

General Knowledge &
Social Science Capsule for

ICAR-IARI
TECHNICIAN

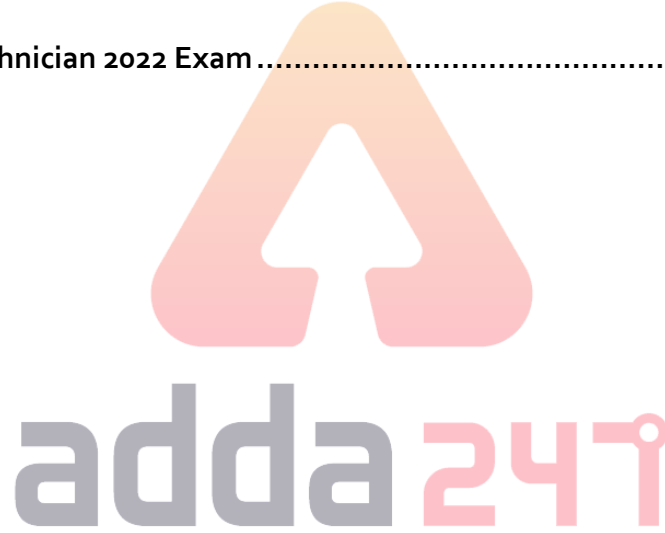
(T-1) 2022 Exam



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General Knowledge & Social Science Capsule for ICAR Technician (T-1) 2022 Exam

Indian Polity for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

Indian Constitution was adopted by the Constituent Assembly on 26 November 1949. It came into full operation with effect from 26 January 1950. The Constitution originally had 22 Parts, 395 Articles and 8 Schedules.

Framing of the Constitution:

- The Constitution of India was framed by a Constituent Assembly which was set up under the Cabinet mission plan (1946).
- The Constituent Assembly took almost 3 years (2 years, 11 months, & 18 days) to complete its historic task of drafting the Constitution for an Independent India.
- During this period, it held 11 sessions covering a total of 165 days. Of these, 114 days were spent on the consideration of & discussion on the Draft Constitution.
- As for the composition of the Assembly, members were chosen by indirect election by the members of the Provincial Legislative Assemblies, following the scheme recommended by the Cabinet Mission. The total membership of the assembly thus was to be 389.
- However, as a result of the partition, a separate Constituent Assembly was set up for Pakistan & representatives of some provinces ceased to be members of the Assembly. As a result, the membership of the Assembly was reduced to 299.

The Cabinet Mission

World War II in Europe came to an end on May 9, 1945. Three British cabinet ministers were sent to find a solution to the question of India's independence. This team of ministers (Lord Pethick Lawrence, Stafford Cripps, A V Alexander) was called the Cabinet Mission. The Mission was in India from March 1946 to May 1946. The Cabinet Mission discussed the framework of the constitution & laid down in some detail the procedure to be followed by the constitution drafting body. The Assembly began work on 9 December 1946.

First Interim National Government

The Government was constituted on 2 September, 1946. It was led by Pandit Nehru. All the members of the interim Government were members of Viceroy's Executive Council. The Viceroy continued to be the head of the Council. Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru was designated as the Vice-President of the Council.

The Constituent Assembly

- The people of India elected members of the provincial assemblies, who in turn elected the constituent assembly.
- Frank Anthony represented the Anglo-Indian community.
- Dr. Sachidanand Sinha was the president of the Constituent Assembly for first meeting. Later, Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected president of the Constituent Assembly while B.R. Ambedkar was appointed the Chairman of the Drafting Committee.

Sources of our Constitution

The Indian Constitution is borrowed from almost all the major countries of the world but has its own unique features too. Major sources are:

- Government of India Act of 1935** - Federal Scheme, Office of Governor, Judiciary, Public Service Commission, Emergency provisions & administrative details.
- British Constitution** – Parliamentary System, Rule of law, Legislative Procedure, Single Citizenship, Cabinet System, Prerogative Writs, Parliamentary Privileges & Bicameralism.
- US Constitution** – Fundamental rights, Independence of Judiciary, Judicial review, Impeachment of president, removal of Supreme Court & High Court judges & Post of Vice President.
- Irish Constitution**- Directive Principles of State Policy, Nomination of members of Rajya Sabha & method of election of President.
- Canadian Constitution**- Federation with a strong centre, vesting of residuary power in the centre, appointment of State Governor by the centre & advisory jurisdiction of Supreme Court.
- Australian Constitution**- Concurrent list, Joint Sitting of two houses of Parliament, Freedom of trade & commerce & intercourse.
- Constitution of Germany**- Suspension of fundamental rights during emergency.
- French Constitution**- Republic & ideals of liberty, equality & fraternity in the Preamble.
- South African Constitution**- Procedure for amendment of the constitution & election of members of Rajya Sabha.
- Japanese Constitution**- Procedure established by Law.
- Constitution of former USSR**: Fundamental duties, ideals of justice (social, economic & political) in Preamble.



BENGALI

Target ICAR

ই-বুক আকারে সম্পূর্ণ স্টাডি মেটেরিয়াল
 চাপ্টার ভিত্তিক MCQ ক্লাস

Starts Jan 3, 2022 **11 AM to 3 PM**

PARTS DESCRIBED IN THE CONSTITUTION

Part	Subject	Articles
Part I	The Union and its territory	Art. 1 to 4
Part II	Citizenship	Art. 5 to 11
Part III	Fundamental Rights	Art. 12 to 35
Part IV	Directive Principles	Art. 36 to 51
Part IVA	Fundamental Duties	Art. 51A
Part V	The Union	Art. 52 to 151
Part VI	The States	Art. 152 to 237
Part VII	Repealed by Const. (7th Amendment) Act, 1956	
Part VIII	The Union Territories	Art. 239 to 242
Part IX	The Panchayats	Art. 243 to 243O
Part IXA	The Municipalities	Art. 243P to 243ZG
Part IXB	The Co-operative Societies	Art. 243ZH to 243ZT
Part X	The Scheduled and Tribal Areas	Art. 244 to 244A
Part XI	Relations between the Union and the States	Art. 245 to 263
Part XII	Finance, Property, Contracts and Suits	Art. 264 to 300A
Part XIII	Trade, Commerce and Intercourse within the Territory of India	Art. 301 to 307
Part XIV	Services under the Union and the States	Art. 308 to 323
Part XIVA	Tribunals	Art. 323A to 323B
Part XV	Elections	Art. 324 to 329A
Part XVI	Special provisions relating to certain classes	Art. 330 to 342
Part XVII	Official Language	Art. 343 to 351
Part XVIII	Emergency Provisions	Art. 352 to 360
Part XIX	Miscellaneous	Art. 361 to 367
Part XX	Amendment of the Constitution	Art. 368
Part XXI	Temporary, Transitional and Special Provisions	Art. 369 to 392
Part XXII	Short title, commencement, authoritative text in Hindi and repeals	Art. 393 to 395

IMPORTANT SCHEDULES IN THE CONSTITUTION

Schedules 1 to 12
First schedule contains the list of states and union territories and their territories.
Second schedule contains provisions as to the President, Governors of States, Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the House of the People and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Council of States and the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assembly and the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Legislative Council of a State, the Judges of the Supreme Court and of the High Courts and the Comptroller and Auditor-General of India, the list of states and union territories and their territories.
Third Schedule contains the Forms of Oaths or Affirmations.
Fourth Schedule contains provisions as to the allocation of seats in the Council of States.
Fifth Schedule contains provisions as to the Administration and Control of Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes.
Sixth Schedule contains provisions as to the Administration of Tribal Areas in the States of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram.

Seventh Schedule contains the Union list, State list and the concurrent list.
Eighth Schedule contains the list of recognised languages.
Ninth Schedule contains provisions as to validation of certain Acts and Regulations.
Tenth Schedule contains provisions as to disqualification on ground of defection.
Eleventh Schedule (73 rd amendment) contains the powers, authority and responsibilities of Panchayats.
Twelfth Schedule (74 th amendment) contains the powers, authority and responsibilities of Municipalities.

PREAMBLE - A preamble is a brief introduction to a speech, like the Preamble to the Indian Constitution which states -

“WE, THE PEOPLE OF INDIA, having solemnly resolved to constitute India into a SOVEREIGN SOCIALIST SECULAR DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC and to secure to all its citizens:

JUSTICE, social, economic and political;

LIBERTY of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship;

EQUALITY of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all;

FRATERNITY assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation;

IN OUR CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY this 26th day of November, 1949, do HEREBY ADOPT, ENACT AND GIVE TO OURSELVES THIS CONSTITUTION.”

It was amended by 44th Amendment Act, 1976.

PART-I : THE UNION AND ITS TERRITORIES

Part I of Indian Constitution is titled The Union and its Territory.

Article 1 : Name and territory of the Union.

Article 2 : Admission or establishment of new States.

Article 3 : Formation of new States and alteration of areas, boundaries or names of existing States.

Article 4 : Laws made under articles 2 and 3 to provide for the amendment of the First and the Fourth Schedule and supplemental, incidental and consequential matters.

PART-II : CITIZENSHIP

A citizen is a person who enjoys full membership of the community or State in which he lives or ordinarily lives. The State demands extra duty from its citizen which cannot be asked to non-citizens. 42nd Constitution (Amendment) Act, 1976 has inserted 10 Fundamental Duties in Article 51-A.

Ways to acquire Indian Citizenship

Constitution of India under Citizenship (Amendment) Act, 1986 provides five ways to acquire citizenship of India. These five ways are:

- Citizenship by Birth
- Citizenship by Descent
- Citizenship by Registration
- Citizenship by Naturalization
- Citizenship by incorporation of Territory

PART-III : FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS

- They are **justiciable**, allowing persons to move the courts for their enforcement, if & when they are violated.
- They are defended & guaranteed by the Supreme Court. Hence, the aggrieved person can directly go to the Supreme Court. They can be suspended during the operation of a National Emergency except the rights guaranteed by Articles 20 & 21. More, the six rights guaranteed by Article 19 can be suspended only when emergency is declared on the grounds of war or external aggression.

Originally the Constitution provided for seven fundamental rights:

- Right to equality [Art. 14-18]
- Right to freedom [Art. 19-22]
- Right against exploitation [Art. 23-24]
- Right to freedom [Art. 25-28]
- Cultural & educational rights [Art. 29-30]
- Right to property [Art. 31]
- Right to constitutional remedies [Art. 32]

However, the 'right to property' was deleted from the list of fundamental rights by the **44th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1978**. It has been made a legal right under **Article 300A** in the Constitution. So, at present, there are only six fundamental rights.

To enforce the Fundamental Rights, the Supreme Court and High Court is empowered, under Article 32 and 226 respectively, to issue writs of various forms.

PART-IV: Directive Principles of State Policy [Article 36 to 51]

The phrase 'Directive Principles of State Policy' denotes the ideals that the State should keep in mind while formulating policies & enacting laws. It includes the legislative & executive organs of the central & state governments, all local authorities & all other public authorities in the country. The Directive Principles are **non-justiciable in nature**, that is, they are not legally enforceable by the courts for their violation. Therefore, the government cannot be compelled to implement them. They aim at providing social & economic justice of the people.

PART-IV A : FUNDAMENTAL DUTIES

A list of ten fundamental duties was included in the Indian Constitution by the **42nd Amendment Act, 1976 in the form of Article 51 A**. For this a new part was created in the Constitution in the form of Part IV-A. **It is based on the Japanese model**. The idea of including a separate chapter on duties was recommended by the **Swaran Singh Committee** in view of the fact that duties & rights are inseparable. Moreover, subsequently **11th duty has been added by Constitution (86th Amendment) Act, 2002 in the form of 51 A (k)**. It reads:

"It shall be the duty of every citizen of India who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six & fourteen years."

THE UNION EXECUTIVE

The President

Article 52 – There shall be a President of India.

Article 53 – The executive power of the Union shall be vested in the President.

Thus the President is:

- (1) Executive head of the Republic.
- (2) All the executive actions are taken in his name. The executive power vested in the President is to be exercised on the aid & advice of the Council of Ministers [Article 74(1)]. It is obligatory on the part of President to accept the advice of the council of ministers as per the 42nd and 44th Constitutional Amendment Acts.
- (3) He is the first citizen of India & occupies the first position under the warrant of precedence. Warrant of Precedence indicates the hierarchy of positions occupied by various dignitaries attending a state function.
- (4) He is the Supreme Commander of Armed Forces.

Election of the President

The President of India is elected by indirect election. He is elected by an electoral college in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote & the vote being secret.

Article 54 –

The Electoral College consists of:

- (a) The elected members of both houses of Parliament (nominated members are not the members of electoral college)
- (b) The elected members of the Legislative Assemblies of the States (including National Capital Territory of Delhi & the Union Territory of Puducherry)

Manner of Election of the President

The provisions dealing with the manner of election of the President of India are provided in Article 55. He is elected following the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote.

Article 62 of the Constitution provides that an election to fill a vacancy shall be held as soon as possible after & in no case later than six months from, the date of occurrence of the vacancy (if such occurrence of vacancy is caused by resignation or death or impeachment or otherwise).

Qualification for election as President

- (a) He must be a citizen of India.
- (b) He must have completed the age of 35 years.
- (c) He must be qualified for election as a Member of the House of the People.
- (d) He must not hold any office of Profit under the Govt. of India or the Govt. of any State or under any local or other authority subject to the control of any of the said Govt. However, following persons are not deemed to be holding any office of profit & hence they cannot be disqualified for election as the President. **A sitting President or Vice-President of India/Governor of any state/A minister of the Union or of any State.**

Eligibility for re-election

A person, who holds or who has held office as President shall be eligible for re-election to that office.

Impeachment of the President(Article 61)

- (1) The President can be removed from his office before the expiry of his term by the process of impeachment.
- (2) The President can be impeached only for the violation of the Constitution.
- (3) It is a quasi-judicial procedure.
- (4) The impeachment procedure can be initiated in either House of the Parliament. The resolution must be signed by at least 1/4th of the total membership of the House. Before the resolution could be passed, a 14-day notice must be given to the President. Such a Resolution must be passed by a majority of not less than 2/3rd of the total membership of the House.
- (5) Then, the other House of Parliament called the "Investigating House" investigates the charges by itself or cause the charge to be investigated.
- (6) The President has the right to appear & to be represented at such investigation to defend him.
- (7) If, as a result of the investigation the other House also passes a resolution supported by not less than 2/3rd of the total membership of House, the President stands removed from his office from the date on which the investigating House passed the resolution.

