

CONTENTS

CHAPTER	NAME OF THE CHAPTER	PAGE
SECTION -A RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT		1
1	RESOURCES AND THEIR TYPES-NATURAL AND HUMAN	2-8
2	NATURAL RESOURCES	9-34
3	AGRICULTURE	35-48
4	INDUSTRIES	49-66
5	HUMAN RESOURCES	67-86
SECTION -B INDIA IN THE MODERN PERIOD		87
6	MODERN PERIOD	88-91
7	THE ESTABLISHMENT OF COMPANY POWER IN INDIA	92-102
8	MANIPUR AND THE BRITISH	103-107
9	SOCIETY AND ECONOMY IN COLONIAL PERIOD	108-113
10	REVOLT OF 1857-58	114-120
11	EDUCATION AND BRITISH RULE	121-127
12	INDIAN RENAISSANCE	128-133
13	COLONIALISM AND URBAN CHANGES	134-139
14	NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN ART, PAINTING, LITERATURE AND ARCHITECTURE	140-147
15	MANIPUR UNDER BRITISH RULE	148-155
16	THE NATIONALIST MOVEMENT	156-167
17	INDIA AFTER INDEPENDENCE	168-173

SECTION - C	RULE OF LAW AND SOCIAL JUSTICE	174
18	THE INDIAN CONSTITUTION	175-184
19	UNDERSTANDING SECULARISM	185-189
20	PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT	190-198
21	LAW FOR MINIMUM WAGES AND SOCIAL JUSTICE	199-203
22	JUDICIARY	204-212
23	CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM	213-217
24	MEANING OF MARGINALISATION	218-224
25	CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS RELATING TO SOCIAL JUSTICE	225-229
26	GOVERNMENT AND YOU	230-249

SECTION -A

RESOURCES AND DEVELOPMENT

Levels of development are not the same in different parts of the world. The USA, Canada, UK, Germany, France and Japan are well developed. All the countries are not equally endowed with raw materials. The advanced American and European countries are importing required raw materials from the underdeveloped countries of Africa, Asia and South America which abound in natural resources. The manufactured products from these industrialised nations are better in quality and cheaper than the hand-made items. It affects the traditional small-scale and cottage industries. Thus the Asian, African and South American countries have become the main markets of the advanced countries.

The resource-use increases with the pace of development, which, in turn, creates environmental problems like resource depletion and environmental degradation. These problems have to be checked by use of improved techniques. Efforts have to be made to keep the pace of sustainable development .

In the following chapters, we will study in detail about resources, their types, distribution, etc. We shall also study the demographic profile of Manipur in brief.

CHAPTER - 1

RESOURCES AND THEIR TYPES-NATURAL AND HUMAN

“Don’t leave the tap running while you brush your teeth. You are wasting water. Close the tap.”

“Switch off the TV, if you are not watching any programme.”

“Help me in cleaning clothes, utensils and keeping the foodgrains in proper place. We should not afford to waste such resources,” said mother to Sheela.

“Resources ! Can we call water, electricity, clothes and foodgrains as resources,” asked sheela.

“Certainly, anything that can be used to satisfy human wants is a resource”, replied mother. “Look around you and identify the types of resources. The water you use, the electricity you use in your house, the bus you use to reach school, the textbooks you use to study are all resources.”

WHAT ARE RESOURCES ?

Human wants are met by using the gifts of nature like rocks, minerals, soils, plants, animals etc. They are also met by using the things which human transforms into usable materials. Thus any material that can be used to satisfy human needs may be termed as a **resource**. In short, resources are useful things. Human beings are another form of resource since resource-development is possible only through human skills and knowledge.

Any material becomes a resource as and when we find it useful and add some value to it. Some resources have economic value while some do not, i.e. we cannot put a price to it. For example, metals have an economic value, a beautiful sunset may not. But both satisfy human needs.

Time and technology are two important factors that can change substances into resources. The technology to create hydro-electricity has turned flowing water into an important resource.

A thing is not considered as resource when it fails to give satisfaction to human beings. Petroleum was considered as resource only from 27th August 1859, after the world's first commercial oil-well was dug in Pennsylvania, U.S.A.

TYPES OF RESOURCES

Resources may be classified in different ways. However, they are generally classified into three, i.e., natural, human and human-made.

NATURAL RESOURCES

Any material from nature that is used by living beings such as air, land, soil, water, minerals, plants, wildlife, etc., is called a **natural resource**. Many of these resources are required for man's survival. Natural resources are classified into different groups..

1. On the basis of stage of development natural resources may be classified into potential and actual resources.

(a) Potential resources are those found in a region, but not yet put to proper use. These resources could be used in the future. For example, Africa has vast potential of water resources which has not yet been fully utilised.

(b) Actual resources are those which have been surveyed and quantified for actual use. They are being used at present. The regur soil of the Deccan plateau is an **Actual resource**.

2. On the basis of stock, natural resources can be classified into **renewable** and **non-renewable resources**.

(a) There are some resources which man may use as much as he desires. Their supply may last forever as they get renewed or replenished fast. Such resources are called **renewable resources**. Some of them are always available. Solar and wind energy are the examples. There are other resources which get depleted after use. They may, however, be renewed. Water, forests, crops etc., are the examples.

(b) Those resources which are built over a pretty long geological time are very scarce. Once they get depleted they cannot be renewed or replenished. Such resources are referred to as **non-renewable resources**. Minerals and fossil fuels such as coal, petroleum and natural gas are the examples.

3. On the basis of origin, resources are classified into abiotic and biotic resources.

(a) **Abiotic resources** are non-living substances used by human beings, such as minerals, air and water.

(b) **Biotic resources** include all living organisms such as plants and animals. Human beings are also biotic resources.

4. On the basis of distribution, natural resources can be categorised into ubiquitous and localised resources.

(a) **Ubiquitous resources** are resources which are found everywhere. For example, air is a ubiquitous resource.

(b) **Localised resources** are those which are found only in certain places. Copper, iron ore and gold are some examples.

HUMAN RESOURCES

People are human resources. The knowledge and physical strength of human beings transform the physical materials into valuable resources. As such, people are considered valuable assets of a country. People who are skillful are more productive. Education and health make people a valuable resource. Human resources are also called **man-power**. Man has inexhaustible energy and skill. Thus, man himself is a great resource. He is a resource creating factor too. Resources are created for him and by him.

HUMAN-MADE RESOURCES

The resources created by man are known as **human-made resources**. Machines, tools, buildings, etc. are the examples.

Now-a-days, scientific and technical education has given improved technology for greater production. **Technology**, i.e., the technique of making things is a human-made resource. It contributes to the growth of production.

Industries and means of transport are human-made resources. Various political and social institutions are also considered as human-made resources.

RESOURCE UTILISATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Many of the valuable resources have been under the threat of degradation or depletion. This is due to the increasing demand for various resources and unregulated utilisation. The overuse of soil has

caused infertility in many areas. Many plant and animal species have become endangered due to widespread deforestation and unchecked killing of animals and birds. This has made some of them **extinct**. Some others are disappearing fast. Every individual should get involved in taking up necessary steps to stop misusing the resources.

The following are the steps to be taken up for sustainable development:

- To ensure a sustained use of renewable resources.
- To conserve *the diversity of life* on the earth.
- To minimise the damage to natural environmental system.

Resources should be utilised carefully. Besides meeting the present requirements, care must be given for future generations too. This way of resource utilisation is called **sustainable development**.

Some principles of Sustainable Development

- Love and care for all forms of life.
- Conserve the earth's resources and biodiversity.
- Minimise the depletion of natural resources.
- Change personal attitude and practices towards the environment.

EXERCISES

1. **Answer the following questions in a sentence :**
 - (a) What is a resource ?
 - (b) Classify the natural resources on the basis of origin.
 - (c) What are the three categories of resources ?
2. **Answer the questions in about 30 words each :**
 - (a) What are natural resources ?
 - (b) What is renewable resource ?
 - (c) What do you mean by human resource ?
 - (d) What is sustainable development ?
3. **Choose the correct answer :**
 - (i) Which of the following is the essential criterion for a material to become a resource ?

(A) Usefulness to man	(B) Economic value
(C) Wide distribution	(D) Gift of nature
 - (ii) Name a resource which itself is a resource creating factor.

(A) Water	(B) Plant
(C) Man	(D) Soil

(iii) The huge but unused water resources of Manipur may be termed as

- (A) Ubiquitous resource (B) Actual resource
(C) Biotic resource (D) Potential resource

4. Match the following

- (i) Abilities of human beings (a) Widespread deforestation
and killing of birds and animals.
(ii) Economic development (b) Transformation of physical
materials into valuable resources
(iii) Extinction of plants
and animals (c) Rapid industrialisation.

ACTIVITY

- **Make a list of resources that you find in your locality and put them under the categories— natural and human made.**

CHAPTER - 2

NATURAL RESOURCES

LAND, SOIL, WATER, NATURAL VEGETATION, WILDLIFE, MINERAL AND POWER

In the previous chapter, you have learnt about natural resources and their types. These resources are essential for economic development of a country. However, their distribution in the world is highly uneven. Again, the techniques used for their development vary. Thus, wide variations are observed in the levels of development not only among the different countries but also within a country.

LAND RESOURCES

Land is a free gift of nature. It is an important resource and functions as a factor of production. Almost all wealth comes from it and all living beings live on it. It provides for more than 95 per cent of food, clothing, housing, fuel and other human needs. Land covers less than 30 per cent of the total area of the earth's surface. There is more land in the northern hemisphere than in the southern hemisphere. Habitable land that occupies a small portion of the earth forms the real land resource. The availability of land for human use is very much limited.

Of the total land area of our earth, about 30 per cent is occupied by 90 per cent of the world population (over 6 billion people). The remaining 70 per cent is either sparsely inhabited or uninhabited. It is because large portion of the land is either composed of rugged and low-lying topography or the prevailing climate is extreme. Except for

temporary occupation by few scientists for research, Antarctica is uninhabited.

The bulk of the world population (about 66 per cent) live in the sub-tropical and mid-latitude zones. The following map shows the availability of arable land, i.e., land suitable for cultivation.

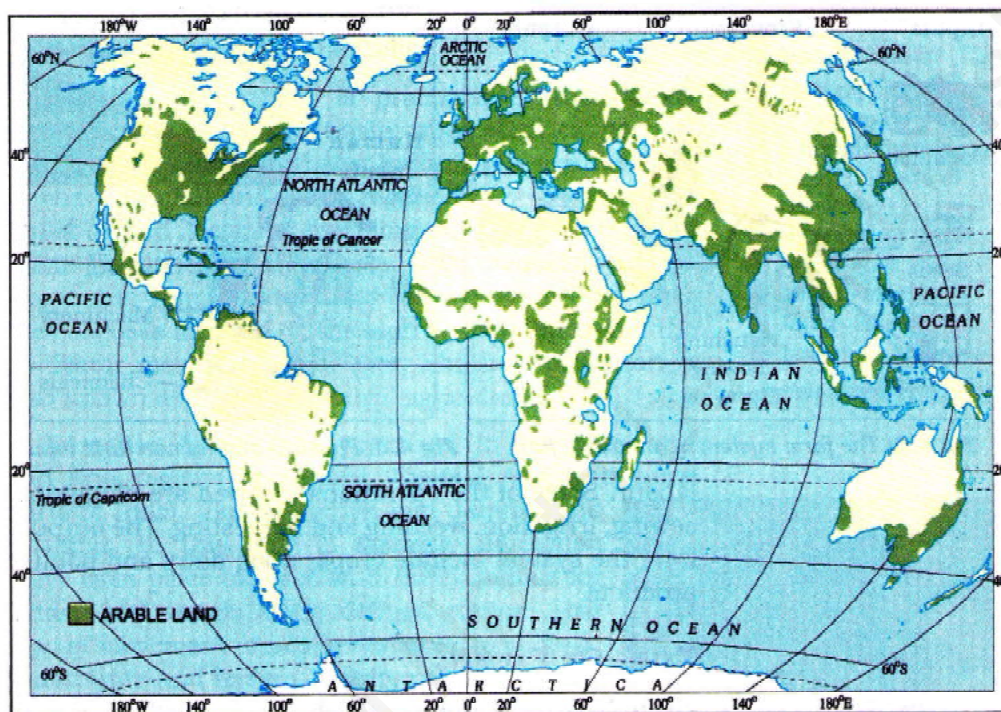


Fig. 4.1: World Distribution of Arable Land

LAND USE

The term **land use** refers to the use of land for different purposes such as cultivation of crops, forests, construction of houses and roads, mining, manufacturing, etc. The proportion of land put to such uses greatly differs from one region to the other. It is called land use pattern.

The land use pattern of a country is influenced by several factors. Topography, soil, climate, availability of water and mineral resources

are the physical factors that determine the use of land. Fertile plains are normally used as agricultural lands. Mining industries are well developed in areas rich in mineral deposits. Besides, economic and human factors also determine land use. Table 1 shows the land use patterns of a few selected countries of the world.

Table 1
Land Use in Selected Countries.

Countries	Percentage of area in			
	Agricultural land	Pasture	Forest	Other uses
Australia	6	56	14	24
Brazil	9	20	66	5
Canada	5	4	39	52
China	10	34	14	42
France	35	21	27	17
Japan	12	2	67	19
Russia	8	5	44	43
UK	29	46	10	15
USA	21	26	32	21
India	57	4	22	17
World	11	26	31	32
<i>Manipur</i>	30	1	67	2

Though India has a high percentage of arable land, its forest cover is quite low. In order to maintain a healthy environment, a country should have one-third of its total area under forests. Manipur, being

hilly, has a high proportion of land under forests. But land available for pasture and other uses is the least.

Growing population has led to degradation of land. To maintain ecological balance, the present rate of degradation must be checked. Afforestation, land reclamation, regulated use of fertilisers, controlled mining and checks on overgrazing are the common methods used to conserve land resources.

SOIL RESOURCES

Soil is the most valuable resource of any country. It is the top layer of the earth's crust. It is a collection of loose particles of small rock-fragments and organic materials. The process of soil formation is extremely slow as it requires hundreds of years to form one centimetre of soil layer.

The factors of soil formation are nature of parent rock, topography, climate, organism contained in the soil and time. The **parent rock** determines the basic characteristics of soil. For example, clay soil is formed by shales while sand grains are made out of sandstones. **Topography** affects the accumulation of soils. Accumulation of weathered rocks is not possible on a steep slope. Instead, it is moved down the slope under the force of gravity. Formation of soil is closely related with **climatic** factors such as temperature and precipitation. Frequent changes in temperature and presence of water in the air increase weathering and thus soils are formed more quickly. Dead plants and animals also provide humus to the soil. The **organisms** like earthworm and ants produce huge spaces in the soil and these allow air and water to pass through. The **time** factor is equally important because the formation of more deeper soil layer is possible through longer period of time.

Fertile soils occur in various parts particularly the river valleys. The fertility in the soil is naturally renewed by annual flooding. The Nile valley in Egypt, the Yangtze-kiang valley in China, the Mississippi valley in the USA and the Ganga valley in India are the examples. India has a variety of relief, climate and parent rock structures. Because of this, we have a variety of soils. Alluvial soils are mostly found in the river valleys and coastal plains while black soil occurs in the north-western parts of the Deccan Plateau. Red soils occur in other parts of the Deccan Plateau. The soils of more rainy places, particularly of north-east India, the Western Ghats and the Chotanagpur Plateau are mainly laterite and infertile. The sandy soils are found in Rajasthan, while mountain soils cover the lower slopes of the Himalayas. In Manipur, alluvial soil is found in the central valley while the surrounding hills are covered with red soil.

Do you know ?

Loess is a form of soil made by the accumulation of wind-blown dust. In China, its thickness is about 300 m.

CONSERVATION OF SOIL RESOURCES

The term **conservation** means wise use of the natural resources to produce the greatest possible benefits to man over the longest possible period of time. Soil conservation refers to the protection of soil from chemical as well as physical loss. For countries, where agriculture is the backbone of the economy, the conservation of soil is extremely important. Some of the important methods used for conservation of soil are:

- (a) Contour ploughing,
- (b) Terrace farming,
- (c) Crop rotation,
- (d) Strip cropping, and
- (e) Afforestation.

WATER RESOURCES

Water is essential for all living beings. In fact, it is a major body constituent of various plant and animal species. It makes up 70 per cent of the human body. Water is used for various purposes such as domestic, agricultural, industrial and generation of electricity.

DISTRIBUTION

Water occupies nearly three-fourths of the earth's surface. However, water bodies on this earth is not readily available for use. The oceans and seas contain about 97 per cent of the earth's total water. The ocean water is saline and not suitable for human consumption. Fresh water accounts for only about 3 percent. Out of this, 2 per cent is available in the form of ice caps and glaciers which cannot be used due to their inaccessible location. Fresh water, which is essential for human consumption, makes up only 1 per cent. It is easily available as ground water, as surface water in rivers and lakes, and as vapour in the atmosphere.

The availability of fresh water greatly depends upon the amount of rainfall in an area. The amount of fresh water available for use may sometimes vary according to the consumption. Though water is a renewable resource, the problem of scarcity has been existing in many parts of the world. The scarcity of water is either due to drying up of water sources or water pollution.

Availability of fresh water in many regions of India is not sufficient. This is due to uneven distribution of rain in the country. Though Manipur

receives heavy rainfall each year, the amount of water available for domestic and agricultural uses is very little. Lack of rain water harvesting is the most important factor for shortage of fresh water in the state.

Now-a-days, many countries have taken up river valley projects to utilise water for various purposes. The multi-purpose projects on the river Nile in Egypt and the Tennessee in the USA, are good examples. The Bhakra-Nangal Dam, the Damodar Valley Project, the Chambal Valley Project, the Loktak Project and the Hirakud Dam are the major multi-purpose projects in India. They also help in controlling floods and soil conservation.

Problems associated with the availability of water

- Shortage of fresh water is a major problem in Africa, west and south Asia, large part of western United States, north-west Mexico, parts of South America and Australia.
- 26 countries have been experiencing scarcity of water since 1999 and the number may increase to 65 by 2025. It will include India, Korea, Nigeria, Peru and Poland.
- Drought and other water problems are the common phenomena of many poor countries. These countries have little chances to get water from other sources.
- Scarcity of water is closely related to over-exploitation and contamination of water sources.

CONSERVATION OF WATER RESOURCES

The growing population and expanding industry have placed an increasing burden on world's water supply. Many industries require huge quantity of water. Though the supply of water is apparently

inexhaustible, its availability is another matter. Scientists have pointed out that the world will soon be short of fresh drinking water if the present rate of population and industrial growth continues. The health of all living beings is directly related with the quality of drinking water. Thus, there is need for conservation of water resources.

IMPORTANT CONSERVATION ACTIVITIES

- i. Afforestation particularly on upland slopes.
- ii. Construction of dams and reservoirs.
- iii. Harvesting of rain water.
- iv. Regulations of ground water utilisation.
- v. Adoption of drip irrigation and sprinkler irrigation.
- vi. Checking of water pollution.

Drinking water should be pure. Disinfection of water should be done only through chlorination and boiling. Untreated or partially treated sewage, agricultural chemicals, industrial effluents, human and animal wastes should not be released directly to rivers and lakes. They are the major contaminants and can cause serious diseases.

Problems in the availability of water

- Clean drinking water is made available to less than 20 per cent of the population in many developing countries.
- Over 60 per cent of families in India do not get water at home. Those families who get water at home constitute only 29 per cent in rural areas and 65 per cent in urban areas.
- Population without access to potable water increased to 3.3

billion in 2000 (1056 million urban dwellers and 2288 million rural dwellers).

- An urban Indian uses on an average about 213 litres of water per day.
- Sharing of water between neighbouring countries remains a hydropolitical issue and can lead to confrontation between countries.
- Rivers and ponds are the major sources of drinking water in Manipur.

NATURAL VEGETATION

By natural vegetation we mean plants growing naturally in any region. Over 3,00,000 plant species are known to exist on the earth.

The physical environment influences the type of plants found in an area. Any change in the physical environment has a great impact on the plant lives. Plant species differ with elevation. The leeward and windward sides of a mountain determine the types of vegetation. High and low temperatures are harmful to plant. Rainfall is another climatic element that influences the growth of a plant. Various types of plants grow in areas having different amount of rainfall.

Now-a-days, cultural forces have become an important factor in determining the growth of plants. One of the significant forces is the increasing pressure of population on land. It causes forest degradation and extinction of many species of plants.

DISTRIBUTION OF NATURAL VEGETATION

Groups of plant communities occur in regions having similar climatic conditions. They are called **biomes**. The major vegetation types of the world are forests, grasslands, scrubs and tundra. Forests are found in regions having abundant water supply. Grasslands are found in regions of moderate rainfall. Thorny shrubs are native to dry regions. Tundra vegetation is restricted to the polar regions and comprises mosses and lichens.

During the second half of the 20th century, forests occupied 29 per cent of the land area of the world. The percentage of the world's forest area is shown in the following table.

Table 2
Regional Distribution of Forest

Region	% of World forest area	% of region in forests
Europe	5	28
Russia	19	34
North America	17	36
Latin America	23	40
Africa	21	27
Asia	11	20
Pacific Area	2	10
World	100	29

In India, forest land accounts for 19.47 per cent of the total geographical area. It shares too little to the world total. The forest cover of the country falls far behind the international one-third optimal norm. However, in Manipur forests cover 68 per cent of the state area.

FOREST TYPES

Forests may broadly be classified into evergreen and deciduous.

EVERGREEN FORESTS

The trees of these forests do not shed their leaves during any season of the year. Sub-types of these forests are tropical and mid-latitude evergreen forests, Mediterranean and coniferous forests.

Tropical Evergreen Forests

These forests are found in the equatorial and tropical coastal regions. Heavy rainfall and high temperature of these regions favour the luxuriant growth of vegetation. The growth of vegetation is very dense. They vary from tall trees to undergrowth and bushes to creepers. Plants grow throughout the year and the canopy of the forests always looks green. Trees have broad leaves. As the vegetation cover is very thick, the sunlight does not reach the ground. Hardwood trees such as mahogany, ebony, rubber, cinchona, rosewood etc. are found. Such forests occur in the Amazon basin in South America, the Congo basin in Africa and in Malaysia. Because of thick undergrowth, cutting of trees for commercial purposes is not easy.

Mid-Latitude Evergreen Forests

These forests are found in the warm temperate regions of southern china, southern Japan, south-eastern Brazil, south-eastern Australia and parts of south-eastern U.S.A. High summer temperature and heavy rains in these areas favour the growth of such forests. Oak, pine, walnut, mulberry, etc. are the important trees.

Mediterranean Forests

The land around Mediterranean Sea and the western margins of the continents in middle latitudes are hot and dry in summer and warm and wet in winter. Such conditions favour the growth of Mediterranean forests. The trees adapt themselves to seasonal changes in temperature. They can withstand the hot summer and remain evergreen. Tree leaves are spiny and small. Trees also have very long roots and are of medium height. France, Italy, Spain, Israel, Turkey, central Chile, south-western Australia and California are the regions where such trees grow. Important trees are olive, oak, cedar, pine, cork and chestnut.

Coniferous Forests

These forests are found in a continuous belt around the North Polar region and high mountains of Europe, Asia and North America. The trees look evergreen as they do not shed their leaves. They are tall, straight and conical in shape. Their leaves are needle-shaped. The main trees are pine, fir, cedar and spruce. These softwood trees are suitable for paper making and are in great demand for commercial use.

DECIDUOUS FORESTS

In these forests, trees shed their leaves in a particular season. It enables them to conserve loss of moisture through transpiration.

Tropical Deciduous Forests

These forests occur in sub-tropical regions with a distinct dry season. Areas having such forests include Monsoon Asia, parts of central America, Brazil, northern Australia and eastern Africa. Trees are less dense and shed their leaves during summer. Teak, sal and sandalwood are the important trees. They are of great commercial value.

Mid-latitude Deciduous Forests

These forests are found in the coastal temperate regions. In winter, the temperature in these areas falls below 6°C. The trees shed their leaves during winter. Western Europe, north-eastern China, Japan, north-eastern USA, New Zealand and southern Chile are the regions where such forests are found. Ash, birch and oak are the important trees.

TROPICAL GRASSLANDS

These grasslands are found in tropical regions. The amount of rainfall in these regions is moderate. The vegetation consists of small trees, shrubs and grasses. The trees are mostly thorny and stunted. These grasslands are found in northern Australia, Brazilian and Guinea highlands in South America and Sudan in Africa. They are called **Savanna**.

TEMPERATE GRASSLANDS

These are the grasslands of temperate regions in the interior of continents. These regions have extreme type of climate with moderate amount of rainfall. The **Prairies** of North America, the **Steppes** of Eurasia, the **Pampas** of South America, the **Downs** of Australia and the **Veld** of South Africa are the grasslands of this type.

TUNDRA VEGETATION

It is found in regions north of the Arctic Circle. Because of ice-covering, these regions do not provide suitable conditions for plant growth. The vegetation consists of mosses, lichens and sedges.

FORESTS IN INDIA

In India, we have five vegetation zones. They are —

1. Tropical evergreen forests
2. Tropical deciduous forests
3. Thorn forests
4. Tidal forests and
5. Mountain vegetation

Manipur has four different types of forests viz., Sub-tropical deciduous forests, Sub-tropical evergreen forests, Tropical moist deciduous forests and Tropical moist semi-evergreen forests.

UTILISATION OF FORESTS

1. Forests indirectly affect climate, soil conditions and stream flow. They also influence agriculture, grazing, recreation and wildlife. They give us clean oxygen.
2. Forests provide a variety of products like timber, fuel, fruits, fibre, roots, cork, rubber, etc. Many of these products are raw materials for forest-based industries.

Temperate evergreen and coniferous forests are well utilised commercially. Norway, Sweden, Finland and Canada are the chief exporters of several forest products like paper, wood pulp and newsprint. Rosewood, sandalwood, teak and mahogany are the trees of Monsoon Asia which have been used economically.

CONSERVATION OF FORESTS

Forests play an important role in keeping our environment clean.

Thus, rapid destruction of this important resource in the name of economic exploitation and urbanisation should be minimised. Afforestation, controlling of shifting cultivation and population, and creating awareness about the importance of forests may help in the conservation of this resource.

WILDLIFE RESOURCES

The term wildlife refers to animals, birds, fishes etc., which live in a natural habitat. Equatorial and tropical forests are rich in wild animals, birds and other organisms.

India has a variety of animals and birds. The lions of the Gir forest in Gujarat, the tigers of the Sundarbans in West Bengal and the peacock are famous. The Keibul Lamjao National Park in Manipur is the home of the brow-antlered deer called **Sangai**. Tourists from all over the world visit the national parks, sanctuaries and biosphere reserves to see the rich wildlife of our country.

Conservation of wildlife Resources

Wildlife is a valuable wealth of different nations. It helps in the expansion of tourism industry. However, human activities in many parts of the world have disturbed the natural habitats of many species. As a result, many birds and animals have become extinct. This has affected the ecosystem. To maintain the natural balance, conservation of wildlife is necessary.

National Parks and Sanctuaries have been set up in many countries to conserve wildlife. Laws have been passed to ban the killing of animals and birds. In India, killing of lions, tigers, bustards, deer and peacocks has been banned.

MINERAL RESOURCES

Mineral resources are the backbone of modern society. We use different minerals e.g., iron ore for making steel, fossil fuels to run machines and automobiles and precious metals for making ornaments. Look at the things we use in our daily life—utensils, machines, television, wires and ornaments. All these are made of some kind of mineral.

Minerals are inorganic substances which consist of one or more elements. They have specific chemical and physical properties. Solubility is a chemical property. Salt, for example, is soluble but quartz is insoluble. Colour and hardness are examples of physical properties. Coal is black or brown but quartz may be red, black, pink or purple. Similarly, a mineral can be as soft as talc and as hard as diamond. Minerals are extracted from the earth's crust through mining.

Classification of Minerals

Minerals may be classified into metallic and non-metallic minerals.

Metallic minerals are those from which metals such as iron, copper, silver and gold are derived. They conduct heat and electricity. They are found in nature as ores. An **ore** is the natural accumulation of metals or valuable minerals in a concentrated form along with several impurities. The process of separating metals from their ores through heating is called **smelting**. Aluminium is derived from bauxite ore.

Metals may further be subdivided into ferrous that contains iron like iron ore and manganese and non-ferrous which does not contain iron like copper, zinc, gold, silver, etc.

Non-metallic minerals do not contain metal. Examples are coal, petroleum, mica, diamond etc.

Minerals can be mined economically only at places where their concentrations are high and they are easily accessible. Thus, mining is limited to sites where minerals occur. Usefulness of a metal can be increased by combining it with other metals. Thus a new material called **alloy** is formed. Bronze is an alloy and it is made up by combining copper with tin.

Minerals are extracted from the earth. The process of extraction of minerals from the earth's crust is known as **mining**. A **mine** is an excavation in the ground for digging out minerals. It may be located deep inside the earth or near the surface. Surface mine is also called **quarry**.

DISTRIBUTION OF MINERALS

Minerals are unevenly distributed over the surface of the earth. The occurrence of minerals is closely associated with the type of rocks. Generally non-metallic minerals like limestone, coal and petroleum are obtained from sedimentary rocks. Igneous and metamorphic rocks are rich in metallic minerals like gold, silver and lead.

Iron: Iron plays a very important role in the industrialisation of countries. The metallic content of the ores varies greatly. Magnetite, Haematite, limonite and siderite are the four types of iron ore. Magnetite is the best quality as it has the highest iron content. Iron is used for making machine tools, machines, vehicles etc. Three-fourths of the world's iron is found in the USA. Iron ore is found in large quantities in Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, China, Brazil, Australia and India. France, Germany, Liberia and South Africa are the other important producers.

In India, iron ore is mined in Jharkhand, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh.

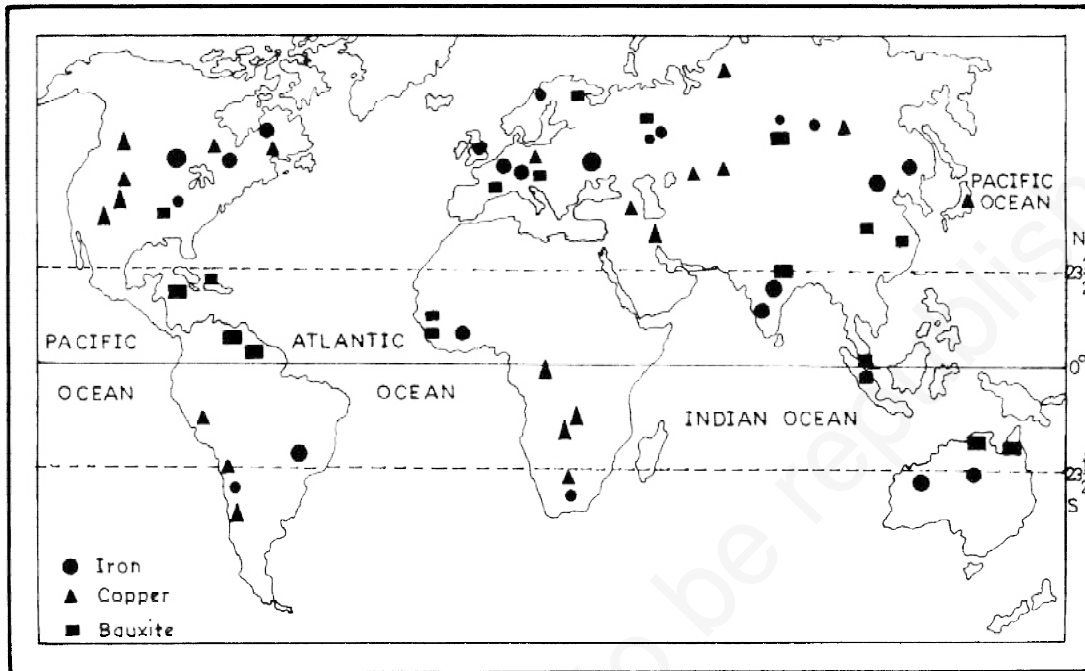


Fig. 2.2 World: Distribution of Iron, Copper and Bauxite.

Copper: Copper has the quality of electrical conductivity. It is largely used in the electrical industry for making wires. Chile is the largest producer of copper in the world. Other leading producers are the USA, Canada, Russia, Poland, Kazakhstan, Georgia, Armenia, Congo and Zambia. In India, copper ore reserves are found in Jharkhand and Rajasthan.

Bauxite: It is the ore from which aluminium is extracted. Being light, aluminium has wide usage. It is used for making aeroplanes, machine tools, electrical goods, coins, utensils etc. The leading producers of bauxite are France, USA, Jamaica, Australia, Guinea, Brazil

and Surinam. In India, bauxite is found in Jharkhand, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.

CONSERVATION OF MINERAL RESOURCES

Developed countries consume the largest amount of mineral resources. If the present rate of consumption continues, the existing mineral reserves cannot meet the increasing demands for long. Thus conservation of mineral resources is required. Some of the measures for conservation include:

- i. finding and using of substitutes
- ii. reducing consumption
- iii. reusing and recycling, and
- iv. using efficient methods of extraction and processing.

POWER RESOURCES

Power or energy is required in all spheres of activity. It plays a vital role in our lives.

Electricity is the most important source of energy. It is generated through thermal, nuclear and hydro power plants. Thermal plants require either coal, mineral oil or natural gas. Nuclear plants use nuclear fuel such as uranium and thorium. Hydroelectric power plants use the force of falling water. Other smaller power plants use solar, wind, tidal and geothermal sources.

Power resources may be grouped into:

1. **Conventional** (coal, mineral oil, natural gas, hydropower and nuclear power)

2. **Non-conventional** (solar, wind, tidal, geo-thermal)

Most of the energy consumed in the world today is produced by coal, mineral oil and natural gas. They were formed by plants and animals buried under the earth several million years ago. Because of organic origin, they are called **fossil fuels**.

DISTRIBUTION OF POWER RESOURCES

Coal: It is a sedimentary rock formed by plants buried under the earth. On the basis of carbon content, coal is of four types: i. Anthracite (above 92% carbon), ii. Bituminous (74-85% carbon), iii. lignite (below 50% carbon) and, iv. Peat (less carbon than lignite). Russia, USA, China, Germany, Canada, India, UK and Poland are rich in coal. Most of the coal reserves of India are found in the Bengal-Jharkhand coal belt. Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Assam, Maharashtra, Meghalaya and Nagaland are other coal producing states.

Mineral Oil: Oil also occurs in sedimentary rocks. About two-thirds of the total world's supply comes from the middle-east countries. Saudi Arabia has the largest reserves. The major producers are Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, USA, Russia, Venezuela, Mexico, Libya and Nigeria. In India, oil is found in Assam, Gujarat and Mumbai High of Maharashtra.

Power and Mineral Resources in Manipur: Power is a form of providing energy. It is the base of all economic development and plays a vital role in industrial, agricultural and commercial sectors. Although, power plays an important role in the development of the state; Manipur is facing shortage of power. The power supply position in the state need to improve to meet the requirement in all sector viz, domestic, commercial, industrial, institutional,

health care, telecommunication water supply, etc. The sources of power are hydropower, thermal, solar, wind, tidal and geothermal energy. The demand of power in the state has been increasing due to increasing population, enterprises and modernization of various economic activities.

The Loktak Hydro Electro Project of Manipur is the important source of state's power supply. The construction work of the Project was started in 1970 and completed in 1982. It was commissioned in 1982 at the first time and again re-commissioned in 1984 targeting to generate installed capacity of three units of 35 MV each. The state continues to be deficit in electric energy.

Mineral Resources

A mineral is a naturally occurring substance having chemical composition with atomic structure formed by inorganic process. Mineral is usually solid and inorganic with a crystal structure. Recently the Geological Survey of India (GSI) and the State Department of Geology have been investigating Manipur and reported occurrences of certain minerals.

Limestone:

Limestones are located at various places of Ukhrul District and Toupokpi, Chakpikarong, Pallel, Nungphura, Nungpal, Sajiktampak, Haikot of Chandel District.

Chromite:

In Manipur, Chromites are located at Lunghar, Phangrai, Sirohi, Gamnom, Pushing, Khangkhui, Yentem, Nungbi, Hangkau, Apong, Chingai, Poi, Pinghang, Nampisha area (Luntching Hill), Kangpat, and Chattrick Khunou of Ukhrul District and abundantly found in Kwatha, Sibong, Khudengthabi and Minou-Mangkang of Chandel District.

Nickel:

Nickel is found at Gamnom and Ningthi of Ukhrul District, near Khudengthabi and Moreh of Chandel District, Nickel associated with the serpentine rock has been located at Nampesh and Kwatha area of Chandel District, bordering Myanmar.

Copper Mineral :

GSI had earlier reported occurrences of copper at Kwatha of Chandel District and Nampisha of Ukhrul District of Manipur.

Serpentinites:

Serpentinites occur extensively in Chandel and Ukhrul districts. The belt extends from Moreh in Chandel District to northeast of Tousem in Ukhrul District up to Nagaland border. Serpentinites are also commercially known as “Green Marble”.

Salt:

Salt is found in many parts of the state. Waikhong, Shikhong, Sekmai, Chandrakhong, Keithenmanbi, Ningel, Nungbrang etc and along the foothills in the eastern hills of the valley.

According to the geological Surveyor of India, there is possibility of the occurrence of petroleum and natural gas deposits in the central valley and Barak basin in the state.

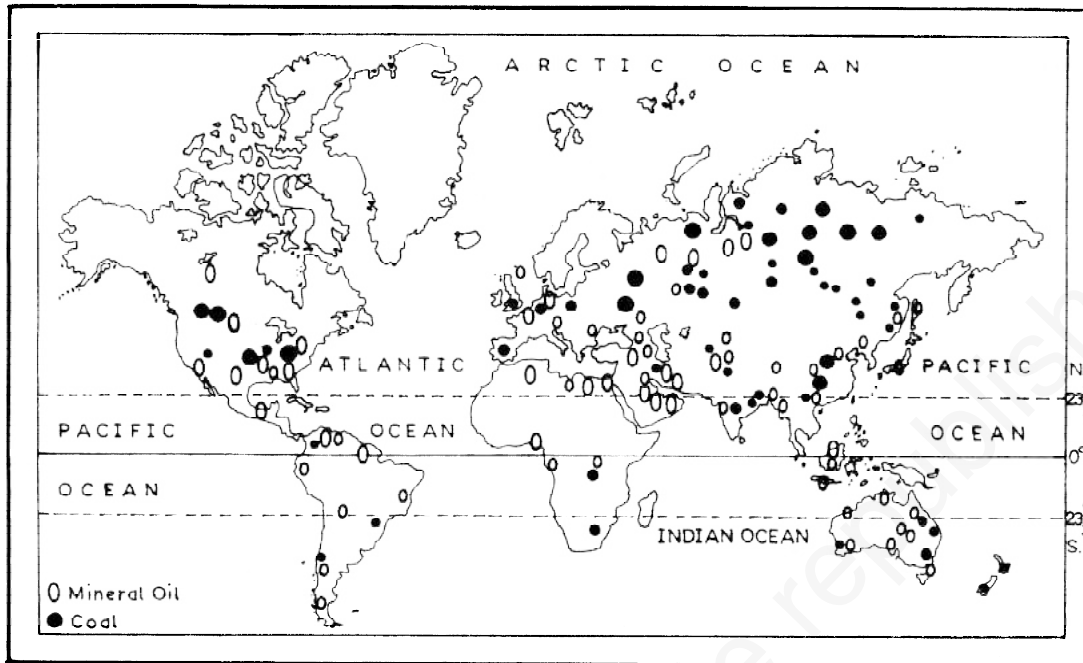


Fig. 2.3 World: Distribution of Mineral Oil and Coal.

Natural Gas: It occurs along with petroleum in the oil fields or separately in gas fields. With the help of pipelines, gas is transported to the consuming centres for long distances. The USA, Russia, Romania, Indonesia, Canada, Italy and Pakistan are the leading producers.

Water Power: It is the source of clean energy and does not pollute the environment. But the energy generated cannot be stored. Water power is inexhaustible. The USA, Canada, Sweden and Norway have developed their water power resources. Africa and north-east India including Manipur have immense water power potential.

Nuclear Power: Distintegration of radioactive elements such as uranium and thorium releases nuclear power. The USA and many European countries produce nuclear power. It is mainly used for generating electricity. India has some nuclear power stations.

The energy derived from the sun, wind, sea tide and interior of the earth is natural and inexhaustible. The USA, Japan, France, Germany, Canada and India are producing solar power for domestic cooking and heating. When the solar heat is converted into electricity it is called **solar energy**. The USA and the Netherlands use windmills for generating **wind energy**. India has some wind mills along the coasts of Gujarat. Russia, Japan, New Zealand, Iceland, Mexico, etc., are generating electricity from internal heat of the earth.

CONSERVATION OF POWER RESOURCES:

The industrialised countries consume large amount of coal and petroleum. Since these energy sources are exhaustible, their conservation is very much essential. Harnessing energy is difficult and costly. We should not waste energy. Energy saved is energy generated.

When was the first oil well drilled ?

- The first oil well was drilled at Titusville, Pennsylvania, USA, in August, 1859.
- The first oil well of India was drilled at Digboi, Assam, in 1894.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in a sentence :

- (a) What is the main climatic characteristics of the Mediterranean region ?
- (b) Why is anthracite the best type of coal ?
- (c) Why do the Tropical Evergreen forests have luxuriant growth of vegetation ?
- (d) What is mineral resources?

2. Answer the following questions in about 40 words each:

- (a) How can soil be conserved ?
- (b) What is the importance of forests to man and the environment ?
- (c) Why is iron considered the most important mineral ?
- (d) Why are coal, mineral oil and natural gas called fossil fuels ?

3. Choose the correct answer :

- (i) Which one of the following is a tropical grassland ?
 - (A) Prairies
 - (B) Steppes
 - (C) Savanna
 - (D) Veld
- (ii) Crude petroleum is obtained from
 - (A) Igneous rocks
 - (B) Sedimentary rocks
 - (C) Volcanic rocks
 - (D) Metamorphic rocks

(iii) Which one of the following resources is widely used in urban areas of Manipur ?

(A) Wind energy

(B) Tidal energy

(C) Geo-thermal energy

(D) Solar energy

4. Fill in the blanks

(a) About 90 per cent of the world's population occupies roughly _____ per cent of its land area.

