Bahadur attack Chapparchiri and Sirhind?
7. What was the cause of the battle of Rahon?
8. Wazir Khan was the subedar of which place? Where did he fight against Banda Bahadur?
9. Write about the martyrdom of Banda Bahadur.
10. When and between whom was the third battle of Panipat fought?
11. Which regions were under the sardars of Bhangi Misal?
12. Write about the founder and the regions of the Ahluwalia Misal.
13. How was Karorsinghia Misal named?
14. Who was Sada Kaur?

(B) Answer the following questions in 30-50 words.

1. Describe the meeting of Banda Bahadur and Guru Gobind Singh Ji?
2. Write a note on the conquest of Santana by Banda Bahadur.
3. Write about the battle of Chapparchiri and Sirhind.
4. How did Banda Bahadur occupy Doab -Jalandhar?
5. Describe the battle of Gurdas Nangal.
6. Which was the first Misal ? Describe it.

(C) Answer the following questions in 100-120 words.

1. Describe the earlier conquests of Banda Bahadur.
2. Describe the battles between Bahadur Shah and Banda Bahadur.
3. Describe the battles fought by Banda Bahadur in Ganga- Yamuna region.

(D) Show the places of battles fought by Banda Bahadur on the map of Punjab.

LESSON-7

RANJIT SINGH : EARLY LIFE, ACHIEVEMENTS AND ANGLO-SIKH RELATIONS

Early Life of Ranjit Singh

Birth : Ranjit Singh was born Nov. 13, 1780. His father Mahan Singh was the Chief of Sukarchakia Misal. He was the grandson of Charat Singh who founded Sukarchakia Misal. His mother's name was Raj Kaur. She was the daughter of Gajpat, the Chief of Jind. Raj Kaur was born and brought up in the area of Malwa in Punjab, therefore, she was also called Mai Malwain.

Childhood and Education : Ranjit Singh was the only son of his parents. He was brought up with love and affection. When he was five years old, he was sent to the Dharmshala of Bhai Bhagu Singh at Gujranwala for his education. But like the sons of other chiefs he did not show any interest in education and remained illiterate. He spent most of his time in horse riding, swordsmanship and hunting. Thus, from the very childhood he became an expert in use of sword, horse riding and the art of archery.

Ranjit Singh was severely attacked by smallpox during his childhood and there was no hope of his survival. Luckily, Ranjit Singh recovered from his illness but the smallpox left scars on his face and the sight of his left eye was lost.

Boy Warrior : Ranjit Singh became a warrior in his childhood. When he was ten years old, he along with his father took part in the campaign of Sohdrah. During this campaign, he not only accompanied his father but also led the Sukarchakia army when his father was taken ill. He not only defeated the army of the enemies but also looted their ammunition.

Once Ranjit Singh was returning alone on his horse after hunting. The chief of Chatha Clan, Hashmat Khan saw him. Hashmat Khan had been defeated once by Mahan Singh. In order to take revenge, Hashmat Khan hid himself behind a bush to kill Ranjit Singh. When Ranjit Singh crossed by that bush, Hashmat Khan attacked him. Ranjit Singh resisted the attack and in a counterattack, he beheaded Hashmat Khan. After the death of Hashmat Khan, the Chatha clan accepted the suzerainty of Ranjit Singh.

Marriage : In 1796 A.D. when he was 16 years old, he was married to Mehtab Kaur. Mehtab Kaur was granddaughter of Jai Singh Kanahia and daughter of Gurbax Singh. Ranjit Singh's mother-in-law Sada Kaur was very brave and

courageous lady.

In 1798 A.D. Ranjit Singh solemnised the second marriage to Raj Kaur daughter of Ram Singh, the chief of Nakai Misal. After 4 years, Raj Kaur gave birth to Kharak Singh. He was the eldest son of Ranjit Singh. Later on, he got married several times.

Assumption of Political Power : Mahan Singh died in 1792 A.D. At that time Ranjit Singh was 12 years old. Being minor, the reins of administration were put in the hands of his mother, Raj Kaur. She handed over the entire administration to Sardar Lakhpat Rai. In 1796 A.D. Ranjit Singh got married to Mehtab Kaur. His mother-in-law Sada Kaur also started taking keen interest in the administration of Sukarchakia Misal. The administration of Sukarchakia Misal remained in the hands of Raj Kaur, Diwan Lakhpat Rai and Sada Kaur from 1792-97 A.D. as Ranjit Singh was minor during this period. Therefore, this period is called as a period of Triune Regency.

In 1797 A.D., when Ranjit Singh turned 17, he took the reins of the administration in his hands. Meanwhile Raj Kaur and Diwan Lakhpat Rai died. Sada Kaur helped Ranjit Singh in his early conquests. Ranjit Singh appointed Dal Singh, the maternal uncle of his father (Mahan Singh) as his Prime Minister.

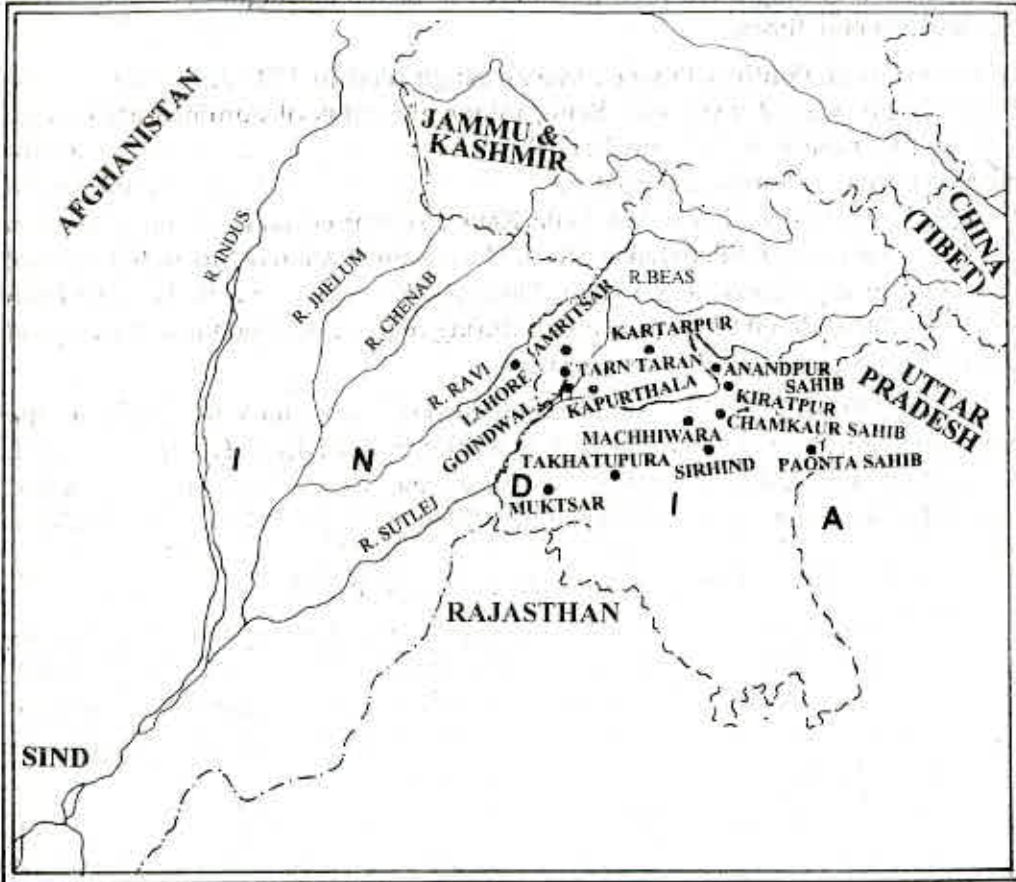
Early Conquests of Ranjit Singh

In 1797 A.D., Ranjit Singh took the reins of Sukarchakia Misal in his hands. At that time only the areas of Gujranwala, Wazirabad, village Dadan Khan etc. were under his Misal. He was not satisfied with the small area. He wanted to occupy the entire Punjab. To fulfil his dream, he started conquering the Sikh Misals and the regions under the Afghans.

The Conquest of Lahore, 1799 A.D. : The residents of Lahore were fed up with the maladministration of Bhangi chiefs. They also came to know that Nizamu-ud-Din, the ruler of Kasur, also wanted to capture Lahore. By this time Ranjit Singh had become very famous for his bravery and wisdom. So the residents of Lahore including the Hindus, the Sikhs and the Muslims invited Ranjit Singh to capture Lahore. In their invitation they mentioned about the incapability of the Bhanghi Sardars and atrocities committed by them on the people. They also requested Ranjit Singh to capture Lahore and free them from the cruel rulers. The residents assured him that when he would attack Lahore, they would open the gate of the fort of Lahore. Ranjit Singh on getting assurance from the residents, prepared Sada Kaur and himself to capture Lahore.

The armies of Ranjit Singh and Sada Kaur advanced towards Lahore. When he reached the Lahore gate along with his armies, the residents of Lahore

PUNJAB BEFORE 1947 A.D.
MAIN HISTORICAL PLACES OF PUNJAB



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Map No. 3

opened the gate. The Bhangi chiefs got frightened as Ranjit Singh's army entered the city. Sahib Singh and Mohar Singh fled away. Chait Singh confined himself in the fort. Due to inadequate food and water provisions in the fort, he surrendered the very next day. Soon Ranjit Singh captured the fort.

The Significance of the Conquest of Lahore : Although the conquest of Lahore was not a great military success, even then it significantly contributed to his political rise. With this conquest the Bhangi Chiefs lost their hold on Lahore forever. The conquest of Lahore helped in the increase of Ranjit Singh's popularity. Ranjit Singh became a powerful chief with the capture of Lahore city.

Battle of Bhasin : The Sikhs and Muslim chiefs became jealous of Ranjit Singh after his conquest of Lahore. Jassa Singh Ramgarhia, Gulab Singh Bhangi, Sahib Singh Bhangi, Jodh Singh and Nizam-ud-Din all advanced towards Lahore from Amritsar. In the east of Lahore about 16 kms. away from the city they camped at Bhasin. Ranjit Singh reached there with his army on receiving information about it. Both the armies camped against each other for about two months. None of the sides made an attempt to attack first. During this time, Jassa Singh Ramgarhia on the pretext of illness left the group. Gulab Singh Bhangi died of excessive drinking. As a result the armies of the other chiefs fled from the battlefield. In this way, Ranjit Singh won the battle without fighting. This victory not only strengthened Ranjit Singh's hold on Lahore but also cleared his way to expand his empire and crush the rest of his enemies.

Coronation of Ranjit Singh : On April 12, 1801 A.D. on the auspicious occasion of Baisakhi, the coronation ceremony of Ranjit Singh was celebrated with great fanfare at Lahore. He gave his government the name of Sarkar-E-Khalsa (GOVT. OF THE KHALSA). He himself did not wear the crown. He issued the coins in the name of Guru Nanak Dev Ji and Guru Gobind Singh Ji. Imam Baksh was appointed the Kotwal of Lahore. In this way, Ranjit Singh accepted the Khalsa as a supreme power.

The Conquest of Amritsar, 1805 : After the death of Gulab Singh Bhangi, his son Gurdit Singh became the ruler of Amritsar. He was a minor. That is why the entire power of administration was in the hands of his mother Mai Sukhan.

In 1805 A.D., Maharaja Ranjit Singh found an excuse for conquering Amritsar. He sent a message to Mai Sukhan that she should hand over the Jam Cannon to him. He also asked her to give him the Lohgarh fort. Mai Sukhan refused the demands of the Maharaja. The Maharaja who was ready for the battle, besieged the Lohgarh fort. In this campaign, Sada Kaur and Fateh Singh Ahluwalia supported Maharaja Ranjit Singh. As a result, the Maharaja occupied Amritsar and Lohgarh fort. Mai Sukhan and Gurdit Singh

were given a jagir for their livelihood. Akali Phula Singh of Amritsar with his 2000 Nihang companions joined the army of Ranjit Singh.

Significance of the Conquest of Amritsar : After the conquest of Lahore, the conquest of Amritsar was the most significant victory of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. Whereas Lahore was the capital of Punjab, Amritsar had become the religious capital of the Sikhs.

The Military power of Ranjit Singh increased with the victory of Amritsar. The fort of Lohgarh proved valuable for him. He also acquired a huge cannon 'Jam Jam' made of bronze and copper. The Maharaja also availed the services of the famous soldier Akali Phula Singh. With extraordinary bravery and courage of the Nihangs, Ranjit Singh won several grand victories.

With the victory of Amritsar, the popularity of Ranjit Singh spread far and wide. Many Indians under the British rule in India started coming to his empire to get jobs. Indians, Muslims, and European soldiers left the East India Company and started joining the Maharaja's army.

The Conquest of other Territories of the Sikh Misals

Friendship with Strong Misals : Maharaja Ranjit Singh was a clever diplomat. He developed friendship with strong Misals and with their help he overpowered the weaker Misals.

He developed diplomatic relations with **Kanhaiya** Misal. In 1801 A.D., Maharaja Ranjit Singh pledged friendship with Fateh Singh Ahluwalia in the presence of Guru Granth Sahib. Ranjit Singh did not deliberately fight with Jassa Singh Ramgarhia. In 1803 A.D., he developed friendly relations with Jodh Singh Ramgarhia,

Besides the conquest of Lahore and Amritsar, Maharaja Ranjit Singh conquered other Misals between 1800-1811 A.D. These are briefly described below:

The Conquest of Akalgarh, 1801 A.D. : After the battle of Bhasin (1801 A.D.) Dal Singh of Akalgarh and Sahib Singh of Gujarat started preparations to attack Lahore. When Maharaja Ranjit Singh came to know about it, he attacked Akalgarh and arrested Dal Singh. Though he was released, but soon after he died. After his death Ranjit Singh annexed Akalgarh to his empire. He gave the land of two villages: the widow of Dal Singh; for her livelihood.

The Conquest of Chiniot, 1802 A.D. : Chiniot was in the possession of Jassa Singh, son of Karan Singh. In 1802 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Chiniot along with Fateh Singh Ahluwalia. Jassa Singh fled after his defeat. Ranjit Singh occupied Chiniot. Fateh Singh was given the village Bhatiyian and rice producing regions as his share.

First Attack of Maharaja Ranjit Singh on Malwa, 1806 A.D.

In 1806 A.D., Maharaja Ranjit Singh invaded Malwa region for the first time. There was a disagreement between the rulers of Patiala and Nabha over village Dauladhi. That is why Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Malwa. At the invitation of Bhag Singh, the ruler of Jind, Maharaja Ranjit Singh along with Fateh Singh Ahluwalia and 20,000 soldiers attacked Malwa region. After capturing Dauladhi he advanced towards Patiala. The rulers of Patiala, Nabha and Jind presented gifts to Maharaja. On his way back to Lahore, Maharaja Ranjit Singh conquered Ludhiana, Raikot and Jagraon.

1807 A.D., Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Malwa for the second time

The cause of this attack was a fight between the ruler of Patiala, Sahib Singh and his wife Aas Kaur. He reached Patiala with his army. He took gifts from Sahib Singh. After that he conquered Naraingarh, Vadhani, Jira, Kotkapura etc. Then he collected gifts from the rulers of Kaithal, Shahbad, Ambala, Kalsia and Malerkotla.

The Conquest of Dallewalia Misal, 1807 A.D. : Tara Singh Gheba was the leader of Dallewalia Misal. Till he was alive, Maharaja Ranjit Singh did not make an effort to capture the Misal. Tara Singh Gheba died in 1807A.D. The Maharaja attacked Rahon as he heard about the news of his death. The widow of Tara Singh Gheba resisted Ranjit Singh but she was defeated. The Maharaja annexed the regions of that Misal in his empire.

The Conquest of Sialkot, 1808 A.D. : Jiwan Singh was the ruler of Sialkot. Maharaja Ranjit Singh ordered him to hand over the area of Sialkot to him. On his refusal the Maharaja attacked Sialkot. Soon Jiwan Singh surrendered before the Maharaja. The Maharaja annexed Sialkot to his empire. He gave Jiwan Singh a jagir for his livelihood.

The Conquest of Gujarat, 1809 A.D. : Differences between Sahib Singh and his son Gulab Singh emerged in 1809 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh took advantage of the situation and attacked Gujarat under the leadership of Faqir-Azuz-ud-Din. Sahib Singh was defeated after some resistance. Faqir-Azuz-ud-Din captured Gujarat city and his entire property. Nurudin, the brother of Faqir-Aziz-ud-Din, was made the ruler of Gujarat.

Annexation of Karorsinghia Misal's Territory, 1809 A.D. : Baghel Singh, the chief of Karorsinghia Misal died. After getting the news of his death the Maharaja sent his armies towards the territory of Karorsinghia Misal. The widows (Ram Kaur and Raj Kaur) of Baghel Singh could not resist the army of the Maharaja for long. As a result Nawanshahr and Rurka etc. were included in the empire of Ranjit Singh.

Conquest of Nakkai Misal's Possessions, 1810 A.D. : Kahan Singh the nephew of Maharaja's Queen Raj Kaur became the Chief of Nakkai Misal in 1807 A.D. The Maharaja sent many messages to him to appear in his durbar. But he always ignored the orders of the Maharaja. In 1810 A.D. Maharaja sent an army under the leadership of Mohkam Chand against him. Soon Mohkam Chand occupied the areas of Chunia, Sharakpur and Kot Kamalia of Nakkai Misal. Kahan Singh was given a jagir for his livelihood with an annual income of Rs. 20,000.

Annexation of Faizalpuria Misal's Possessions, 1811 A.D. : In 1811, A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh asked Budh Singh, Sardar of Faizalpuria Misal to accept his suzerainty. On his refusal the Maharaja sent his force under the leadership of Mohkam Chand. Fateh Singh Ahluwalia and Jodh Singh Ramgarhia supported him. Budh Singh could not resist the army of the Maharaja. He fled from the battlefield to save his life. As a result, the areas of Jalandhar, Behrampur, Patti etc. were occupied by Maharaja Ranjit Singh.

Conquest of Muslim Territories

Along with the conquest of Sikh Misals, Maharaja Ranjit Singh also conquered the areas of Muslim rulers. The description of these conquests is as below :

The Conquest of Kasur, 1807 A.D. : Nizamu-ud-Din was the ruler of Kasur. He helped Shah Jaman against the Sikhs. He himself was dreaming to occupy Lahore. In 1800 A.D. when an alliance was formed against Ranjit Singh, he also joined it. As a result after the battle of Bhasin in 1801, Ranjit Singh defeated Nizam-ud-Din badly. He accepted the suzerainty of the Maharaja. In 1807 A.D., after his death his son Qutub-ud-Din became the ruler of Kasur. He became independent from Maharaja Ranjit Singh in connivance with Muzzafar Khan, the ruler of Multan. The Maharaja along with his huge army attacked Kasur and besieged the fort. Due to lack of food provisions, Qutub-ud-Din surrendered before the Maharaja. Maharaja Ranjit Singh included Kasur in his own kingdom. Qutub-ud-Din was given a jagir of Mamdot for his livelihood.

The Conquest of Jhang, 1807 A.D.: Ahmad Khan of Syal caste was the ruler of Jhang. In 1807 A.D. Maharaja asked him to accept his suzerainty. On his refusal, Maharaja attacked him. Ahmad Khan was defeated. He accepted to pay an annual tax of Rs. 60,000 to the Maharaja.

Submission of Bahawalpur and Akhnur 1807-08 A.D. : In 1807A.D., Maharaja attacked Bahawalpur. Nawab Bahawal Khan accepted the suzerainty of the Maharaja. He accepted to pay an annual tax to the Maharaja. In 1808 A.D., Alam Khan the ruler of Akhnur also accepted the suzerainty of Maharaja Ranjit Singh.

The Conquest of Khushab and Sahiwal, 1810 A.D. : In 1810 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Khushab. The ruler Jafar Khan surrendered before the Maharaja. The Maharaja gave him a jagir for his livelihood.

The Maharaja attacked Fateh Khan, the ruler of Sahiwal in the same year. He resisted, but soon he was defeated. The Maharaja also gave him a jagir for his livelihood.

The Conquest of Hill Territories

Conquest of Jammu, 1809 A.D. : First of all, Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Jammu in 1800 A.D. The ruler of Jammu accepted his suzerainty. He saved his life by presenting a gift of Rs. 20,000. In 1809 A.D. the ruler of Jammu, Jai Singh died. On getting this information, Maharaja Ranjit Singh sent his army under the leadership of Diwan Bhawani Dass to capture Jammu. On seeing the Sikh army, the family of deceased Jai Singh fled from Jammu. The army of Maharaja occupied Jammu. Jamadar Khushal Singh was appointed the governor of Jammu.

The Conquest of Kangra, 1809 A.D. : Sansar Chand Katoch the ruler of Kangra, was an ambitious ruler. When he invaded Kalhur, the ruler of that area asked for his help from the Gurkhas of Nepal. Soon, a force under the leadership of Amar Singh Thapa reached Nepal. In May 1806 A.D., Sansar Chand faced defeat at Mahal Mori. As a result, Sansar Chand asked for help from Maharaja Ranjit Singh against the Gurkhas. The Maharaja agreed to help him and in lieu of that, he demanded the fort of Kangra. Sansar Chand accepted his demand. The Maharaja sent a force under the leadership of Mohkam Chand against the Gurkhas.

Sansar Chand wanted to diminish the power of the Sikhs and the Gurkhas with this trick. But Amar Singh Thapa soon accepted the power of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. On August 24, 1809 A.D., the Maharaja occupied the fort of Kangra. Desa Singh Majithia was appointed the governor of Kangra. Sansar Chand also accepted the power of Ranjit Singh. The entire area was left under Sansar Chand except the fort of Kangra.

Annexation of the Territories of the Friendly Misals

Maharaja Ranjit Singh was a clever diplomat. He did not think it right to fight with all the Misals as he rose to power. He won over the weak Misals by entering into alliances with Misaldars of powerful Misals. After he became powerful he conquered the areas of friendly Misals also on finding an opportunity.

Kanheya Misal : Kanheya Misal belonged to Ranjit Singh's in-laws. His mother-

in-law Sada Kaur was the leader of the Misal tried her best to increase the power of her misal. Even then in 1811-13 A.D. the Maharaja occupied the area of Kanheya Misal, Hajipur, Mukeriyar and Batala. In 1821, Maharaja put Sada Kaur in jail. All the regions except Badhani were snatched from her.

Ramgarhia Misal : Till the time Jodh Singh Ramgarhia was alive, Maharaja Ranjit Singh kept friendly relations with him. When Jodh Singh died in 1815 A.D., the Maharaja occupied his provinces and included in his own empire.

Ahluwalia Misal : Fateh Singh Ahluwalia played an important role in conquering different misals and areas for Maharaja Ranjit Singh. In 1825-26 A.D., his relations with Fateh Singh were strained. As a result, Maharaja captured areas under the Ahluwalia Misal situated in North-West of the Satluj. Fateh Singh tried to seek help from British Government to fight against Ranjit Singh but he was not successful. 1827 A.D. Ranjit Singh and Fateh Singh made a compromise with each other. Fateh Singh died in 1837 A.D.

Major Conquests of Maharaja Ranjit Singh

The major achievement of Maharaja Ranjit Singh were the conquests of Multan, Attock, Derajat, Kashmir and Peshawar.

The Conquest of Multan, June, 1818 A.D. : Multan was economically and militarily an important region. In 1802 A.D. Ranjit Singh attacked Multan for the first time. Muzafar Khan the ruler of that place paid tribute to Maharaja and sent him back.

When the Nawab of Multan did not send the annual tribute as promised by him, Maharaja Ranjit Singh attacked Multan in 1805 A.D. But due to the arrival of Maratha chief Jaswant Rai Holkar with his army in Punjab, the Maharaja was forced to return.

In 1807 A.D. the Maharaja attacked Multan for the third time. The Sikh army occupied some areas of Multan. But Bahawal Khan, the Nawab of Bahawalpur acted as a mediator between the Maharaja and Nawab Muzaffar Khan to help them made a compromise with each other.

On February 24, 1810 A.D. the army of the Maharaja captured a few areas of Multan. On February 25, the Sikhs besieged the fort of Multan. But due to the loss of the Sikh soldiers of the Maharaja and the illness of Mohkam Chand, the Maharaja had to lift the siege.

In 1816 A.D., the Maharaja sent Akali Phula Singh along with his army to collect tributes from the rulers of Multan and Bahawalpur. He captured some outer areas of Multan. The Nawab of Multan immediately made a compromise with Phula Singh.

In 1817 A.D. Bhawani Dass attacked Multan. But he was not successful. In January, 1818 A.D. with 20,000 soldiers Misar Diwan Chand attacked Multan. Nawab Muzafar Khan with 2,000 soldiers went inside the fort. The Sikh soldiers after conquering the city besieged the fort. The siege continued for a long time. At last, Sadhu Singh went inside the fort along with his companions. As a result in June, 1818 A.D. the Sikhs conquered Multan. The civil administration of Multan was handed over to Sukhdyal. Military administration was given to Baz Singh. Khushal Singh was given the police administration of Multan. Diwan Sawan Mal was appointed as Subedar of Multan.

With the conquest of Multan, the prestige of Ranjit Singh was enhanced. On the other side the Afghan power in south Punjab was hit. The Muslim rulers of Derajat and Bahawalpur also came under Ranjit Singh. Economically this victory proved to be useful to trade that increased. The victory encouraged him to conquer more areas.

Conquest of Attock, 1813 A.D. : Attock is situated in the North-West of Punjab on the bank of the river Indus. Like Multan and Kashmir, Attock was also a part of Mughal Empire.

As it has been told earlier, in 1813 A.D. the Wazir of Kabul, Fateh Khan and Maharaja Ranjit Singh made an agreement to attack Kashmir jointly. After conquering Kashmir, Fateh Khan would help the Maharaja to conquer Multan. In return, the Maharaja would help Fateh Khan to conquer Attock. But after conquering Kashmir, Fateh Khan did not obey the terms of agreement. So the Maharaja planned to invade Attock to teach a lesson Fateh Khan. Before this, he sent his foreign minister Faqir-Aziz-ud-Din to the ruler of Attock, Jahandad Khan for talks. Jahanadad Khan agreed to hand over the fort of Attock to the Maharaja. He gave him a Jagir of Rs. 1 lakh in lieu of it.

Fateh Khan could not tolerate the occupation of the fort of Attock by the Maharaja. With a huge army he advanced towards Attock. On the other side, the Maharaja also, sent Jodh Singh Ramgariha, Hari Singh Nalwa and Mohkam Chand etc. towards Attock with full preparations. On June 26, 1813 A.D., at Hazro, a fierce battle took place. It is called the battle of Chhachh. First of all, the Afghans appeared stronger, but the Maharaja's army won the battle.

As a result of this battle, Maharaja Ranjit Singh occupied Attock. His power enhanced. As a result of this, victory became easy for the Maharaja to conquer other Afghanistan's territories. The power of Afghans' suffered a blow with this victory.

The Conquest of Kashmir, July 5, 1819 A.D: The valley of Kashmir due to its beauty was famous as the 'Paradise of East'. Maharaja Ranjit Singh was desirous

of conquering the beautiful valley of Kashmir.

In 1811-12 A.D. he took possession of the states of Bhimbar and Rajauri near Kashmir. Now by moving forward, the Maharaja wanted conquer the valley of Kashmir. At the same time the Vazir Fateh Khan Barkzai of Kabul also made a plan to occupy Kashmir. In 1813 A.D., at Rohtas on the bank of river Jhelum there was an agreement between Fateh Khan and Ranjit Singh, that both the armies together would attack Kashmir and after the conquest of Kashmir, Fateh Khan Vazir of Kabul would help Ranjit Singh to conquer Multan and in return Maharaja would help Fateh Khan to conquer Attock. Out of the conquered areas and from the looted booty, the Maharaja would be given one third as his share. After the agreement, the Maharaja sent an army of 12,000 soldiers under the leadership of Mohkam Chand for the campaign of Kashmir to support Fateh Khan. But Fateh Khan cleverly left the Sikh soldiers behind. He advanced further and entered the Kashmir valley. The ruler of Kashmir Ata Mohammad resisted the enemies at Shergarh. But Fateh Khan defeated him without the help of the Sikhs. In this way, Fateh Khan broke the agreement made with the Maharaja.

In June 1814 A.D., Ram Dayal commanded the Sikh army and attacked Kashmir. Azim Khan was the Subedar of Kashmir at that time. He was the brother of Fateh Khan. He was a warrior and an able commander-in-chief. When the army of Ram Dayal entered Kashmir valley after crossing the pass of Pir Panchal, Azim Khan attacked the tired out Sikh army. Ram Dayal resisted the enemy with bravery. Finally, Azim Khan and Ram Dyal made a compromise.

In 1819 A.D., Maharaja Ranjit Singh got an appropriate opportunity to conquer Kashmir. Azim Khan the subedar of Kashmir went to Kabul to take part in the quarrels in Durbar of Afghanistan. He appointed Zabar Khan as acting subedar. The Maharaja while taking advantage of this situation, sent Misar Diwan Chand with 12,000 soldiers to conquer Kashmir. For his help another company of the army was sent under the leadership of Kharak Singh. The Maharaja himself took the third army to Vazirabad. In May, Misar Diwan Chand occupied Rajauri, Punchh and Pir Panchal after reaching Bhimbar. From Pir Panchal, the army of Diwan Chand entered Kashmir. Jabar Khan at a place called speen (Samdhan) resisted the Sikhs. The Sikh army on May 5, 1819 A.D. occupied the forts of Shri Nagar, Shergarh and Azimgarh. The Maharaja declared that Kashmir be annexed into the Sikh State. Diwan Moti Ram was appointed Subedar of Kashmir.

With the conquest of Kashmir the prestige of the Maharaja increased much more. With this victory, the Maharaja got an annual income of Rs. 36 lacs.

The Maharaja gained economically with this victory but, Afghans' power suffered a great loss.

The Conquest of Derajat, 1821 A.D. : After the conquest of Multan and Kashmir, Maharaja Ranjit Singh decided to conquer Dera Ghazi Khan. At that time, there was a rule of Zaman Khan. The Maharaja sent an army under the leadership of Khushal Singh against Zaman Khan. The army occupied Dera Ghazi Khan after defeating the ruler.

After the conquest of Dera Ghazi Khan, Maharaja Ranjit Singh moved towards Dera Ismail Khan and Mankera. To occupy these areas the Maharaja sent Misar Diwan Chand in 1821 A.D. When the ruler Ahmad Khan tried to pay tribute to them, Misar Diwan Chand refused and advanced further to occupy Mankera.