Note:

- (a) The elected members of the legislative assemblies of States have no role in the impeachment proceedings, while they elect the President.
- (b) The nominated members of the Parliament have the right to deliberate & vote when the resolution of impeachment is under consideration while they have no vote in the election of the President.

Vacancy filled up with Acting President

(1) In case the office of the President falls vacant due to death, resignation or impeachment the Vice-President or in his absent. Chief Justice of Supreme Court or on his absence, senior most Judge of the Supreme Court becomes President till the fresh election for the Post & new incumbent assumes office.

(2) If the President is not able to discharge his duties due to sickness or absence due to any other reasons, the Vice-President discharges the functions of the President & is entitled to the same salary, allowances & privileges which are available to the President under the constitution.

Legislative powers of President

The legislative Powers of President are as follows:

1. The President summons both the Houses of the Parliament & prorogues them. He or she can dissolve the Lok Sabha according to the advice of the Council of Ministers headed by the Prime Minister.
2. President inaugurates the Parliament by addressing it after the general elections & also at the beginning of the first session each year.
3. All bills passed by the Parliament can become laws only after receiving the assent of the President. The President can return a bill to the Parliament, if it is not a money bill or a constitutional amendment bill, for reconsideration. When after reconsideration, the bill is passed & presented to the President, with or without amendments; President is obliged to assent to it.
4. The President can also withhold his assent to the bill thereby exercising pocket veto.
5. When both Houses of the Parliament are not in session & if Government feels the need for immediate action, President can promulgate ordinances which have the same force & effect as laws passed by Parliament.

Executive powers of President

The executive powers of President are as follows:

1. The President appoints the PM, the President then appoints the other members of the Council of Ministers, distributing portfolios to them on the advice of the PM.
2. The President is responsible for making a wide variety of appointments. These include:
Governors of States/The Chief Justice, other judges of the Supreme Court & High Courts of India/The Attorney General/The Comptroller & Auditor General/The Chief Election Commissioner & other Election Commissioners/ The Chairman & other Members of the Union Public Service Commission/ Ambassadors & High Commissioners to other countries.
3. The President is the Commander in Chief of the Indian Armed Forces.

Financial powers of President

1. All money bills originate in Parliament, but only if the President recommends it.
2. He or she causes the Annual Budget & supplementary Budget before Parliament.
4. The President appoints a finance commission every five years.

Judicial powers of President

1. The president appoints the Chief Justice of the Union Judiciary & other judges on the advice of the Chief Justice.
2. The President dismisses the judges if & only if the two Houses of the Parliament pass resolutions to that effect by two-thirds majority of the members present.
3. He/she has the right to grant pardon. The President can suspend, remit or commute the death sentence of any person.

Pardon - completely absolves the offender

Reprieve - temporary suspension of the sentence

Commutation - substitution of one form a punishment for another form which is of a lighter character

Respite - awarding a lesser sentence on special ground

Remission - reducing the amount of sentence without changing its character

Diplomatic powers of President

All international treaties & agreements are negotiated & concluded on behalf of the President. However, in practice, such negotiations are usually carried out by the PM along with his Cabinet (especially the Foreign Minister).

Military powers of President

The President is the supreme commander of the defense forces of India. The President can declare war or conclude peace, subject to the approval of parliament. All important treaties & contracts are made in president's name.

Emergency powers of President

The President can declare three types of emergencies: national, state & financial. Under Article 352, 356 & 360.

Vice President of India

The Vice-President is elected by an electoral college consisting of members of both Houses of Parliament, in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote & the voting in such election is by secret ballot. The Electoral College to elect a person to the office of the Vice-President consists of all members of both Houses of Parliament. He is ex-officio chairman of Rajya Sabha.

The Vice-President should not be a member of either House of Parliament or of a House of a Legislature of any state. If a member of either House of Parliament or of a House of a Legislature of any state is elected as Vice-President, he is deemed to have vacated his seat in that House on the date he/she enters his office as Vice-President.

A person cannot be elected as Vice-President unless she/he-

- is a citizen of India has completed the age of 35 years.
- is qualified for election as a member of the Council of States (Rajya Sabh(a)).
- Holds any office of profit under the Government of India or a State Government or any subordinate local authority.

Removal of Vice President

The Constitution states that the Vice President can be removed by a resolution of the Rajya Sabha passed by an absolute majority (more than 50% of total membership) & agreed to by a simple majority (50% of voting members) of the Lok Sabha [Article 67(a)].

Powers & functions of a Vice President

The functions of Vice-President are two fold:

1. He acts as the ex-officio Chairman of Rajya Sabha. In this capacity, his powers & functions are similar to those of the Speaker of Lok Sabha.
2. He acts as President when a vacancy occurs in the office of the President due to his resignation, removal, death or otherwise. He can act as President only for a maximum period of six months, within which a new President has to be elected. Further, when the sitting President is unable to discharge his functions due to absence, illness or any other cause, the Vice-President discharges his functions until the President resumes his office.

While acting as President or discharging the functions of President, the Vice-President does not perform the duties of the office of the chairman of Rajya Sabha. During this period, those duties are performed by the Deputy Chairman of Rajya Sabha.

- If the offices of both the President & the Vice-President fall vacant by reason of death, resignation, removal etc the Chief Justice of India or in his absence the seniormost judge of the Supreme Court acts as President.
- For the first time, during the 15-day visit of Dr. Rajendra Prasad to the Soviet Union in June 1960, the then Vice-President Dr. Radhakrishnan acted as the President.
- For the first time, in 1969, when the President Dr. Zakir Hussain died & the Vice-President V.V. Giri resigned, the Chief Justice Md. Hidayatullah acted as President.



Prime Minister

In the scheme of parliamentary system of government provided by the Constitution, the President is the nominal executive (de Jur(e) authority & PM is the real executive (de Facto) authority. The President is the head of the State while PM is the head of the government.

Appointment of the PM

Article 75 says that the PM shall be appointed by the President. The President appoints the leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha as the PM. But, when no party has a clear majority in the Lok Sabha, then the President may exercise his personal discretion in the selection & appointment of the PM.

Term

The term of the PM is not fixed & he holds office during the pleasure of the President. So long as the PM enjoys the majority support in the Lok Sabha, he cannot be dismissed by the President. However, if he loses the confidence of the Lok Sabha, he must resign or the President can dismiss him.

Powers & functions of PM

- He recommends persons who can be appointed as ministers by the President.
- He can recommend dissolution of the Lok Sabha to the President at any time.
- He is the chairman of the NITI Aayog, National Development Council, National Integration Council, Inter-State Council & National Water Resources Council.

The Union Council of Ministers

As the Constitution of India provides for a parliamentary system of government modelled on the British pattern, the council of ministers headed by the PM is the real executive authority. Article 74 deals with the status of the council of ministers while Article 75 deals with the appointment, tenure, responsibility, qualification, oath & salaries & allowances of the ministers.

Note:

The total number of ministers, including the PM, in the Council of Ministers shall not exceed 15% of the total strength of the Lok Sabha (91st Constitutional Amendment Act, 2003)

The council of ministers shall be collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha. A person who is not a member of either House can also become a minister but he cannot continue as minister for more than six months unless he secures a seat in either House of Parliament (by election/ nomination). [Art. 75(5)]

The council of ministers consists of three categories: Cabinet ministers, Ministers of State, & Deputy ministers.

Cabinet Ministers: The cabinet ministers head the important ministries of the Central government like home, defence, finance & external affairs.

Ministers of State: The ministers of state can either be given independent charge of ministries/departments or can be attached to cabinet ministers.

Deputy Ministers: The deputy ministers are not given independent charge of ministries/departments & always assist the Cabinet or State Minister or both. They are not members of the cabinet & do not attend cabinet meetings.

Minister may be taken from members of either House & minister who is member of one House has the right to speak & take part in the proceedings of the other House but cannot vote in the House of which he is not member. [Art. 88]

PARLIAMENT OF INDIA

The House of the People (Lok Sabha)

The Lok Sabha is the popular house of the parliament because its members are directly elected by the common electorates of India. All the members of this House are popularly elected, except not more than two from the Anglo-Indian community, who can be nominated by the President. In the Constitution, the strength of the Lok Sabha is provisioned under Art. 81 to be not more than 552 (530 from the States, 20 from the Union Territories & 2 may be nominated from the Anglo-Indian community). The Government has extended this freeze in the Lok Sabha seats till the year 2026 by Constitution (84th Amendment Act, 2001). According to 104th constitutional amendment reserved seats for the Anglo-Indian community in the Lok Sabha and state assemblies is now removed.

Special Powers of the Lok Sabha

1. Money & Financial Bills can only originate in the Lok Sabha.
2. In case of a Money Bill, the Rajya Sabha has only the right to make recommendation & the Lok Sabha may or may not accept the recommendation. Lok Sabha enjoys exclusive legislative jurisdiction over the passage of the Money Bills.
3. The Council of Ministers are responsible only to the Lok Sabha & hence the Confidence & No-confidence motions can be introduced in this House only.
4. Under Art. 352, the Lok Sabha in a special sitting can disapprove the continuance of a national emergency proclaimed by the President, even if the Rajya Sabha rejects such a resolution.

Tenure of the Lok Sabha

The normal tenure of the Lok Sabha is five years. But the House can be dissolved by the President even before the end of the normal tenure. Also, the life of the Lok Sabha can be extended by the Parliament beyond the five-year term during the period of national emergency proclaimed under Art. 352.

Qualifications for the membership of Lok Sabha

1. be a citizen of India.
2. be not less than 25 years of age.
3. be a registered voter in any of the Parliamentary constituencies in India.
5. should not hold any office of profit.
6. Should not be insolvent.
7. Should not be mentally unsound.

Speaker & Deputy Speaker of Lok Sabha

1. Chief presiding officer of the Lok Sabha.
2. The Speaker presides over the meetings of the House & his rulings on the proceedings of the House are final.
3. The Speaker & Deputy Speaker may be removed from their offices by a resolution passed by the House by an effective majority of the House after a prior notice of 14 days to them.
4. The Speaker, to maintain impartiality of his office, votes only in case of a tie i.e to remove a deadlock & this is known as the Casting Vote.

Special powers of the Speaker

1. Whether a Bill is Money Bill or not is certified only by the Speaker & his decision in this regard is final & binding.
2. The Speaker, or in his absence, the Deputy Speaker, presides over the joint-sittings of the parliament.
3. The committees of parliament function essentially under the Speaker & their chairpersons are also appointed or nominated by him. Members of the Rajya Sabha are also present in some of these committees.
4. If the Speaker is a member of any committee, he is the ex-officio chairman of such a committee.

Special position of the Speaker

1. Though he is an elected member of the Lok Sabha, he continues to hold his office even after the dissolution of the House till a new Lok Sabha is constituted. This is because he not only presides & conducts the parliamentary proceedings but also acts as the Head of the Lok Sabha Secretariat which continues to function even after the House is dissolved.
2. The Speaker presides over the joint sitting of the two Houses of the Parliament.
3. Speaker certifies a Bill as Money Bill & his decision is final in this regard.
4. The Speaker is ex-officio President of Indian Parliamentary Group which in India functions as the national group of Inter parliament Union.

Pro tem Speaker

As provided by the Constitution, the Speaker of the last Lok Sabha vacates his office immediately before the first meeting of the newly elected Lok Sabha. Therefore, the President appoints a member of the Lok Sabha as the *Pro tem* Speaker. The President himself administers oath to the *Pro tem* Speaker. The *Pro tem* Speaker has all the powers of the Speaker. He presides over the first sitting of the newly elected Lok Sabha. His main duty is to administer oath to the new members.

RAJYA SABHA

The Rajya Sabha (RS) or Council of States is the upper house of the Parliament of India. Membership is limited to 250 members, 12 of whom are nominated by the President of India for their contributions to art, literature, science, & social services.

The remainder of the body is elected by the state & territorial legislatures. Members sit for six-year terms, with one third of the members retiring every two years. The Rajya Sabha meets in continuous sessions and, unlike the Lok Sabha, the lower house of Parliament, is not subject to dissolution. The Vice President of India (currently, Venkaiah Naidu) is the ex-officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha, who presides over its sessions. The Deputy Chairman who is elected from amongst the RS members, takes care of the day-to-day matters of the house in the absence of the Chairman. The Rajya Sabha held its first sitting on 13 May 1952.

Leader of the House

Besides the Chairman (Vice-President of India) & the Deputy Chairman, there is also a function called Leader of the House. This is a cabinet minister - the PM if he is a member of the House, or another nominated minister. The Leader has a seat next to the Chairman, in the front row.

Qualifications for the membership of Rajya Sabha

- be a citizen of India.
- be 30 years of age or more.
- not be holding any office of profit under the central or state Government or local body &
- possess all other qualification prescribed by the act of parliament from time to time.

Powers of Rajya Sabha

It enjoys co-equal power with the Lok Sabha in respect of all bills other than money bill. In case of Money Bills, Rajya Sabha has no powers.

Exclusive Functions of Rajya Sabha

The Rajya Sabha, under Article 249, may by a special majority of two-thirds votes adopt a resolution asking the Parliament to make laws on subjects of the State list, in the national interest. This resolution gets due attention from the Parliament. The resolution remains valid for one year only which however can be extended further in terms of another one year.

Secondly, Rajya Sabha can take steps to create All India Services by adopting resolutions supported by special majority in the national interest.

Thirdly, Rajya Sabha has the exclusive right to initiate a resolution for the removal of the Vice-President. This becomes the exclusive right of the Rajya Sabha because the Vice-President happens to be its Chairman & draws his salary as such.

DIFFERENT TERMS RELATED TO PARLIAMENT

(a) Summoning

The President from time to time summons each House of Parliament to meet. But, the maximum gap between two sessions of Parliament cannot be more than six months. In other words, the Parliament should meet at least twice a year. There are usually three sessions in a year:

- the Budget Session (February to May);
- the Monsoon Session (July to September); and
- the Winter Session (November to December).