(b) Alluvial soils are mostly found in the _____ and _____ of India.

(c) The oceans and seas contain about _____ per cent of the earth's total water.

(d) Keibul Lamjao is a _____.

(e) Nuclear energy is a form of _____ energy.

ACTIVITY

- Find out the ways in which the land is being used (land use) in your locality e.g. commercial (shop and offices), industrial (factories), residential (houses, schools and hospitals), farming and forestry.
- Collect information regarding some endangered plant and animal species of Manipur. Make a list.

CHAPTER- 3

AGRICULTURE

The early man gathered wild nuts, fruits and roots from the forests. Slowly man learnt to make better use of the available resources with improved tools, techniques and knowledge. Instead of collecting wild foods, they learnt to grow crops and developed settled life.

Agriculture refers to the cultivation of crops and rearing of livestock. **Crops** are those plant species required to be cultivated for human consumption. These may be either food or non-food crops. **Livestock** include animals such as cattle, sheep, goat, buffalo, pigs etc., and birds like chicken and duck.

Agriculture is the oldest occupation of man. The south-west Asia is found to be the oldest land of ancient agriculture. About 50 per cent of the world's total population is engaged in this activity. Two-thirds of India's population is still dependent on agriculture.

Cultivation of crops is limited to the arable land. Look at Fig. 2.1 that shows the extent of arable land in the world. Relief, soil and climatic conditions are the important physical factors. While some crops are suited to tropical climate, others may grow only in the sub-tropical and temperate regions.

A number of non-physical factors also influence agriculture. These include labour, capital, mechanisation and equipments, market, transport, irrigation, farm inputs (HYV seeds, fertilisers, pesticides, insecticides etc.), land tenancy and land holdings.

TYPES OF FARMING

Agricultural system is different from one country to another. On the basis of agricultural practices, which include size of the farm, tools and techniques used, labour and demand of produce, farming may broadly be divided into subsistence farming and commercial farming.

A. SUBSISTENCE FARMING

This type of farming is carried out by a farmer to satisfy the needs of his family. There remains no surplus for sale. Traditionally, low levels of technology are used. Subsistence farming can be further classified into primitive subsistence and intensive subsistence farming.

Primitive subsistence farming includes nomadic herding and shifting cultivation.

Nomadic herding is practised in the semi-arid and arid regions of Sahara, central Asia, Rajasthan and Kashmir of India. Animals like cattle, sheep, goats, camels, yaks etc are reared. The herders depend on these animals for their livelihood. Thus herders move regularly from one place to another with their animals in search of fodder.

Shifting cultivation is a primitive method of farming practised by the tribals living in the densely forested regions of tropical Africa, south-east Asia, Amazon basin and Northeast India. A plot of land is cleared by felling the trees and burning them. Then crops are grown by using simple tools. It is also called **slash and burn cultivation** (Jhooming). Once the fertility of the soil is lost, the people practising it move to another area for new clearings.

Intensive subsistence farming is mainly practised in the thickly populated areas of the monsoon regions of south and east Asia and adjacent islands. It is widely prevalent in India. These regions are among the

world's oldest agricultural areas and support more than 50 per cent of world's population. The cultivation is done intensively with large man-power and traditional implements in small fragmented plots. Double or multiple cropping is also practised with irrigation, fertilisers and good quality seeds. Rice constitutes the major crop. Besides, wheat, maize, sugarcane, pulses and oilseeds are also grown.

B. COMMERCIAL FARMING

The main purpose of such type of agriculture is to sell the products in the market. Most of the work is done by machines and the areas under cultivation as well as the amount of capital are huge. Commercial farming includes commercial grain farming, mixed farming and plantation farming.

Commercial Grain Farming is mostly practised in the temperate grasslands. It is done extensively in the USA, Canada, Argentina, Russia, Ukraine, Australia and in some parts of India. The farms are very large. Most of the work is done with machines. Wheat and maize are the two most important crops grown. This farming is also known as *extensive agriculture*. Because of large scale production, these areas are known as the *granaries of the world*.

Mixed Farming is a type of agriculture which involves both crops and livestock in the same farm. It is found in Europe, eastern USA, Argentina, south-east Australia, South Africa and New Zealand. Such farming is associated with densely populated, urbanised and industrialised societies. Wheat and maize are dominant crops. The characteristic feature is the interdependence of crop and livestock. A large amount of cereals produced is fed to the animals.

Plantation Farming is a specialised agriculture where cultivation of cash crops is done on a large scale. The products are mainly for export. It is practised in the tropical regions. Rubber in Malaysia, coffee in Brazil, tea in India and Sri Lanka are some examples. In this farming, every farm specialises in one crop only. Large amount of capital, skilled labour, scientific techniques, transport network and managerial skills are employed.

MAJOR CROPS

The crops grown in different regions of the world can be classified into three categories:

1. Food crops e.g., rice, wheat, maize, millets, etc.
2. Beverage crops e.g. tea, coffee, cocoa, etc.
3. Fibre crops e.g. cotton, jute, silk, etc.

FOOD CROPS

Rice: Rice is one of the major cereal crops of the world. It is the staple food of the tropical and sub-tropical regions. In Manipur rice is cultivated for thousands of years. It is believed that the **Poireiton chak-hao**, a special kind of rice which is reddish black in colour, was introduced in the state around 33 A.D.



Fig. 3.1 Rice Cultivation

Rice grows well in the areas having high temperature of over 20°C and annual rainfall of about 100-200 cm. It is grown mainly in deltas, river valleys and coastal plains. Alluvial soil having rich clay

content is best suitable for this crop. It needs stagnant water for luxuriant growth. Upland rice is grown on dry land with little water.

China leads in the production of rice followed by India, Japan, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, Philippines, etc. In India, rice is widely grown in West Bengal, Assam, Orissa, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Karnataka, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and North Eastern states.

Wheat: It grows well in regions having moderate temperature. A minimum temperature of 15°C during summer and annual precipitation of 50 cm - 100 cm is best suited to wheat cultivation. Loamy soil is suitable for this crop. The major wheat producers are the USA, China, Canada, Argentina, Ukraine, Russia, Australia and India.

In India, wheat is grown in the north-west, central and northern plains. The cultivation is done during winter. Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar are the wheat producing states of the country.

Maize: Maize is known as corn in America, It is used as foodgrain and as fodder and is available throughout the year in some parts of the world. It is grown extensively in regions of sub-tropical climate. Long and warm summer with temperature between 20°C and 25°C and an annual rainfall of 90 cm to 180 cm are ideal. It is well suited to rich, loamy and well-drained soil. The USA and China are the largest producer of maize in the world. Other important producers are Brazil, Mexico, Argentina, Hungary, Romania, Italy, India and Indonesia. Maize has not been a major crop in India. But it has gained importance in recent times. It is cultivated in Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. It is also grown in the hill areas of Manipur.

Millets: Millets are important crops grown both for food and fodder. Millets form a group of crops like jowar, bajra and ragi. The crop is well suited to areas where the temperature ranges between 25°C and 30°C with an annual rainfall of 50 cm to 75 cm. Its cultivation may be done in dry areas even without irrigation.

India leads the world in its production. It is grown in Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Karnataka and Maharashtra. Other millet producing countries are Nigeria, China, Mexico, Pakistan and Japan.

BEVERAGE CROPS

Tea: Tea is the most popular beverage in the world. It is the name given to the dried leaves of an evergreen plant known as **Thea Sinensis**.

Tea plantation— a brief history

For a long time tea has been known to India and China as a drink. Chinese were perhaps the earliest tea drinkers in the world. It was also considered as a medicinal drink. The Assam tea was first discovered in 1829 in the forests of north-east India by the colonial British. Large scale tea plantation has taken place in Assam since then. Besides, the British developed plantations in Sri Lanka and Indonesia.

Tea requires high temperature of about 27°C and a rainfall of about 200 cm well distributed throughout the year. Besides, a well-drained gently rolling hill slopes rich in loamy soil are suitable for its cultivation. Thus its commercial cultivation is confined



Fig. 3.2. Tea plantation

to the rainy tropical and humid sub-tropical regions. Major tea producers include India, China, Sri Lanka, Japan and Indonesia. In India, tea is produced in Assam, West Bengal, Kerala and Tamil Nadu. Other north-eastern states including Manipur have also started tea production to some extent. In Manipur tea is grown in Jiribam and Tamenglong District.



Coffee: Coffee is the second most important beverage after tea. Because of its stimulating effect, it is popular all over the world. **Arabica, Robusta, and Liberica** are the three main varieties of coffee.

Fig. 3.3 Coffee plantation

Who discovered the coffee plant ?

There is still a controversy regarding the origin and discovery of coffee plant. Some says it is a native of Africa and is indigenous to the slopes of the Ethiopian Highlands. There is another version. In about 850 AD, Kaldi, an Arab goat-herder, tested the berries of the evergreen bush. On experiencing a sense of exhilaration, he declared his discovery to the world.

Coffee plant requires warm temperature ranging between 15°C and 25°C and an annual rainfall of 100 cm to 150 cm. Both strong sunshine and snow fall are harmful to the plants. The plant grows well on the well drained hill slopes in the tropical areas. Brazil, Colombia, Indonesia and India are the important coffee producers. In India, coffee

is grown in Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. Indian coffee is known for its quality in the world.

FIBRE CROPS

Cotton: Cotton is classified into three types— short staple, medium staple and long staple cotton. The long staple cotton is used to produce fine and strong cloth.

Cotton grows well in the areas having abundant sunshine and uniformly high temperature of 20°C to 25°C. An annual rainfall of 60 cm to 110 cm. with about 210 frost-free days are required for its cultivation. The cultivation is best suited to alluvial and black soils. The major cotton producing countries are the USA, China, Russia, India, Pakistan, Brazil and Egypt. In India, main cotton producing states are Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Gujarat. In Manipur, it is grown locally in small patches.

Jute: Jute is popularly known as the **Golden Fibre** all over the world. It is mainly used for making gunny bags, carpets, ropes, tarpaulins etc.

Jute requires hot and humid climate with average temperature of about 30°C and an annual rainfall of above 150 cm. Alluvial soil of river flood plain favours the luxuriant growth of this fibre crop. Bangladesh and India are the largest producers of jute in the world. In India, this fibre plant is extensively cultivated in the Ganga-Brahmaputra delta in Bengal, Assam and to some extent in Bihar, Orissa, U.P., and Tripura. Jute bags are strong, reusable and give no harm to the environment.

Do you know ?

The Government of India is making efforts to promote a wide variety of jute products. Development of new products like blended textiles, making of bags, shoes, carpets, jute garments and many more are part of the development plans. This is called JUTE DIVERSIFICATION.

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Agricultural development is the efforts taken to increase agricultural production in order to meet the growing demand of an increasing population. Mechanisation of agriculture (use of machines like tractors, weeders, harvesters, etc.) is an aspect of agricultural development. The use of high yielding varieties of seeds, application of fertilisers, pesticides, insecticides, herbicides, weedicides and better irrigation can also bring increased production. In the developed countries, like the USA, Russia, Canada and Australia farmers generally possess large land holdings. Developing countries with large population usually practise intensive agriculture where crops are grown on small land holdings. Let us compare the agricultural development of developed and developing countries with three case studies – one from the USA, another from India and a third one from Manipur.

Case study – A Farm in the USA

In the USA the size of a typical farm is about 250 hectares. Such farm is owned by a single farmer and his family. The farmer generally resides in the farm. The farm under study, has specialised in the

production of wheat. With an understanding of the suitability of the soil and amount and nature of water resources available, the farmer grows the crop. The farmer takes measures to control pests, and analyses the soil to regulate nutrient requirement. The farmer sends soil samples regularly to a soil-testing laboratory. He arranges for necessary fertilisers according to the result. He conducts his farming through the internet. The use of tractors, seed drills, leveller, combine harvester, thresher and winnower is basic to perform various agricultural operations. The grains are stored in the automated steel grain storage called **silos** or sent to market agencies.

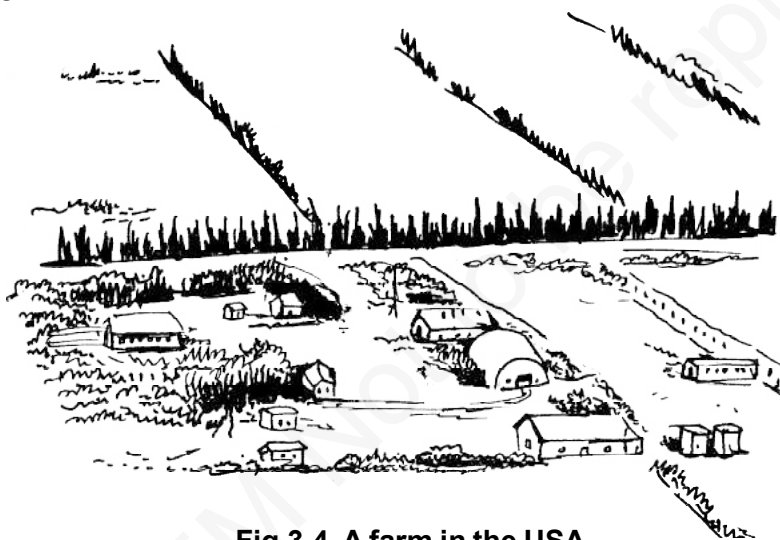


Fig.3.4 A farm in the USA

Unlike the Indian farmers, the American farmers are literate. The farmers work like businessmen. Being expert in farming, they maintain proper accounts of expenditure and income. For all these, they lead a very comfortable life.

Case study – A Farm in India

The average size of a farm in India is about 1.5 hectares. Let us

study the agricultural operation of a farm located in the Kaveri basin. The owner of the farm generally resides in the main village. The farm is well irrigated where the much needed water is taken from the well. The entire field is divided into small plots. Rice is the main crop and is grown during rainy season (June - September). Since the soil is very fertile, he grows at least two crops in a year. The farmer usually seeks advice from his friends, elders as well as government agricultural officers regarding farming practices. Like majority of the farmers, this farmer does not get proper education. To augment his income and to improve the fertility of the soil, he rears cows and hens. He produces some milk and sells it to the cooperative store located in the nearby town. The milk-producers cooperative provide suggestions about the type of fodder to be used, safety measures for protecting the health of the livestock and artificial insemination. He is also a member of the cooperative.

In order to perform various agricultural activities effectively, he usually hires tractor and thresher from a nearby town. For efficient operations, he mobilises cheap labourers. He is assisted by the family members in various activities. For purchasing fertilisers, pesticides, HYV seeds etc. he borrows money from the local money lenders, agricultural cooperative societies and banks.

The products are sold in the market located in the nearby town. As he does not have mechanised storage facilities, the farmer is forced to sell all the products even when the market is not favourable to him. Now, the government has taken some steps to improve the condition of the farmers.

Case Study – A Farm in Manipur

The average size of a farm in Manipur is also about 1.5 hectares. While shifting cultivation (**Jhuming**) is generally carried out in the surrounding hill areas, farmers in the central valley practise settled farming.

In the Manipur valley, majority of the farmers generally reside in the villages. The field is moderately fertile but annual manuring is required. The land is not well irrigated and largely depends on monsoon rain. The field is left fallow during the dry winters. The land is normally divided into a number of small plots. The cropping pattern is typical of an underdeveloped agricultural economy where monoculture of rice predominates. The farming is purely of subsistence nature and there is no scope for commercialisation. With little irrigation facilities, double cropping of rice is sometimes practised. The production of rice and other crops fluctuates greatly from year to year according to the success or failure of the crops, which depends mainly on the monsoon rain.

Like other farmers, the cultivator has not received proper education. With the advice of his local elders and agricultural officers, high yielding variety of seeds are being introduced. The consumption of chemical fertilisers is also on the increase. He keeps bulls as draught animals and cows for milk. He simply follows the traditional method of tillage. Neighbours and other villagers are also engaged in farm operations with minimum wages. He borrows money from local money lenders to purchase the necessary farm inputs. Banking facility is hardly available for him. His field is not properly connected with motorable road. In the absence of granary, all his produces are sold at a much lower price. For all these reasons, the farmer remains poor and he can not lead a happy life. The government may take further measures to provide irrigation water, HYV seeds, pesticides, fertilisers, tractors etc., to help the farmers.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in a sentence :

- (a) What is meant by agriculture ?
- (b) Name the crop which needs about 210 frost-free days for its growth.
- (c) What are the major types of farming of the world ?

2. Answer the questions in about 40 words each :

- (a) Name the three categories of crops.
- (b) What are the physical conditions required for the cultivation of rice ?
- (c) What is meant by agricultural development ?
- (d) Give two points of difference between intensive farming and extensive farming.

3. Choose the correct answer :

- (i) Which of the following crops is best cultivated in areas having an annual rainfall of 75 cm ?
 - (A) Rice
 - (B) Wheat
 - (C) Tea
 - (D) Coffee
- (ii) Cultivation of crops and rearing of livestock in the same farm is known as
 - (A) Dairy farming
 - (B) Subsistence farming
 - (C) Mixed farming
 - (D) Commercial farming
- (iii) The main characteristic of shifting cultivation practised in Manipur is
 - (A) Growing of single crop
 - (B) Use of modern implements
 - (C) Surplus product for sale
 - (D) Clearance of forest land

4. Mark True or False against the following statements :

- (a) Plantation farming involves cultivation of multiple crops.
- (b) The most popular beverage in the world is coffee.
- (c) Jute is known as the golden fibre.
- (d) Like the Indian farmers, the American farmers are illiterate.

ACTIVITY

- Collect seeds of rice, wheat, maize, mustard and pulses available in the local market. Discuss the geographical conditions necessary for the growth of each crop.
- Collect different types of cloth pieces from the tailor's shop and classify them under cotton, jute, silk, wool and synthetic fibre.
- Find out the difference between the life styles of farmers in the USA and India on the basis of pictures collected from magazines, books, newspapers and the Internet.

CHAPTER- 4

INDUSTRIES

Minerals, forests and agricultural products cannot be used directly without processing. They are to be converted into a number of useful goods which possess greater value.

Look around and think yourself. The nice bed on which you sleep is made of wood. Earlier, the wood was grown as a tree in the forest. The computer of your school is made of a variety of minerals.

Industry refers to any economic activity that is concerned with production of goods, extraction of minerals or the provision of services. We have cotton textile industry (production of goods) and coal mining industry (extraction of minerals). Film industry, communication industry, advertising industry, tourism industry etc., provide services and are often known as service provider. Most of the things that we use today are the products of manufacturing industry. Industries have improved quality of life. But there are many industries which pollute the air and water. They greatly affect the environment and our health.

CLASSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES

Industries may be classified into several categories based on size, raw material and ownership.

A. Based on size

Industries can be classified on the basis of size, i.e. in terms of

money invested and the number of workers employed: (i) **Small scale industries** are those where investment is less than rupees one crore. The number of workers engaged in such industries are normally below one hundred. Manufacturing of electronic goods, cycles, utensils, paper goods and food processing industries are important examples. Cottage industries are a type of small scale industry where the products are manufactured by the artisans. Weaving, carpentry and pottery are examples of cottage industry. (ii) **Large scale industries** are those where investment is more than rupees one crore. Hundreds of workers are employed. The best examples of these industries are iron and steel, automobiles, textiles, chemicals and cement industries.

B. Based on Raw Materials

Based on the raw-materials used, industries can be classified into the following types: (i) **agro-based industries** which use raw-materials from agricultural and animal based products. The important examples are food processing, sugar, cotton textiles, dairy industry, meat canning, leather industry and woollen industry. (ii) **marine based industries** such as fish canning, fish smoking, extraction of oil from sea whale etc.; (iii) **forest based industries** which use forest products as raw materials. Some of the important examples are manufacturing of paper, plywood, match, furniture and various sports goods; and (iv) **mineral based industries** such as iron and steel, cement, chemical industries, etc.

C. Based on Ownership

Industries may also be classified on the basis of ownership as :

(i) **Public Sector Industries** are owned and operated by

government and its agencies. Most of the industries such as iron and steel, aircraft building, oil exploration and refinery etc. are owned by governments.

(ii) **Private Sector Industries** are owned and operated by private individuals or group of individuals. Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) is an example.

(iii) **Co-operative Sector Industries** are owned and operated by the producers or suppliers of raw materials, workers or both. Anand Milk Union Limited (**Amul**) in Gujarat is an example.

(iv) **Joint Sector Industries** are owned and operated by the government and individuals or group of individuals. Maruti Udyog Limited (MUL) is a good example.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE LOCATION OF INDUSTRY

The location of an industry in a particular region depends on a number of factors. The availability of raw-materials, power (electricity), good transport, capital, skilled labour and market are some of the important factors. The political consideration of a government and infrastructure provided by it are other important factors.

INDUSTRIAL REGIONS

As soon as an industry is established, various infrastructural facilities and services are also developed. These facilities attract other new industries. Thus, a number of industries are located together that gives rise to an industrial region.

There are four major industrial regions in the world. They are (i) eastern North America; (ii) western and central Europe; (iii) eastern Europe; and (iv) eastern Asia. Fig. 4.1 shows the world location of industrial regions.

In India eight major industrial regions have been identified as follows:

- (i) Mumbai – Pune region, (ii) Hoogli region, (iii) Bangalore – Tamil Nadu region, (iv) Ahmedabad – Vadodara region, (v) Chotanagpur region, (vi) Vishakhapatnam – Guntur region, (vii) Gurgaon – Delhi – Meerut region and (viii) Kollam – Thiruvananthapuram region.

MAJOR INDUSTRIES AND DISTRIBUTION

The major industries of the world and their distribution are as follows:

- (i) Iron and steel industry in China, Japan, the USA, Russia, Germany and India;
- (ii) Textile industry in India, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan and Japan;
- (iii) Information technology industry in India and the USA.

The following are the important features associated with the distribution of major industries in the world :

- (a) Majority of the basic industries are located near the coal fields. It is also true in case of India.
- (b) Most of the industries are also located near sea ports and rivers.
- (c) Major industrial regions are located in the temperate areas.

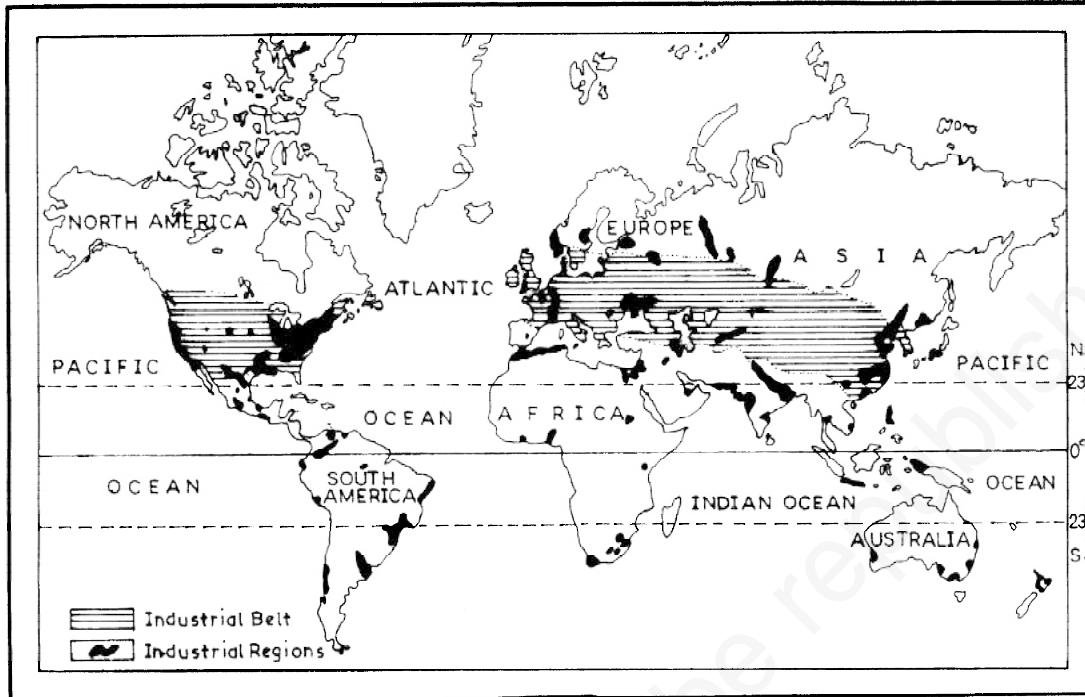


Fig. 4.1 World: Industrial Regions

IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY

Iron and steel industry is the basic or key industry for any country. Automobiles, locomotives, ship-building, machine building etc. depend on iron and steel industry. The cycles, the safety pins and the needles we use are made from steel. Large buildings have steel framework. Therefore, steel is called the backbone of modern industry.

Iron and steel is manufactured from iron ore. The ore contains several impurities. To remove them it is mixed with coal and limestone and smelted together in a blast furnace. Thus, pure iron is obtained and a mixture of it with manganese or carbon converts it into steel. The ideal location of iron and steel industry changes with time. After 1950, the industry is located on large areas of flat land near sea ports. This is because

nowadays steel plants had become very large and iron ore had to be imported from overseas. (See Fig. 4.2).

This industry is well developed in India because of the availability of raw materials, cheap labour, transport and market. Important steel producing centres such as Bhilai, Durgapur, Burnpur, Jamshedpur, Rourkela and Bokaro are situated in four states— West Bengal, Jharkhand, Orissa and Chhattisgarh. Other important steel centres in south India are Bhadravati and Vijay Nagar in Karnataka, Vishakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh and Salem in Tamil Nadu. All of them use local resources only. Let us examine the case-study of two centres, one from India and another from the USA.

Tata Iron and Steel Company in Jamshedpur

The Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) was established in 1907 by Jamshedji Tata at a small village called Sakchi, near the confluence of the rivers Subarnarekha and Kharkai in Jharkhand. This site has developed as a major iron and steel centre.

The place is located close to the high quality iron ore, coal, manganese and limestone deposits. It is very near to the Kalimati railway station on the Bengal-Nagpur railway line and Kolkata which is a large market. Kharkai and Subarnarekha rivers provide the much needed water for the industry. Both skilled and unskilled labourers are readily available from the states of Jharkhand, Orissa and West Bengal.

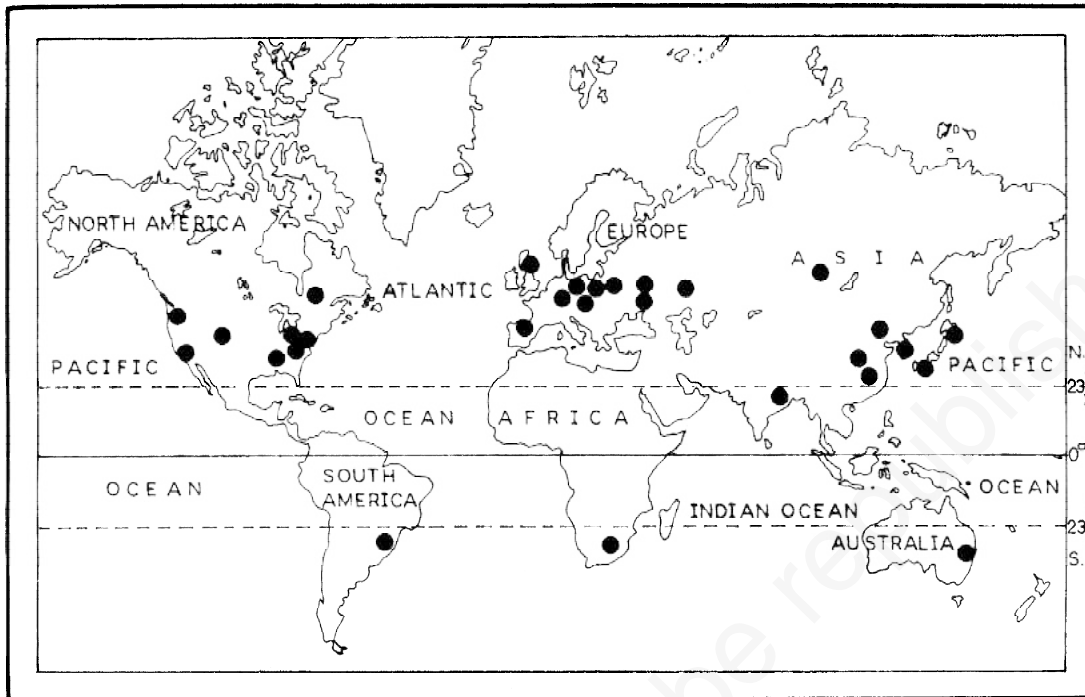


Fig. 4.2 Major Iron and Steel Producing Regions

Jamshedji Tata received moral as well as financial support from many persons in the country.

Regarding the availability of raw materials, TISCO gets good quality coking coal from Jharia mines in Jharkhand and Raniganj in West Bengal. Iron ore is brought from Singhbhum of Jharkhand and Mayurbhanj of Orissa. Limestone and manganese are brought from Gangpur and Keonjhar in Orissa respectively. Being a private company, TISCO is in keen competition with other public sector plants. Jamshedpur has also a number of subsidiary industries for manufacture of locomotives, automobiles, trucks, agricultural machinery, electronics, chemicals, cables, wire etc.

Iron and Steel Industry in Detroit (USA)

Detroit is a major iron and steel producing centre of the world. It is located in the south-eastern part of Michigan state in the USA. It lies between the Lakes Huron and Erie. Detroit is also famous throughout the world for automobile industry and sometimes known as the 'automobile capital of the world'. Like Jamshedpur in India, Detroit has a number of favourable conditions for the development of iron and steel industry.

The location of the city in between Huron and Erie lakes favours cheap water transport making it a major port of the Great Lakes industrial region. Limestone and dolomite are obtained from the islands located in Lakes Huron and Erie. Iron ore is obtained from Lake Superior area through easy transport. Detroit gets coal from the coal fields of the Appalachian Mountains. The much needed water is available from Lake Erie. The densely populated northern and north-eastern parts of the USA provide skilled and unskilled labour. Power is obtained from the power grid of the Niagara Falls. In Detroit there is massive demand for steel from the local market. All these factors greatly influence the development of iron and steel industry, particularly automobile industry, in Detroit.

There are many other factories around Detroit that use steel as their raw material to make different products such as railroad equipments, heavy machinery and rails. Now, the Detroit area is the home of three major automobile manufacturers – General Motors Corporation, Ford Motor Company, and Daimler Chrysler AG. These three companies provide three-fourths of the total industrial employment in the USA.

TEXTILE INDUSTRY

Textile industry is one of the oldest industries in the world.

On the basis of raw materials the textile industry is divided into five main types: (i) cotton textile, (ii) woollen textile, (iii) silk textile, (iv) jute textile and (v) synthetic textile industry. Here, we shall study only the cotton textile industry.

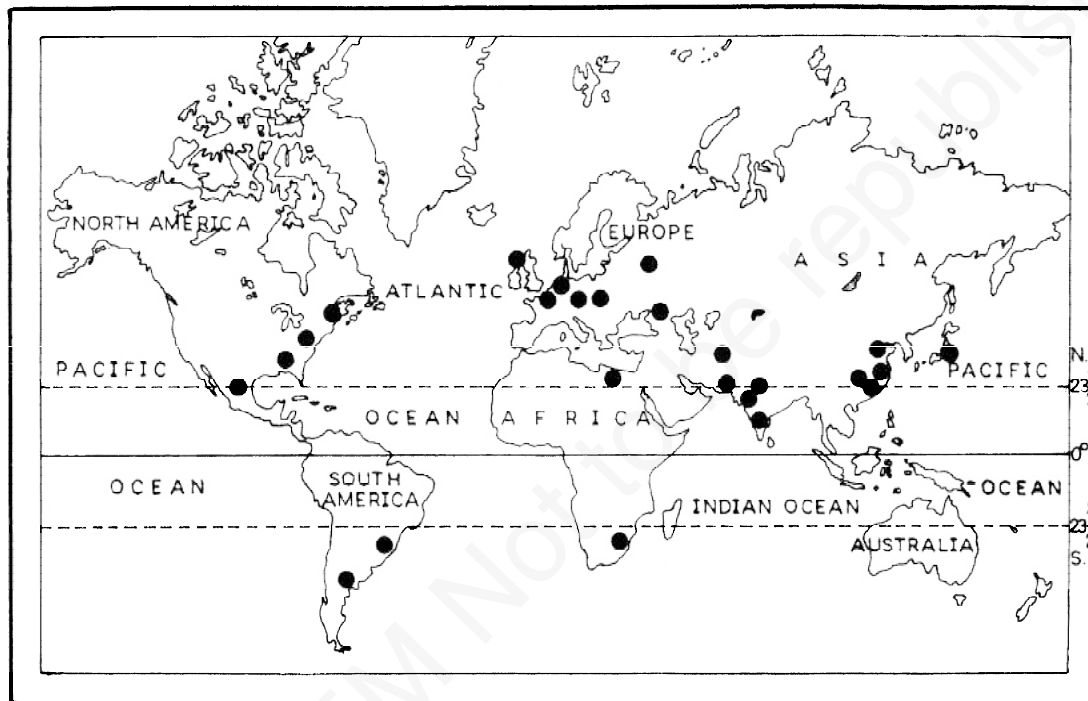


Fig. 4.3 World: Major Cotton Textile Manufacturing Regions

COTTON TEXTILE INDUSTRY

The cotton textile industry is one of the oldest industries of the world. The industrial revolution in the 18th century brought a marked change in the textile industry. Instead of handloom, powerlooms were introduced. The industry attained much development first in the Great Britain and then spread to other countries of the world. The important cotton textile producers are India, China and Japan. (See Fig. 4.3).

Cotton textile industry has been an important industry in India. Even before industrial revolution, Indian textile industry was famous all over the world for their quality and design. However, the products were very expensive. The traditional cotton textile industry of India could not face the tough competition with the cheap and good quality fabrics made by the textile mills of the west. The first cotton textile mill of India was established in Mumbai in 1854. The growth of cotton textile industry in Mumbai is mainly due to (i) the availability of cotton within the country, (ii) availability of cheap labour, (iii) easy access to British machineries and (iv) suitable climatic condition.

Primarily this industry flourished in Maharashtra and Gujarat because of favourable humid climate. Since humidity can be created artificially and raw cotton is not a weight losing raw material, the industry now spreads to different parts of India. The important centres are Mumbai, Ahmedabad, Coimbatore, Kanpur, Chennai, Kolkata and Ludhiana.

Let us study this industry by taking case studies of Ahmedabad in India and Osaka in Japan.

Ahmedabad : Ahmedabad is located in Gujarat on the bank of Sabarmati river. The city is about 440 kilometres north of Mumbai. The first textile mill in the city was established in 1859. Ahmedabad is second to Mumbai in the production of cotton textiles. Ahmedabad can be compared to Manchester in England. So, Ahmedabad is known as the 'Manchester of India'. The cotton textile industry has been successful in Ahmedabad for the following reasons:

- (i) Ahmedabad is located close to the cotton growing areas.
- (ii) The humid climate of Ahmedabad is most suitable for spinning and weaving.
- (iii) Ahmedabad has a good link with internal-markets of the country.

- (iv) Both skilled and unskilled labour are readily available from Gujarat and Maharashtra.
- (v) The flat terrain of this region encourages easy location of mills and factories.
- (vi) The region has good transport and investment facilities, and
- (vii) The import of textile machinery and export of yarn and finished products are done through the Mumbai port.

Ahmedabad is also noted for the good quality cotton textiles. However, in recent years, Ahmedabad textile mills are facing some problems. As many of them have old machines, they are unable to compete with new textile manufacturers. As a result, many mills have closed down.

Osaka (Japan): Osaka is one of the largest industrial centres of Japan. It is a coastal city and an important port. It is located in Kinki region of Honshu, the biggest island. The city is known as the 'Manchester of Japan'. The following advantages have helped Osaka to become a great centre of textile industry:

- (i) The warm and humid coastal climate is suited to spinning of thread and weaving of cotton clothes.
- (ii) The extensive plain around Osaka is much suitable for the establishment and growth of cotton textile industry.
- (iii) Osaka is a convenient port for importing raw cotton and exporting finished products.
- (iv) Hydro-electricity and thermal electricity are easily available.
- (v) Skilled and unskilled labourers are available.
- (vi) River Yudo supplies enough water for use in the cotton mills.

- (vii) Asian and African countries provide a good market for the products of this industry.
- (viii) The cotton fabrics are of good quality because Japanese are very hard working and they are always ready to update their technology.
- (ix) The Japanese government takes keen interest and provides financial help to industries.

In recent years the cotton textile industry has been replaced to some extent by other industries, such as iron and steel, machinery, shipbuilding, automobiles, electrical equipment and cement.

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY INDUSTRY

Information technology (IT) is a new industry that emerges only in the 1970s. It is the development and management of computer – based information system, particularly of computer software and hardware. The information technology industry deals in the storage, processing and distribution of information.

Information technology includes two important activities:

(i) processing, storing and transforming of information in a digital form, and

(ii) manufacturing computer hardware, discs, and different telecommunication systems that help in storing information. Nowadays, the IT industry has become global and is making a rapid progress. There is not a single industry, today which does not use a computer. The major pivots of the IT industry are the Silicon Valley in USA and Bangalore in India.

The USA was the first country to develop the world's first digital

electronic computer in 1946. The development of information technology is closely connected with the emergence of microelectronics, a sub-industry of electronics industry. The Indian IT industry has now become a leading industry in the world in the production of electronic goods and associated services. Bangalore is the main centre of the IT industry in India. Other IT centres include Hyderabad, Mumbai, Pune, Chennai, Delhi-Noida- Gurgaon belt, Chandigarh and Thiruvananthapuram. Indian companies have become specialised in chip design, web-based services and telecom software. Manipur has now a few IT services through some companies. An IT Park is being set up in Imphal.

Let us study the pattern of this industry with special reference to the Silicon valley of the USA and Bangalore city of India.

Information Technology Industry in the Silicon Valley (USA):

The Silicon valley is located in California in the western part of the USA. The valley lies in Santa Clara valley between the cities of San Francisco and San Jose. It is now a highly developed region in the western USA particularly in IT industry.

The Silicon Valley has a pleasant climate as it has temperate climate with the temperatures rarely dropping below 0°C. There is plenty of space for development and future expansion. The valley lies close to some of the most advanced technological centres in the world. Other locational advantages of the industry are closeness to major roads and airports, and good access to markets and skilled workforce.

Do you know ?

The name 'Silicon Valley' has become synonymous with the term 'information technology'. The valley got its name from the silicon (mineral) that was used to make chips for computers. Silicon revolutionised computers.

The Silicon valley is the world's leading centre of the IT industry. A number of large IT companies such as Intel, Apple Computer, Hewlett-Packard, Sun, Microsystems, IBM, Xerox, Microsoft and Cisco are located in the Silicon valley. These companies develop software and manufacture computers, discs and radars.

The neighbouring Stanford University established the Stanford Industrial Park in 1951 within campus. The main purpose of it was to support research in computer technology. The number of IT industries in the Silicon valley increased from about 100 in 1959 to 3,200 by 1990.

Information Technology Industry in Bangalore (India): Bangalore, the capital of Karnataka is located on the Deccan plateau from where it gets the name 'Silicon plateau'. After Independence, the city became an important manufacturing centre. The city is well known for manufacturing of telephones, machine tools, aircraft, electric motors, print materials, textiles, footwear and watches.

Bangalore is widely known for IT industries. In 1980, the Karnataka government developed an electronic city about 18 Km from the core city, which is now known as the Silicon Valley of India. Bangalore accounts for the major portion of software exports from India. About 1,50,000 software professionals are employed in IT industries, being the highest in the world in a given city.

The development of IT industry in Bangalore is influenced by the following factors:

- (i) The climate of the city is mild and pleasant.
- (ii) A number of institutions including engineering and software training centres provide skilled software programmers.
- (iii) Many high tech companies and organisations such as Hindustan Machine Tools (HMT), Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO), Hindustan Aeronautics Ltd. (HAL) and Indian Institute of Science are located in Bangalore. They provide highly educated and technically trained personnel.
- (iv) The city is well connected by rail, road and air with both national and international centres of industry.
- (v) The Indian IT giants like Infosys, Tata Consultancy Services and Wipro are competing with other foreign firms.
- (vi) Bangalore enjoys a unique advantage, as the city has the largest availability of talented and skilled managers at middle and top level.

INDUSTRIES IN MANIPUR

Industrially the state is least developed though there is much scope to develop industries based on forest, minerals and agricultural resources. The industrial development is a must for the improvement of state economy as well as standard of living of the people.

Medium Industries

Manipur has no medium and large scale industries as there is lack of raw materials, capital, labour, power, market, transport and proper management. Earlier, the state had the Manipur Spinning Mill Corporation Ltd. at Loitang Khunou; Khandsari Sugar Factory at Wangbal; Mini Cement Factory at Hundung and Bamboo Chipping Plant at Kadamtala (Jiribam). All these have been closed down for lack of infrastructural facilities. The Mechanised Dye House at Iroisemba is owned by the Government.

Other industries of the state like Manipur Vanaspati and Allied Industries at Nilakuthi, Steel Re-rolling Mill at Kanglatongbi are non-functional. The Mechanised brick manufacturing plant at Langjing produces quality bricks.

Consumer Goods Industries

A large number of private sector industries were established for the manufacturing of consumer goods such as electric bulb, electrodes, polyethylene bags, steel fabrication, RCC electric poles, RCC pipes, tyre retreading, electric cables, PVC pipes, plastic water container, soap and detergent, steel furniture, plywood, mosaic tiles etc.

Agro and Forest based Industries

Important agro-based and forest-based industries of the state include – rice mills, flour and dal mills, oil mills, fruit processing industries, fish fermentation, bakery, saw mills and making of furniture.

Household industries

In Manipur the cottage or household industry remains the most important. Such village and cottage industries are fast developing in the

state. Of these, the handloom and handicrafts are famous throughout the country and even abroad. Manipur has a large number of looms. Manipuri women are skilled in weaving artistic and colourful clothes.

Important handloom products are Phanek (women's dress), scarves, napkins, dhoti, sari, bed sheets, mosquito nets, shawls, etc. Important handicraft products include metalware, cane and bamboo works, doll and ornament making as well as embroidery work. Now they have become important items of export. Household industry is the most important activity next to agriculture. There is a need to organise handloom and handicraft industry on a commercial basis.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in a sentence:

- (a) What do you mean by the term 'Industry' ?
- (b) Where is Silicon Valley located ?
- (c) Name the three major industries of the world.