The Conquest of Peshawar, April 30, 1837 A.D.: In the North-West of Punjab across the river Indus, Peshawar was an important province from the military and geographical point of view. Taking into account the importance of Peshawar, Maharaja Ranjit Singh wanted to conquer it to annexe in his own empire.

In 1818 A.D., the Maharaja got an opportunity to attack Peshawar because of the quarrels taking place in the Durbar of Kabul. On October 15, alongwith Akali Phula Singh and Hari Singh Nalwa, advanced towards Peshawar from Lahore.

The people of Khatak tribe opposed his army. But the Sikhs occupied forts of Khairabad and Jahangir after defeating them. Then the Sikh army advanced towards Peshawar. The ruler of Peshawar was Yar Mohammad Khan. He fled from Peshawar. In this way, without any resistance the Maharaja occupied Peshawar on Nov. 20, 1818. A.D. But the Maharaja did not find it proper to keep Peshawar in his empire permanently. He appointed Jahandad Khan, the previous ruler of Attock as subedar of Peshawar and he himself advanced towards Lahore.

When the Sikh army returned Lahore from Peshawar, then Yar Mohammad was successful in occupying Peshawar. Getting this news, the Maharaja sent a huge army of 12,000 soldiers under the leadership of Prince Kharak Singh and Misar Diwan Chand. Yar Mohammad accepted the suzerainty of the Maharaja.

Mohammad Azim Khan who had become the Wazir of Kabul attacked Peshawar against Yar Mohammad. Azim Khan occupied Peshawar in Jan. 1823 A.D. When the Maharaja came to know about it he sent a huge army under the leadership of Sher Singh, Diwan Kirpa Ram, Hari Singh Nalwa and Attar Singh. Azim Khan raised a slogan of jihad against the Sikhs. On March 14, 1823

A.D. a fierce battle took place between the Sikhs and the Afghans at Naushehra. This is also called the battle of Tibba-Tehri. During this battle Akali Phula Singh was killed. The Maharaja advanced further to encourage the Sikhs. Soon the Sikhs were victorious.

Sayyed Ahmad Khan revolted in Peshawar and areas around it between 1827-1831 A.D. In 1829 A.D. he attacked Peshawar. Yar Mohammad who was under the suzerainty of the Maharaja could not resist him. But in June, 1830 A.D. Hari Singh Nalwa defeated him on the bank of river Indus. In May, 1831 A.D. Sayyed Ahmad who had again become powerful was again defeated and killed by Prince Sher Singh in the battle of Balakot.

After 1831 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh wanted to annexe Peshawar in Lahore. He sent a huge army of 9,000 soldiers under the leadership of Hari Singh Nalwa and Prince Naunihal Singh towards Peshawar. As a result, on May 6, 1834 A.D. the Sikhs occupied Peshawar. The Maharaja declared the inclusion of Peshawar in Lahore state. Hari Singh Nalwa was appointed subedar of Peshawar.

In 1834 A.D. Dost Mohammad Khan defeated Sher Singh in Kabul and decided to win back Peshawar from the Sikhs. Hari Singh Nalwa was constructing the fort of Jamrud so Yar Mohammad sent 18,000 soldiers against the Sikhs under the leadership of his son Mohammad Akbar. A fierce battle took place between the both sides. Ultimately the Sikhs again won the battle.

Extension of Ranjit Singh's Kingdom : With the conquest of Peshawar, the extent of the Maharaja's empire touched the Suleiman ranges in North-West. In the north, his empire extended upto Ladakh and Iskardu. In the East, his empire was extended upto the river Satluj and in south-west till Shikarpur. In the last years of Maharaja Ranjit Singh's rule the total area of his empire was 2,24,000 sq. kms.

Anglo-Sikh Relations 1809-1839 A.D.

The friendly relations between Ranjit Singh and the Britishers began in 1805-06 A.D. In the next two years Ranjit Singh attacked the areas across Satluj. But in 1809 A.D. treaty of Amritsar was signed between the Maharaja and the Britishers. According to this treaty, the river Satluj was considered the boundary. With this, the states of Malwa came under the Britishers. After this treaty the relations between the Britishers and Ranjit Singh are described below.

Mutual Distrust and Suspicion, 1809-1812 A.D. : With the treaty of Amritsar, friendship could not be established between Maharaja Ranjit Singh and the Britishers in the real sense. The Britishers established a military post in Ludhiana. They also established a political agency there. With this, Maharaja Ranjit Singh developed distrust against the Britishers plans.

On other hand, Ranjit Singh gathered a huge army in the fort of Phillaur under the leadership of Mohkam Chand. With this, the Britishers also had no belief in the friendship of Maharaja.

Cordial and Friendly relations with the Britishers 1812-1821 A.D. : After 1812 A.D., the relations between Maharaja Ranjit Singh and the Britishers started improving. In 1812 A.D., David Ochterloney attended the marriage of Kharak Singh the son of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. After marriage Ochterloney also went to see the fort of Lahore. On the other hand, the Britishers sent 1,000 guns to the Maharaja in 1813 A.D.

In 1814-15 A.D. the Gurkhas sought Maharaja's help when Lord Hastings declared war against the Gurkhas of Nepal. The Maharaja did not even welcome the messenger of the Gurkhas. On the other hand, the Britishers also did not keep any relations with the enemy of Maharaja Ranjit Singh.

Temporary Ill-Will (1822-1825 A.D.) : The relations between Maharaja Ranjit Singh and the Britishers remained strained between 1822-1825 A.D.

The Question of Badhni : In the south of the river Satluj, Badhni was under the possession of Sada Kaur, mother-in-law of the Maharaja. In 1821 A.D., the Maharaja imprisoned Sada Kaur and appropriated her possessions. Because Badhni was in the south of the Satluj and under the surveillance of the British, the Britishers did not accept Maharaja's claim to Badhni. The Britishers sent their army to Badhani to turn out Maharaja's army.

The Problem of Ahluwalia Possessions : Fed up with Maharaja Ranjit Singh, Fateh Singh Ahluwalia went across the river satluj in 1825 A.D. He possessed the regions on both sides of the river Satluj. He asked the Britishers for security. The Britishers took the southern region under their surveillance. The Maharaja did not like this act of the Britishers.

Cordial and Friendly Relations Restored, 1825-30 A.D.: After 1825 A.D., again friendly relations were established between the Maharaja and the Britishers. In 1827A.D. with Doctor Murray's efforts, the Britishers accepted the claims of Maharaja Ranjit Singh over Badhani. On the other hand, in 1825-26 A.D. the representative of the king of Bharatpur came to ask for help against the Britishers but Maharaja Ranjit Singh refused his request, keeping in view his friendship with the Britishers.

In November 1826 A.D., the Maharaja was ill. He was treated by Dr Murray.

In April, 1827A.D., when Governor General Lord Amherst came to Shimla, Diwan Moti Ram welcomed him. In May, 1827 A.D. when David came to Amritsar he brought a letter and a gift for the Maharaja from the Governor General.

Tension and Estrangement : After 1831 A.D. regarding Sindh and Shikarpur, the Britishers tried to restrain the Maharaja with force or deceit. The period of tension which followed is described below.

The Question of Sindh April 18, 1832 A.D. : Sindh was an important province. After conquering the surrounding areas of Sindh in 1830-31 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh decided to conquer Sindh. The Governor General of India fixed a meeting with the Maharaja in Ropar to restrain him on October 26, 1831 A.D. On the other hand the Governor General sent Col. Porttinger to enter into a commercial treaty with the Amirs of Sindh. Maharaja Ranjit Singh was saddened when he came to know that the Britishers had entered into a commercial agreement.

The Question of Shikarpur, 1836 A.D. : Three armies had a joint possession over Sindh. In 1834 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh sent a campaign against Mazari tribe because that tribe had looted the Sikh areas. In 1836 A.D. the Maharaja sent an army against Mazari tribe under the leadership of Prince Kharak Singh because it had not stopped looting the Sikh regions. The Sikh army captured the Mazari regions. Governor Lord Auckland restrained Maharaja Ranjit Singh from sending Kharak Singh there for the second time to fulfil the terms of the treaty with the Mazari tribe. The Maharaja could neither get Shikarpur nor the annual tax. As a result relations between the Maharaja and the Britishers were strained.

The Question of Ferozepur, 1835-38 A.D. : Ferozepur was an important city situated near the confluence of the rivers Satluj and Beas. The Britishers had already decided not to let the Maharaja occupy the place. When the British empire established in India then in May, 1835 A.D. the Britishers occupied Ferozepur for its security. Maharaja Ranjit Singh was enraged at this action of the Britishers. His courtiers also openly opposed the action of Britishers. In 1838 A.D. the Britishers camped at Ferozepur and shifted the army to Ferozepur.

Tripartite Treaty, 1838 A.D. : In 1837 A.D. the Governor General of India Lord Auckland became scared of the Russian advance in Afghanistan. He realised that Dost Mohammad was maintaining friendly relations with Russia, the enemy of the British. Under these circumstances, Lord Auckland wanted to make Shah Shujah the ruler of Afghanistan instead of Dost Mohammad. Therefore, on June 26, 1838 A.D. with the permission of British Government, a treaty amongst the Britishers, Ranjit Singh and Shah Shujah was signed which is called Tripartite Treaty. In the light of this treaty Shah Shujah ruler of Afghanistan accepted the occupation of Maharaja on all the territories (Kashmir, Multan, Peshawar, Attock, Derajat etc). Those were conquered from Afghanistan. Maharaja Ranjit Singh did not accept one term of this treaty that he would not allow the British to come in his Territory. So the relations between the British and the Maharaja were disturbed. In June 1839 A.D. Maharaja Ranjit Singh died.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 20-25 Words:-

1. When was Ranjit Singh born? What was his father's name?
2. Who was Mehtab Kaur?
3. Which era is termed as the Patronage of Trio ?
4. Why did the residents of Lahore invite Ranjit Singh to attack Lahore?
5. Describe the conquest of Akalgarh.
6. Which sardars were against Ranjit Singh in the battle of Bhasin?
7. Why did Maharaja Ranjit Singh attack Amritsar and Lohgarh?
8. Of Which Misal was Tara Singh Gheba the leader?

(B) Answer the following questions in 30-50 words:-

1. Write about Ranjit Singh's childhood and education.
2. Describe the events of bravery of Ranjit Singh's childhood.
3. Describe the events of occupation of Lahore by Ranjit Singh.
4. Describe the invasion of Malwa provinces by Maharaja Ranjit Singh.
5. Write the significance of the conquest of Amritsar.
6. Describe the conquest of Kangra by Ranjit Singh.
7. How did Maharaja Ranjit Singh occupy friendly Misals?
8. Write the consequences of the conquest of Multan.
9. Describe the battle of Attock.
10. Write about the question of Sindh.
11. What was the question of Shikarpur?
12. Write about the events related to Ferozepur.
13. What was Tripartite Treaty?

(C) Answer the following questions in 100-120 words.

1. How did Ranjit Singh conquer the weak provinces?
2. Describe the conquest of Kashmir by Ranjit Singh.
3. Describe the conquest of Multan by Ranjit Singh.
4. Describe the conquest of Peshawar by Ranjit Singh.
5. Describe the relations of Ranjit Singh with the Britishers from 1809 - 1839 A.D.
6. On what issues did Ranjit Singh and the Britishers not agree?

LESSON-8

The Anglo-Sikh Wars And Annexation of the Punjab

The First Anglo-Sikh War 1845-46 A.D.

After the death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, his successors proved to be weak and incapable administrators. Due to their weak administration, factionalism broke out in the Lahore state. The Britishers took advantage of it and fought two wars. The first war took place in 1845-46 A.D.

CAUSES

The British Policy of Encirclement of Lahore Kingdom : The British began the siege of Lahore state during the period of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. With this objective, they captured Ferozepur in 1835 A.D. In 1838 A.D., they established a military cantonment there. The Maharaja objected to this policy of the Britishers. Even the sardars of Lahore darbar opposed to this policy openly.

Anarchy and Revolts in Punjab after Ranjit Singh : After the death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, restlessness and anarchy prevailed. It was so because his successors Kharak Singh, Naunihal Singh, Rani Jindan Kaur and Sher Singh proved to be weak and feeble rulers. Due to their weakness, the sardars in the darbar began to conspire against each other. The Britishers wanted to take advantage of this situation.

Disastrous Failure of the British in the First Afghan War : After the end of first Anglo-Afghan war in November, 1841 A.D, the Afghans revolted against the British under the leadership of Mohammad Akbar Khan, son of Dost Khan. The Britishers were unsuccessful in suppressing the rebels. The British Commanders Burns and Maccnatan were killed. With the failure of the Britishers, the Sikhs were inspired to fight a war against the Britishers.

Annexation of Sindh by the British: After the end of the Afghan war, Ellenborough decided to annexe Sindh. Although the Amirs of Sindh had always been sincere with the Britishers, even then on the direction of Ellenborough, Charles Napier levelled charges on the Amirs of Sindh and declared war against them. After defeating the Amirs, he annexed the province of Sindh in March, 1843. The Sikhs were convinced that the Britishers wanted to occupy Punjab and that is why they had surrounded Punjab.

Ellenborough's Plan to Conquer Punjab : After annexing Sindh and Kaithal in British Empire and weakening the power of Gwalior, Ellenborough made a plan to capture Punjab. He started military preparations to materialize this plan.

The Sikhs also started preparations for war when they came to know about it.

Appointment of Lord Hardinge As Governor General : In July, 1844 A.D., Lord Hardinge was appointed Governor General of India in place of Lord Ellenborough. Hardinge was a famous commander. With his appointment, the Sikhs became suspicious that Ellenborough has been deliberately called back to London and in his place a famous commander has been sent to India so that he can successfully fight with the Sikhs.

Military Preparations of the British : Following the policy of Ellenborough, Lord Hardinge continued military preparations to fight against the Sikhs. He increased the number of soldiers and cannons on the boundaries of Punjab. To make a bridge of boats over the river Satluj, the boats were built in Mumbai (Bombay). The military preparations made by the British proved that they did not want to fight a defensive war, rather an offensive war with the Sikhs.

The Question of Suchet Singh's Treasure : The Dogra chief Suchet Singh was in the service of Lahore Durbar. In 1844 A.D., he died and left a treasure of Rs. 15 lakhs at Ferozepur. Since Suchet Singh had no son, the Lahore Government asserted its right over the treasure. But the Britishers wanted to settle the claim through court. This made the Sikhs suspicious of the British intentions.

Disagreement Over the Village Mowran : Village Mowran was situated in Nabha state. This village was given to Maharaja Ranjit Singh by Jaswant Singh, the ruler of Nabha. The Maharaja gave this village to Dhanna Singh. In 1843 A.D, the ruler of Nabha, Devendra Singh became angry with Dhanna Singh. He took back village Mowran from Dhanna Singh. The Lahore Government opposed it but the Britishers favoured the ruler of Nabha who was under their protection. The Sikhs did not like this act.

Measures taken by Broadfoot Against the Sikhs : In November, 1844 A.D. Major Broadfoot was appointed representative of British at Ludhiana. He hated the Sikhs. His actions against the Sikhs irritated the Sikh community and they got agitated against the Britishers.

Instigation of the Sikh Army by Lal Singh and Tej Singh : In September 1845 A.D., Lal Singh became the Prime Minister of Lahore **Kingdom** Tej Singh was appointed the chief of the army. By that time, the power of the Sikh army had increased manifold. All the important decisions of the **Kingdom** were taken by the army. Lal Singh and Tej Singh were scared of the army. Secretly, both the sardars joined the British Government. In order to weaken the Sikh army they instigated it against the Britishers.

Declaration of War by Governor General : The above causes clarify that the Britishers wanted to fight against the Sikhs. On December 13, 1845. Governor General Lord Hardinge declared war against the Sikhs.

EVENTS

In December, 1845 A.D. approximately 60,000 Sikh soldiers crossed the Satluj river under the leadership of Lal Singh and Tej Singh. On December 13, Lord Hardinge declared war against the Sikhs.

Battle of Mudki, December 18, 1845 A.D. : The British army reached Mudki, fifteen kms. away from Ferozeshah under the leadership of Sir Hugh Gough. Lal Singh brought a small army of the Sikhs at Mudki. On December 18, 1845 A.D. the war started. As soon as the war started, Lal Singh fled from the battlefield as per his plan. The Sikh soldiers fought bravely. But they were defeated due to their small number and treachery of their leader.

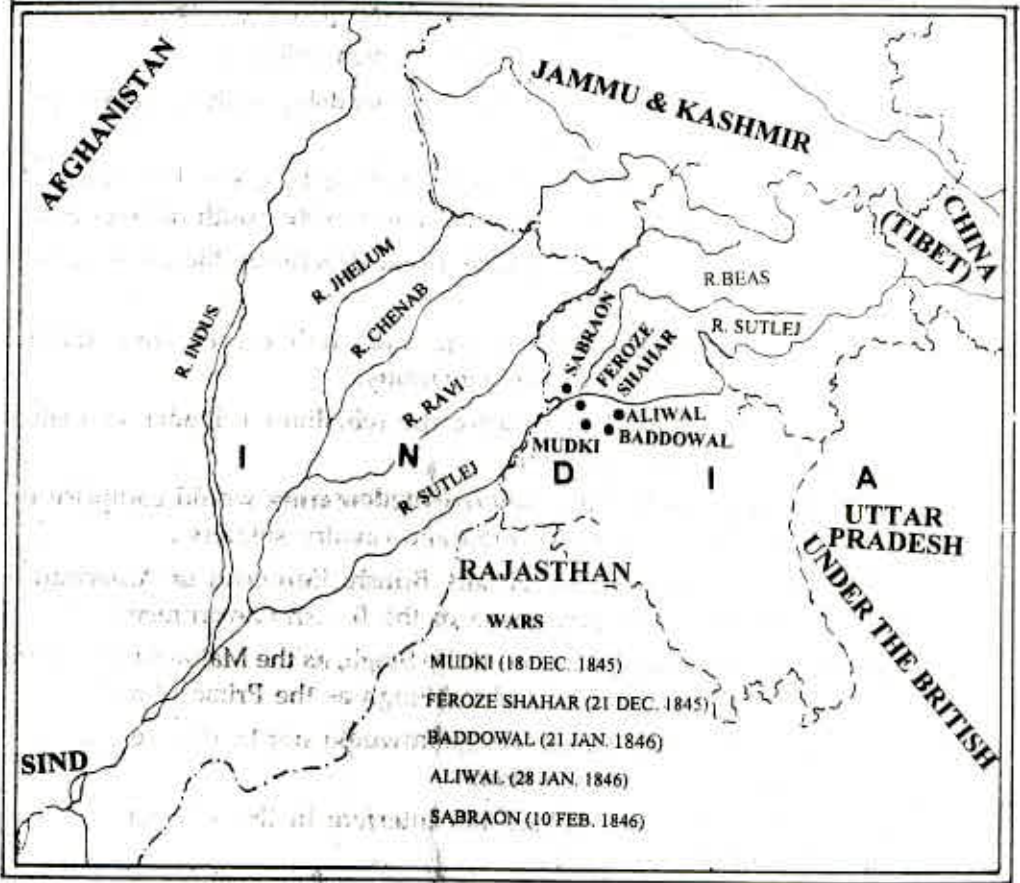
Battle of Ferozeshah or Ferozeshahar, December 21, 1845 A.D. : After the battle of Mudki on December 20, 1845, the British army joined the army of Hugh Gough under the leadership of John Littler from Ferozepur. On December 21, at 4 o'clock in the evening, the British army attacked the Sikh army which was camping at Ferozeshah or Ferozeshahar. In this battle, Lal Singh and Tej Singh were leading the Sikh army. The Sikh army fought with extraordinary courage and bravery. The cannons of the Sikhs destroyed one-third cannons of the enemy. But at night, Lal Singh fled from the battlefield. On the other hand, Tej Singh who did not want the victory of the Sikh army also fled even on the arrival of fresh and brave battalions. As a result, the Britishers won the battle.

Battle of Baddowal, January 21, 1846 A.D.: On January 21, 1846 A.D. Sardar Ranjodh Singh Majithia and Sardar Ajit Singh of Ladwa crossed the river Satluj along with their army. They made preparations to attack Ludhiana. When Sir Henry Smith came to know about it, he moved alongwith his army to defend Ludhiana. Both the sides fought at Baddowal. Sardar Ranjodh Singh won this battle. The Sikhs got hold of the ration and other goods of the Britishers.

Battle of Aliwal, January 28, 1846 A.D. : On the arrival of army assistance from Ferozepur, Sir Henry Smith suddenly attacked the Sikh army camping at Aliwal under the leadership of Sardar Ranjodh Singh. As a result, the Sikh army fled and crossed the river Satluj. The British were declared victorious in this war.

Battle of Sabhraon, February 10, 1846 A.D. : The Sikh army had encamped at Sabhraon under the leadership of Tej Singh and Lal Singh. The Sikhs gave the Britishers thirteen days to regain their position and did not attack them. On February 10, 1846 A.D. when the war started between the Britishers and the Sikhs, Tej Singh and Lal Singh fled from the battlefield. Sham Singh Attariwala fought with the enemies till his last breath. The Sikh Army was defeated because of his death.

PUNJAB BEFORE 1947 A.D. FIRST ANGLO-SIKH WAR (1845-46)



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Map No. 4

The British army crossed river Satluj after the victory of Sabhraon. The Sikhs did not resist the army advancing towards Lahore. The British army reached Lahore on February 20, 1846 A.D.

Treaties of Lahore

The First Treaty of Lahore, March 9, 1846 A.D. : After the first Anglo-Sikh War, the Governor General Lord Hardinge signed a treaty with the Lahore Government. The main terms of the treaty are given below :

1. The British Government would maintain friendship with Maharaja Dalip Singh and his successors.
2. The Maharaja of Lahore on his behalf and on behalf of his successors agreed to remove his possession from areas in the south of river Satluj.
3. The Maharaja handed over the forts situated between the areas of river Satluj and Beas to the British.
4. The British demanded Rupees one and half crores from Lahore Government in the form of war indemnity.
5. The Maharaja promised to dissolve the rebellious brigades of Lahore army and snatch their weapons.
6. It was also decided that the Lahore **Kingdom** army would comprise twenty thousand infantry and twelve thousand cavalry soldiers .
7. The Maharaja would not recruit any British, European or American in his service without the permission of the British Government.
8. The British Government accepted Dalip Singh, as the Maharaja of Lahore, Rani Jindan as his Guardian and Lal Singh as the Prime Minister.
9. The boundaries of the Lahore **Kingdom** would not be changed without the permission of British Government.
10. The British Government would not interfere in the internal affairs of Lahore **Kingdom**
11. If the British Government gives some hilly regions to Gulab Singh, the Maharaja would accept Gulab Singh's hold over it.

Supplementary Articles of the Agreement, March 11, 1846 A.D. : A second treaty of Lahore was signed on March 11, 1846 A.D. on the request of Lal Singh. The main provisions of the treaty are given below :

1. The British Government would keep a large army in Lahore till the end of 1846 A.D. for the protection of Maharaja Dalip Singh and the residents.
2. The Fort and City of Lahore would remain in the possession of the British army.

3. The Lahore Government would honour the Jagirdars and officials of the regions given to the Britishers according to the terms and conditions of the treaty of Lahore signed on March 9, 1846,
4. The Lahore Government would have the right to take the property and treasure with the exception of the cannons from the forts of the regions given to the Britishers.

Significance of the Treaties of Lahore

Although Lord Hardinge did not annexe Punjab to the British Empire after defeating the Sikhs, yet he weakened the Lahore Government. The Britishers captured the areas of Lahore **Kingdom** situated in the south of the Satluj. They also occupied fertile areas of Doab Bist Jalandhar, Kashmir, Kangra and the Hill States of Hazara were also freed from the reign of Lahore **Kingdom**. The Lahore army was reduced. A huge amount was also collected from Lahore **Kingdom**. Punjab was weakened economically and militarily to the extent that the British could occupy it any time.

Treaty of Bhairawal, December 16, 1846 A.D.

The treaty of Bhairawal was signed after the Treaty of Lahore.

Causes

According to the Treaty of Lahore, the British army was to stay in Lahore for one year. After the completion of one year, Hardinge thought of appointing a British resident and also keeping the army in Lahore State. Maharani Jindan did not want this. A special meeting of the ministers and sardars of Lahore durbar was convened on December 15, 1846 A.D to discuss this issue: In the meeting, only those terms of Governor General were declared which were related to keeping of British army in Lahore based on the treaty of 1846 A.D. On December 16, prominent sardars signed the agreement except Maharani Jindan.

Terms of the Treaty

1. A British Resident appointed by the Governor General would stay in Lahore.
2. The administration of the Lahore Kingdom would be run by a Council of Regency of eight Sardars till the time Maharaja Dalip Singh was a minor. The names of those sardars were also mentioned in the treaty.
3. The Council of Regency would look after the administrative work on the advice of the British Resident.

4. Maharani Jindan was disassociated from the Kingdom. She was given an annual pension of Rs one and half lacs.
5. The British Army would stay at Lahore for the protection of the Maharaja and to maintain peace and order.
6. The British soldiers would be entitled to capture any fort or military cantonment in Lahore on the orders of the Governor General.
7. The Lahore Kingdom would pay Rs. twenty two lacs annually to the British Government for the expenditure of the British Army.
8. The terms of the treaty would remain in force till Maharaja Dalip Singh attains adulthood.

Significance

The Treaty of Bhairowal was very significant in the history of Punjab and India.

1. According to this Treaty, the Britishers became the masters of Punjab. The British Resident got unlimited rights and powers in the administrative matters of the Lahore Kingdom. Henry Lawrence was appointed the First British Resident of Punjab.
2. According to this Treaty, Maharani Jindan was disassociated from the administration. After some time she was sent to Shekhupura. Thereafter, she was exiled and sent to Benares.

Reasons for not annexing Punjab by the British in 1846 A.D.

Lord Hardinge did not annexe Punjab to the British Empire even after the defeat of the Sikhs in the First Anglo-Sikh War. It had following reasons :

1. Although the Sikhs were defeated in the battles of Mudki, Ferozeshah and Sabhraon but still the Sikh soldiers were camping at Lahore, Amritsar and Peshawar. If the Britishers had annexed Punjab, they would have to fight with those soldiers.
2. To maintain law and order in Punjab, the expenditure would have been more than the income and Lord Harding did not want to increase the expenditure by annexing Punjab to the British Empire.
3. The Sikh Kingdom was a buffer between the British Empire and Afghanistan.
4. Lord Hardinge wanted to enter into such an alliance with the Punjabis which could weaken Punjab, so that he could annexe Punjab whenever he wanted.

The Second Anglo-Sikh War 1848-1849 A.D.

The Second Anglo-Sikh War began in 1848-1849 A.D.

Causes

1. **Dissatisfaction amongst the Sikhs after the First Anglo-Sikh War :** The Sikhs were defeated in the first Anglo-Sikh War fought under the leadership of treacherous people like Lal Singh and Tej Singh. After the War and as a result of the treaties of Lahore, the Britishers were able to separate the hilly regions of Jammu-Kashmir, Hazara, Kangra etc. from the Lahore Kingdom. The strength of the Sikh army was reduced and the British army began to camp in Lahore. Maharani Jindan was deprived of the political rights. The Resident began to offer high posts to the Britishers. The patriotic Sikhs could not tolerate the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Bhairawal.

'The Cow' Row : On April 21, 1846 A.D, a herd of cows blocked the way of an European topchi (gunner). The soldier attacked the cows with his sword. This news enraged the Hindus and the Sikhs. The British Resident Henry Lawrence went to the city to convince the people. People threw bricks on him from the top of their roofs. As a result Henry Lawrence awarded death sentence to a Brahmin. Two men were exiled. Those houses from whose roofs the bricks had been thrown were demolished. It was natural for the people of Punjab to the Britishers.

Retrenchment in the Sikh Army : After the First Anglo-Sikh War, according to the treaty of Lahore, the number of soldiers in Sikh Army was fixed to 20,000 soldiers in infantry and 12,000 soldiers in cavalry. The Lahore Government was asked to pay twenty two lacs annually to the British Government for the expenditure on the British army. To meet this expenditure, the salary of the army was reduced. So the Sikh soldiers were enraged against the Britishers.

Maltreatment of Maharani Jindan : According to the treaty of Bhairawal, Maharani Jindan was deprived of all political rights. She was arrested and sent to Shekhupura Fort on August 20, 1846 A.D. Her pension was reduced from Rs. one and half lacs to forty eight thousand only. Thereafter, she was exiled and sent to Benares. As a result, the patriotic Sikhs were enraged against the Britishers.

Plan of Lord Dalhousie and Currie to annexe Punjab : In January, 1848 A.D. Lord Dalhousie became the Governor General of India. First of all, he planned to annexe Punjab. Fredrick Currie had already been appointed the British Resident of Lahore. He was very experienced and an expert diplomat. Dalhousie and Currie both planned to wage war against the Sikhs.

Revolt of Mulraj of Multan : After the death of Dewan Sawan Mal, Nazim of

Multan, his son Diwan Mulraj was appointed as Nazim of Multan. The British Resident accepted Mulraj as Nazim of Multan. His annual revenue was increased from twenty lacs to thirty lacs. He requested the British Resident to reduce the revenue but his request was dismissed. Diwan Mulraj resigned due to this reason and the British Resident Fredrick Currie appointed Kahan Singh Mann the Nazim of Multan in his place.

Kahan Singh, Agnew and Anderson went to Multan to take the charge from Diwan Mulraj. They stayed in an Idgah. While they were returning to Idgah on taking charge from Mulraj, the soldiers of Multan attacked the British Officers and killed them. They instigated Diwan Mulraj to revolt against the British. This revolt provided the British an opportunity to fight with the Sikhs.

Exile of Maharani Jindan : In August, 1847 A.D., Maharani Jindan was sent from Lahore to Shekhupura. She was exiled to Benaras after being charged of revolting against the British. Her annual pension was reduced to Rs. twelve thousand which annoyed the people of Punjab.

Revolt of Bhai Maharaj Singh : Bhai Maharaj Singh was a follower of Saint Bhai Bir Singh of Naurangabad. He revolted against the Britishers to save 'Sarkar-E-Khalsa'. The British Resident Henry Lawrence ordered to arrest him. But Maharaj Singh could not be arrested. After the revolt by Mulraj and exile of Maharani Jindan, he gathered hundreds of people under him. On the request of Mulraj, he proceeded towards Multan to help him along with four hundred cavalry soldiers. After some time, due to some misunderstanding he left Mulraj and joined Chattar Singh Attariwala and his son Sher Singh.