The period between the prorogation of a House & its reassembly in a new session is called 'recess'.

(b) Joint Sitting

Under Article 108, there is a Provision of Joint sitting of both the Houses of the Parliament.

The Lok Sabha speaker presides over the joint sitting [Art. 118(4)].

There are only three occasions in the history of Indian Parliament that the joint sessions of the Parliament took place.

They are as follows:

- In May 1961, for Dowry Prohibition Bill, 1959.
- In May 1978, for Banking Services Commission.
- In 2002 for POTA (Prevention of Terrorism Act).

Joint sitting of both Houses can be convened on two occasions:

- For resolving any deadlock over the passage of a Bill.
- Special address by the President at the commencement of the first session after each general election of the Lok Sabha; First Session of each year (the Budget Session).

Note: Joint sitting cannot be called for resolving deadlock regarding "Money Bill" & "Constitution Amendment Bill".

(c) Prorogation

The presiding officer (Speaker or Chairman) declares the House adjourned *sine die*, when the business of a session is completed. Within the next few days, the President issues a notification for prorogation of the session. However, the President can also prorogue the House while in session.

(d) Adjournment

This is a short recess within a session of the Parliament, called by the presiding officer of the House. Its duration may be from a few minutes to days together.

(e) Adjournment *sine die*

When the House is adjourned without naming a day for reassembly, it is called adjournment *sine die*.

Grounds for disqualification of members of Parliament

There are five grounds for disqualification of Member of Parliament.

- Article 102(1) (a): A Member of Parliament shall be disqualified from being a member of House, if he holds any office of profit under state other than an office declared by Parliament by law not to disqualify its holder.
- Article 102(1) (b): If the Member of Parliament is of unsound mind & stands so declared by the court of law
- Article 102(1) (c): If he is a discharged insolvent declared by court of law.

- Article 102(1) (d): If he is not a citizen of India or has acquired the citizenship of a foreign state or is under any acknowledgement of allegiance to a foreign state.
- Article 102(2): If a person is disqualified being a Member of Parliament under anti-Defection Law (Tenth Schedule)(e).

Legislative procedures in Parliament

The legislative procedure is identical in both the Houses of Parliament. Every bill has to pass through the same stages in each House. **A bill is a proposal for legislation & it becomes an act or law when duly enacted.**

Bills introduced in the Parliament are of two kinds: **public bills & private bills** (also known as government bills & private members bills respectively). Though both are governed by the same general procedure & pass through the same stages in the House, they differ in various respects.

BILLS IN PARLIAMENT

The four kinds of bills mentioned in the Constitution are:

- Ordinary Bill
- Money Bill
- Financial Bill
- Constitutional Amendment Bill

Ordinary Bill

Any bill other than Money, Financial or Constitution Amendment bill is called an Ordinary bill. It can be introduced in either Houses of the Parliament. It does not need the recommendation of the President for its introduction in Parliament (except a bill under article 3). It is passed by a simple majority by both the Houses. They enjoy equal legislative powers over the passage of an ordinary bill. If there is a deadlock over the bill it can be resolved in a joint sitting of both the Houses of Parliament.

Money Bill

A bill that deals exclusively with money matters that are mentioned in Article 110 in Constitution is called a Money Bill. These Money matters are:

- (1) Imposition, abolition or alternation of any tax.
- (2) The borrowing of any money or giving any guarantee by the Govt. of India.
- (3) The custody of the Consolidated Fund of India or Contingency fund of India or deposition or withdrawal of any money from any such funds.
- (4) The appropriation of the money out of the Consolidated Fund of India.
- (5) Declaring any expenditure as charged on the Consolidated Fund of India.
- (6) The receipt of money on the account of consolidated Fund of India or Public Account of India.
- (7) Any matter that is incidental to the above matters.

A money bill can be introduced only in Lok Sabha on the recommendation of the President. It is passed by a simple majority by both the Houses of Parliament. The Lok Sabha enjoys overriding legislative power in the passage of a money bill & Rajya Sabha cannot reject or approve a money bill by virtue of its own legislative power. Any money bill shall bear the certificate of speaker that it is a money bill. The Speaker's decision in this regard is final & binding & cannot be questioned in any court of law.

A money bill is transmitted to Rajya Sabha after it has been passed by Lok Sabha. The Rajya Sabha can exercise any of the following four options:

- (i) It can pass the bill.
- (ii) It rejects the bill outright – upon being rejected the bill is deemed to have been passed by both the Houses.
- (iii) The Rajya Sabha does not pass the bill for 14 days, then on the expiry of 14th day after having received the bill it is deemed to have been passed by both the Houses.
- (iv) The Rajya Sabha suggests amendments to the bill, the bill then goes back to the Lower House. If the Lok Sabha accepts one or more of the amendment then the bill is deemed to have been passed in that form on the other hand if Lok Sabha rejects the amendment then the bill is deemed to have been passed in its original form.

There is no deadlock between the Houses over the passage of a money bill. When a money bill is presents to the President, under the Constitution he shall declare that he gives assent or withhold assent.

Financial Bill

A Bill apart from dealing with one or more money matters if also deals with one or more non-money matters then it is called a financial Bill. It is introduced in the same manner as that of money Bill. Since it contains non-money matters after its introduction, it is passed in same manner an ordinary bill is passed.

Constitutional Amendment Bill

A bill introduced under article 368 to amend one or more provisions of the Constitution is called a Constitutional Amendment Bill. It can be introduced in either House of the Parliament. It does not require the recommendation of President for its introduction. It shall be passed by both the House of the Parliament sitting separately by majority of not less than 2/3rd of members present & voting & a majority of total strength of the House. The Constitution does not provide for a joint sitting of both the Houses of the Parliament if a deadlock develop between the two Houses over the passage of a Constitutional Amendment Bill.

- **101st Amendment Act** : Amendment of article 248, 249, 250, 268, 269, 270, 271, 286, 366, 368, sixth schedule, seventh schedule. Deletion of Article 268A. It was enforced since 8 September 2016. It is related to the Goods and Services Tax Bill.
- **102nd Amendment Act** : Constitutional status to National Commission for Backward Classes

- **103rd Amendment Act** : A maximum of 10% Reservation for Economically Weaker Sections (EWSs) of citizens of classes other than the classes mentioned in clauses (4) and (5) of Article 15.
- **104th Amendment Act**: To extend the reservation of seats for SCs and STs in the Lok Sabha and states assemblies from Seventy years to Eighty years. Removed the reserved seats for the Anglo-Indian community in the Lok Sabha and state assemblies.

Veto power of the President:

A bill passed by the Parliament can become an act only if it receives the assent of the President. However, the President has the veto power over the bills passed by the Parliament, i.e. he can withhold his assent to the bills.

- **Absolute Veto**

It refers to the power of the President to withhold his assent to a bill passed by the Parliament. The bill then ends & does not become an act. Usually, this veto is exercised in the following two cases:

- (a) With respect to private members bills; &
- (b) With respect to the government bills when the cabinet resigns (after the passage of the bills but before the assent by the President) & the new cabinet advises the President not to give his assent to such bills.

- **Suspensive Veto**

The President exercises this veto when he returns a bill for reconsideration of the Parliament. However, if the bill is passed again by the Parliament with or without amendments & again presented to the President, it is obligatory for the President to give his assent to the bill. The President does not possess this veto in the case of money bills.

- **Pocket Veto**

In this case, the President neither ratifies nor rejects nor returns the bill, but simply keeps the bill pending for an indefinite period. This power of the President not to take any action (either positive or negative) on the bill is known as pocket veto. There is no time limit for the President to give comment on bills under this veto.

Emergency provisions in India

Emergency provisions are adopted in India from Weimar Constitution of Germany.

In Indian constitution there are three kind of emergency provisions:

- (1) Article 352 – National Emergency
- (2) Article 356 – President's Rule
- (3) Article 360 – Financial Emergency

National Emergency (Article 352)

- (a) If the President is satisfied that there exist a grave emergency whether due to war or external aggression or armed rebellion, then President can proclaim emergency to that effect. Such a proclamation can be made for the whole of India or any part thereof. The President can proclaim National Emergency only on the written advice of the Cabinet.
- (b) The President has power to revoke or modify the National Emergency. All such proclamations of Emergency shall have to be sent to Parliament for approval & it ceases to be operational if not approved within 1 month of the proclamation of Emergency. Such approval by Parliament is to be on the basis of Special Majority of not less than 2/3rd of members present & voting & the majority of the House. Emergency shall be imposed for not more than 6 months from the date of approval.
- (c) At the expiry of 6 months it ceases unless approved by Parliament again. If Lok Sabha is dissolved then proclamation of Emergency, it must be approved by the Rajya Sabha within 1 month & reconstituted Lok Sabha must approve within 1 month of its reconstitution.
- (d) Lok Sabha enjoys powers to disapprove continuation of Emergency at any stage. In such case if not less than 1/10th of members (55) of Lok Sabha give in writing to the Speaker if Lok Sabha is in session or to the President if Lok Sabha is not in the session, expressing intention to more resolution for the disapproval of National Emergency. Then special session of Lok Sabha shall be convened within 14 days. If Lok Sabha disapproves continuance of National Emergency then President shall have to revoke National Emergency.

Emergency in States on President's Rule (Article 356)

Under Article 356 if the President is satisfied on the report of Governor or otherwise that there exists a grave situation in a State where the administration of the State cannot be carried out in accordance with provisions of Constitution, then he can:

- (a) Takeover the administration of the State himself and
- (b) Notify that the Parliament shall exercise jurisdiction over State subject for the State concerned, the President cannot take over the powers conferred on the High Courts of State concerned.

Every proclamation made under Article 356 ceases to be in operation unless approved by both Houses of the Parliament within 2 months after its proclamation. Once, approved by Parliament, Emergency shall be enforced for not more than 6 months from the date of proclamation by the President.

Such an approval by the Parliament needs only simple Majority. If Lok Sabha stands dissolved then Rajya Sabha shall have to approve it within 2 months & Lok Sabha shall approve it within 1 month of its reconstitution. However, Parliament can extend it for a further period of 6 months only.

If it has to approve beyond 1 year then two conditions shall have to be satisfied.

- There shall be National Emergency in force either in whole of the State concerned or in part thereof.
- Election Commission is satisfied that under prevailing conditions general election to State Legislative Assembly of the State concerned cannot be held.
- But under no circumstances, State Emergency cannot be extended beyond 3 years. To extend it further, constitutional amendment is required.

Financial Emergency

Under Article 360 the President enjoys the power to proclaim the financial Emergency. If he is satisfied that a situation has arisen that financial stability & credit of India or any part thereof is threatened, he may proclaim emergency to that effect.

All such proclamations:

- (a) Can be varied or revoked by the President.
- (b) Financial Emergency must be approved by the Parliament within 2 months after its proclamation. Once it is approved, it will remain till the President revokes it.

Effects of Financial Emergency

- (1) President is empowered to suspend the distribution of financial resources with States.
- (2) President can issue directions to States to follow canons of financial propriety.
- (3) He can direct State Govt. to decrease salaries allowances of Civil Servants & other Constitutional dignitaries.
- (4) President can direct the Govt. to resume all the financial & Money Bills passed by legislature for his consideration. The President can issue directions for the reduction of salaries & allowances of Judges of the Supreme Court & the High Courts.

STATE LEGISLATURE

The State Legislature Legislative Assembly (Vidhan Sabha)

The Vidhan Sabha or the Legislative Assembly is the lower house of the state legislature in the different states & for the two of the union territories, Delhi & Pondicherry. Members of a Vidhan Sabha are direct representatives of the people of the particular state as they are directly elected by the adult suffrage. Each Vidhan Sabha is formed for a five-year term after which all seats are up for election. The maximum size of Vidhan Sabha is not more than 500 members & not less than 60. However, the size of the Vidhan Sabha can be less than 60 members through an Act of Parliament, such is the case in the states of Goa, Sikkim & Mizoram. The Governor can appoint one member to represent the Anglo-Indian community if he or she finds that community to not be adequately represented in the House.

Qualification to be a member of Vidhan Sabha

1. To become a member of a Vidhan Sabha.
2. A person must be a citizen of India.
3. She/he must have attained 25 years of age.
4. She/he should be mentally sound & should not be bankrupt.
5. She/he should also state an affidavit that there are no criminal procedures against him.

Comparing Vidhan Sabha & Lok Sabha

The position of Vidhan Sabha is relatively stronger than Lok Sabha when it comes to the relation with the respective upper houses. The following are differences in the legislative procedures:

1. In case of Bills other than money Bills the position of Vidhan Sabha is stronger as compared to Lok Sabha. While disagreement between the two Houses of the Union Parliament is resolved by "Joint Sitting", there is no such provision of solving the deadlock at the state level. The upper house at the state level can just delay the bill for the maximum period of 4 months i.e. 3 months in first journey & 1 month in second journey.
2. While the period for passing a Bill (other than money Bill) from Rajya Sabha is six months in the case of Legislative Councils it is just three months.

Legislative Council (Vidhan Parishad)

The Legislative Council is a permanent body that cannot be dissolved; each Member of the Legislative Council (MLC) serves for a six-year term, with terms staggered so that the terms of one-third of a Council's members expire every two years. This arrangement parallels that for the Rajya Sabha, the upper house of the Parliament of India. Indian states having Legislative Councils are Telangana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka.

Qualification to be a member of Vidhan Parishad

- She/he must be citizen of India.
- She/he must have attained at least 30 years of age.
- She/he must be mentally sound.
- She/he must not be a bankrupt.
- She/he must be listed the voters' list of the state for which he or she is contesting an election.

Election of members of Legislative Council

- One-third of the members are elected by members of local bodies such as corporations, municipalities, & Zilla Parishads.
- One-third of the members are elected by members of Legislative Assembly from among the persons who are not members of the Assembly.
- One-twelfth of the members are elected by the persons who are graduates of three years standing residing in that state.

- One-twelfth are elected by persons engaged for at least three years in teaching in educational institutions within the state not lower than secondary schools, including colleges & universities.
- One-sixth are nominated by the governor from persons having knowledge or practical experience in fields such as literature, science, arts, the co-operative movement & social service.