2. Answer the following questions in about 40 words each :

- (a) What are the four categories of industries based on raw materials?
- (b) What is an industrial region?
- (c) Name two important centres each of iron and steel industry and cotton textile industry in the world.
- (d) What is information technology?

3. Choose the correct answer :

- (i) Which one of the following is noted for cotton textile industry ?
- (A) Jamshedpur (B) Durgapur
(C) Ahmedabad (D) Bokaro
- (ii) The city which employs the highest number of software professionals in IT industry is
- (A) Mumbai (B) Delhi
(C) Chandigarh (D) Bangalore
- (iii) The candle manufacturing industries of Manipur belong to
- (A) Public sector industries (B) Private sector industries
(C) Joint sector industries (D) Co-operative sector industries

4. Say true or false against the following statements:

- (a) Tata Iron and Steel Company Limited is owned by the Government of India.
- (b) Detroit is known as the 'Automobile Capital of the World'.
- (c) Fibres may be classified into natural and man-made.
- (d) Osaka is not a coastal city.

ACTIVITY

- Look at the advertisements of some companies for marketing their products. Make a category of the types of products and industry to which they belong.
- Visit a small-scale industry located in the nearby town. Observe it and discuss your findings with your classmates.

CHAPTER- 5

HUMAN RESOURCES

Man himself is an inexhaustible store of energy and skill, and a great resource. With his efforts he creates many other resources. Some people work in the fields to produce food crops. Others work in the factory to produce certain finished goods. Some people are engaged in as teachers imparting knowledge to the students.

The Government of India created the Ministry of Human Resource Development in 1985 with an aim to improve people's skills. Human resources help in the development of the country as well as the individual. Educated and trained people can produce resources effectively. In India, majority of women do not work outside their home. If they are properly educated, they can perform their work in a better way.

Human resources are not evenly distributed over the world. They vary in their sex, age and literacy levels. Their numbers and characteristics undergo a change.

COMPOSITION OF POPULATION

The population of a country is made up of various components like age, sex, literacy, occupation, tribe, language, religion, etc. Here, we will study the three major components of population viz., sex composition, age structure and literacy levels.

Sex composition

Sex composition refers to the proportion of male and female in the total population. It indicates the number of females per 1000 males and is expressed with the help of a ratio known as **sex ratio**. If the sex ratio of a country is 1000, it indicates that the number of male and female in that country is equal. If the ratio is more than 1000, it means more females than males. If the sex ratio is less than 1000, it indicates that there is more males than females.

The following figure shows the sex ratio of some selected regions of the world and India.

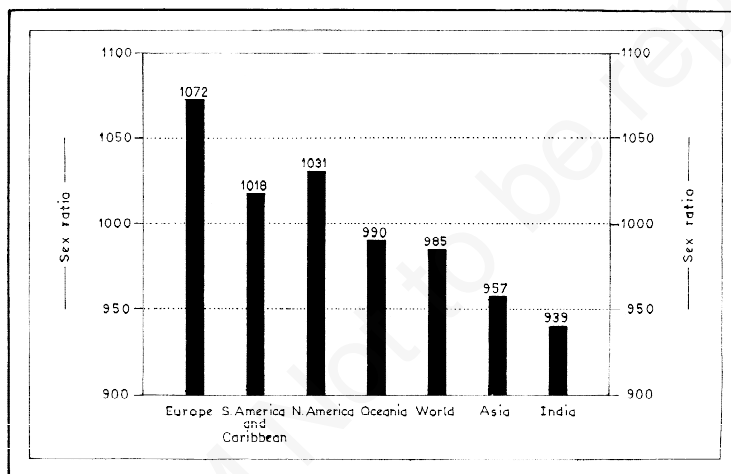


Fig. 5.1 World: Sex Ratio, 2000

Europe, North America, South America and Caribbean have sex ratio much favourable to females. However, the ratio is not in favour of females in Oceania and Asia. In India, there are only 933 females per 1000 males.

The state-wise sex ratio in India is shown in the following figure. Among the States and Union Territories, Kerala and Puducherry have sex ratio above 1000. All other states and Union Territories have low sex ratio.

The sex ratio in India has always remained unfavourable to females,

i.e. more males than females. The reasons are : (i) high death rate of girls before and after birth and (ii) lesser attention to the girl child and lack of proper health care.

Age Composition

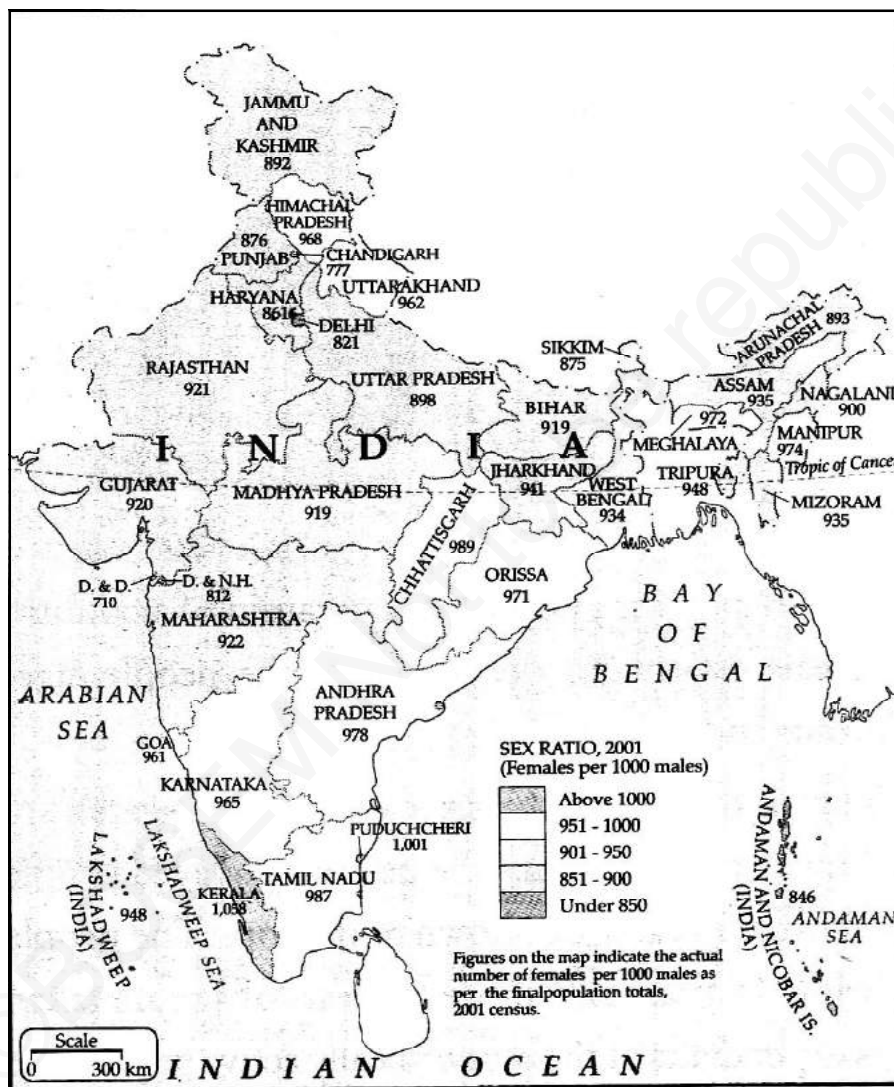


Fig. 5.2 India : Sex Ratio, 2001

The study of age composition helps in estimating births, deaths and migration trends. These calculations help the government in making plans for various welfare programmes. In our country, the population is divided into the following three age groups:

- (i) 0 – 15 years; (ii) 15 – 65 years and (iii) above 65 years.

The following table brings out the relationship of each of the three age groups. In all the regions, the share of working age group i.e. 15–65 is always greater than the other age groups. The middle and high-income countries have the highest proportion of people in the working age group. India has a large population within the age group of 0 – 15 years. They must be educated and provided skills to become able and productive.

Table 3 : Age Composition of Population, 2000

Region/Country	Age group (%)			All Age Groups (%)
	0-15	15-65	65+	
India	34	61	5	100
Low Income countries	37	59	4	100
Middle Income countries	27	66	7	100
High Income countries	18	67	15	100

Literacy Levels

The term literacy refers to the condition of being literate. Literate people can make intelligent choices and undertake development projects. Illiteracy is an obstacle for economic improvement.

Look at the following table. You will find the highest share of illiterate adults in India and other low income countries. In general, the female illiteracy is much larger than the male illiteracy in all the regions. This is due to the discrimination of females in getting literate.

Table 4
 Illiterate Adults in the World, 2000
 (Aged 15 above)

Region/Country	Illiteracy (%)	
	Male	Female
India	29	53
Low Income Countries	28	46
Middle Income Countries	9	18
High Income Countries	3	3

In our country, a person becomes literate when he or she is aged 7 and above and is able to read, write and understand a simple statement in any language. In 2001, literate people accounted for about two-thirds of the total population. But female literacy was very low in comparison to male literacy. Discrimination against girl child is the main reason for it. Kerala, with 91 per cent, has the highest rate of literacy in the country. Fig. 5.3 shows the state-wise literacy levels.

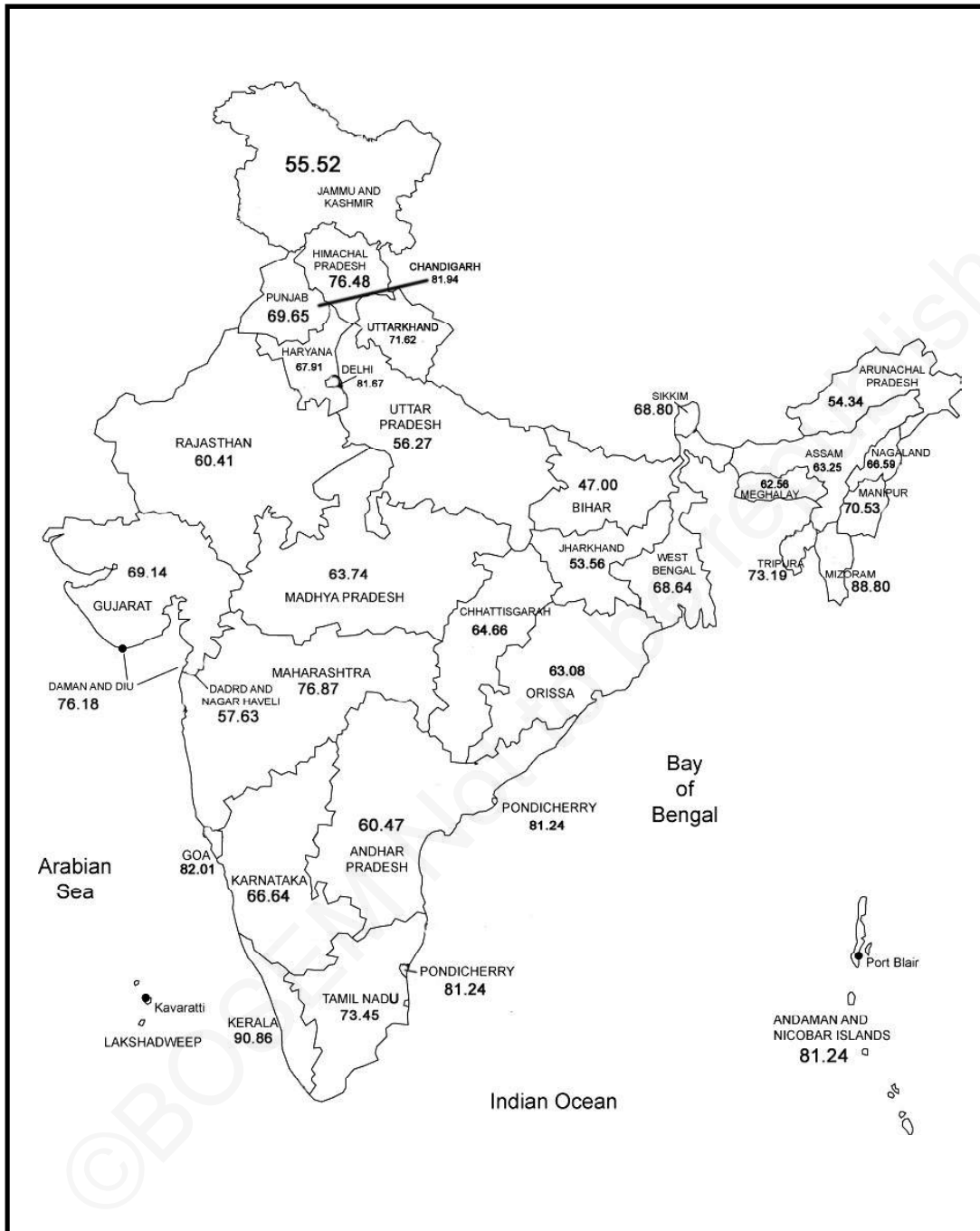


Fig. 5.3 India: Literacy, 2001

POPULATION CHANGE

The number of people living in an area is not the same throughout. The population of that area may either be increased, decreased or remain stable. These will be observed if we compare the population of a country in one year with another year. The variation in the number of population during a specific period of time is known as population change. This change takes place due to natural growth (excess of births over death).

In 1820, the population of the world was one billion. In 2000, our earth was inhabited by as much as 6 billion people. It is estimated that the world may have 9 billion people by 2050.

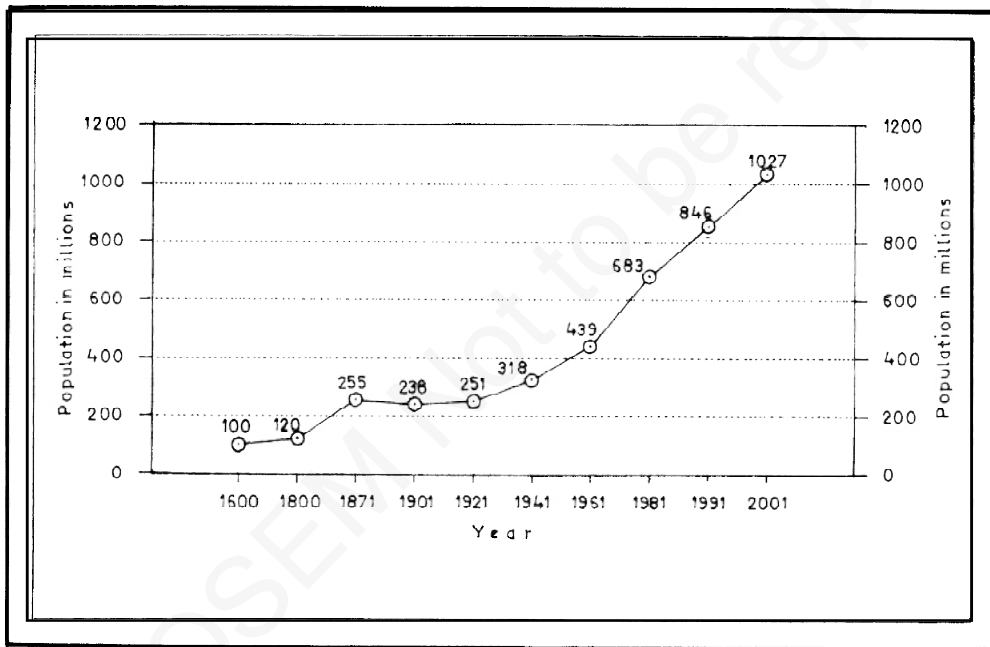


Fig. 5.4 India : Growth of Population

India's population has also increased in the same way. (Fig.5.4). The steepness of the curve during 1961-2001 in the figure indicates a high rate of population growth. Why does population increase so rapidly? The main reason was that better nutrition and health services reduced the number of deaths while the number of births still remained high.

The three important components of population growth are fertility, mortality and migration.

Fertility refers to the occurrence of birth. *Crude birth rate* is the most common measure of human fertility. Birth rate is expressed as the number of live births per 1000 people in a year.

Mortality has been defined as death at any time after birth. *Crude death rate* is the number of deaths per 1000 people in a year.

The difference between birth rate and death rate is called *natural growth rate*. In the last 250 years, the standard of living has improved. This has led to the decline in death rate and thereby increase in growth rate. The increase in population is mainly due to increase in natural growth rate.

In India, the birth rate during 1991-2001 was 26. The death rate in the same period was 9 only. Thus, the natural growth rate was $26-9=17$. The natural growth rate in the country was 22 during 1971-81.

Migration is the third major component of population. It means change of place of living. Migration has two processes: 'emigration' i.e. leaving a country and 'immigration' i.e. arriving in a country. There are two types of migration (i) International migration and (ii) Internal migration. Both emigration and immigration belong to the first type. Internal migration, on the other, may include migration from; (a) rural to urban (b) urban to rural, (c) urban to urban, and (d) rural to rural.

Thus, migration either reduces or increases the population of any country.

Do you know ?

Every country maintains a record of their respective population periodically. The counting of people is called *Census*. In India, the census is undertaken every 10 years by the Census of India. In Manipur, Census is done by the *Directorate of Census Operations*.

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

The term population distribution means the way people are spread over the surface of the earth. But the distribution is uneven. Some places are densely populated while others are sparsely populated. More than 90 per cent of the world's population lives in about 10 per cent of the land surface.

The total population of the world was more than 6 billion in 2001. Asia alone has about 60 per cent of it. About 13 per cent of the population lives in Africa, 14 per cent in the two Americas, 12 per cent in Europe and the rest 1 per cent in Oceania. (Fig. 5.5).

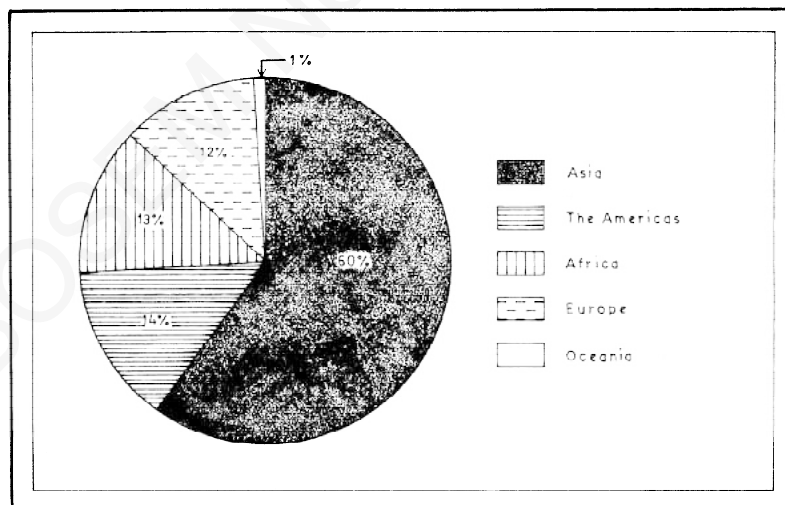


Fig. 5.5 World : Distribution of Population, 2000

The densely populated areas of the world include the east and south east Asia, Europe and the eastern North America. The sparsely populated areas include hot and cold deserts and tropical forests.

India is the second populous country in the world next to China. It had a total population of 1.03 billion in 2001. About half of its population lives in five states viz., Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Bihar, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. Uttar Pradesh has the largest population in the whole country.

FACTORS AFFECTING DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

A. Geographical Factors

1. Climate:

People generally avoid areas of very hot or very cold climate. That is why deserts, equatorial and polar regions have little population.

2. Landform:

People prefer to live on plains. This is because plain areas have better farming, manufacturing and transport facilities. The Ganga plain in India and the Nile delta in Egypt are densely populated. Mountains are sparsely populated.

3. Soil:

Fertile soils support huge population. People are always attracted to more productive areas. The fertile plains of the Ganga in India and Hwang-Ho in China have dense population.

4. Minerals:

Areas with mineral deposits attract people. The USA, Great Britain and Germany have dense population because of richness in minerals. Likewise Chotanagpur plateau in India attracts a lot of people.

5. Water:

People prefer to live in the areas where fresh water is available. Desert areas have low population because of the scarcity of water.

B. Social, Economic and Cultural Factors

Large number of people are attracted to areas of better housing, education and health facilities. Some of the religious cities like Varanasi and Puri in India and Jerusalem in Israel have large population. New York in the USA, Osaka in Japan, Kolkata and Mumbai in India are important commercial centres having huge concentration of population. Imphal city is also densely populated.

DENSITY OF POPULATION

Density of population is expressed as number of persons per square kilometre of area. The density is calculated by dividing the number of persons of a country by its total area. The average density of population in the world was 45 in 2001. The highest density of population is found in south Asia followed by east Asia and south east Asia.

The average density of population in India was 324 persons per square kilometre in 2001. It has been one of the highest in the world.

The population density differs from region to region. Delhi and Chandigarh have the density of 9300 and 7900 persons per square kilometre. Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram, on the other have only 13 and 43 persons respectively (Fig. 5.6).

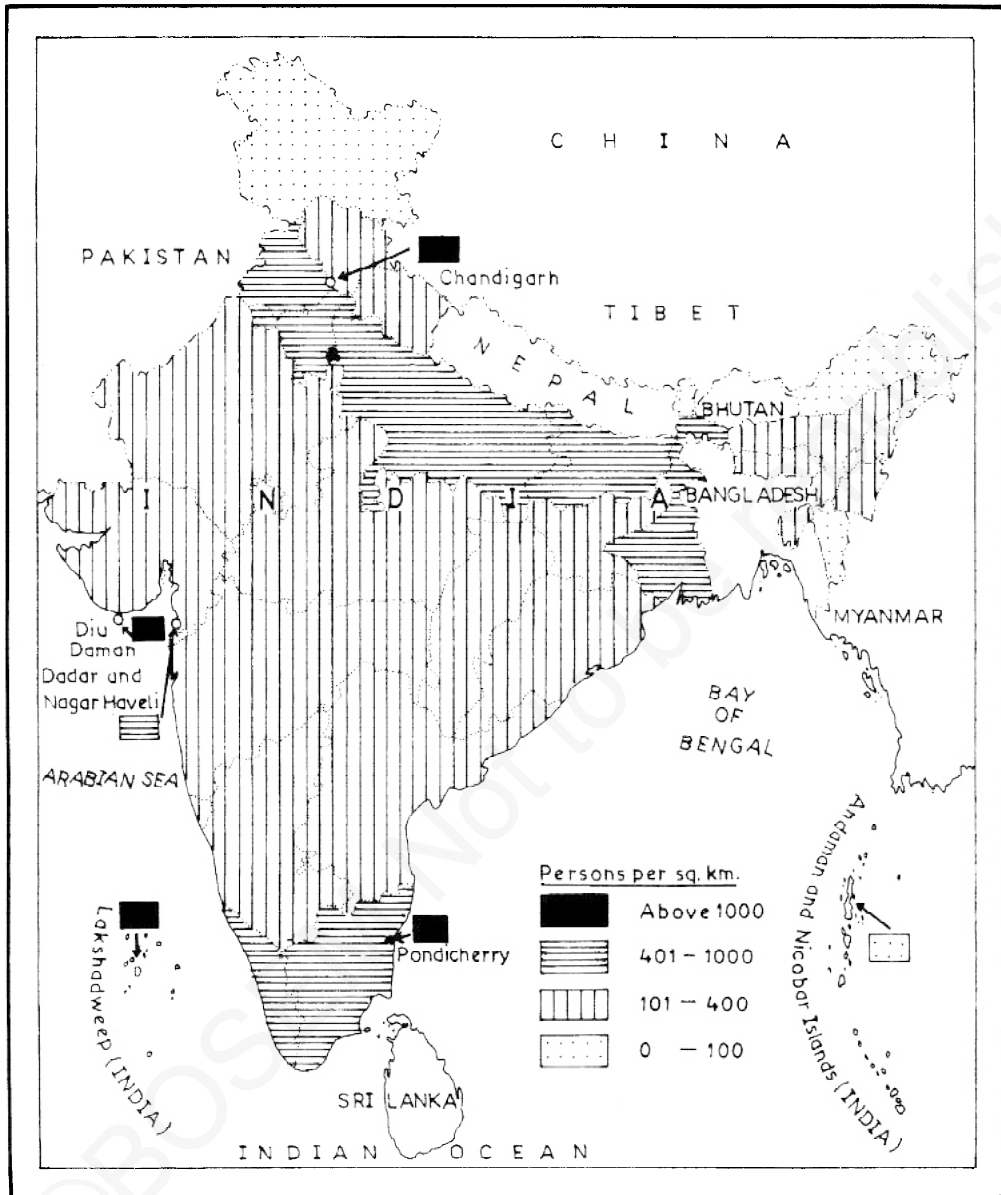


Fig. 5.6 India: Population Density, 2001

MANIPUR : POPULATION

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

Manipur has a total population of 28,55,794 in 2011. The distribution of population in the state is quite uneven. The valley districts viz., Imphal West, Imphal East, Bishenpur and Thoubal hold nearly 57.20 per cent of the total population. These valley districts cover hardly 10 per cent of the total geographical area. The hill districts, on the other make up the remaining 42.8 per cent of population and cover about 90 per cent of the total area. The valley districts are densely populated because of fertile level land and greater accessibility. The following table shows the district wise population.

Table 5

Manipur: Area, population and density of population, 2011

State/ District	Area (in-sq. km)	Total Population	Density (per sq.km.)
Senapati	3,271	479148	146
Tamenglong	4,391	140651	32
Churachandpur	4,570	274143	60
Chandel	3,313	144182	44
Ukhrul	4,544	183998	40
Hill Districts	20,089	12,22,122	61
Imphal East	709	456113	643
Imphal West	519	517992	998
Bishnupur	496	237399	479
Thoubal	514	422168	821
Valley Districts	2,238	16,33,672	730
Manipur	22,327	28,55,794	128

DENSITY OF POPULATION

The highest density occurs in Imphal West district i.e. 856 persons per square kilometre. Hill districts have a low density of population i.e. much below the state average of 103 persons. Tamenglong district has the lowest density i.e. 25 persons per square kilometre.

The following figures portray the distribution and density of population in Manipur.

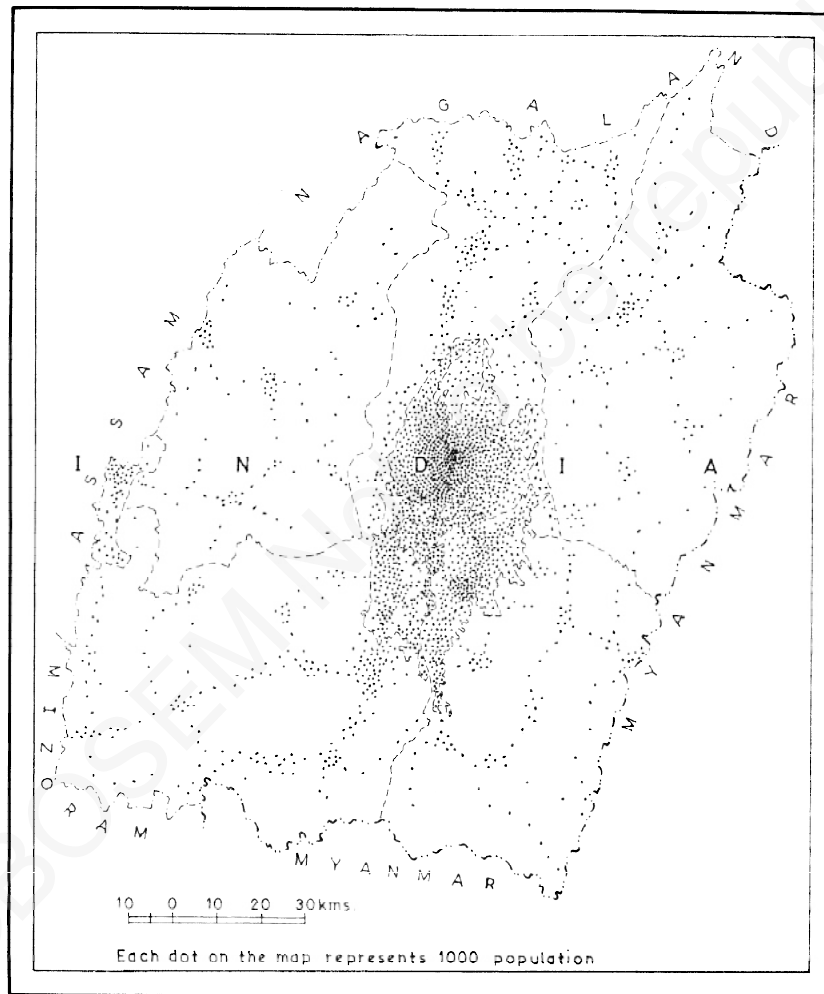


Fig. 5.7 Manipur: Distribution of Population, 2001

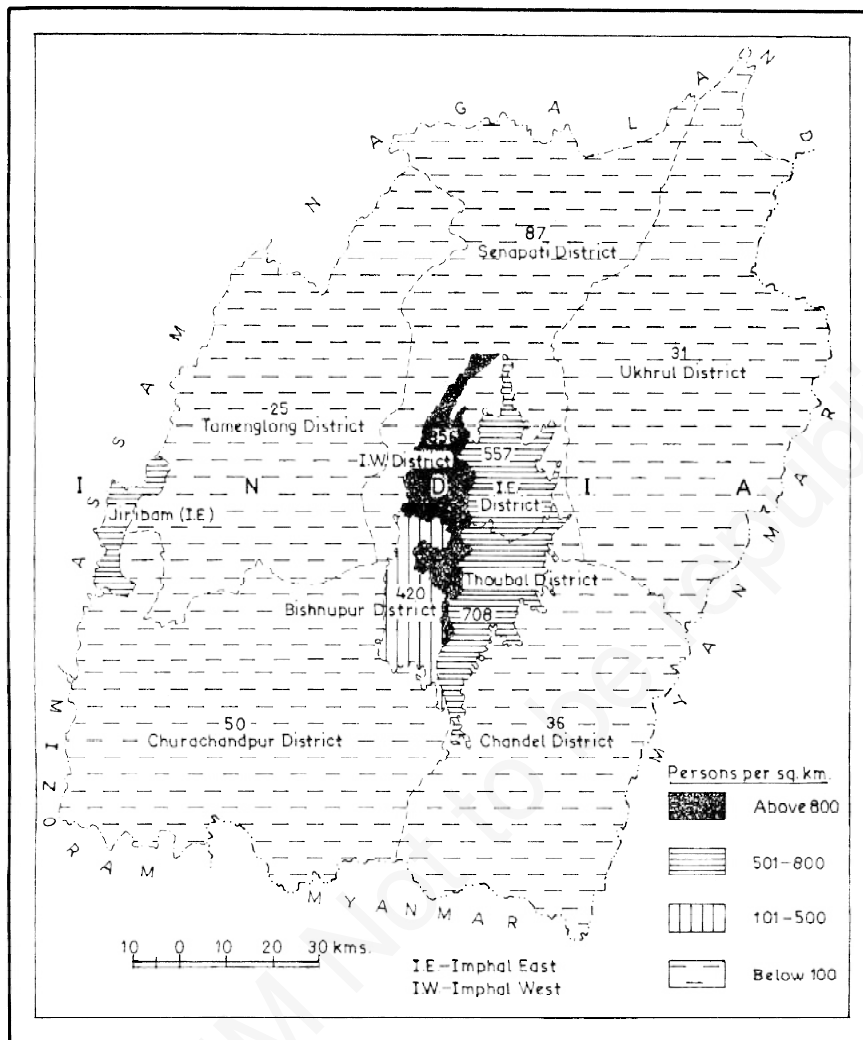


Fig. 5.8 Manipur: Density of Population, 2001.

POPULATION CHANGE

The population of Manipur in 1901 was about 2.8 lakhs only. It increased to about 5.8 lakhs in 1951. In the last 50 years from 1951 to 2001, the state recorded four times increase in its population. Thus, a very high growth rate of population is being observed in our state. See the decadal growth of population in Manipur in the following table.

Table 6

Growth of Population in Manipur, 1901-2011

Year	Population (in lakh)
1901	2.84
1911	3.46
1921	3.84
1931	4.46
1941	5.12
1951	5.78
1961	7.80
1971	10.73
1981	14.21
1991	18.37
2001	22.94
2011	28.56

Let us study two major components of population viz., sex composition and literacy levels.

SEX COMPOSITION

The sex ratio in the state in 2001 was 974 as against the all India average of 933. It indicates that the number of females per thousand males is larger in Manipur than the national average. The sex ratio of Imphal West district is 1004 and is favourable to females. It may be due to better health care facilities for females in the district. Ukhruel has the least sex ratio of 916. The following figure shows the district wise pattern of sex ratio of Manipur in 2001.

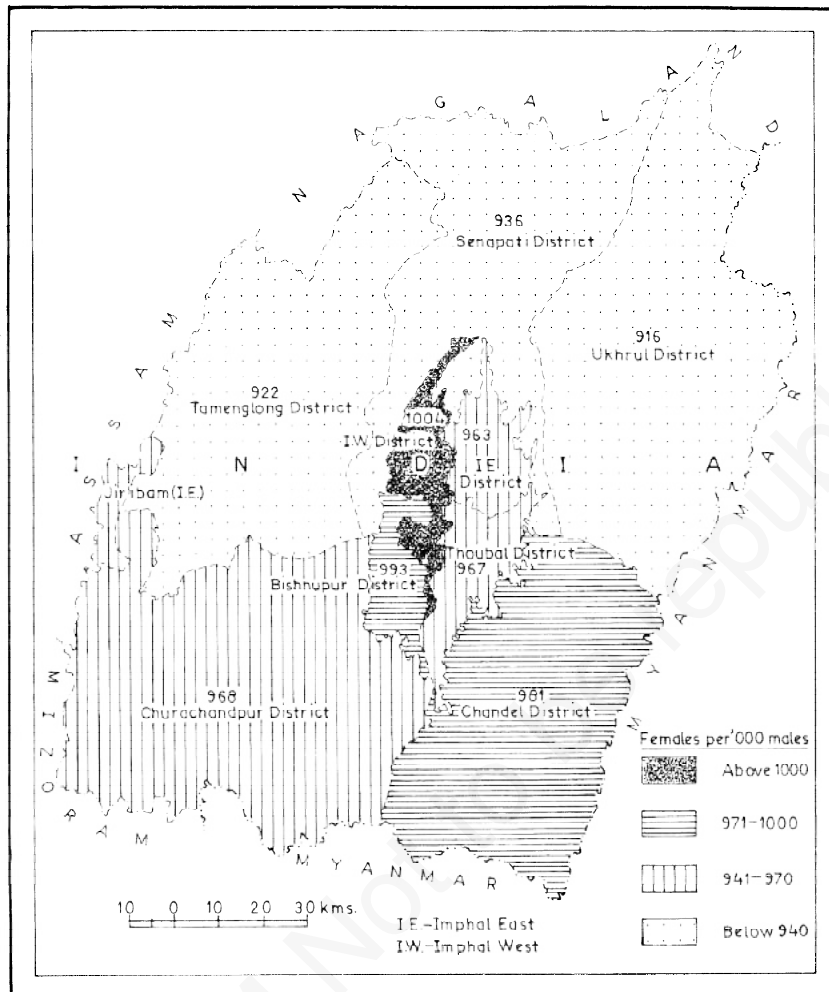


Fig. 5.9 Manipur: Sex Ratio, 2001

LITERACY LEVELS

The literacy rate of the state was around 60 per cent in 1991. In 2001 literate people constituted about 69 per cent of the total population and 76.94 per cent in 2011. There were wide differences in the levels of literacy among the districts (See Fig. 5.10). Imphal West District ranked first with 86.08 per cent of literates followed by Imphal East District with 81.95 per cent. As per the census of 2011, the literacy rate in Manipur is 91.53 per cent for males and 82.73 per cent for females.

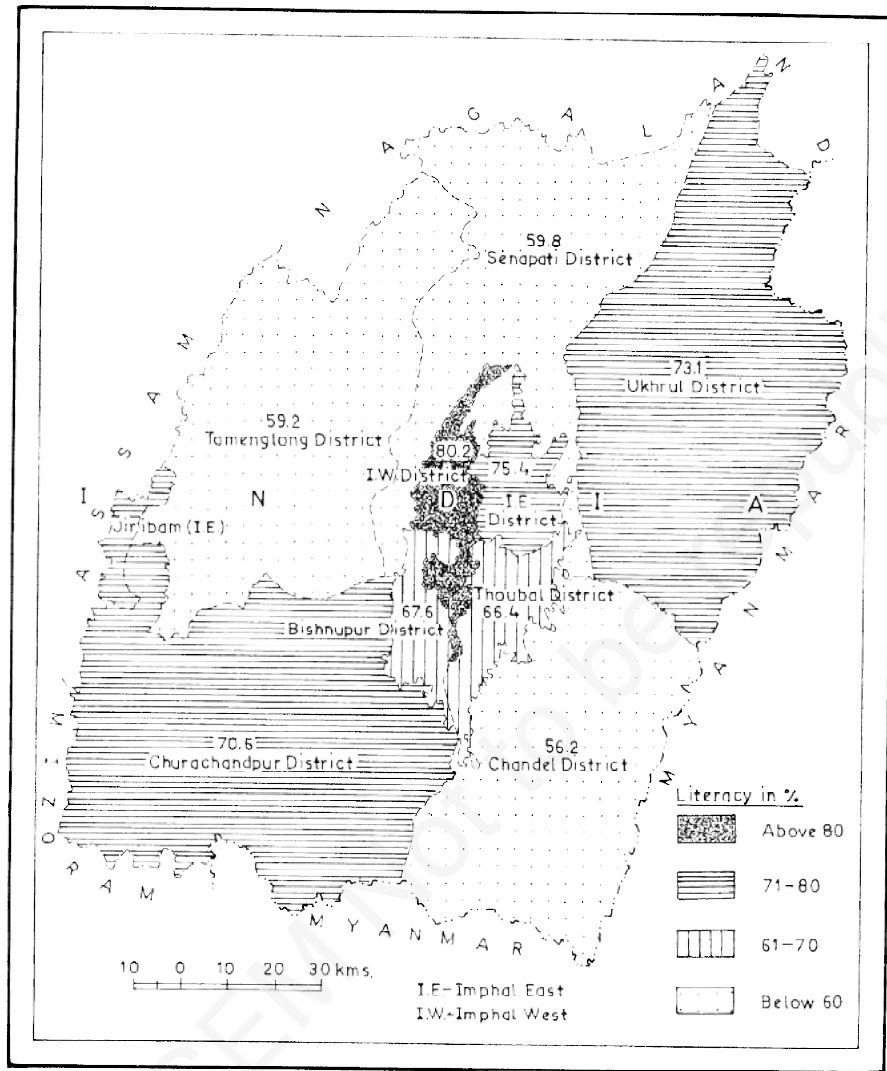


Fig. 5.10 Manipur Literacy, 2001

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in a sentence :

- (a) Who is a literate ?
- (b) How is density of population measured ?
- (c) Which district in Manipur has the highest literacy rate ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 40 words each :

- (a) Why is man regarded as a great resource ?
- (b) Why does population change?
- (c) Explain three important geographical factors which influence the distribution of population.
- (d) Why do hill districts of Manipur have low density of population? Give three points.

3. Choose the correct answer :

- (i) Which one of the following changes of residence is called an immigration ?
 - (A) Imphal to Mumbai
 - (B) Ukhrul to Tokyo
 - (C) Dhaka to Imphal
 - (D) Thoubal to Jiribam
- (ii) Birth rate is expressed as the number of live births per
 - (A) 100 people
 - (B) 500 people
 - (C) 1000 people
 - (D) 10,000 people
- (iii) The sex ratio of Manipur is 974. What does it indicate ?

- (A) More females than males (B) More males than females
(C) Equal no. of males and females (D) High number in working age

4. Fill in the blanks

- (a) The state of has the highest rate of literacy in India.
(b) The Ganga plain has density of population.
(c) The important components of population growth are fertility, mortality and
(d) The..... districts of Manipur cover nearly 10% of the total area.

ACTIVITY

- Find the number of girls and boys studying in each class of your school. Calculate the sex ratio and prepare a chart similar to the one given in the text.
- Visit the Panchayat Office/Municipality/Municipal Council and observe how the officials record births and deaths.

SECTION - B

INDIA IN THE MODERN PERIOD

©BOSEM Not to be republished

CHAPTER - 6

MODERN PERIOD

Periodisation in History

Why do young children often call their grandparents as old generation?

Why do young children often call themselves as modern?

Indian history is broadly divided into different periods. Many British colonial administrator-Historians and Utilitarian scholars took interest in writing the history of India.

James Mill, a Scottish economist and social philosopher, in 1817, divided Indian history into three periods – Hindu, Muslim and British. Mill thought that all Asian societies were at a lower level of civilisation than Europe. Mill's division of Indian history is questioned by historians in India.

Indian historians thus, have broadly divided Indian history into **ancient, medieval** and **modern periods**. There are further divisions of these periods. This division too has its problems. There are also arguments that this periodisation cannot be uniformly followed in India.

Periodisation in North-east India

Some societies do not have written records. As such it is very difficult to periodise the history of such group into Ancient, Medieval and Modern History as is followed in other parts of India. As such the history of such group of people is also known as the Pre-Colonial, Colonial and Post-Colonial period.

Nevertheless the tripartite division of Indian history into ancient, medieval and modern history is followed when studying the general history of India.

Modern Period

There have been various opinions regarding the beginning of Modern History in India. Some hold the view that the coming of Vasco da Gama in 1498 A.D. marks the beginning of Modern History in India. Others trace it back to the Revolt of 1857.

The beginning of the 18th century is also taken as the beginning of the Modern History of India. The beginning of the 18th century witnessed disintegration of the Mughal Empire. After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the Great Mughal Empire was decaying. Fighting broke out among Aurangzeb's sons for succession to the throne. Though, Bahadur Shah I emerged successful, he was not able to control the decline of the Mughal Empire. His death also led to the struggle for succession among his sons.

The collapse of the central authority led to the declaration of independence by several provinces like Hyderabad, Awadh and Bengal. These regions were under the powerful regional potentates. They promoted their own growth. They had no political or national outlook. They, however, owed nominal allegiance to the Mughal emperor. Meanwhile the Sikhs and the Jats made successful bids for the emergence of their political entity. The Marathas emerged as one of the most powerful regional principalities.