Revolt of Chattar Singh of Hazara : Chattar Singh Attariwala was appointed the Nazim of Hazara. Captain Abbot was appointed for his help. Abbot's proud behavior made Chattar Singh suspicious of the British. Captain Abbot levelled charges against him that his soldiers had joined hands with the rebellions of Multan. Chattar Singh openly revolted against the British.

Revolt of Sher Singh : When Sher Singh came to know that his father had been removed from the post of Nazim of Hazara, he revolted against the British. He also joined the rebels along with his army and Mulraj. He appealed to the Sikhs to expel cruel and deceitful phirangis (foreigners) from Punjab. As a result of this appeal, many old soldiers also joined the rebellions against the British.

British Invasion of Punjab : The revolt by Mulraj, Chattar Singh and Sher Singh gave Lord Dalhousie an opportunity to act on his predetermined plan. On the orders of Lord Dalhousie, the British army under the leadership of Hugh Gough crossed the river Satluj on November 9, 1848. The army reached Lahore and got entangled with rebellions on November 13, 1848 A.D..

Events

The Battle of Ramnagar, November 22, 1848 A.D. : The army of Sher Singh Attariwala encamped on the right side of river Chenab. On November 6, 1848 A.D. the British army crossed the river Ravi under the leadership of Lord Gough. On November 22, a clash took place between both the armies at Ramnagar. In this War, the Britishers were defeated and two of their prominent generals were killed.

Battle of Chillianwala, January 13, 1849 A.D.: In the first week of January, 1849 A.D Lord Gough got the news that Chattar Singh had captured Attock. So, on January 12 he reached Dinghi along with his army, twelve kms. away from the camps of Sikh army. On January 13, the Britishers attacked the Sikh army on the orders of Gough. A fierce battle took place. The Sikhs inflicted heavy losses on the Britishers. Sir Charles Napier was appointed Chief General in place of General Gough.

Occupation of Multan by the Britishers, January 22, 1849 A.D. : Under the Leadership of Mulraj, the rebels of Multan fought with the British army. On December 30, a bomb thrown by the British army on the fort proved fatal for the rebels. Due to this bomb, Mulraj lost explosive material worth four lac pounds. More than five hundred rebels were also killed. Mulraj was left with no choice but to surrender before the General's wish. He surrendered on January 22.

Battle of Gujarat, February 21, 1849 A.D. : A decisive battle took place at Gujarat between the Britishers and the Sikhs. Before this war Chattar Singh and Sher Singh got together. Maharaj Singh also sided with Attariwala Sardars. The ruler of Afghanistan, Dost Mohammad also took side of the Sikhs.

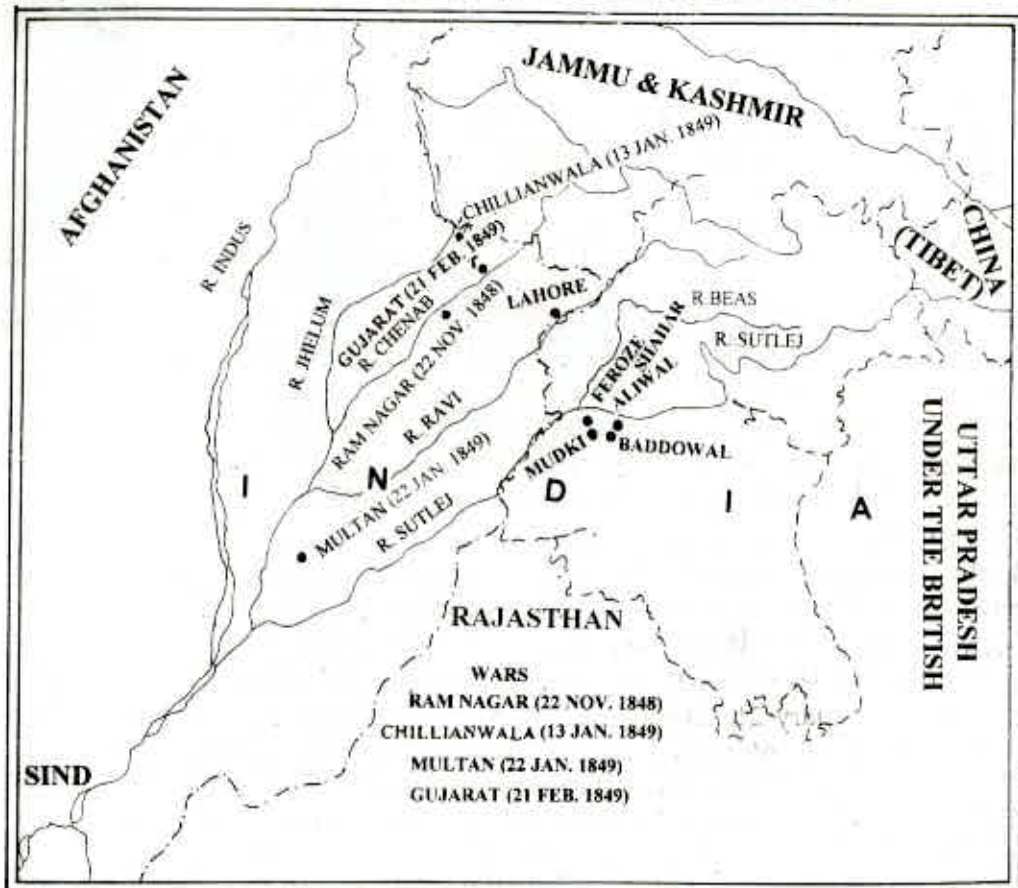
on February 21, 1849 at 7.30 AM the Gujarat war started between the two groups on the bank of river Chenab. After one hour's bombardment, the ammunition of the Sikhs exhausted. But even then the Sikhs fought on bravely but being out numbered by the enemies, the Sikhs had to face defeat.

Results

Annexation of Punjab, March 29, 1849 A.D. : The Punjab State was dissolved after the defeat of Sikhs in the Second Anglo-Sikh War on March 29, 1849 on the orders of the Governor General Lord Dalhousie. Maharaja Dalip Singh was dethroned. The Britishers captured the entire property of Punjab including the Kohinoor diamond. Dalip Singh's pension was fixed between four to five lacs.

Punishment to Mulraj and Maharaj Singh : Mulraj was exiled to Kala Pani on the charge of murder of Agnew and Anderson. On December 29, 1849 A.D. Maharaj Singh was also arrested. He was sentenced to life imprisonment and sent to Singapore.

PUNJAB BEFORE 1947 A.D. SECOND ANGLO-SIKH WAR (1848-49)



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Map No. 5

Disbanding of the Khalsa Army : After the First Anglo-Sikh War, the number of Sikh armymen was reduced. After the defeat of Sikhs in the Second Anglo-Sikh War, the Khalsa army was disbanded. The Sikh army was disarmed. The dismissed Sikh soldiers were recruited in the British army.

Suppression of the Sikh Nobility : After the dissolution of the Punjab State, on the orders of Lord Dalhousie, the Chief Commissioner of Punjab John Lawrence took action to weaken the power of the prominent Sikhs. As a result, those Sikhs who were earlier rich landlords and those who held high positions in the Government became ordinary people.

Appointment of British Officers in Punjab : As a result of Second Anglo-Sikh War, the Britishers and the Europeans were appointed on high posts in the administration in place of the Hindus, the Sikhs or the Muslims. They were given high salaries and allowances.

Strengthening of North-West Frontier : After the annexation of Punjab, the Britishers constructed roads and cantonments to make North-West Frontier powerful. Important forts which held importance from military point of view were repaired. Many new forts were also constructed. Special military regiments were constituted to keep a check on the North-western tribes.

Re-organisation of Administration of Punjab : After the annexation of the Punjab, a board called Board of Administration was constituted. Henry Lawrence was appointed its chairman. The administrative structure was reorganized. Judicial system, Police administration and Revenue system were reconstituted. Roads and canals were built. Postal system was also organized.

Friendly relations of the British with the Native States of Punjab : During the Second Anglo-Sikh War, the rulers of Patiala, Jind, Nabha, Kapurthala, Faridkot, the Nawabs of Bahawalpur and Malerkotla helped the Britishers. The Britishers awarded some of the rulers of the Native states. They decided not to annexe the Native states in the British Empire.

Annexation of the Punjab by the British

After the First Anglo-Sikh War, Lord Hardinge deliberately did not annexe Punjab to the British Empire. In March 1846 A.D., with signing treaties of Lahore, Britishers snatched the fertile areas of Doab Bist, Jalandhar from the Lahore Kingdom. The Khalsa Army was reduced. A contingent of the British Army was stationed at Lahore.

In December, 1846 A.D., Lord Hardinge signed the Treaty of Bhairawal with the Lahore Kingdom. According to this Treaty, Maharani Jindan was disassociated from administration. Since Maharaja Dalip Singh was a minor, a council of Regency consisting of eight members was constituted to run the

State administration. A British Resident was appointed to look after the council. He was given many administrative rights. In the treaty, it was mentioned that it would remain in force till Maharaja Dalip Singh attained adulthood.

In January, 1848 A.D., Lord Dalhousie became the Governor General of India in place of Lord Hardinge. He believed in the expansion of the British Empire in India. First of all, He decided to annexe Punjab to the British Empire. Revolts of Mulraj of Multan and Chattar Singh of Hazara and his son Sher Singh gave him an excuse to wage war against the Sikhs. Foreign secretary Henry Elliot was assigned the task of giving practical shape to the pre-determined policy after the defeat of the Sikhs in the Second Anglo-Sikh War. Elliot forced the members of Council of Regency to sign the treaty. According to this treaty, Maharaja Dalip Singh was dethroned. The entire property of Punjab was captured by the Britishers. The Kohinoor Diamond was sent to Queen Victoria of England. A pension between four to five lacs was fixed for Maharaja Dalip Singh. Henry Elliot read the declaration of Lord Dalhousie in Lahore Durbar the same day. Annexation of Punjab to the British Empire was held legitimate in the declaration.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 20-25 words .

1. Who was the successor of Maharaja Ranjit Singh?
2. Why were the Sikhs defeated in the battle of Mudki ?
3. When was the battle of Sabhraon fought and what was its result?
4. What was the matter of Suchet Singh's treasury?
5. Write about the 'Cow Row'.
6. What do you know about the Council of Regency?
7. When was the Punjab annexed to the British Empire. Who was the Governor General of India at that time?
8. What steps were taken by Chattar Singh against the Britishers?

(B) Write the answers to the following questions in about 30-50 words.

1. Write the terms of Lahore Treaty.
2. Discuss the causes of Bhairowal Treaty.
3. Write any four terms of Bhairowal Treaty.
4. Write about the importance of Bhairowal Treaty.
5. After the first Anglo-Sikh War, why did the Britishers not annexe Punjab to their empire? Write any two causes.
6. After the treaty of Bhairowal how did the British treat Queen Jindan?
7. What do you know about Maharaja Dalip Singh?

(C) Write the answer of the following questions in about 100-120 words.

1. Discuss the causes of the First Anglo-Sikh War.
2. Write about the events related to the First Anglo-Sikh War.
3. Discuss the terms of the First Treaty of Lahore.
4. Explain the Treaty of Bhairowal.
5. Write the causes of the Second Anglo-Sikh War.
6. Explain the events of the Second Anglo-Sikh War.
7. Write the results of the Second Anglo-Sikh War.
8. How did the Britishers annexe Punjab?

(D) **Activity**

1. Show the towns of Mudki, Ferozshah, Baddowal, Aliwal, and Sabhraon on the map of Punjab (First Anglo-Sikh War).
2. Show the battlefield of the second Anglo-Sikh war on the map of Punjab.

LESSON – 9

PUNJAB'S CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

The Britishers came to India in 1600 A.D. as traders. Gradually they captured southern and eastern parts of India. After the Second Anglo-Sikh War (1848-49A.D.), Lord Dalhousie, the Governor General of India annexed Punjab to the British Empire. The Khalsa Army was disbanded by the British government. But just after eight years, the Punjabis got an opportunity to take up arms against the British. The contribution of the Punjabis in the first war of independence, 1857 A.D is described below:

Contribution of Punjab in the First Battle of Independence in 1857A.D.

(1) **Revolt of Soldiers :** On May 10, 1857 A.D. the first battle of independence of India started at Meerut. On May 12, 1857 A.D., when the news of the battle reached Lahore then due to fear of revolt in Punjab the Indian and Punjabi soldiers of Mian Mir cantonment were disarmed. The Indian and Punjabi soldiers of Lahore, Peshawar, Nawanshahr, Multan, Ambala, Jalandhar, Rawalpindi, Amritsar, Hoshiarpur and Derajat were also disarmed.

Even then the Punjabi and Indian soldiers revolted in the eastern regions of Punjab. In Jalandhar, Phillaur, Jehlum, Sialkot and Thaneshar, the army rebelled. At Lahore, Ferozepur, Peshawar, Ambala and Mianwali cantonments, a few Indian and Punjabi soldiers also revolted. Some soldiers killed their own commanders.

(2) **Revolt of the People :** At some places people also revolted watching the delicate situation of the Britishers. The people of Ludhiana and Ferozepur revolted at many places. In these revolts, the soldiers of Sialkot and the people of Sirsa also took part. At Montgomery, Multan, Bahawalpur, Fazilka etc. the Muslim tribes also revolted against the British.

The people living close to Delhi and Rohelkhand also revolted in favour of the rebels. The Jats of some villages in Karnal refused to pay land revenue to the British government. The Punjabis from Rohtak and Rewari areas also revolted.

(3) **Revolt of Sardar Ahmed Khan Kharal :** Ahmed Khan Kharal, the Chief of Kharal tribe revolted on non-payment of land revenue to British

government. Many tribes settled on the banks of the river Ravi also took his side. He fought with the Britishers at many places. He killed a British officer and many British soldiers. As a result, the Britishers had to announce a reward to capture Ahmed Khan Kharal. In the end, the leader of the first armed rebellious group of Punjab was martyred along with his twenty cavalarymen near Pakpatan while fighting against the Britishers.

The revolt of 1857 A.D. could not be successful in Punjab because the rebels of Punjab did not have an able leader. The native states of Punjab instead of resisting Britishers, came on their side.

Namdhari or Kuka Movement

The Namdhari or Kuka Movement after Satguru Balak Singh Ji was doing great work under the leadership of Satguru Ram Singh Ji. On April 12, 1857 A.D. (On the day of Baisakhi), Satguru Ram Singh Ji laid the foundation of a new movement called Namdhari or Kuka Movement by offering Amrit to the people. Its aim was to liberate the country along with bringing about religious and social reforms. So, they adopted a policy of non-cooperation with the Britishers. They boycotted Government postal services, foreign made clothes, Government courts, schools and colleges and formed their own Government against the Britishers. They established their own postal system.

Guruji preached against female infanticide, selling and exchange of girls child in marriage and sati system. He supported widow remarriage and equal status to women. He started a new custom of inter caste marriage without dowry by spending rupees 1.25 called **Anand Karaj**. By solemnizing six inter-caste marriages for the first time on June 3, 1863 A.D. in village Khote district Ferozepur, he brought about a revolution in the society. In village Siyar district Ludhiana, Sat Guruji gave an equal status to women by offering Amrit to them.

Wherever Shri Satguru Ram Singh Ji went, a group of cavalrymen always accompanied him. Gradually, the Britishers came to know that Namdharis were preparing for some kind of a revolt. Their postal services too strengthened the same suspicion of the Britishers.

Shri Satguru Ram Singh Ji had divided Punjab in 22 Subas to facilitate propagation of his preachings. Every Suba had a Chief and he was called a Suba. This action of Namdharis was also threatening to the Britishers. In 1869 A.D., the Namdharis had developed their relations with the rulers of Kashmir, Nepal, Russia and Afghanistan. They started giving military training to the Kukas. They established two companies which were called Kuka regiments.

The Britishers were fully assured that one day Namdhari Sikhs would

revolt against them. To suppress the non-cooperation Kuka Movement, the Britishers instigated the religious feelings of the people against each other. To make them go through a feeling of slavery under a divide and rule policy among the Hindus and Muslims, they opened slaughter houses at various places. The Namdhari Sikhs started protecting the cows. They killed many butchers. In 1871 A.D, they attacked the slaughter houses of Amritsar, Raikot and killed the butchers. The Kukas were hanged openly but they could never be deterred from achieving their objective. In January, 1872, a group of 150 Kukas reached Malerkotla to punish the butchers. On January 15, 1872 A.D., a fierce battle took place between the Kukas and the army of Malerkotla. Many people from both sides were killed. The British government sent an army to Malerkotla to take action against the Kukas. 68 Kukas courted arrest, and 49 Kukas were blown with cannons on January 17, 1872 A.D. After the trials, 16 Kukas were also blown on January 18, 1872 A.D. Sri Satguru Ram Singh Ji was exiled and sent to Rangoon. Many Namdhari Kukas were sent to **Kala Pani**. Many Kukas were killed by drowning them in the ocean. The properties of many Kukas were confiscated. The British government inflicted atrocities on the Kukas but the movement continued till India achieved Independence on August 15, 1947.

The Arya Samaj

The Arya Samaj Movement is one of the socio-religious movements which politically influenced all the Indians. This movement influenced the Punjabis also.

Swami Dayanand Saraswati (1824-1883 A.D.) was the founder of the Arya Samaj. He established the Arya Samaj in 1875 A.D. He opened an important branch of the Arya Samaj at Lahore In 1877 A.D.

Swami Dayanand Saraswati visited Punjab in March 1877 A.D. for the first time. He stayed here for about two months. He delivered his first speech in Braham Samaj Mandir, Anarkali Bazar Lahore.

The Arya Samaj contributed significantly in social and religious fields and also made a valuable contribution in the freedom movement. This organization took part in the non-cooperation movement against the Britishers. They started a Swadeshi Movement by opening schools and colleges.

Swami Dayanand Saraswati not only resisted the Britishers by the spread of education but also infused the spirit of nationalism amongst the Punjabis.

Swami Dayanand Saraswati taught Indians to be proud of their country and civilization. The Punjabis were also influenced by it. The patriots like Lala Lajpat Rai, Sardar Ajit Singh and Shradhanand were the **contribution** of the Arya

Samaj. Bhai Parmanand and Lala Hardyal were also famous Arya Samajis.

Considering the political activities of the Arya Samajis, the British government kept a close surveillance in Punjab. Those Arya Samajis who were in government jobs were under suspicion. They were not even given due promotions.

In 1892 A.D. the Arya Samaj was divided into College Party and Gurukul Party. The promoters of the College Party, Lala Lajpat Rai and Mahatma Hansraj were in favour of imparting education in English literature and western science along with Vedic knowledge. This helped in bridging the gap between the Britishers and the Arya Samajis. Even then, the Arya Samajis were helpful to the freedom fighters of the country. The newspapers published by the Arya Samajis also played an active role in the freedom movement of Punjab.

Rise of Peasant Movement

The Economic Policy of the British government was not praiseworthy. The Government increased land revenue and irrigation tax. This dissatisfied the peasants.

The revenue policy of the British government was very harsh. At the time of famine or drought, no relaxation was given for the payment of land revenue. The peasants either had to mortgage their land or sell their animals to pay the revenue. In 1875-78 A.D., the total land mortgaged by peasants was 1,65,000 acres in Punjab. In 1884-85 A.D. this area increased to 3,85,000 acres. It resulted in the peasant movement in Punjab. The leaders like Sardar Ajit Singh, Lala Lajpat Rai, Sufi Amba Parsad and Sayyid Haider Ali led the movement. The enhancement of canal water revenue was largely opposed in canal colonies in 1905-07 A.D. The song '**Pagri Sambhal Jatta**' composed by Banke Dyal echoed in every home.

The Ghadar Movement

In 1905 A.D., many Punjabis due to economic crisis had to migrate to Fiji, Ghana, Malaya, Canada and America to earn their livelihood. These Punjabis made efforts for the freedom of India while living in foreign lands. The Ghadar Movement was one of the important efforts. American continent was the centre for such movements.

The Indians were looked down upon in foreign countries. The cause of hatred was that the Indians were residents of a slave country. This awakened a democratic feeling of freedom amongst them. Moreover the Indians settled in America, by reading newspapers and books undertook the responsibility of gaining freedom for their country.

The Ghadar Party came into existence in 1913 A.D. in San Francisco (America). Baba Sohan Singh Bhakna was appointed its President, Lala Hardyal its Chief Secretary, Kanshi Ram, Secretary and treasurer, Kesar Singh as Vice-President and Karim Baksh and Munshi Ram the Organizing Secretary of the party.

The organization started publishing a weekly newspaper 'Ghadar' from San Francisco. The editing work of the newspaper was handed over to Kartar Singh Sarabha. The newspaper started its publication in Hindi, Punjabi, Gujarati, Bengali, Pashto and Nepalese. The organization was named Ghadar Party due to this newspaper.

The main objective of newspaper 'Ghadar' was to liberate India through an armed revolt. The Party proposed the following suggestions:

1. To spread a sense of revolt in the Army.
2. To murder the touts of the Britishers.
3. To break jails.
4. To plunder government treasury and police stations.
5. To publish and distribute revolutionary literature.
6. To help the enemies of the Britishers.
7. To accumulate arms.
8. To manufacture bombs.
9. To damage railways, postal and telegraph lines and indulge in destructive activities.
10. To hoist the flag of revolutionaries.
11. To make a list of the revolutionary youth.

After the incident of Kamagata Maru, a large number of Indians returned to their country. They wanted to oust the Britishers from India by joining the Ghadar movement. The British government was very vigilant. Every visitor was searched. On the basis of mere suspicion, the person could be arrested. Those who escaped from the Britishers joined the revolutionaries.

Ras Behari Bose led the Ghadar Party and foreign returned revolutionaries. Kartar Singh Sarabha on returning from America established links with Bhai Parmanand Ji and also established links with Ras Behari Bose after locating the address of his secret hideout in Benaras. Ras Behari Bose sent preachers to Lahore, Ferozepur, Meerut, Ambala, Agra, Kanpur, Allahabad, Benaras, Lucknow, Multan, Jehlum, Kohat, Rawalpindi, Peshawar and Mardan Cantonments etc. Those preachers prepared the soldiers to revolt. Side by side, Kartar Singh Sarabha and Bhai Nidhan Singh Chugh worked with students of Islamia High School, Ludhiana. Sarabha wanted to start a press to publish

Ghadar along with Lala Ram Saran Dass Kapurthala, but could not succeed. Even then he got the newspaper cyclostyled from Ludhiana and Lahore and published it as '**Ghadar Goonj**'. Manufacturing of bombs was started in Jhabewala (Ludhiana) and Lohar Padhi (Nabha). At that time a flag for Independent India was prepared which was distributed at every place by Kartar Singh Sarabha.

It was decided to rebel on the 21st February, 1915 A.D. Kartar Singh Sarabha was to attack Ferozepur. On February 19, he along with his companions reached Ferozepur in the guise of a Kirtani Jatha. But a soldier Kirpal Singh of Amritsar deceived them. As a result, the secret of rebels was disclosed before time. The British government immediately took action. Arms were snatched from the soldiers and they were imprisoned. Many revolutionaries and rebel leaders were arrested. Kartar Singh Sarabha dressed Ras Bihari Bose in a Punjabi dress and sent him to Benaras by train. Lahore conspiracy case was fought and forty six revolutionaries were hanged. Kartar Singh Sarabha was also one of them. He was hanged on November 17, 1915 A.D. One hundred and ninety four revolutionaries were awarded life imprisonment. Those soldiers who had become rebellious were shot dead. Thus, this movement could not succeed.

Kamagata Maru Incident

The economic rules of the British government weakened the Punjabis. As a result, some people went abroad in search of livelihood. In 1910 A.D. almost ten thousand Indians from which 90% were Punjabis had reached America. Punjabis were going to Canada also. The Government of Canada in 1910 A.D. passed a law that in future only those Indians could enter Canada who directly came to Canada from any port of their own country.

On January 24, 1913 A.D. the High Court of Canada cancelled the law of restrictions imposed on Indians. On reading this news many people of Punjab reached ports of Calcutta, Singapore and Hong Kong to go to Canada. But no Shipping Company was ready to take the responsibility to drop Punjabis at Canada out of fear of the Canadian attitude.

Baba Gurdit Singh of village Sarhali, district Amritsar was a contractor at Singapore and Malaya. In 1913 A.D., he started Guru Nanak Navigation Company. In March 24, 1914 A.D. the company rented out a ship, Kamagata Maru from Japan. It was named Guru Nanak Ship. It had 500 passengers on board from Hong Kong. The British Government of Hong Kong could not tolerate this and Gurdit Singh was imprisoned. Although he was released the very next day, yet, because of this incident the number of passengers was

reduced to one hundred and thirty five only.

Guru Nanak Ship reached at the port of Vancouver on May 22, 1914, boarding passengers from Shangai and Cobe ports on the way. But the passengers were not allowed to get down at the port. Baba Gurdit Singh wanted to appeal in the Privy Council but in the end the Indians agreed to return.

On July 23, 1914 A.D. the Kamagata Maru Ship started from Vancouver towards India. When the ship reached the Hugli river, the British Deputy Commissioner of Lahore with 20 Punjabi police officials reached there by Agni boat. After searching the passengers, the ship was harboured 27 kms away on Budge- Budge Ghat. The passengers were ordered that they would be sent to Punjab by train. But those passengers wanted to do some work at Calcutta (Kolkata). But no one listened to them and they disembarked the ship.

In the evening the Punjabis sitting at the railway station had an encounter with the police. As a result 40 persons were killed and many got injured.

Baba Gurdit Singh escaped and reached Punjab. On the birth day of Guru Nanak Dev Ji in 1920 A.D, he surrendered before the police at Nankana Sahib. He was imprisoned for five years. After getting released from the prison, he started living in Calcutta (Kolkata). He died on July 24, 1954 A.D.

Jallianwala Bagh Massacre April 13, 1919 A.D.

In the Central Legislative Council two bills were passed which are called Rowlatt Bills. Through these Bills, the Police and Magistrates were given more powers to suppress the conspiracies. Mahatma Gandhi called for **strike** on March 13, 1919 against it to make the Rowlatt Bills unsuccessful. As a result, there were riots in Ahmad Nagar, Delhi and in some cities of Punjab. To control the disturbed situation, the Deputy Commissioner of Amritsar arrested Dr. Satyapal and Dr Kitchlew, two famous leaders of the province on the orders of the Punjab Government. When the residents of the city came to know about the arrests, they observed **strike** in the city. One of the processions proceeded peacefully towards the house of the Deputy Commissioner. It was stopped outside the gate of the Hall. The soldiers opened fire on them. As a results a few people were killed and many got injured. But the patriots carried the injured on their shoulders and took out the procession. The residents killed five Britishers out of anger. They looted the local banks and set them on fire. A British lady, Miss Sherwood also became victim of their anger. After this massacre, the government handed over the administration of the city to General Dyer.

In the atmosphere of anger and lawlessness, around 25,000 people of Amritsar and from the neighbouring villages gathered for a meeting on April

13, 1919 A.D. the day of Baisakhi in Jallianwala Bagh. General Dyer declared such meetings unlawful, but people did not know about the declaration. General Dyer got the opportunity to take revenge of the killings of the Britishers. He reached the front of the door of Jallianwala Bagh along with 150 soldiers. There was only one narrow way for entering and going out of the Bagh. Standing on the gate of the Bagh, General Dyer ordered the people to disperse in three minutes, which was impossible. After three minutes, General Dyer ordered firing in which about 1000 people were killed and more than 3000 injured.

The Jallianwala Bagh massacre gave a new direction to the freedom movement of the country. Sardar Udham Singh took revenge of this massacre after 21 years by killing Sir Michael O'Dwyer in England (the Lt. Governor of Punjab at the time of Jallianwala Bagh massacre).

Khilafat Movement

After the Jallianwala Bagh incident, the desire to get independence became more strong amongst the Muslim brothers. They hoisted the flag of Khilafat in 1920 and pledged non-cooperation with the British Government in Punjab. Dr Kitchlew, Niaz Hussain and Maulavi Daud raised slogan against the British authority to spread the movement in Punjab. They also opposed the attitude of British Government towards the Sultan of Turkey.

Akali Movement (Gurudwara Reform Movement)

The main cause of the emergence of the Akali Movement in Punjab was the presence of true and sacrificing Granthis like Bhai Mani in Gurudwaras in earlier times. But till 1920 A.D. the Gurudwaras of Punjab came under the control of licentious Mahantas. Sikhs were fed up with the immoral activities of Mahantas and wanted to reform the Gurudwaras. To solve this problem they wanted to take the help of the British Government but were unsuccessful. In November 1920 A.D. the Sikhs passed a resolution to form a committee of Sikh representatives to look after the Gurudwaras. With the efforts of the Sikhs on November 16, 1920 A.D., Shiromani Gurudwara Parbandhak Committee (SGPC), and on December 14, 1920 A.D., Shiromani Akali Dal were constituted.

The Akali Jathas started with the work of getting the Gurudwaras vacated from the licentious Mahantas. They got Gurudwaras of Hasan Abdal, Punja Sahib, Gurudwara of District Shakhupura, Sacha Sauda and Chaula Sahib Gurudwara of Amritsar district vacated. The Akalis had an encounter with the Mahantas at Tarn Taran, Baba Ke Beir at Sialkot and Gurudwara Gojran in Lyallpur (Faisalabad). Even then the Akali Dal kept on working to liberate the Gurudwaras. On February 20, 1921, a big tragedy struck in Gurudwara Nankana Sahib. Although the Akalis reached Gurudwara Sahib peacefully, yet Mahant

Narain Dass got 130 Akalis killed there. The British Government showed no sympathy towards the Akalis, although the Muslims and the Hindus of the province were very sympathetic.

The Keys Affair

The Sikhs had full control over Darbar Sahib, Amritsar. But the British Government did not want that the keys of the Gurudwaras, treasury should be in the hands of the Sikhs. The Britishers took the keys in their possession. The Sikhs opposed it. Many Sikh leaders were arrested and they were awarded hard punishments. With this the opposition of Sikhs became more stiff. Their opposition was also supported by the Congress and the Khilafat Committee. At last, the British Government bowed before the Sikhs and the keys of the treasury of Gurudwara were handed over to Shiromani Gurudwara Parbandhak Committee. The imprisoned Sikhs were also released.

Guru Ka Bagh

When Shiromani Gurudwara Parbandhak Committee (SGPC) and Shiromani Akali Dal were constituted at that time Gurudwara Guru Ka Bagh, Distt Amritsar was in the possession of Mahant Sunder Dass, a dissolute person. The Akalis asked him to reform himself, but he did not bother.