Governor

The Governor is merely appointed by the President which really means, by the Union Council of Ministers. The Governor holds office during the pleasure of the President, there is no security of his tenure. He can be removed by the President at any time. There is no impeachment process for removal of Governors as prescribed in constitution in the case of President.

The powers of Governors

Executive Powers of Governor

- The Governor appoints the Chief Minister who enjoys the support of the majority in the Vidhan Sabha.
- The Governor also appoints the other members of the Council of Ministers & distributes portfolios to them on the advice of the Chief Minister.
- He/she also appoints the Advocate General & the chairman & members of the State Public Service Commission.
- The Governor appoints the judges of the District Courts.

Legislative Powers of Governor

- Summons the sessions of both houses of the state legislature & prorogues them.
- Inaugurates the state legislature by addressing it after the assembly elections & also at the beginning of the first session every year.
- Can even dissolve the Vidhan Sabha. These powers are formal & the Governor while using these powers must act according to the advice of the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister.
- The Governor's address on these occasions generally outlines new policies of the state Government.
- A bill that the state legislature has passed can become a law only after the Governor gives assent.
- Can return a bill to the state legislature, if it is not a money bill, for reconsideration.
- Has the power to reserve certain bills for the President.
- When the state legislature is not in session & the Governor considers it necessary to have a law, then the Governor can promulgate ordinances.

Financial Powers of Governor

- Money bills can be introduced in the State Legislative Assembly only on the prior recommendation of the Governor.
- Governor also causes to be laid before the State Legislature the annual financial statement which is the State Budget.

- Further no demand for grant shall be made except on his/her recommendation.
- He can also make advances out of the Contingency Fund of the State to meet any unforeseen expenditure.
- Governor constitutes the State Finance Commission.

Discretionary Powers of Governor

- There are situations when the Governor has to act as per his/her own judgment & take decisions on his own. Such powers are called discretionary Powers:
- When no party gets a majority in the Vidhan Sabha, the Governor can either ask the leader of the single largest party or the consensus leader of two or more to form the Government. The Governor then appoints the leader of the largest party to Chief Minister.
- The Governor can send a report to the President informing him or her that the State's constitutional functioning has been compromised & recommending the President impose "President's rule" upon the state.
- Governor can reserve any Bill for the President.

Governor's power of Veto

(a) When a Bill is presented before the Governor after its passage by the house(s) of the state legislature, the Governor may take any of the following steps:

1. He may declare his assent to the Bill
2. He may declare that he withholds his assent to the Bill
3. He may (in case of a Bill other than money Bill), return the Bill with a message
4. The Governor may also reserve a Bill for the consideration of President

(b) The President enjoys absolute veto in the case of Bills reserved for him by the Governors. The president may act in the following manner:

1. In case of money Bill President may either declare his assent or withhold his assent.
2. In the case of Bills other than money Bill the President apart from declaring his assent or refusing it, direct the Governor to return the Bill to the Legislature for recommendations in such cases.

Local Self-Governance

Panchayati Raj

- nalized through the **73rd Constitutional Amendment Act** of 1992.
- The development of the village was the immediate problem faced by our country after independence. Hence the **Community Development Programme** was launched in 1952 with a view to carrying out the integral rural development work.
- **Rajasthan** was the first state to set up Panchayati Raj System in 1959 followed by Andhra Pradesh.

Main Provisions of 73rd Amendment Act

- This act has added a new Part-IX to the Constitution of India.
- It is entitled as 'The Panchayats' & consists of provisions from **Articles 243(A) to 243 (O)**. In addition, the act has also added a new **Eleventh Schedule** to the Constitution. It contains 29 functional items of the Panchayats.
- Fixing tenure of five years for Panchayats at all levels & holding fresh elections within six months in the event of super session of any Panchayat.
- Reservation of 1/3 seats (both members & chairpersons) for women in Panchayats at all the levels.
- The Act provides for a three-tier system of the Panchayati Raj in the states namely:
 - (i) **Gram Panchayat** at the Village level.
 - (ii) **Panchayat Samiti** at the Block level.
 - (iii) **Zila Parishad** at the District level.

Compulsory Provisions for Panchayati Raj Institutions

1. Organization of Gram Sabha in a village or group of villages.
3. Establishment of Panchayats at the village, intermediate & district levels.
4. **21 years** to be the minimum age for contesting elections to Panchayats.
5. Reservation of seats (both members & chairpersons) for SCs & STs in Panchayats at all the three levels.
6. Reservation of **one-third seats** (both members & chairpersons) for women in Panchayats at all the three levels.
7. Fixing tenure of **five years** for Panchayats at all levels & holding fresh elections within six months in the event of supersession of any Panchayat.
8. Establishment of a **State Election Commission** for conducting elections to the Panchayats.
9. Constitution of a **State Finance Commission** after every five years to review the financial position of the panchayats.

Organizational Structure

(i) Gram Panchayat at the Village level

The members of the Gram Panchayat are elected by the Gram Sabha. The **Pradhans** (Presidents) of the Gram Sabha are the ex-officio members of the Gram Panchayat.

Note: **Gram Sabha** means a body consisting of persons registered in the electoral rolls relating to a village comprised within the area of Panchayat at the village level.

(ii) Panchayat Samiti at the Block level

The Panchayat Samiti has many Gram Panchayats under it. All the Presidents of the Panchayats within the Block are the ex-officio members of the 'Panchayat Samitis'.

(iii) Zila Parishad at the District level

- Zila Parishad is an apex body under the Panchayati Raj. It co-ordinates the activities of the various Panchayat Samitis.
- Zila Parishad actually makes developmental plans at the district level.
- With the help of Panchayat Samitis, it also regulates the money distribution among all the Gram Panchayats.

JUDICIARY

Supreme Court of India

Supreme Court of India is the highest judicial forum & final court of appeal. According to the Constitution of India, the role of the Supreme Court is that of a federal court & guardian of the Constitution.

Composition of Supreme Court

Under Article 124(1) the constitution originally provided for 1 Chief Justice of India & not more than 6 other judges. The constitution authorizes the Parliament to provide by law in fixing the Strength of the judges of the Supreme Court.

The Parliament passed the Supreme Court (Number of Judges), a Constitutional Amendment Act in 2008, it has increased the strength of Supreme Court to 31 (1 Chief Justice + 30 other judges).

Qualification to be a judge of Supreme Court

1. A person must be a citizen of India
2. He/she must have been, for at least five years, a Judge of a High Court or of two or more such Courts in succession
3. Or an Advocate of a High Court or of two or more such Courts in succession for at least ten years
4. Or the person must be, in the opinion of the President, a distinguished jurist.

Removal of judges of Supreme Court

Article 124(4) provides for the removal of a judge of the Supreme Court. He is removed by the President upon an address by both the Houses of the Parliament supported by a majority of not less than 2/3rd of members present & voting & a majority of total strength of the House on the ground of misbehavior or incapacity.

The President shall pass the order of removal in the same session in which the Parliament passed the resolution. Article 124(5) confers the power on the Parliament to provide by law for the procedure for the Presentation of an address & for the investigation for proof of misbehavior or incapacity of a judge.

Accordingly the Parliament passed Judges (Inquiry) Act 1968 which states that a resolution seeking the removal of a judge of Supreme Court can be introduced in either House of Parliament. It is the highest judicial forum & final court of appeal as established by Part V, Chapter IV of the Constitution of India.

Articles 124 to 147 of the Constitution of India lay down the composition & jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of India. The Supreme Court has Original jurisdiction, Appellate jurisdiction & Advisory jurisdiction. The Supreme Court is the highest appellate court which takes up appeals against the verdicts of the High Courts & other courts of the states & territories.

The Supreme Court has the power to transfer the cases from one High Court to another & even from one District Court of a particular state to another District Court of the other state. The Supreme Court has the power of Constitutional review. The Supreme Court of India held its inaugural sitting on 28 January 1950.

Some Important Points on SC -

1. The first woman judge of the Supreme Court was Justice Fatima Bibi in 1987. However, there has been no female Chief Justice.
2. Ad hoc Judges:
3. Ad hoc Judges are non-Supreme Court judges who sit in the Supreme Court when there is insufficient quorum to perform the judicial duties.
4. Ad hoc Judges are appointed by the Chief Justice after obtaining consent from the President.
5. Serving (H(C) & retired (SC & H(C) judges of the Supreme Court (and High Courts) can sit & act as ad hoc Judges of the Supreme Court.
6. Only such persons can be appointed as ad hoc Judges who are qualified to be appointed as a regular Judge of the Supreme Court
7. The Chief Justice administers the oath in front of the President.
8. The first Chief Justice of India was H J Kania (1950 – 1951).
9. The shortest tenure was for K N Singh (Nov 1991 – Dec 1991, UP)
10. The longest tenure was for Y V Chandrachud (1978 – 1985, Bombay)

JURISDICTION OF THE SUPREME COURT
(a) Original Jurisdiction:

1. Original Jurisdiction means that certain types of cases can originate with the Supreme Court only.
2. The Supreme Court has original jurisdiction in :
 - a) Disputes between the Centre & one or more states.
 - b) Disputes between the Centre & any state(s) on one side & one or more states on the other side.
 - c) Disputes between two or more states.
 - d) Disputes regarding the enforcement of Fundamental Rights.

(b) Appellate Jurisdiction:

Appellate Jurisdiction means that appeals against judgements of lower courts can be referred to SC as the Supreme Court is the highest court of appeal in the country.


(c) Advisory Jurisdiction:

1. Advisory Jurisdiction refers to the process where the President seeks the Court's advice on legal matters.
2. If the President asks for advice from the Supreme Court, the Court is duty-bound to give it. However, it is not binding on the President to accept the advice.

HIGH COURT

- (1) The High Court is at the apex of the judicial administration of the state.
- (2) Art 214 of the Constitution provides that there shall be a High Court for each state of the Indian union. But the Indian Parliament is empowered to establish a common High Court for two or more states & to extend the jurisdiction of a High Court to a union territory. Similarly, Parliament can also reduce the area of jurisdiction of a High Court.
- (3) The High Court consists of a Chief Justice & some other Judges. The number of judges is to be determined by the President of India from time to time.
- (4) The Chief Justice of a High Court is appointed by the President in consultation with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court & the Governor of the state concerned. The procedure for appointing other judges is the same except that the Chief Justice of the High Court concerned is also consulted. HC JUDGE hold office until they attain the age of 62 years & are removed from office in the same manner as a judge of the Supreme Court.

Qualification

A person shall be qualified for appointment as a judge of the High Court if

- (a) he is a citizen of India,
- (b) has for at least ten years held a judicial office in the territory of India, or
- (c) has for at least ten years been an advocate of a High Court, or of two or more such courts in succession.

Every judge of the High Court before entering upon his office shall make & subscribe before the Governor of the state, an oath of affirmation in the form prescribed by the Constitution.

Removal of judges

A judge of the High Court shall hold office until he attains the age of 62 years. A judge may resign from his office by writing under his hand to the president of India. He can also be removed by the President of India on the ground of proved misbehavior or inefficiency if a resolution to that effect is passed by both the Houses of Parliament by a two-thirds majority of the total members present & voting, supported by a majority of the total membership of each house.

Jurisdiction of a HC:

The High Court has Original jurisdiction in such matters as writs & Appellate jurisdiction over all subordinate courts in their jurisdiction. Every High court has the power to issue to any person or authority including any Govt. within its jurisdiction, direction, or orders including writs which are in the nature of habeas corpus, mandamus prohibition, quo-warranto & certiorari or any of them for enforcement of fundamental rights conferred by part III of the constitution & for any other purpose.

- (1) Election petitions challenging the elections of Members of Parliament or member of State Legislative Assembly or other local bodies can be filed in the concerned High Court.
- (2) The High Courts have Appellate jurisdiction in both civil & criminal cases against the decisions of lower courts.

Under Revisory jurisdiction, the High Court is empowered to call for the records of any court to satisfy itself about the correctness of the legality of the orders passed. This power may be exercised on the petition of the interested party or it can suo moto call for the records & pass necessary orders.

All Courts excepting tribunals dealing with the Armed forces, are under the supervision of the High Court. Tribunals dealing with the Armed forces are not under the supervision of HC. This power is enjoyed under Art 227 of the Constitution. Thus administration of the state's judiciary is the essential function of the High Court.

Union Territories

- **Articles 239 to 241** in Part VIII of the Constitution deal with the union territories. Even though all the union territories belong to one category, there is no uniformity in their administrative system.
- Every union territory is administered by the president acting through an administrator appointed by him. An administrator of a union territory is an agent of the president & not head of state like a governor.
- The president can specify the designation of an administrator; it is Lieutenant Governor in the case of Delhi, Puducherry & Andaman & Nicobar Islands & Administrator in the case of Chandigarh, DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI and DAMAN & DIU and Lakshadweep.
- The Parliament can make laws on any subject of the three lists (including the State List) for the union territories. This power of Parliament also extends to Puducherry, Jammu & Kashmir & Delhi, which have their own local legislatures but the legislative assembly of both (Delhi, Jammu & Kashmir & Puducherry) can also make laws on any subject of the State List & Concurrent List. This means that the legislative power of Parliament for the union territories on subjects of the State List remain unaffected even after establishing a local legislature for them.
- The 8 Union territories of India include Delhi, Jammu & Kashmir, Ladakh, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu, Puducherry, Chandigarh, Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep.

GOVERNMENT BODIES
(1) Election Commission

- The Election Commission is a permanent, independent body established by the Constitution of India directly to ensure free & fair elections in the country. Article 324 of the Constitution provides that the power of superintendence, direction & control of elections to parliament, state legislatures, the office of president of India & the office of vice-president of India shall be vested in the election commission.
- Elections are conducted according to the constitutional provisions supplemented by laws made by Parliament.
- The major laws are Representation of the People Act, 1950, which mainly deals with the preparation & revision of electoral rolls, & the Representation of the People Act, 1951, which deals in detail with all aspects of conduct of elections & past election disputes.
- The electoral system in India is borrowed from the one operating in Great Britain. Presently, the Election Commission consists of one Chief Election Commissioner (CEC) & two Election Commissioners.
- The Commission works under the overall supervision of the Chief Election Commissioner.
- The tenure of the CEC & the Election Commissioners has been fixed as six years, subject to the maximum age limit of 65 years (whichever is earlier).
- The Chief Election Commissioner & the Election Commissioners are placed at par in matters of salary & allowances & they are the same as those of a judge of Supreme Court.
- The Chief Election Commissioner is not eligible for reappointment.
- The Election Commission is not concerned with the elections to Panchayats & municipalities in the states.
- The elections to the Panchayats & the municipalities in the states are conducted by 'State Election Commissions'.