The significance of the decline of the Mughal Empire was that its mantle fell on a foreign power which altogether transformed India politically, socially, economically, culturally, etc. The centuries old socio-religious system underwent certain changes. A new force of change emerged which was to provide the dynamism of modern India.

East India Company in India

India's contact with the west began from time immemorial. India's cotton and spices were in high demand in the west. Trade in them was a profitable one. For a long time Venetians and Egyptians held the monopoly of trade with India. Many other European countries were trying to break this monopoly. They began to search for new and safer sea routes to India.

The geographical discoveries of the last quarter of the 15th century produced far reaching consequences. Dom Henrique (Henry the Navigator) of Portugal took a keen interest in discovering a direct sea route from Portugal to India.

Search for alternative routes

The Portuguese rulers took keen interest in discovering sea routes to India. Many sailors ventured to discover sea routes to India. Bartholomew, for instance, discovered Cape of Good Hope in 1487 A.D. Columbus discovered America in 1492 A.D. Vasco da Gama finally discovered the direct sea route to India.



Fig 6.1: Vasco da Gama

Vasco da Gama reached Calicut in 1498. This marked the beginning of new contact between India and Europe through Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. For nearly a century, the Portuguese had monopoly in carrying out profitable trade with India.

Other European countries began to carry out trade with India. In 1602, the United East India Company of the Netherlands was founded. They imported cotton from India. Later on, their attention was given to spice trade of Sumatra, Java and Malaccas.

On 31st December 1600, Queen Elizabeth I granted a Charter of monopoly to East India Company to carry out trade in the east, especially with India for fifteen years. In 1615, Thomas Roe came as an ambassador of James I to the court of Jahangir. He succeeded in securing privilege for British Company from Jahangir. By 1619, British factories were established at Broach, Agra and Ahmedabad.

The French also took interest in establishing trade with the east. They, however, seemed to have started late in 1664. The French Company also received privileges from different states of India. They also established factories at Surat, Masulipatnam, Pondicherry and Chandernagore near Calcutta (Kolkata).

Thus, the seventeenth century was marked by the establishment of various factories of Companies in different parts of India. It was also marked by the struggle for dominance among the Companies of Europe. This we will study in the next chapter.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) What are the three periods of History according to J. S. Mill?
- (b) Why is the beginning of the 18th century regarded as one of the crucial periods of Indian history?
- (c) Name two factories of the French in India.

2. Answer the questions in about 30 words each :

- (a) Why did the European countries try to break the monopoly of the Venetians and Egyptians in trade with India?
- (b) How did the Mughal Empire decline after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707?

3. Match the items in Column I to those in Column II:

I	II
(a) Vasco da Gama	(a) 1492
(b) Columbus	(b) 1600
(c) Aurangzeb	(c) 1498
(d) Queen Elizabeth	(d) 1707

CHAPTER- 7

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF COMPANY POWER IN INDIA

A MONKEY AND TWO CATS

Once upon a time two cats found a piece of cheese and cut it into two pieces. But one piece was slightly bigger than the other. Both the cats wanted the bigger piece. Then they went to a monkey and asked to sort out the matter.

The monkey said, “Don’t worry. I’ll make both the pieces equal. Then it took a bite from the bigger piece. But this made the other piece larger. So it took a bite from the other piece. This continued till the pieces became very small.

Seeing this, the cats pleaded, “Sir! We are satisfied. Let us have the pieces now.”

The shrewd monkey replied, “This is my fee for sorting out the problem.” Saying this, it gobbled up the remaining cheese.

Mercantilism and Trade Wars

As mentioned in Unit 6, the geographical discoveries of the Europeans in the last quarter of the 15th century produced far reaching consequences. The Portuguese were the first to reach India by the sea route through the Cape of Good Hope of South Africa. They landed for the first time in 1498.

The Portuguese had the monopoly of the profitable Eastern trade for nearly a century. Their discovery of Brazil diverted their attention from India to the New World.

The Dutch came to India for commercial reasons. The cotton goods imported from Gujarat and Coromandel Coast had a good market in the East Indies. By establishing themselves at Surat in 1616, the Dutch secured the monopoly of trade in Western India.

In 1599 an English trading company was formed to trade with the east. On 31 December 1600, the East India Company was given royal charter by Queen Elizabeth I to trade in the East.

The first voyage of the English East India Company was made in 1601. In 1608, it decided to open a factory at Surat. The British were then given royal permission to open factories at several places in the western coast by the Mughal. In 1662, the Portuguese gave the island of Mumbai to the English king Charles I as a dowry for marrying a Portuguese princess.

By the end of the 17th century, the French emerged as the main rival to the English East India Company. The French East India Company was founded in 1664. The French East India Company was established at Chandernagore near Kolkata and Pondicherry in the east coast. The early part of the 18th century was marked by intense rivalry between the two.

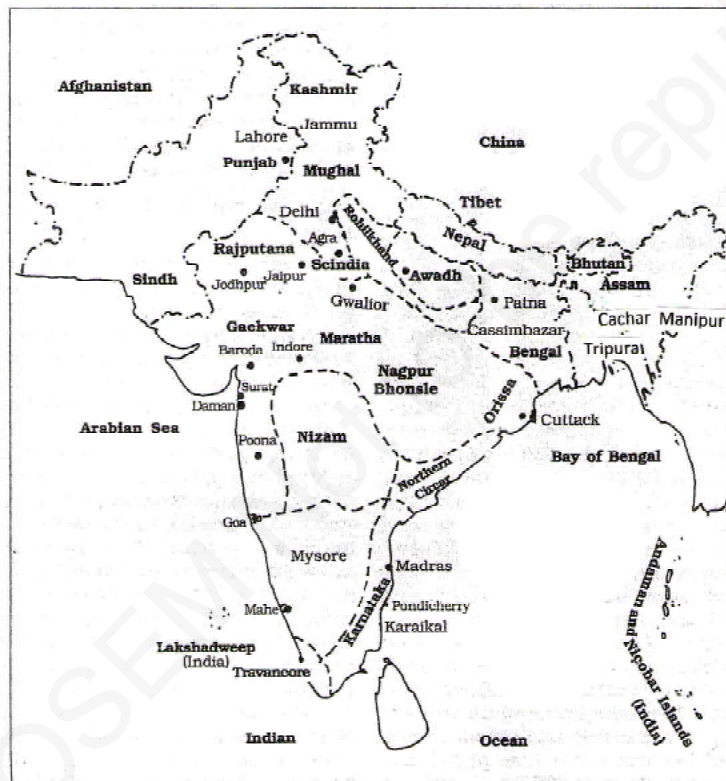


Fig. 7.1 Principal Indian States in 1750.

Struggle to Territory and Wars with Indians Rullers:

In 1745, the French Governor—General in India occupied Madras (Chennai). The British appealed to the Nawab of Carnatic to help them restore Madras to them. The

Nawab of Carnatic sent ten thousand soldiers against the French. It was defeated by the French. The War ended in 1748. As a result, Madras was given back to the British.

In 1748, tension arose in Carnatic and Hyderabad over succession. In Carnatic, Chand Sahib claimed the throne against Anwar-u-Din. In Hyderabad, there arose a tussle between Nasir Jung and his grandson Muzaffar Jung.

The French gave support to Chand Sahib in Carnatic and to Muzaffar Jung in Hyderabad. They formed an alliance. The three allies defeated Anwar-ud-din in 1749. Anwar-ud-din's son Muhammad Ali fled to Trichinopoli. Chand Sahib was then proclaimed as the Nawab of Carnatic. In 1750, Nasir Jung was assassinated and Muzaffar Jung was proclaimed as the Nizam of Hyderabad. After the death of Muzaffar Jung his son Salabat Jung was appointed as the next Nizam by the French.

Indian States	Leaders supported by French	Leaders supported by British
Carnatic	Chand Sahib	Anwar ud din and Muhammad Ali
Hyderabad	Muzaffar Jung	Nasir Jung

The French then besieged Trichinopoli. While the French were besieging Trichinopoli, the English led by Robert Clive attacked Arcot, the capital of Carnatic. The French came to help Chanda Sahib. In an agreement signed between the British and the French in 1755, the two sides agreed to stay away from the quarrels of the Indian princes.

In 1756, war again broke out between the British and French in Europe. In 1757, the British defeated Siraj-ud-Daulah the Nawab of Bengal and also captured Chandernagore, the French settlements in Bengal. The British success in Bengal, turned the scale of the war in favour of the British. The French navy was driven off Indian waters. In the **Battle of Wandiwash** in 1760, the French forces were defeated. The British became firmly rooted in the Carnatic.

The war ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The treaty allowed the French to maintain their factories in India with fortification. It also made the French to live under the protectorate of the British in India. Freed of all European rivals, the British then set upon the task of conquering India.

Carnatic Wars	1st	2nd	3rd
English against French	1740 - 1748	1749- 1754	1756-1763

Fig. 7.2 Timeline of Carnatic Wars

Conquest of Bengal - Beginning of the New Era

In 1717, Mughal Emperor Farrukhsiyar issued a royal farman (order) allowing the British to carry out free trade in Bengal without paying any taxes in return. This was not liked by the Nawabs of Bengal. In 1756, Siraj-ud-Daulah, attacked the British factory at Kasimbazar.

Soon the British under Clive conquered Kolkata in January in 1757. In the Battle of Plassey, Siraj ud Daulah was defeated. The Nawab was captured and executed. The British appointed Mir Jafar as the new Nawab of Bengal.

Mir Jafar failed to satisfy the British for long. He was soon replaced by his nephew who was also his son – in – law Mir Qasim. The Company’s servants continued to carry on private trade in Bengal. Mir Qasim wanted to stop this practice. This put him into conflict with the British. Mir Qasim was defeated in several engagements with the British. He then fled to Awadh. There he made alliance with Shuja-ud-Daulah, the Nawab of Awadh and Shah Alam II, the Mughal Emperor to defeat the British. In the Battle of Buxar fought on 22 October 1764, the combined force was defeated by the British. The Battle of Buxar firmly placed the British as the undisputed power in Bengal. Mir Jafar was reinstated as the Nawab of Bengal. After his death, his second son Nizam ud- Daulah was installed as the new Nawab of Bengal. The new Nawab was forced to disband his army and make the British govern Bengal through a nominee.



Fig. 7.3 Siraj ud Daulah

Taming the Tiger of Mysore

In the beginning of the second half of the 18th century, Mysore rose in prominence. In 1761, Haider Ali usurped the throne of Mysore.

Taking advantage of the chaos and confusion among the Marathas following the death of Madhav Rao, Haider captured Bellary, Gooty and Chitaldrug. He also brought the Maratha territory between the Krishna and the Tungabhadra under his control.

The British were worried at the quick rise of Haider Ali. The British made alliance with the Nizam of Hyderabad. The two sides agreed for mutual restoration of their respective territories. They also agreed to help one another against invasion by a third party.

In 1778 war broke out between Haider and the British. Haider passed away in 1781 and was succeeded by his son Tipu. In 1784, a treaty was signed between the two.

In 1789, Tipu invaded Travancore. The British came to the help of Travancore. Tipu was defeated and forced to sign a Treaty at Seringapatnam in 1792.



Fig. 7.4 Tipu Sultan

Subsidiary Alliance

Once a ruler entered into a subsidiary alliance with the British, he had to conduct his power according to the advice of the British. This practically meant the loss of independence of the Indian rulers who signed the Subsidiary Alliance.

Lord Wellesley became the Governor-General of India towards the end of the 18th century. He introduced the Subsidiary Alliance. He asked Tipu to sign the Subsidiary alliance. Tipu refused it. It led to the outbreak of war between the British and Tipu in 1799.

Tipu was killed in the battlefield and his son surrendered to the British. Thus, Mysore was also tamed by the British after the death of Tipu.

Wars	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
Year	1766-1769	1780-1784	1789-1792	1799

Fig. 7.5 Timeline of Anglo-Mysore Wars

Controlling the Marathas

After the death of the Peshwa Madhav Rao in 1772, war for succession broke out between Narayan Rao and Raghunath Rao. The British signed a treaty with Raghunath Rao agreeing to help him in the war of succession. The Marathas formed a confederacy with the Nizam and Mysore to fight against the British. The British emerged successful. The Treaty of Salbai was signed in May 1782. The British secured Salsette.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there were five important Maratha chiefs – the Peshwa at Pune, the Gaekwad at Baroda, the Scindia at Gwalior, the Holkar at Indore and the Bhonsle at Nagpur. There was no unity among them. The forces of the Peshwa and the Scindia was defeated by the Holkar. Then, the Peshwa went to the British for help. In 1804, the Holkar helped by the Scindia defeated the British at Deog. The British was forced to sign a peace treaty with the two.

In 1817, the Peshwa, the Bhonsle and the Holkar took up arms against the British. However, they were defeated one after another. The Peshwa surrendered to the British. This ended the Peshwaship of the Maratha. The Holkar and the Bhonsle handed large part of their territories to the British. The Holkar signed a subsidiary alliance with the British.

War	1st	2nd	3rd
Year	1772-1782	1803-1805	1817-1819

Fig. 7.6 Timeline of Anglo-Maratha Wars

Overpowering the Sikhs

At the turn of the nineteenth century Punjab was ruled by Maharaja Ranjit Singh. In 1809, a treaty was signed between Maharaja Ranjit Singh and the British. The treaty fixed River Sutlej as the boundary between the two. In 1839, Maharaja Ranjit Singh passed away. The British wanted Punjab under their control. The Sikh and the British fought in December 1845. The Sikhs were defeated and forced to sign the Treaty of Lahore in March 1846. By this treaty, the British annexed Jalandhar Doab which lies between the Beas and the Sutlej. A British Residence was put up at Lahore. The British Resident, by a supplementary treaty signed in December 1846, was made a virtual ruler of Punjab.

There were local uprisings against the British rule in Punjab. Under the pretext of these uprisings, Lord Dalhousie in 1848 declared war against the Sikhs. The Sikhs were defeated in the battles of Chilianwala and Ramnagar. In March 1849, Dalhousie annexed the whole of Punjab. Raja Dilip Singh, the son and successor of Ranjit Singh, was pensioned off and sent to England.

War	1st	2nd
Year	1845-46	1848-49

Fig. 7.7 Timeline of Anglo-Sikh Wars:

Dalhousie's Annexation

Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General of India, adopted many policies to annex the Indian territories. The most potent policy adopted by him was the Doctrine of Lapse. By the application of this doctrine, states like Satara, Udaipur, Nagpur and Jhansi were annexed to the British dominion.

Doctrine of Lapse

According to the Doctrine of Lapse, when the ruler of an Indian state, who had entered into a Subsidiary Alliance with the British, passed away without having any natural heir, his state could not be passed to the adopted son. Instead, it was to be annexed to the British dominion.

The titles of many rulers were also abolished. He abolished the title of the Nawab of Carnatic (1853) and the Raja of Tanjore (1855). He refused to give pension to Nana Saheb after the death of ex-Peshwa Baji Rao II in 1855. He said that Nana Saheb was an adopted son of the ex-Peshwa. Dalhousie also annexed many state on the ground of misgovernance. Awadh entered into Subsidiary Alliance with Wellesley in 1801 and remained loyal to the British. However, it was annexed in 1856 on the ground of misgovernance.

Thus, by the mid nineteenth century, the British from a mere trading Company had become the master of significant portions of India.

Policy	States Annexed
Doctrine of Lapse	Satara (1848), Udaipur (1850), Nagpur (1853) and Jhansi (1853)
Title abolished	Nawab of Carnatic (1853) and Raja of Tanjore (1855)
Pension refused	Nana Saheb (1855)
Misgovernance	Awadh

Fig. 7.8 Annexation Policies of Dalhousie

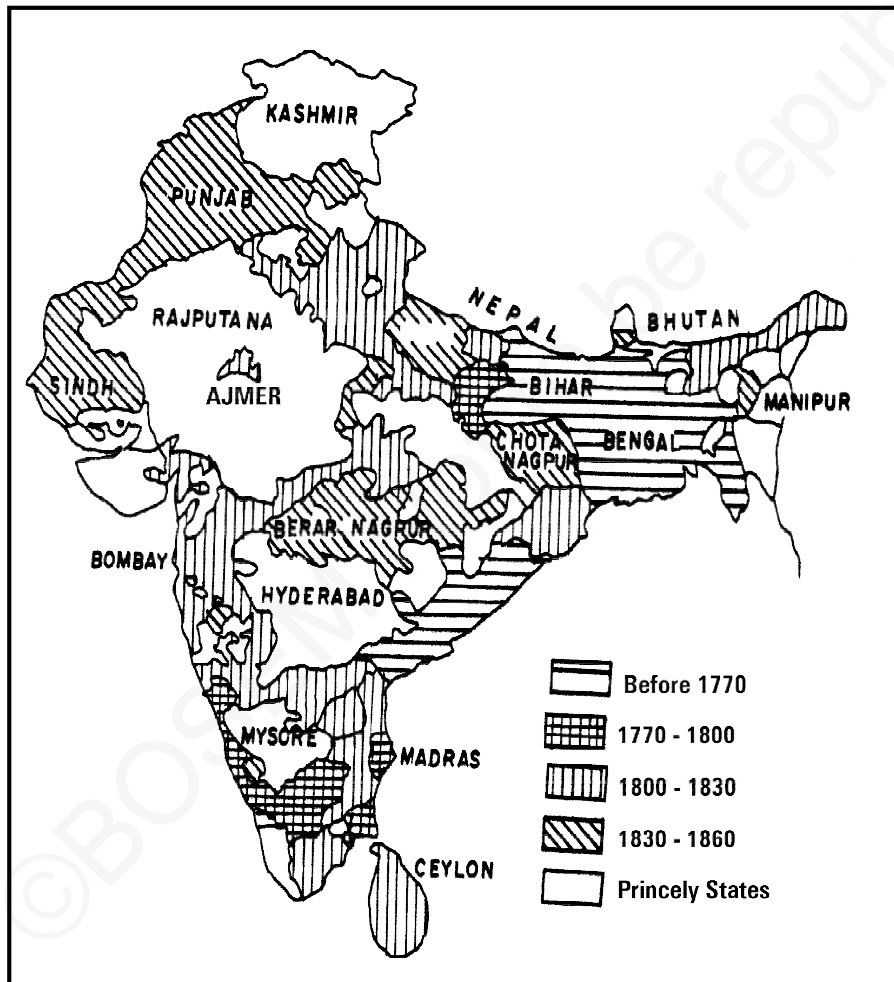


Fig. 7.9 British conquest of India during the period from 1750-1860

CIVILIAN ADMINISTRATION

During the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings (1773- 1785), the English East India Company had acquired power not only in Bengal but also in Mumbai and Chennai. By his time British administration was broadly divided into three administrative units called presidencies. Each was ruled by a Governor.

The first sign of Centralisation was seen in the Act of 1773, which designated the Governor of Kolkata as the Governor - General of Bengal. The Act of 1833 increased the central authority in Kolkata. It reduced other presidencies to mere agents.

From 1772, a new system of justice was established. Each district had two courts – a criminal court (faujdari adalat) and a civil court (diwani adalat). Maulvis and Hindu Pandits interpreted Indian laws for the European district collectors who presided over civil courts. In 1865, High Courts were established at Kolkata, Chennai and Mumbai to replace the Sadar Courts of Diwani and Nizamat.

In 1833, the Government appointed a Law Commission headed by Lord Macaulay to codify the laws. The Commission brought out Indian Penal Code, the Western-derived Codes of Civil and Criminal procedures and other codes of law. The same law gradually began to prevail all over the country.

The Company Army

One of the important pillars of the British regime in India was the army. It was the instrument through which the Indian powers were conquered. It defended the British regime in India from foreign rivals. It also safeguarded British supremacy from the ever-present threat of internal revolt.

Colonial rule in India brought in some new ideas of administration and reform but its power rested on its military strength.

The Mughal Army

The rural areas had a large number of armed peasants and the local zamindars often supplied the Mughals with paidal soldiers. Mughal successor states like Awadh and Benaras started recruiting peasants into their armies and training them as professional soldiers.

In the early nineteenth century, the British began to develop a uniform military culture. Soldiers were increasingly subjected to European-style training, drill and discipline that regulated their life far more than before. Often this created problems since caste and community feelings were ignored in building a force of professional soldiers.



Fig. 7.10 East India Company Army

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) What diverted the attention of the Portuguese from India?
- (b) What did the First Carnatic War show?
- (c) How did the Third Carnatic War come to an end?
- (d) Why did Mir Jaffar attack the English factory at Kasimbazaar?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Describe the consequences of the Battle of Plassey.
- (b) The Marathas had remained as a potent power in India at the beginning of the nineteenth century. Discuss.
- (c) Describe the Anglo-Mysore Wars.
- (d) Describe the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) The first voyage of the East India Company was made in
- (b) The French East India Company was founded in -----.
- (c) In 1789, Tipu invaded

4. Choose the odd one out:

- (a) the Raja of Tanjore
- (b) the Nizam of Hyderabad
- (c) the Nawab of Awadh
- (d) the Nawab of Carnatic

CHAPTER - 8

MANIPUR AND THE BRITISH

Nehashree was going to the Ima market with her mother. On the way beneath the flyover they saw a statue of an elephant and a man. She asked her mother what it was. Her mother answered that it is a statue of King Baghyachandra taming an elephant.



Nehashree further asked why Baghyachandra tamed the elephant.

Contact between Manipur and the British

In 1752 A.D. Chitsai the king of Manipur tried to relationship with the British for first time, but could not success. On 14 September 1762, Manipur entered into a formal relationship with the British East India Company. The treaty was signed between Haridas Gosain on behalf of Baghyachandra, the king of Manipur and Henry Verelst, Chief of the Chittagong factory, on behalf of the East India Company.



Fig. 8.1. Baghyachandra

By the second half of the eighteenth century, Manipur was repeatedly attacked by the Burmes forces. It was at this critical juncture that Haridas Gossain entered into a negotiation with Henry Verelst and signed the treaty.

An Anglo-Manipuri Treaty, 1762

Two provisions of the Anglo-Manipuri Treaty:

1. Jai Singh shall be assisted with such of the English troops as from time to time can be spared for the recovery of lands and effects from the Myanmarese.
2. For this assistance, Jai Singh is willing and ready to pay, at the immediate end of every month, all the troops in his service so long as they remain in his service.

The two sides also agreed to help each other and make a joint effort to get full satisfaction for the injury which the British had suffered at the hands of the Negrals.

To help Baghyachandra, a group of British troops with Henry Verelst left Chittagong for Manipur in January 1763 and reached Khaspur, the then capital of Cachar. Because of excessive rainfall and epidemic, they could not proceed further. Moreover, because of the fresh confrontation between the East India Company and Mir Qasim in Bengal, the troops were recalled back.

The Seven Years' Devastation, 1819-1826

After Gourshyam's death, Baghyachandra became the king of Manipur. Baghyachandra, towards the fag end of his reign, went for pilgrimage to Vrindavan on 5th February 1798. He put his son Labanyachandra to carry out the administration. After his

death in 1799, Labanyachandra became the king of Manipur. Labanyachandra passed away in 1800. Madhuchandra, a younger brother of Labanyachandra, succeeded him. Madhuchandra

King	Year of Ascendency
Labanyachandra	1799
Madhuchandra	1800
Chourjit	1804
Marjit	1814

Fig. 8.2 Timeline of kings of Manipur post Baghyachandra

appointed his younger brother Chourajit as the Yuvaraja and Marjit, the Senapati.

Madhuchandra's younger brother Chourajit was not satisfied with the post of Senapati. He wanted to be the king of Manipur. Chourajit rose in revolt in 1803. It ended in failure and Chourajit went to Cachar. In 1804, Chourajit invaded Manipur with a strong force from Cachar. Madhuchandra fled to Cachar without giving any fight to Chourajit. Chourajit, then, became the king of Manipur in 1804. Chourajit appointed his younger brother Marjit as his Yuvaraja.

In 1806, Chourajit's younger brother Marjit who was also the Yuvaraj, unsuccessfully revolted against him. Marjit then fled towards Myanmar and encamped at Tamu. From there, Marjit invaded Manipur in 1807. After a prolonged battle, Chourajit defeated him again. The two brothers were reconciled to each other. Marjit rebelled once again unsuccessfully. He then went to Cachar from where he went to Burma.

In 1814, Marjit, with strong forces from Burma, invaded Manipur. Chourajit was defeated in the battle at Kakching Panjao. He then fled to Cachar. Marjit, then, became the king of Manipur in 1814.

Marjit's honeymoon with the king of Burma did not last long. Marjit did not go to Burma to pay homage to the new king of Burma. The Burmese then overran the Manipur Valley. This ordeal of Manipur is known in the history of Manipur as the "Seven Years' Devastation of Manipur."

The Burmese, however, were not given free run in Manipur. Herachandra and Yumjaotaba adopted guerrilla warfare to attack the occupying Burmese. In 1821, Gambhir Singh came to Manipur. Yumjaotaba, then offered to Gambhir Singh the throne of Manipur.

Why Herachandra adopted guerrilla warfare?

Guerrilla warfare is a form of irregular warfare in which a small group of combatants use military tactics, such as ambushes, sabotage, raids, the element of surprise, and extraordinary mobility to harass a larger and less-mobile traditional army, or strike a vulnerable target, and withdraw almost immediately.

The population in the early 19th century was small. It was very difficult to face the Burmese in the open field. Herachandra, thus adopted guerrilla warfare against the occupying Burmese forces.

Gambhir Singh was not able to rule Manipur for long. Due to sustained Burmese pressure, he fled to Cachar. The Burmese, then, appointed a series of kings to rule Manipur for them.

Liberation of Manipur

Along with the occupation of Manipur, the forces of Burma also occupied Cachar and Assam rapidly. This rapid occupation of northeast India alarmed the British because it had threatened the British interest in the northeast India. They felt the need to meet the forces of Burma to protect their interest.

In the Battle of Tilain between the British and the Burmese, Gambhir Singh distinguished himself. The British recognised this act of valour by Gambhir Singh and chose him to be their Manipuri ally. Gambhir Singh was given an understanding that the British would accept him as the king of Manipur if he could liberate it from the Burmese.

Fate of Marjit and Chourajit

After an understanding with Gambhir Singh, the British sent Chourajit to Nadia (Paschim Banga) on a monthly pension of Rs. 100/- per month. Marjit was settled in Sylhet, now in Bangladesh. He settled there for the rest of his life.

Gambhir Singh, then, offered to liberate Manipur by his Manipur Levy of 500 soldiers. The Myanmar forces were routed in the battlefield. Manipur was liberated from the rule of Myanmar in 1826 by Gambhir Singh.



Fig. 8.3 Maharaja Gambhir Singh

Era of Reconstruction

Treaty of Yandaboo

The 1st Anglo-Burmese War ended with the signing of a treaty known as the Treaty of Yandaboo.

According to Article 2 of the Treaty of Yandaboo, the king of Burma agreed to recognise Gambhir Singh as the king of Manipur. At the time of his ascendancy, many villages were destroyed. Many of its inhabitants were carried off as captives by the invading forces of Burma. Some took shelter in Cachar and Sylhet. The immediate task of Gambhir Singh after his ascendancy was the reconstruction of Manipur. In carrying out this task, he was helped by Nara Singh.

Gambhir Singh constructed new roads, repaired the old ones and reclaimed the paddy fields covered by dense grass during the Seven Years' Devastation. He shifted his capital to Langthabal, situated about 8 km south of Imphal. The head-quarters of his Manipur Levy were also stationed there.

Langthabal Palace

Manipur University is located at Canchipur, Imphal, Manipur. The University campus is spread over an area of 287 acres in the historic Canchipur, the old palace of the kingdom of Manipur. The Langthabal Palace (Konung) was established by Maharaja Gambhir Singh in 1827 (October) just after the liberation of Manipur from Burmese occupation. Maharaja Gambhir Singh took his last breath there in Canchipur.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) What was the main cause for Baghyachandra for signing treaty with the British?
- (b) Why were the British alarmed by the Myanmarese occupation of Manipur, Assam and Cachar?
- (c) Why did the British choose Gambheer Singh to be their Manipuri ally?
- (d) Why could Henry Verelst and his troops not reach Manipur?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) How did Madhuchandra to become the king of Manipur.
- (b) Write the reconstruction works of Gambhir Singh.
- (c) How did Marjit become the king of Manipur?

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term;

- (a) On ----- September -----, Manipur entered into a formal relationship with the British East India Company.
- (b) The Anglo-Manipuri treaty was signed between -----on behalf of -----, the king of Manipur and -----, Chief of the Chittagong factory, on behalf of the -----.

CHAPTER- 9

SOCIETY AND ECONOMY IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

Colonialism and Tribal Societies

Many peasant and tribal revolts broke out against British colonialism in almost all parts of India. Though the causes of peasant and tribal revolts differed from region to region, one distinct cause of their revolts was due to the over-exploitation by both the colonial Government and the landlords.

Santhal Rebellion

One popular tribal rebellion that broke out during this period was the Santhal rebellion. Some merchants and moneylenders completely controlled the existence of Santhals through interests on loans, with rates ranging from 50% to 500%.

Rebellion broke out in 1854. When the movement started it was not ostensibly anti-British, but was directed chiefly against the mahajans and traders. The movement lasted for six months. In many areas, the zamindars helped in the suppression of the rebellion.

Birsa Munda Revolt

One of the most popular tribal revolts that broke out against the British rule was the Birsa Munda Movement in the Chotanagpur region of South Bihar. The Birsa movement was organised by Birsa of the Munda tribe.

Birsa Munda's popularity was based on his medicinal and healing powers. Birsa preached the worship of one God, Sing Bonga. He wanted the people to abstain from intoxicants and animal foods to lead a chaste and pure life.

The growing popularity of Birsa alarmed the government.



Fig. 9.1 Birsa Munda

Birsa was arrested and sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for two years. After his release in 1898, Birsa incited the people to rise in revolt. In 1900, his followers attacked the Khunti Police station. Betrayed by some Mundas, Birsa fell into the hands of the English and died of cholera in jail in June 1900.

Tribal revolts also broke out in other parts of India. Some of them are the Koya Rebellion, the Naikdas revolt and the tribal riots in Assam.

In 1860, an uprising occurred in Jaintia Hills against the imposition of house-tax. The uprising occurred due to a false rumour that the British government would take all their lands and force them to pay annual land revenue as in Bengal. The rebels resisted the efforts of the government to subdue them by following guerrilla tactics. By the close of 1863 they were forced to surrender.

Impact of Colonial Agrarian policies on peasants and landlords

The first few decades of the British rule witnessed the ruin of most of the old zamindars in Bengal and Chennai. This was particularly so with Warren Hastings policy of auctioning the rights of revenue collection to the highest bidders.

The Permanent Settlement of 1793 also had a similar effect in the beginning. The heaviness of the land revenue – the government claimed tenth-eleventh of the rental – and the rigid law of collection, under which the Zamindari estates were ruthlessly sold in case of delay in payment of revenue, worked havoc for the first few years. Many of the great Zamindars of Bengal were utterly ruined.

A remarkable feature of the spread of landlordism was the growth of sub-infeudation or intermediaries. The new landlords found it convenient to sublet their right to collect rent to other eager persons on profitable terms. As the overcrowding of the land led tenants to compete with one another to acquire land, the rent of land went on increasing.

The British imperialism in India also had a profound impact on Indian peasants. The zamindars raised rents to unbearable limits and compelled the peasants to pay illegal dues and to perform forced labour (begar).

The peasant was to pay the land revenue promptly whatever might be the condition of his crops. In bad years, the peasant was, therefore, to borrow money to pay the land revenue.

Growth of commercial crops

Another major aspect of colonial policy was the forceful commercialisation of agriculture. The peasants were coerced to grow commercial crops (like indigo and cotton) instead of food grains, even in years of scarcity.

Instead of exporting manufactures, Indians, were forced to export raw materials like cotton and raw silk which British industries urgently needed or plantation products like indigo and tea or food grains which were in short supply in England.

The process of commercialisation of agriculture was intensified by the development of the most elaborate network of railways in India after 1850. Railways linked the interior of the country with the ports and harbours and urban marketing centres and, thus, Indian agriculture began to produce commercial crops.

Indigo Riots

As the main brunt of the colonial exploitation was borne by the Indian peasantry, a number of movements took place. One of the greatest peasant movements of the modern era was the agitation by Indigo cultivators that engulfed Bengal in 1859-60.

Bonded Labour

Indigo plantations had been set up as early as 1770 by the East India Company. Most of the ryots got little or nothing from the cultivation. So, most of them were not able to repay the loan taken from the planter. Since the advance had to be repaid in indigo plant, they were forced to continue to plant indigo. Their debt were transferred to their wards. Thus, a category of bonded labour were created .



Fig. 9.2 An Indigo dye factory in Bengal

The formation of Indigo Planter's Association gave them added opportunity for oppression. They also insisted upon the cultivation of indigo plant at the old rate even when the prices of all agricultural produces had doubled. The privilege enjoyed by the British planters practically placed them above the law and beyond all judicial control.

In 1859, thousands of ryots in Bengal refused to grow indigo. The ryots refused to pay rent to the planters and attacked indigo factories with swords, spears, bows and arrows. Those who worked for the planters were socially boycotted; agents of the planters who came for collecting rents were beaten up.

Apart from the Indigo revolts, many other peasant revolts broke out. Some of them were the Mooplah Uprising, revolt in Pabna, Deccan riots, and the peasant revolts in Assam.

Peasant Revolts in Northeast India:

Peasant revolts also broke out in Assam. In 1861, the peasants of the Phulaguri area protested against prohibition of poppy cultivation.

In 1893-94, revolt broke out due to the high assessment of land-revenue. The agitation was strong in Kamrup and Darrang where the people organised a campaign for non-payment of revenue. The government solved by reducing land revenue.

Irabot and the Peasant Movement

One of the important peasant leaders of Manipur was Hijam Irabot. In 1940, he was arrested and deported to the **Sylhet Jail** for giving a speech at the Yaiskul Police lane. At the jail, he met Indian communist leaders like **Hemanga Biswas** and **Jyotirmoy Nandi**.



Irabot was released from the Sylhet Jail on 20 March 1943. But he was not permitted to enter Manipur. He stayed in **Cachar district** to work among the Manipuri peasants and also among the non-Manipuri ex tea garden workers. There he joined the Kisan movements. In March 1944, he went to Sylhet to join the annual session of the Surma valley provisional Kisan Sabha.

In the 1948 election to the Manipur Legislative Assembly, Irabot won from the Utlou Constituency as a Krishak Sabha candidate.

Decline of Handicrafts in the 19th century

The British rule in India coincided with a sudden and quick collapse of the urban handicrafts. This collapse was caused largely by competition of cheaper imported machine made goods from Britain. Because of the one-way free trade on India imposed by the British, Indian goods made of primitive techniques could not compete with goods produced on a large scale by powerful steam-operated machines.

The ruin of Indian industries, particularly artisan industries, proceeded even more rapidly once the railways were built. The railways enabled British manufacturers to reach and uproot the traditional industries in the remotest villages in the country.

The cotton weaving and spinning industries were the worst hit. Silk and woollen textiles fared no better. Similar fate overtook the iron, pottery, glass, paper, metals, shipping, oil-pressing, tanning and dyeing industries.

Development of Modern Industries

Another important development in the second half of the 19th century was the establishment of large scale machine based industries in India. The machine age started when cotton textile, jute and coal mining industries were started in the 1850's.

The first textile mill was started in Mumbai by Cowasjee Nanabhoi in 1854 and the first jute mill in Rishra (Bengal) in 1855. These industries expanded slowly but continuously. In 1879 there were 56 cotton textile mills in India employing nearly 43,000 persons. In 1882 there were 20 jute mills, most of them in Bengal, employing nearly 20,000 persons. By 1906, India had 206 cotton mills employing nearly 1,96,000 persons.

Most of the modern Indian industries were owned or controlled by British Capitalist. Foreign capitalists were attracted to Indian industry by the prospects of high profits. Labour was extremely cheap; raw materials were readily and cheaply available; For many Indian products, such as tea, jute and manganese, there was a ready demand the world over.

Indian capitalists also had to struggle from the beginning against the power of British managing agencies and British banks. To enter the field of enterprise, Indian businessmen had to bend before the British managing agencies dominating that field.

Indians also found it difficult to get credit from banks most of which were dominated by British financiers. Even when they could get loans they had to pay high interest rates while foreigners could borrow on much easier terms.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) When did the Santhal rebel against the British?
- (b) What is commercialisation of Agriculture?
- (c) What is one-way free trade?
- (d) What were the plights of the Indigo cultivators?
- (e) Name three industries that were developed in India in the second half of the 19th century.

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Why did Birsa Munda revolt?
- (b) Describe the effect of the British rule did on the old zamindars?
- (c) Write the difficulties of the Indian Capitalist in the second half of 19th century.
- (d) Discuss the impact of the colonial agrarian policies on the peasants?
- (e) Why did the handicrafts industry decline in India in the 19th century?

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term:

- (a) In _____, an uprising occurred in Jaintia Hills against the imposition of a _____.
- (b) In _____, thousand of ryots of Bengal refused to grow.....

4. Choose the odd one out:

- (i) Which of the following is not a tribal revolt?
 - (a) Koya revolt
 - (b) Naikdas revolt
 - (c) Jaintia revolt
 - (d) Moplah uprising.

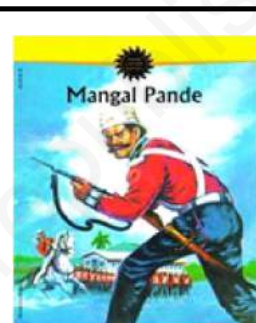
CHAPTER - 10

REVOLT OF 1857-58

The Rebellion in the army and its spread

Why did Mangal Pandey rebel ?

The Indian sepoy of the Native Infantry Regiment in Barrackpore protested against cartridges that were greased with fat from cows and pigs. But when their complaint fell on deaf ears, one man resolved to rebel. This Amar Chitra Katha tells the fascinating story of how Mangal Pandey, a sepoy attached to the Native Infantry, fired the first shot that heralded the great Mutiny of 1857 across India, thereby kindling the initial flames of the freedom movement.



Amar Chitra Katha

Script : Toni Patel

ISBN : 81-7508-203-8

Vol. No : 675

On 24th April 1857, ninety men of 3rd Native Infantry, stationed at Meerut, refused to accept the greased cartridges. On 9th May eighty five of them were dismissed and sentenced to ten years' imprisonment. On 10th May, they released their imprisoned comrades, killed their officers and unfurled the banner of revolt. They set off for Delhi after sunset. In the next morning they were joined by the Indian sepoy's stationed at Delhi. They proclaimed the aged Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah II as the Emperor of India. The Bengal Army soon rose in revolt.

Everywhere in Northern and Central India, the mutiny of the sepoy's were followed by the popular revolts of the civilian populations. The storm centres of the revolt were Delhi, Kanpur, Lucknow, Bareilly, Jhansi and Arrah in Bihar. At Delhi, Bahadur Shah assumed the symbolic and nominal leadership. But the real command was carried out by General Bakht Khan. At Kanpur, the revolt was led by Nana Sahib, the adopted son of Baji Rao II. He was helped by Tantya Tope. In other places, the revolt was led by Begum of Awadh in Lucknow, Rani Lakshmi Bai in Jhansi, Kunwar Singh in Arrah in Bihar and Maulavi Ahmadullah in Faizabad.

The Revolt of 1857 was more than a mere product of the sepoy's discontent. There were many reasons for other sections of Indians joining the revolt.

Political Causes



Fig. 10.1 Red Fort

One of the important causes for the rebellion was the attitude towards the Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II. Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General of India at the time, had declared after the death of Bahadur Shah II that the Mughals had to leave the Red Fort, the Mughal's palace in Delhi. Later, Lord Canning, the next Governor-General of India, announced in 1856 that Bahadur Shah's sons would not even be allowed to use the title of the king. Such discourtesies were resented by many of the people and the Indian rulers.

Recollect the Doctrine of Lapse of Lord Dalhousie mentioned in Chapter 7

The Doctrine of Lapse, part of the British policy of expansionism, was also greatly resented. As mention earlier Lord, Dalhousie, during his Governor-Generalship of India, annexed many kingdoms including Jhansi, Awadh, Satara, Nagpur and Sambalpur. The nobility, feudal landholders, and royal armies found themselves unemployed and humiliated.



Fig. 10.2 Bahadur Shah

The annexation of Awadh, along with other annexations of Dalhousie, created panic among the rulers of the native states. They felt that unflinching loyalty to the British had failed to satisfy the British greed for territory.

Economic Causes

One of the most important causes of the Revolt was the economic exploitation of the country by the British. It completely destroyed the traditional economic fabric of India. It impoverished peasants, artisans, handicraftsmen and also a large number of traditional zamindars and chiefs.

Recollect how

- i) the peasants were affected by introduction of the land revenue policy of the British**
- ii) traditional zamindars were affected by the introduction of the Permanent system**

The gradual disappearance of Indian states deprived the middle and upper class Indians, who had been employed in high administrative and judicial posts, of any visible means of livelihood.

Social Causes

The Indians also feared that the British rule endangered their religion. This fear was largely due to the activities of the Christian missionaries, who were seen in the schools, hospitals, prisons, market places, etc.

The conservative religious sentiments of the Indians were also aroused by some of the humanitarian measures taken up by the British. Abolition of sati, legislation of widow remarriage and opening of western education to girls appeared to the Indians as an undue interference in their culture.

Religious sentiments were also aroused by the British policy of taxing lands belonging to temples and mosques. As such, religious preachers, maulvis and pandits found themselves at a sudden disadvantage.

Military Causes

The English had used the Indian soldiers to conquer India. In order to consolidate and control British territory, the East India Company maintained a well-established army. It was commanded by British officers. During the late eighteenth century and the early part of the nineteenth century, the armies of the East India Company were victorious.

The sepoys were however, paid less. No Indian soldier could become a staff officers; the highest ranking Indian was subordinate to the most junior British subaltern. Relations between the officers and the sepoys were becoming distant. The foreigners were growing increasingly insensitive to the Indian scruples.

There were many indications that all was not well in the armies. In the beginning of the nineteenth century the sepoys in different regions began to highlight one or other of their grievances.