On August 23, 1921, Shiromani Akali Dal sent a Jatha under the leadership of Daan Singh. He took possession of the Gurudwara but the Mahant, claiming his right on the property of the Gurudwara, called the police. As a result, the Jatha was imprisoned. Soon another Jatha was sent by the Akali Dal. The police committed atrocities on that Jatha too. But the Akali Dal did not stop sending Jathas. The people of those Jathas were also maltreated. The maltreatment was criticised across the whole country. At last, the Akali Dal won Guru Ka Bagh Morcha in a peaceful manner.

The Babbar Akali Movement

The Babbar Akali Movement originated to resist the Mahants of Gurudwaras and the police. The Babbar Akalis formed first Jatha of 'Chakarwari' to resist the Government and its touts. The Jatha also came to be known as 'Babbar Akali Jatha' after the publication of the newspaper 'Babbar Akali' by them. The Jatha was established in August 1922.

The main objective of Babbar Akalis was to finish the Government and its touts. In the language of Babbars it was a reforming process (Sodhna). The Babbars believed that if they were able to finish the informers, then the British Government will also fail and leave India. Babbar Akalis wanted to get arms to achieve their objective. Their Singhs also tried to develop arms. They required

money to procure arms. They attempted robberies to collect money and also snatched weapons from the people. They appealed to the Punjabi soldiers to come and join their army along with their arms and take part in the freedom movement.

The Babbars released Babbar Akali Doaba, a cyclostyled newspaper. The donation of the newspaper was that the reader of the newspaper would in turn get the newspaper read by five more people. They published a list of 179 persons whom they wanted to reform. Those whose end was near, were informed through this newspaper. Two or three Babbars used to go to their village and kill the touts. They openly took the responsibility of the killings. Like this, they reformed many touts. They had encounters with the police also.

The Government decided to suppress the Babbars. They were chased. Some of them were caught and some were killed. More than a hundred Babbars were prosecuted. On February 27, 1926 A.D., Jathedar Kishan Singh, Babu Santa Singh, Dharam Singh Hyatpura, Karam Singh Manko, Nand Singh Ghurial and Dalip Singh Dhamia were awarded death sentences.

Although Babbar Movement failed but the movement taught the Punjabis to sacrifice their lives for the freedom of the country.

Morcha of Jaito

Ripudaman Singh, the Maharaja of Nabha got the Anand Marriage Bill passed after becoming the member of the Council of the Governor General. He supported the Sikh Community at the time of Rakab Ganj Gurudwara Morcha. With this, his respect increased throughout the country and in his community. The Britishers did not like the respect and regard given to the Maharaja. The British Government wanted to degrade him on some pretext. At the time of First World War, the Britishers got an opportunity to defame the Maharaja because he refused to send his forces to fight for them. On the other hand, there was a quarrel between the Maharaja of Patiala Bhupinder Singh and Maharaja of Nabha, Ripudaman Singh. The Britishers from Maharaja Patiala's side slapped many cases against Maharaja Nabha. As a result, Maharaja Ripudaman Singh was dethroned.

The dethroning of Maharaja Nabha enraged the Sikhs. The Shiromani Committee took up this matter in its own hands. The Sikhs decided to observe 'Protest Day'. They organized Diwans at various places to make arrangements. A Diwan was also held at Jaito. The police arrested many people. On September 13, 1923 A.D. Gurudwara Gangsar of Jaito was occupied. An Akhand Path was being performed in the Gurudwara at that time. As a result, the path was disrupted. The Sikhs resisted the Britishers and organized their Morcha.

On September 15, 1923 A.D. the Sikhs sent their First Jatha of 25 Sikhs

to Jaito. For six months, Jathas of 25-25 Sikhs were sent. The Government committed atrocities on these Jathas. The Shiromani Committee planned to send Jathas of five hundred members in each Mrocha. First Jatha of 500 people started from Akal Takhat under the leadership of Jathedar Udham Singh Nagoke. Thousands of people entered the boundaries of Nabha State while passing through Majha and Malwa along with the Jatha. The sangat was appealed to go back. None of the Sikhs turned back. When this Jatha was at the distance of one furlong from Gurudwara Gangsar, the machine guns started firing. The Sikhs did not turn back. Many Sikhs became martyrs.

The Morcha of Jaito continued for two years. Jathas of 500-500 members each kept coming to Jaito and continue sacrificing for their country and community. Jathas from outside Punjab Calcutta (Kolkata), Canada, Shanghai and Hong kong also reached Jaiton. At last, police watch was withdrawn, and, in 1925 A.D. the Government was pressed to pass the Gurdwara reform Act and the Akalis ended the Jaito Morcha.

Simon Commission

In the beginning of 1928 A.D. a seven member commission appointed by the British Government came to India. Its Chairman Sir John Simon was a famous lawyer of England. All the members of this commission were Britishers. In this Commission no Indian was included. That is why the Indians decided to boycott the Commission. On October 30, 1928, the Simon Commission reached Lahore. The Punjabis under the leadership of Lala Lajpat Rai held a big demonstration. The Punjabi patriots raised slogans - 'Simon Commission go back', 'Vande Matram'. A British police officer Mr. Saunders hit Lala Lajpat Rai with a lathi on his chest near railway station of Lahore. Lathis were showered on other patriots also. In the lathi charge, many old men, youth, children and women were injured. During lathi charge Lala Ji predicted, "Each hit of lathi on my body would act like a nail in the coffin of the British Government". Lala Lajpat Rai was martyred in November, 1928 due to deep wounds inflicted on him during the lathi charge.

The Naujawan Bharat Sabha

Sardar Bhagat Singh founded 'Naujawan sabha' at Lahore to avenge the death of Lala Lajpat Rai. He himself became its general secretary. The organisation also had the support of the Congress leaders. Soon this organisation became a favourite centre for the revolutionaries.

The main aim of this organisation was to awaken the nationalist feelings of the youth. It used to hold meetings from time to time to discuss the thoughts of Lenin and Marx. The revolutionary movements of other countries were also discussed during these meetings. Bhagat Singh killed police officer Saunders in

Lahore to avenge the death of Lala Lajpat Rai. He threw a bomb on the Assembly Hall. On March 23, 1931, Bhagat Singh, his two companions Rajguru and Sukhdev were executed.

Resolution of Complete Independence

The Congress decided to declare their political objective of 'Purna Swaraj' instead of 'Dominion Status' in the Calcutta Session. According to this decision, a session of Congress was held in Lahore on December 31, 1929. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was the President of this historical session. A resolution for complete independence was passed on that day at mid night on the banks of the river Ravi. Nehru hoisted the National Flag amidst slogans of 'Inquilab Zindabad'. Later the patriots present in session read the resolution. After a few days, the Congress Working Committee released an order that on January 26, 1930 A.D., Independence Day would be celebrated in India.

Praja Mandal Movement

The State of Patiala was backward in the field of education and industry. It was also not politically awakened. During 1928-38 A.D., the middle class peasants were only politically awakened. **Sewa Singh Thikariwala** founded **Patiala Riyasti Dal**. He was arrested on July 9, 1923. At the time of Jaito Morcha, Maharaja of Patiala Bhupendra Singh tried to win Thikariwala in his favour but he did not agree at any cost. Therefore, Maharaja Patiala sent him to Lahore jail. He was elected Jathedar of the Patiala Riyasti Akali Dal and head of Malwa Pratinidhi Khalsa Diwan even in his absence.

In 1925 A.D. according to Gurudwara Act, the Sikhs were released but Sewa Singh Thikariwala was among those persons who were not released. After his release from Lahore Jail, he was again sent to Patiala Jail in September, 1926 A.D. for three years on the charge of theft.

Sewa Singh Thikariwala was arrested on one pretext or the other by Patiala Government on the orders of the British Government. On August 24, 1928 after his release from Patiala Jail, Thikariwala was elected head of Punjab Praja Mandal and Riyasti Praja Mandal. He held conferences to discuss the problems of common people and peasants. He raised his voice against the atrocities committed on the people of Patiala. Baba Hira Singh Bhathal, Harnam Singh Chamak, Sampuran Singh Dhaura, Teja Singh Swatantar, Hardit Singh Bhathal and Baba Sunder Singh also supported him. They resisted Riyasti Government and the British Empire strongly.

Indian National Army

Neta Ji Subhash Chandra Bose passed the ICS examination in 1920. He was appointed on a high government post. But his patriotism forced him to

leave the job and he became a member of the Congress. He extended full co-operation to other leaders for the liberation of the country.

During the Second World War, he was put under house arrest for his anti-government activities. But he escaped from there and reached Burma. In 1943, Subhash Chandra Bose gathered Indians at Singapore and established **Indian National Army**. It also included Punjabi patriots like General Shah Nawaz, General Gurdial Singh Dhillon, Prem Sehgal and General Mohan Singh. The main objective of this army was to oust the British from India. So Netaji Subhash Chander Bose asked the youth to sacrifice their lives and said "Give me your blood and I will give you freedom".

Japan gave full support to the Indian National Army. Netaji established a free empire at Singapore on October 21, 1943 A.D.

On March 1, 1944 A.D., the soldiers of Indian National Army reached Assam via Burma. They besieged Imphal. But on the other hand, the condition of Japan weakened in Second World War. The British Army occupied Rangoon in May 1945. Left with no choice, the soldiers of Indian National Army surrendered. General Shah Nawaj, General Gurdial Singh Dhillon and Prem Sehgal were prosecuted for being traitors.

The case of these officers was heard in November, 1945, at Red Fort, New Delhi. Eminent lawyers like Jawahar Lal Nehru, Tej Bahadur Sapru, Bhula Bhai Desai contested the case. All the three officers were sentenced to life imprisonment which was later rejected. There were protests all over the country. A wave of revolt also spread among the soldiers. The British government realized that they cannot keep the Indians under their suzerainty.

The Punjabis suffered the most when India was partitioned in 1947. Punjab was divided into two parts, Western and Eastern Punjab. Thousands of men, women and children could not enjoy the attainment of freedom. They sacrificed their lives, wealth and everything for the freedom.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 10-15 words.

1. Which cantonments of Punjab revolted at the time of war of Independence in 1857 A.D.?
2. What was the contribution of Sardar Ahmad Khan Kharal in freedom struggle?
3. How did Sri Satguru Ram Singh Ji show non-cooperation with the British Government?
4. Why was Ghadar Movement founded?

5. Write the two causes of the emergence of Akali Movement?
6. Why was Key Morcha organised?
7. Write the causes of Guru Ka Bagh Morcha.
8. What was the objective of Babbars?
9. When did Simon Commission come to India and why was it boycotted?
10. How did Sewa Singh Thikariwala come to Praja Mandal?

(B) Answer the following questions in 30-50 words.

1. Give a description of the revolt organized by Punjabi soldiers in 1857A.D.
2. Why was the revolt of freedom unsuccessful?
3. Which activities of Sri Satguru Ram Singh Ji in 1857 frightened the Britishers?
4. Describe the tragedy that occurred between the Namdharis and the Britishers at Malerkotla.
5. Describe the work done by Arya Samaj in Punjab.
6. Describe the efforts made by Ghadar Party in Punjab.
7. What work was done by Baba Gurdit Singh for people going to Canada?
8. What were the causes of Jallianwala Bagh incident?
9. How did Sardar Udham Singh take revenge of Jallianwala Bagh massacre?
10. Write a note on Khilafat Movement.
11. Describe the incident of Guru Ka Bagh.
12. Write the activities of the Babbars.
13. Write a note on Naujawan Sabha.
14. Write a note on Simon Commission.
15. Describe the work of Praja Mandal.

(C) Answer the following questions in 100-120 words.

1. What efforts were made by Sri Satguru Ram Singh Ji for the freedom of India?
 2. What was the contribution of Arya Samaj in freedom movement in Punjab?
 3. What efforts were made by Ghadar Party in attainment of freedom.
 4. Describe the Kamagata Maru Incident.
 5. Describe the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre.
 6. What is the contribution of Akali Movement in freedom struggle.
 7. Describe Jaito Morcha.
 8. Write a detailed note on the Indian National Army.
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CIVICS



THE CONSTITUTION OF INDIA



PREAMBLE

WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a SOVEREIGN SOCIALIST SECULAR DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC and to secure to all its citizens;

JUSTICE, social, economic and political;

LIBERTY of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;

EQUALITY of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all

FRATERNITY assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation.

IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY this twenty-sixth day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION.

LESSON – I

Features of the Indian Constitution

A Constitution is a fundamental legal document on the basis of which government of a country is run or administered. This fundamental law of the land explains the organization of the organs of government, their functions and their mutual relationships. It lays down boundaries of fundamental rights between citizens and the government. The constitution is supreme law of the land, superior to all laws of the country; and no law can be formulated which either violates a constitution or is not in accordance with it.

In every country a government maintains law and order and peace in the society. This function is performed by the government through legislation. But a government can not make laws of its own and run the administration arbitrarily. The government of the country runs the administration in accordance with the provisions of the constitution. Thus, the constitution is the main source of all laws of the government. The constitution determines the mutual relations of various organs of the government and citizens; and also prohibits the government for its misuse of power.

Preamble of the Constitution

The process of the formation of the Indian Constitution was initiated on December 9, 1946 and it was finally passed by the Constituent Assembly of India on November 26, 1949. The constitution came into effect in the country on January 26, 1950. The Preamble of the constitution indicates the basic principles of the Indian Political System and delineates its fundamental aims and objectives. The Preamble reads as follow:

We, the people of India, having solemnly resolved to Constitute India into a Sovereign, Socialist, Secular Democratic Republic and to secure to all its citizens : Justice, Social, Economic, Political, Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship, and to promote among all fraternity assuring the dignity of the individual and unity and integrity of the Nation, in our Constituent Assembly **this twenty-sixth** day of November, 1949, do hereby adopt, enact and give to ourselves this constitution.

In the above Preamble, India has been declared as Sovereign, Socialist, Secular, Democratic and Republic. A brief explanation of these words is given below:

India is a sovereign state and an independent country; it is supreme in its internal affairs and in its external matters; and free from the control of any

other country. It has absolute freedom in the formulation of domestic and foreign policies.

India is a socialist state means that all its citizens will get equal opportunities for their growth and development; and the state endeavours to lessen differences between the rich and the poor. No citizen is allowed to be exploited. Every citizen will get, social, economic and political justice without any discrimination.

India is a secular state, meaning thereby that it will not patronize any particular religion; and all the religions will be equally respected. No religion will be opposed or oppressed; there will be religious toleration; and the state will not discriminate between its citizens on the basis of religion. And every citizen will get an equal opportunity to grow; and every citizen will be allowed to adopt religion of his or her own choice and will be free to worship in the way he or she likes.

India is a democratic state, this means that the supreme power of the governance will not be vested either in a particular class or classes or a caste or in a political party but will be vested in the people of the country. The people of India run their government through their representatives who are elected by periodical elections; and they are responsible to the people who elect them. In other words, our government is responsible to the people for their policies and actions. The citizens of the country have been bestowed equal democratic rights and freedoms without any discrimination.

India is a Republic, it means that the Head of State will be a President and not a hereditary monarch. The President is elected by the representatives of the people for a fixed tenure by periodical elections. The President represents the people to whom he is responsible. In a republic the supreme power of the governance is vested in the whole of the community. The government remains in office only on the basis of the pleasure of the people or on its own good governance.

It has been clearly indicated in the Preamble of the Constitution that Indian democracy will ensure it's citizens, social, economic and political justice; equality of status and opportunity, freedom, feeling of fraternity, dignity of the individual and integrity of the Nation.

It is important to mention here that words, Socialist, Secular and Integration of the Nation were inserted into the Preamble of the Constitution through 42nd Constitutional amendment in 1976.

Main Features of the Constitution

The main features of the Indian Constitution are enumerated as below:

1. Written and Lengthy : Our Constitution is written, consisting of 395 Articles

anglo with 12 schedules. In its size it is biggest and the most lengthy constitution of the world. It has become lengthy because it explains in detail, federal set up; an attempt has been made to sort out the problems of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes; and also the fundamental rights and directive principles of the state policy have been explained in detail.

2. Flexible and Rigid : Indian Constitution is both flexible and rigid. A flexible constitution can be changed easily and through simple majority of the Parliament. A rigid constitution has a very difficult procedure for its amendments. The British Constitution is an example of the most flexible; and the USA Constitution is the most rigid. But Indian Constitution is neither as flexible as the British nor as rigid as the USA Constitution. In our country a middle path has been devised.

3. A Federal Polity : Another important feature of our constitution is its federal set up. A federal polity has the following essential features: A written and rigid constitution, distribution of powers between union and states, supremacy of the constitution, independence of judiciary and a bicameral legislature. Our constitution has all these features of a federal polity.

But along with federal features, our constitution also has some of the elements of a unitary government which are explained as below:

- (a) In the constitution, India has been declared as a union of states and not a federation. The word union reflects deeper feelings of national unity than the federation.
- (b) During an emergency the President assumes powers and controls the state government, thus a federal system is transformed into a unitary one.
- (c) In India single citizenship is granted to its citizens. In many federal states like U.S.A and Canada, dual citizenship is granted to their citizens.
- (d) All the important subjects like defence, finance, railways, industry, foreign affairs, banks and currency etc are included in the union lists; and this has made the union government very powerful.
- (e) There is one constitution for the whole country, and states have no separate constitutions of their own.
- (f) The Governors of states are appointed by the President and they remain in office at his pleasure.
- (g) States largely depend upon the union government for its financial assistance.
- (h) Higher Courts in India has the power, of Judicial review under this power the Supreme Court or a High Court can declare a law passed by

the Parliament or State Legislature or an executive order issued either by the President or the Governor, null and void if it violates the constitution.

The above facts obviously prove that although the Indian Constitution is federal in form but it is unitary in spirit.

4. Independent Judiciary : For the success of a federal polity it is essential to ensure and protect the rights of the citizens and states. For this an independent judiciary is essential, and independent judiciary is that which delivers its decisions without greed, coercion, pressure or influence and in accordance with law of the land. The independent judiciary always takes its decisions impartially either concerning disputes between citizens and state or between the center and states. Under the Indian Constitution provisions are made to constitute the Supreme Court and State High Courts in a manner so that these can deliver independent and impartial decisions.

5. Parliamentary System : In India a parliamentary system of government has been established. Under this government the President as a head of the state is nominal; and real powers of the government are vested in the Cabinet headed by the Prime-minister. The Cabinet is responsible to the Lower House (Lok Sabha) of the Parliament for its policies and decisions. Thus, the government is responsible indirectly to the people of India. This parliamentary form of government is adopted on the pattern of England. The Parliamentary government has also been adopted by Japan, Canada, Australia, Bangladesh etc.

6. Adult Franchise : The Preamble of Indian Constitution starts with the words: 'we, the people' which establishes the supremacy of the people; and it symbolises that this constitution is made by the people of India. Every adult who has attained the age of 18, has right to vote, without discrimination of caste, class, colour, creed or religion and sex. He elects his representative from a village Panchayat to the Parliament periodically; and thus he participates in the formation process of his government. These representatives and their government are responsible to the people. In short, the people are masters and the government is their servant.

7. Fundamental Rights : In the Third Chapter of the Constitution, the fundamental rights of the citizens are enumerated. The rights to equality, liberty, freedom of religion, right against exploitation, educational and cultural rights and right to constitutional remedies are enlisted in detail in the constitution. These rights are not only essential for the happiness and growth of a citizen but also for the successful working of a democracy in India.

8. Directive Principles : Directive Principles of the State Policy are enumerated

in the Fourth Part of the Constitution. If fundamental rights are meant for establishing a political democracy in India, the directive principles aim at for the creation of social and economic democracy. These principles are guiding stars for formulation of policies and for running the administration by the union and state governments.

9. Fundamental Duties : The duties of an Indian citizen were not mentioned in the original constitution. It was under the 42nd constitutional amendment in 1976, a new chapter Part IVA was added and in the article 51A, ten duties of a citizen were prescribed. In the year of 2002 under the 86th constitutional amendment one more duty has been added in the same chapter.

10. Emergency Powers : The Indian Constitution provides to the President three types of emergency powers, to declare a national emergency, a state emergency and a financial emergency. The constitution makers felt strongly that as its social fabric and in the historical background of India, a dangerous situation may develop in the country in which it may not be possible to run the administration smoothly as under the ordinary circumstances. Therefore, in order to deal with such a difficult situation, the President has been provided emergency powers.

The President can declare a national emergency in the case of aggression or threat of aggression or an armed rebellion in any part of the country. Under such an emergency, the President can put limitation or suspend any right or rights of citizens; and can also transform federal polity in to a unitary one. He can declare a state emergency when there is a breakdown of a constitutional machinery of a state or a state does not obey constitutional orders of the President; he can suspend or dissolve the Legislative Assembly as he deems fit.

11. Unique Features : Apart from the above features, the Indian Constitution has some unique features like single citizenship, single integrated judiciary, Hindi in Devnagari script as an official language along with 18 regional languages, prohibition of defection, ban on untouchability, right to property without constitutional provision, a constitution chosen on the pattern of various countries, a constitution federal in form but unitary in spirit and a harmonious combination of flexibility and rigidity in the constitution.

India is a plural society. In it there are people of different races, castes, religions, classes, cultures, and languages. In our society there are minorities of

various kinds. The constitution of India has provisions which guarantee them their independent identity, existence and equal opportunities for their growth and development. This was essential for the feeling of fraternity, strength, unity and integrity of the Nation.

Fundamental Rights

In the Third Part of the Constitution from article 14 to 32 grant important fundamental rights to Indian Citizens. These rights are fundamental because firstly, they are essential for citizens to live democratically and are guaranteed by the constitution; secondly, effective procedure for their enforcement is laid down in the constitution, and in case a citizen is deprived any of these rights he can approach a court of law for their protection; and thirdly, ordinary rights of citizens can be amended through ordinary process of law but not the fundamental rights because they have a constitutional guarantee.

The constitution provides the following six fundamental rights to our citizens:

1. **Right to Equality** : In Indian Society there were a variety of inequalities and discriminations, therefore, the Father of the constitution gave priority to the right to equality. The Indian citizens are ensured the right to equality under the following provisions of the constitution :
 - (a) **Equality before law** : All the citizens are equal before law and laws are applicable to all without any discrimination.
 - (b) **Prohibition to discrimination** : The State is prohibited to discriminate against a citizen on the basis of race, caste, sex, religion or place of birth.
 - (c) **Equality of opportunity** : Equal opportunities will be provided to all citizens for employment under the state. No discrimination will be made between citizens on the basis of religion, caste, race, language, sex, birth and residence for employment.
 - (d) **Abolition of untouchability** : In India since time immemorial the evil of untouchability was in existence. It has been abolished and its practice has been prohibited under the law and the constitution. If any citizen resorts to untouchability, he can be punished under the law.
 - (e) **Abolition of titles** : According to the constitution except military and academic titles, state will not confer any other title like Sir, Sardar, Bahadur, Rai Bahadur etc. to the citizens. No Indian citizen or a person who is occupying any office of profit under the state, will accept any title to be conferred by other state without consent of the President of India.

2. **Right to Freedom** : After the right to Equality, the framers of the constitution, accorded next importance to right to Freedom. To them right to freedom was not only essential for the happiness and growth of a citizen, but it was also a pillar for the success of a democracy. Under the 19th Article of the constitution, the following six Freedoms are provided to every citizen :

- (1) Freedom of speech and expression
- (2) Freedom to assemble peacefully and without arms
- (3) Freedom to form associations or unions
- (4) Freedom to move freely through out the territory of India
- (5) Freedom to reside and settle in any part of the territory of India
- (6) Freedom to practise any profession or carry on any occupation, trade or business

3. **Right against Exploitation** : The constitution bars traffic in human beings and prohibits Begar or Work free of charge by influential people. The violation of above provisions can be punished under the law. The constitution also says that children under the age of 14, should not be employed for gainful purposes where their growth is crippled.

4. **Right to freedom of Religion** : The constitution has decreed India a secular state. A secular state is that where no particular religion is accorded priority or supremacy over other religions; and all religions are respected. The following religious freedoms are granted to the citizens:

- (a) Freedom to profess or practise any religion
- (b) Freedom to manage religious affairs
- (c) Freedom from payment of taxes for the promotion of any particular religion
- (d) Freedom to attend at religious instruction or worship in certain educational institutions.
- (e) No religious instructions can be imparted in state educational institutions.

5. **Cultural and educational right** : India is a country of many religions, languages and cultures. The constitution provides protection to the rights of minorities as explained below:

- (a) Every community which has a language and a script of its own, has the right to conserve and develop them.
- (b) No citizen can be discriminated for admission in state or state aided educational institution because of religion or language or race or caste.

- (c) All the minorities religious or linguistic, can set up their own educational institutions. This might help them in preserving and developing their own culture.
 - (d) The state while granting aid to any educational institution will not discriminate on the basis if it is being managed by a religious or linguistic minority.
6. **Right to constitutional remedies** : It will not suffice to grant rights to citizens by a constitution. To respect and get them executed is more important. If a government of the time violate, any of these rights, then a citizen must have a legal remedy against these violations. The constitution makes some special provisions in this regard.

There is a special right in the constitution which is called the right to constitutional remedies. The constitution gives to every citizen the right to go to the courts to enforce his rights. He can challenge any act of the government against his rights.

Keeping in mind the above provisions of the constitution, and hard facts based on ground reality, a critic comments : The Indian Constitution gives rights from one hand and takes back from another.

Fundamental Duties

Rights and Duties are inseparable. Rights can not exist without the performance of duties. Therefore, the constitutions of many countries have enumerated main duties of citizens along with their rights. In the original Indian Constitution, no provision was made for the fundamental duties of a citizen. It was only through 42nd amendment of the constitution in 1976, a new chapter IVA was added; and under article 51A, Ten Duties of a citizen were enumerated as below:

1. To abide by the constitution and respect its ideals, institutions, the National flag and the National anthem.
2. To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our National struggle for Freedom.
3. To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India.
4. To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so.
5. To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women.

6. To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture.
7. To protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wild life and to have comparison for living creatures.
8. To develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of enquiry and reform.
9. To safe guard public property and to adjure violence.
10. To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the Nation constantly rises higher level of endeavour and achievements.
11. Who is parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years.

The list of duties prescribed under 42nd constitutional amendment are criticized on the ground that these are neither complete nor they have legal sanction behind them. In our view these are moral duties and moral force behind them may prove to be more effective. Moreover, the obedience of duties depend upon upbringing of an individual, his cultivated sense of responsibility and sensitiveness of his soul.

Directive Principles of the State Policy

The Fathers of constitution on the advice of Sir, B.N Rao and inspired by the Irish constitution enumerated Directive Principles of the State Policy in the Fourth part of the constitution. The constitution makers have given some valuable directions through these Principles for future union and state governments. The union and state governments are directed to base their policies and programmes on these Directive Principles. The aim of these instructions is to create congenial economic and social conditions in which citizens of our country may grow and may lead a good life. If fundamental rights are meant to establish a political democracy, these Directive Principles, aim at for creating a social and economic democracy in India.

The makers of the constitution did not adhere to one particular ideology. Their thinking and ideas were largely influenced by Socialist, Gandhian and Liberal ideologies. They endeavoured to incorporate all these ideologies in Directive Principles, which they rightly thought would lead to maximum welfare of all sections of Indians.

The constitution has not classified these directive principles in any specific manner. Prof. M.P. Sharma has classified them into the following three categories:

- (A) **Socialistic Principles** :
1. The state has been instructed to create a new society; the aim of which should be welfare of all, and growth in every sphere of human life; and citizens should be provided social, economic and political justice.
 2. Every citizen should have a right to adequate livelihood.

3. The distribution of material resources of the country should be such so that maximum welfare of maximum people may take place.
4. The economic system should be such so that the wealth and means of production are not got concentrated into a few hands.
5. Man and woman should get equal pay for equal work.
6. In case of long illness, unemployment, old age and disability of a citizen, the state should help or aid him according to its resources.
7. State should provide a reasonable pay, appropriate leave and a good standard of living to every class of labourers.
8. State should provide compulsory and free education to all children up to the age of 14.
9. State should strive to reduce the inequalities of income among its citizens.

(B) **Gandhian Principles** : The framers of the constitution were deeply influenced by the concept of Ram-Rajya of Mahatma Gandhi, the father of the nation. He had a dream of new Indian society. We get a glimpse of Gandhian ideology through the following directive principles :

1. State should establish Panchayats in the villages and empower them in a manner so that they could work as a unit of Swaraj.
2. State should encourage cottage and co-operative industries in the villages.
3. State should endeavour to provide educational facilities for weaker sections of society like Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes; and state should provide social justice to these classes and protect them against any kind of exploitation or injustice.
4. State should endeavour for prohibition of all kinds of intoxicants which are harmful for health of citizens.
5. State should consider it its obligatory function to improve living and health standards of its people.

(C) **Liberal or General Principles** : The following directive principles are categorized as liberal or general principles because they are not related to any particular ideology :

1. State should strive to prepare a uniform civil code for the entire country.
2. State should endeavour to separate, judiciary from the executive.
3. State should attempt to manage agriculture on scientific lines.

4. State should endeavour to improve animal husbandry and stocks of animals.
5. State should ban Cow-slaughter and improve their stock and of other milking animals.
6. In order to protect and improve environment, the state should endeavour to protect wild life.
7. The historical places and things of archeological value in the country should be saved from the extinction.

Evaluation : To a few critics, the Directive Principles are merely empty promises or pious feelings for the needy and poor. To others, a majority of Directive Principles are neither logical nor practicable. To a few others these are absolutely useless because they have no legal sanction. In spite of above criticism, in our view these are not useless. Many of them are basic principles which can prove the guiding star for establishing a welfare state; and a few of them had proved to be a beacon light for courts while making their decisions on vital issues. For common masses they may be a touch-stone to judge the performance or achievements of the union or state governments. If any government does not follow these directions, will bring its own peril because people at the time of elections can teach bitter lessons to such a government while voting it out of power.

Differences between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles

If we deeply study the 3rd and 4th part of the Indian Constitution, it appears that 4th chapter on Directive Principles is an extension of 3rd chapter on Fundamental Rights; in our view both these chapters primarily deal with fundamental rights of the Indian citizens. However, the following points will show differences between the two:

1. Fundamental Rights are justifiable, where as provisions of Directive Principles are not enforceable by the courts of law. If the state violates any of fundamental rights, a citizen can approach a court of law and get his rights enforced. For instance, if a citizen is jailed by the police without any valid reason, he can go to the court and court will direct the government to free him on the other hand, if a citizen is unemployed, he can not get a writ from the court, directing the state to provide him a job as the state has the direction under the Directive Principles.
2. The Fundamental Rights are negative in nature while Directing Principles are positive. By negative nature of fundamental rights means that they put limitations on the powers of the state. And the positive nature of directive principles means that they encourage the state for doing specific good functions.