Independence of CEC

Article 324 of the Constitution has made the following provisions to safeguard & ensure the independent & impartial functioning of the Election Commission:

1. The Chief Election Commissioner is provided with the security of tenure. He cannot be removed from his office except in same manner & on the same grounds as a judge of the Supreme Court.
2. The Election Commissioner cannot be removed from office except on the recommendation of the Chief Election Commissioner.

Powers & functions

1. To determine the territorial areas of the electoral constituencies throughout the country on the basis of the Delimitation Commission Act of Parliament.
3. To prepare & periodically revise electoral rolls & to register all eligible voters.

4. To notify the dates & schedules of elections & to scrutinize nomination papers.
5. To grant recognition to political parties & allot election symbols to them.
6. To act as a court for settling disputes related to granting of recognition to political parties & allotment of election symbols to them.
7. To determine the code of conduct to be observed by the parties & the candidates at the time of elections.
8. To advise the President on matters relating to the disqualification of the members of Parliament.
9. To advise the governor on matters relating to the disqualification of the members of state legislature.
10. To cancel polls in the event of rigging, booth capturing, violence & other irregularities.
11. To register political parties for the purpose of elections & grant them the status of national or state parties on the basis of their poll performance.

Union Public Service Commission

- With the promulgation of the new Constitution for independent India on 26th January, 1950, the Federal Public Service Commission was accorded a constitutional status as an autonomous entity & given the title – Union Public Service Commission.
- The UPSC has been established under Article 315 of the Constitution of India. The Commission consists of a Chairman & ten Members.
- The chairman & members of the commission hold office for a term of six years or until they attain the age of 65 years, whichever is earlier.
- It is an independent constitutional body.
- The main function of UPSC is Recruitment to services & promotions on the posts under the Union through conduct of competitive examinations.

State Public Service Commission

- A state public service commission consists of a chairman & other member appointed by the governor of the state. But they can be removed only by the President.
- It is an independent constitutional body.
- The chairman & members of the commission hold office for a term of six years or until they attain the age of 62 years, whichever is earlier.
- The main function of SPSC is to conduct examinations for appointments to the services of the state.

Joint State Public Service Commission

- The Constitution makes a provision for the establishment of a Joint State Public Service Commission (JSPS(C) for two or more states.
- A JSPSC can be created by an act of Parliament on the request of the state legislatures concerned. Thus, a JSPSC is a statutory & not a constitutional body.
- The chairman of JSPSC is appointed by the President.

Comptroller & Auditor General

- The Constitution of India (Article 148) provides for an independent office of the Comptroller & Auditor General of India (CAG).
- It is the supreme audit institution of India.
- He is the head of the Indian Audit & Accounts Department & the guardian of the public purse & controls the entire financial system of the country at both the levels—the Centre & the state.

Appointment & term

- The CAG is appointed by the President of India. He holds office for a period of six years or up to the age of 65 years, whichever is earlier.
- He can resign any time from his office by addressing the resignation letter to the president. He can also be removed by the President on same grounds & in the same manner as a judge of the Supreme Court.

Main function of the CAG

1. He audits the accounts related to all expenditure from the Consolidated Fund of India & consolidated fund of each state.
2. He audits all expenditure from the Contingency Fund of India & the Public Account of India as well as the contingency fund of each state & the public account of each state.
3. He audits the accounts of any other authority when requested by the President or Governor.

Note: He submits his audit reports relating to the accounts of the Centre to President & relating to the accounts of a state to governor.

Attorney General of India

- Art. 76 states that the President shall appoint a person who is qualified to be appointed as a judge of the Supreme Court to be the Attorney General of India.
- He is the first legal officer of the Government of India.
- The term of office of the AGI is not fixed by the Constitution of India.
- He holds office during the pleasure of the President & receives remuneration as the President may determine. Although, he is not a member of either House of Parliament, he enjoys the right to attend & speak in the Parliamentary deliberations & meeting (of both the Lok Sabha & the Rajya Sabh(a), without a right to vote.
- He advises the Government of India on any legal matter.
- He performs any legal duties assigned by the President of India.
- He discharges any functions conferred on him by the Constitution or the President.
- In the performance of his official duties, the Attorney General has the right of audience in all courts in the territory of India.

- He is entitled to all the privileges & immunities as a Member of Parliament.

Note: The Constitution (Article 165) has provided for the office of the advocate general for the states. He is the highest law officer in the state. Thus, he corresponds to the Attorney General of India. He is appointed by the Governor of the state.

Parliamentary Funds

Consolidated Fund of India

1. Article 266 has established Consolidated Fund of India.
2. It is a constitutional fund.
3. All the receipts received; loans raised & the income of the Government of India are deposited into a Fund called the Consolidated Fund of India.
4. It is the largest fund of the Government of India & any amount of money can be deposited into this account.
5. It is a regular fund of Government of India.
6. All expenditures of the Government of India are spent out of the Consolidated Fund of India.
7. It has been placed at the disposal of the Parliament. No money can be deposited into withdrawn or appropriated out of the Consolidated Fund of India without the prior sanction of the Parliament. Article 266 has also created a separate Consolidated Fund for each State.

Public Account of India

Under Article 266 any money other than the receipts, loans & the income received by the Govt. of India is deposited into an account called the Public Account of India. The Public Account of India is placed at the disposal of the President article 266 has also created public account for each state.

Contingency Fund of India

Article 267 empowers the Parliament to provide by law for the establishment of a public fund called the Contingency Fund of India. Accordingly, the Parliament enacted the Contingency Fund of India (Misc. Provisions Act) 1950, which has created the contingency Fund of India with an upper limit of Rs. 50 Cr. It is not a regular fund of Govt. of India & it is used to meet on unforeseen expenditures of the Govt. of India. It is placed at the disposal of President who can provide the sanction for meeting an emergency expenditure out of contingency Fund of India.

The Fund is used when the Parliament is not in a position to sanction money out of Consolidated Fund of India to meet an unforeseen expenditure. The money so sanctioned out of contingency fund of India by the President is placed before the Parliament for its approval subsequently. If the Parliament approves the expenditure then the equal amount of money is transferred from Consolidated Fund of India to Contingency Fund of India. Thus, the Contingency Fund is replenished by the Contingency Fund. The Parliament by law may increase the upper limit of Contingency Fund either permanently or temporarily.

Political Parties

A recognized political party has been classified either as a "national party" or a "state party". Recognition to a party is granted by the "Election Commission of India".

Conditions for Recognition as a National Party

A party is recognized as a national party if any of the following conditions is fulfilled:

1. If it wins 2% of seats in Lok Sabha at a general election; and these candidates are elected from three states; or
2. If it secures 6% of valid votes polled in any four or more states at a general election to the Lok Sabha or to the legislative assembly; & in addition, it wins four seats in the Lok Sabha from any state or states; or
3. If it is recognized as state party in your states.

Important Points

1. The estimate of expenditure in respect of a Ministry/Department not charged upon the Consolidated Fund of India, placed for approval before the House on the recommendations of the President - **Demand for Grant**.
2. A Bill passed annually (or at various times of the year) providing for the withdrawal or appropriation from & out of the Consolidated Fund of India of moneys by Lok Sabha & moneys charged on the Consolidated Fund for the services of a financial year or a part thereof- **Appropriation Bill**.
3. A motion for reduction of a demand for grant by or to a specified amount- **Cut motion**.
4. Cut motion can be of three types - **Disapproval of policy cut, Economy cut & Token cut**.
5. A grant made by Lok Sabha in advance in respect of the estimated expenditure of the Government of India for a part of a financial year pending the voting of Demands for Grants for the financial year. A Motion for Vote on Account is dealt with in the same way as if it were a demand for grant- **Vote on Account**.
6. The first hour of a sitting of the House normally allotted for asking & answering of questions- **Question Hour**.

Motions in Parliament

(1) Private Member's business

Every member who is not a Minister is called a Private Member. The Private Member's business includes Private Member's Bills & Private Member's Resolutions. The period of notice for introduction of Bill is one month unless the Presiding officer allows introduction at a shorter notice.

(2) Question Hour

Normally, the first hour of the business of a House everyday is devoted to questions & is called Question Hour (11:00 AM to 12:00 Noon).

(3) Starred & Unstarred Questions

A starred question is one to which a member desires an oral answer in the House. Answer to such a question may be followed by five supplementary questions by other members. An unstarred question is one to which written answer is desired by the Member. No supplementary questions can be asked thereon.

(4) Short Notice Questions

These are related to matter of urgent public importance & can be asked by members with notice shorter than the 10 days prescribed for an ordinary question. It is for the Speaker to determine whether the matter is of real urgent nature or not.

(5) Adjournment Motions

An adjournment motion is an extra-ordinary procedure which if admitted leads to setting aside the normal business of the House for discussing a definite matter of Urgent Public importance.

(6) Calling Attention

It is a notice by which a member with the prior permission of the Speaker, Calls the attention of a Minister of any matter of urgent public importance & the Minister may make a brief statement or ask for time to make a statement at a later hour or date it is an Indian Innovation.

There is no calling attention Notice in the Rajya Sabha. Instead there exists a motion called 'Motion for Papers.'

(7) Privilege Motion

This motion is moved by a member if in his opinion any minister or any of the members commits a breach of privilege of the House by withholding any fact.

Key Points On Union Budget

In a parliamentary democracy like India, where the Constitution is the supreme document with defined roles for the government to function effectively, it is imperative for the government to work for the welfare of the state and its citizens. To discharge these functions effectively and upgrade the country's economic and social structure, the government requires adequate resources.

Article 112: A statement of estimated receipts and expenditure of Govt. of India has to be laid before the parliament.

Article 77 (3): The union Finance Minister of India has been made responsible by the President of India to prepare the annual financial statement and present it in Parliament.

Article 114: The government can withdraw money from the Consolidated Fund of India only on approval from Parliament.

- There are three major categories of government accounts:

1. Consolidated Fund
2. Contingency Fund
3. Public Account

Nodal agency responsible for producing the Union Budget:

The department of economic affair under the Ministry of Finance.

The Annual Financial Statement or The Budget contains:

- Estimates of expenditure.
- Ways and means to raise the revenue.
- Actual figures for preceding year.
- Budget and revised figures for the current year.
- Budget estimates for the following year.

In parliament, the budget goes through 5 stages:

- 1. Presentation of budget with Finance Minister's speech.
- 2. General discussion of the budget.
- 3. Voting on demand for grants in Lok Sabha
- 4. Passing of appropriation bills.
- 5. Passing of Finance bills.

The Parts of Budget:

- (1) **Revenue Budget:** All 'current' 'receipts' such as taxation, surplus of public enterprises, and 'expenditures' of the Government.
- (2) **Capital Budget:** All 'Capital' 'receipts' and 'expenditure' such as domestic and foreign loans, loan repayments, foreign aid etc.

The inspection of budget proposals:

- **Committee on Estimates**
- Constituted for the first time in 1950, is a Parliamentary Committee consisting of 30 Members
- Term of office of the Committee is one year.

The functions of the Estimates Committee are:

- (a) to report what economies, improvements in organisation, efficiency or administrative reform, consistent with the policy underlying the estimates may be effected;
- (b) to suggest alternative policies in order to bring about efficiency and economy in administration;
- (c) to examine whether the money is well laid out within the limits of the policy implied in the estimates;
- (d) to suggest the form in which the estimates shall be presented to Parliament.

Cut Motion:

- A veto power given to the members of the Lok Sabha to oppose a demand in the financial bill discussed by the government.

- There are Three types of Cut Motions:

- (1) **Disapproval or Policy Cut:** The amount of the demand be reduced by Re. 1.
- (2) **Economy Cut:** the amount of the demand be reduced by a specified amount to affect economy in the expenditure.
- (3) **Token Cut:** The amount of the demand be reduced by Re. 100.

The bills are forwarded to the Rajya Sabha for comment.

Rajya Sabha is bounded to return the bill within 14 days.

The Lok Sabha, however, is not obligated to accept the comments and the Rajya Sabha cannot delay passage of these bills.

Important Facts related to Budget:

- *The first Union Budget of Independent India* was presented by the first Finance Minister of Independent India, **Sir R.K. Shanmugham Chetty**, on November 26, 1947.
- **Indira Gandhi**, the then prime minister who also held the finance portfolio, she became the first woman finance minister of India to present a Budget in Parliament.

- In 2001, **Yashwant Sinha**, broke the colonial practice of announcing the Union Budget at 5 in the evening. Instead, he delivered his Budget speech at 11 am on the last working day of February.
- Former prime minister of India **Morarji Desai**, who presented 10 Union Budgets in his role as finance minister, is credited with presenting the highest number of Union Budgets in the history of Independent India.
- The Budget presented by Finance Minister **Arun Jaitley** for the financial year 2017-18 was unprecedented in that, for the first time ever, a Railway Budget was not presented separately. This practice was discontinued and both Union Budget and Railway Budget were merged and presented together.

ARTICLES RELATED TO BILLS

- Article 107 : Provisions as to introduction & passing of Bills
- Article 108 : Joint sitting of both Houses in certain cases
- Article 109 : Special procedure in respect of Money Bills
- Article 110 : Definition of "Money Bills"
- Article 111 : Assent to Bills
- Article 112 : Annual financial statement
- Article 113 : Procedure in Parliament with respect to estimates
- Article 114 : Appropriation Bills
- Article 115 : Supplementary, additional or excess grants
- Article 116 : Votes on account, votes of credit & exceptional grants
- Article 117 : Special provisions as to financial Bills
- Article 118 : Rules of procedure
- Article 119 : Regulation by law of procedure in Parliament in relation to financial business
- Article 120 : Language to be used in Parliament
- Article 121 : Restriction on discussion in Parliament
- Article 122 : Courts not inquire into proceedings of Parliament

PRESIDENTS OF INDIA

Name	Tenure	
	From	To
Dr. Rajendra Prasad	1950	1962
Dr. S. Radhakrishnan	1962	1967
Dr. Zakir Hussain	1967	1969
V.V. Giri (Vice-President) #	1969	1969
Justice M. Hidayatullah*	1969	1969
V.V. Giri	1969	1974
F. Ali Ahmed	1974	1977
B.D. Jatti#	1977	1977
N. Sanjiva Reddy	1977	1982
Gaini Jail Singh	1982	1987
R. Venkataraman	1987	1992
Dr. S.D. Sharma	1992	1997
K.R. Narayanan	1997	2002

Name	Tenure	
	From	To
Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam	2002	2007
Mrs. Pratibha Patil	2007	2012
Mr. Pranab Mukherjee	2012	2017
Mr. Ram Nath Kovind	2017	Till Date

#Acting; *First Chief-Justice to be appointed President.