Sepoy Mutinies

In 1806 the sepoys at Vellore revolted in protest against the new regulations that required them to shave off their beards.

In 1824, during the First Anglo-Burmese War, the sepoys at Barrackpore near Kolkata mutinied because they were not permitted to carry their individual cooking vessels but told to share communal pots.

In 1844, 1849 and 1850 the sepoys also mutinied. The causes for these mutinies were the failure of the government in the non-payment of the extra allowances for serving in distant lands.

In July 1856, General Service Enlistment Act was passed requiring all sepoys to march wherever demanded. This was a cruel blow to the sepoys who had other grievances as well. Invalid pension were no longer paid to those unfit for foreign service and postal privileges were curtailed.



Fig. 10.3 Rani Lakshmi Bai Fig. 10.4 Tanya Tope

Fig.10.5 Nana Saheb

Failure of the Revolt

The revolts though spread over a vast territory and widely popular among the people, could not embrace the entire country and all section of the Indians. Most rulers of the Indian states and big zamindars refused to join the revolt. In fact, some like the Scindia of Gwalior, the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Raja of Jodhpur gave active help to the British. The big zamindars, the money-lenders and the intellectual class also did not join the revolt. Moreover, the rebellion was also short of modern weapons. It was also poorly organised and they were ill-disciplined. There was also disunity among the leaders of the rebellion.

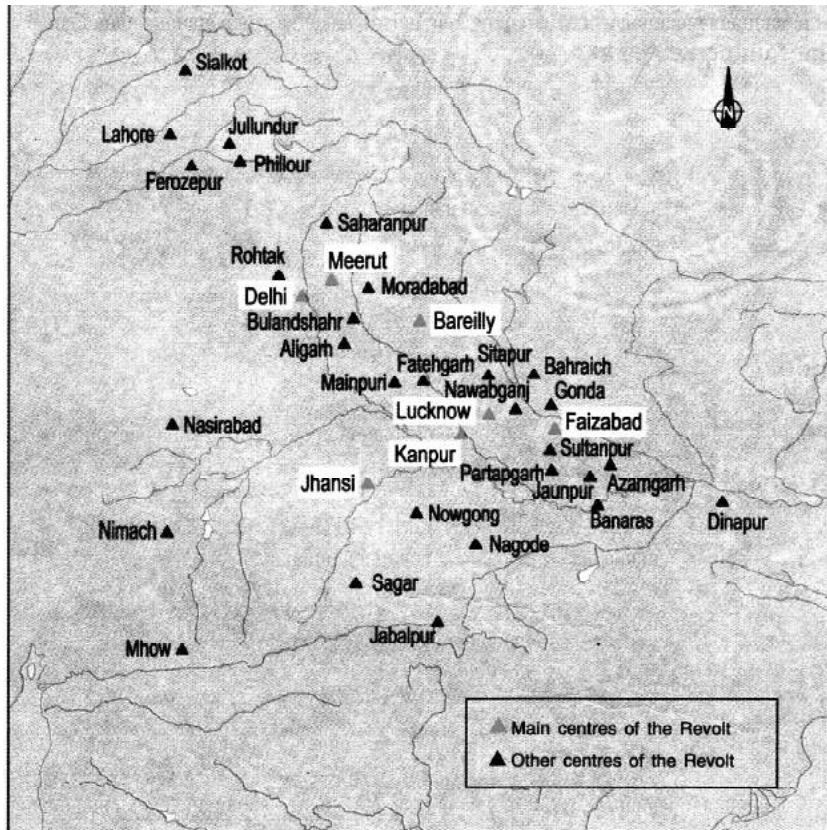


Fig. 10.6 Map of India showing chief centres of Revolt of 1857

Nature of the Revolt of 1857

The Revolt of 1857 was definitely something more than a sepoy mutiny but something less than a natural revolt. The sepoys were undoubtedly the mainstay of the rebellion. But millions of ordinary citizens also participated in the rebellion.

The rebellion took place everywhere in the name of one sovereign. Under his flag, it enjoyed strong mass support. The decisive evidence showing the broad character of the rebellion is the note of communal harmony it struck and the spirit of mutual accommodation it evoked in both the communities. Though religion heightened the appeal of the revolt, its content remained predominantly political. Its leaders were temporal, not spiritual, spokesmen of society.

Strictly speaking, the Revolt of 1857 cannot be described 'national', for national would entail a reaction to colonial rule in modernist terms. They did not have a viable

alternative programme of action in case of overthrow of the colonial regime. But, the Revolt can be described 'national' in another important sense. This was the first time that soldiers of the Indian army recruited from different communities, Hindus and Muslims, landlords and peasants, had come together for the first time in their opposition to the British. It certainly provided the necessary foundation that the later successful anti-colonial struggles could build upon.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) What impact did the annexation of Awadh create among the rulers of the native states?
- (b) What is General Service Enlistment Act of 1856?
- (c) What religious fear did the Indians have over the Christian missionaries?
- (d) Why did the Indian sepoys reject the Enfield rifle?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Write the treatment of Mughals by the British.
- (b) Why did the Revolt of 1857 end in a failure?
- (c) Describe the economic causes of the Revolt of 1857.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) Sepoys throughout India were issued with a grease _____.
- (b) On _____, ninety men of 3rd Native Infantry stationed at Meerut, refused to accept the greased cartridges.

CHAPTER - 11

EDUCATION AND BRITISH RULE

Indigenous systems of education

The history of education in the Indian sub-continent began with teaching of traditional elements such as Indian religion, Indian mathematics, Indian logic at early Hindu and Buddhist centres of learning such as Taxila and Nalanda before the common era. Islamic education became ingrained with the establishment of the Islamic empires in the Indian sub-continent in the Middle Ages while the coming of the Europeans later brought western education to colonial India. A series of measures continuing throughout the early half of the 20th century ultimately laid the foundation of education in the Republic of India and much of South Asia.

Education in early period

Early education in India commenced under the supervision of a guru. The earliest venues of education in India were often secluded from the main population. Students were expected to follow strict monastic guidelines prescribed by the guru and stays in ashrams.

The education was imparted on the basis of caste and the related duties that one had to perform as a member of a specific caste. The Brahmans learned about scriptures and religion while the Kshatriyas were educated in the various aspects of warfare. The Vaishya learned commerce and other specific vocational courses while education was largely denied to the Shudras, the lowest caste.

As population increased under the Gupta Empire, centres of urban learning became increasingly common. Cities such as Varanasi and the Buddhist centre like Nalanda became the centre of learning.

Education in India in its traditional form was closely related to religion. Among the

Heterodox schools of belief were the Jain and Buddhist schools. Heterodox Buddhist education was more inclusive. Aside of the monastic orders, the Buddhist education centres were urban institutes of learning.

Curriculum in Ancient India

At places like Taxila and Nalanda, grammar, medicine, philosophy, logic, metaphysics, arts and crafts etc. were taught. Outside the religious framework, kings and princes were educated in the arts and sciences related to government: politics, economics, philosophy, and historical traditions.

Some of the curriculums imparted in education in early Manipur

Some of the curriculum imparted in early Manipur includes instructions in administrative affairs, proper training in military warfare, statescraft, diplomacy etc.

Hongnem Yoi Mongba, son of Ura Kunthouba was sent by his father –in-law Amukoi, a Khuman chief, to get instruction in administrative affairs from Luwang Ningthou Punsiba.

Mungyamba, to give a practical lesson in warfare to his son Khagemba allowed the prince to participate in an expedition. Mungyamba also took a great care in giving him proper training in military warfare, statescraft, religious and literary attainment and diplomacy.

Education in late Middle Ages

With the advent of Islam in India the traditional methods of education increasingly came under Islamic influence. Islamic institution of education in India included traditional madrassas and maktabas which taught grammar, philosophy, mathematics and law.

Among the centres of education in India in 18th century Delhi was the Madrasa Rahimiya under the supervision of Shah Waliullah, an educator who favored an approach balancing the Islamic scriptures and science.

The new education system and Changes

In the beginning, the East India Company felt no responsibility for educating the Indians. Only some English felt its necessity and pleaded with the Court of Directors. In 1781, Warren Hasting set up the Calcutta Madrasah. In 1791, Jonathan Duncan started a

Sanskrit College at Varanasi. Both these institutions were designed to provide a regular supply of qualified Indians to help the administration of law in the courts of the Company.

The Charter Act of 1813 incorporated the principle of encouraging learned Indians and promoting the knowledge of modern sciences in the country. The Act directed the Company to spend a sum of one lakh rupees for the purpose. In 1835, the Government of India decided to devote the resources to the teaching of western sciences and literatures through the medium of English alone. Macaulay as Legal Member of the Council gave his view in favour of the English. His view came to be known as the famous Macaulays' Minute.

Macaulay's Minute

On 7 March 1835, Macaulay gave his view on the Parliament Select Committee for adopting English as the official language in India. He said that from the end product of the new system would emerge a class who, though Indian in blood and the colour of their skins would be 'English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and intellect.'

Since the allocated funds could educate only a handful of Indians, it was decided to spend them in educating a few persons from the upper and middle class who were expected to assume the task of educating the masses and spreading modern ideas among them.

The Wood's Despatch of 1854 was another important step in the development of education in India. As a result of the directions given by the despatch, Departments of Education were instituted in all provinces and affiliating Universities were set up in 1857 at Kolkata, Mumbai and Chennai.

One of the most important reasons was the Government's desire to economise in the cost of administration by getting a cheap supply of educated Indians to man the large and increasing number of subordinate posts in administration and British business concerns.

Clerk, More Clerk for Company!

It was too costly and perhaps not even possible to import enough Englishmen for working in the lower subordinate jobs in India. Thus, to get regular cheap supply of clerks, the British wanted to impart modern western education in schools and colleges in India where its recipients would be fit for jobs in the Westernised administration of the Company as English was the language of administration.

The Government was never willing to spend more than a scanty sum on education. In 1886, it allocated only one crore rupees to education out of its total net revenue of 47 crores.

From Childhood to adolescence and again from adolescence to manhood, we are coolies of the goddess of learning - Rabindranath Tagore

Many Indian thinkers from different parts of India began to talk of the need for a wider spread of education. Some Indians were impressed with the developments in Europe and felt that western Education would help in modernising India. They urged the British to open more schools, colleges and universities and spend more money on education.

There were other Indians, who reacted against the then system of Western education imparted by the British.

Among those who were vocal against the Western education were Mahatma Gandhi and Rabindranath Tagore. Gandhi believed that the British System of Education did not provide for the enrichment, preservation and promotion of Indian culture. Rather it was bookish education, its curriculum neither life nor job centred. It created a fascination for English language, dominated by teacher's authoritarianism and western in nature.



Fig. 11.1 Gandhi

Gandhiji observed all these defects of the British System Education. He, thus wanted a new System of Education promoting nationalism, patriotic outlook and abilities and skill to exploit the natural resources of India. Hence, he evolved the Nai Talim or the Basic System of Education, which was also known as the Wardha Scheme of Education.

Nai Talim

The Nai Talim or Basic Education consists of- craft-centred; free compulsory education, Ideal citizenship, mother-tongue, etc. Gandhiji said that some craft should become the centre of child's education, for example agriculture, carpentry, gardening, spinning, weaving, etc.

He said that, craft must be less expensive and simple, fulfil individual and social needs, must lead to the all round development of child's personality', suitable for the interest of the child's abilities and aptitudes and suit local requirements.

Tagore said that the present system of education is joyless. Small children are burdened with tons of books. Tagore wrote. "From Childhood to adolescence and again from adolescence to manhood, we are coolies of the goddess of learning, carrying loads of words on our folded backs." He also said that education the present education system has no relation to life.

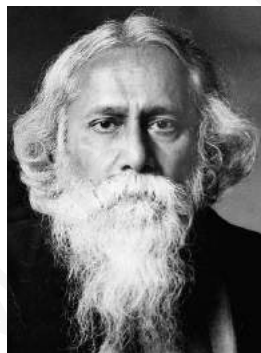


Fig. 11.2 Rabindranath Tagore

School in India is really a factory?

Tagore writes "At half past ten, in the morning the factory opens with the ringing of a bell, and then as the teachers start talking, the machines start working. The teachers stop talking at four in the afternoon when the factory closes and the pupil then go home carrying with them a few pages of machine- made learning".

Tagore was one of the first in India to argue for a humane educational system that was in touch with the environment and aimed at overall development of the personality. Santiniketan became a model for vernacular instruction and the development of Bengali textbooks. It also offered one of the earliest coeducational programs in South Asia. The establishment of Visva-Bharati and Santiniketan led to pioneering efforts in many directions, including models for distinctively Indian higher education and mass education, as well as pan-Asian and global cultural exchange.

Efforts of other Indians towards the development of education in India:

Jamshedji Tata visualized the need for scientific and technical manpower necessary for the development of independent capitalism. He worked out a scheme for a research institute which culminated in the establishment of the Indian Institute of Wince in Bangalore in 1909.

The leaders of the Swadeshi movement started the Jadavpur Engineering College in 1907.

In 1906, the British turned down the proposal of the Madras Provincial Government for a Department of Industries.

In 1911 a bill moved by Gokhale for free and compulsory education was rejected.

ALLIGARH MOVEMENT

Sir Syed Ahmad was born in a rich family of Delhi. He strove hard to reform the Muslim society. He advocated western education for the Muslims in India. His greatest achievement was the foundation of the Mohammedan Anglo Oriental College at Aligarh in 1875. The college which later on became the Aligarh Muslim University imparted not only important modern education in English medium but also fostered a modern outlook among the Muslims. The college played a prominent role in the awakening of the Muslims in India. This movement came to be known as the Aligarh Movement.



EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) Who was Khagemba?
- (b) Who establish Calcutta Madrasah?
- (c) What did the Charter Act of 1813 state?
- (d) What is the Nai Talim of Mahatma Gandhi?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Write notes on the Buddhist education centres.
- (b) State the educational policies of India in the middle ages.
- (c) Write Rabindranath Tagore opinion on the British system of education.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term:

- (a) Islamic institution of education in India included traditional _____ and _____ .
- (b) In _____, Jonathan Duncan started a Sanskrit College at _____ .

CHAPTER - 12

INDIAN RENAISSANCE

Look at the Right to Equality of the Fundamental Rights of India mention in Chapter 18 of this book.

What would you feel if you are not allowed to admit to a school of your preference on the ground of your caste?

Socio-religious reform movements

One of the major effects of the national awakening in the 19th century was seen in the field of social reforms. The newly educated persons increasingly raised their voices against the rigid social conventions and out-dated customs. Many prominent persons like Jyotiba Phule, Gopal Hari Deshmukh, Justice Ranade, Vireslingam and B. R. Ambedkar also played an important role.

The social reform movements tried to achieve: (a) emancipation of women and extension of equal rights to them; (b) removal of caste rigidities and in particular, the abolition of untouchability.

Abolition of Sati

General Napier, on the practice of sati writes :

"This burning of widows is your custom; prepare the funeral pile. But my nation has also a custom. When men burn women alive we hang them, and confiscate all their property.

Napier, William. (1851) History Of General Sir Charles Napier's Administration Of Scinde. (P. 35). London.

One of the important official social reform measures undertaken by the British in India was the abolition of Sati. The Supreme Court in Kolkata, The Danes at Serampore, the Dutch at Chinsuria and the French at Chandernagore prohibited the practice of Sati within their jurisdiction as early as the last quarter of the 18th century. In 1789, the English District Officers wrote to the supreme government asking for permission to disallow it in view of its inhuman nature.

Raja Rammohan Roy spearheaded the movement for its abolition. He sent a petition in August 1818 narrating gruesome details related with the practice. He also wrote tracts in Bengali to convince the people that Sati was not only inhumane but lacked the sanction of the sastras. He carried a vigorous campaign against Sati through his journal Sambada-kaumudi.

Lord William Bentinck, On December 4, 1829 sati was declared illegal in Bengal by Regulation XVII and punishable by criminal courts. This Regulation not only prohibited the burning but also the burial of widows with their dead husbands. In Chennai, similar regulation was passed on February 2, 1830.



Fig. 12.1 Raja Ram Mohun Roy

Age of consent

Child marriage was another social evil that attracted the attention of the social reformers as well as the rulers of the Indian states. An Act of 1872 abolished marriage of girls before 14. This act was applicable only to those who were outside the impact of Hinduism, Islam or other recognised faith.

Behrany Mermanji Malabari started agitation to secure legislation against child marriage and placed his views before the public in his notes on Infant Marriage and Widowhood in 1884. He was mainly instrumental in getting the Age of Consent Act passed in 1891. This Act forbade the consummation of marriage before the wife had reached the age of 12. It was, however, a poor substitute for the prohibition of early marriage of girls.

Widow re-marriage

Another important official social reform measure undertaken by the British in India was the re-marriage of the widows. The reforming sects like the Brahma Samaj introduced remarriage of widows within their societies.

A few public men of Kolkata proposed to call a meeting in order to encourage female education and remove restrictions on widow re-marriage sometimes before 1857.

About the same time, an agitation for this reform began in Mumbai. Several pamphlets on the subject were published in or about 1837. A few Indians set the example by marrying widows. In 1845, the British Indian society founded the two religious associa-

tions, the **Dharma Sabha** and the **Tattva-bodhini Sabha**. No encouraging signal came from them. It was at this point of time Pandit Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar appeared on the stage.

Vidyasagar wrote a series of articles and pamphlets in defence of widow re-marriage. He went on educating the people and the government. His efforts led to the passing of the Hindu Widow Re-marriage Act (Act XV of 1856) legalising the marriage of widows notwithstanding any customs or interpretation of the Hindu Law to the contrary and declaring children born of such marriages as legitimate.

Jotiba Phule was a pioneer of widow re-marriage movement in Maharashtra. During this period, many widow re-marriage associations were also formed in different parts of India. Some others founded Widow's Home.

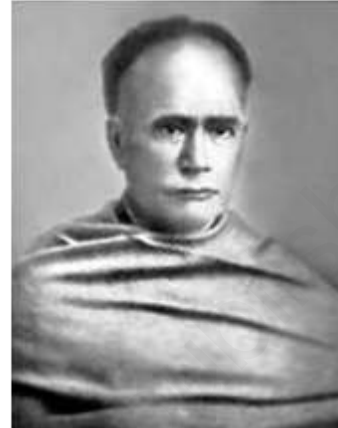


Fig. 12.2 Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Widow re-marriage association :

The Prahahansa Mandali -Maharashtra (1849)

Satya Prakash - founded by Karsandas Mulji in Gujarat 1852

A Widow Remarriage Association - Mumbai in 1866

Reformers who founded Widow's Home:

D. K. Karve - Widow's Home in Pune in 1896.

1898, Veerasalingam - Widow's Home in Chennai.

Sasiapada Bannerji - in Kokata.

Ideas of different reformers on the position of women and women's education

Many great leaders in the nineteenth century who worked whole heartedly for the upliftment of the position of women. Prominent among them were Raja Rammohun Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar and Jotiba Phule.

Raja Rammohun Roy is regarded as the first great leader of modern India. In 1828, he founded Brahma Samaj. He was a stout champion of women's rights. He con-

demned the subjugation of women and opposed the prevailing idea that women were inferior to men in intellect or in moral sense. He condemned polygamy and the degraded position to which widows were often reduced. To raise the status of women, he demanded that they be given the right of inheritance and property. Rammohan Roy organised agitation against the inhuman practice of women becoming Sati. From 1818, he set out to rouse public opinion on the question.

Another important leader who worked tirelessly for the upliftment of the status of women was Pandit Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar. Vidyasagar is remembered for his contribution to the upliftment of India's downtrodden womanhood. He waged a long struggle in favour of widow remarriage. He raised his voice in favour of widow remarriage in 1855.

Vidyasagar also protested against child marriage. All his life he campaigned against polygamy. He was also deeply interested in the education of women. As a Government Inspector of Schools, he organised thirty five girl's schools, many of them at his own expense.

The call for girl's education also became popular in other parts of India, especially in western India. In 1851, Jyotiba Phule and his wife started a girl's school at Pune. Soon many other schools came up. Phule was also a pioneer of the widow remarriage movement in Maharashtra. Vishnu Shastri Pandit founded the Widow Re-marriage Association in the 1850's.

Challenging the caste system

No Peon, No Water

Bhimrao Ambedkar was the 14th and last child of Ramji Maloji Sakpal and Bhimabai. They belonged to the Mahar caste, who were treated as untouchables and subjected to socio-economic discrimination.

Ramji Sakpal sent his children to study at the government school. Ambedkar and other untouchable children were segregated and given little attention or assistance by the teachers. They were not allowed to sit inside the class. Even if they needed to drink water somebody from a higher caste would have to pour that water from a height as they were not allowed to touch either the water or the vessel that contained it.

This task was usually performed for the young Ambedkar by the school peon, and if the peon was not available then he had to go without water, Ambedkar states this situation as ‘No peon, No Water’.

The caste system was humiliating and inhuman. It also causes social disintegration. It became a major obstacle in the growth of united national feeling and the spread of democracy.

As modern and rationalist ideas spread among the Indians, voice began to raise against the caste system. The Brahmo Samaj, the Prathana Samaj, the Arya Samaj, the Ramakrishna Mission, etc., attacked it. Some of the prominent leaders who took active part in the caste system were Phule, Veeraslingam, Sri Narayan Guru, Periyar, Gandhi, Ambedkar.

Jyotiba Phule

Jyotiba Phule started the first school for women in Pune. Phule worked day and night for the uplift of the society. He start a school for Mahar in an orthodox city like Pune. At that time the government was even afraid of allowing the children of untouchable to sit in the class along with children of other castes.

In 1873, he started the ‘Satyasodhak Samaj’. He wrote about the suffering of the farmers. He considered the suffering of the downtrodden (dalits) as his own. He identified himself with their way of life and tried hard to remove the curse of untouchability. He declared that man is born free and both men and women have equal freedom to express their views. This tradition of Jyotiba was later continued by Dr. Ambedkar.

Narayan Guru

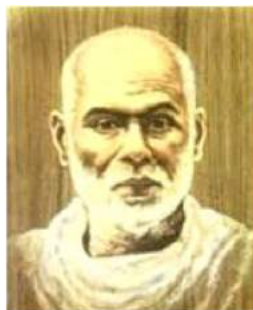


Fig. 12.3 Narayan Guru

Narayan Guru was a spiritual leader of Kerala and was responsible for initiating self-respect among the lower caste of South India. Influenced by Swami Vivekananda, he advocated social and religious reform particularly among the Ezhavas on the western coast of India. It was his name that the famous Sri Narayan Guru Dharma Paripalana Yogan movement was launched by his disciples. He struck a slogan of 'One caste, One religion and One God.' He built temples for lower castes and his disciples built a number of schools and colleges for education among the lower caste.

Veerasingam Pantulu Kandukuri

Kandukuri Veerasalingam spearheaded the widow movement in the Andhra region. He was excommunicated by the religious chief. But Veerasalingam unflinchingly carried on his work. He started the movement by founding the Social Reform Association in 1878 in Rajahmundry. He moved to Chennai. There he started a home for child widows and schools for them. The chain of schools started by him became asylums for men and women who had entered into wedlock under widow remarriage movement.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) When did Lord William Bentinck declare Sati illegal in Bengal?
- (b) When was sati declared illegal in Madras Bengal?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30 words each :

- (a) Write Behrany Mermaji Malabari's role in passing the Age of Consent Act, 1891.
- (b) What did the social reform movement try to achieve?
- (c) Write the roles of Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar in improving the status of women.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) Rammohan Roy sent a petition in _____ narrating gruesome details related with the practice of Sati.

CHAPTER- 13

COLONIALISM AND URBAN CHANGES

De-urbanisation and emergence of new towns

Imphal:

Why do women from different parts of Manipur come to Imphal to sell their goods?

Why do peoples from different parts of Manipur come to Imphal for medical treatment?

Why do students from different parts of Manipur come to Imphal for education?

Agra, Delhi and Lahore were important centres of imperial administration and control of the Mughals. These cities and other towns built by the Mughals were famous for their concentration of population, their monumental buildings and their imperial grandeur and wealth. The presence of the emperor and noblemen in these centres meant that a wide variety of services had to be provided. Artisans produced exclusive handicrafts for the households of nobles. Grain from the countryside was brought into urban markets for the town dwellers and the army. The treasury was also located in the imperial capital.

By the end of the eighteenth century, the land-based empires in Asia were replaced by the powerful sea-based European empires. With the expansion of commercial activity, towns grew around these trading centres. Thus, changes in the network of trade were reflected in the history of urban centres.

Bases of the European Companies in India:

The European Companies had set up base in different places early during the Mughal era. The Portuguese positioned themselves in Panaji (1510), the Dutch in Masulipatnam (1605), the British in Madras (1639) and the French in Pondicherry (Puducherry) (1673).

The mid-eighteenth century witnessed a sudden and quick collapse of India's urban handicrafts. This collapse coincided with the establishment of the British rule in India.

The British who replaced the Indian ruling class in India patronised their home-made products exclusively. The British favoured the importation to India machine-made cheaper goods from Britain.

The ruin of handicrafts was reflected in the ruins of towns and cities which were famous for their manufactures. Commercial centres such as Surat, Masulipatnam and Dhaka, which had grown in the seventeenth century, declined when trade shifted to other places. Mirzapur on the Ganges, which specialised in collecting cotton and cotton goods from the Deccan, declined when a railway link was made to Bombay.

What is De-Urbanisation?

One day Dudu's teacher mentions about de-urbanisation during the British rule.

He asked his teacher what de-urbanisation is of India.

His teacher told him that in the eighteenth century, when local rulers of India were defeated by the British and new centres of administration emerged earlier centres of regional power collapsed. Moreover, many towns manufacturing specialised goods declined due to a drop in the demand for what they produced. Old trading centres and ports decline as the flow of trade moved to new centres. This process is often described as de-urbanisation.

As the British gradually acquired political control after the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the trade of the English East India Company expanded. Their port cities such as Madras, Calcutta and Bombay rapidly emerged as the new economic capitals. They also became centres of colonial administration and political power. By about 1800, they functioned as collection depots for the export of Indian manufactures such as cotton textiles .



Fig. 13.1 Fort St. George, Madras

Railway and Urbanisation

The introduction of railways in 1853 further brought a change in the fortunes of towns. The expanding network of railways linked these cities to the rest of the country. As a result, the hinterland – the countryside from where raw materials and labour were drawn – became more closely linked to these port cities. Thus, economic activity gradually shifted away from traditional towns which were located along old routes and rivers. Every railway station became a collection depot for raw materials and a distribution point for imported goods. With the expansion of the railway network, railway workshops and railway colonies were established. Railway towns like Jamalpur, Waltair and Bareilly developed.

Municipalities

From ancient times India has developed highly efficient system of local government. Instead of revitalising the existing institutions of India, the British built up a system of their own.

In 1871, Municipal Acts were passed in different provinces. Local committees with both official and non-official members and an official chairman for each – were set up for the administration of funds.

Lord Ripon in May 1882 establish a network of Local Boards throughout the country. The new Boards, both urban and rural, were to have a large majority of non-officials members. They were to be elected and to held office for at least two years. Non-officials member were to act as Chairman of the Local Boards. To ensure better administration each local Boards was given jurisdiction over a small area, like subdivision or taluk. The Government retained its control over these Boards by requiring sanctions for certain acts and by its power for intervention in case of neglect or default.

In 1915 the Government of India declared the gradual removal of unnecessary Government control and to distinguish the spheres of action belonging to the Government and to the local bodies.

Railways link

Ever since railways developed rapidly in England in the thirties of the 19th century, pressure was mounted for their speedy construction in India. Suggestions regarding construction of railways in India came from different quarters since 1832. From 1845, a number of railway companies were founded in England.

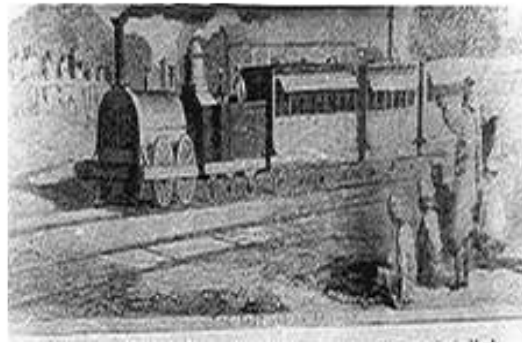


Fig. 13.2 First train of the East Indian Railway, 1854

What did they think on railways?

The British manufactures hoped to open the vast and hitherto untapped market in the interior of India and to facilitate the export of Indian raw materials and food-stuffs to meet the need of their hungry machines and workers with the help of the railways.

The British investors and bankers looked upon railways development as a channel for safe investment of their surplus capital.

The British steel manufacturers thought that the railways would serve as outlets for their products such as rails, engines, wagons, etc.

The Government of India thought that the railways would enable it to administer India more effectively than before and protect their regime from internal rebellion and external aggression by helping more rapid movements of troops.

Lord Dalhousie infused a new vigour into the railway movement. Dalhousie selected the route of the first railway line from Howrah to the coal fields near Raniganj. The construction of this railway lines commenced in 1850. In the next month, the Great Indian Peninsular Railway began the construction of the railway line in the presidency of Mumbai. This line connecting Mumbai and Thane was thrown opened to passenger traffic on 16th April 1853. From 1853, bigger railways undertakings began to take concrete shape. By the end of 1869 more than 6000 kms of railways were constructed.

The construction of the railways was one of the most memorable enterprises of the British rule in India. Henceforth, fuel could be brought to the centres of production and the products of those centres could be distributed widely and cheaply. The way was thus opened for the development of large scale industries.

It facilitated the movement of Indians from one place to another. It proved to be a potential instrumental for social liberalisation and national unity.

Police

Besides the civil services and the army, another important administrative machinery of the British was the police. In 1791, created a Superintendent of Police for Kolkata. The district was divided into a number of thanas. In 1808, Lord Minto appointed a Superintendent of Police for a Division .

In 1860, the Government of India appointed a Commissioner to look into the police administration. It recommended the establishment of a well-established civil constabulary, supervised by European officers.

Police Act, 1869

At the head of the police organisation in the province there would be an Inspector-General. The Deputy Inspector General would be placed in each range (the province was divided into ranges) and at the head of each district there would be a Superintendent of Police.

The police gradually succeeded in reducing major crimes such as dacoity. One of its major achievements was the suppression of the thugs who robbed and killed travellers on the highways, particularly in the Central India. The police also prevented organisation of a large scale conspiracy against foreign control and when the national movement arose, the police was used to suppress it.

The first Police Commission appointed in 1902 recommended the creation of Criminal Investigation Departments in the provinces and Central Intelligence Bureau at the centre.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) When was the Municipal Act pass ?
- (b) What did the Police Act of 1869 state?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Define the differences in living spaces of the Indians and the British between Delhi and that of the cities like Kolkata, Chennai and Mumbai before 1857.
- (b) Write the local self government introduced Lord Ripon
- (c) Write benefits brought by the railways.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) In 1808, Lord Minto appointed

CHAPTER - 14

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN ARTS, PAINTING, LITERATURE AND ARCHITECTURE

As discussed in chapter 13, the British rule witnessed the decline of India's urban handicrafts. One of the main factors for its decline was the gradual disappearance of Indian rulers and their courts. Indian rulers were replaced as the ruling class by British officials and military officers who patronised their home made products almost exclusively.

Apart from the changes in handicraft industry, change was also witnessed in the fields of arts, painting, literature and architecture.

Impact of Art Schools

The paintings executed in India by the British artists in India falls into three categories. In the earliest day the fashion seems to have been for large-size oil painting, the art of miniature paintings and water-colour drawings. From the second quarter of the nineteenth century, Indian artists received some training in western techniques and styles of work under the Company's Commissions. At that time indigenous traditions particularly had reached the lowest ebb. One of the famous Indian painter Ravi Verma employed the medium of oil colour in painting Indian mythological themes.



14.2 Galaxy of 14 Singers by Ravi Verma

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, there emerged a new movement in Bengal which was almost rooted in the Indian soil. The pioneer of this movement was E. B. Havell urged the necessity of reviving the past traditions of the country.

The best exponent of neo-art movement was Abanindranath Tagore, colleague of Havell in Government College of Art in Kolkata. His famous picture, Shah Jahan Looking at the Taj, was



14.1 Ravi Verma

the manifestation of his soul's cry which he put into picture. His other master pieces include Buddha and Sujata, Tear Drops on a Lotus leaf and Queen of Forest.

Modern oriental art received great encouragement from a number of distinguished artists like Nandalal Bose, Surendranath Ganguly, Sarada Charan Ukil, etc.

The Kala School of Art in Shantiniketan, under the fostering care of Rabindranath Tagore and guiding inspiration of Nandalal Bose, produced a number of artists of talent, including Binod Bihari Mukherjee. During this period, the painting of Badhra Singh was also getting recognition, especially in Manipur.

Ningthoujam Badhra Singh (1861-1927 A.D.)

Ningthoujam Badhra Singh was a celebrated artist of Manipur in the late 19th and 20th centuries. He was born at Thiyam Konjin about 20 km. away from Imphal. He settled with his family at Imphal since his childhood. He started painting since his childhood. He learnt the art of painting from Mangaidam Angangmacha Singh, the royal court artist of Chandrakriti. He succeeded his master as the royal court artist during the reign of Churachand.

Major Maxwell, the British Superintendent of State was impressed with a portrait of himself by Bhadra.

Development and Growth of Printing Press in India

How press came to India?

A batch of Jesuit missionaries was going to Ethiopia on March 29, 1556. They brought with them printing press to be used in Ethiopia. En route they arrived in Goa on September 6, 1556. While they were preparing to proceed to Ethiopia, news reached them that the Ethiopian Emperor was not keen to receive the missionaries. Thus, as luck would have it, the press stayed in Goa and was set up at the College of St. Paul in Goa.

In Mumbai the first printing press was imported as early as 1670 by the Parsi businessman Bhimjee Parikh. The English East India Company brought a printer to Surat in 1675, but was not able to cast type in Indian scripts, so the venture failed.

The credit of publishing literature for the first time in India goes to the missionaries. The missionaries established a number of printing presses in many parts of India, triggering a language and literature revolution. The first literature ever printed in India was released on November 6, 1556. Within a hundred years of the printing of Gutenberg's Bible in Germany, India initiated its groping towards fashioning of types for the many Indian languages.

The real growth of the printing press started with the arrival of William Carey in India on November 11, 1793. Carey also set up the first paper making factory and the first foundry in India.

Press were also established in different parts of India by the missionaries to publish literatures in different Indian languages.

Press in different Indian languages

Languages	Year	Publisher / Missionaries
Gujarati	1820	Surat Mission William Fyvie
Kannada	1820	Wesleyan Mission
Kannada	1840	Basel Mission press
Malayalam	1821	CMS Press established by Benjamin Bailey
Malayalam	1838	Basel Press by Hermann Gundert

Among the prominent Indian who took a prominent role in the establishment of printing press in India was Fardunjee Marzdan. In 1808, Fardunjee opened a book-bindery. Fardunjee set up a press in 1812.

FARDUNJEE MARZBAN

Fardunjee started printing a book in 1814. This book was an Almanac for the Hindu Samvat Year . In 1815 he printed a Gujarati translation of the Persian book Dabistan-i Mazahibm, which he had himself prepared. He even published a Persian dictionary in 1833.

The history of printing in India is the story of the re-awakening of a nation. The introduction of printing and the consequent development of the languages of India had a tremendous socio-political impact, leading to enlightenment and empowerment. A new scientific educational system was being launched and practices like Sati (widow burning) and infanticide were being abolished.

Changes in Performing Art

From the beginning of the 20th century, concerted efforts were made at many places in India to bring into existence institutions for promotion of the cause of music. A study into the science of music was begun at some places.

In 1901, Pandit Vishnu Digambar Palushkar established at Lahore a school for music. In 1908, he laid the foundation of another institution of the same type at Mumbai named Gandharva Mahavidyalaya. The Vidyalaya possessed qualified teachers in music, both vocal and instrumental, and drew students to its classroom in large numbers. Later on, an institution was established at Kolkata. It was named the Sangit Sangha.

In 1921, the Morris College of Hindustani Music was established at Lucknow. It was subsequently developed into Bhatkhande University of Hindustani Music named after a great patron of music, Vidwan N. V. Bhatkhande.

In 1928, a Music Academy was founded at Chennai. It initiated research into the laws and system of Carnatic music and aimed to bring to light the different ragas of the southern region.

Theatre in India

The advent of the Europeans gave an impetus to this form of art. The English established their theatre in Kolkata in the mid 18th century, though Indians were not admitted to this theatre.

Indians led by Dwarkanath Tagore, grandfather of Rabindranath tagore, established their own theatre. Girish Chandra Ghose established a National Theatre in 1872. Then theatre spread to other linguistic regions- Marathi, Gujarati, Kannada and Tamil.

The Parsis were the pioneer in establishing commercial Gujarati and Urdu theatres. After independence, theatre developed rapidly. Sangeet Natak Academy and Asian Theatre Institute promoted this art.

Rural or semi-urban theatres like Jatras in Bengal, Bhands in Punjab, Nautanki in Uttar Pradesh, Nhavi in Gujarat, Yakshagana in Karnatak, Veethinataka in Telegu and Kathakali in Kerala are keeping their traditions. In Manipur, this form of theatre is known as Shumang Leela.

SHUMANG LEELA:



Fig: 14.2 Shumang Leela

Shumang Leela is a traditional form of courtyard theatre of Manipur. Shumang' means 'open courtyard' and 'Leela' play. Literally it means of Shumang Leela is "a play in the open courtyard". It is performed in an open courtyard surrounded by spectators. Shumang Leela's origin goes back to the reign of King Chandrakriti in the nineteenth century.

In Shumang Leela, the women characters are actually played by male artistes. Today, this courtyard theatre form is a distinct facet of the State's identity. This art-form reflects the dynamics of culture and tradition of Manipuri society. It serves as a medium of both entertainment and efficacy and in the process changes itself with the exigencies of the time.

Shumang Leela is also known as Shumang Kumhei.

New forms of writing

The nineteenth century was a formative epoch in the history of Indian literature. Attempts were made by some distinguished Englishmen, not merely to learn Indian languages, but also to publish books on them. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the Serampore missionaries were giving a lead in developing the Bengali language through their religious publications. Printing presses were also established by the missionaries at many places.

Throughout the nineteenth century, the spread of Western education indirectly helped the growth of modern Indian languages. Organisations such as Asiatic society of Bengal, the Madras School Book Society, the Bethune Society etc., played significant roles in the development of consciousness, learning and literature.

The patriotic urge found expression through literature. On a more solid foundation, the Indian awakening took a literary step as more and more of India's history, culture and heritage came to light through the tireless work of British and Indian scholars.

Language	Litterature
Hindi-	Maithilisan Gupta, Prem Chand, Hazari Prasad Dwivedi.
Urdu-	Hali, Iqbal, Hasrat Mohani, Asgarh.
Assamese –	Lakshminath Bezbarua, Rajanikanta Bordoli
Bengali –	Dinabandhu Mitra, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Bankim Chandra Chattopadhaya, Rabindranath Tagor, Kazi Nazrul Islam.
Tamil–	Subramanya Bharati, T. V. Kalyaasundara.
English–	Raja Rammohan Roy, SriAurobindo, Sorojini Naidu, Mulk Raj Anand.

New forms of Architecture:

A change in the traditional style of architecture in India was initiated by the Europeans who came to India for trade and established their settlements at various places. In these settlements they built European style houses, besides the factories. When their foothold became strong and the number of residents increased, they began the construction of more

durable structures such as strong fortresses and imposing churches. The forts had no architectural significance, but the churches had. The Portuguese at Goa established impressive churches in the style of Iberian architecture and the English, though in a less ambitious manner, built churches resembling the English village churches.

Among the edifices of the Victorian era, the Churches of Kolkata and Chennai, the Cathedrals at Lahore and Shimla, the Lahore High Court and the Kolkata High Court are noteworthy. But none of these edifices can be regarded as a great piece of architecture.

A great opportunity came to the British rulers for the construction of grand buildings in India when it decided in 1911 to transfer the Capital from Kolkata to Delhi. The chief architects, Sir Edwin Lutyens, and his colleague Sir Edward Baker, at first prepared to design India a capital representing the traditional architectural styles of the land.



Fig. 14.3 . North Block, New Delhi



Fig. 14. 4 Edwin Lutyens



Fig.14.5 India Gate

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) When did the British Shift its capital to Delhi ?
- (b) Who painted Tears Drop on a Lotus leaf ?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words ::

- (a) How did the first printing press come to India?
- (b) Why were the missionaries credited for taking pioneering role in publishing literature in India?
- (c) Write the role of William Carey in the history of printing press in India.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) In Mumbai the first printing press was imported as early as 1670 by _____.

CHAPTER - 15

MANIPUR UNDER BRITISH RULE

The Khongjom War of 1891 and its aftermath

Chandrakriti passed away in 1886. He was succeeded by his eldest son Surchandra. His brothers were divided into two groups. One consisted of his own brothers borne from the same mother. The other consisted of his step-brothers borne from different mothers. There was no love lost between Surchandra's brother Paka Sana and step brother Tikendrajit.

On 21 September 1890, two princes of Tikendrajit group - Zila Ngamba and Angousana revolted against Surchandra. Surchandra, fled to the Residency of



Fig. 15.1 Tikendrajit



Fig. 15.1 Offering tribute at the Khongjom River

Grimwood, the then British Political Agent in Manipur. Surchandra, after staying in the British residence for some time, left Manipur for Vrindavan. His brother Kulachandra ascended the throne and Tikendrajit became the Yubaraj. In Kolkata, Surchandra requested the government of India to reinstate him on the throne.

This gave advantage to the Britishers who tried to intervene in the internal affairs of Manipur. They sent Mr. James Wallace Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam with a 400 strong escort. On hearing the news, Thangal General, with seven hundred sepoy went to Mao Thana, to receive the Chief Commissioner of Assam and to make arrangements for a large escort for the Chief Commissioner.