3. Some of the Directive Principles are superior to Fundamental Rights because they are meant for the welfare of the whole society instead an individual.
4. If the sole aim of fundamental rights is to establish a political democracy, then the purpose of directive principles is to create a new social and economic democracy. To our way of thinking the harmonious combination of the two would lead to a true democracy in India.

Exercises

(A) Answer the following questions in 1-15 words :

1. What do you mean by a constitution ?
2. What is depicted in the Preamble of the Indian constitution ?
3. With what words the Preamble begins with ?
4. Enumerate any one feature of the constitution.
5. What do you understand by a federal constitution ?
6. Enumerate any one features of the Indian federation.
7. Mention any one fundamental right of an Indian citizen.
8. Enumerate any one constitutional duties of an Indian citizen.

(B) Answer the following questions in 50-60 words :

1. Explain, India is a secular, democratic and a republic.
2. Explain aims and objectives as shown in the Preamble.
3. Describe each of the following fundamental rights :
 - (a) Right to equality
 - (b) Right to freedom
 - (c) Right against exploitation
 - (d) Right to constitutional remedies
4. Elaborate each of the following category of directive principles:
 - (a) Socialist principles
 - (b) Gandhian principles
 - (c) Liberal or general principles
5. Explain the basic differences between fundamental rights and directive principles

6. How India is Federal in form but unitary in Spirit ?
 7. Why and when the fundamental duties of Indian citizens were inserted in the constitution ?
 8. Explain two basic reasons because of which our constitution has become the bulkiest in the world.
 9. Explain the meaning and significance of the words :
'Fraternity, unity and integrity, of the Nation used in the preamble of the constitution.
 10. What is the significance of directive principles ?
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LESSON – II

The Central Government

India is a federal state. In such a state there are two governments – Union and State. The union government administers the territory of the whole country, while a state government runs the administration of a state. In this chapter we will discuss the organization, structure and powers of three organs of the union government. The three organs of the union government are the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. At the union level legislature means parliament consisting of the House of People and the Council of States; the executive means primarily the President, the Prime-minister and the Council of Ministers; and Judiciary, the Supreme Court. Now we will explain the working of the Union Government as below:

Parliament

The Indian Parliament consists of two chambers-the House of People (Lok Sabha) and the Council of States (Rajya Sabha). The House of People is directly elected by adult citizens of India. The Council of States is elected indirectly by the elected members of the state legislative assemblies.

The House of People (Lok Sabha)

Constitution : Under the 31st constitutional amendment in 1973, the membership of the Lok Sabha was reduced from 550 to 545. Among them 530 members represent states, 13 members union territories and remaining two can be nominated by the President who represent to Anglo-Indians.

Qualifications : The essential qualifications to become a member of the Lok Sabha are : A citizen of India, more than 25 years of age, no office of profit under either the union or state government; should neither be an insane nor a declared insolvent or debarred by a law court for its membership and to fulfill all qualifications as laid down by parliamentary law.

Tenure and Salary : The term of the Lok Sabha is for five years. Only, at times of Emergency, this term can be extended by Parliament by one year at a time. The President on the recommendations of the union council of ministers can dissolve it before its full term of five years expires. For instance, the Lok Sabha was dissolved earlier its term was over, in 1971, 80, 84, 89, 91 and 1998; only once its term was extended for one year in 1976.

The pay and allowances or perks of its members are determined by Parliament from time to time. The members are also entitled for their pension after their retirement.

Membership Table of Lok Sabha

Members of States in Lok Sabha				Member of Union Territories In Lok Sabha	
1. Uttar Pradesh	80	15. Haryana	10	1. Delhi	7
2. Bihar	40	16. Jammu & Kashmir	6	2. Chandigarh	1
3. Maharashtra	48	17. Himachal Pradesh	4	3. Pondicherry	1
4. Andhra Pradesh	25	18. Manipur	2	4. Daman & Deu	1
5. West Bengal	42	19. Meghalaya	2	5. Lakshadweep	1
6. Madhya Pradesh	29	20. Tripura	2	6. Dadra & Nagar Haveli	1
7. Tamilnadu	39	21. Goa	2	7. Andaman Nicobar	1
8. Karnataka	28	22. Arunachal Pradesh	2		
9. Gujarat	26	23. Sikim	1		
10. Rajasthan	25	24. Mizoram	1	Total Member	13
11. Orissa	21	25. Nagaland	1		
12. Kerala	20	26. Chhattisgarh	11		
13. Assam	14	27. Uttaranchal	5		
14. Punjab	13	28. Jharkhand	14		
		29. Telangana	17		
		Total Members	530		

Speaker of Lok-Sabha

After General Elections, the members of the Lok Sabha elect a Speaker and a Deputy Speaker to conduct the business of the House. Normally, speaker belongs to a majority party.

Rajya Sabha

India is a federal state; and states are represented in Rajya Sabha as it is essential that they should participate in the legislation at the centre. The total membership of Rajya Sabha is fixed at 250. Out of these 238 members represent states and union territories and 12 member, are nominated. They are nominated by the President and are the people who are eminent in the fields of literature, science, art or social service. The members Rajya Sabha are elected through proportional method of election by the members of the legislative assemblies of states and union territories. Thus, Rajya Sabha is indirectly elected.

Rajya Sabha is a permanent chamber and can't be dissolved like Lok Sabha before its term is over. The individual members has 6 years tenure in one term. The qualifications of a member of Rajya Sabha are similar to those of the members of Lok Sabha except that their minimum age is 30 years.

The Vice-President is ex-officio Chairman of Rajya Sabha. As a chairman he conducts all its proceedings and presides over its meetings. The members of Rajya Sabha elect their Vice-Chairman from amongst themselves. He performs all the functions of chairman in his absence; and in such a situation all the powers of the chairman are exercised by him.

Powers of the Parliament

Parliament is the supreme organ of the government. Under the various articles of the constitution, the following powers are granted to the Parliament:

1. **Legislative Powers :** Parliament can legislate on all the subjects included in the union and concurrent list. Under special situations it can also legislate for short period over the subjects included in the state list. Briefly speaking, Parliament has vast Legislative Powers as it can pass new laws or can end or abolish old laws.
2. **Executive Powers :** The constitution grants vast powers to the Parliament to keep the executive under control. In a Parliamentary government, the executive is a part of the legislature; the Prime-minister and other ministers are members of either House of Parliament; and if a minister is not a member of the Parliament, he must become it's member within six months; and if he fails to become it's member within stipulated time, he will have to resign.

The Council of ministers headed by the Prime Minister are responsible to the Lok Sabha for their policies, decisions and functions. If the Lok Sabha Passes a vote of No-confidence against the council of ministers, It will resign. sometimes the council of ministers has to seek a vote of confidence in Lok Sabha. Members of Lok Sabha can ask questions from the minister regarding their departments. Sometime for the wrong action of one minister, whole council of minister has to design.

3. **Financial Powers :** Parliament has complete control over financial matters of the government and its annual budget. It has an open eye over the expenditure incurred by the government. All taxes are levied by the government with the approval of Parliament; and old taxes either can be amended or ended by Parliament. The Government can neither withdraw money from, nor can deposit in the treasury without Prior consent of the Parliament. Briefly speaking,

Parliament has complete control over the national treasury or wealth. According to medison "who so ever has money, possesses the real power". On the basis of this Principle, Indian Parliament is the fountain of all powers of the state.

4. **Judicial Powers** : Parliament is primarily a legislative body; and it does not exercise direct judicial powers. However, the constitution has provided the following judicial powers to Parliament:

- (a) Parliament can impeach President for violation of the constitution or his misconduct.
- (b) Parliament is empowered to evaluate the conduct of judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts. If both the houses of Parliament pass a resolution separately against the misconduct of a Judge of the Supreme Court or High Court, then the President can remove him through a warrant.
- (c) Parliament is authorized to Judge the work and conduct of some constitutional high functionaries of the union government like Attorney General of India, comptroller and Auditor General, Chief-Election Commissioner of India etc.

Procedure of Law-making

The proposal for a law is called a bill. A bill can be introduced in either House of Parliament and it can be presented either by a minister or by any member of the house. Who so ever introduces the bill, it is debated and considered several times in the houses. An ordinary bill has to pass through the following stages before it is finally enacted :

First Reading : The first stage of a bill is its introduction in the house, along with a statement of its objects and reasons. There is no discussion on the bill at this stage. If the House gives assent to the bill, this introduction stage is called the first reading of the bill.

Second Reading : During the Second Reading there is general discussion on the bill, and the bill is discussed clause by clause. This is a stage when a bill may undergo some changes either in language or in content. Sometimes, a bill may be sent to a small committee after the general discussion so that it may carefully study the bill and make appropriate recommendations to the house. In such cases the bill is discussed again clause by clause by the house after it comes back from the committee.

Third Reading : Third Reading which is a simple affair. The bill as a whole is put to vote in the house, and if the bill is passed by simple majority, it is passed and sent to the other house for its consideration.

Other house and assent : When a bill goes to other house, here too the procedure of the first house is followed. If the bill is passed by majority in the house, it goes to the President for his assent. When it gets his assent, it enters in the statute book and becomes a law of the land.

Procedure of Money Bill

The procedure for passing a money bill has been laid down in the constitution. Money Bills are those bills which have some thing to do with either levying or reducing or abolishing of taxes, borrowing or lending money or to draw or deposit money in the consolidated fund of India, or any item concerning money. According to the constitution it is essential for the President to get the budget prepared and presented before both of the houses of Parliament every year. Generally, a budget is presented in the last week of February by the finance minister before the Lok Sabha. Three days after the budget presentation, there is discussion and debate over it in both houses of Parliament. The finance minister throws light on the financial policies and conditions of the nation.

There is general discussion on the budget and debate on the demands. The Lok Sabha alone has power either to reduce or amend or reject demands in the budget. In case a demand is rejected or amended by the Lok Sabha, the government will have to resign.

First, all the demands are discussed in the Lok Sabha and then passed by it; these demands and the expenditures to be incurred from the Consolidated Fund of India are consolidated in the shape of a bill called Appropriation Bill. This bill is presented in the Lok Sabha. This bill must go through all the stages through which ordinary bill passes.

When the Appropriation Bill is passed by the Lok Sabha, it goes to the Rajya Sabha for its recommendations. The Rajya Sabha must send back this bill within 14 days along with its recommendations. The Lok Sabha may or may not accept these recommendations. In either case, even if the Lok-Sabha decides that it will not accept any of recommendations, the bill is passed. If the Rajya Sabha does not send back the appropriation Bill within 14 days to the Lok Sabha, then the bill is sent to the President for his assent. President is bound to give his assent because he has given it a prior permission. After Presidential assent the appropriation bill becomes Financial Act of the land.

Here it is pertinent to mention that the money bills can only be introduced in the Lok Sabha; and they can not be introduced in the Rajya Sabha. Money Bills are sent to the Rajya Sabha only for its recommendations which the Lok Sabha may or may not accept.

Union Executive

In India we have a parliamentary system of government. Under this system, there are two sides of the executive branch of government; a nominal executive and the real executive. President is the nominal head of the executive; and the council of ministers headed by the Prime-minister is the real executive.

President

According to the constitution all the executive powers of the union are vested in the President. The administration of the country is run in his name. All the decisions and orders of the union government are issued in his name.

The President exercises all his constitutional powers on the advice of the council of ministers. It is the council of ministers which decides about the affairs of administration, the President only signs over these decisions. Briefly, the President is a nominal or constitutional head of the executive, where as the council of ministers led by the Prime-minister is the real executive.

Election: President is elected indirectly by the elected representatives of the people;

Qualifications : The constitution prescribes the following qualifications for the post of a President:

1. A citizen of India
2. Above 35 years of age
3. Should not hold office of profit either under the union or state government.
4. Should be qualified to be a member of the Lok Sabha.

Tenure : The President is elected for a term of 5 years. He can also seek reelection for another term.

Salary : The salary of the President is decided by the Parliament from time to time. Presently, he gets One Lakh Fifty Thousand per month as salary, and other allowances. His emoluments cannot be reduced during the term of his office.

Powers of the President :-

The following powers granted to the President by the constitution are exercised by him on the advice of the council of ministers:

Executive Powers :

The President is the chief-executive of the nation. He appoints the Prime-minister and for his advice other ministers. The council of ministers remain in office on the pleasure of the President; but in reality it remains in office so long as it enjoys the confidence of the Lok Sabha.

President has a vast power of Patronage. The most important officials are appointed by him; and these include State Governors, Union Territories Lt. Governors, Attorney General, Controller and Auditor General, the Chief Election Commissioner and Other Election Commissioners, Chairman and Other members of UPSC. Ambassadors of Other Countries present their credentials letters to the President and they can stay here after consent.

The President is the Supreme Commander of Defence Forces of India. Under his orders all high ranking officers of defence forces like army Generals, air marshals and Naval admirals are promoted and transferred. He alone can declare war, make peace and conclude treaties with other countries.

Legislative Powers

In our Parliamentary system of government, the President is a part of Parliament. He summons the session of parliament and prorogues them. But the gap between one session of Parliament and next cannot be more than six months. He inaugurates the session of Parliament by addressing the Lok Sabha after a general election and also at the beginning of the first session of every year. His address on these occasions is actually meant to outline the policies of the government.

A bill that has been passed by Parliament will become law only when the President gives an assent to it. He can, however, return a non-money bill to the Parliament for reconsideration only once. If the Parliament sends it back to him for second time, he must give his assent to it.

When Parliament is not in session and the government considers it very necessary to have law, the President can Promulgate an ordinance; and this ordinance is obeyed by all like a law. The ordinances are valid only for six months. These ordinances are submitted to the Parliament during the next session. They remain valid for not more than 6 weeks from the date the Parliament is convened unless approved by it even earlier. If the Parliament does not approve an ordinance, then it is lapsed.

Financial Powers :

The President enjoys some important financial powers. He causes the financial survey to be laid down before the Parliament. Among the most important financial powers of the President is regarding the annual financial statement, popularly known as the government's budget. The budget contains the government estimates about its expected receipts and expenditure or how much it will have income and expenditure. The President causes the budget to be laid down before the Lok Sabha. His prior consent is required for presenting a financial bill in the Lok Sabha.

Judicial Powers :

The constitution provides some important judicial powers to the President. During his tenure of office, he can not be sued in any court of the land. The following are some specific judicial powers:

- (a) The President has power to grant pardon or reduce the sentence awarded to a criminal.
- (b) He appoints the chief justice of India and other judges are appointed by him in consultation with the chief justice. He also appoints the chief justices and other judges of High-Court,

Emergency Powers :

As in the case of human life so also in the case of a nation there may arise a difficult situation or an emergency. To deal with such situations constitution provides powers to the President, and to which we call his emergency powers. He is empowered to declare three types of emergencies : A national emergency caused by a war or external aggression or armed rebellion, and a state emergency caused by the breakdown of constitutional machinery of a state and financial emergency. The explanation of these emergency powers is given below:

(a) National Emergency

If the President thinks that the security of the country is endangered by a war or external aggression or armed rebellion threatening the integrity of the country, he can declare a state of emergency for the whole nation or any part of it. Such a declaration must be approved by Parliament within one month. Such National emergencies have been declared thrice so far; first, at the time of Chinese attack on October 20, 1962, secondly, at the time of Pakistani aggression on December, 1971 and thirdly, it was declared on June 25, 1975 because of fear of internal rebellion in the country.

During such Emergencies the Fundamental Rights of the citizens may be curbed or suspended for example in June 1975 during internal emergency the rights of the citizens were curbed, and even right to constitutional remedies was denied.

(b) Constitutional Emergency : If the President receives a report from a State Governor or gets information from any other source that the government in the state can not be carried on in accordance with the constitution, the President can declare emergency in the State. Technically, this is called emergency arising out of a breakdown of the constitutional machinery.

(c) Financial Emergency : When the President thinks that there is an economic situation of the country in which financial stability or the credit of India is

threatened, he can declare a financial emergency. During this emergency, the President can reduce the salaries of all government officials, including the judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts. All money bill passed by the state legislatures are submitted to the President for his approval. So far in India such an emergency has not been declared.

Vice-President

The constitution also provides for the office of the Vice-President. It lays down the same qualifications as that of the President. His election is different from the President's. He is elected by an electoral college, consisting of members of both houses of Parliament. During the absence or illness of the President, he assumes the office of President and performs all his functions. He is elected for a period of 5 years. He can be removed prior to the expiry of his term. The Vice-President acts as an ex-officio chairman of the Rajya Sabha. He presides over its meetings and conducts all its proceedings. He conducts the business of the House according to its rules. He draws his salary as a chairman of the Rajya Sabha;

The Prime-Minister

In our Parliamentary form of Government, the Prime-minister is the most powerful; the President holds an office of great, prestige, but very little power. It is the Prime-minister who enjoys a pre-eminence position in the union government. Dr. B.R Ambedkar remarks : If any functionary under our constitution is to be compared with USA President, he is the Prime-minister and not the President of the union. Thus Indian Prime-minister is one of the most powerful rulers in the world of democracy.

Appointment :

Constitution says the Prime-minister will be appointed by the President; and in reality he appoints such a person as the Prime-minister who is an elected leader of majority party or enjoys majority in the Lok-Sabha. Constitutionally, the Prime-minister and his council of ministers remain in office till the pleasure of the President; but in reality they remains in office as long as they enjoy a majority in the Lok-Sabha.

Powers of the Prime-minister : The powers of the Prime-ministers are as below:

Formation of Government : After the general elections of the Lok Sabha, the President appoints the leader of the majority party as a Prime-minister and invites him to form the government.

Distribution of Portfolios : The Prime-minister has a privilege to allot portfolios

to his ministers. Influential party leader pressurize him to allot them important or a particular portfolio or department; but ultimate power of decision in this regard lies with the Prime-minister.

Head : The Prime-minister as a head of the Council of ministers presides over the meetings of the Cabinet. He decides agenda, place, date and timing of cabinet meetings. He heads and conducts all the meetings of the Cabinet. His decision is final. He co-ordinates the work of different ministries and smoothens out frictions, if they arise. In other words, he settles differences or disputes among either his colleagues or in various departments.

A Link Between the President and Council of Ministers: The Prime-minister acts as a link between the President and his Council of ministers. Thus it is the constitutional duty of the Prime Minister is, to inform about the decisions of the Cabinet to the President. The President can ask a specific information about any department from the Prime Minister. It is with the permission of the Prime Minister alone a minister can meet or seek advice of the President. Briefly, the Prime Minister acts as a facilitator between the President and his colleagues.

A Chief Spokesman : The President is the head a nation and the Prime-minister heads the government. He is the chief spokesman of the government who represents government at various levels; and he announces main policies and major decisions of the government before the Parliament or the public forums. He has a powerful effect on the people's mind because layman usually and quite rightly associates the entire government with the Prime-minister.

Leader of the lower house : The Prime-minister is considered as the leader of the lower house (Lok Sabha). The Lok Sabha during every crisis or a difficult time expect him to lead them to right path and wriggle out of that difficult situation. The Lok Sabha cannot do anything against the wishes of the Prime-minister because he as a leader enjoys confidence of its majority. All important policies or decisions of the government are announced by him in the House. Speaker in consultation with the Prime Minister finalizes all business or programmes of the Lok Sabha.

Head of the Union government : Prime Minister is head of the government where as the President is the head of the state. He is the chief spokesman and representative of the Indian government.

The Council of Ministers

The Constitution vests the union executive powers in the President. But he cannot use them as he wishes. The powers of the President are nominal because he is bound by the advice of the council of ministers. Thus, the Council of ministers is the real executive of the union which runs the administration of

entire country under the leadership of the Prime Minister.

Appointment : First, the President appoints the Prime-Minister, and on his advice other ministers are appointed. The Prime Minister submits a list of his colleagues to the President, and the President appoints ministers whose names are included in the list, he cannot appoint a person as a minister whose name is not recommended by the Prime Minister. Thus, the decision to appoint a minister finally rests with the Prime Minister.

Normally, four type of ministers can be appointed in a council of ministers : Cabinet, State, Deputy-minister and a Parliamentary Secretary. The cabinet ministers enjoy a highest status as they are members of the interim committee (cabinet) of the council of ministers. They are independent heads of important departments, and formulate all basic policies of the union government.

The Minister of State are below in status to the cabinet ministers, and they do not ordinarily participate in the deliberations or meetings of the Cabinet. The minister of state are appointed to help cabinet ministers in running their departments smoothly and efficiently. Sometime a Ministers of State can also be assigned an independent charge of an important department. The Deputy-Ministers are appointed only to assist the cabinet or a minister of state. The Parliamentary Secretaries, are not ministers; and constitutionally they can't be assigned any administrative responsibility; and their main function is to assist the ministers who head some important departments in their parliamentary affairs.

Functions and Powers : The Council of Ministers led by the Prime-minister is the real union executive; and performs the following functions:

- (a) Formulates the national policies and executes them
- (b) Take decisions to summon or prorogue sessions of the Parliament; the speech or address of the President in the Parliament is approved by it.
- (c) Controls financial matters of the country;

Difference between Cabinet and the Council of Ministers: Ordinary people differentiate between the cabinet and the council of ministers. The council of ministers is a large body in which all types of ministers are included. The cabinet is an important part of the Council of Ministers, but the Council of Ministers is not a part of the Cabinet. It is the cabinet and not the Council of Ministers which deliberates and formulates all national policies, takes final decisions and executes them. Briefly speaking, the cabinet ministers are more influential and powerful with higher status as compared to ordinary ministers.

The Supreme Court of India

In a democratic government, federal political system an independent and impartial judiciary plays an important role for its success. There is a federal democratic system of government in our country. Under such a system judiciary plays an important role in two ways. Firstly it defends the fundamental rights of the citizens from governmental encroachment. Secondly India is a federal form of government. Thus power is divided between the Union and state government. In case of some disputes between the union and state government and amongst the state government the decisions are made by the Supreme Court.

For the independence of judiciary, it should be separated from the executive and legislative wings of the government; and it should be kept out of control or influence of both the organs of the government. To make judiciary independent an attempt is made under the Indian constitution: The Supreme Court makes independent decisions without any prejudice or under influence of any organ of the government and in accordance with law and constitution.

Constitution of the Supreme Court

India has a single unified judicial system. It means it runs like a pyramid from the District Courts to High Court and at the apex is the Supreme Court of India. The lowest are district or subordinate courts, and against their decisions appeals can be made to the State High Courts. Against the decisions of the State High Courts appeals are made in the Supreme Court; which is an apex court and its decisions are final.

Originally, the strength of the Supreme Court was fixed, a chief justice and 7 other judges. Presently, there is a chief justice and 25 other judges of the Supreme court.

Qualifications : According to the constitution the following qualifications are required to become a judge of the Supreme Court:

- (a) Must be a citizen of India
- (b) Must have worked as an advocate for at least 10 years in a High Court or have served as a judge for at least 5 years in a High Court.
- (c) In the President's opinion he is a distinguished jurist.

Appointment : The Judges are appointed by the President of India, while making these appointments he consults the Chief Justice of India and other Judges of the Supreme Court which he deems fit.

Tenure : Once appointed a Judge, he holds office until the age of 65.

The Parliament can increase their salary by a law passed. Presently, the chief justice of the Supreme Court gets Rs 90,000/- salary per month. They get rent free accommodation. They also get pension after their retirement under rules. The salary and allowances of the judges are drawn from the consolidated Fund of India which is beyond the power of voting of the Parliament; therefore, the salary and perks can not be reduced during their terms of office.

Powers of the Supreme Court

Under the Constitution, the Supreme Court has the following jurisdiction or powers :

(i) Original Jurisdiction

The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction. It means the cases which are directly presented to it, and these can not be presented in any other court. The following types of cases come under its original jurisdiction :

1. If the dispute is between the union government and one or more states
2. A dispute between the union government, one or more states on one hand, and one or more states on the other.
3. A dispute between two or more states
4. Disputes concerning elections of the President and the Vice-President.

(ii) Appellate Jurisdiction

It has appellate jurisdiction. Appellate jurisdiction means asking for a judgement of the Supreme Court against the decision of a High Court. Under this jurisdiction, it has vast powers to hear appeals. It can hear constitutional, civil and criminal appeals against the decisions of the High Courts.

(iii) Advisory Jurisdiction

The constitution provides power to the President to seek advice of the Supreme Court on any law or a constitutional matter. To accept or not to accept this advice is the privilege of the President. Recently, the president has asked the advice of the Supreme Court on the order of the Election Commission concerning Gujrat elections.

(iv) A Court of Record

Constitution says the law declared by the Supreme Court shall be binding on all courts within the territory of India. This clause makes the Supreme Court, a court of record; and it means the total proceedings and judgements of the court are published and kept as a record.

(v) Judicial Review

The authority to protect and interpret the constitution is vested in the

Supreme Court. Its decisions are final and binding to all. Under these powers the Supreme Court enjoys the power of judicial review. Power of judicial review means to sit on judgment over the orders of the executive and laws of the legislature for their constitutional validity. If any order passed by the executive and a law passed by a legislature violates the constitution or is not in accordance with the constitution, the Supreme Court can declare such an order or law unconstitutional or null and void. And because of this power of judicial review, some critics have called the Supreme Court as a third chamber of the Parliament.

In our view, the power of judicial review has made the Supreme Court fully capable to protect, Indian democracy, federal system of the government and fundamental rights of the citizens. Aladi Krishna Swami Aiyar remarks : The Supreme Court of India has wider jurisdiction than the highest court in any federation of the world including the Supreme Court of America.

Exercises

(A) Answer the following questions in 1-15 words :

1. Mention the tenure of the Lok Sabha.
2. What is the Maximum number of the members of Lok Sabha.
3. How is the Speaker of the Lok Sabha appointed?
4. What do you mean by a vote of No-Confidence?
5. What is the minimum age required to become a member of the Lok Sabha or the Rajya Sabha?
6. When and how many Anglo-Indians can be nominated by the President in the Lok Sabha?
7. Enumerate the Stages through which an ordinary bill pass to become a law.
8. How and who elects the members of the Rajya-Sabha?
9. Who are included in the electoral college for the election of the President?
10. How Vice-President of India is elected?
11. How the Prime-minister is appointed?
12. Explain the organization of the union council of ministers.
13. Explain the following each:
 - (a) Qualifications of a Judge of the Supreme Court
 - (b) Advisory Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court
 - (c) The Supreme court as a Court of Record

(B) Answer the following questions in 50-60 words :

1. Explain the powers of the Parliament.
2. Examine the role of the Speaker of the Lok Sabha.
3. How a bill becomes an act in the Indian Parliament?

4. Differentiate between the Cabinet and the Council of ministers.
 5. Explain the collective and individual responsibility of the Council of ministers.
 6. How the union cabinet is appointed in India?
 7. Examine the position of the Prime Minister.
 8. Examine the Powers of the Prime-Minister.
 9. Explain the Emergency Powers of the President.
 10. Describe the procedure of Impeachment of the President.
 11. Do you think the Indian President is nominal head of the union executive? If yes, then who is the real executive?
 12. Describe the role of the Vice-President of India.
 13. Examine briefly the powers of the President of India.
 14. Explain the original or Appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.
 15. Explain the following :
 - (a) How an ordinary bill differs from the Money Bill?
 - (b) Unified concept of Judiciary in India
 - (c) The Power of Judicial Review in India
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LESSON – III

The State-Government

We have explained how Indian federal system and Parliamentary form of government are working. Indian federation has two types of units; most of them are states and others are called union territories. Presently, there are 29 states and 7 union territories in India. Under the constitution, the states have their autonomous government, and an identity of their own. They are organized mainly on the basis of language; and generally, people speaking one language have been given single state. Punjab was the last state that was organized on the basis of Punjabi language in 1966.

Union Territories : The union territories usually have small areas and population. These territories because of, their peculiar conditions can not become a part of any state. Unlike states, the administration of the union territories are run under the direct supervision of the union government. The Chief Executive of the union territory is either a Lieutenant Governor or the Chief Commissioner.

The union territories of Delhi and Chandigarh have different administrative set ups. National Capital Territory of Delhi has a Legislative Assembly comprising of 70 members and 7 member council of ministers headed by a Chief-Minister. The union territory of Chandigarh is under the direct supervision of the Governor of Punjab who is its administrator. Under the administrator is an advisor who runs the day to day administration of Chandigarh.

States of Indian Federation		Union Territories
1. Uttar Pradesh	15. Haryana	1. Delhi
2. Bihar	16. Jammu & Kashmir	2. Chandigarh
3. Maharashtra	17. Himachal Pradesh	3. Pondicherry
4. Andhra Pradesh	18. Manipur	4. Daman & Deu
5. West Bengal	19. Meghalaya	5. Lakshadweep
6. Madhya Pradesh	20. Tripura	6. Dadra & Nagar Haveli
7. Tamilnadu	21. Goa	7. Andaman Nicobar
8. Karnataka	22. Arunachal Pradesh	
9. Gujarat	23. Sikim	
10. Rajasthan	24. Mizoram	
11. Orissa	25. Nagaland	
12. Kerala	26. Chhattisgarh	
13. Assam	27. Uttrakhand	
14. Punjab	28. Jharkhand	
	29. Telangana	

How A State Government Functions

The State Governments have a structure very similar to the union government. They function in a similar way. The states too have a parliamentary and representative form of government. Briefly speaking, the structure of state government is a replica of the union government.

State- Legislature

Under the Indian Constitution, a provision has been made of state legislative assembly to constitute state laws. Some states Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Jharkhand have bicameral legislature (Two houses Legislative assembly and legislative council). The lower house of state legislature is called legislative assembly and the upper house is called legislative council. Legislative Assembly is directly elected by the people of the state. Where as the legislative council is indirectly elected.

Legislative Assembly : The Legislative Assembly or Vidhan Parishad is directly elected by adult voters of the state. The strength of the Legislative Assembly varies from state to state. The members of Punjab Vidhan Sabha is 117. The following are qualifications required to become its member:

Qualifications :

- (a) A citizen of India.
- (b) Not less than 25 years of age.
- (c) Does not held the office of profit either under the union or state government.
- (d) Should neither be insane nor a declared insolvent or debarred by a court for its membership.

Term : The Legislative Assembly has its term for 5 years. The Governor can dissolve it earlier. During the emergency period, Parliament can extend its term by one year. In order to run its proceedings properly 1/10 quorum of members is required.