VICE-PRESIDENTS OF INDIA

Name	Tenure	
	From	To
Dr. Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan	1952	1962
Dr. Zakir Hssain	1962	1967
V.V. Giri	1967	1969
Bal Swaroop Pathka	1969	1974
Dr. M. Jatti	1974	1979
Justice Mohd. Hidayatullah	1979	1984
S. Venkataraman	1984	1987
Dr. Shankar Dayal Sharma	1987	1992
K.R. Narayanan	1992	1997
Krishan Kant	1997	2002
Bhairon Singh Sekhawat	2002	2007
Hamid Ansari	2007	2017
Venkaiah Naidu	2017	Till Date

PRIME MINISTERS OF INDIA

Name	Tenure	
	From	To
Jawahar Lal Nehru	1947	1964
Gulzari Lal Nanda	1964	1964
Lal Bahadur Shastri	1964	1966
Gulzari Lal Nanda	1966	1966
Indira Gandhi	1966	1977
Morarji Desai	1966	1979
Charan Singh	1977	1979
Indira Gandhi	1979	1984
Rajiv Gandhi	1984	1989
V.P. Singh	1984	1990
Chandra Shekhar	1989	1991
P.V. Narasimha Rao	1990	1996
Atal Bihari Vajpayee	1991	1996
H.D. Deve Gowda	1996	1997
I.K. Gujral	1996	1998
Atal Bihari Vajpayee	1997	1999
Atal Bihari Vajpayee	1998	1999
Dr. Manmohan Singh	1999	2004
Dr. Manmohan Singh	2004	2009
Narendra Damodardas Modi	2009	2014
	2014	Till Date

Indian Economy for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

Main characteristics and various aspects of Indian Economy are being given below:

Agrarian Economy — Even after 60 years of independence, 49% of the work force of India is still agriculturist and its contribution to Gross Domestic Product is approximately 18%.

Mixed Economy — Indian Economy is a unique combination of public and private sector, i.e. a mixed economy. After liberalization, Indian Economy is going ahead as a capitalist economy or market economy.

SECTORS OF AN INDIAN ECONOMY –

- a. Primary Sector- It includes all those activities which involve direct use of Natural resources such as agriculture, forestry, fishing, minerals etc.
- b. Secondary sector-It involve all economic activities which use the produce of primary sector as its raw materials.It is also called the Manufacturing sector example production of bread from wheat.Its contribution to GDP is approximately 30% in Indian economy.
- c. Tertiary sector-It includes all economic activities which provide “services” example are banking,tourism etc. Tertiary sector contribution in GDP is highest it is approximately 53%.

MACRO ECONOMICS

Important concepts of National Income:

(1) Gross Domestic Product (GDP):-

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total market value of all final goods and services currently produced within the domestic territory of a country in a year. It is measured at two different prices which are GDP at factor cost and GDP at constant prices. When GDP is measured at current price it is called Nominal GDP and when it is measured at constant price or base year it is called real GDP.

(2) Gross National Product of Market Price (GNP at MP):-

Gross national product at market price is broad and comprehensive concept. GNP at MP measures the money value of all the final products produced annually in a counter plus net factor income from abroad. In short GNP is GDP plus net factor incomes earned from abroad. Net factor incomes is derived by reducing the factor incomes earned by foreigners from the country, in question from the factor incomes earned by the residents of that country from abroad.

(3) Net National Product at Market Price (NNP at MP):-

Net National product measures the net money value of final goods and services at current prices produced in a year in a country. It is the gross national product at market price less depreciation.

(4) Net Domestic Product (NDP):-NDP is calculated by deducting depreciation expense from Gross domestic product.

(5) Gross Domestic Product at Factor Cost (GDP at F(C):-

Gross national product at factor cost is obtained by deducting the indirect tax and adding subsidies to GNP at market price .

(6) Private Income:-

Private income means the income earned by private individuals from any source whether productive or unproductive. It can be arrived at from NNP at factor cost by making certain additions and deduction.

(7) Personal Income:-

Personal Income is the total income received by the individuals of country from all sources before direct taxes. Personal income is not the same as National Income, because personal income includes the transfer payments where as they are not included in national income. Personal income includes the wages, salaries, interest and rent received by the individuals.

(8) Disposable Income:-

Disposable income means the actual income which can be spent on consumption by individuals and families. It refers to the purchasing power of the house hold. The whole of disposable income is not spent on consumptions; a part of it is paid in the form of direct tax. Thus disposable income is that part of income, which is left after the exclusion of direct tax.

INFLATION TYPES-

- Inflation is the rate at which the general level of prices for goods and service is on rise. Inflation is measures by consumer price index.

- **Types of Inflation-**

(a) **Demand Pull Inflation-** when there is strong consumer demand and many individuals purchasing the same good it will increase the price of goods so it is called demand pull inflation.

(b) **Cost push inflation-** It is an inflation caused by an increase in the price of inputs like labour,raw material etc.The increased price of the factors of production leads to a decreased supply of goods.

Other types of Inflation-

(a) **Deflation-** When the overall price level decreases so that inflation rate becomes negative, it is called deflation. It is the opposite of the often-encountered inflation.It is decrease in general level price for shorter period.

(b) **Disinflation-** Disinflation is a situation of decrease in the rate of inflation over successive time period. It is simply slowing of inflation for longer period of time.

(c) **Stagflation-** It is a condition of slow economic growth and relatively high unemployment and there is decline in GDP.

(d) **Hyperinflation-** Hyperinflation is an extremely rapid period of inflation, usually caused by a rapid increase in the money supply.

Geography for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

Milky Way Galaxy and Earth Solar System

Our Sun (a star) and all the planets around it are part of a galaxy known as the Milky Way Galaxy. A galaxy is a large group of stars, gas, and dust bound together by gravity. They come in a variety of shapes and sizes. The Milky Way is a large barred spiral galaxy. The Milky Way is the galaxy that contains our Solar System.

Earth solar system consists of:

- The Sun
- The Planets (8 Planets)
- Dwarf Planets such as Pluto, Ceres, Eris etc. & countless fragments of left – overs called asteroids, meteors, comets & satellites of the planets (called small solar system Bodies).

Some Facts about Solar System

• Biggest Planet	:	Jupiter
• Smallest Planet	:	Mercury
• Nearest Planet to Sun	:	Mercury
• Farthest Planet from Sun	:	Neptune
• Nearest Planet to Earth	:	Venus
• Brightest Planet	:	Venus
• Brightest star after Sun	:	Sirius
• Planet with maximum satellites	:	Saturn
• Coldest Planet	:	Neptune
• Hottest Planet	:	Venus
• Heaviest Planet	:	Jupiter
• Red Planet	:	Mars
• Biggest Satellite	:	Ganymede
• Smallest Satellite	:	Deimos
• Blue Planet	:	Earth
• Morning/Evening Star	:	Venus
• Earth's Twin	:	Venus
• Green Planet	:	Neptune
• Planet with a big red spot	:	Jupiter
• Greatest Diurnal Temperature	:	Mercury

Earth Latitude & Longitude

Earth Latitude

- Imaginary lines drawn parallel to the equator. Measured as an angle whose apex is at the centre of the Earth.
- The equator represents 0° latitude, while the North Pole is 90° N & the South Pole 90° S. Equator is the 'Greatest Circle' that can be drawn on the earth's surface.
- $23\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ N represents Tropic of Cancer while $23\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ S represents Tropic of Capricorn.
- $66\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ N represents Arctic Circle while $66\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ S represents Antarctic Circle.
- The distance between any two parallels of latitude is always equal.
- 1 degree latitude = 111 km (approx.).

Earth Longitude

- The lines of longitude are drawn as a series of semicircles that extend from the North Pole to the South Pole through the equator. They are also called meridians.
- The distance between any two meridians is not equal.
- At the equator, 1 degree = 111 km. At 30° N or S, it is 96.5 km. It goes on decreasing this way until it is zero at the poles.
- There are 360 meridians of longitude. The prime meridian is a longitude of 0° , passing through the Royal Observatory at Greenwich near London.
- This meridian is taken by geographers to divide the earth into the eastern & the western hemispheres.
- Each meridian of longitude is a semi-circle. 180° meridian (International Date Line) lies exactly opposite to 0° meridian. Such points are called Antipodal Points.
- The earth is divided into 24 longitudinal zones, each being 15° or 1 hour apart in time (4 minutes / degree).

Longitude & Time

- Places that are on the same meridian have the same local (sun) time. Since the earth makes one complete revolution of 360° in 24 hours, it passes through 15° in one hour or 1° in 4 minutes.
- The earth rotates from West to East, hence places east of Greenwich see the sun earlier & gain time whereas places west of Greenwich see the sun later & lose time.
- India, whose longitudinal extent is approx. 30° , has adopted only one time zone, selecting the 82.5° E for the standard time which is 5 hours & 30 minutes ahead of GMT (Greenwich Mean Time).

International Date Line

- It is the 180° meridian running over the Pacific Ocean, deviating at Aleutian Islands, Fiji, Samoa & Gilbert Islands. It is a zig-zag line.
- Travelers crossing the Date Line from west to east (i.e., from Japan to US(A) repeat a day & travelers crossing it from east to west (i.e., from USA to Japan) lose a day.



Important Parallels of Latitude

- The Tropic of Cancer:** It is in the northern hemisphere at an angular distance of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ($23^{\circ}30'N$) from the equator.
- The Tropic of Capricorn:** It is in the southern hemisphere at an angular distance of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ($23^{\circ}30'S$) from the equator.
- The Arctic Circle:** It lies at a distance of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ($66^{\circ}30'N$) north of the equator.
- The Antarctic Circle:** It lies at a distance of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ ($66^{\circ}30'S$) south of the equator. There are two solstices each year, called the Summer Solstice & the Winter Solstice.

Summer Solstice: The day of 21st June when the sun is vertically overhead at the Tropic of Cancer ($23^{\circ}30'N$). It is longest day in Northern Hemisphere.

Winter Solstice: The day of 22nd December when the sun is vertically overhead at the Tropic of Capricorn ($23^{\circ}30'S$). It is Shortest Day in Northern Hemisphere.

Meridians of Longitude

The semi-circles running from pole to pole or from north to south are known as meridians of longitude & distance between them are measured in degrees of longitude. Greenwich Meridian or Prime Meridian with a value of 0° longitude serves as a common base for numbering meridians of longitude lying on either side of it — east as well as west. There are 360 meridians including Prime Meridian. Each degree of a longitude is divided into sixty equal parts, each part is called a minute. Each minute is again divided into sixty equal parts, each part being called a second.

Local Time: Local time of any place is 12 noon when the sun is exactly overhead. It will vary from the Greenwich time at the rate of four minutes for each degree of longitude.

Greenwich Mean Time: The time at 0° longitude is called Greenwich Mean Time. It is based on local time of the meridian passing through Greenwich near London.

Indian Standard Time: It is fixed on the mean of $82\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}E$ Meridian, a place near Allahabad. It is $5\frac{1}{2}$ hours ahead of Greenwich Mean Time.

Facts about earth

- The Earth is also called Blue Planet. It is the densest of all planets.
- Earth Circumference:** 40,232 Kilometers.
- Earth Area:** 510 million square Kilometers
- Average distance from sun:** 149 million Kilometers.
- Earth Perihelion:** Nearest position of earth to sun. The earth reaches its perihelion on January 3 every year at a distance of about 147 million-Kilometers.
- Aphelion:** Farthest position of earth from sun. The earth reaches its aphelion on July 4, when the earth is at a distance of 152 million Kilometers.
- The shape of the earth is oblate spheroid or oblate ellipsoid (i.e. almost spherical, flattened a little at the poles with a slight bulge at the centre).

Types of Earth Movements:

- Rotation or daily movement.
- Revolution or annual movement.

Earth Rotation

- Earth spins on its imaginary axis from west to east in 23 hrs, 56 min & 40.91 sec.
- Rotational velocity at equator is 1667 Km/hr & it decreases towards the poles, where it is zero.

Earth's rotation results in

- Causation of days & nights;
- A difference of one hour between two meridians which are 15° apart;
- Change in the direction of wind & ocean currents; Rise & fall of tides everyday.
- The longest day in North Hemisphere is June 21, while shortest day is on 22 Dec (vice-versa in Southern Hemisphere). Days & nights are almost equal at the equator.

Earth Revolution

- It is earth's motion in elliptical orbit around the sun. Earth's average orbital velocity is 29.79 Km/sec.
- Takes 365 days, 5 hrs, 48 min & 45.51 sec. It results in one extra day every fourth year.

Revolution of the earth results in

- Change of seasons
- Variation in the lengths of days & nights at different times of the year
- Shifting of wind belts
- Determination of latitudes.

Earth Eclipses

Lunar Eclipse

- When earth comes between sun & moon.
- Occurs only on a full moon day. However, it does not occur on every full moon day because the moon is so small & the plane of its orbit is tilted about 5° with respect to the plane of the earth's orbit. It is for this reason that eclipses do not occur every month.
- This light is red because the atmosphere scatters the other colors present in sunlight in greater amounts than it does red.

Solar Eclipse

A **solar eclipse** is a type of eclipse that occurs when the Moon passes between the Sun & Earth, & the Moon fully or partially blocks the Sun. This can happen only at new moon.

INTERIOR STRUCTURE OF THE EARTH

The uppermost layer of the earth's crust which is capable of supporting life is called Lithosphere.
 The earth's interior has three different layers; they are (i) the crust (ii) mantle & (iii) the core.