On 22 March 1891, at about 10 a.m. Quinton arrived at Imphal with his escort. Quinton informed Kulachandra that at noon there would be a Durbar (court) held at the Residency. The hidden objective of the Durbar was to arrest Tikendrajit. Tikendrajit, citing illness, abstained from the Durbar. The Durbar thus ended in a failure. The next day, Quinton sent Grimwood to the Durbar of Kullachandra to convey the wish of the British of deporting Tikendrajit from Manipur. It was rejected. At 3.30 am of 24 March 1891, to capture Tikendrajit, the British attacked the Palace Compound from three points – the southern gate, the Western gate and the Yuvaraja's residence. It was unsuccessful and the invaders had to make hasty retreat. The Britishers were forced to sue for peace. Quinton, Grimwood, Colonel Skene, Lieutenant Simpson, Mr. Cossins and a bugler went to the palace of Kullachandra. Mr. Grimwood was speared to death by Pukhramba Kajao. Grimwood bled to death. Quinton and others were subsequently executed in front of Kangla Sha under the order of Thangal General.



Fig. 15.2 Kangla Gate

As soon as the news of the failure of the plan to arrest Yubaraj Tikendrajit and the execution of the British officers reached the Government of India, three columns of troops were sent to Manipur. The invading columns came from Kohima, Silchar and Tamu under the command of Major General Henry Collett, Col. R.H.F. Rennick and Brigadier General T. Graham respectively.

The column moving in from Tamu faced the strongest resistance from Manipur and major hand-to-hand combat took place at Khongjom on 23 April. Many Manipuris lost their lives in the battlefield.

Paona Brajabasi, Maipak Sana, Wangkheirakpa, Yengkhoiba, Chongtha Miya, Khumbong Major, Wangkhei Meiraba, Chinglen Sana, Loitongba Jamadar, Keisam Jamadar, Heirang Khonja and a number of other soldiers lost their lives in the battlefield.

How Naol Singh came to be known as Paona Brajabashi

In 1823, on the 20th day of December, a child called as Paonam Naol Singh was born to Paonam Tulsiram, Laipham Lakpa (Head of Laipham Panah) and Haobam Kunjeswari. In fact Naol Singh was the only son of his parent.



Tulsiram passed away in 1850. Naol Singh left Imphal for Vrindavan. After performing the death ceremonial rites, Naol Singh proceeded to Banaras to learn the art of fighting under the feet of many distinguished masters.

In 1856, at the age of 23, Naol Singh began his military career by joining the king's army as a junior officer. Maharaj Chandrakirti, the king of Manipur led an expedition with a contingent against the uprising Akam of Chin Hills. Naol Singh played an important role in subduing the uprising. The king promoted Naol Singh to the post of Subedar and rewarded three hectares of revenue free land along with Ningthou phi (A special cloth given as reward by the king).

Haobam Binod Major, the maternal uncle of Naol Singh, narrated the story of Naol Singh's long stay at Vrindavan to Maharaja Chandrakirti Singh. The Maharaja affectionately called him Brajabashi. Henceforth, Paonam Naol Singh came to be known as Paona Brajabashi.

Abstract from Paona Brajabashi and 1891, Research Forum, Manipur (REFORM), Imphal, pp.99-108, 2012

The royal family fled the palace. On 27th April, the three columns converged at the Palace. Manipur, thus, lost its independence to the British. Manipur thus became the last princely state of the Indian sub-continent to come under the fold of the British Empire.

Manipur Post 1891

After occupying Manipur, the British tried Kullachandra, Tikendrajit, Thangal General and other princes and nobles of Manipur. Tikendrajit and Thangal General were hanged to death on 13th August 1891. Kulachandra Singh, the king of Manipur, along with other members of the royal family were exiled from Manipur.

The Imperial British, instead of annexing Manipur installed a five year old Churachand, grandson of Nara Singh, who ruled Manipur between 1832-1851, as the new king of Manipur on 29th April, 1892. As the new king was very young, Maxwell was appointed as both the Political Agent and Superintendent of Manipur. The young king along with his elder brother Debendra Singh were sent to Mayo College, Ajmer for their education. Maxwell made all decisions and introduced several administrative changes in Manipur.

The British introduced House tax. Land revenue was also assessed at a uniform rate. They also introduce the system of Pothang. They divided the standing army of Manipur into four groups. Every two weeks, each member of one group was forced to carry 20 kg of rice ration from Imphal for the British force stationed in Khuzuma, Nagaland. To compound the matter, the British also allowed the export of rice outside Manipur. This led to scarcity of rice in Manipur by the turn of the century.

Nupilal of 1904

All of a sudden, on 6th July, 1904, the market sheds of Khwairamband which seated about 300 women were burnt down. On 15th July, 1904, the Bungalows of Captain Nattal and Dulop were destroyed by fire in the middle of night. On 4th August another bungalow was also burnt down. Maxwell suspected the burning down of the market sheds and



Fig. 15.3 Map of Manipur, showing the three routes of British invasion.

bungalows to be the handiwork of some Manipuri. Maxwell ordered the men folk of Imphal to procure teak wood from the Kabaw valley in Myanmar and reconstruct the burnt bungalows.

On 30th September, 1904, a meeting was held at Cheirap Court. The British forces dispelled the assembly and arrested suspected leaders. The men-folk of Imphal, having no alternative was thus compelled to procure the building materials from Kabow Valley in Myanmar and rebuild the bungalows.

The actions of the British enraged the women folk of Manipur. Thousands of women spontaneously launched a big demonstration. As a result, the Khwairamband Bazar (market manned by the women of Manipur) was closed for many days. The government used to suppress the movement. It was not effective. The British authorities finally withdrew its decision of imposing upon the men folk of Manipur to re-construct the burnt bungalows. This event is known as the 1st Nupi Lal (Women's Agitation) of Manipur.

Nupilal of 1939

The Manipuri women once again agitated against the government in 1939. The deep-rooted cause of the movement was directly related to the irregularities and malpractices in the administration of the state. The British authority began to export a large quantity of rice from Manipur. By late 1930s, due to the use of motor lorries the rice export business could be carried out more quickly.

In 1939, there was excessive rain in the last week of July and the first week of August. It damaged the standing crops. In November, a hailstorm broke out. It destroyed the standing crops ready for harvesting. As a result, the price of paddy rose from One rupee four annas to two rupees. Rice was also not available in the market. Consequently, around four thousand women requested T. A. Sharpe, the President of Manipur State Durbar, to issue an order to stop both working of the mills and export of rice.

T.A. Sharpe told them that such an order required the approval of the King of Manipur, who was at that time visiting Nabadwip. He went with the women agitators to the telegraph office and telegraphed to the king. As the number of women agitators swelled, Sharpe called for reinforcement of Assam Rifles soldiers to clear the agitators.

Ultimately, a clash broke out between the agitated women and the 4th Assam Rifles soldiers called by Sharpe. The women were charged with bayonets by the soldiers. Many of them got injuries in the bayonet charge. On receiving reply from Churachand, the Durbar immediately banned the export of rice from Manipur on 13 December 1939. This incident is known as the Second Nupi Lal (Women's Agitation) of Manipur.



Fig.15. 4 Nupi Lal

Kuki Rebellion, 1917-19

When the First World War broke out, all sections of the Indians including the Indian Princes came forward to help Britain. Churachand, the king of Manipur, donated Rs. 1, 34,000- as war loan. In addition to this, the Manipur Labour Corps for digging trenches, building roads and carrying loads of British soldiers was raised. Two thousand Nagas and Kukis were recruited and sent to France in May 1917.

There was the need for more Labour Corps in the warfront. Driven by this urgency, Higgins, the then Political Agent, met a group of Kukis deputed by their chiefs for supplying more labour force in the war. Higgins demand was not accepted. Higgins then threatened to use force if the Kukis failed to supply the labour force.

In the meantime, Chingakham Sanajaoba, who professed to have supernatural power, spread a rumour that the British reign is about to end and urged the Kukis to revolt against the British. On 19 December 1917, a group of Kukis attacked the forest toll station at Ithai. This marked the beginning of the Kuki Rebellion.

The rebellion soon spread to other Kuki inhabited areas. For about two years, the Government faced great difficulty in suppressing the rebellion. In the meantime, the first Labour Corps arrived safe and sound in June 1918.

Zeliangrong Revolt.

In 1930s western Manipur was caught in the mire of Zeliangrong movement. The movement was started by Jadonang. Jadonang was born in 1905 at Kambiron Village.

The Zeliangrong movement started as a socio-religious movement. Its objective was to bring all sections of Zeliangrong under one single and uniform custom. Later on, the Zeliangrong movement assumed a political character .

Jadonang told his followers not to pay any kind of taxes and not to obey the government orders. Jadonang's influence increased steadily as his activities began to spread to all the Zeliangrong inhabited areas. The movement soon drew the serious attention of the government. The British authority contemplated the arrest of Jadonang to halt the movement at its nascent stage. An unhappy incident occurred at this juncture. Four betel leaf traders from Manipur Valley were murdered at Kambiron Village. Jadonang was implicated for the crime. He was arrested. In the trial, he was sentenced to death. He was hanged on 29th August 1931 at Imphal.



Fig. 10. 4 Jadonang

After Jadonang's death the Zeliangrong movement was carried on under the leadership of Gaidinliu, then a young girl. She was born on 26th January 1915 at Ningkhao Village of Tamenglong District.

Gaidinliu became a disciple of Jadonang at the age of thirteen years. She led the Zeiliangrong movement after the execution of Jadonang. She was arrested in Pulomi Village of Naga Hills district in October 1932. She was subsequently sentenced to life imprisonment.



Fig 155 Rani Gaidinliu

After India got independence, Jawaharlal Nehru released her from jail. Jawaharlal Nehru in acknowledging her role in the struggle against the British called her "Rani". Rani Gaidinliu passed away on 17th February, 1993 at her native village. She was 78 years when she passed away.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) Who speared Mr. Grimwood to death?
- (b) Why did Maxwell order the menfolk of Imphal to procure teak from the Kabow Valley?
- (c) Where was Gaidinliu arrested?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words:

- (a) How were the brothers of Surchandra divided?
- (b) Write the regency of Maxwell.
- (c) What were the causes of the Kuki Rebellion of 1917-19?
- (d) Write the causes of 1939 Nupilal.
- (e) Describe the Zelianrong Movement under Jadonang.

3. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term.

- (a) Chandrakriti passed away in _____ .
- (b) On _____, a group of Kukis attacked the forest toll station at _____

4. Choose the odd one out:

- a) Quinton
- b) Grimwood
- c) Colonel Skene
- d) Lietutenant Simpsons

CHAPTER- 16

THE NATIONALIST MOVEMENT

Growth of Indian Nationalism:

Towards the end of the 19th century the idea of nationalism i.e., the idea of one nation and one state slowly emerged among the Indians. There were several factors for the emergence of the idea of nationalism among the Indians. The British had gradually introduced a modern and uniform system of government throughout India.

The English language also contributed to the growth of nationalism in India. English language which was made the language of instruction in 1835 soon became the language of the educated people irrespective of their region. This infused in them the spirit of liberty, equality, justice, democracy, etc.

The growth of Indian Press which started in the early half of the 19th century, also played an important role in the awakening of the Indians. These newspapers espoused the cause of nationalism in India and fearlessly criticised the wrong deeds of the British government policy. Some of the nationally conscious Indian newspapers were “Bombay Samachar”, “The Hindu Patriot”, “Ananda Bazar Pratika”, “The Hindu” and “Kesari”.

Kesari:

The Kesari was one of the nationalistic newspapers of India. It started its publication in 1881. In 1887 Bal Gangadhar Tilak became its sole editor. Under Tilak, the Kesari became the mouth-piece of the national movement.

As the Indians became politically more conscious, they felt the need of making their grievances and demands known to the British in an organised way. They form associations for the reform of the administration; association of Indians in the administration and spread of education among the Indians.

British India Association, established on October 29, 1851, was one of the associations formed by the Indians to redress the grievances of the Indians. In 1852, Dada Bhai Naoroji, also known as ‘the Grand Old Man’ of India, founded the **Bombay Association**. In 1866, Dada Bhai Naoroji in London founded the **East India Association**. The main concerns of the East India Association were, to discuss the Indian question and to influence the British public to promote Indian welfare.

Many Indians had been planning to form an all-Indian organisation. However, A.O. Hume, a retired Indian Civil Servant took the initiative in founding the Indian National Congress. On 25th December 1885 the **Indian National Union’s** (INU) annual session was held at Mumbai. In this session the INU was renamed as the **Indian National Congress**. The session was attended by 72 delegates from all over India. It was presided by W.C. Bonnerjee.



Fig. 16.1 Dadabhai Naoroji

The INC, since its inception in 1885 till the attainment of Indian independence, can be broadly divided into three stages – Moderate, Extremist and the Gandhian era

Moderate Phase:

The Indian National Movement from 1885 to 1905 is known as the era of Moderate nationalism.

Extremist Phase:

The Indian National Movement from 1905 to 1917 is known as the era of extreme nationalism.

Gandhian Phase:

The Indian National Movement from 1917 till the attainment of India's independence in 1947 is known as the Gandhian era.

Moderate Phase

During the moderate phase, the Congress passed resolutions criticising some of the actions and policies of the British government and demanded reforms. The methods of the moderates can at best be described as 'constitutional agitation'. They thought that the government could be moved by persuasion. The main demands of the moderates were the gradual expansion of the Legislative Council and introduction of reforms in the government and the administration. They held regular meetings, made resolutions and sent petitions to the British Government to undertake reforms on the lines demanded by them.

Extremist Phase

By the early 20th century, the Indian National Congress was divided into two groups – the moderates and the extremists.

The refusal of the British government to accept the demands of the moderates created disillusionment among a politically conscious section of the people. Leaders like Bipin Chandra Pal in Bengal, Bal Gangadhar Tilak in Maharashtra and Lala Lajpat Rai in Punjab were critical of holding many meetings and sending petitions to the British to carry out reforms. They preferred more vigorous political actions and methods.

Lal-Bal-Pal

Prominent extremist leaders - Lala Lajpat Rai, Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal were together known as Lal-Bal-Pal.



Swadeshi Movement

In 1905 Lord Curzon partitioned Bengal. The Partition of Bengal led to a vigorous agitation in Bengal. The anti-partition agitators asked the people to boycott government services, courts, schools, colleges and foreign goods. The agitators also propagated the

use of swadeshi (Indian) goods. For propagating the use of Indian goods the movement soon came to be known as the Swadeshi movement. The movement spread to other parts of India like Punjab and Maharashtra.

Split of Congress at Surat, 1907

The extremists were vocal of the British rule enjoyed the popular support of the masses. The moderate leaders like Surendranath Banerjee, Firoz Shah Mehta and Gopal Krishna Gokhale still affirmed that ‘Swaraj’ could be attained by peaceful means. This created a sharp division between the moderates and the extremists. The Congress split between the moderates and the extremists in 1907 at the Surat session of the Congress.

Birth of Muslim League

On October 1, 1906, a Muslim delegation led by Sir Agha Khan and Nawab Salimullah Khan of Dakha met Viceroy Lord Minto, at Shimla. They asked for a separate electorate for the Muslims. Very soon the Muslim League was formed in Dacca on December 30, 1906.

Revolutionary Movements

Another important feature of the Indian National Movement in the early twentieth century was the emergence of various revolutionary groups in different parts of India. They were mainly active in Bengal, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Punjab. To suppress the Swadeshi Movement, the Government of India adopted preventive measures like the Seditious Meeting Act of 1907 and Indian Press Act of 1910. Several newspapers were banned and a number of Indian nationalists were either jailed or deported. Bal Gangadhar Tilak was deported to Yangon in Myanmar. In Punjab, Lala Lajpat and Ajit Singh were imprisoned. Because of the government suppressive measures, some extremist nationalists went underground and started an armed revolutionary movement.

Prominent revolutionaries

Some of the prominent revolutionaries of the period were Vinayak Damodar Sarvakar, Aurobindo Ghosh.

The revolutionaries started attacking the British officials and anything related with the government. In 1912, Rash Behari Bose and Sachindranath Sanyal made an unsuccessful attempt on the life of Lord Hardinge, the then Viceroy of India. They looted the government properties to carry out their activities.

There were many revolutionary nationalists who were living outside India. The most prominent among them was the Ghaddar party base at San Francisco, USA. The Ghaddar party collected money and tried to smuggle arms into India. Prominent leaders of Ghaddar Party were Lala Hardayal and Sohan Singh Bhakna.

Lucknow 1916

In 1916, two significant events occurred in Lucknow. In July 1914, Bal Gangadhar Tilak was released from Mandalay prison. After his release from prison, Tilak took the initiative to reunite the Congress. In its 1916 Lucknow session, the two sections of the Congress were finally reunited.

The outbreak of the First World War and the Congress sympathetic attitude to the Caliph of Turkey led to the closeness between the Congress and the Muslim League. In 1916, the two parties signed an agreement. This agreement between the two was known as the Lucknow Pact.

Thus, the Indian national movement turned over a new leaf.

Year	1905	1906	1907	1916
	Swadeshi Movement	Muslim League	Surat split	Lucknow session

Fig.11.4 Timeline of Indian National Movement prior to Gandhian era

ADVENT OF GANDHI

After the end of the First World War, Mahatma Gandhi became the undisputed leader of the nationalist movement.

The Indian National Movement from 1917 onwards, in the history of Indian freedom movement, is known as the Gandhian era. He took a pivotal role and charted the course of the Indian National movement till the attainment of India's freedom in 1947. Under Gandhi, the national movement became a mass movement.

On March 18, 1919, the Government of India passed the controversial Rowlatt Act. This act authorised the government to arrest any person without trial. The Rowlatt Act aroused a wave of popular indignation on March 30, 1919. Mahatma Gandhi called for a nation wide hartal on April 6, 1919, to protest the imposition of the Rowlatt Act. Indians from all walks of life supported the hartal.

Jallian Walla Bagh Massacre:

A public meeting was held on April 13, 1919 at Jallian Walla Bagh in Amritsar. It was a small ground enclosed by buildings on all sides. Soon General Dyer and his troops came to the park and closed the only exit of the park. He then ordered his soldiers to fire upon the unarmed crowds. More than four hundred persons were killed and over one thousand and two hundred were injured.

Rabindranath Tagore in protest against the Jallian Walla Bagh massacre gave up his Knighthood given by the British government.

Khilafat Movement:

The Ottoman Turks fought the First World War on the side of Germany against the side of the British forces. After the end of the First World War, the defeated was forced to sign a humiliating Treaty of Sevres in 1920 by the victorious forces.

The two Ali brothers Maulana Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali started a movement for the restoration of the power of the Khalif. The movement soon came to be known as the Khilafat movement.

KHALIFAH

In the early twenty's of the 20th century Khalif was the Ottoman Emperor and the spiritual head of the Islamic World (Khilafat).

You will read more about the treatment to the Khalif by the Allies in Class X Social Sciences text-book of Board of Secondary Education, Manipur.

The Congress under Mahatma Gandhi supported the movement. He called and urged the Congress to campaign against 'Punjab wrongs', the Khilafat wrong and demand for swaraj. This gave an opportunity for uniting the Hindus and the Muslims.

Non-Cooperation Movement:

In September 1920, a special session of the Congress was held at Kolkata. The special session resolved to start non-cooperation movement against the British rule if the demand of the Congress was not fulfilled.

In its December 1920 Nagpur session, the Congress decided to start the movement if its demands were not fulfilled. When the demands of the Congress were not fulfilled by the British, Gandhi launched a Non-Cooperation movement in January 1921.

Both the Hindus and the Muslims participated in it. The agitators also boycotted government and semi-government offices, courts, schools and colleges. Many Indians also gave up the titles and the honorary offices. Some also resigned from the nominated seats of the Legislative Council.

From the beginning, Mahatma Gandhi asked the people to conduct the movement peacefully. In February 1922, a tragic incident broke out in Chauri Chaura.

Chauri Chaura:

On February 5, 1922, a peaceful peasant rally at Chauri Chaura was unnecessarily provoked by the police. This enraged the peasants and burnt the police station killing twenty two policemen who were locked inside it. This incident seriously hurt the feeling of Mahatma Gandhi. He then abruptly called off the movement on 12 February 1922.

Taking advantage of the situation, Mahatma Gandhi was immediately arrested and sent to prison. He was subsequently released in 1924 on the ground of ill-health.

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT POST NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

TO BE OR NOT TO BE - SWARAJISTS:

On January 1, 1923, C. R. Das formally declared the formation of the Swaraj party within the Congress. In the general elections held in 1923, they gained absolute majority in Bengal, the United Provinces, Bombay and Assam. In the Central Legislative Assembly, forty eight members of the party were elected. Vithalbhai Patel became the president of the Central Legislative Assembly.

With the death of Chittaranjan Das in 1925, and with Motilal Nehru's return to the Congress the following year, the Swaraj party was greatly weakened.

GO BACK SIMON:

In 1927, the British government appointed a six member committee under the Chairmanship of Sir John Simon to look into the working of the Act of 1919. The review committee was called Simon Commission after the name of its Chairman. There was no Indian members in the Commission. The appointment of the Simon Commission was opposed by the Indians.

When the Commission landed in Mumbai in February 1928, a hartal was observed in all the important towns of India. Everywhere the Commission went, it was greeted with hartals. Wherever the Commission went, they were greeted with black flags and slogan of "Simon go back". In some places the police responded with brute force. In Lahore, Lala Lajpat Rai was severely wounded when the police lathicharge the demonstrators. He succumbed to the injury.

"INQUILAB ZINDABAD!"

In 1928, Baghat Singh, Chandra Sekhar Azad and Sukhdev had founded the Hindustan Socialist Republican Association. Baghat Singh, Chandra Sekhar Azad and Rajguru shot dead John P. Saunders, a British police officer in December 1928 as a revenge for assault on Lala Lajpat Rai.

In 1929, Bhagat Singh and Batukeshwar Dutt threw a bomb in the hall of the Central Legislative Assembly. They did not run away and allowed themselves to be arrested by the police.



The British Government treated the revolutionaries with a heavy hand. They were severely treated in jail. Jatin Das in protest against his imprisonment went in hunger strike. He passed away after 64 days of hunger strike. Bhagat Singh, Sukhdev and Rajguru were hanged in jail.

SALT LAW VIOLATION

In 1929, the Congress held its annual session at Lahore. Jawaharlal Nehru was elected the President for this session. This session on the midnight of December 31, 1929 hoisted the tricolour flag at the bank of the river Ravi.

Lahore Declaration:

The 1929 Lahore session :-

- i) passed a resolution declaring Purna Swaraj as its goal.
- ii) decided to launch a non-violent Civil Disobedience Movement.
- iii) declared to celebrate the next 26 January as the Independence Day of India and that the tricolour flag of India would be hoisted at every place of India.

The Civil Disobedience Movement began with the famous Dandi March of Mahatma Gandhi. Mahatma Gandhi on March 12, 1930 left his Sabarmati Ashram in Ahmedabad for Dandi, a village on the sea coast of Gujarat. At Dandi he broke the Salt Law.

Salt Law

The government had made salt making its sole monopoly. No one was allowed to make it. By breaking the law on salt making Gandhi had show his defiance of the British government.

The government adopted repressive measures to curb the movement. Gandhiji, Jawaharlal Nehru and other important leaders of the Congress were arrested. By the beginning of 1930 about ninety thousand protesters were arrested and sixty-seven papers were banned.

To enable Mahatma Gandhi participated in the Second Round Table Conference, he was released from imprisonment in January 1931. Soon he came to an agreement with Lord Irwin which was known as the Gandhi-Irwin Pact, 1931.

However, no agreement was achieved in the Conference. The proposals of Mahatma Gandhi were rejected by other delegates of the Conference. Gandhi came back to India and resumed the Civil Disobedience Movement. Consequently all the Congress leaders were arrested and imprisoned at **Yeravada Central Jail, Poona.**



16.2 Salt Violation

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT POST CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT:

1937 Election:

In July 1937 elections were held. Congress Ministries were formed in seven out of eleven provinces. In two provinces i.e. in Punjab and Bengal it formed a coalition government. When the Second World War broke out in 1939, the British Government of India joined the War without consulting the Congress or elected the members of the Central Legislative. After realising that the British were only pursuing their interest, the provincial governments of the Congress resigned in November, 1939.

On July 12, 1942, the Congress Working Committee adopted the Quit India resolution, demanding the immediate withdrawal of the British from India. The All India Congress Committee met at Mumbai on August 8, 1942. The meeting passed the famous resolution of 'Quit India' to the British. Mahatma Gandhi calling the Indians to "Do or Die" asked them to start the Quit India Movement from August 9, 1942 onwards.

On the morning of August 9, the Congress was banned by the government. All the prominent Congress leaders including Mahatma Gandhi were arrested. The government used the police and army to suppress the movement. In less than five months more than hundred were killed and over seventy thousand were arrested.

'DELHI CHALO':

The Indian National Movement also found a new expression outside the country's frontier in the form of Indian National Army.

In October 1943, Subhas Chandra Bose formally announced the formation of the Provisional Government of India. The INA fought along with the Japanese army and after capturing Myanmar, moved towards India. On April 18, 1944, the INA hoisted the tri-colour flag at Moirang in Manipur. They advanced as far as Nambol, about 15 kilometres south of Imphal.

By the winter of 1944, the British forces



16.3 Netaji Subashchandra Bose

started counter offensive against the Japanese. They soon recaptured Yangon in May 1945. With the fall of Yangon, the Indian Independence movement in South-east Asia gradually collapsed. The Indians who participated in the war as a force of INA were captured.

FREEDOM AND PARTITION OF INDIA:

In July 1946, election to the Constituent Assembly was held. Of the 210 general seats, the Congress got 201 seats. However, Lord Wavell on August 12, 1946 invited the Congress to form the interim government. Accordingly, Nehru formed the interim government on September 2, 1946.

On February 10, 1947, Clement Atlee, the British Prime Minister, declared that the British would leave India by June 1948. On March 20, 1947, Lord Mountbatten was appointed the Viceroy of India. After a long deliberation with the Congress and the Muslim League, he sent a compromise formula to the British government. It was accepted by the British Parliament and passed as the Indian Independence Act, 1947. India became independent on August 15, 1947. Jawaharlal Nehru became the first Prime Minister of Free India and Lord Mountbatten its First Governor - General.

The Indian Independence Act, 1947:

- i) The Act created the dominions of India and Pakistan.**
- ii) The Indian Princely states which also become independent were given their option of joining either India or Pakistan.**

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a)** Name the three broad phases of Indian National Congress?
- (b)** Write one cause for the emergence of Extremist in the Indian National Congress?
- (c)** Why is the Indian National Movement from 1917 onwards known as the Gandhian era?
- (d)** Why did the Indians protest against the Rowlatt Act?

- (e) Why did Mahatma Gandhi stop the Non-Cooperation Movement?
- (f) What did the Lahore Session of Indian National Congress decide?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words :

- (a) Write the impact of the English language on the growth of nationalism in India.
- (b) What methods were adopted by the Moderates to make their voice heard by the British?
- (c) Discuss the Swadeshi Movement of 1905.
- (d) Write the importance of Lucknow in 1916.

3. Answer the following in fifty words each:

- (a) Write the courses of the movement launched by the Indian National Congress in 1930.
- (b) Discuss the movement launched by the Indian National Congress in August 1942.

4. Fill in the blank column by using appropriate term:

- (a) In its December 1885 annual session the Indian National Union's (INU) was renamed as the _____.
- (b) The Congress was split between the moderate and the extremist in _____ at the _____ session of the Congress
- (c) General Dyer ordered his soldiers to fire upon the unarmed crowds on _____ 1919 at _____ in Amritsar
- (d) In July 1937 elections, Congress Ministries were formed in _____ out of eleven provinces.

5. Choose the odd one out:

- a) Bombay Samachar
- b) The Hindu Patriot
- c) Ananda Bazar Pratika
- d) The Telegraph

CHAPTER - 17

INDIA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

India became independent on August 15, 1947. Jawaharlal Nehru became the first Prime Minister of Free India and Lord Mountbatten its First Governor-General. After the departure of Lord Mountbatten in June 1948, C. Rajgopalchari became the Governor-General of India. He was the first and the only Indian Governor General of India. On November 26, 1949, under the Chairmanship of Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, the Constitution of India was drafted. The Constitution came into force on January 26, 1950 and India became a Republic.

The attainment of India's independence was shrouded with many unwanted events. Because of partition, millions of people were uprooted from their home. Millions of them became refugees. Communal riots broke out in many parts of India. Mahatma Gandhi had lots of difficulty in bringing about communal harmony. He lost his life on January 30, 1948 to a Hindu fanatic for his effort to contain the riots.

Framing the constitution of India:

The Constitution of India came into force on 26th January 1950. The Constitution declares India to be a Union of States. Its aim is stated clearly in the Preamble. The Preamble informs us of the nature and type of India and ideals before the nation. You can know about it from Chapter 18 of this book.

The Constitution of the newly independent India provides a framework for parliamentary, secular and democratic republic. This decision was taken without serious debate. It favoured a centralised parliamentary constitution. The parliamentary commitment of its members to socialism also supported and confirmed the conviction about parliamentary government. They wanted a democratic constitution with a socialist bias.

Planning for India

The attainment of freedom in India meant political emancipation. This could be assured only if the citizens could be assured of a better standard of living.

It was considered necessary that public authorities had to assume responsibilities for the general progress. Planning was considered important. Therefore, a Planning Committee was established.

In the year 1950, Planning Commission was constituted with the Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru as its Chairman. It prepared First Five-Year Plan, which was launched in April 1951. It emphasised that the state shall own or control all key industries and services, mineral resources, railways, water ways, shipping and other utilities.

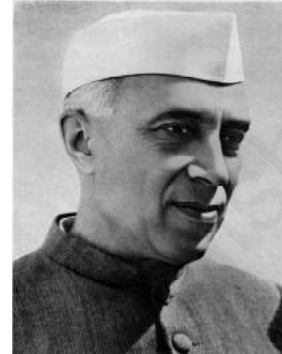


Fig. 17.1 Nehru

The plan was quite successful and it added to the prosperity of the country. More Five-Year Plans followed.

Reorganisation of the States

Another important task that arose in the newly Independent India was the demand for the reorganisation of states. In southern India active campaigning started for a redistribution of the existing administrative structures into states based upon the languages—Tamil, Telegu, Kannada and Malayalam. The first militant movement arose among the Telegu speakers, who were divided between the states of Madras and Hyderabad.



Fig. 17.2 Map of India

Reorganisation of the States:

In Dec. 1953, the Government of India constituted the States Reorganisation Commission under Justice Sayyed Ali. The other members of the Commission were H. N. Kunzroo and K. N. Pannikar. The Commission submitted its report in Dec. 1955. With a few changes in the recommendations, the State Reorganisation Act was passed in Aug. 1956, which came into force on Nov. 1, 1956.

In 1953, Andhra Pradesh came into being as the Telugu state. Following an inquiry by a State Reorganisation Commission (1956), the whole political map of India was redrawn. The previous fixtures of British-Indian provinces and the princely states were reduced to a new pattern of 14 states and six union territories representing linguistic regions. Bombay was partitioned in 1960 into the states of Maharashtra and Gujarat. Punjab was partitioned in 1966 into Punjab, Haryana and the Union Territory of Chandigarh.

Reorganisation in Northeast India

In Northeast India, there was also a movement for reorganisation among different section of its people. In 1963 the state of Nagaland was created. In 1972 Manipur, Meghalaya and Tripura became full-fledged states and two Union Territories – Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram were created out of Assam.

In 1986, Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram became full-fledged states.



Fig. 17. 3 Present Map of Northeast India

How Manipur got its statehood?

After Bodh Chandra, the Maharaja of Manipur signed the Merger Agreement; the Manipur Legislative Assembly was abolished on 15th October 1949. The Government of India appointed a Chief Commissioner as the Head of the State. Then, Manipur became a Part C State. Under the Part C State Act, Manipur had a Council of Advisers to assist the Chief Commissioner in the administration of the State. An Advisory Council of five members was formed in 1953.

With the reorganisation of the Indian States in 1956, Part C States ceased to exist and in their place, Territorial Councils were established under the Territorial Council Act, 1956. Manipur had to have a Territorial Council. Its strength was fixed at 30. Election to the Territorial Council of Manipur was held in 1957.

The Territorial Council was converted to the Legislative Assembly, under the Union Territory Act, 1963. Manipur had a Legislative Assembly in 1963. It had 30 elected and 2 nominated members.

In the December session of 1971, the Parliament of India passed the North Eastern Areas (Reorganisation) Act, 1971. Then on 21st January 1972, after a long struggle of about 22 years, Manipur attained Statehood with a Legislative Assembly of 60 members.

Relations with Other countries:

Indian foreign policy during Nehru's period may be described as one of non alignment with either of the two world power blocs. According to Nehru, non-alignment means not entering into military alliances with any country and particularly with any country either of the western or of the Communist bloc. Secondly, another feature of non-alignment is "acting according to one's judgement, an independent approach to foreign policy, not being tied down to a particular line of action because of the membership of a Cold war bloc. Nehru along with the leaders of Yugoslavia, Egypt, Ghana and Indonesia formed the Non-Aligned Movement. The Non-Aligned Movement conferences are held at regular intervals. The first Conference was held in Belgrade, 1961.

Leaders who took main role in the formation of Non-Aligned Movement:

Country	Leader	Office
India	Jawaharlal Nehru	Prime Minister
Yugoslavia	Marshal Tito	President
Indonesia	Sukarno	President
Egypt	Gamal Abdel Nasser	President
Ghana	Kwame Nkrumah	President

India believed in peaceful co-existence with her neighbours. In 1954, Jawaharlal Nehru of India and Chou En Lai of China signed a treaty designed to symbolise the friendship of the two newly liberated countries within the “Five Principles of Peaceful Co-Existence” known as Panchsheel.

Panchsheel

The principle of Panchsheel or peaceful coexistence was formally enunciated in the Sino-Indian agreement on April 29, 1954.

The Panchsheel Agreement was based on the five principles of:

- (i) mutual respect for each other’s territorial integrity and sovereignty;
- (ii) mutual non-interference in each other’s internal affairs;
- (iii) mutual non-aggression;
- (iv) equality and mutual benefit; and
- (v) peaceful coexistence.

EXERCISES

1. Answer each question in a word or a sentence :

- (a) What does the Preamble of the Constitution of India inform us?
- (b) What did the Indian Independence Act of July 18 provide?
- (c) Why did Jawaharlal Nehru call for the creation of a socialist state?
- (d) What is Panchsheel?

2. Answer each question in about 30 words:

- (a) Write about the Panchayati Raj institutions of India.
- (b) Why did India adopt non-alignment policy?
- (c) Write the necessity for the reorganisation of states in India.

3. Choose the odd one out:

- (a) Jawaharlal Nehru
- (b) Marshal Tito
- (c) Sukarno
- (d) Gamal Abdel Nasser

SECTION - C

RULE OF LAW AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

©BOSEM Not to be republished

CHAPTER - 18

THE INDIAN CONSTITUTION

Each popular game like hockey or football or cricket has its own rules. In a game of hockey except the two goal keepers, other players cannot kick the ball. If they do so it is a fault. Similarly in a game of football the ball cannot touch the hand of any player except that of goal keepers. Likewise in a game of cricket LBW (Leg before wicket), batting, bowling, no ball, out, run out etc. bind the players as rules. Now we can see that the different games have different rules according to which the games are played. Each of these rules helps define the game, and helps us distinguish one game from another. As these rules are fundamental to the game these can also be called the constitutive rules of the game. Similarly a society has constitutive rules that shows what it is. It differentiates the society from other societies. In a large society like India in which different communities of people live together, these rules are formulated through consensus. In modern countries the consensus is usually in written form. A written document in which we find such

rules is called a constitution. Therefore, the constitution of a country is a set of written rules that are accepted by all people living within a country.

Why does a country need a constitution ?

Most countries in the world have a constitution. And all democratic countries are likely to have a constitution. It is not necessary that all countries that have a constitution are democratic. A constitution does many things.

Do you know?

Constitution played important role in the state-making of Manipur. Among others, ancient text, “Loiyumba Shingyen” which assigns the occupations and professions of *Yumnaks* (surname) to the Manipuris is regarded to be a forerunner in Manipur. It was written during the reign of Meidingu Loiyumba (1074-1122). Coming to the modern times, the Manipur State Constitution Act, 1947 was enacted by His Highness Maharajah Bodhchandra, on 1 January, 1947. It recognised a constitutional monarchy, and was secular and democratic in nature.

A constitution reveals us what the fundamental nature of our society is. Different people live in a country and share certain beliefs. But they may not agree on all issues. A constitution is a set of rules and principles that all persons in a country can agree upon to rule the country. It is the supreme law that determines the relationship among people living in a country. It also tells about the relationship between the people and government. Thus, the constitution has manifold purposes.

In a democratic country general public choose their leaders to rule on their behalf. But these leaders might misuse their responsibility. Therefore, the constitution provides safeguards against this. If not checked, misuse of authority can result in gross injustice and mismanagement. The bitter experience of the British colonial rule convinced Indians that there should be a democratic government in which everyone has a share.

During the World War II the work of drafting the constitution was entrusted to a Constituent Assembly. It is an assembly of elected members. The said Assembly included a number of provisions to limit and control the action of the executive branch of the government. The Constituent Assembly feared that the executive might become too strong and ignore its responsibility to the legislature. Dr. Rajendra Prasad was the Chairman of the constituent Assembly while Dr. Ambedkar was Chairman of the Drafting Committee. He is known as the Father of Indian constitution. Between

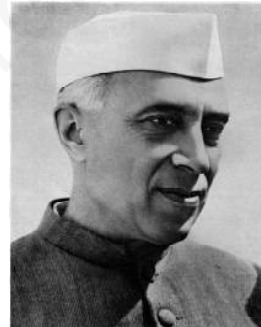


Fig. 18.1 :
Pandit Nehru



Fig.18.2:
Dr. Ambedkar

December, 1946 and November, 1949 the constitution for independent India was drafted. The said constitution came into force on 26 January, 1950. Every year we celebrate January 26 as India's Republic Day.

In democratic societies, the constitution often lays down rules that guard against misuse of power by the political leaders. In our constitution many of the laws are contained in the section on Fundamental Rights. The Right to Equality is one of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Indian Constitution.

The constitution guarantees the right to equality to all citizens. It says that no citizen can be discriminated against on grounds of religion, race, caste, gender and place of birth. The constitution also precisely prevents the tyranny or domination by the majority over a minority. Similarly, the constitution protects us against certain decisions that might go against the larger interests. A good constitution does not allow the easy overthrow of provisions that guarantee right of citizens.

Salient features of the Indian Constitution

PREAMBLE

We, the people of India, have solemnly resolved to constitute India in 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 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 the November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION'

1. Federalism :

A federal government has more than one level of government. We have the Central or Union Government, the State Government and the local bodies as the third tier. It is important to have different levels of government so that decisions can be made for that particular area. In federalism the states are not merely agents of the Union Government but draw their authority from the constitution as well. We have division of power system.

2. Parliamentary form of Government :

The representatives who are working in the different tiers of governments

are elected by the people. The Indian Constitution guarantees universal adult suffrage for all citizens. The Constituent Assembly knew that this system would encourage a democratic mindset and break the clutches of traditional caste, class and gender hierarchy. Every Indian citizen is entitled to elect or contest in elections. These elected members are accountable to the people. In a parliamentary democracy the President is a nominal head and the real power is exercised by the Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as the head.

3. Separation of Powers :

There are three organs of the government viz. the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. The legislature relates to the elected representatives who make laws. The executive is a smaller group of people who implement laws and run the government. The judiciary refers to the system of law courts in the country. The constitution says that there would be check and balance system preventing the misuse of power by any organ of government. This ensures the balance of power between all the three organs.

4. Fundamental Rights :

The century old colonial rule created suspicion of state power in the minds of the nationalists. They wanted to have a set of written rights to guard against the misuse of political power in independent India. Fundamental Rights, therefore, protect citizens against the arbitrary and absolute exercise of power by the state. These rights are often referred to as 'conscience' of the Indian constitution. Many of the laws of India originate from the Fundamental Rights.

Further, the constitution has Directive Principles of State Policy to ensure greater social and economic reform. These principles serve as a guide to the states of India to institute laws and policies such as reducing poverty of the masses.

5. Secularism :

A secular state has no official or state religion. There is no religious discrimination. Every citizen is free to practise, profess and propagate any religion of his choice. We can learn more about secularism in the next chapter.

6. Fundamental Rights

Part III of the Indian constitution guarantees certain fundamental rights to all its citizens which resemble the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of December 10, 1948. Following are the Fundamental Rights of India.

1. Right to Equality : All persons are equal before the law. This is rule of law. No citizen can be discriminated against on the basis of their religion, caste or gender. Every person has access to all public places including hotels, shops, hospitals, schools etc. every citizen enjoys equal opportunity in matters of employment also.

2. Right to Freedom : This includes the right to freedom of speech and expression, the freedom to form association, to move freely and reside to any part of the country and the right to practise any profession, occupation or business.

3. Right Against Exploitation : The Constitution prohibits trafficking of women and children, forced labour and child labour.

4. Right to Freedom of Religion : All citizens are guaranteed religious freedom. Every person has the right to practise, profess and propagate the religion of his choice.

5. Cultural and Educational Rights : The Constitution clearly states that all minorities, religious or linguistic can set up their own educational institutions in order to preserve and develop their own culture.

6. Right to Constitutional Remedies : This right allows citizens to move the court if any of their fundamental rights are violated by the state. This is treated as one of the most important fundamental rights.

Fundamental Duties

The constitution lays down certain Fundamental Duties also. Because rights imply duties. We find two kinds of duties - duties to the society or state, another duties towards other individuals. This is the duty of every citizens to respect the rights of other individuals. Otherwise his rights will not be respected by other citizens.

Part IV A of the Indian constitution enumerates the Fundamental Duties of Citizens.

(a) To obey the constitution and respect the National Flag and National Anthem

(b) To defend and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India.

(c) To promote harmony among the various religions, languages, regions of the country and ensure the dignity of women.

(d) To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture

(e) To protect the varied wildlife of our country and to improve the natural environment.

(f) To develop a spirit of scientific enquiry and have an attitude of humanism.

(g) To safeguard public property and to abjure violence etc.

The constitution of India is the supreme law of the country. It is superior to all other laws of the state. The constitution is known as the fundamental law of the country. Vision and values that inspired and guided the freedom struggle formed the foundation of India's democracy. These values are embedded in the Preamble to the Indian constitution. The Preamble is the soul of the constitution.