Legislative Council : The upper chamber of the State Legislature is called Legislative Council or Vidhan Parishad. The minimum number of members of the council is fixed at 40; but it should not be larger in size than 1/3 of the Legislative Assembly of the state concerned.

The qualifications of a member of the Legislative Council are similar to those of members of the Legislative Assembly except that the minimum age is 30 years.

Composition : The composition of the Legislative Council is quite different

from that of Legislative Assembly. It is composed as:

- (a) One third of its members are elected by the members of respective Legislative Assembly.
- (b) One third of its members are elected by electorates out of local bodies like Municipal Councils and Zila Parishads.
- (c) One twelfth members are elected by a constituency of graduates.
- (d) One twelfth members are elected by teachers of senior secondary schools, colleges and universities.
- (e) Rest of the one sixth members are nominated by the Governor of the state who are eminent in literature, arts, science, in cooperative movement or social service.

Term : The Legislative Council is a permanent chamber as it can not be dissolved. One third of its members retire after every two years. The term of its members is 6 years; and they can be re-elected for another term also.

The Legislative Council from its own members elects a Chairman and Deputy Chairman. The chairman presides over its meetings and conducts its proceedings. In the absence of the Chairman, Deputy Chairman performs his functions.

Powers of the State Legislature :

The State Legislature Assembly exercises a vast legislative, executive, financial, electoral and constitutional powers; and these are described as below:

1. Legislative Powers

It can legislate on all subjects which are included in the state list and concurrent list as well. If its legislation on some subject of the concurrent list is contrary to the Parliamentary Law, then it becomes null and void to the extent it is contrary to that.

2. Financial Powers

It has complete control over the financial affairs of the state. The finance minister presents the state budget before the Legislative Assembly every year. It is through the budget that it gives its approval for money to be withdrawn or to be deposited in the state treasury. To impose or reduce or abolish old taxes is within its powers.

If there is second chamber, then the budget passed by the Legislative Assembly goes to the Legislative Council for its recommendations. The council must send back this bill within 14 days along with its recommendations; and the Assembly may or may not accept these recommendations.

3. Executive Powers

States like the union government have a parliamentary form of government. The council of ministers headed by the Chief-Minister is the real executive; and it is directly and collectively responsible to the Legislative Assembly.

4. Miscellaneous Functions

The following are some miscellaneous functions performed by the State Legislature :

- (a) Some important constitutional amendments require endorsement of half of the State Legislative Assemblies.
- (b) Members of Legislative Assembly participate in the elections of the President and the Vice-President of India.
- (c) The Legislative Assembly elects its own Speaker and Deputy Speaker.
- (d) It can suspend its own members if they disrupt the proceedings of the House; and the visitors can be punished by it, if they show any disrespect to the House.
- (e) It can create Contingency Fund of the state which is controlled by the Governor.

Mutual Relations between both the Houses

Just like both the houses of the Parliament, the two chambers of the State Legislature are unequal; and do not enjoy equal status and powers. The pre-eminence position of the Legislative Assembly can be shown through the following explanation:

All the financial bills can only be presented in the Legislative Assembly; and they are sent to the Legislative Council only for its recommendations. The Legislative Assembly may or may not accept those recommendations. These recommendations must be sent back within 14 days; and if the time expires, the bill is deemed to have passed and sent to the Governor for his assent. When the Governor gives assent it will become a law.

An ordinary bill can be introduced in either House of the State Legislature. A bill passed by the Legislative Assembly is sent to the Legislative Council; and it can deal it with one of the following ways:

- (a) May reject the bill.
- (b) May make changes in the bill.
- (c) May keep the bill pending for three months.

If the Legislative Council does not take any action for three months on the bill or rejects it or makes amendments in it which are not acceptable to the

Legislative Assembly, then it can be again passed by the Legislative Assembly. After the passage of the bill, it is sent to the Legislative Council and if it does not take any action for one month or makes changes which are not acceptable to the Assembly, then the bill is deemed to have passed by the both houses.

Under the constitution the council of ministers is only responsible to the Legislative Assembly. The council of ministers remains in office so long as it enjoys a majority support in the Legislative Assembly; and it can be removed by its vote of No-Confidence against the council of ministers.

State-Executive

The state executive is similar to that of the union executive; and also is based on the principles of a Parliamentary government. The state executive consists of a Governor and the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief-Minister. The functions of the state executive are very much similar to the union executive with some exceptions. In states too, the Governor is the constitutional head; and the council of ministers led by the Chief Minister is the real executive. According to the constitution, all the executive powers of the state are vested in the Governor; and he appoints the council of ministers 'to aid and advice' him for discharging his functions; but he uses his executive powers on the advice of the council of ministers.

The Governor

Appointment and Term : The Governor is appointed by the President of India as recommended by the union cabinet. He is appointed for a term of 5 years. The Governor holds his office during the pleasure of the President; and he can be removed earlier.

Qualifications and Salary : The Governor has to fulfill the following qualifications: (a) A citizen of India (b) Above the age of 35 years (c) Should not hold office of profit either under a state or union government (d) Should not be a member of either Parliament or State Legislature.

Presently, the Governor draws a salary of One Lakh Ten thousand, and gets a free and furnished accommodation called Raj Bhawan. His salary and allowances can not be reduced during his tenure.

Powers and Functions of the Governor

The Governor as a constitutional head of the state exercises the following powers:

1. Executive Powers :

The Governor is the chief-executive head of the state; the

administration of the state is run in his name. He appoints the chief-minister of the state who is either a leader of the majority party or enjoys a majority support of the Legislative Assembly. Under rare situations he gets an opportunity to appoint a Chief Minister at his own discretion. On the recommendations of the Chief-Minister he appoints other ministers and distributes among them the portfolios.

The Governor has wide powers of appointment to the top positions in the state. He appoints the Advocate General, Chairman and members of the State Public Service Commission, Chairman and other members of various corporations and State Boards, the Vice-Chancellors of the state universities etc. He is consulted by the President in the appointment of the judges of the state High Court. He also appoints judges of the subordinate courts.

2. Legislative Powers :

The Governor is a part of state legislature. He exercises the following important legislative powers:

- (a) He summons and prorogues the sessions of the state legislature; and he can also extend its session if it is required.
- (b) He addresses the first session of the Legislative assembly after the general election; and also first session of it, every year. In his inaugural address he lays down broad out lines of policies and programmes of the government, and the achievements to be made in the ensuing year.
- (c) Bills can not become laws unless they are approved and signed by him.
- (d) The Governor can issue an ordinance when the legislature is not in session, and a law is urgently required. Such an ordinance is just like a law, but it remains in force till six weeks after the next session begins.
- (e) The governor nominates one sixth members of the legislative council if it exists in the state.

3. Financial Powers : The following are some important financial powers of the Governor:

- (a) The budget is presented to the legislature in his name. Its presentation requires his prior assent.
- (b) Before a new financial year begins, he gets presented an annual financial statement called budget by the finance minister before the Legislative Assembly.
- (c) No money bill can be presented in the State Legislative Assembly without his prior approval.
- (d) Budget or money bill must get his assent after the state legislature has passed it.

(e) The Governor has full control over the Contingency Fund of the State.

4. Judicial Powers : The Governor appoints all the judges of the subordinate courts i.e. judicial magistrates, chief judicial magistrates, sessions and additional district sessions judges; and all those subordinate judges are promoted and transferred by him. He can grant pardon and reprieve to those criminals who have violated the state laws and punished under them.

5. Discretionary Powers : The Governor exercises some important discretionary powers. Discretionary powers means that on these questions, the Governor can act on his own judgement and not according to the advice of his council of ministers. The following are occasions, when he can use his discretion :

- (a) He can appoint a Chief Minister with his discretion when no one gets a majority in the Legislative Assembly.
- (b) When he has to decide that the state government is not running according to the constitution.
- (c) When a governor acts as a link between the union and the state government or when he is acting as eyes, ears, mouth and hands of the union government.
- (d) When he is seeking required information either from the council of ministers or from any department of the state administration.
- (e) When he decides to reserve the bill for the consideration of the President.

Here it will be of some interest to compare the relationship with the council of ministers of the President and to that of the Governor. Apparently they seem to be similar, but there is one fundamental difference. The President exercises his powers on the advice of the council of ministers. Normally, the Governor too acts on the advice of his council of ministers; but under some situations as mentioned above, it is not essential for him to act on the advice of the council of ministers. On the contrary, the President has no such discretionary powers.

The Chief Minister

If the Governor is the constitutional head of the state, the Chief Minister is the real head of state government. The council of ministers is the most powerful instrument for governing the state, and the Chief-Minister is its central figure around whom the whole council of minister revolves. The Chief Minister is central to the formation, life and death of the council of ministers. Under the constitution, the Governor acts on the advice of the council of ministers for discharging his functions. In short, under the provisions of the constitution, the council of ministers headed by the Chief Minister is the real executive of the state, and is responsible for running the state government.

Appointment : The chief minister is appointed by the Governor of the state; but he appoints such a person who is either a leader of a majority party or commands a majority in the Legislative Assembly; and there are rare occasions when a Governor appoints a person as a Chief Minister in his discretion.

Powers of the Chief Minister

The Chief-Minister is the central figure of the state administration. The Governor invites the Chief Minister to form the government after the general elections, and on his recommendation appoints other ministers.

Then the portfolios are distributed by the Governor on the advice of the Chief minister. It is a prerogative of the Chief-minister to reshuffle or reorganize his council of ministers whenever need arises. In reshuffling he can drop his old ministers or can bring new faces in the council of ministers or can reshuffle their departments.

The Chief Minister co-ordinates and supervises the work of entire council of ministers. Under the provisions of the constitution the Chief-Minister is a link between the Governor and the Council of ministers. It is his constitutional duty to inform decisions of the cabinet to the Governor. The Chief Minister is the advisor of the Governor and he can seek advice of the Chief Minister on administrative matters and acts according his advice.

The Chief Minister is the head of the state government. All administrative heads are under his supervision and control; and he can seek any information from any department. All the top most appointments of the state are made by the Governor on the advice of council of ministers led by the Chief-Ministers.

The Chief-Minister is the chairman of the meetings of the cabinet; he presides over all its meetings. He determines agenda, date, time and place of the meetings. In the case of differences on any issue among his cabinet colleagues, his decision is final. If any minister still does not fall in his line, he will have to leave the cabinet and must resign.

The Council of Ministers

According to the constitution there shall be a council of ministers with Chief Minister as the head 'to aid and advice' Governor in discharging his functions. In reality, the council of ministers is not an advisory body but is the real executive; the Governor is only a constitutional head. The Governor except his discretion, performs all administrative functions on the advice of his council of ministers.

After the general election the Governor invites the leader of the majority party to form the government; and on his advice he appoints other ministers.

The Portfolios are distributed among ministers by the Governor as recommended by the Chief Minister.

Generally, there can be four types of ministers apart from the chief-minister the Cabinet Minister, State Minister, Deputy Minister and Parliamentary Secretary. The cabinet ministers are the most influential and powerful in the council of ministers, and their number is more or less 15; and the cabinet ministers formulate policies, take vital decisions and run the administration of the state.

Tenure : The tenure of the council of ministers is not fixed. Constitutionally speaking, it remains in office on the pleasure of the Governor but in reality till it enjoys the majority support of the Legislative Assembly.

The main function of it is to run the administration of the state; and to bring its all round development. For this purpose it will have to formulate policies and take vital decisions. Every cabinet minister is made incharge of some important department and he is made responsible for its administration. He prepares the bills, pilots them in the legislature and gets them passed. It has full control over the finances of the state. Every year a budget is presented before the Legislative Assembly by the finance minister.

Relationship between the Council of Minister's and State Legislature:-

There is a close relationship between the State Legislature and Council of Minister. Every minister has to be a member of the legislature. Constitutionly, the council of ministers is responsible to the legislature assembly, and it can remain in office till it enjoys the support of the majority of Legislative Council. Members of Legislative Council can ask questions from council of minister. The council of minister has to seek assent from the legislative council for its programmes and policies.

The High Court

According to the constitution there shall be a High Court for each state. The Parliament may by law establish a Common High Court for two or more states. Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh (U.T.) have a Common High Court. The Guwhati High Court is common for six states - Assam, Manipur, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Tripura, Mizoram and Arunachal U.T.

Appointment : The President while appointing a chief-justice of a High Court consults the chief justice of India and the Governor of the state; and while making appointments of other judges, he consults apart from the above two, the chief justice of the High Court.

The constitution says a High Court shall consist of a chief justice and some other judges; That is why the number of judges of each High Court differ; for instance, Punjab and Haryana High Court has 40 judges and the Himachal High Court has only 5 judges.

Qualifications : The constitution lays down the following qualifications for becoming a judge :

- (a) A citizen of India.
- (b) Should have served for 10 years as a judicial official in a subordinate court or should have worked for 10 years as an Advocate in a High Court.

A judge remains in office up to the age of 62 years after his appointment and joining service.

Presently, the chief justice of a High Court draws a salary of Rupees ninety thousand and other judges get Rupees eighty thousand. Judges get free and furnished accommodation during their service. The salary and allowances are determined by a law passed by the Parliament from time to time. The salary and allowances are given out of consolidated fund of the state, therefore, they can not be reduced during their term of office.

Jurisdiction (Powers) of the High Court

The following are the main jurisdictions of a State High Court:

Original Jurisdiction :- High Courts enjoy the power of original jurisdiction on some important matters. Original Jurisdiction means that cases regarding certain matters can directly be brought to the High Court. For example a matter regarding fundamental rights can be directly filed in the High Court. Matters regarding the constitutional provisions can also be brought directly before the Court. All the cases concerning fundamental rights can be originated in the High Court to safeguard the fundamental rights of the citizens.

Appellate Jurisdiction : Its appellate jurisdiction includes the authority to try appeals against the decisions of the lower courts concerning civil and criminal cases; it has appellate jurisdiction as below:

- (a) Such civil appeals which involve money or property of value more than Rs. 5 thousand.
- (b) Such criminal appeals where a Lower Court has awarded sentence more than 4 years.
- (c) Death sentence awarded by a sessions judge in a murder case must be approved by the High Court.
- (d) Any case which involves interpretation of the constitution.

Administrative jurisdiction : The High Court has the jurisdiction of supervision over the subordinate courts. It exercise a vast administrative powers concerning its subordinate courts. Some of them are enumerated below:

- (a) It can formulate rules for subordinate courts for their working, record and maintenance of accounts keeping.
- (b) It can ask the lower courts to submit court's record, official files for its examination.
- (c) Its judges can visit the lower courts to see the working and efficiency of judges.
- (d) It can transfer a case from one lower court to another.
- (e) It can determine pay and allowances and service conditions of the employees of the subordinate courts.

Court of Record : The High Court is regarded as a court of record. It means its decisions are written, published and recorded for considering them as precedents for lower courts. The subordinate courts while delivering their judgements are to keep in mind these precedents.

The High Courts like the Supreme Court also has the power of judicial review. If any executive order or a law is against the provisions of the constitution or is not in accordance with the constitution, can be declared unconstitutional or null and void by the High Court. An appeal can, of course, be made in the Supreme Court against such a judgement of the High Court.

Subordinate Courts

The subordinate courts have been established in all the Indian States. It is the subordinate judiciary that comes into most intimate contact with the ordinary people in the judicial field. The subordinate judiciary plays an important role in providing justice to the common masses. Therefore, it is particularly pertinent that its independence and impartiality should be placed beyond question in order to create public confidence in it.

Session Judge : At the district level, there is a session judge court which is headed by a session judge. There may also be an additional session judge if the work load is heavy. The session judge is appointed by the Governor after consulting the chief justice of the High Court. Session judges are appointed either among the senior most subordinate judges or senior or superior advocates or pleaders with seven years standing or an officer in service of the union or state government.

Subordinate Judge : Under the sessions court, there are subordinate courts in the district which are headed by a chief judicial magistrate or judicial magistrate of second or first class.

All the judicial magistrates are appointed by the chief justice of the High Court on the recommendations of State Public Service Commission. An advocate with three years standing can compete for this post. The selected candidates, first gets training and then are posted in their respective courts.

The session judge and other judicial service magistrates work directly under the supervision and control of the High Court. The High Court decides about their transfers, punishments and promotions or their service conditions. Throughout the country, the subordinate courts have almost a similar organization.

Lok-Adalats & Public Interest Litigation

Recently, in India the Lok Adalats have come into existence with the sole purpose to give quick justice to the poor or exploited or down trodden; and to eliminate delay in imparting justice and speed up clearance of pending cases. Retired Chief Justice of India, honourable, PN. Bhagwati is considered as a father of the concept of Lok-Adalats. when he was the chief justice of Gujrat High Court, he planned to give free legal aid to the poor and the down trodden. Under this plan, Lok Adalats system got developed in Gujrat. The first meeting of the Lok Adalats was held in Delhi, on October 6, 1985. This Lok Adalat decided 150 accidental cases in one day and provided just compensation to the victims.

Upto August, 1987, Lok Adalats had no legal recognition,; therefore, they were not considered a part of judicial system. In August, 1987, the parliament passed 'Legal Services Institutions Law', under which three type legal institutions were created as below:

1. National Legal Services Institution
2. State Legal Services Institution
3. District Legal Services Institution

Under the Parliamentary law, 1987, the power to frame rules concerning Lok Adalats have been given to the union and State governments. The rules which are framed by the union government and are to be presented before the Parliament for its approval. And rules framed by the State government and are to be presented before the State Legislature for its approval.

Lok Adalats do not decide cases according to determined laws, rather they try to persuade opposite parties to come to an understanding and an agreement. Thus, Lok Adalats resolve cases which have not gone to the courts or pending in the courts; rather the contending parties are attracted to approach Lok Adalats for fair play and quick justice.

Public Interest Litigation is also a recent concept. The Supreme Court of India has opened a new chapter when it gave recognition to Public Interest Litigation, where merely on post card or application the complaints are registered and the necessary orders passed. The grievances of the weaker sections, bonded labourers, women and children have been given due importance under the scheme.

Union-State Relations

The constitution declares India as a Union of States; although the word confederation is not used but still India is a federation because it has all its features. In a federation, distribution of powers between the center and states is essential. The relations between the union and states can be described under the headings as below:

Legislative Relations : According to 7th schedule of the constitution, the subjects have been divided into the following three lists:

- (a) **Union List :** In the union list there are 97 subjects of national importance. The important subjects like Foreign relations, Defence, War and Peace, Railways, Currencies, Finance, Banking etc. Only Parliament can legislate on these subjects included in the union list.
- (b) **State List :** In the state list there are 61 subjects of local importance. Among these subjects are agriculture, health, road and bridges, police, jails, local self government institutions etc. States can legislate on the subjects included in the list.
- (c) **Concurrent List :** The concurrent list has 52 subjects; and subjects like Education, Family, Planning, Divorce, Will and Succession, Press, Labour Welfare etc. are included in this list. The concurrent list is common to both union and states; and both can legislate from this list. But the constitution says that if a state law is contrary to the union law, the state law will be null and void to the extent, it is contrary to the union law.
- (d) **Residuary Powers :** The constitution says any subject which is not included in above three lists, the Parliament is authorized to legislate on that subject.

Administrative Relations

While distributing administrative powers between the union and states, the constitution framers have made union government more powerful than states. Keeping the national interest in mind, they have provided complete

dominance of the union and control, over the states. The Governor of a state is appointed by the President; he is not only constitutional head of the state but also a representative of the union government. The constitution says that a state should exercise its executive powers in a manner so that laws enacted by the Parliament are obeyed. The union government also issue instructions to the states in this regard. A majority of important administrative posts and positions in the state are held by officers of IAS and IPS Cadre. They are appointed by the union government but are allotted to states. They dominate in the state administration.

Financial Relations

The constitution has distributed the financial resources between the union and states. The Union Parliament has power to impose taxes on union subjects; and the state legislatures are empowered to impose taxes on state subjects. The state governments can impose taxes, collect them and spend themselves as required; but all the taxes imposed by the union government are neither collected by it, nor it spends on itself. Some of income from its taxes is distributed by it among the states because it has enough money.

The Indian States are largely dependent for their development and Public Welfare Schemes on the central financial assistance or aid, because they do not have sufficient financial resources of their own. The framers of the constitution deliberately established financial superiority of the union over the states. The constitution makes the following financial arrangement between the union and states:

Today there is rethinking on the existing union-state relations, and it is believed that they should be reorganized or redrafted on the basis of experience of their working for the last more than 50 years. The tension between the union and states can prove to be dangerous not only for our federal polity but also detrimental to large interests of the nation. Therefore, in the light of the experience and new situations developing, the relations between the union and states should be redrawn; only then a true cooperative and strong federation can become a reality.

Exercises

(A) Answer the following questions in 1-15 words :

1. How many chambers a state Legislative Assembly has? Give their names.
2. Answer the following questions concerning state Legislative Assembly:
 - (a) The Qualifications to become its member.

- (b) The maximum and minimum number of its member as per the constitution.
 - (c) Mention the stages, an ordinary bill has to pass through.
 - (d) The minimum age required to become the members of Legislative assembly.
 - (e) How the Speaker of the Legislative Assembly is elected?
3. Answer the following questions concerning Legislative Council of a State:
- (a) How many members can be of the Legislative Council?
 - (b) What are the qualifications to become its member?
 - (c) Mention the term of the members of Legislative Council.
 - (d) Name four states where the Legislative Council is in existence.
4. Enumerate any power of the state legislature.
5. Do your state has a bicameral legislature ?
6. How the Governor of a state is appointed ?
7. Who and how a Chief Minister is appointed ?
8. Examine the role of Governor during President's rule in a state.
9. Mention the term of the office of a Governor.
10. Name the three lists under which powers between the union and states are distributed.
11. What do you understand by Lok-Adalats ?
12. When and who appoints a Finance Commission ?

(B) Answer the following questions in 50-60 words :-

- 1. Briefly describe the administrative powers of a Governor.
- 2. Examine the process of appointment of the council of ministers in a state.
- 3. Explain discretionary powers of a Governor.
- 4. How a declaration of the break down of constitutional machinery affects the state government ?
- 5. Describe the mutual relations between the council of ministers and the Legislative Assembly.
- 6. Distinguish between the cabinet and the council of ministers.
- 7. Examine the four main functions of a council of ministers.
- 8. How a bill becomes an act in the state legislature ?

9. Describe briefly the three powers of a state legislature.
 10. Explain the original Jurisdiction or Administrative Powers of a High Court.
 11. Describe the Appellate Jurisdiction of a High Court.
 12. 'A High Court is a Court of Record'. How?
 13. Examine the organization and main functions of Lok-Adalats.
 14. Describe briefly the relations between the union and states on one of the following:
 - (a) Legislative Relations
 - (b) Administrative Relations
 - (c) Financial Relations
-

LESSON-IV

Indian Democracy At Work

After independence a democratic republic was established in India. The constitution declares India as a sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic and republic. The word 'Democracy' is derived from two Greek words - Demos and cratia; the meaning of demos is people and cratia means rule. Etymological meaning of democracy is a government of the people; and in a democracy people rule over themselves. In words of Lincoln, 'Democracy is a government of the people, by the people and for the people'.

Democracy stands on its four pillars : Liberty, Equality, Fraternity and Justice. The basic principles of democracy are : a representative and responsible government, a rule by majority and respect for minority, periodical elections, rights and freedoms granted to the citizens and an independent judiciary.

Democracy is of two types - direct and indirect. In a direct democracy people rule over themselves; and people and government are one and there is hardly any difference between the two. In an indirect democracy people rule through their representatives; representatives legislate for the people and exercise full control over the government; and elections are held periodically.

Essential conditions for the success of democracy

In modern times democracy has become very popular and is considered as the best form of government. All the major countries of the world have adopted democracy; but it has not worked successfully everywhere. The basic reason for its failure was lack of conducive conditions. Democracy for its successful working demands special conditions like enlightened or awakened citizens, leaders of higher genre, high calibre and unimpeachable character; and congenial societal conditions.

Enlightened citizens with a sense of responsibility and keen interest in public affairs is a key for the success of democracy. Plato says good citizens can only create a good state; and bad-citizens create a bad state. Leaders with high calibre, pure character and vision alone can lead the society or nation to glorious heights and usher a welfare state. Congenial societal conditions like political and economic equality, cooperative and tolerant citizens, well-organised political parties, independent judiciary and free press, noble leaders and awakened masses etc. are also essential for the success of democracy. J.S. Mill observes : In order to make democracy a success, the essential conditions for it are : will of people to ensure democratic government keeps on going and their ability to

run it properly and efficiently; to remain vigilant, and ever ready to safe guard it; and people's will to safeguard their rights and follow duties religiously.

Indian Democracy – A Success

For centuries India remained under monarchical regime, feudal lords and foreign slavery. When we got independence in 1947, a democratic polity was established. Many people were apprehensive about its success. The main reason of this fear was that in India there were tremendous evils like poverty, ignorance, castism, communalism, linguistic chauvinisticism, provincialism and social, political and economic inequalities etc. were in existence. All the conditions which make the democracy a flop were available in abundance.

In spite of above societal evils and uncongenial atmosphere, the working of Indian democracy since its inception has given us a hope for its successful prospective. There are some positive features like people's awakening, love for democratic values and hatred for authoritarian rule, people's secular outlook etc. have played a significant role in making democracy a success in India. When we see funeral procession (utter failure) of democracies in our neighbourhood, democracy tumbling in the developing countries of the world, our heart is filled with happiness and pride to see Indian democracy secured, strong and working successfully.

Democratic Features of Indian Government

The Preamble declares India as a sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic and republic. Under the constitution a democratic polity is set up in India. The following are the features of Indian democratic political system:

1. Democratic Constitution : India has a democratic constitution. The basic principles of democracy are enumerated in the Preamble : a democratic republic ensuring liberty of thought and expression, belief, faith, equality of status and of opportunity, dignity of the individual and to secure social, economic and political justice to all citizens. All these democratic principles laid down in the Preamble indicate true democratic nature of the constitution.

After the French Revolution three basic democratic principles emerged : Equality, Liberty and Fraternity. The Indian Democracy is based on these principles as explained below:

- (a) **Equality :** The Indian Constitution ensure right to social, economic and political equality. The Indian state will not discriminate its citizens on the basis of race, religion, caste, birth, sex, language, colour, of opportunity of their growth and development.
- (b) **Liberty :** The Indian Constitution provides all liberties which are essential in a liberal democracy. For instance, it provides to its citizens freedom of speech and expression, freedom to assemble peacefully without arms,

freedom to form associations, freedom to settle and move anywhere in India, freedom of religion etc. Indian citizens also enjoy a democratic freedom to criticize and oppose their government.

(c) **Fraternity** : An important democratic principle is to have a feeling of fraternity among all citizens i.e. people should feel that they belong to one stock. The Preamble emphasizes that the state would endeavour to promote fraternity among all its citizens.

2. Adult Franchise : Adult franchise is the basic principle of representative democracy. Under the Indian constitution all adult citizens who have attained the age of 18, have been given the right to vote without any discrimination. The election of the House of People and of State Legislative Assemblies are directly held on the basis of adult franchise.

3. Joint Electorate : During the British Rule in India, there were communal electorates i.e. a Hindu would cast his vote to Hindu and a Muslim would cast his vote to a Muslim candidate. Now under the Indian constitution the communal electorate is abolished; and in its place a joint electorate system is introduced. Under the joint electorate system adult citizens of all religions, castes, races, languages, classes and sex cast their vote to a common candidates of a constituency or area. In other words, all communities elect their representative jointly. This has made our country a true democracy.

4. Political Rights : Political rights are the heart and soul and in their absence democracy is worthless. Indian constitution grants all the political rights to its citizens: Every adult has right to vote, right to be elected after attaining a prescribed age, right to acquire a government job, right to submit a petition and right to criticize and oppose government. The most important political right is to elect and to be elected for all representative institution from a Village Panchayat to the Parliament.

5. Independent Judiciary : An important pillar of democracy is an independent judiciary. Independent Judiciary means that judges deliver their judgements without any greed fear or favour or pressure; and in accordance with laws of the land. The constitution has made judiciary independent as judges are appointed by the chief executive of the country for a long tenure with high qualifications and handsome salary. judiciary has also been separated from the legislature and the executive.

6. Secularism : The constitution not only declares India as a secular state but also provides provisions to make it secular in reality : state does not patronize any specific religion, although a vast majority is Hindu, but it respects all religions, it all bars state to discriminate between citizens on the basis of religion or faith, it grants freedom of religion and of worship to all citizens, It provides

equality of opportunity to all citizens without any discrimination; and these constitutional provisions make India a secular state.

7. Periodical, Independent and Fair Elections : Periodical, independent and fair elections are essential ingredient of democracy. Indian Constitution has ensured periodical and independent elections of elected bodies through two methods : Firstly, it has fixed a tenure of 5 years, for the House of People and all Legislative Assemblies of States, the President and the Vice President, and all other elected bodies have their own fixed tenures. Secondly, constitution has created an independent Election Commission to conduct and supervise independent and fair elections in India.

Periodical, independent and fair elections create confidence and faith among its people for their government; they consider the government of their own and think it is legitimate. The Legitimacy and Faith on the government is essential for the successful working of a democracy.

8. A Republican Government : The Republican nature is essential feature of modern democracy, although constitutional monarchies of England and Japan are exceptions in the modern times. The Preamble declared, India a Democratic Republic. In a democratic republic, the head of the state is elected either by people or by their representatives for a fixed term. Indian President is elected by the representatives of people for a term of 5 years; he is responsible to the Parliament and can be removed from office through a constitutional method of impeachment.

From the above discussion it can be safely concluded that India has all the features of a democratic state. The first experiment in democratic process was made in 1952 when a maiden General Election was held; and since then 16 General Elections are held successfully. It is pride for us to say that Indian Democratic Republic has worked successfully so far.

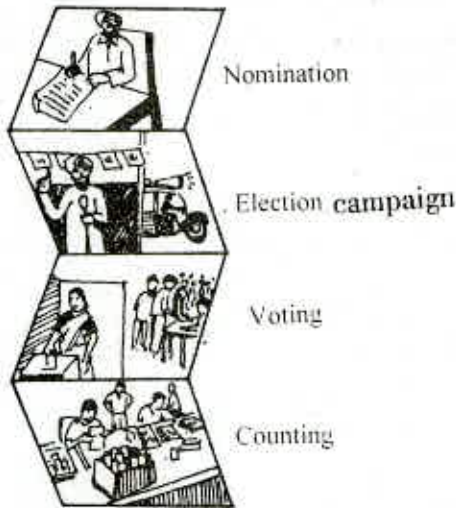
Indian Elections and Election Process

We have already said that in modern times national states have emerged; because of their vastness of area and population, it is impossible to establish direct democracy in them. Therefore, the citizens of modern states legislate and govern through their representatives. This type of system is called representative government.