(a) Earth's Crust:

All of the Earth's landform (mountains, plains, & plateaus) are contained within it, along with the oceans, seas, lakes & rivers. The thickness of earth's crust is about 30 km. There are two different types of crust: thin oceanic crust that underlies the ocean basins & thicker continental crust that underlies the continents. The boundary between the crust & the mantle is Mohorovicic Discontinuity.

(b) Earth's Mantle: It is the thick, dense rocky matter that surrounds the core with a radius of about 2900 km. The mantle covers the majority of the Earth's volume. This is basically composed of silicate rock rich in iron & magnesium. This layer is separated from the core by Gutenberg-Wiechert Discontinuity. The outer & the inner mantle are separated by another discontinuity named Repetti discontinuity.

(c) Earth's Core: Earth's Core is composed mainly of an iron & nickel alloy. The thickness of core is about 3400 km. The core is made of two layers: the outer core, which borders the mantle, and the inner core.

EARTHQUAKES

(a) The sudden tremors or shaking of earth's crust for a few second is called an earthquake.

(b) The point at the surface directly above the focus is called the earthquake epicentre.

(c) When the earth moves in an earthquake, it can cause waves in the ocean, & if a wave grows large enough, it's called a "tsunami". Underwater earthquakes sometimes produce large waves called Tsunami.

(e) The magnitude of an earthquake & the intensity of shaking, is measured on a numerical scale called Mercalli Scale. On the scale, 3 or less is scarcely noticeable, & magnitude 7 (or more) causes damage over a wide area. The point of origin of earthquake is called Seismic focus. The point on the earth's surface vertically above the earth's surface is called Epicentre.

(f) The passage of earthquake waves is recorded by Seismograph. The magnitude of waves is measured on Richter's scale. For measurement of the intensity of the earthquake (damage cause(d), the Modified Mercalli Intensity Scale is used.

Distribution of Earthquakes

(a) Around the Pacific Ocean along a belt of volcanoes known as the Ring of Fire. Roughly 90% of all earthquakes occur along the Ring of Fire.

(b) From the middle of Asia (Himalayas, Caspian Sea) through the Mediterranean Sea to West Indies.

(c) Mid-Atlantic ridge belt.

VOLCANOES

A volcano is an opening in Earth's crust that allows molten rock from beneath the crust to reach the surface. This molten rock is called magma when it is beneath the surface and lava when it erupts or flows from a volcano. Along with lava, volcanoes also release gases, ash, and rock.

Types of Volcanoes

Geologists have classified five different types of volcanoes. This classification is based on the geomorphic form, magma chemistry, & the explosiveness of the eruption. The least explosive type of volcano is called a **basalt plateau**. These volcanoes produce a very fluid basaltic magma with horizontal flows. Deposits of these volcanoes can be as thick as 1800 meters. Large basalt plateaus are found in the Columbia River Plateau, western India, northern Australia, Iceland, Brazil, Argentina, & Antarctica. Some basaltic magmas can produce very large slightly sloping volcanoes, 6 to 12°, that have gently flowing magmas called shield volcanoes **Shield volcanoes** can be up to 9000 meters tall. The volcanoes of the Hawaiian Islands are typical of this type.

A cinder cone is a small volcano, between 100 & 400 meters tall, made up of exploded rock blasted out of a central vent at a high velocity. These volcanoes develop from magma of basaltic to intermediate composition. They form when large amounts of gas accumulate within rising magma. Examples of cinder cones include Little Lake Volcano in California & Paricuti Volcano in Mexico.

Composite volcanoes are made from alternate layers of lava flows & exploded rock. Their height ranges from 100 to 3500 meters tall. The chemistry of the magma of these volcanoes is quite variable ranging from basalt to granite.

Magmas that are more granitic tend to be very explosive because of their relatively higher water content. Water at high temperatures & pressures is extremely volatile. Examples of composite volcanoes include Italy's Vesuvius, Japan's Mount Fuji, & Washington State's Mount Rainier & Mount St. Helens.

Classification on the basis of Periodicity of Eruptions:

Active Volcano:

Volcanoes which erupt periodically. E.g. Mauna Loa in Hawaii, Etna in Sicily, Vesuvius in Italy, Stromboli in Mediterranean Sea, etc.

Dormant Volcano:

Volcanoes which has been quiet for a long time but in which there is a possibility of eruption. E.g. Fujiyama in Japan, Krakatoa in Indonesia, Barren island Volcano in Andamans, etc.

Extinct Volcano:

An extinct volcano is one which is no longer active and hasn't erupted in historical times. E.g. Mount Kilimjaro.

Distribution of Volcanoes in the World

About 15% of world's active volcanoes are found along the 'constructive or divergent' plate margins, whereas 80% volcanoes are associated with the 'destructive or convergent' plate boundaries.

Earth Mountains

Mountains Types – Fold, Block, Volcanic Mountains

Types of Mountains

Fold Mountains: They are formed when the rocks of the crust of the earth folded under stress, mainly by forces of compression (as a result of series of earthquakes). E.g. Himalayas, Alps, Andes, Rockies, Atlas, etc.

Block Mountains: Earth movements generate tensional forces that tend to pull the crust apart, and faults are developed. If the block enclosed by faults remains as it is rises, and the land on either side subsides, the upstanding block become the horst or block mountain. The Great African Rift Valley (valley floor is graben), The Rhine Valley and the Vosges Mountain in Europe are examples.

Volcanic Mountains: Volcanic mountains are formed due to volcanic activity. These are, in fact, volcanoes which are built up from material ejected from fissures in the earth's crust. The materials include molten lava, volcanic bombs, cinders, ashes, dust and liquid mud. Volcanic mountains are often called mountains of accumulation. They are common in the Circum-Pacific belt and include such volcanic peaks as Mt. Fuji (Japan) Mt. Mayon (Philippines), Mt. Merapi (Sumatra) etc.

Plateau - Plateaus are elevated uplands with extensive level surfaces, and usually descend steeply to the surrounding lowland.

Types of plateau - Tectonic and Volcanic plateau.

Plain - A plain is a type of landform made up of a flat area that can exist in valleys, lowlands, on plateaus, or uplands.

Types of plain - Structural Plain, Erosional Plain, Depositional plain, Glacial plain and Abyssal plain.

ROCKS & MINERALS

About 98 per cent of the total crust of the earth is composed of eight elements like oxygen, silicon, aluminum, iron, calcium, sodium, potassium & magnesium, & the rest is constituted by titanium, hydrogen, phosphorous, manganese, sulphur, carbon, nickel & other.

(1) **The three types of rocks are**

(i) Igneous Rocks

(1) Igneous rocks solidify from a liquid magma as it cools. When magma cools rapidly, mineral crystals do not have time to grow very large. On the other hand when magma cools slowly crystals grow to several millimeters or more in size.

Granite & basalt are the examples of IR. Igneous rocks are classified as

(a) Extrusive Rocks

Extrusive igneous rocks solidify from molten material that flows over the earth's surface (lava).

Common extrusive rocks are

- (a) basalt,
- (b) andesite, &
- (c) rhyolite.

(b) Intrusive Rocks

Intrusive rocks form from molten material (magma) that flows & solidifies underground.

Common rock types within the intrusive category are granite & diorite.

ii. Sedimentary Rocks

These are types of rocks created from deposition of layers upon layers of sediments over time. These types of rocks are formed on the Earth's surface as well as underwater.

Examples – Sandstone, limestone, stromatolites, oil shale & coal shale, gypsum, shale, & conglomerate.

iii. Metamorphic Rocks

Metamorphic rocks are any rock type that has been altered by heat, pressure, and/or the chemical action of fluids & gases. When igneous rocks, or sedimentary rocks, or even metamorphic rocks get buried very deep under the earth's surface, a process that takes millions of years, they get changed into something else by the enormous pressure & heat inside the earth.

Some examples of metamorphic rocks are:

- Limestone being changed into marble
- Shale turning into slate
- Granite being changed into gneiss
- Sandstone turning into quartzite.

ATMOSPHERE

Atmosphere is a thick gaseous envelope that surrounds the earth & extends thousands of kilometers above the earth's surface. Much of the life on the earth exists because of the atmosphere otherwise the earth would have been barren. Nitrogen & Oxygen comprise 99% of the total volume of the atmosphere.

Structure of the Atmosphere

The atmosphere consists of almost concentric layers of air with varying density & temperature.

(a) Troposphere:

- Lowest layer of the atmosphere.
- The height of troposphere is 16 km thick over the equator & 10 km thick at the poles.
- All weather phenomena are confined to troposphere (e.g. fog, cloud, frost, rainfall, storms, etc.)
- Temperature decreases with height in this layer roughly at the rate of 6.5° per 1000 metres, which is called **normal lapse rate**.
- Upper limit of the troposphere is called **tropopause** which is about 1.5 km.

(b) Stratosphere:

- The stratosphere is more or less devoid of major weather phenomenon but there is circulation of feeble winds & cirrus cloud in the lower stratosphere.

- Jet aircrafts fly through the lower stratosphere because it provides perfect flying conditions.
- Ozone layer lies within the stratosphere mostly at the altitude of 15 to 35 km above earth's surface.
- Ozone layer acts as a protective cover as it absorbs ultra-violet rays of solar radiation.
- Depletion of ozone may result in rise of temperature of ground surface & lower atmosphere.
- Temperature rises from -60°C at the base of the stratosphere to its upper boundary as it absorbs ultra-violet rays.
- Upper limit of the Stratosphere is called **stratopause**.

(c) Mesosphere

- Mesosphere extends to the height of 50-90 km.
- Temperature decreases with height. It reaches a minimum of -80°C at an altitude of 80-90 km
- The upper limit is called **mesopause**.

(d) Thermosphere

- It lies at 80 km to 640 km above the earth's surface.
- It is also known as ionosphere.
- Temperature increases rapidly with increasing height.
- It is an electrically charged layer. This layer is produced due to interaction of solar radiation & the chemicals present, thus disappears with the sunset.
- There are a number of layers in thermosphere e.g.
- D-layer, E-layer, F-layer & G-layer.
- Radio waves transmitted from earth are reflected back to the earth by these layers.

(e) Exosphere

- This is the uppermost layer of the atmosphere extending beyond the ionosphere.
- The density is very low & temperature becomes 5568°C .
- This layer merges with the outer space.

About Ionosphere

At heights of 80 km (50 miles), the gas is so thin that free electrons can exist for short periods of time before they are captured by a nearby positive ion. This portion of the atmosphere is ionized & contains plasma which is referred to as the ionosphere. The Ultraviolet (UV), X-Ray & shorter wavelengths of solar radiation ionizes the atmosphere. The ionosphere is broken down into the D, E & F regions.

Pressure Belts of the World

PRESSURE & WIND BELTS

Air pressure is thus defined as total weight of a mass of column of air above per unit area at sea level. The amount of pressure exerted by air at a particular point is determined by temperature & density which is measured as a force per unit area.

Aneroid Barometer-It is the most common type barometer used in homes.

(a) Equatorial Low Pressure Belt:

At the Equator heated air rises leaving a low-pressure area at the surface. This low pressure area is known as **equatorial low pressure**. The zone shifts along with the northward or southward movement of sun during summer solstice & winter solstice respectively. The pressure belt is thermally induced because the ground surface gets heated during the day. Thus warm air expands, rises up & creates low pressure. They are also called Doldrums. Extend 5°N & 5°S to the equator.

(b) Sub-tropical High Pressure Belt:

The warm air risen up at the equator due to heating reaches the troposphere & bend towards the pole. Due to coriolis force the air descends at $30-35^{\circ}\text{N}$ & $30-35^{\circ}\text{S}$ latitude thus creates the belt of **sub-tropical high pressure**. The pressure belt is dynamically induced as it owes its origin to the rotation of the earth & sinking & settling of winds. This zone is characterized by anticyclonic conditions which cause atmospheric stability & aridity. These pressure belts are called Horse latitudes.

(c) Temperate Low Pressure Belt:

This belt is located between $60-65^{\circ}\text{N}$ & $60-65^{\circ}\text{S}$ latitudes in both the hemisphere. This pressure belt is also dynamically induced. The belt is more developed & regular in the southern hemisphere than the northern due to over dominance of water in the former.

(d) Polar High Pressure Belt:

High pressure persists at the pole due to low temperature. Thus the Polar High Pressure Belt is thermally induced as well as dynamically induced as the rotation of earth also plays a minor role.

Coriolis Force

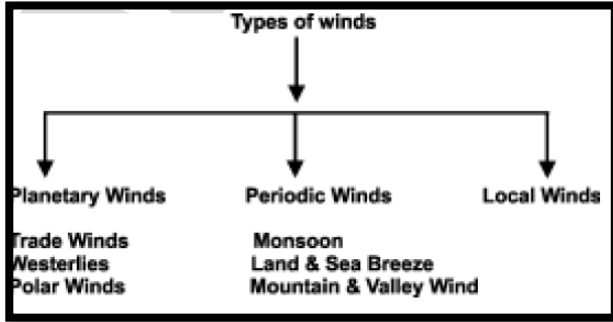
The rotation of the Earth creates force, termed Coriolis force, which acts upon wind. Instead of wind blowing directly from high to low pressure, the rotation of the Earth causes wind to be deflected off course. In the Northern Hemisphere, wind is deflected to the right of its path, while in the Southern Hemisphere it is deflected to the left. Coriolis force is absent at the equator, & its strength increases as one approaches either pole. Furthermore, an increase in wind speed also results in a stronger Coriolis force & thus in greater deflection of the wind.

Winds

When the movement of the air in the atmosphere is in a horizontal direction over the surface of the earth, it is known as the wind. Movement of the wind is directly controlled by pressure. Horizontally, at the Earth's surface wind always blows from areas of high pressure to areas of low pressure usually at speeds determined by the rate of air pressure change between pressure belts.

TYPES OF WINDS

I. Planetary winds:



Planetary winds are major component of the general global circulation of air. These are known as planetary winds because of their prevalence in the global scale throughout the year. Planetary winds occur due to temperature & pressure variance throughout the world.

The planetary winds are discussed below:

(a) Trade winds

Winds blowing from the Subtropical High Pressure Belt or horse latitudes towards the Equatorial Low Pressure Belt or the ITCZ are the trade winds. In the Northern Hemisphere, the trade winds blow from the northeast & are known as the **Northeast Trade Winds**; in the Southern Hemisphere, the winds blow from the southeast & are called the **Southeast Trade Winds**.