Understanding Laws

There are many laws in India which are familiar with us such as those specify minimum age of a voter, marriageable age and laws dealing with buying and selling of property. Previously widows in India were not allowed to remarry. Now they have been permitted to do so by the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955. Now sons and daughters alike can claim equal share of parental property according to Hindu Succession Amendment Act, 2005. Again house wives were tortured, exploited and physically assaulted by their husbands and in laws. But under Protection of Women from Domestic Violence act of 2005 now they can enjoy peace and social justice. Thus, we see that laws are evolving and subject to changes. They are not static but dynamic. Many old laws have been replaced by new laws to suit the changing condition of the society. Even the constitutional

provisions are subject to amendments. Many provisions of the Indian constitution have been amended by the Parliament now and then.

Read the following and give your answer

Suresh is a government officer holding a responsible post in the Manipur Secretariat. One day all of a sudden he killed his wife, Sumati, for failing to give a Honda Activa as a dowry which his father-in-law promised to give. Now the police has been searching for him while he has absconded. Should Suresh be excused by the law just because he is a government officer ?

Do Laws Apply to All ?

Law is a general rule of external action enforced by a sovereign political authority. Law is external in the sense that it is concerned with external actions of the individuals. It does not bother about the inner thoughts and feelings of the people.

Law is universal because it applies to everybody in the country. It applies even to those who make the law and not only to those for whom it is made. It applies to all in the same way. Law is imperative and it has to be obeyed by everybody. Those who violate it are punished by the state. The coercive authority of the state enforces the law. Law is necessary for maintaining peace and order in the society. Laws also defend the rights of the minorities as well as the weaker sections of people. Law is the first condition of good life. Laws should possess the quality of general acceptability. There must be willingness of the people to obey laws. If this quality is absent in a law it faces difficulty in enforcement.

What is Rule of Law ?

Rule of Law means that laws apply equally to all citizens of a country. No one, even the President of India, can be above law. Neither the government official nor a crorepati is above law. Any violation of law invites a specific punishment.

However, no physical force of the state can enforce law if most of the people in the state determine to defy it. During the period of the Indian National Movement the nationalists violated the British laws frequently. We can remember how the British Salt Law was opposed by Indians. Mahatma Gandhi and many na-

tionalists launched the Dandi March from Sabramati to Dandi to defy the British law. Again, to defy the Rowlatt Act of 1919 protesters held a public meeting on 13 April at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar. General Dyer entered the Park with his troops and killed several hundreds of people.

The British colonialists believed that rule of law was introduced by them in India. But historians refute the claim. Because the British Government passed many arbitrary laws like the Sedition Act of 1870. Under this law any person who protested or criticised the British Government could be arrested without any trial. On the other hand Indian nationalists began protesting and criticising the arbitrary use of authority by the British. They fought for greater equality. The Indian legal practitioners also started demanding respect in colonial courts. They used law to defend the legal rights of Indians. Hence, Indians played a major role by involving themselves in the evolution of rule of law in India. That was the credit of Indians.

The Indian Parliament has an important role in making laws. Often different groups of people in society raise the need for a particular law like the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, Women Reservation Bill etc. The Parliament is sensitive to the problems faced by the people. The voice of the people play an important role in helping parliament frame new laws. The voice of the people is expressed through TV report, news papers and its editorials, radio broadcasts, public meetings etc. The laws made by the pressure of the public are more acceptable and transparent to the people.

Unpopular and Controversial Laws

Sometimes a law can be constitutionally valid but it can be unpopular and controversial to people. People may feel that the intention behind it is unfair and harmful. The Armed Forces Special Power Act (AFSPA) of 1958 may be cited as an example. Likewise National Security Act (NSA) or Prevention of Terrorism Act (POTA) are unpopular laws. In democratic countries citizens have the right to criticise repressive laws.

The constitution can be considered to be a living document. The democratic ideals envisaged in the constitution allowed the citizens to use the political process. The ideal became a reality in the lives of ordinary citizens. Electing

our representative is not the only role to be played. With their involvement and enthusiasm the people help the Parliament in decision making and enactments. If necessary the people will show their dissent through protests and hartals.

Manipur became a dry state after a prolonged anti-liquor agitation. The agitation had been launched by Meira Paibis and other social organisations including the revolutionary or insurgent groups. With their pressure and involvement ultimately the State Government was forced to promulgate the Act of Prohibition. This is a clear example of people's continuous involvement in law making. The movement is strongly supported by two powerful social organisations namely Coalition Against Drugs and Alcohol (CADA) and All Manipur Anti Drug Association (AMADA).

Glossary :

- Arbitrary : When nothing is fixed and left to one's judgment or choice – the decision that have no basis
- Ideal : A goal in its perfect form
- Domestic
Violence : Quarrel between husband and wife and sometimes scolding, beating etc.
- Criticise : To find fault with or disapprove of a person or thing
- Polity : A society that has an organised structure
- Sovereign : An independent people or state
- Trafficking : Buying and Selling of different commodities across national borders. It means illegal trade in women and children.
- Tyranny : The cruel and unjust use of power or authority.
- Sedition : Resistance or rebellion against the government.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one word or a sentence:

- (a) Why do we need a constitution ?
- (b) Which fundamental right will the following situation violate ?
If the government objects the promotion of an officer because he is a Christian.
- (c) What does a violation of law invite ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- (a) Explain one example of arbitrary law imposed by the British government.
- (b) State the Hindu Succession Amendment Act, 2005.
- (c) What is a controversial law ?
- (d) What is domestic violence ?

3. Choose the correction answer :

- (i) Who was the chairman of the Drafting Committee of the Indian constitution ?
 - (a) Rajendra Prasad
 - (b) Dr. Ambedkar
 - (c) Jawaharlal Nehru
 - (d) Mahatama Gandhi
- (ii) Which fundamental right prohibits trafficking of women and children?
 - (a) Right to Freedom
 - (b) Right to Equality
 - (c) Cultural & Educational Right
 - (d) Right against Exploitation

CHAPTER-19

UNDERSTANDING SECULARISM

Till the middle of the 20th century the religious festival of Saraswati Puja was celebrated in the schools and colleges. Can we celebrate today the same festival in government institutes ? When you enter a Hindu hotel for asking a meal, the hotel manager may refuse to serve the meal on the ground that you are a Muslim. Would it not make you feel ashamed ? How would this make you feel ? Perhaps you think that you would ask all Muslim hotels not to serve the Hindus in their hotels. This is a form of retaliation. Or when a Harijan wanted to enter the famous Mahalaxmi Temple in Mumbai he was not permitted because he was an untouchable. These happened frequently in medieval Indian Society. All of us think that all forms of discrimination related to religion should end. This is the essence of secularism.

The Indian Constitution aims to establish a secular state. A secular state is one which is not wedded to any particular religious creed. It allows equal freedom of faith and worship to all. Right to Freedom of Religion is a Fundamental Right. It guarantees every person the right to practise, profess and propagate religion of his choice or not to follow at all. India also adopted a strategy of separating the religious power from the state power. Politics is separated from religion.

Do You Know?

Manipur has been a tolerant society. It has a rich tradition informed by secularism. The Ancient Kingdom never discriminated people on the basis of religion. Ancient texts (puyas) keep record of the coming in of peoples of various faiths who subsequently became citizens of Manipur. For example, the puya, "Bamon Khunthoklon" records that Bamons (hindus priests/Brahmins) started coming along with Hindu elements during the reign of Meidingu Kyamba (1467-1508 CE). Likewise, Nongshamei Puya (Pangal Kunthoklon) records the coming of the Pangals (Muslims) or Meitei-Pangals during the reign of Meidingu Khagemba (1597-1652 CE).

Separation of religion from state power is the most important aspect of secularism. A country can function democratically only when there is this separation. In most countries there is a religious majority amongst other minorities. The religious majority may have access to state power if there is no such separation. It can use this political power to discriminate against and persecute persons of other religions. This is known as the tyranny of the majority. It could bring discrimination, coercion and even the killing of religious minorities. Any religious domination is a violation of fundamental rights enjoyed by citizens. Therefore, the tyranny of the religious majority must be checked by secularism. By separating religion from the state the people have the freedom to adopt any religious teaching which they can interpret differently.

The Indian secularism states :

1. That one religious community does not dominate another ;
2. That some members do not dominate other members of the same religious community ;
3. That the state does not enforce any particular religion nor take away the religious freedom of individuals.

The Indian state work in various ways to prevent the domination of majority religious group :

- * The Indian State is not ruled by a religious group nor does it support any one religion
- * Another way is through non-interference. It means to respect the sentiment of all religions.
- * The State intervenes to end social practices of discrimination
- * The state protects the Fundamental Rights of lower castes who are citizens of India
- * The constitution grants the right to religious communities to set up their own educational institutes.

- * The intervention of the state can also be in the form of support

The Indian Constitution intervened in Hindu religious practices in order to abolish untouchability which was the worst form of religious tyranny.

Can the government schools celebrate a particular festival which belongs to a religion ?

Celebration of such kind was allowed long back till the middle of the 20th century. But now it is not allowed. Government schools often have students from different religious background.

1. Celebration of religious festival in the premises of the school is a violation of the government's policy of equal treatment of religions.

2. A government school cannot promote any one religion in any way.

3. This does not apply to private schools.

However, there are holidays relating to religious festivals. Students can celebrate their religious functions at their home as per their traditions.

India has no official or state religion nor does it support any particular religion. But Islamic country like Pakistan has state religion i.e. Islam. In India there are many Sikhs who wear turbans or pugris. According to Motor Vehicles rules all two-wheeler riders must wear helmet. But the state cannot force a Sikh to wear helmet in place of turban. Because wearing a turban is religiously very important for a Sikh. In India government spaces like courts, police stations, government schools and offices are not supposed to display or promote any religion.

Secularism Under Threat:

Religious fanaticism, sectarianism and terrorist acts as well as extreme nationalism threaten secular fabric of a nation.

- * **Can you identify some incidences that challenges secularism in India?**

Glossary

Coercion : to force someone to do something

Freedom to interpret : refers to the independence that all persons shall have to understand in their own way

Intervene : State's effort to influence a particular matter

Retaliation : Return evil for evil

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one word or a sentence:

- (a) What is the name of the Jew's state ?
- (b) How did Hitler treat other religious groups ?
- (c) What is not allowed in Saudi Arabia in relation to religion ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- (a) What is secularism ?
- (b) Why is it important to separate religion from state ?
- (c) In what way does the state prevent the tyranny of the religious majority?
- (d) How was untouchability practised among the Hindus in medieval India ?

3. Choose the correct answer :

- (i) Which community of the following are treated badly in the state of Jews in Israel ?
 - (A) Muslims
 - (B) Hindus
 - (C) Jews
 - (D) Buddhists

(ii) In which country building of a temple or church is not allowed ?

- (A) Pakistan (B) Saudi Arabia
(C) South Africa (D) Germany

(iii) In India which of the following can check the tyranny of the religious majority.

- (A) executive (B) fundamental duties
(C) secularism (D) rule of law

4. State true or false

- (a) In India one religious community does not dominate another.
(b) A government school can promote any one religion in any way.
(c) The state cannot force a Sikh to wear helmet in place of a turban.

CHAPTER -20

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT

It is a pride for us to have a democratic country. Here we will discuss the relation between the ideas of people's participation in decision making and the need to have the consent of the citizens. The national movement supported the view that all adults have a right to vote. The movement demanded that every responsible citizen should participate in the government. Law making and decision making also should be shared by adults of the country.

The Indian parliament has these elements and we have to understand how the parliament enables citizens to participate in decision making and control the government. Parliament is the most important symbol of Indian democracy. It is also a key feature of the Indian Constitution.



Fig.20.1: Indian Parliament

India got independence on August 15, 1947. It was after a long and difficult struggle in which many sections of the society joined. People who joined the struggle were inspired by the idea of freedom, equality and participation in decision making. During the British rule the people could not agree with many of the decisions but due to fear they could not argue. If they criticised the decision of the British Government they could face grave danger. The freedom movement changed this anomaly.

The nationalists started to criticise the British Government openly. In 1885 the Indian National Congress demanded that elected members must be in the legislature. They should have the right to discuss the budget and ask questions. In response to the demand of the nationalists, the Government of India Act, 1909 allowed for some elected representation. But the Act neither allowed all adults to vote nor could people participate in decision making.

The nationalists kept in their mind that every person in independent India would be able to participate in making decisions. After independence the people became citizens of a free country. The government had to be sensitive to people's needs and demands. The dreams and aspirations of the freedom struggle were made concrete. Their aspiration was to be formalised in the principle of Universal Adult Franchise i.e. all adult citizens of the country have the right to vote.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PEOPLE AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES

The take-off point of democracy is the idea of consent i.e. the desire, approval and participation of people. It is the decision of the people that create a democratic government and decides about its functioning. The basic idea is that the individual or citizen is the most important person. The government as well as other public institutions need to have the trust or consent of these citizens.

How does an individual give approval to the Government ?

Giving approval is done through elections. The people elect their representatives to the Parliament. One group from among these elected representatives forms the government. The Parliament which is made up all representatives together, controls and guides the government. Thus, people through their representatives form the government. They also control it.

Elections to the Parliament are held in a similar manner as they are for the State Legislature. The Indian Parliament consists of the President of India, the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha. The Lok Sabha is usually elected for a term of five years. The country is divided into numerous constituencies. Each of these constituencies who contest elections usually belong to different political parties. Once elected the candidates become Members of Parliament or M.Ps. Once elections to the Parliament have taken place, the Parliament needs to perform the following functions:

Forming National Government

The Parliament consists of the President and the two houses viz the Lok Sabha and the Rajya Sabha. After the Lok Sabha elections, a list will show the number of M.Ps. belong to each political party. To form the government a party must have a majority of elected M.Ps. Out of 543 (plus 2 nominated) elected members in Lok Sabha a party should have at least 272 members or more. The Opposition in Parliament is formed by the political parties that oppose the majority party. In case no party secure the required number of Mps. to form a government some parties together will form a coalition government. This is an alliance of some parties including the party having largest number of M Ps.

One of the most important functions of the Lok Sabha is to select the Executive i.e. the Government. The executive is a group of persons who work together to implement the laws made by the Parliament. The executive is the Prime Minister and his Council of Ministers.

The Prime Minister is the leader of the ruling party. He selects ministers to work with him in implementing decisions taken by the legislature i.e. the Parliament. The ministers will be given different portfolios like Home, Finance, Health, Education, Works etc. Now a days it has been difficult for a single political party to get the required number of M.Ps. to form the government. Therefore, coalition government has become popular. In the past, the Indian National Congress was the dominant political party.

The Rajya Sabha is the second chamber of Parliament. The members of the Rajya Sabha are elected by the elected members of the Legislative members of the various states. There cannot be more than 250 members including 12 members nominated by the President. This House has the representative members of the States. It can also initiate legislation. A bill is required to pass through the Rajya Sabha in order to become an act. This house has an important role of reviewing and altering the laws initiated by the Lok Sabha.

To Controls Guide and Inform the Government

While in session, the Parliament begins with a question hour. Through this mechanism M.Ps. can elicit information about the working of the government. This is a very important device through which the Parliament controls the government i.e. the executive. By asking questions the government is alerted to its shortcomings. It is also easy to know the opinion of the people through their representatives. To ask question to the government is crucial task for every M.P. The opposition Parties play a crucial role in the healthy functioning of democracy. The Opposition highlight the draw backs in various policies and programmes of the government and mobilise people's support for their policies.

Law Making

Law making is a significant function of the Parliament. The bills may be ordinary bills or money bills. An ordinary bill can originate either in the Lok Sabha or the Rajya Sabha. No ordinary bill can be considered to have been passed unless it is passed by both the Houses. If there is a difference of opinion between the two Houses, the President can summon both the Houses for a joint session. If the bill is passed by a majority it is considered to have been passed. It will be sent to the President of India for his or her assent. When it is signed it becomes an act.

Every bill has to be read three times and passed through five stages in each House before it is considered to have been passed by Parliament. During the process debates and discussions on the merits and demerits of the bill will be held. A money bill cannot be initiated by the Rajya Sabha. It must start from the Lok Sabha only because the purse of the nation must be under the control of people's representatives.

Who are the MPs. in the Parliament ?

The Parliament has more and more people from different back grounds. Now, there are more rural members as also members from many regional parties. Groups and peoples who were unrepresented are beginning to get elected to the Parliament, Political participation from Dalits and backward classes and minorities has been increased. Those communities who have been historically marginalised must be given adequate representation. With this in mind some

seats are reserved in the Parliament for S.Cs and S. Ts. This is done to represent Dalit and Adivasis interest in Parliament.

In the same way it has been suggested that there should be reservation of seats for women. This issue is still being debated in Lok Sabha although the Rajya Sabha has passed it. The present percentage of the women is very small when half the population are women. Therefore, sometimes the country ask certain difficult and often unresolved questions like whether our democratic system is representative in real sense.

All of us are happy because we have a democratic form of government. In such parliamentary democracy the government or the executive is responsible to the legislature i.e. the representatives of the people. In such a government the power of the government resides in the hands of the people.

Prime Minister and Council of Ministers

The Prime Minister of India holds the most important position. The Prime Minister is not directly elected. Constitutionally the Prime Minister is appointed by the President. The President appoints the leader of the majority party or the coalition of the parties that commands a majority in the Lok Sabha as Prime Minister. On the advice of the Prime Minister the President appoints other ministers.

The Council of Ministers are usually top level leaders of the ruling party. Council of Ministers is the official name for the body that include all ministers. There are three kinds of ministers-(a) cabinet ministers (b) state ministers of independent charge and c) state ministers attached to a senior cabinet minister.

All ministers cannot meet regularly and discuss every thing. That is why discussions are taken in cabinet meetings. The Prime Minister presides over the meetings of the cabinet. As the head of the government the Prime Minister has wide ranging power. He co-ordinates the works of different departments. His decisions are final in case disagreements arise between departments. All ministers work under his leadership and supervision. He distributes and redistributes portfolios to the ministers. He can dismiss any minister if he displeases him. When the Prime Minister quits office the entire ministry quits. He is the maker of the cabinet and so central to its death. He is leader of the Parliament, leader of cabinet and leader of the nation.

Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India and his daughter Indira Gandhi could exercise enormous authority while they were in office as Prime Ministers. Now is the age of coalition in the making of the government. The Prime Minister has to accommodate different groups and factions in the ministry. Therefore, he cannot take decisions as he likes.

Role of Opposition in the Parliament

In a parliamentary democracy the opposition in the parliament plays an important role. In fact, their role is considered to be the driving force behind democracy. The opposition's main role is to question the government of the day and hold them accountable to the public. In fact, opposition represents an alternative government, and is responsible for challenging the policies of the government and producing different policies where appropriate. The opposition in India plays an important role in providing practical criticism of the ruling party. It is also consulted when important appointments are made. Therefore, it is important for the opposition to have a leader who can represent the interests of the non-dominant parties in these roles.

Role of President

In India the President is the head of the state and the Prime Minister is the head of the government. In parliamentary democracy like ours, the head of the State exercises only nominal powers. The real powers are exercised by the Prime Minister and his cabinet. Like the queen of England the president performs ceremonial functions and he supervises the overall functioning of the political institutions.

The President is not directly elected. All the elected MPs. of the Parliament and the MLAs of the state assemblies elect him. His tenure of office is five years.

Outwardly there is nothing that President cannot do. All government activities

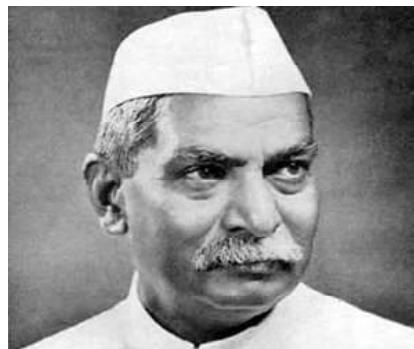


Fig.20.2: Dr. Rajendra Prasad

take place in his name. All laws and major policy decisions of the government are issued in his name. All major appointments are made and issued in the name of the President. He is the supreme commander of the defence forces in India. All international treaties are concluded in his name.

However, the President of India exercises powers only on the advice of the cabinet. The President has to give his assent on a bill and then it becomes an Act. But he can ask the cabinet to reconsider its advice or a bill. He can delay a bill but cannot reject outrightly.

The President can exercise his discretionary power at the time of appointment of the Prime Minister when a party or a coalition of parties cannot enjoy clear majority. The emergency power of the President is very important. He also has the power of pardons, reprieves etc. But in actual practice he can do nothing. All his powers including that of emergency are exercised on the advice of the cabinet.

Debate Between Pandit Nehru and Dr. Rajendra Prasad on the real Power of the President of India

There was a lot of discussion regarding the actual position occupied by the President of India under the constitution. When bills were sent to the President, Dr. Rajendra Prasad for his assent at eleventh hour he complained that he was not given any time even to think on what he was asked to sign. Rajendra Prasad personally was opposed to Hindu Code Bill but the bill was brought to him for his signature at the eleventh hour and he had merely to sign it.

On 15th September, 1951 Dr. Rajendra Prasad sent a note to Prime Minister Nehru in which he expressed his desire to act according to his conscience on the question of Hindu Code Bill. But Nehru did not approve of his view. According to Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru “ We have not given our President any real power but we have made his position one of great authority and dignity.”

But in actual practice the framers of the Indian Constitution took the model of British Parliamentary Democracy in which the head of the State is nominal and the real power is exercised by the Council of Ministers. However Dr. Rajendra Prasad exercised great influence in the shaping of the Union Government's

Policie. The Forty Second Amendment of the constitution, 1976 made it mandatory for the President to act according to the advice of the Council of Ministers. Dr. Rajendra Prasad himself admitted, at least his nominal position. However the power of the President to send back a bill or an advice for reconsideration is a discretionary power of the President. It can give effect on the government.

Glossary

Approval : To give one's consent to and be favourable towards something

Coalition : A temporary alliance of groups or parties refers to the alliance formed by political parties after elections when no party can get a clear majority.

Unresolved : Situations in which there are no easy solutions to problems.

Question Hour : The beginning of session of Parliament each day during which M.Ps. can put Questions to the government about what they want to know.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one word or a sentence:

- (a) For whom have some seats been reserved in the Parliament ?
- (b) Give one reason in support of universal adult franchise ?
- (c) What is nominal executive ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- (a) How does the individual give approval to the government ?
- (b) State the period preceding independence ?
- (c) Explain a coalition government.
- (d) State the preprogrative powers of the President.

3. Choose the correct answer :

(i) How many members at the most are in the Rajya Sabha including nominated 12 member ?

- (A) 240 (B) 243
(C) 245 (D) 250

(ii) Who of the following make all major appointments and issued in his name ?

- (A) President (B) Prime Minister
(C) Chief Justice (D) Cabinet

(iii) Who presides over the meetings of the Union Cabinet ?

- (A) President (B) Prime Minister
(C) Speaker (D) Vice President

CHAPTER -21

LAW FOR MINIMUM WAGES AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

Central Government makes public policies based on the needs and demands of the people. Let us examine how the Government of India made the Minimum Wages Act 1948 to ensure a basic standard of living among its citizens. As the economy of India expanded and living standards changed with time, there was the need to revise the law as well as the minimum wage from time to time. The law concerns Indian labour law that sets the minimum wages that must be paid to skilled and unskilled labours. This is an important facet of providing social justice.

Living Wage & Fair Wage

The Indian Constitution defines 'living wage' as the level of income for a worker which will ensure a basic standard of living including good health, dignity, comfort, education and provide for any contingency. However, to keep in mind an industry's capacity to pay the constitution has defined a 'fair wage'. Fair wage is that level of wage that not just maintains a level of employment but seeks to increase it keeping in perspective the industry's capacity to pay.

In 1948, the Central Advisory Council appointed a Tripartite Committee of Fair Wage. This committee came up with the concept of a minimum wage, which not only guarantees bare subsistence and preserves efficiency but also provides for education, medical requirements and some level of comfort.

Minimum Wages Act

India introduced the Minimum Wages Act in 1948, giving both the Central government and State government jurisdiction in fixing wages. The act is legally

non-binding, but statutory. Payment of wages below the minimum wage rate amounts to forced labour.

Wage boards are set up to review the industry's capacity to pay and fix minimum wages such that they at least cover a family of four's requirements of calories, shelter, clothing, education, medical assistance, and entertainment. Under the law, wage rates in scheduled employments differ across states, sectors, skills, regions and occupations owing to difference in costs of living, regional industries' capacity to pay, consumption patterns, etc. Hence, there is no single uniform minimum wage rate across the country and the structure has become overly complex.

Fixation and revision of minimum wages

The Minimum Wages Act 1948 generally specifies minimum wage rates on a per day basis, and extends to the entire country and is revised within a period of not less than five years, however, there is a provision to increase dearness allowance every two years.

Under the Minimum Wages Act, State and Central Governments have the power to fix and revise minimum wages. The act specifies that the "appropriate" government should fix the wages i.e. if the wages to be fixed are in relation to any authority of Central government or Railway administration then the Central government fixes it. However, if the wage rate is to be fixed or revised for a scheduled employment, the respective state governments fix it.

The Central Government has fixed the National Floor Level Minimum wage at Rs 160.00 per day with effect from 1 July 2015.

The ambiguity and overlap in the jurisdiction of both these tiers of government have caused debates and controversies. One of such debates revolves around fixing wage rates of MGNREGA scheme, an employment guarantee initiative by the Central Government.

Enforcement

The Central Government is the proper authority for enforcement of the act. Schedule employment is carried under the railway administration, mines, oilfield, major port and corporation established by Central Act. Chief Labour Commissioner is charged under central level, and at state level officers in industrial relations are charged for enforcement act and other labour laws.

Implications: Conflict of MGNREGA wage rates and the Minimum Wages Act

The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is an employment guarantee scheme that guarantees employment for 100 days at a wage rate of INR120 per day (as fixed in 2009). These benefits can be secured by any household regardless of whether they fall below or above national poverty line. The central government delinked MGNREGA wage rates from State specific Minimum wage rates in January 2009 when states like Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Maharashtra revised and increased their minimum wage rates. This had direct implications on Central Government's budget set aside for MGNREGA scheme.

The move of freezing MGNREGA scheme created an upheaval of discontent in various parts and sections of India as the move was considered to breach Minimum Wages Act, 1948. MGNREGA wage rates were less than the minimum wage rates of respective states.

Protests broke out throughout India coupled with controversies over corruption, under-payment of workers, poor quality of infrastructure, ambiguous source of funds and unintended negative effect on poverty. Recommendations made by National Advisory Council and Centre Employment Guarantee Council chaired by Jean Drèze that MGNREGA's wage rates should be synced with Minimum Wages Act were rejected by the Central Government. The Central Government stuck to its decision of freezing MGNREGA wages even after an order from Supreme Court.

Debate

(a) Who sets the minimum wages?

(b) Why do we need new laws?

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

1. Why do we need a law on minimum wages?
2. What is the difference between living wage and fair wage?
3. What is the conflict between MGNREGA wage rates and the Minimum Wages Act?
4. What is the debate surrounding the Minimum Wages Act in India?
5. Do you think minimum wage act has fulfilled needs of the people in India in raising their living standard?

2. Choose the correct answer:

A. The level of income for a worker which will ensure a basic standard of living including good health, dignity, comfort, education and provide for any contingency.

- (a) Daily wage (b) Living wage (c) Fair Wage

B. Under the Minimum Wages Act, the power to fix and revise minimum wages is with the

- (a) State Governments (b) Central Government
(c) State and Central Governments

C. Minimum Wage Law concerns

- (a) Indian labour law (b) Indian Wage Law
- (c) Indian Social Justice Law

D. In 1948, the Central Advisory Council appointed a Committee of Fair Wage

- (a) Single (b) Dual (c) Tripartite

E. The wage rate for a scheduled employment is to be fixed or revised by

- (a) A Commission (b) The respective state governments
- (c) Central Government

CHAPTER -22

JUDICIARY

In this 21st century we can see hundreds of people wearing black suits with white shirts working in different law courts. These people and courts are to protect and enforce the rule of law. The Rule of Law means that laws apply equally to all persons. To enforce rule of law we have a judicial system that consists of the mechanism of courts. A citizen can approach these courts when any law is violated. Violation of law will be followed by a certain set of fixed procedure. As an organ of the state, the judiciary plays a crucial role in the functioning of Indian democracy. It can play this vital role because it is independent.

Do you know?

Manipur had judicial units/institutions for justice and fairness in the state much before modern legal system was introduced. The main judicial institutions established were Cheirap Loishang and Pacha Loishang.

Cheirap Loishang looked after major issues of the state that called for justice and fair trial.

Pacha Loishang was exclusively for trial for justice related to women.

Right from 1950 the judiciary has played an important role in interpreting and protecting the constitution.

Role of the Judiciary

Courts take decision on a large number of issues like no person can steal the property of another person, no husband can torture his wife or about sharing of river water between states or they can punish people for particular crimes. Broadly speaking the work that the judiciary does, can be divided into the following:

- (i) The Judiciary system provides a mechanism for resolving dispute between citizens.

- (ii) between citizens and the governments
- (iii) between two state governments
- (iv) between the centre and state governments
- (v) as the final interpreter of the constitution, the Judiciary also has the power to strike down particular laws passed by the parliament if it believes that there is a violation of the basic structure of the constitution. This is called Judicial Review.
- (vi) Upholding the Law and enforcing Fundamental Rights :

Every citizen of India can approach the supreme court or the High court if he believes that his Fundamental Rights have been violated. The courts play a significant role in protecting the Fundamental Rights of Citizens. For this reason Judiciary is called the guardian of citizens' rights.

In any society disputes are bound to arise between individuals, between groups and between individuals or groups and government. All such disputes must be settled by an independent body in accordance with the principle of Rule of Law. The principal role of the Judiciary is to protect rule law and ensure supremacy of law. While settling disputes in accordance with the law it ensures that democracy does not give way to individual or group dictatorship.

Independence of the judiciary does not imply arbitrariness or absence of accountability. Judiciary is a part of democratic political structure of the country. It is therefore, accountable to the constitution, to the democratic traditions and to the people of the country. Independence of Judiciary means that the other organs of

Do you know?

Public Interest Litigation is directly filed by an individual or group of people in the Supreme Court of India and High Courts of India and judicial magistrate. It is a new legal horizon in which court of law can initiate and enforce action to serve and secure significant Public Interest. Find out more about it from your teacher.

Judicial activism: When Supreme Court and other lower courts become activists and compel the authority to act and sometimes also direct the government and government policies and also administration. Find out more about it from your teacher.

the government like the executive and legislature must not restrain the functioning of the judiciary in such a way that it is unable to do justice. The other organs of the government should not interfere with the decision of the judiciary. The judge must be able to perform their functions without fear or favour.

Independent Judiciary does not work under any pressure from the legislature or executive. It works independently because every citizen whether big or small has equal rights and he cannot be discriminated against. The courts are not under the government and do not act on their behalf. Separation of Powers between the organs of the government is a key feature of the Indian constitution. It is crucial that all judges in the High courts as well as the Supreme Court are appointed with very little interference from the other branches of government. Once appointed to this post, it is also very difficult to remove them.

It is the independence of the judiciary that allows the courts to play a central role in ensuring that there is no misuse of power by the legislature and the executive.

Structure of Courts in India

The Constitution of India provides for a single intergrated judicial system. This means that unlike some other federal countries of the world, India does not have separate state courts. The structure of the judiciary in India is pyramidal with the supreme court at the top, High Court in the middle and subordinate courts at the lowest level. The courts that most people interact with are called subordinate or district courts. These are usually at the district level. These courts are presided over by a District Judge. Each state has a



Fig.22.1: Supreme court of India

high court which is the highest court of the state. At the top is the Supreme

court that is located in New Delhi and is presided over by the Chief Justice of India. The decision made by the Supreme Court is binding on all other court in India.

An Intergrated Judicial System

In India we have an Integrated Judicial System meaning that the decision made by higher courts are binding on the lower courts. Another way to understand this itegration is through the appeallate system. This means that a person can appeal to a higher court if he believes that the judgment passed by the lower court is not just. The Appeallate System can be understood by tracking a case of dowry.

In March, 1990 Kumar married 20 year old Rani and they lived in a flat at Lamphel with Kumar's family. On December 25, 1990 Rani died in RIMS hospital due to severe burns. Rani's family filed a case in the court of Additional Sessions Judge, when the case was heard in this lower court three of Rani's neighbours were called in as witnesses. They said that on the night of December 24 they had heard Rani scream and they had forced their way into Kumar's flat. There they saw Rani standing with her phanek and chaddar in flames. They extinguished the fire by wrapping her by gunny bags. Rani told them that her mother-in-law Tombi had poured kerosine oil on her and that her husband Kumar had lit the fire. It was an attempt to kill her for not giving a car as dowry. During the trial members of Rani's family and a neighbour stated that Rani had been subjected to tortue by her in-laws and that they were demanding the dowry promised by her father. As part of their defence Kumar and his mother stated that Rani's phanek and chaddar had accidentally caught fire while she was preparing tea on a kerosine stove. On the basis of this and other evidence, the court convicted Kumar, her mother Tombi and his brother Gopal and sentenced all three of them to death.

In November 1993 the three accused went to the High court to appeal against the subordinate court's orders. The High court after hearing the arguments of all the lawyers decided that Rani had died due to an accidental fire caused by the kerosine stove. Kumar, Tombi and Gopal were acquitted.

However, the Meira Paibis of Lamphel area were very alert with any case of domestic violence. They could not agree with the judgement given by the High

Court. They were very much against dowry system. By organising themselves, they went to the Supreme Court, which is the highest court of Appeal. In 1995 the Supreme Court heard the appeal against the three acquitted persons. After hearing the arguments of the lawyers the supreme court reached a decision that was different from that of the High Court. The Court found Kumar and his mother guilty but acquitted Gopal because the Judges did not have enough evidence against him. The Supreme Court decided to send the accused to prison for life. This is the appellate system practised in the judicial system of India. There are three levels of courts and appeals can go from the lowest to the higher one upto the apex.

Branches of Legal System

The above case of dowry death falls within what is considered a crime against society and is a violation of criminal law. In addition to criminal law, the legal system also deals with civil law cases. Disputes relating to sale of land, rent matters etc. are concerned with civil laws.

Difference between criminal law and civil law

1. A criminal law deals with conduct or acts that the law defines as offences. For example, theft, harassment of women to bring more dowry, murder.
2. It begins with the lodging of a First Information Report (FIR) with the police who investigate the crime after which case is filed in the court.
3. If found guilty, the accused can be sent to jail and also fined.

And

1. Civil law deals with any harm or injury to right of individuals. For example, disputes relating to sales of land, purchase of goods, rent matters, divorce cases.
2. A petition is to be filed before the relevant court by the affected party only. In a rent matter either the land lord or tenant can file a case.
3. The court gives the specific relief asked for. For example, in a case between a landlord and a tenant, the court can order the flat to be vacated and pending rent to be paid.

Does everyone has access to the court ?

In our country all citizens can access the courts. This implies that every citizen has a right to justice through the law courts. The courts play a significant role in protecting our Fundamental Rights. If any citizen believes that his right being violated then he can approach the court for justice. In reality access to court has always been difficult for the majority poor. In India legal procedure involve a lot of money and paper work as well as a lot of time. For a poor and illiterate person the idea of going to court for justice often seems remote.

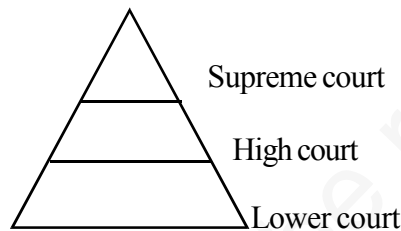
In response to this difficulty the supreme court in the early 1980s devised a mechanism of Public Interest Litigation (PIL) to increase access to justice. It allowed any individual or organisation to file PIL in the High Court or the Supreme Court on behalf of those whose rights were being violated. The legal process was greatly simplified and could be treated as a PIL. In the early years PIL was used to secure justice in a large number of issues such as rescuing bonded labourers from inhuman work conditions and securing the release of prisoners. In Bihar prisoners had been kept in jail even after their punishment term was complete. The mid-day meal that children now received in government and government aided schools is also a product of a PIL. It was originated from the states of Orissa and Rajasthan where there was famine in abundance of rice at the godown. In Manipur in June 2010 a PIL was filed by an advocate against the long economic blockade launched in NH. 2 and 37 by Naga organisations.

The Right to Constitutional Remedies guarantees the people's access to courts for justice. The courts exercise a crucial role in interpreting the Fundamental Rights of citizens. The courts interpreted Article 21 of the constitution on the Right to Life to include Right to Food. They, therefore, ordered the states to take up certain steps to provide food to all children in government schools.

However, sometimes court judgments go against the best interests of the common people, for example recent judgment on evictions in Mumbai are a far cry from earlier judgements. While recent judgments tend to view the slum dwellers as encroachers in the city, earlier judgments had tried to protect the livelihood of slum dwellers. Another issue that affects the common person's access to jus-

tice is delay in judgements. The phrase ' Justice delayed is justice denied' cannot go wrong. Ordinary citizens cannot wait for a longtime. After nearly 26 years the court's verdict on Bhopal Gas Tragedy was declared in June, 2010 only. The court's order could not satisfy the Indian government and the affected people.

The eviction of a person from a pavement or slum will inevitably lead to deprivation of his means of livelihood. Because they have small jobs in the city, for them there is nowhere else to live. They choose a pavement or a slum in the vicinity of their work site. To loose the pavement or the slum is to loose the jobs. So eviction will lead to deprivation of their livelihood and consequently to the deprivation of their life.



Integrated Judicial System

The Subordinate court is known by different names like Trial Court or the court of the District Judge, the Additional Sessions Judge, Chief Judicial Magistrate, Metropolitan Magistrate and Civil Judge.

Glossary

Acquit : The court declaring that a person is not guilty of the crime which he was tried for.

Appeal : A petition filed before a higher court to hear a case that has already been decided by a lower court.

Eviction : The removal of persons from land or homes that they are currently living in

Violation : The act of breaking a law as well as the breach or infringement of Fundamental Rights.

EXERCISES

1. **Answer the following questions in one word or a sentence:**
 - (a) What type of case is involved when a dispute arise out the purchase of land ?
 - (b) What is the full form of PIL ?
 - (c) Give one name of a subordinate court ?
2. **Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:**
 - (a) What do you mean by independence of Judiciary ?
 - (b) Explain the Appeallate System.
 - (c) 'Justice delayed is justice denied' Elaborate.
 - (d) What important right is included in Article 21 of the constitution ? What another important right is involved by it ?
3. **Choose the correct answer:**
 - (i) (A) Independence of judiciary implies arbitrariness
(B) It means absence of accountability
(C) The other two organs should not interfere with the decision of the judiciary
(D) It works under the pressure of the executive
 - (b) (A) The Rule of Law means that laws apply equally to all persons.
(B) Rule of law does not apply to the Prime Minister of India.
(C) It does not apply to the judges of the courts
(D) It doe not apply to government employees.

- (c) Which of the following is NOT a work of the judiciary ?
- (A) It is not the final interpreter of the constitution.
 - (B) It works between the centre and state governments.
 - (C) It works between State governments.
 - (D) It upholds the law and enforces Fundamental Rights.

4. State true or false

- (a) The courts are not under the government and do not act on their behalf.
- (b) The constitution of India provides for a single Integrated Judiciary System.

CHAPTER -23

CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

When we see someone commits a crime, we immediately think of informing the police. In a police station police officers file reports and arrest persons. When police arrests persons we wrongly presume that the guilt and innocence of a person is decided by the police. After a person is arrested it is the court of law that decides whether the accused is guilty or not. According to the constitution every individual charged of a crime has to be given a fair trial.

What is a fair trial ?

Fair trial is the trial which has the following features. The police investigates the case after lodging the First Information Report (FIR). Then the charge sheet is prepared by the police and submit it in the court. A copy of the same is also given to the accused. The statement of witness is recorded. They are then cross examined. The trial is held in open court in the presence of the accused, the witness and the defence. The judge provide lawyer to the accused if he is not able to hire a lawyer. The defence advocate is given full opportunity to plead the case on behalf of the accused. Article 21 of the constitution gurantees the Right to life. A person's life and liberty can be taken away only by following a reasonable and just legal procedure . A fair trial ensures the Article 21 of the constitution.

What is Article 22 ?

Article 22 of the Constitution and Criminal Law guarantee the following Fundamental Rights to every arrested person.

1. The right to information at the time of arrest of the offence for which the person is being arrested.
2. The right to presentation before a magistrate within 24 hours of arrest or in custody.

3. Confessions made in police custody not to be used as evidence against the accused
4. A boy under 15 years of age and a woman cannot be called to the police station only for questioning.

What is an FIR (First Information Report) and its contents ?

It is with the registration of an FIR that the police can begin their investigation into a crime. The law states that it is compulsory for an officer in charge of a police station to register an FIR whenever a person gives information about a cognizable offence. This information can be given to the police either orally or in writing. The FIR usually mentions the date, time and place of the offence. It also contains the details or the basic facts of the offence including a description of the events. If known, the identity of the accused and witness is also mentioned.

The FIR also states the name and address of the complainant. There is a prescribed form in which the police registers an FIR and it is signed by the complainant. The complainant also has a legal right to get a free copy of the FIR from the police.

Ponder & Debate

Have you heard of the Supreme Court directive on Fake Encounter in Manipur? Who filed the case in Supreme Court? Discuss about the case in your classroom.

Guidelines of the supreme court for police or any other Investigation agencies

The Supreme court of India has laid down specific requirement and procedures that the police and other agencies have to follow for the arrest, detention and interrogation of any person. These are popularly known as D.K. Basu's Guidelines. Some of the guidelines include the following :

The police officials, carrying out the arrest or interrogation should wear clear, accurate and visible identification and name tags with their designations. A memo of arrest should be prepared at the time of arrest and should

contain the time and date of arrest. It should also be attested by at least one witness who includes a family member of the arrested person. The arrest memo should be countersigned by the person arrested. The person arrested, detained or being interrogated have a right to inform a relative , friend or well wisher. When a relative or friend lives outside the district the time, place of arrest and venue of custody must be notified by police within 8 to 12 hours after arrest.

What is the role of the Public Prosecutor ?

A criminal offence is a public wrong. It means that a crime has been committed not only against the affected victim but against the whole society.