In every democratic or representative government we have two types of elections - direct and indirect. Under a direct method of election, voters will cast their votes and elect their representatives. For instance, in India, England, USA, Germany, France and Japan voters directly elect representatives of their respective popular chambers of legislatures.

Under an indirect election citizens elect their own representatives, and their representatives make another election; for instance, the voters elect members of Legislative Assemblies of their states, and these members elect members of the council of states. Elected members of Parliament and State Legislative Assemblies elect the President of India. Both are indirect methods of election.

ELECTION PROCESS



Indian Election Process

Election Process in India

The way elections are held or conducted in a country is called an election process. The election process runs through several stages and these are prescribed by law; and these stages are as below:

Demarcation of Constituencies : The first step in the electoral process is to demarcate all the constituencies of the Lok-Sabha and State Legislative Assemblies. From each constituency one representative is elected.

Voters Lists : For conducting elections, the voter lists of each constituency are prepared; inclusion and deletion of names of voters also takes place within a specified period. Only those adults will be eligible to vote whose names are included in the voter lists.

Date of Election : Dates of elections are announced in advance by the Election Commission; it is done because political parties and candidates may know when the elections are being held so that they can make preparations.

After the declaration of elections, the Election Commission, chalks out a detailed programme for election process : it fixes date to file nomination by candidates, fixes dates of scrutiny, withdrawal, polling, counting and fixes dates of declaration of results. We explain this process more in detail as below:

- (a) **Nomination Form :** The Election Commission fixes a date up to which candidates can fill their nomination forms. The nomination form is printed where a candidate gives his approval to contest, it is signed by two voters also, one who proposes his name and other supports him. It is essential to present nomination form before fixed date and time to returning officer.
- (b) **Scrutiny :** After all nomination forms are filled, there is a process called scrutiny. It is done to check whether information given in the nomination papers is correct. If there is any doubt about these, or if it is found that a candidate is not eligible, he can be disqualified by returning officer.
- (c) **Withdrawal :** Once the scrutiny is over, the candidates are given date for withdrawal. If any candidate is unwilling or has second thought to contest or not, he can withdraw his name. If a candidate withdraws, his security is returned. This withdrawal process makes sure that only serious candidates are left in the field.

Symbol Allotment : The Election Commission allots election symbols to political parties and independent candidates. National and the regional political parties are allotted well known symbols. For instance, Indian National Congress has been allotted a hand (Palm), CPIM, the sickle, hammer and star, CPI, the sickle and cars of corn, BJP, Lotus, Shrimani Akali Dal, a Balance well known symbols.

Campaign : The next stage in the election is campaign. It is crucial stage. The campaign too, has to go by strict laws. The exact date for beginning and closure of election campaign are specified. Campaign is a process by which a candidate tries to persuade voters to vote for him rather than others. A campaign proceeds through various channels like postering, street meetings, speeches, processions and all attempts by the candidate and his party men to canvass support.

Manifesto : In modern times election manifestoes prepared by political parties are presented before the people; and these have become a tool of the election campaign. Through their manifestoes, political parties get across to the voters what they stand for. Each party believes in some principles and has some objectives. Each party at the time of election also promises to do certain things, if it comes to power.

Secret Ballot : The Election Commission creates a large number of polling stations

in a constituency for the convenience of voters. The polling stations are established at such convenient distances so that the voter may not have to travel too far to cast his vote.

On the polling day voters go into polling booths to use their right to vote through secret ballot.

Counting and Declaration of Results: After the voting is over, ballot boxes are sealed under the supervision of the Presiding Officers and are taken to the office of returning officer or counting centers and are deposited there. The date of counting is fixed by the Election Commission. On the fixed date of counting, under the supervision of the returning officer and in the presence of candidates or their representatives, counting of votes starts with the help of subordinate staff and other officials on counting duty. After the counting process is over, the candidate who gets the highest valid votes among all candidates is declared elected by the returning officer. And the result is sent to the Election Commission for notification.

Election Expenditure : The amount for spending in the elections of the Lok Sabha and Vidhan Sabha are fixed. Nobody is allowed to spend more than prescribed. The idea behind it is that lest only the rich might be elected and poor may fair poorly on the election. Therefore, 45 days after the elections are over, every candidate has to submit his detailed expenditure incurred in the election to the Election Commission.

Appeal Against Election : Every candidate can appeal against violation of election rules either candidates or officials incharge for the conduct of elections; first before the Election Commission and then before any higher court of the country.

To ensure fair election and to conduct the whole process of election an Election Commission has been organised by the union government.

Public Opinion

Democracy, to a large extent depends on people's will or public opinion. No government can be stable if it dishonours people's will or goes against public opinion.

Definition : There is no unanimity on the definition of public opinion among scholars. Some define it as a opinion of a majority; but it is not a correct view because a majority view can be selfish; an unanimous opinion can not or may not be a public opinion until it is based on public welfare. Therefore neither majority nor unanimity is a qualification for a public opinion, its main qualification is public welfare. Public opinion should be as such that a minority may not agree on it but accepts it because it is in the large interest of the nation. In short, public opinion is always meant for welfare goal.

Significance of Public Opinion : Public opinion in itself is useful. The enlightened public opinion is essential to keep the government on right track.

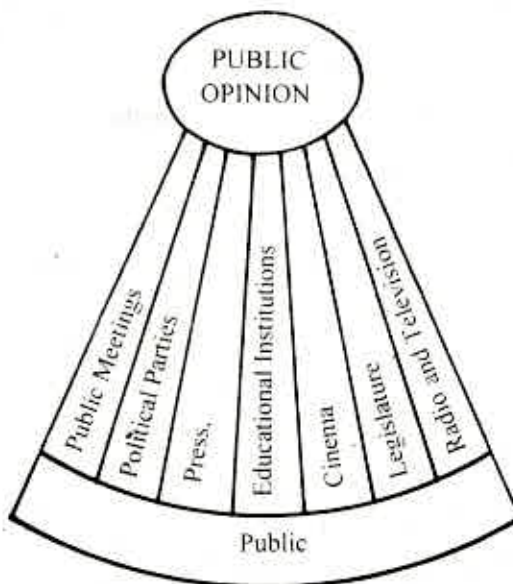
It acts as a sword of democracy on the government, which compels the government not to act arbitrarily; and inspires it to act righteously. A government keeps public opinion in its mind when it legislates or executes laws. In short, public opinion becomes a light house for the government to tread upon the path of rectitude.

Public opinion can check what the government does. If public opinion is alert or enlightened it keeps itself informed and a government can not take a risk to disregard people's rights and liberties. If the public opinion is neither vigilant nor intelligent, then a government may become authoritarian and irresponsible or unresponsive. Acts of this type will make the government instantly unpopular and would lesson its chances of winning during next election.

Formation and Expression of Public Opinion

Public opinion in a society is neither formed nor expressed automatically. For its expression and formation, deliberate and enlightened attempts are made, the time and energy is required for it, and many factors play important role in its formation. Public opinion is formed in various ways and several agencies have a hand in shaping it. For a healthy public opinion the citizens should be aware of what is happening around them at local, national and international levels.

In our view there are two main types of means for formation and expression of public opinion - political and educational.



Means for formation of public opinion

1. Political Means

Public Meetings : Public meetings are important means for formation of public opinion. Political parties hold meetings from time to time or when an occasion demands. At such meetings top leaders of the party raise burning issues and problems of the people and express how they plan to sort them out. They also explain the policies and programmes of their political parties to the people. The ruling and opposition political parties openly criticize each other at such meetings.

The minds of the ignorant and illiterate people are more influenced by such meetings, it is because they do not read either newspapers or political literature. Such people make up their minds or opinion after listening to leaders at such public meetings. Briefly, public meetings become means for formation and expression of public opinion.

Political Parties : The aim of every political party is to attain power and the control of government. For the realization of this aim, it will have to make public opinion in its favour in order to get the maximum support of the people. Thus, political parties endeavour to form public opinion in their favour and they also prove to be means of formation of public opinion.

Elections : In a democracy, elections are good means for formation of public opinion. During the elections political parties highlight the important national problems and put forward suggestions about them before the masses. At the time of elections a lot of political literature and pamphlets are distributed. Political parties try to influence public opinion in their favour through various meetings, processions and functions during elections.

Legislatures : The legislatures are mirror of true public opinion because their members represent different political parties and shades of opinions. The live telecast of the working of legislature is presented before the people or broadcasting on radio takes place and leading newspapers cover the actual working and present before the people. The common masses, see and listen to the different views expressed in the legislature on national problems; and thus form their own opinion. The legislature also provides a stage through which grievances of the people get expression.

2. Educational Means

Educational Institutions : All educational institution like schools, college and universities are important means for formation of public opinion. Generally, students are highly influenced by the ideas and character of their teachers; and sometime an imprint remains throughout their lives. Enlightened teachers are conscious of all the major problems of society and state. They make their

students aware of these problems from time to time in the class room or outside; and thus become a powerful instrument for forming public opinion.

Press or Newspaper : The newspapers or press proves to be the main means of formation and expression of public opinion. An independent and impartial press works as a sheath and beacon light for the success of democracy. All the daily and weekly newspapers, weekly and monthly magazines and books concerning public affairs are included in the press.

The newspapers are the most important instrument of formation and expression of public opinion. The newspapers carry local, national and international news; and we come to know what has happened yesterday through out the world. If the newspapers report the events accurately, it helps in the formation of sound public opinion. Different people may come to different conclusions about events, but first events must be reported correctly.

National and international news, the debates between the ruling and opposition parties, articles by public figures, commentators, journalists and scholars, editorials and reader's views etc are published in the newspapers and play a major role in the formation and expression of public opinion.

Cinema : The cinema has become a powerful means for formation of public opinion. A large number of people go to the cinema. Films often speak about common problems of society and state. Good films deal with living problems like untouchability, castism, communalism, dowry, poverty, inequality, unemployment, riots or violence between religious groups etc. What one sees on the screen, influences one's mind, thought and actions. Cinema can lead public opinion in either a healthy or a harmful direction. Therefore, it is duty of the state to see that cinema creates a healthy public opinion.

Electronic Media : Among the electronic media, radio and television are the most important means for the formation and expression of public opinion. Radio and television can reach more people than the newspapers or cinema. Radio can reach every one who cares to listen and has money to buy it. The same is true of television; but it is more powerful than the radio because it is usual, and it has deeper and greater impact on human mind. On the radio or television news, important events, public debates and discussions are aired or televised; election manifestoes, programmes, commentaries and results are announced. In short, radio and television are not only source of entertainment but are also important means for the formation of public opinion. But, they must be free from the influence of either government or powerful groups or lobbies.

Normally, elections are held periodically, say after for five years, it is long time and government gets disconnected from the public and may become authoritarian and hence, a democracy may be endangered. Thus, public opinion becomes a fundamental requirement for the success of a democratic polity.

Indian Democracy and the Political Parties

Bryce says political parties are important mechanical device for running a democratic government, and they play a significant role in the successful working of a democracy. Political parties help to form and express public opinion, participate in elections and through them provide political education; nominate candidates in order to win elections, and if a party gets a majority, it forms the government; and rest of political parties play the role of opposition and criticize wrong and arbitrary acts of government; and if get a chance, these provide an alternative government. In modern democratic age, there is not hidden but open struggle for gaining political power among the political parties.

In India we have multiparty system. Here politics is dominated by several national and regional political parties. National political parties are those which have influence and following all over the country; and national interest is always upper most in their minds. Presently, there are five national political parties : Indian National Congress, Bhartiya Janata Party, The Communist Party of India, CPI (Marxist) and Bahujan Samaj Party. Amongst them Indian National Congress is the oldest and remained the most dominant one.

The regional political parties have their influence and activities restricted to a particular state or a region. It would be wrong to think that these regional parties are either weak or that they are short lived; often they are very powerful in their states or regions.

Among the major regional parties in India are : DMK and AIADMA of Tamilnadu, Telgu Desam of Andra Pradesh, Jharkhand Morcha of Jharkhand, Asam Gana Parishad of Assam, Shiv Sena of Maharashtra, National Conference of J&K, INLD of Haryana and Shiromani Akali Dal of Punjab etc.

The history of birth and growth of political parties in India is very interesting. Some political parties came into existence before independence and others after independence. As and when political situation changed, old political parties were disintegrated or divided and new came in to existence. Some political parties have extinguished like a human tail, and others have emerged in new Avatars. Now we will describe the birth, ideology, policies and programmes of some most dominating political parties in Indian politics:

National Political Parties :

Indian National Congress

The birth and history of Indian National Congress is linked with the history of Indian struggle for independence. On December, 1885 at Bombay Indian National Congress was formed under the patronage of a British Officer

A.O Hume and other Indian patriots. Under the leadership of congress, war of independence was fought and ultimately won when India became independent on August 15, 1947. After independence except some spells of years, it ruled the country. It was divided twice in 1969 and 1978 and both the times Mrs. Indira Gandhi had upper hand. After many ups and downs, presently, Indian National Congress is emerging again as a national political force under charismatic leader Mrs. Sonia Gandhi.

The leadership of the party always has been in the hands of upper middle or middle class. The main support base of the party has been religious minorities, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, labour and capitalist classes, women, elder generation and common masses; because of its certain policies and conduct of their leaders its support base has been eroded among religious minorities, labour class, common masses and even scheduled castes.

Ideology of the Congress Party:

Secularism and Socialism : Indian National Congress developed its own ideology based on Indian history, experience and society. Even before independence it strongly believed in secularism, freedom and respect for all religions.

Liberal and Mixed Economy : Indian National Congress believed in mixed economy since independence. Under its neo-liberal and mixed economy scheme the party was in favour of disinvestments, open competition and free market along with some key public undertakings.

Apart from the above ideologies, the party stands for democracy, human rights, national unity and integrity, strong centre and a policy of non-alignment; it is opposed to racialism, colonialism, imperialism, nuclear war and strongly believed in world peace.

Policies and Programmes

The Party stands for political stability, secularism, social harmony, unity through diversity, economic growth and self reliance and Rajniti to Lokniti.

The party wants the revolutionary changes and improvements in the field of agriculture and rural development. For rural development it has a vast number of schemes like use of scientific and technological knowledge for rural development, to encourage cooperatives, start training courses and to encourage industries in villages. The party aims at all around development of Indian industry. For this purpose it proposes to development techniques for industrial production, to adopt liberal economic policy for industrial development adopt a selective policy of disinvestments, to encourage agricultural industry, to

encourage Indian Multinational Companies for their development, to provide maximum bank facilities for industrialists and to encourage import capital where national interest demands. To improve the conditions of labour, to aid and help scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, to help backward classes financially. The Party aims at to, protect minorities, women and children. It wants to improve and reform education and provide free and compulsory education to the children upto secondary level. It want the development of science and technology and encourage Panchayati Raj Institutions.

Bhartiya Janata Party

Generally, people think that the Bhartiya Janata Party was rebirth of old Jana Sang. Dr. Shayama Prasad Mukharjee was founding father of Jana Sang who was a top class leader of the Hindu Maha Sabha. On October 21, 1951 some top brass Hindu leaders assembled at Delhi, and a child of Hindu Maha Sabha, Jana-Sang was born. Dr Shayama Prasad Mukharjee was elected its first President. There is another view also that Jana-Sang was born out of RSS as its top leaders were also members of RSS; and RSS trained and supplied leaders to the Jana-Sang.

Birth : The Janata Party Parliamentary Board passed a resolution in March, 1980 : No legislature or office bearer of the Janata Party shall participate in the day to day activities of the RSS. To Jana-Sang members, the constituent of the Janata Party, this resolution was unacceptable, therefore, all of them resigned. They held two days conference at Delhi on 5 and 6 April, 1980. This conference gave birth to a new called Bhartiya Janata Party and Atal Bihari Vajpayee was elected its first President.

Ideology : On December 28, 1980 a national conference of the Bhartiya Janata Party was held at Bombay, and the following five ideological principles called 'Our Five Commitments' were adopted to make them the base of it policies and programmes :

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------|-----|---------------------|
| (a) | Nationalism and national integration | (d) | Democracy |
| (b) | Positive secularism | (e) | Value base politics |
| (c) | Gandhian socialism | | |

The leadership of the party is in the hands of upper middle class, professionals and big businessman. The supporters of the party are Urban People, Traders, Industrial Class and Youth; and recently its support base has been eroded because of its certain policies and actions among urban people.

Policies and Programmes :-

A meeting of the National Council of the Bhartiya Janata Party was

held at Gandhi Nagar in May, 1998 in which its main policies and programmes were approved. These are summarised as below :

- (a) To abolish completely evil of untouchability, to help scheduled castes and other weaker sections of society.
- (b) To help and protect minorities and to fight for human rights.
- (c) To revive and encourage village industries and to strengthen cooperative movement.
- (d) It would endeavour to strengthen the policy of non-alignment and would try to lessen the dominance of super powers. To make India as a permanent member of security council.
- (e) To re-examine the nuclear policy.

It is pertinent point to mention that the Bhartiya Janata Party under the present leadership has carved out its own niche in Indian politics. Now it is considered to be a party which can make its claim to power single handedly; it may provide an alternative to the Indian National Congress. But it must respond to some challenges before it; it must dispel misgivings about its communal character and give due respect and a sense of security to minority; it should strengthen its base in the southern India; it should make required changes in its ideology and policies in the light of its experience in Indian Politics.

Communist Party of India

In the beginning of the 20th century, a group of radical youth within Indian National Congress, was dissatisfied with its policies like its demand to establish representative institutions and not a complete independence for India; they differed with its policy of begging favours from the British. The Russian Revolution under the leadership of Lenin inspired these Indian Youths for attaining independence through revolutionary means. These disgruntled youths established many Marxist organizations. All these Marxist organizations assembled at Kanpur in 1924, and under the leadership of Manvinder Nath Rai, the Communist Party India was formed.

During the freedom struggle the Party had a belief that all Indian problems can be solved through Marxian ideology. It is also strongly believed that in order to throw the British Yoke and to attain independence, the use of revolutionary methods are most essential; and because of these views the Party was banned by the British Government. When Soviet Russia joined Second World War in favour of England, the British Govt. changed its attitude towards the Party and ban was lifted.

After independence, at the time of first general elections in 1952 it promised to the people to attain its objectives through constitutional and peaceful means. It attained a good success in that election and in subsequent General

Elections its performance was satisficatory, and only in 1999 elections its popularity declined. The CPI formed first ever non-congress government in Kerala in 1957.

Ideology : Originally, the CPI was based on the ideology of Marxism-Leninism. The Party aimed at to change all old Indian social, economic and political systems and to create a new society based on Marxism-Leninism. Its aim was to banish poverty, to liberate poor workers from exploitation, and to provide equal opportunities. All these objectives are to be attained through constitutional means. Briefly, the Party wanted to attain socialism through democratic means.

Apart from above basic ideology, the following ideas are also a part of its ideology. It supports secularism, human rights, unity in India, policy of non-alignment and nuclear disarmament; it opposes feudalism, economic liberalism, new colonialism and imperialism.

The leadership of the Party is in the hands of middle class intellectual or working class leaders. The Party has support base among working class, peasants, landless labours, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, youth and *intelligentsia*. Its base has been divided since its disintegration in 1964 between it and CPI (M); and its base has also been eroded in urban intelligentsia, youths and even scheduled castes.

Policies and Programmes

During the 13th Lok Sabha elections held in Sept.-Oct. 1999, it issued an election manifesto, on the basis of which the following are its main policies and programmes :

- (a) It believes in alternative path of economic development, and land reforms are key to progress.
- (b) It wants to grant rights to working class, agricultural workers, dalits, tribals and minorities.
- (c) It wants family, women and child welfare.
- (d) It wants to grant right to education and housing to all.
- (e) Believes in electoral and judicial reforms.
- (f) It wants to help people in the field of employment, health and environment.
- (g) It aims to end corruption.
- (h) It favours resource mobilization, to provide adequate finances for infrastructure of industries.

The Communist Party of India (Marxist)

The Communist Party of India was divided in 1964, and as a result a

new CPI (Marxist) was born. The division was not a consequence of an immediate cause, but it had a long background. Soon after independence ideological difference appeared in the Party. First basic cause of differences was attitude of the Party towards Indian National Congress and its leader Pt. J. L. Nehru. A majority of Party leaders thought that congress and its leader Pt. Nehru were very progressive, therefore, with cooperation to them, socialism can be established in India. The opposite a small group of the Party did not agree with this point of view, because it thought congress to be a party of industrialists, capitalists, and feudal lords. Second reason of their differences was ideological changes within the communist camp at international level. The Communist Party of Soviet Russia declared that socialism is possible through constitutional means. The Chinese Communist Party and some other communist leaders blamed Soviet Russia for revising Marxism and dubbed Russia as a revisionist. This ideological debate also affected the Communist Party of India. Thirdly, the immediate cause of division of the Party was Chinese attack on India on October 20, 1962. One main group within the Party condemned this attack, while other small group did not like this condemnation. When meeting of the National Council of CPI was called, 32 members out of 106, formed a separate group and on Decembers, 1964 they constituted a new CPI (Marxist) which was recognized by the Election Commission of India.

The leadership and support base of CPI and CPI (M) was the same but got divided. Its leadership was more radical and aggressive than CPI's. Its main support base is labour, landless and small farmers, radical youth and intelligentsia. The Party does not enjoy support in all states in India; it has its dominance in West Bengal, Kerala, Manipur, Tripura and some parts of Bihar.

Ideology : In all its activities the Party is guided by the philosophy and principles of Marxism-Leninism which alone show to toiling masses the correct way of ending exploitation of men and their complete emancipation'. The Party is vehemently opposed to capitalism, feudalism, new-colonialism, imperialism, authoritarianism and even to western democracy. The Party thinks the western democracy is not real because in it the capitalist class controls political power. Therefore, the Party is in favour of popular democracy or Jana Loktantar in which the ruling power rests in the hands of proletariat class. It is worth while to mention that the Party wants to attain its objectives through democratic means.

The Party supports human rights, the secularism and non-alignment policy followed by India; it favours conditional nuclear disarmament. The Party stands for National Unity and Integrity; and a unity of leftist democratic front. For a pretty long time, the Party considered China as a God father, but now its ideology is completely nationalistic in approach and content.

The Party favours election reforms like to ban the entry of people in elections with criminal records. It also want reforms in public distribution system. It favours granting of basic rights for agricultural workers working class and minorities. The party wants to end curruption at all levels of administration and goverment as well.

National Democratic Alliance

In February-March, 1998, the election of Lok Sabha were held. After election 16 political parties together under BSP led by Atal Bihari Vajpayee formed government on March 19, 1998. The government was defeated in its confidence vote by a margin of single vote because of horse trading in politics, on April 17, 1999 and it resigned. On May 15, 1999, the Bhartiya Janata Party and its allies about 26 parties formed National Democratic Alliance. It was a unique political out fit in Indian politics.

Under the leadership of LK Advani a committee was constituted by NDA to prepare a common election Manifesto. On August, 1999, the Election Manifesto was issued. The following are its main political commitments, policies and programmes as expressed in Manifesto :

Principal Commitments : The NDA is committed to National Security, National Reconstruction, Dynamic Diplomacy, Federal Harmony, Economic Modernisation, Secularism, Social Justice and Probity.

Policies and Programmes

- (a) It would form a stable, strong and progressive government; it would ensure National and Internal Security.
- (b) It will make our country genuinely secular and protect minorities.
- (c) It would endeavour to provide Housing and Education to all, would try empowerment of women, welfare of children, welfare of scheduled classes, scheduled tribes and backward classes.
- (d) It would attempt to achieve constitutional and law reforms.
- (e) It would control population, enact Prasar Bharti and eradicate corruption and poverty and to provide means of employment.
- (f) On economic and industry side it would give impetus to Swadeshi process, strengthen domestic industries in order to compete with industries of other countries, to encourage development of international trade.
- (g) On agriculture side it would spend 60% Plan funds on agriculture, irrigation and rural development; and subsidies would be given in a manner which may benefit all concerned; a National Water Policy will be framed under which all disputes over inter-states rivers may be

solved, village industries will be encouraged, training to workers of village industries like handlooms and other artisans will be provided.

Regional Political Party-Shiromani Akali Dal(Punjab)

Shiromani Akali Dal is a one of the best known regional political parties in India. It has a privilege of coming into existence before independence. It was formed under the twin leadership of Master Tara Singh and Sardar Kharak Singh in 1920. The Dal was formed with the objective to liberate Gurudwaras from the clutches of Mahants, and maintain their sanctity; and to provide due respect and a holy place to Sri Granth Sahib. To attain these objectives, Shiromani Akali Dal started a powerful movement in which thousands of the Sikhs were arrested and hundreds of them were martyred. Ultimately the government had to surrender and Shiromani Gurdwara Prabandhak Committee was established under a law in 1920, to maintain and manage Gurudwaras and other religious affairs. As a result, the Shiromani Akali Dal which was basically a religious organization became a political force and an entity.

After independence, the Shiromani Akali Dal carved out its own niche in Indian Politics and played a key role in the politics of Punjab and its adjoining states. In the first General Election held in 1952, the Dal participated in Punjab and PEPSU it had honourable victories. In the second General Election held in 1957, it had an alliance with Indian National Congress and Captured 26 seats in the State Legislative Assembly of Punjab. This alliance proved short lived and Dal under the leadership of Master Tara Singh started working independently. The Shiromani Akali Dal started a powerful movement for the creation of Punjabi Suba on the basis of Punjabi language as a majority of India States were already reorganized on the basis of language except Punjab. After a long struggle and sacrifice, Punjab was reorganized on the basis of Punjabi language on November 1, 1966; and a long time genuine demand of Punjabi was accepted. But Shiromani Akali Dal remained unsatisfied and accepted truncated Punjab because many Punjabi speaking areas were left deliberately out of it, its capital Chandigarh was firstly allotted to Haryana and later made it U.T., and its prestigious Bhakhra Dam was kept out of its control.

Since 1967, the Shiromani Akali Dal has been playing a significant role in Punjab and national politics. Its some of towering leaders are popular and well known throughout the country. The Shiromani Akali Dal came into power for a number of times, but was seldom allowed to rule its full term except 1997. The Shiromani Akali Dal has remained by and large a divided house, and it was again divided by two stalwarts of the Dal and it resulted into its defeat in the elections held in February, 2002 and power was captured by the Indian National Congress led by Maharaja Amrinder Singh.

The main objectives of the Shiromani Akali Dal

On September 2, 1974, the working committee of the Shiromani Akali Dal accepted the constitution of the Dal and in which the following 5 objectives were enumerated :

1. To propagate Gurmat and Rehat Maryada and to Wage a movement against atheism and Manmat; and to endeavour for the improvement in the management and proper maintenance of the Gurudawaras.
2. To maintain the feelings of a separate independent Panthic identity among the Sikhs; and to create such a nation in the Sikh Panth gets its realization and is enabled to express its feelings of community.
3. To endeavour for banishing poverty, scarcity and hunger; and to generate enough wealth in order to create a just economic order; to remove inequality of wealth and exploitation and to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor.
4. In accordance with the objectives of Gurmat, it would endeavour to banish illiteracy and remove discrimination against untouchability, and caste system.
5. To make endeavours to treat diseases and ill-health; and to ban intoxicants and to improve good health so that the Sikh Community may become strong and courageous enough to defend itself against any onslaught on it.

Ideology : The commandment of Guru Nanak : 'Sarbat Da Bhalla is the basis of its all policies and thinking. It stands for the welfare for all; it strongly believes in the concept of Punjabiati; but it also vehemently advocates to encourage feelings of love and fraternity, cooperation, peace and good will among all the communities of India; it wants to be in unison with other like minded political parties, to create a just new administrative, economic and social order in Punjab as well as in India.

Policies and Programmes

The Shiromani Akali Dal has presented its Manifestoes for the elections held in February, 1997 and February, 2002, and were presented before the people. On the basis of those Manifestoes and its other deliberations and resolutions passed from time to time, the following are some of its major policies and programmes :

1. The Dal is a party to imitate the concept of co-operative Federalism in India; it believes in the constructive cooperation and mutual welfare between the union and states; it favours redrafting of relations between the union and states in the light of experience of the working of our

- federal system; it wants redistribution of financial resources between the union and states; it advocates more powers for the states.
2. The Shiromani Akali Dal is in a way, a pioneer for ushering in the Green Revolution in Punjab. It wants to base agriculture on scientific lines, so that there may be better production in quality and quantity both; the traditional problems of agriculture, diseases of crops, high breed seeds, manures, better water management etc. will be managed by scientific and technological advancement in agriculture.
 3. The Dal impresses upon the union government to develop big industries in Punjab.
 4. The Dal advocates vehemently for economic reforms. It believes in eradication of poverty and to reduce the gap between the rich and poor; it wants to break financial monopoly of capitalist and money lender, and stop them for exploitation of poor farmers, labourers, farm workers, scheduled class and backward class people.
 5. The Dal believes in the protection of Punjabi Culture. The Dal strongly feels that it is through sound system of education alone, our community can be properly educated, will produce wise, experts and professionals in the various fields of modern knowledge.
 6. A major plank of the Shiromani Akali Dal has been to see the welfare of government employees of Punjab; it granted them better pay scales and service conditions and tried to provide them better living conditions.

The tragical feature of the Shiromani Akali Dal has been its internal discussions, personality clashes and short sightedness of its leaders; and this has always led to its divisions and sub-divisions and ultimately a fall from grace and power. A number of times, its governments were formed and were dismantled and could not complete their legitimate terms. Sometime the Dal and its leadership and other time its narrow and parochial attitude and blatant interference of the union government for the Dal's tragedy.

The Role of Opposition

In a modern democratic age, the political parties play a significant role for the success of democracy. The political party which controls the government is called a ruling party and rest of the political parties are opposition. In a democracy, the opposition in no way is less important than the ruling party, because it criticizes wrong policies and misconduct of the government; and it can also provide an alternative government if the situation demands and thus saves the country from a political crisis. The role of opposition party in a democracy is described below :

Criticism of the government : The main role of the opposition is to criticize

wrong policies and mal-functioning of the government because these are detrimental to the interest of common masses. The opposition criticizes government within and outside legislature. It criticizes the government through high charged debates, moving motions, asking questions from ministers in the Assembly during a session; and during the most important No Confidence or Confidence motion moved in the Assembly. Here it is worth while to mention that this criticism is not for the sake of criticism; rather its objective should be to high light the wrong policies of the government and its mal-administration, before the people. The opposition through its criticism also provides suggestions to bring efficiency and improvement in the government and sometime these are accepted by the government.

Cooperation : The ruling party and opposition may differ on their ideology or in approaches to sort out the problems of the people, but their view points may rarely go against the interest of the nation. It is the national duty of the ruling party to take into confidence and discuss with opposition all national problems and seek its cooperation to solve them. It also becomes a national duty of the opposition party to do constructive criticism of the government and to extend their cooperation to sort out the burning national problems.

Political Education : The success of democracy depends on the political awakening of the masses. The political parties are the best tools for imparting political education or for political awakening. The political parties through street meetings, assembles, seminars, talks and press make people concious of public concerns and awaken them about the functioning of the government and administration. The opposition through this process imparts political education to the people.

Public Opinion : Generally, people differ regarding national problems and about their solutions. The ordinary masses are unable either to understand them or put forword suggestions to sort them out, because they neither have capability and time nor are inclined for them. Therefore, the opposition (political parties) endeavours to form public opinion on common public issues. While doing constructive criticism of policies and programmes of the government, they do their best to form a sound public opinion and then convert it into their favour, because formation and fall of the government largely depends upon the opinion of the people. Thus, the oppossion becomes an instrument for the formation of a sound public opinion.

Checks Authoritarianism : A normal tendency of any government is to lead towards authoritarian regime. Even democracy some time starts misuse of its authority and shows a tendency of authoritarianism. It is the opposition alone which checks the government from misuse of its authority; it checks the

authoritarian powers of the government through criticizing the government within the legislature and outside of it.

Forum For Grievances : The common masses have a lot of problems and grievances against the working of the administration. The opposition conveys people's grievances to the government, and it stresses the government to remove those grievances at the earliest. Thus, the opposition expresses grievances of the people and helps them to sort them out.

Legislative Role : The opposition plays an important role in the legislative matters. When the bills are introduced in the legislature, the opposition participates on their deliberations and debates on their positive and negative aspects; and the opposition through parliamentary committees scrutinize them for their better form and contents.

Alternative Government : An opposition plays a crucial role in a political crisis when a government loses its majority and resigns; then an opposition may provide an alternative government; as under such a situation the leader of the opposition is invited to form a government and if he can muster a majority, he forms the government, and if he is unable to do so, then new elections are held in the country in order to form a new government.

Exercise

(A) Answer the following questions in 1-15 words:

1. What do you understand by democracy?
2. Explain Etymological meaning of democracy.
3. Describe one main conditions for the success of democracy.
4. Enumerate four features of Indian democracy.
5. How many types of election systems are in the world?
6. What do you mean by Public Opinion?
7. Enumerate the one meaning of formation and expression of Public Opinion.
8. When and under whom the Indian National Congress was formed.
9. When and under whom the Shiromani Akali Dal was formed.
10. Name the four National Political Parties in India.
11. Mention the name of two regional political parties.
12. Describe ideological base of the Shiromani Akali Dal.
13. Explain ideology of the Indian National Congress.
14. Describe the ideological base of the Bhartiya Janata Party.

OR

15. Explain the ideology of the Communist Party of India (Marxist).

(B) Answer the following questions in 50-60 words:

1. Describe the main features of Indian Democracy.
2. Explain briefly the electoral process in India.
3. Name the main means of formation and expression of the Public Opinion.
4. Describe the importance of Public Opinion.

(C) Write a short note on the following :

1. Main objectives of Shiroman Akali Dal.
 2. Emergence/Formation of Bhartiya Janta Party.
 3. Foreign Policy of Indian National Congress.
 4. Formation of the Commonest party of India.
 5. Role of the opposition.
 6. Essential condition for the success of Indian democracy.
 7. Main principles of Indian democracy.
 8. Indian democracy at work.
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LESSON-V

Indian Foreign Policy and United Nations

Foreign Policy of India

The foreign policy of every country is based on certain principles; and it has some features of its own. These principles and features are dynamic and not static, they change with the change of domestic and international situation, because every nation adjusts its foreign policy and responds to national and international situations.

The first Prime-minister of the country, Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru, was the founder of Indian Foreign Policy. While formulating foreign policy, he kept in his mind our national interests, situation at home and at international level. After Pt. Nehru, Indian Governments have tried to adhere to the basic principles of foreign policy laid down by him. Now, we will describe the basic principles and main features of Indian Foreign Policy under the following heads :

1. Policy of Non-alignment : India has made the policy of Non-alignment as a corner stone of its foreign policy. When India got independence, the world was divided into two hostile camps - Anglo-American bloc and Russian bloc. Pt. Nehru strongly believed that for national reconstruction, India should keep herself aloof from the struggle between both of these blocs. Therefore, he adopted a policy of non-alignment. In his own words : "when we say that our's is a policy of non-alignment, we mean it is to be non-aligned to the military blocs. It is not negative, rather it is positively deterministic and dynamic. So far as military groups and cold war are concerned today, we do not associate with any of the power groups". Briefly, the policy of non-alignment means : To keep away deliberately from the struggle of power blocs, to have no ill-will or malice towards any country, to decide on merit about all international problems and to adopt an independent foreign policy.

It is worth while to mention that Indian Policy of non-alignment became a powerful and effective movement in international politics, and played a significant role in international affairs.

2. Panchsheel : After independence, the relations between India and China were very friendly. An agreement was signed by the Indian Prime Minister, Pt. Nehru and his Chinese counter part Zhou Enlai, on April 29, 1954, concerning areas of Tibet; and in this agreement both the Prime-ministers accepted five principles named as Panchsheel. The agreed five principles are given below :

1. Each country should have respect for the territorial integrity and sovereignty of other country.

2. They should not attack each other.
3. They should not interfere in their internal affairs.
4. They should follow the principal of equality and co-operation.
5. They should follow a policy of co-existence.

While explaining the importance of Panchsheel, Pt. Nehru emphasised if those five principles are implemented, there will be world peace. Thus he encouraged all nations to follow these principles. On December 14, 1959, 82 nations accepted these principles in the General Assembly of U.N. As a consequence, the Panchsheel got acceptance of almost whole of the world.

3. Faith in United Nations : India under it 51 article of the constitution reaffirmed her belief in the objectives and the principles of United Nations. Indian State has been directed under the article 51, to promote international peace and cooperation, to encourage settlement of international disputes through peaceful means and to support the United Nations in its efforts for world peace. Therefore, to make United Nations effective from every possible angle, has been the basic principles of India's Foreign Policy. India believes that all international disputes and problems among nations should be settled through peaceful means under United Nations. India has played a significant role in all the activities of United Nations meant for the maintenance of world peace, is committed to extend all possible help and cooperation to United Nations

4. Opposed to Imperialism and Colonialism : To oppose colonialism and imperialism has been the basic principle of India's foreign policy. For a pretty long time, India has been a victim at the hands of colonial and imperial powers. Therefore, India strongly believed that there can not be world peace, until twin evils of colonialism and imperialism are eliminated from the world. India vehemently opposed the colonial and imperial tendencies found any where. India always had a soft corner and extended her helping hand to all those nations who were struggling to break their colonial or imperial chains, for attaining their independence.

5. Opposed to Racialism : Indians and their leaders before independence, were subjected to humiliating racial discrimination when abroad; therefore, India after independence made its basic policy to oppose racial discrimination practised anywhere in the world. On all world forums, including in the U.N., India vehemently opposed racial discrimination practiced in Rodeshia, South Africa or anywhere else. India believes that the racial discrimination destroys not only the liberty of the people concerned, but it is inhuman also.

6. Support for Disarmament : India has always been a peace loving nation. She believes that the policy of armament and strengthening a nation as a military power, are both dangerous for the world peace. Therefore, to maintain world

peace and to prevent wars and for the security of human race, it is essential to pursue a policy of disarmament and demilitarization for all nations. India from the very beginning, has been against a race for armaments among the rich and powerful nations. Therefore, India pursued a policy of disarmaments and it has been a basic principle of her foreign policy. India is also a member of 18 members Disarmament Commission Constituted by the U.N.

7. Regional Cooperation : India has always favoured international and regional cooperation, because she believes that through cooperation all disputes and problems among nations can be sorted out peacefully. India's foreign policy is based on the principle of developing friendly relations and cooperation with her neighbours. That is why India in order to develop regional cooperation among its neighbours like Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Sri Lanka, Maldives, created a regional organization called SAARC, on December 7, 1985. The main objective of SAARC is to bring regional cooperation, to create good will and friendship and to ensure self reliance and economic development among its members. Since the inception of SAARC, meetings are held regularly for regional cooperation and development.

8. Policy on Atomic Energy : Since time immemorial, India has been regarded as an angel of peace; Shanti Shanti is its Vedic Mantra, never sang anywhere else in the World. Therefore, India has been peace loving nation and opposed to wars. India after independence, stressed the use of atomic energy for peaceful and constructive purposes; she has always opposed use of atomic power for destructive weapons or for mass devastation. But India refused to sign on Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty in 1968 because it was discriminatory; it prohibits only those countries from having nuclear weapons who do not have it, but there was restriction on those who already possessed. Therefore, India made it clear at international forums that although we are deadly against producing and developing atomic weapons for mass destruction, but we have an option to change our atomic policy for our own national security.

When India's powerful neighbours China and Pakistan developed atomic weapons and produced atom bomb, she too had to change her atomic policy. India made it's first atomic explosion in Pokhran in Rajasthan in 1974 which shocked the major powers of the world. In 1998, India again did much more bigger nuclear explosions and became an honourable member of world nuclear comity. In our view this drastic change in nuclear policy was made by India, keeping in mind the interest and security of the nation.

Membership of Common Wealth : Great Britain was regarded as a mother country by her or erstwhile colonies and some other developing nations. The Common Wealth of Nations was established by the mutual understanding between them and Great Britain; and the Queen of England was accepted as

the head of Commonwealth. The membership of the Commonwealth is voluntary. India became its member voluntarily, on May 17, 1945, and she could leave its membership anytime at her own will.

India, after her independence decided to retain the membership of the Commonwealth. Pt. JI. Nehru, on May 16, 1949 observed before our Constituent Assembly : 'we have chosen to stay in the Commonwealth of Nations because we did not want to live in isolation and because it confers on us benefits which do not take away our sovereign status..... It is an agreement by free will to be terminated by free will.' Thus, to remain a member of Commonwealth of Nations has been a major plank of India's Foreign Policy.

Respect for Human Rights : India remained enslaved and under despotic rulers for centuries, and she had a painful experience of insult to human dignity and violations of human rights. Therefore, after independence, India not provided fundamental rights to her citizens in the constitution, but also played a significant role in declaration of the universal Human Rights by U.N. on December 10, 1948.

India has seen not only violations of human rights in various parts of the globe, but has also observed indignity and inhuman treatment to human beings in many so called modern societies. Therefore, to raise her voice against human rights violations and to fight for the security of human rights has been a major plank of India's Foreign Policy.

Prof. Hiren Mukerjee Sums the India's Foreign Policy in these words : Anti Colonialism full equality for all races, ... non-alignment..... recognition of Asia and Africa as new emerging and vital elements in world politics.... Relaxation in international tensions and a peaceful approach for achieving disarmament and settlement of disputes without resorting to violence and war are the basic principles of India's Foreign Policy.

Policy of Non-alignment

At the time of independence of India, the world was divided into two main power bloc - Anglo American bloc and Russian bloc. The international politics revolved around these two power blocs at that time and a cold war started between these hostile blocs which could have resulted into disturbance in world peace and proved fatal for human race. But fortunately, this cold war ended when firstly, there was some understanding between the US and Soviet Russia and secondly, in 1990 when former USSR and later on Yugoslavia got disintegrated.

After independence under the leadership of the first Prime-Minister Pt. Nehru, India decided not to join any military bloc. As India was not aligned to

any of military blocs, its foreign policy was called a policy of non-alignment. Pt. Nehru is regarded the father of this policy of non-alignment. Non-alignment means primarily a policy of not belonging to any military bloc; and it also means that India is not obliged to take a position on the side of any of the big powers; India can follow its own foreign policy independently and it can take independent positions on merit on international issues.

In Pt. Nehru's own words : 'When we say that our policy is a policy of non-alignment, we mean its to be non-aligned to military blocs. It is not negative; rather it is positively deterministic and dynamic. So far as military groups and cold war are concerned today, we do not associate with any of the power groups'. He again observed. 'Our foreign policy is not to keep aloof from the big power blocs and being friendly to all countries and not getting entangled in any alliance military or other that might drag us into any possible conflict'.

To conclude, the policy of non-alignment is neither a policy of neutrality nor of abandonment nor to remain a mere spectator for international happenings and problems; it is a policy to take decisions independently and on merit concerning international problems and play a concrete role in international politics. It is a policy to keep away from military blocs and other groups; and on the basis of equality to inculcate friendly, economic, political and cultural relations with other nations.

United Nations

The experience of the two world wars (1914-19 and 1939-45) made people all over the world terrified as they have never seen war of this kind before. They could never have thought that wars could bring such devastation as never before. So as after the First World War, people felt the need of an organization which should help to solve all international disputes peacefully, and should prevent wars. That was how the League of Nations came into existence in 1920. But, unfortunately, the League was not very successful because it could not prevent even small wars; and small wars could lead to big wars. There were cases in which aggression by stronger countries like Germany went without either any check or punishment. Thus, the League became a weak and helpless spectator to wars and miserably failed in its main objective to prevent wars.

This is why endeavours were made by the US, Britain, Soviet Russia, China and France, even during the war to set up a new international organisation much more effective and powerful than the League. The top leaders of the time jointly decided to create an international organization which could prevent wars and maintain world peace. These attempts of big powers bore fruit, when on June 26, 1945, at Sanfrancisco, representatives of 51 nations accepted and adopted the charter of U.N. The U.N came into existence when

on October 24, 1945, the governments of US, Britain, France, Soviet Russia and China, along with other 14 countries approved charter of the U.N. Fifty-one Nations became original members of the U.N. Over the years its membership has grown much larger and today its number is 193.

Organs of United Nation

The U.N. has six main organs, and these organs have their separate organization and distinct functions. We describe about these organs as below :

General Assembly :

The General Assembly is some thing like UN's Legislature. All member states are its members. Each state sends its five representatives for it, but each member state has one vote on the General Assembly. It is a policy making body. It provides a stage where international problems are discussed and their solutions are sought, thus it plays an important role in international affairs.

It usually meets once in a year in the month of September. Normally, its resolutions are adopted by a simple majority; but in some special cases, its resolutions must be passed by majority of its members.

Security Council :

The most effective and powerful organ of the UN is Security Council; and it is just like an executive of the UN. The UN charter has given the task of maintaining peace to it. The Security Council now has 15 members. It has 5 permanent members - US, Russia, China, England and France. And these members have right to veto. Ten non-permanent members of the security council do not enjoy this veto power. This veto power played a significant role in the maintenance of the world peace. So, it is the security council which decides practically what the UN will do in each situation, particularly in situations of crises and political trouble.

Economic and Social Council :

The UN has some special economic and social objectives; and these are looked after by the Economic and Social Council. The Council plays a significant role in the economic and social developments of member nations; and it also helps to sort out their economic and social problems. The Economic and Social Council originally had its 27 members, and now it has 54; and these members are directly elected by the General Assembly for 3 years term; and its 1/3 members retire after every three years and new members are elected in their place.

The Trusteeship Council :

The Trusteeship Council is an organ which was to monitor and supervise

administration of the trust territories. These trust territories were backward and without self government and were occupied by the Axis Powers; and after war were handed over to big powers for their management and administration.

The number of members of the Council is not fixed. Apart from permanent members of the Security Council; some members are elected by the General Assembly, and the states who administer these territories under the supervision of the U.N.

International Court of Justice :

The International Court of Justice, has no original jurisdiction; it only deliberates and decides those cases which are presented for its consideration. Its main function is to go into and decide legal or other disputes between states by peaceful means. It also renders advice on legal matters when asked for by Various Organs or Agencies of the U.N. The International Court of Justice has 15 Judges; and 1/3 Judges retire after every three years. These Judges are elected for a term of 9 years and are eligible to be re-elected. These Judges are elected by the General Assembly and are approved by the Security Council. The Judges elect from among themselves, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman for the term of 3 years. Its headquarter is at Hague, a capital city of Switzerland.

Secretariat :

The UN has its own Secretariat to maintain its official records and to perform its various functions. The Secretary General is the head of the secretariat; and he is the most important official of the UN. There are 9 other Assistant Generals for his assistance. Although, the Secretary General of UN has no official position or status vis a vis Governments of member States, still he is a central figure and plays a significant role in the international affairs. Presently, the UN Secretary General is Kafi Annan.

The secretary General is elected by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The recommendation must be made by at least 9 members of the Security Council, including its five permanent members. The Secretary General is elected for a term of 5 years and is eligible for re-election if he decides and is dually elected.

India's Role in the United Nations

India is one of 51 original signatories of the UN Charter. Since the hours of birth of the UN till today, India has played a significant role in all activities and actions of the UN either through its organs or Specialized Agencies.

On November 3, 1946, Pt. Nehru while addressing General Assembly observed: 'In this Assembly, I on behalf of people and government of India wish to affirm that we have full belief in the objectives and principles of the UN; and for their fulfillment every endeavour would be made within our capacity'. Article 51 of the Indian Constitution again reaffirms its belief in the aims and objectives of the UN, where the Indian State is directed to support the UN in its efforts for world peace, settlement of international disputes through peaceful means and to seek promotion of cooperation in the world. Now, we will describe the role of India in the UN under the following heads :

Opposed to Colonialism and Imperialism : The UN has always opposed the policy of colonialism and imperialism; and India extended its full support to this policy. India in 1950, along with other countries presented and got passed a resolution in the General Assembly, for the liberation of the colonial countries from the clutches of imperialism. India opposed and condemned in very strong words imperialism in all forms at conferences held in Asia or Africa. For instance, 1986 when South Africa attacked three neighbours, India condemned it and demanded economic sanctions against the white government of South Africa.

Opposed to Racial and Colour Discrimination : India always supported the UN policy and actions against racial and colour discrimination found anywhere in the world. First, in 1952, India raised its voice along with 72 other nations against the policy of racial discrimination pursued by South African Government; and secondly, in 1962 India got passed a resolution against South Africa's policy of racial discrimination. Thus, India played a significant role in the elimination of racial discrimination in South Africa, and ultimately helping her in independence.

To protect Human Rights and Freedoms : One of the main objectives of UN is to protect human rights and freedoms, and to provide respect to human dignity. On December 10, 1948, the General Assembly of the UN made a historical declaration on the Universal Human Rights. This Declaration social, economic, political, cultural and educational rights are included in them. The UN expected that its member states would ensure some of these important rights to their citizens. India always supported UN in this objective and suggested institutions, ways and means to ensure protection of these rights and how violations of human rights can be prevented. India raised her full voice against the violations of human rights and freedoms anywhere in the world.

Maintenance of World Peace : The fundamental and first objective of UN is to maintain world peace, prevention of wars and security of human race. The UN must save humanity from scourage of wars and resultant destruction. Whenever, the world peace was threatened either because of some actual war or threat of war, India always and fully cooperated UN and sent required help of men and

material for stopping a war and maintenance of World Peace. For instance, to maintain peace in Gaza and Congo, India sent her armed forces on the request of UN. Recently, India sent its forces for the maintenance of peace in Yugoslavia on the request of UN. Apart from it, India played a decisive role in Korean problem, Egyptian question of Suez Canal, Iran-Iraq Wars, Cuban Crisis, Indo-China problem etc. and saved the world from a brink of a devastating war. Thus, we find India has played a remarkable role in preventing self destructing wars and in the maintenance of world peace.

Role in Organs and Agencies of UN

India has been a member of various organs and agencies of UN from time to time, and has played a significant role in them. A few instances are given below :

1. India was elected non-permanent member of the Security Council in 1963, 67, 72, 77, 84 and 1991 and played her remarkable role in it.
2. India has remained always a member of Economic and Social Council except a small span and has played a very active and effective role in its working.
3. Mrs. Vijay Lakhshami Pandit was elected first woman chairman of General Assembly in 1954.
4. Dr. Lakshaman Swami Mudaliar was elected President of WHO conference held in Delhi, in 1961.
5. Dr. Radha Krishnan was elected chairman of the UNESCO and made remarkable contributions in it.
6. Sh. Jagjivan Ram was elected chairman of ILO and played a significant role in it.
7. Sh. Nagendra Singh and Sh. RS Pathak were elected as Judges of the International Court of Justice and played a historical role in it.
8. Sh. Narsimha Rao has served as chief of the cabinet of the Secretary General.

India has full belief in the main objectives of the UN and considers it a true guardian of the world peace. On December 24, 1994, Indian Parliament passed a resolution to reaffirm its full faith in the UN and assured the World all the possible help and cooperation within our capacity. India always asserted that world peace can be ensured and a new international economic order can be established by strengthening the united Nations. The UN might not have been able to prevent local wars between nations here and there, but it has definitely saved humanity from any major catastrophic war and thus, on the whole it deserves patting for its maintenance of World Peace so far. Undoubtedly,

India has played her remarkable role in preventing and stopping wars and in the maintenance of the World Peace. It is worthwhile to mention, India stresses that UN should not only confine its activities in military and political fields, but should engage itself to sort out all social, economic, cultural, ecological problems faced by the human race.

India's relations with Neighbouring Countries

India and Pakistan

At midnight of August 14, 1947, Indian sub-continent was divided and a new state of Pakistan was created. The British Policy of 'divide and rule' was responsible for division of India, and ensured enmity between two countries. During the struggle for Indian independence, 'Two Nation Theory' generated bitterness and hostility between Hindu and Muslim communities; and their leaders had deep differences and different perception over the welfare of their communities.

Pakistan was created on the basis of religion alone; and India opposed tooth and nail; the idea of Pakistan, upto the last hour. The Pro-Pakistanis leaders thought as Indians never reconciled to the creation of Pakistan, therefore, at first opportunity, if they get, would merge Pakistan into India again.

After the Partition of the sub-continent, India and Pakistan had a lot of problems like terrible communal riots which brought enormous sufferings to the people and problems of succession : their division of military and civil administration, division of income and credit, division of river water and property left by the refugees etc. These abundant problems of the partition created a lot of bitterness between the two countries.

At the time of Partition of India, the rulers of princely states were given an option or liberty by the British Government to join either India or Pakistan. The ruler of state of Kashmir decided to join India. But Pakistan claimed that Kashmir should go to Pakistan because the majority of inhabitants of Kashmir were Muslims. Immediately, after partition, some armed tribals trained in China were sent by Pakistan in 1947-48, in Kashmir, and later Pakistan's army crossed over into Kashmir, and this led to war between India and Pakistan about Kashmir. Peace was later restored by the UN mediation.

Undoubtedly, Kashmir has been a bone of contention and in General Mushraf's words a 'core issue' between India and Pakistan. The Kashmir has always been a great cause of hostility and wars between India and Pakistan. India firmly believes that Kashmir is an integral part of India and it is her pious duty to defend it; where as Pakistan contends this view.

There were two major wars between India and Pakistan; First, was in

1965, which ended in the Tashkand Agreement, and Second was in 1971 over the question of Bangladesh and Indian army and Bangladesh liberation forces won it. Relations with Pakistan were embittered by the Bangladesh war. But later on, the Prime Ministers of two countries, Mrs Indira Gandhi and ZA. Bhutto met and signed the Simla Accord which said India and Pakistan should try to solve their problems peacefully.

The serious attempt has always been made to ease out tension, and normalize relations between the two hostile countries from time to time. In 1950, there was Nehru-Liyakat Ali agreement. Pt. JL Nehru offered a proposal of 'No War Pact' to Pakistan, but it was rejected. Recently, in 2001 again a similar offer was made by Atal Bihari Vajpayee to Pak President Musharraf, but it was not accepted. Gujral Doctrine presented by Indian Prime-minister to his Pakistani counter part to sort out long lingering problems between the two countries and to have friendly relations and coopertion between the two, too failed because of Pakistan's unwillingness. Recently, dipomatic and political attempts made by Atal Bihari Vajpayee thorough Lahore Bus diplomacy and Agra Summit too miserably failed because of the adamant attitude of Paksitani rulers.

In our view, war can never provide a solution to any problem, therefore, for Indo-Pak problems war cannot be a solution for these problems. Both the countries may have their own political compulsions and may have even opposite view points, but people of both countries must compel their rulers to come to some understanding after giving and taking something; with the main objective to attain permanent cordial, friendly and peaceful relations between the two societies. In this alone lies the welfare of both the countries.

India and China

Among India's neighbours, the largest, populous and the most powerful country is China. India had contacts with China since ancient times. In more recent history, in forties and fifties of the twentieth century, India and China had intimate and friendly relationship; The Indian National Congress had expressed support to the National Liberation movement in China. India became independent in 1947; and in 1949, the Chinese Communist Party came into power in China. Both the countries had sympathy and support for each other liberation.

Panchsheel : In 1954, the Prime Minister of China, Zhou Enlai joined hands with his Indian counterpart Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru and declared Hindi-Chini Bhai Bhai. Both these great leaders agreed on five principles called Panchsheel, which would be followed by them in their relations with each other. These five principles were : Each country would respect the territorial integrity and sovereignty of the other country; they would not attack each other; they would

not interfere in the internal affairs of each other; they should see that in their relations, there is equality and they are of benefit to both; and they should follow a policy of co-existence.

In spite of Panchsheel agreement, the relations between India and China soon started deteriorating and got worst at the end of fifties when China occupied Tibet. In the beginning there were skirmishes or some minor armed clashes on the borders, but on October 20, 1962, there armed clashes turned into a full scale border war between the two countries. This war took place mainly because of dispute over their claims on international borders of both countries. For a long time relations between India and China remained strained and stagnant.

A decade back, both countries made some attempts to improve their relations and began discussions about the settlement of their border issue. A joint working group was constituted to seek an early mutually acceptable solution to border questions; and it was also decided to start border trade between the two countries; and Indian consulate will be opened in Sanghai and Chinese consulate in Bombay.

When Indian President visited China in 1992, the leaders of both countries declared that friendship between the two countries is a main factor for ensuring peace, and an economic cooperation between the two countries was also emphasized. Prime-minister Nar Simaha Rao's visit to China in 1993, gave a big boost to mutual beneficial relations between the two countries; and was a step forward towards solving long standing problems the two countries. The agreement was signed in September 7, 1993, which envisaged measures to ensure that two countries end their differences on boundary question through peaceful and friendly consultations.

Unfortunately, in spite of the best efforts for the last one decade, on the part of both the countries, differences persist and no solution seems to be visible at least on the border issue. That is basic reason because of which there is no normalization of relations between India and China. Let us hope that people of both countries would pressurize their respective governments to forget unpleasant past and adopt a reasonable policy of give and take in order to sort out long standing and waxed border issue between the two countries and live like the good neighbours.

India and United States of America

Presently, the America is the only super power and perhaps the mightiest power of the world. India is the biggest democracy of the world and has all the potentialities to become a world class power. India's relations with America has never been normal; rather these were even, sometime good and bad at

other times. After the Indian independence, primarily because of the America's stand on Kashmir and some other reasons, the relations between India and the America began on an unfortunate note. The following are the basic causes which made sore relations between India and the America :

1. India refused to join any military pacts set up by the America, where as Pakistan joined them by becoming a member of CENTO. Pakistan received arms and other military supplies from the America more than it required for its self-defence. India opposed this policy of the America but she did not bother about India's resentment or protest.
2. The America established military basis in Pakistan and Pakistan always toed the line of America. Therefore, the America gave full support to Pakistan on Kashmir issue, and this was a major cause of bad relations between India and the America.
3. When war broke out between India and Pakistan in 1971, and Bangladesh was just born, the American government threatened intervention on the side of Pakistan and India thought it to be not only unfriendly but a belligerent act of the America.
4. The America has military bases in the Indian ocean in the island called Diego Garcia; India is opposed to these basis, because these can threaten any of the states which are on the banks of Indian ocean. But inspite of India's protests, the America has not taken off the basis from the islands.
5. Recently, there have been two main points of disagreement between the two; firstly, India is trying to develop its nuclear energy and for the production of nuclear energy, it needs very sophisticated nuclear fuel. Formally, this fuel was supplied by America, but recently she has stopped supply of fuel for the Tarapur nuclear plant in India. India felt very bad about this policy of the American government; secondly, India refused to sign the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty as it is discriminatory, because it prohibits only those countries from having nuclear weapons who do not possess it, but it does not impose any restriction to those nuclear powers who already possess nuclear weapons.

Undoubtedly, the reason cited above have created bad blood and tension between India and America, but their relations never deteriorated to a point beyond repair. The frictions between the two countries have never come in their way of mutual benefit and cooperation and particularly economic aid of America to India. In 1991, India received a lot of money from the world Monetary Fund and the World Bank for her development works. In spite of differences in foreign policy, the Indian economy has a close relation with the American- government as well American companies.

Under the Presidency of Bill Clinton, since 1992, there was substantial and positive improvement in relations between India and America. India received the largest economic aid under his rule. Presently, under President Bush, relations between the two countries are some time sore and at other sweet. But on the whole relations are improving and are on the positive side. The American government and its economic organizations are playing a remarkable role in Indian economic system. Let us hope for our still better understanding of mutual interests and security, both being the biggest democracies of the world.

Exercises

(A) Answer the following questions in 1-15 words :

1. Mention four basic principles of India's Foreign Policy.
2. What do you mean by Panchsheel ?
3. What do you understand by the policy of non-alignment ?
4. Describe one of the basic reasons which created bad blood between India and the United States of America.
5. Write briefly an Atomic policy of India ?
6. Enumerate the number of permanent members and non-permanent members of Security Council.
7. When the UN came into existence and how many were it's original members ?
8. What do you mean by Disarmament ?
9. Explain the concept of co-existence.
10. Explain briefly, Trusteeship Council.
11. Describe the basic cause of tension and stagnation of relations between India and China.

(B) Answer the following questions in 50-60 words :

1. Describe the main principles of Indian Foreign Policy.
2. Explain five principles of Panchsheel.
3. Describe the meaning of the policy of non-alignment and reasons for its adoption by India.

4. Describe the organization and functions of General Assembly, Security Council and international Court of Justice.
 5. Describe the role of India in the UN.
 6. Examine the role of India in the maintenance of the world peace.
 7. Describe the main reasons which created tension and hostility between India and Pakistan.
 8. Examine the problem of Kashmir between India and Pakistan.
 9. Describe in short relations between India and China.
 10. Discuss briefly Indo-American relations.
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