In court, it is the public procecutor who represents the interest of the state. His role begins after the police has conducted the investigation and file the charge sheet in the court. He has no role to play in the investigation. The prosecutor conducts the prosecution on behalf of the state. It is his duty to act impartially and present the full material facts, witness and evidence before the court so that it decides the case on the basis of facts and figures.

Who decides whether a person is guilty or not ?

After a person is arrested it is the court of law that decides whether the accused is guilty or not. Our constitution say that every indeividual charged of a crime is to be given a fair trial, whether a person is guilty or not it is the judge who decides this. The Rule of Law means that everyone is subject to the law of the land including the police. Hence police investigations must be conducted in accordance with law and full respect for petty offences.

What is the role of the Judge ?

The Judge is above all inside the court. He conducts the trial impartially and in an open court. The judge hears all the witnesses put up by the prosecutor and the defence. He decides the case on the basis of the evidences presented and in accordance with the law. If the accused is convicted, the judge pronounces the sentence. He may send the person to jail or impose a fine or both as per provision of the law.

The Constitution and the law both state that all of the persons mentioned above should carry out their role in a proper manner. What this means is that they attend to work to ensure that every citizen irrespective of their class, caste, gender, religions and ideological back grounds gets a fair trial when accused . The Rule of Law which says that every one is equal before the law would not much sense if every citizen were not guaranteed a fair trial by the Constitution.

Glossary

- Accused : The person who is tried by a court for a crime.
- Cognizable : An offence for which the police may arrest a person without the permission of the court.
- Cross-Examination : Questioning of a witness who has already been examined by the opposite side in order to determine the veracity of his testimony.
- Detention : The act. of being kept in illegal custody by the police.
- Impartial : The act. of being fair and not favouring one side over another offence.
- Witness : The person who is called upon in court to provide first hand account of what he has seen, heard or known.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following in one word or a sentence:

- (i) Who file reports and arrest people ?
- (ii) What do we do when we see someone committing a crime ?
- (iii) Who lodge an FIR in a police station ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- (a) What is the role of the Judge ?
- (b) What is a fair trial ? Mention the main features of a fair trial.
- (c) 'What role is played by a public prosecutor ?
- (d) What does Article 22 say ?

3. Choose the correct answer:

- (i) Who of the following will decide whether the accused is guilty or not ?
 - (A) the police
 - (B) the local people
 - (C) court of law
 - (D) eye witnesses

4. Mark True or False against the statements.

- (a) A memo of arrest should be prepared at the time of arrest and should contain time and date of arrest.
- (b) Confessions made in police custody is not to be used as evidence against the accused.

CHAPTER - 24

MEANING OF MARGINALISATION

Marginalisation means the communities small in number are put at margins of economic and cultural development. These communities are devoid of any changes or advancement which other people enjoy now. To be marginalised means not to be in the centre of things but to occupy the sides. We find marginalisation in our class room also because of the following:

- (i) their taste of music or films is different
- (ii) their accent marks them out from others
- (iii) they talk less in the class
- (iv) they do not play the same game that others like to play
- (v) they dress differently.

In this way they will not be considered to be equal with other classmates.

They will feel themselves different from others. Sometimes they feel that people do not like them. Some happenings with us in the social environment groups of people or communities have the experience of being excluded. Their marginalisation is because of different languages, different customs or different religions.

- (i) Some people also feel marginalised because of their poverty, low social status and being less human
- (ii) Sometimes marginalised people are viewed with hostility and fear. This sense of difference and exclusion leads to non-access to resources, opportunities and their inability to enjoy their rights.

- (iii) They experience sense of disadvantage and powerlessness vis-a-vis more powerful and dominant sections of society. Such people own land, wealth, better educated and politically powerful.
- (iv) Thus marginalisation does not experience in one sphere only.
- (v) Economic, social, cultural and political factors work together to make certain groups in society feel marginalised.

Who are Adivasis ?

The term 'Adivasis' literally means 'original inhabitants'. They are communities who lived and often continue to live in close association with forests. Around 8 percent of India's population is adivasi. Many of India's most important mining and industrial centres are located in Adivasi's areas e.g. Jamshedpur, Rourkela, Bokaro and Bhillai etc. There are over 500 different Adivasi groups in India. They are found in plenty in Chhatisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal. In the North Eastern states of Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland and Tripura they are found in large numbers. Adivasis are referred to as tribals. Orissa is the home of more than 60 different tribal groups. Tribal societies are also most distinctive because there is often very little hierarchy among them. This makes them radically different from other communities.

The religious practice of Adivasis are different from Islam, Hinduism and Christianity. They worship ancestors, village and natural spirits, mountain spirits, river spirits, animal spirits etc. Additionally, Adivasis have always been influenced by different surrounding religions like Shakta, Buddhist, Vaishnav, Bhakti and Christianity. In return, they also influence the Jagannath cult of Orissa and Shakti and Tantric traditions in Bengal and Assam. A large number of tribals converted to Christianity during the 19th century. Among their languages Santhali has the largest number of speakers.

In India we usually 'showcase' Adivasi communities in particular ways. In school functions and official events or in books and movies, tribes are invariably portrayed in very stereotypical ways. Their colourful customs, headgear and

their way of dancing attract much of people. Sometimes we wrongly believe the tribals as exotic, primitive and backward. Often tribals are blamed for their lack of advancement as they are resistant to change or new ideas. Santhals, Nagas, Kukis, Brutias, Angamis, Gonda Bhils are well known Adivasis.

In India forests play a crucial role in the development and settle civilization. In forests we find metal ores like iron and copper, gold and silver, coal and diamonds valuable timbers, most medicinal herbs, animal products and animal themselves all came from forests. Till the middle of 19th century the tribals had a deep knowledge of access to as well as control over this vast tract of land. Often big empires heavily depended on Adivasis for the crucial access to forest resources. This is contrary to our image of tribals today. Forest policies applied by the state and private industry forced the Adivasis to migrate to lives as workers in plantations, at construction sites, in industries and as domestic workers. They could not have much direct access to the forest area.

Forest lands have been cleared for timber and to get land for agriculture and industry. According to official figures more than 50 percent of persons displaced due to mines and mining projects are tribals. Huge tracts of their lands have also gone under the waters of hundreds of dams that have been built in modern India. When they continue to stay in these forests they are called encroachers. Losing their lands and access to the forest means that tribals lose their main resources of livelihood and food. After leaving the forests they are employed for very low wages in local industries or construction sites. They get caught in a cycle of poverty and deprivation. 45 percent of tribal groups in rural areas and 35 percent in urban areas live below the poverty line. Tribal children are malnourished. Literacy rates among tribals are also very low. When tribals are displaced from their lands they lose much more than a source of income. Often this process of dispossession and displacement can be painful and violent.

Minorities and Marginalisation

The Indian constitution provides safeguards to religious and linguistic minorities as part of our Fundamental Rights. The term 'minority' is most com-

monly used to refer to communities that are particularly small in relation to the rest of the population. This concept encompasses issue of power, access to resources and has social and cultural dimensions. Small size can be a disadvantage and lead to marginalisation. Safeguards are needed to protect minority communities against the possibility of being culturally dominated by the majority. Small communities relative to the rest of society may feel insecure about their lives, assets, and well being. This sense of insecurity may rise if the relations between the minority and major communities are fraught. The constitution provides these safeguards because it is committed to protecting India's cultural diversity and promoting equality as well as justice. The judiciary plays a crucial role in upholding the law and enforcing the Fundamental Rights. Every citizen of India can approach the court if he believes that his Fundamental Rights have been violated.

Muslims and Marginalisation

In India, Muslims are considered to be a marginalised community as they form 13.4 per cent of India's population. In comparison to other communities they have over the years been deprived of the benefits of socio economic development, Muslim communities with regard to basic amenities, literacy and public employment is very low.

In 2005, the government set up a high level committee to examine the lagging behind of the Muslims. The committee examined the social, economic and educational status of the Muslim community in India. The Report discussed in detail the marginalisation of this community. It says that the social, economic and educational conditions of the Muslim community are comparable to that of marginalised communities like Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. In Manipur there is a State Commission for Minorities to look after the welfare of Muslim community.

Economic and Social marginalisation experienced by Muslims has other dimensions as well. Like other minorities Muslim customs and practices are sometimes quite distinct from the mainstream. Some Muslims may wear a burqa, sport a long beard, wear fez and these help identify all Muslims. This social marginalisation of Muslims in some instances has led to them migrating from

places often leading to the ghettoisation of the community. Sometimes, this prejudice lead to hatred and violence. Without the Fundamental Rights and policies protecting them, we will never be able to protect the diversity that makes our country unique nor realise the state's commitment to protect equality for all.

Do you know?

*Muslims, Sikhs, Christians, Buddhists, Zoroastrians (Parsis) and Jains are notified as minority communities in India. They are **religious minorities**.*

*There are also **linguistic and ethnic minorities** in India. Can you identify them with the help of your teachers?*

Marginalisation is linked to experiencing disadvantage, prejudice and powerlessness. It results in having a low social status and not having equal access to education and other resources.

Glossary

Heirarchy : A graded system or arrangement of persons or things. The caste system is a hierarchical system. Dalits are considered to be at the lowest end.

Ghettoisation : A ghetto is an area or locality that is populated largely by members of a particular community. Ghettoisation refers to the process that leads to such a situation. Fear or hostility may compel them to group together. A ghettoised community has few options of moving out.

Mainstream : Literally this refers to the main current of a river or stream. Mainstream is also used to refer to those people or communities that are considered to be at the centre of a society i.e. often the powerful or dominant group.

- Displaced :** People who are forced or compelled to move from their homes for big development projects.
- Militarised :** An area where the presence of the armed forces is considerable.
- Malnourished :** A person who does not get adequate nutrition of food.
- Minorities :** Minority communities are those communities who are small in number when compared to majority communities.
- Adivasis :** Literal meaning original inhabitants. Adivasis are those communities who lived and continue to live in close association with forests. Tribals are also referred to as Adivasis.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one words or a sentence:

- What do you mean by marginalisation ?
- Name the states where important mining and industrial centres are located.
- What is the most spoken Tribal language ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- What do you understand by the term 'minority'? Why is their constitutional safeguard very important ?
- Why are the Adivasis called exotic or backward ?
- Why were forests considered very crucial to the development of all empires ?
- How do losing lands and access to forests lead to leave the livelihood of the Adivasis ?

3. Choose the correct answer:

- (i) Which of the following is not related to marginalisation ?
- (A) Equality (B) Disadvantage
(C) Prejudice (D) Powerlessness
- (ii) Small size of a community can be a disadvantage and lead to
- (A) arbitrariness (B) marginalisation
(C) secularism (D) powerfulness

4. State true or false

- (a) Every citizen of India can approach the court if he believes that his Fundamental Rights have been violated
- (b) The Indian Constitution does not provide safeguards to religious and linguistic minorities.

CHAPTER - 25

SOCIAL JUSTICE AND THE MARGINALISED

Now we are going to discuss the ways in which groups and individuals challenge existing inequalities. Adivasis, Dalits, Muslims, women and other marginal groups claim that being citizens of a democratic country they possess equal rights and they must be respected. Most of them look up to the Constitution to address their concerns. As a result rights are translated into laws to protect groups from continued exploitation. The government also considered to formulate policies to promote the access of the marginalised groups to development. Fundamental Rights are important part of the Constitution and are available to the Indians equally. By insisting on their Fundamental Rights they have forced the government to recognise the injustice done to them. They insisted that the government enforce these laws. In fact, the struggle of the marginalised have influenced the government to frame new laws in the spirits of the Fundamental Rights. Article 17 of the constitution states that untouchability has been abolished. Henceforth no one prevent Dalits from educating themselves, entering temples, using public facilities etc. The practice of untouchabilities will not be tolerated by a democratic government. It is a punishable crime now.

Another section of the Constitution is Article 15. It states that no citizen of India shall be discriminated against on the basis of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth This has been used by the Dalits to seek equality.

Meaning of Dalit is broken. This is used deliberately and actively by groups to highlight their century old discrimination. They have drawn the attention of the Government of India to the Constitution, demanding that the government abide by it and do justice to them.

Similarly other minority groups have drawn on the Fundamental Rights section of the Constitution. They used the Right to Freedom of Religion, Cultural and Educational Rights. In the case of Cultural and Educational rights the Mus-

lims and Parsis have the right to make decisions of the content of their cultures. Thus by granting different forms of cultural rights, the Constitution tries to ensure culture of these groups is not dominated nor wiped out by the culture of the majority community.

Laws for the Marginalised

There are specific laws and policies for the marginalised in our country. There are policies or schemes that emerge through other means like setting a committee or by undertaking a survey etc. The government then makes an effort to promote such policies in order to give opportunities to specific groups.

Promoting Social Justice

In order to implement the Constitution both central and state governments create specific schemes in tribal areas or in Dalit areas. For example, the government provides for free or subsidised hostels for students of Dalit and Adivasi communities. By this they can avail of education facilities that may not be available in their locality.

Reservation Policy

One such policy is the reservation policy that today it is both significant and highly contentious. The laws which reserve seats in education and government employment for Dalits and Adivasis are based on special consideration. This particular section of population have been denied of opportunities to learn and to work in order to develop new skills or vocations. The government needs to step in and assist these sections.

How does Reservation Policy Work

Governments across India have their own list of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and backward and most backward castes. Students applying to educational institutions and those applying for jobs in government are expected to furnish proof of their castes or tribe status. These are to be filled in the form of caste and tribe certificates. If a particular Dalit caste or a certain tribe is in the government list, then a candidate from that caste or tribe can avail of the benefit of reservation.

For admission to institutes of professional education like medical and

engineering college, government define a set of 'cut-off marks. Only those Dalits and tribals who secure a reasonable marks above the cut off marks can get the benefit. It does not mean all Dalit and tribals can qualify for admission. Governments also offer special scholarships for these students.

The Schedule Castes and Schedules Tribes (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989

This Act was framed in 1989 in response to demands made by Dalits and others that the government take seriously the ill treatment and humiliation experienced by them in daily life. But it had acquired a violent character in the late 1970s and 1980s. The Dalits and their associates refused to perform their so called caste duties and insisted on being treated equally. This resulted in violence against them by the powerful castes. Dalit groups demanded new laws that would list the various sorts of violence against dalits. They also demanded the government to prescribe stringest punishment for those who indulge in the crimes. During this period Adivasi people organised themselves and demanded equal rights. They also asserted that their land and resources to be returned to them.

The Act of 1989 had another important aspect. Adivasis used the act to defend their right to occupy land that was traditionally theirs. Adivasis are often unwilling to move from their land and are forcibly displaced. Activists have asked that those who have forcibly encroached upon tribal land should be punished under this law. Their stand is that land belonging to tribal people cannot be sold to or bought by non tribal people. In cases where this happened the constitution guarantees the right of tribal people to repossess their land.

One C.K. Janu an Adivasi activist has also pointed out that one of the violators of the constitutional rights of the tribals are governments in various states. The governments evicted the tribals for the construction of factories, industrial centres, timber industry and even agricultural land. Therefore, the tribals must be compensated for their rehabilitation.

O.B.C. Reservation Policy

Due to the hard pressure from the OBCs (other backward classes) the Mandal commission submitted its Report relating to reservation issues in 1980.

The report said that the population of the OBCs both Hindu and Non-Hindu is around 52 per cent of the total population of India. The commission was obliged to recommend a reservation of 27 percent only in addition to 22.5 per cent of Scheduled Tribes. There was violence and riots every where in India against this recommendation. There was an uproar in the Indian Parliament when this bill was discussed and debated. Parliament approved this reservation policy in 1993. It is very clear that the reservation is confined to the pre entry into a service and should not be applied to promotional posts. Thus, the reservation policy of the government covers nearly 50 cent of seats altogether.

The desire for equality, dignity and respect is not new. It has existed in different forms throughout our history. The existence of a right or a law or even a policy on paper does not mean that it exists in reality. People have to constantly work to translate them into principles to guide the citizens and their leaders.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one word or a sentence:

- (a) What is Mandal Commission ?
- (b) What is the meaning of Dalit ?
- (c) What is the full form of OBC ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30/40 words each:

- (a) State in detail the Act of 1989.
- (b) What are the laws for the marginalised ?
- (c) What are the specific schemes created by the government to promote social justice ?
- (d) How does reservation policy work ?

3. State true or false

- (a) Article 17 of the constitution states that untouchability has been abolished in India.
- (b) Meaning of Dalit is unity of tribals.

CHAPTER- 26

GOVERNMENT AND YOU

In the earlier chapters you have learnt about different forms of government . In urban areas we have the municipal corporations and in rural areas there is the panchayat to look after the needs of the people. There is not one government but many governments at different levels. The union government, the state government, municipal corporations, panchayats etc are examples of government at different levels. How does our democracy work ? Now it is time to learn how the activities of the government affect us. In other words, what does the government do for the citizens ? there are innumerable activities of the government which affect us. From the very beginning the government has been actively involved in developmental activities especially in infrastructure and social sectors such as health and education. Ushering in economic development is one of the top priorities of any government. The availability of adequate infrastructure is necessary for the acceleration of economic development in the country. Quality of living of the people and the pace of economic development depend on the state of infrastructure. By infrastructure we mean electric power, roads, railways, ports, airports, tele-communication, irrigation, drinking water, sanitation, storage and warehousing. Without the enabling activities of the government our lives would have been very incomplete. It is difficult to imagine how difficult our lives would have been without the activities of the government , despite many of its shortcomings.



Fig. 26.1: A train



Fig. 26.2 Shipyard at Cochin

AN EXPRESSWAY

Mumbai Pune Expressway:

Mumbai Pune Expressway connects Mumbai with Pune. To drive along this expressway is to rediscover the joy of disciplined and responsible driving. It looks like a well oiled, well behaved and controlled system where right from a haystack carrying truck to a sparkling mercedes follow the same rules and regulations. There is a feeling of oneness. It completely lacks the Indian road chaos. It is another landmark of modern India.



Fig. 26.3 Super Expressway

Notable features of Mumbai Pune Express Highway are:

- Six lane concrete highway divided in center by a 7m-wide divider. An extra lane provided on each side as a hard shoulder.
- The Mumbai Pune expressway should cut down travel time between Mumbai and Pune to less than 2 hours at an average speed of 80kmph.
- Separate tunnels for traffic in each direction.
- Complete fencing to avoid humans/animals crossing the expressway.
- No two wheelers, three wheelers and tractor vehicles allowed.
- Provision of Petrol pumps / Motels / Workshops / Toilets / Emergency Phones and Breakdown Vans etc.
- Proposed planting of 70,000 trees along Mumbai Pune expressway

The road leading to your school, most likely, has been constructed by the government. If your school is in a far off place, your school also must have been constructed by the government. The electricity for lighting your home and watching the TV is provided by the government. The hospital you visit when you

fall sick is also likely to be a government hospital. Your postman is a government employee. Tap water is provided by the government. Can we drive our vehicles safely in the urban areas without the help of traffic police? You must have seen long queues of vehicles in front of petrol pumps. It is an example of government rationing a scarce commodity, in this case petrol, to ensure that everyone can get something. Otherwise unscrupulous traders may buy up the whole stock and sell at exorbitant price.



Fig. 26.4 A long queue for petrol

Below Poverty Line (BPL) families can buy food grains at a price lower than the market price under the Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS). The Department of Food & Public distribution is responsible for the management of food of the nation. You can sleep peacefully because the police department looks after the law and order problem and remains awake when you sleep. Look at the picture Fig. 26.5 which shows a long line of vehicles negotiating a hilly path. Such roads would have remained unaided, had it not been for the government. The government puts money in projects with very long gestation periods and very low rate of returns, in the interest of those who would benefit from the connectivity. The government creates an enabling environment.

You must have heard of the abundance of oranges in Tamenglong district.

Every year orange festival is held in this district to encourage orange growers. In Tamenglong it is very cheap because supply of orange far exceeds the demand. It is said that the delicious oranges simply rot there because there is no taker. These same oranges would have fetched



Fig. 26.5 A long line of vehicle petrol

handsome returns to the growers.

The oranges can be sold in Imphal. There are many components of cost in selling the oranges. The oranges have to be transported. Buyers have to be found promptly before the fruits are damaged. Unsold fruits can be stored in cold storage. Good roads are necessary for transporting the abundant orange harvest to a market. Cold storage facility is needed to keep the orange unspoilt for many days. A fruit processing unit can be established in the orange growing region of Tamenglong itself. This will process the orange by extracting juice and making a concentrate. It can then be sent to metropolitan areas where there is demand. However none of these are available in Tamenglong. Another dimension of the problem is the possibility of the largely illiterate orange farmers of Tamenglong being cheated by unscrupulous urban traders. It is common for traders to come together to form a cartel to compel a seller to sell at their price by agreeing not to buy anything at a different price. Will private traders come forward to take care of these requirements for marketing? The motive of profit maximisation will not allow them to intervene in this manner. They will try to take advantage of the situation. Private traders would be more interested in buying the oranges as cheap as possible and sell them in the urban market at a much higher price. This deprives the orange growers of a better standard of

living. To ensure that the orange growers of Tamenglong receive remunerative prices roads, factories, cold storages and a close watch on the unscrupulous traders are very much needed. The government should step in. The government can facilitate the marketing of the fruit . The government can help the growers to organise themselves into orange growers co-operatives. Such co operatives will buy the oranges from the farmers and take the responsibility of transporting to distant urban markets where there is demand .

Education opens up opportunities for a better life. It is the most crucial input for empowering people with skills and knowledge and giving them access to productive employment. It not only enhances efficiency but also improves the quality of life. It is now considered the major instrument for achieving rapid and inclusive growth.

Inclusive growth (I.G)

- focuses on economic growth which is a necessary and crucial condition for poverty reduction.
- adopts a long term perspective and is concerned with sustained growth.

For growth to be sustained in the long run, it should be broad-based across sectors. Issues of structural transformation for economic diversification therefore take a front stage. Some countries may be an exception and continue to specialize as they develop due to their specific conditions (e.g. small states).

It should also be inclusive of the large part of the country's labour force, where inclusiveness refers to equality of opportunity in terms of access to markets, resources and unbiased regulatory environment for businesses and individuals.

IG focuses on both the pace and pattern of growth. How growth is generated is critical for accelerating poverty reduction, and any IG strategies must be tailored to country-specific circumstances.

Today we talk of a knowledge society based on rapidly changing technology. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan(SSA) gave a major push to universalisation of elementary education. By universalisation of elementary education we mean every child should be educated. Elementary education means class I to VIII. Class I to V is known as primary and class VI – VIII is upper primary. You are in upper primary. Elementary education is the foundation of the pyramid in the education system. If the foundation is not sound no progress can be made. It has now become a justiciable. How can a multi-storeyed building be constructed on a weak foundation ?

The specific goals of SSA during the Tenth Plan period were as follows:

- All children to be in regular school, Education guarantee scheme, Alternative and Innovative Education or 'Back to School camp by 2005
- Bridging all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010
- Universal retention by 2010
- Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life

All the children should be enrolled, given proper education so that they can become responsible citizens. They should not only be enrolled but also retained in the education system by ensuring that they do not drop out. Socio-economic conditions may compel the children to drop out from the schooling system. You will be amazed to know that two third of the tribal students in India never go beyond class VIII. The Mid-day Meal scheme seeks to enhance enrolment, retention and participation of children in primary schools along with their nutritional status. It provides hot cooked meals to primary school children in government and government aided schools. In addition to many other programmes at the elementary level, a number of projects have been taken up to make secondary and higher education more vibrant.

India is a young country because 70% of her population are below the age of 35 years. The energy of the youth should be harnessed towards nation building. If they are not properly advised, they will be tempted to lead an aim-

less life. It will be highly vulnerable to exploitation by anti-social elements. Our future will be wasted along with their wastage. The National Youth Policy 2003 is designed to galvanise the youth to rise up to the emerging challenges. At the same time they are urged to become active partners in national development. A popular programme is the National Service Scheme (NSS) which focuses on the development of personality of students through community service. From its inception in 1969 more than 2.9 crore students from universities and colleges have benefitted from the NSS activities as student volunteers.

Health and the people :

We realise the value of good health only when we are sick. Sick people become a burden not only to the immediate family but also to the society. The onset of a long and expensive illness can make even a rich person poor. The government is keen to assure to its citizens a minimal level of health care. To enable access to affordable and reliable health services quality health care system should be provided by the government. To meet the challenges of quality health services even in remote rural regions, the Eleventh Five Year Plan seeks to transform public health care into an accountable, accessible and affordable system of quality services. You must have heard about HIV/AIDS to which the youths are becoming increasingly vulnerable. The government responded by preventive awareness, targeted interventions and support programmes. Fully trained Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHAs) have spread out across the country.

National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) has been launched for meeting health needs of all age groups and to reduce burden of disease in rural India. National Urban Health Mission (NUHM) will be launched to meet the unmet health care needs of the urban population. These two programmes will constitute Sarva Swasthya Abhiyan which aims for inclusive growth by strengthening health services and focusing on neglected areas and groups.

Poverty Alleviation Programmes :

Around 93% of our labour force works in the informal sector without any form of social protection particularly in old age. As younger people migrate to

urban and fast growing rural areas, the sight of old people left to fend themselves has become common. Urbanisation has led to the collapse of the joint family system which use to take care of social security. The concept of social security is to provide a safety mechanism through a series of public interventions against the economic and social distress. It is caused by the stoppage of /or substantial reduction of earnings resulting from sickness, maternity, occupational distress, unemployment, invalidity



Fig.26.6 A scene of Antyodaya Anna Yojana

and old age. The government has implemented a number of schemes both in the urban and rural areas to supplement the income of the people. Some such schemes are the Unorganised Sector Workers Social Security Bill, 2007, the Aam Admi Bima Yojana (AABY) and Health Insurance Scheme for Unorganised Sector BPL workers, 2007. The public distribution system is a major state intervention in the country aimed at ensuring food security to all the people, especially the poor. Since June 1997 it has been operating as Targeted Public Distribution System. Under this system the BPL households are identified and a fixed monthly entitlement of food grains at subsidised prices are given to them. Under the Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) very poor families are provided with 35 kg of rice per month per family at Rs 3 per kg. Under the Annapurna scheme indigent senior citizens of age 65 years or above not getting any pension are given 10 kg of foodgrains per person per month free of cost. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act touches the lives of the rural poor and promotes inclusive growth. It enhances the livelihood security of households in rural areas of India by providing at least one hundred days

of guaranteed wage employment in a financial year to every household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work.

Infrastructure Development :

The components of physical infrastructure such as electricity, railways, roads, ports, airports, irrigation and urban and rural water supply and sanitation are very important in ensuring inclusive growth. However the infrastructure scenario in India is far from being adequate. Only 12% of the national highways are 4-laned and 50% 2-laned. Ports suffer from inadequate berths and rail/road connectivity. Airports suffer from inadequate runway, aircraft handling capacity, parking space and terminal buildings. There is huge power shortage and a loss of about 40% during transmission and distribution. There is crisis in irrigation water availability despite huge amount of utilisable water resources. Only 43% of net sown area is irrigated. High rate of growth of the economy cannot be sustained if the shortages in infrastructure are not properly tackled.

Bharat Nirman Programme initiated in 2005 focuses on the provision of the key elements of rural infrastructure such as irrigation, rural electrification, rural roads, rural drinking water supply and sanitation and housing for the poor and rural connectivity via community IT service centre. The Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) seeks to provide central assistance for urban infrastructure development. Two common characteristics of infrastructure items are the heavy expenditure needed and the long period of time needed before it starts yielding returns. For example, hydroelectric projects are costly and their completion takes lots of time. The Tipaimukh hydro electric project will cost around Rs 5200 crores. It may rise if it is further delayed.

Planning and Budget :

How does the government carry out these responsibilities? In India we have three tiers of government viz the central government, the state government and local self government. Local self government can be through municipal councils or panchayats or village councils. These activities need huge amount of money. One of the reasons why the role of the government is

indispensable is the huge amount of expenditure needed for financing these enabling activities to make the quality of life of the citizens better. In short to carry out the activities of the government lots of money are needed. That money is provided through the annual budget. The government, like an individual, has to mobilise the required resources through various means. Both the mobilisation of resources and expenditure have to be managed under well defined rules.

What exactly is planning? It is essentially setting out in advance what you want to achieve over a period of time and how you intend to realise it. For example if you want to become a doctor, you have to pass the medical entrance test and for that you should have a thorough preparation for the highly competitive entrance test. Like many of your friends you have to follow a rigorous schedule attending coaching classes. If you want to become an artist, your preparation has to be different. Preparing for the Indian Civil Services by studying in Delhi and attending coaching classes there is also a plan. A country may have many objectives like higher growth rate of national income, price stability and lower unemployment rate. These objectives can be realised by a proper plan.

In India development activities are taken up on the basis of five yearly plans. India has been committed to planned economic development since independence. It reflects the government's determination to improve the economic conditions of the people. It is also an affirmation of the role of the government. India's First Five Year Plan was launched in 1951. Currently we are in the Twelfth Five Year Plan. It started on 1st April 2012 and will last upto 31st March 2017. The work related with the preparation of the Five year plan is done by the Planning Commission, a body with the Prime Minister as its Chairman. This body has many members and advisors who are experts in different aspects of the economy. It is the responsibility of the Planning Commission to develop a workable plan. It is to realise the overall vision of the economy provided by the ruling party.

For example the ruling party may decide that the economy should grow at 9% per annum to tackle issues like unemployment and poverty. It may like to remove unemployment by 2020. Once this broad vision is spelt out the planning commission will prepare a plan for the economy to realise these objectives. The draft plan prepared in this manner will have to be approved by the National development Council before it becomes a plan document. All the chief ministers of states are also members of this body. Work on the Eleventh Plan started in 2006 and NDC approval was given on 19 Dec., 2007. The plan pays special attention to the needs of weaker sections including the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, other backward castes and minorities.

Table

Sectoral Allocation in India's XI th Five Year Plan(2007-12) (in Rs crore at 2006-7 price)		
Head	Projected allocation	% of total
Education	2,74,228	19.29
Rural development, land resources and panchayat Raj	1,90,330	13.39
Health, family welfare	1,23,900	8.71
Agriculture & irrigation	1,21,556	8.55
Social justice	90,273	6.35
Physical infrastructure	1,28,160	9.01
Scientific Departments	66,580	4.68
Energy	57,409	4.04
Total priority sector	10,52,436	74.03
Others	3,69,275	25.97
Total	14,21,711	100

The plan allocation stresses the importance of education followed by rural development.

The planning commission also helps the state governments to prepare their five year plans. Some state governments like Kerala and Karnataka have very active State Planning Boards to look after planning at the state level. Now every state government is encouraged to formulate district level plans also. In Manipur there is a State Planning Board to look after planning at state level.

In Manipur there is a state Planning Board to look after planning at state level. Manipur government has its Planning Department. Annual and Five Year Plan Proposals are prepared by the Planning Department.



Fig.26.7 Our ministers interacting with the Vice Chairman of the Planning Commission

How do we finance our expenditure ? A budget shows how we intend to finance our expenditure. A budget is simply a statement of proposed expenditure and expected receipts over a period of time, usually a financial year. A financial year in India starts on April 1st and ends on 31 st March next year.. Ideally speaking everyone should have a budget. You will face lots of difficulties if you spend much more than your regular pocket allowance. If your allowance is less than your requirement you borrow either from a bank or your relatives. The bank would like to check your repayment capability before any loan is

sanctioned. Even your relative would not like to lend any money if you are known as an irresponsible spender. Once you have contracted a loan you should pay interest and also repay the principal amount. Sometimes the amount needed for repayment becomes so large that not much is left for meeting your day to day requirements. You can save yourselves from such predicament by preparing a proper budget before starting the work. Your parents must be pursuing some livelihood from which they get some money to finance your plan. You have to ensure that the money is not wasted.

Tomba wants to become a doctor. Then his monthly budget may look like this

Table 2

TOMBA'S MONTHLY BUDGET

Expected receipts		Expected expenditure	
From father for coaching	Rs 5000	Coaching fee to be paid	Rs.5000
From father for buying reference books	Rs 5000	Expenditure on reference books	Rs 8000
Pocket money to from mother	Rs 1000	Expenditure on mobile recharge/entertainment	Rs 500
Total	Rs 11,000	Total	Rs13,500

Tomba's budget is in deficit and he will be in difficulty if his parents donot give him the amount expected from them. Tomba is going to spend more than what he expects to receive. His parents, however, do not mind giving him more money to meet the extra expenditure. Because he is spending more on reference books and having these books will give an advantage over his competitors. If Tomba overspends because of high expenditure on mobile recharge his parents would have been unhappy. They would have advised him not to overspend. They may even refuse to give him any extra pocket money.

ment maintains three accounts which are known as consolidated fund, contingency fund and public account. Does the government maintain a single fund to draw upon? No, the govern-

Government Revenue and Expenditure :

proper budget should be subsequently presented and passed in the Parliament. However, a budget to enable the government to draw from the Consolidated fund. A vote-on-account budget may be presented and passed as an interim budget, when a new government assumes power with little time for preparation of a budget. A provision will have to be passed after due deliberation. Some-

the Consolidated Fund of the Union if the Parliament does not approve the budget. Some proposals may be amended also. Not a single paisa can be withdrawn from allowances, the proposals in the budget are discussed in detail in the Lok Sabha. the amount of money you have asked for and what you did with your earlier year in the Lok Sabha. Just as your parents ask you what you are going to do with Minister normally presents the Union budget in the last week of February every tax rates and sales taxes are closely watched rates in any budget. The Finance tends to mobilise the resources necessary for financing its requirements. Income hospitals, educational institutions etc. It also spells out how the government in- the government etc. The latter is essentially expenditure for construction of roads, prizes of terms like salaries and pensions, interest payments for loans incurred by year to finance consumption expenditure and capital expenditure. The former com- The budget spells out the requirements of the government over a financial government will not be able to spend a single paisa from its fund.

cannot be missed. If any government fails to pass a budget before 1st April the sented in the parliament. States present their budgets in state assemblies. This a very hectic schedule because it is the month in which the Union Budget is pre- country's economic life. Every February business houses and economists have Budget was presented by then Finance Minister, R K Shanmukham Chetty on No- vember 26, 1947. A budget reflects and shapes, and also, in turn is shaped by the get has also become a significant statement of government's policy. First Union Since Independence, with the launching of Five Year Plans, the Union bud-

All revenues received by Government, loans raised by it, and also its receipts from recoveries of loans granted by it form the Consolidated Fund. All expenditure of union Government is incurred from the Consolidated Fund of India with authorisation from Parliament. This is a check on the power of the government to ensure that public money is properly spent. There are various committees to ensure this.

The budget shows separately, certain disbursements as 'charged' on the Consolidated Fund of India, and certain items as 'voted'. The 'charged' items of expenditure are emoluments of the President, salaries and allowances of the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Rajya Sabha and the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Lok Sabha, salaries, allowances and pensions of Judges of the Supreme Court, the Comptroller and Auditor-General of India, interest on and repayment of loans raised by Government and payments made to satisfy decrees of courts etc. These items of expenditure are charged on the Consolidated Fund of India and are not required to be voted by the Lok Sabha. Any other expenditure out of the Consolidated Fund such as salary for the Prime Minister, MPs etc has to be 'voted'.

The Contingency Fund of India is a fund placed at the disposal of the President of India to facilitate Government to meet urgent unforeseen expenditure pending authorization from Parliament. The amount of the Contingency Fund as authorized by Parliament presently stands at Rs.500 crore.

Money held by Government in trust as Provident Funds, Small Savings Collections, income of Government set apart for expenditure on specific objects like road development, primary education, Reserve/Special Funds etc. are kept in the Public Account. Public Account funds do not belong to Government and have to be finally paid back to the persons and authorities who deposited them. Parliamentary authorisation for such payments is, therefore, not required,

Revenue Budget consists of the revenue receipts of Government (tax revenues and other revenues) and the expenditure met from these revenues. . Revenue expenditure is essentially consumption expenditure. Revenue receipt is current income. Taxes are important sources of revenue receipts. Other receipts of

Government mainly consist of interest and dividend on investments made by Government, fees, and other receipts for services rendered by Government. Revenue expenditure is for the normal running of Government departments and various services, interest payments on debt, subsidies, etc. Broadly the expenditure which does not result in creation of assets for the Government is treated as revenue expenditure. All grants given to State Governments/Union Territories and other parties are also treated as revenue expenditure even though some of the grants may be used for creation of assets.

Capital Budget consists of capital receipts and capital payments. The capital receipts are loans raised by Government from public, called market loans, borrowings by Government from Reserve Bank and other parties through sale of Treasury Bills, loans received from foreign Governments and bodies, and recoveries of loans from State and Union Territory Governments and other parties. Capital payments consist of capital expenditure on acquisition of assets like land, buildings, machinery, equipment, as also investments in shares, etc., and loans and advances granted by Central Government to State and Union Territory Governments, Government companies, Corporations and other parties. Capital Budget also incorporates transactions in the Public Account.

The estimates of expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of India required to be voted by the Lok Sabha are submitted in the form of Demands for Grants. Each Demand normally includes the total provisions required for a service, that is, provisions on account of revenue expenditure, capital expenditure, grants to State and Union Territory Governments and also loans and advances relating to the service.

After the Demands for Grants are voted by the Lok Sabha, Parliament's approval to the withdrawal from the Consolidated Fund of the amounts so voted and of the amount required to meet the expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund is sought through the Appropriation Bill. Under Article 114(3) of the Constitution, no amount can be withdrawn from the Consolidated Fund without the enactment of such a law by Parliament.

You may be incurring the deficit to finance your current consumption. It is also

possible that your deficit is due to your acquisition of a machine which is expected to give you a return over a period of time. From the former you do not get any monetary return and running into deficit for meeting current consumption is less desirable. The government may have three types of deficits - revenue deficit, fiscal deficit and primary deficit. A government has revenue deficit when its current consumption expenditure exceeds current receipts. Fiscal deficit is a measure of the amount to be borrowed by the government to meet its current consumption expenditure and capital expenditure. Primary deficit is fiscal deficit net of interest payment. This is necessary as most of the interest payments are related with loans taken by earlier governments. These are committed expenditure over which the incumbent has little control.

A village needs a school. Education is one of the many ways of empowering the people. A need is translated into reality through many steps. Let us see how the government builds the school. First of all the locality has to bring it to the notice of the authority who may be a panchayat member. He will forward the petition to the concerned authority. In this case it is the education department which will examine the proposal in detail. If it is found that the opening of the school will benefit many students, the department will endorse the proposal. Otherwise, the proposal may be vetoed. Once the proposal is accepted it has to be included in a plan. The money to finance the plan will be reflected in the budget. Being included in a plan is not sufficient, the budget provision has to be there. The expenditure for building a school will come from the consolidated fund as part of the capital budget. Any 'voted' expenditure needs the approval of the parliament and the expenditure for building a school also comes under it. Actual expenditure can take place after the appropriation bill is passed. Normally the government engages a contractor who will build the school and he is selected through a bidding process. The government calls for the tenders and contractors have to submit their quotation spelling out the possible costs acceptable to them. The contractor selected out of the bidders will now proceed to build the school. Many a times one hears about contractors doing their works unsatisfactorily. This can be checked to a large extent if the people are more vigilant ever ready to fight against any compromise in quality. If it is established beyond doubt that the work is sub standard the contractor may be penalised

and blacklisted . A blacklisted contractor is unlikely to get any contract work in the future. He may be asked to do the work again. But the local people who have a stake in the project should bring it to the notice of authority. Despite everything we should not expect the government to know everything. It is our government and we should also help it to work efficiently. Recently the Right to Information (RTI) act has given the power to the public to seek a wide range of information on government activities.

To sum up government is for the people. The many activities undertaken by the government enable the people to get their share of development. From the time you start your day to the time you go to sleep there are so many government activities that you have come to take the presence of the government for granted. Our lives would have been very difficult without a government. Sometimes unscrupulous people corner most of the benefits at the expense of those for whom these schemes have been devised. The quality of work is endlessly compromised. This calls for our increased vigilance. We need people like Anna Hazare to fight against corruption.

The public has to ensure that public works are taken up as per specification. Vigilance of the people will ensure that government activities are conducted for the people.

EXERCISES

1. Answer the following questions in one sentence :

- (a) Name three services provided by the government ?
- (b) When did five year plan start in India ?
- (c) Which five year plan is currently in operation ?
- (d) Who presents the union budget and where ?
- (e) What is a charged expenditure ?

2. Answer the following questions in about 30 to 40 words each:.

- (a) What do we have to do to use money from the consolidated fund of

Government of India ?

- (b) How is a budget related to a five year plan ?
- (c) What does our five year plan show ?
- (d) Why is infrastructure so important for development ?

3. Choose the correct answer:

- (i) The duration of the eleventh five year plan is
 - (A) Jan 2007-Jan 2012
 - (B) April 2007- March 2012
 - (C) Jan 2007- Dec 2012
 - (D) June 2007- July 2012
- (ii) The Union budget is first presented in the
 - (A) Lok sabha
 - (B) Rajya sabha
 - (C) State assembly
 - (D) Rastrapati Bhavan
- (iii) The chairman of the Planning Commission is
 - (A) President
 - (B) Vice President
 - (C) Prime Minister
 - (D) Speaker
- (iv) Of the following whose salary is a voted item ?
 - (A) President
 - (B) Speaker
 - (C) Prime minister
 - (D) Chairman of Rajya sabha
- (v) A five year plan , for implementation, has to be approved by
 - (A) Planning Commission
 - (B) Finance Commission
 - (C) National Development Council
 - (D) Prime Minister's advisory council

4. Which of the following statements are true:

- (a) Every year orange festival is held in Tamenglong district to encourage orange growers.
- (b) Below Poverty line (BPL) families can buy food grains at a price lower than the market price under the Targeted Public Distribution system (TPDS).

- (c) The Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) seeks to provide central assistance for rural development.
- (d) If any government fails to pass a budget before 1 st April the government will not be able to spend a single paisa from its fund.
- (e) The Contingency Fund of India is an imprest placed at the disposal of the Prime minister of India to facilitate Government to meet urgent unforeseen expenditure pending authorization from Parliament.

ACTIVITY

- **Take up any poverty alleviation programme undertaken by the government in your locality . With the help of your class teacher examine how effective the programme has been in achieving its targets.**