(b) Westerlies

The Westerlies are the prevailing winds in the middle latitudes between 35° & 65° latitude, blowing from the high pressure area in the Sub Tropical High Pressure Belt i.e. horse latitudes towards the sub polar low pressure belt. The winds are predominantly from the south-west to north-east in the Northern Hemisphere & from the north-west to south-east in the Southern Hemisphere.

The Westerlies are strongest in the winter season & times when the pressure is lower over the poles, while they are weakest in the summer season & when pressures are higher over the poles. The Westerlies are particularly strong, especially in the Southern Hemisphere, as there is less land in the middle latitudes to obstruct the flow.

(c) Polar Wind

The winds blowing in the Arctic & the Antarctic latitudes are known as the Polar Winds. They have been termed the '**Polar Easterlies**', as they blow from the Polar High Pressure belt towards the Sub-Polar Low-Pressure Belts. In the Northern Hemisphere, they blow in general from the north-east, & are called the North-East Polar Winds; & in the Southern Hemisphere, they blow from the south-east & are called the South- East Polar Winds. As these winds blow from the ice-capped landmass, they are extremely cold.

They are more regular in the Southern Hemisphere than in the Northern Hemisphere.

II. Periodic Winds:

They change their direction periodically with change in season. Land & sea breezes & monsoon winds are winds of a periodic type. Land & sea breezes occur daily, whereas the occurrence of monsoon winds is seasonal. Following are periodic winds:

- (a) Monsoon winds
- (b) Land & Sea Breeze
- (c) Mountain & Valley Breeze

(a) Monsoon Winds

Monsoons are regional scale wind systems that periodically change direction with the passing of the seasons. Like land & sea breezes, these wind systems are created by the temperature contrasts that exist between the surfaces of land & ocean.

(b) Land & Sea Breezes:

A **land breeze** is created when the land is cooler than the water such as at night & the surface winds have to be very light. When this happens the air over the water slowly begins to rise, as the air begins to rise, the air over the surface of the ocean has to be replaced, this is done by drawing the air from the land over the water, thus creating a sea breeze.

A **sea breeze** is created when the surface of the land is heated sufficiently to start rising of the air. As air rises, it is replaced by air from the sea; created a sea breeze. Sea breezes tend to be much stronger & can produce gusty winds as the sun can heat the land to very warm temperatures, thereby creating a significant temperature contrast to the water.

(c) Mountain & Valley winds:

Mountain-valley breezes are formed by the daily difference of the thermo effects between peaks & valleys. In daytime, the mountainside is directly heated by the sun, the temperature is higher, air expands, air pressure reduces, & therefore air will rise up the mountainside from the valley & generate a valley breeze.

Anabatic & Katabatic winds - Anabatic Winds are upslope winds driven by warmer surface temperatures on a mountain slope than the surrounding air column. Katabatic winds are downslope winds created when the mountain surface is colder than the surrounding air and creates a down slope wind.

III. Local Winds

These local winds blow in the various region of the world.

Hot Winds

- Sirocco - Sahara Desert
- Leveche - Spain
- Khamsin - Egypt
- Harmattan - Sahara Desert
- Santa Ana - USA
- Zonda - Argentina
- Brick fielder – Australia
- Loo – India

Cold Winds

Mistral - Spain & France
 Bora - Adriatic coast
 Pampero - Argentina
 Buran - Siberia

JET-STREAMS

The JET STREAMS located in the upper troposphere (9 - 14 km) are bands of high speed winds (95-190 km/hr). The term was introduced in 1947 by Carl Gustaf Rossby. Average speed is very high with a lower limit of about 120 km per hours in winter & 50 km per hours in summer. The two most important types of jet streams are the **Polar Jet Streams & the Subtropical Jet Streams.**

ELNINO & LANINA - El Nino is a naturally occurring phenomenon characterized by the abnormal warming of sea surface temperature in the central and eastern equatorial Pacific Ocean. La Nina is a climate pattern that describes the cooling of surface ocean waters along the tropical west coast of South America.

CYCLONES

Cyclones are well developed low-pressure systems surrounded by closed isobars having increasing pressure outside & closed air circulation towards the centre such that the air blows inward in anticlockwise direction in the northern hemisphere & clockwise in the southern hemisphere.

A. Tropical cyclones

Tropical cyclones are intense cyclonic storms that develop over the warm oceans of the tropics. Surface atmospheric pressure in the centre of tropical cyclones tends to be extremely low.

The main characteristics of tropical cyclones are:-

- Have winds that exceed 34 knots (39 miles/hr)
- Blow clockwise in the Southern Hemisphere
- Blow Counter-clockwise in the Northern Hemisphere
- This is one of the most devastating natural calamities. They are known as Cyclones in the Indian Ocean, Hurricanes in the Atlantic, Typhoons in the Western Pacific & South China Sea, & Willy-Willies in the Western Australia.

B. Temperate cyclones

The systems developing in the mid & high latitude, beyond the tropics are called the middle latitude or temperate cyclones.

Extra tropical cyclones form along the polar front. Two air masses of contrasting physical properties: one air mass is polar in character & is cold, denser & north-easterly in direction while the other air mass is tropical in origin & is warm, moist, lighter & south westerly in direction.

An **anticyclone** is a region of high atmospheric pressure related to the surrounding air, generally thousands of kilometre in diameter & also known as a **high** or **high-pressure system**. Winds in an anticyclone form a clockwise out-spiral in the Northern Hemisphere; whereas they form an anti-clockwise out-spiral in the Southern Hemisphere.

OCEANOGRAPHY

The study of physical and biological aspects of the ocean is called Oceanography. It reveals that the sea floor is not a flat area. It consists of mountains, plateaus, plains & trenches etc.

Some major submarine features are described below.

(a) Continental Shelf

- (1) The portion of the land which is submerged under sea water is continental shelf.
- (2) The continental shelf is shallow & its depth is not more than 200 metres.
- (3) In all about 7.5 percent of total area of the oceans is covered by the continental shelves.

The shelves are of great use to man because:

1. Marine food comes almost entirely from them.
2. About 20 percent of oil & gas of the world is extracted from them.
3. They are the sites of productive fishing grounds.

(b) Continental Slope

It is an area of steep slope extending just after the continental shelf up to a considerable depth from where a gentle sea plain takes its form. The extent of the slope area is usually between 200-2000 m. But sometimes it may extend to 3660 metre from the mean sea level. The continental slope along many coasts of the world is followed by deep canyon like trenches terminating as fan shaped deposits at the base. Continental slope covers 8.5 percent of the total ocean area.

(c) Continental Rise

The gently sloping surface at the base of the continental slope is called continental rise. It may extend to hundreds of km into the deep ocean basin.

(d) Deep Ocean Basins

It is the portion of sea floor that lies between the continental margin & the oceanic ridge system. It contains deep-ocean trenches, abyssal plains, & broad volcanic peaks called sea mounts.

I. Deep-Ocean Trenches:

These are long, narrow features that form the deepest parts of the ocean. Most trenches are located in the Pacific Ocean. They may reach 10,000 m deep. Mariana trench is about 11,000 m below sea level in Pacific Ocean.

II. Abyssal Plains:

These are the most level places on Earth. The abyssal plains may have less than 3 m of relief over a distance that may exceed 1300 km. Scientists determined that abyssal plains low relief is due to the fact that thick accumulations of sediment, transported by turbidity currents, have buried rugged ocean floor.

III. Sea mounts:

It is an isolated volcanic peak that rises at least 1000 m (3300 ft) above the deep-ocean floor. They are more extensive in the Pacific Ocean, where subduction zones are common. These undersea volcanoes form near oceanic ridges (regions of seafloor spreading). Some of these volcanoes may emerge as an island.

(e) Submarine Canyons

These are depressions with walls of steep slopes & have a V shape. They exist on the continental slopes & the shelves. They are found to have a length of 16 km at the maximum.

OCEAN CURRENTS

Ocean currents are large masses of surface water that circulate in regular patterns around the oceans. Those that flow from equatorial regions polewards have a higher surface temperature & are called warm currents. Those that flow from polar regions equatorwards have a lower surface temperature & are called cold currents.

Factors affecting Ocean Current

1. The planetary winds.
2. Temperatures.
3. Salinity.
4. The earth's rotation.
5. Land.

THE CIRCULATION OF OCEAN CURRENTS

THE ATLANTIC OCEAN CIRCULATION

At the 'shoulder' of north-east Brazil, the protruding lands mass splits the South Equatorial Current into the Cayenne Current which flows along the **Guiana coast, & the Brazilian Current** which flows southwards along the east coast of Brazil.

Part of the current enters the Gulf of Mexico & emerges from the Florida Strait between Florida & Cuba as the **Florida Current**.

The rest of the equatorial water flows northwards east of the Antilles to join the **Gulf Stream off the south-eastern U.S.A.**

The Gulf Stream Drift is one of the strongest ocean currents & hugs the coast of America as far as Cape Hatteras (latitude 35°N), where it is deflected eastwards under the combined influence of the Westerlies & the rotation of the earth. It reaches Europe as the **North Atlantic Drift**.

The cold **Labrador Current** drift southeastwards between West Greenland & Baffin Island to meet the warm Gulf Stream off Newfoundland. On reaching the west coast of Africa the current is diverted northwards as the **cold Benguela Current** (the counterpart of the Canaries Current).

THE PACIFIC OCEAN CIRCULATION

The North- East Trade Winds blow the **North Equatorial Current** off the coasts of the Philippines & Formosa into the East China Sea as the Kuroshio or Japan current. The cold **Bering Current or Alaskan Current** creeps southwards from the narrow Bering Strait & is joined by Okhotsk Current to meet the warm Japan Current as the **Oyashio**, off Hokkaido. The South Equatorial Current, driven by the South-East Trade winds, flows southwards along the coast of Queensland as the **East Australian Current**. Obstructed by the tip of southern Chile, the current turns northwards along the western coast of South America as the **cold Humboldt or Peruvian Current**.

THE INDIAN OCEAN CIRCULATION

The currents of **South Indian Ocean** form a circuit. The Equatorial Current, turning southwards past Madagascar as the Agulhas or Mozambique Current merges with the West Wind Drift, flowing eastwards & turns equator-wards as the West Australian Current. In the North Indian Ocean, there is a complete reversal of the direction of currents between summer & winter, due to the changes of monsoon winds. In summer from June to October, when the dominant wind is the South-West Monsoon, the currents are blown from a south-westerly direction as the South- West Monsoon Drift. This is reversed in winter; Monsoon blows the currents from the north-east as the North-East Monsoon Drift. The currents of the North Indian Ocean, demonstrate most convincingly the dominant effects of winds on the circulation of ocean currents.

OCEANS

Arctic Ocean- The Arctic Ocean is the smallest of the world's five oceans. The Northwest Passage (US & Canada) & Northern Sea Route (Norway & Russia) are two important seasonal waterways.

It is a body of water between Europe, Asia, & North America, mostly north of the Arctic Circle.

Lowest point: Fram Basin (Now known as Nansen Basin).

Atlantic Ocean- The Atlantic Ocean is the second largest of the world's five oceans. The Kiel Canal (Germany), Oresund (Denmark-Sweden), Bosphorus (Turkey), Strait of Gibraltar (Morocco-Spain), & the Saint Lawrence Seaway (Canada-US) are important strategic access waterways.

BENGALI



Target ICAR
ই-বুক আকারে সম্পূর্ণ স্ট্যান্ডি মেটেরিয়াল
চ্যাপ্টার ভিত্তিক MCQ ক্লাস
Starts Jan 3, 2022 11 AM to 3 PM

It is a body of water between Africa, Europe, the Southern Ocean, & the Western Hemisphere. It includes includes Baltic Sea, Black Sea, Caribbean Sea, part of the Drake Passage, Gulf of Mexico, Mediterranean Sea, & other tributary water bodies. Panama Canal connects the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Lowest point: Milwaukee Deep in the Puerto Rico Trench.

Indian Ocean - The Indian Ocean is the third largest of the world's five oceans. Four critically important access waterways are the Suez Canal (Egypt), Bab-el Mandeb (Djibouti-Yemen), Strait of Hormuz (Iran-Oman), & Strait of Malacca (Indonesia-Malaysia(a). It is a body of water between Africa, the Southern Ocean, Asia, & Australia. It includes Andaman Sea, Arabian Sea, Bay of Bengal, Flores Sea, Gulf of Aden, Gulf of Oman, Java Sea, Red Sea, Strait of Malacca, Timor Sea, & other tributary water bodies.

Lowest point: Java Trench

Pacific Ocean - The Pacific Ocean is the largest of the world's five oceans. Strategically important access waterways include the La Perouse, Tsugaru, Tsushima, Taiwan, Singapore, & Torres Straits.

It is body of water between the Southern Ocean, Asia, Australia, & the Western Hemisphere. It includes Bali Sea, Bering Sea, Coral Sea, East China Sea, Gulf of Alaska, Philippine Sea, Sea of Japan, Sea of Okhotsk, Tasman Sea, & other tributary water bodies.

Lowest point: Challenger Deep in the Mariana Trench.

Southern Ocean- The Southern Ocean is also called Antarctic Ocean. It is the fifth-largest drainage basin in the world by basin area (14,000,000 sq. km).

TIDES

The tide is the periodic rise & fall of the sea levels caused by the combined effects of the gravitational forces exerted by the Moon & Sun & rotation of the earth. Most places in the ocean usually experience two high tides & two low tides each day (semidiurnal tide), but some locations experience only one high & one low tide each day (diurnal tide). The times & amplitude of the tides at the coast are influenced by the alignment of the Sun & Moon, by the depth of the ocean, & by the shape of the coastline & near-shore bathymetry.

Causes of Tides

- Gravitational attraction between moon & the earth.
- Gravitational attraction between sun & the earth.
- Attraction force of the earth towards earth centre.
- Moon is mainly responsible for the tides.

Types of Tides

- Semi diurnal tides - Recur at the intervals of 12½ hours.
- Diurnal Tides - Recur at the intervals of 24½ hours.
- Spring Tides - once a fortnight, due to the revolution of the moon & its declination.

- Neap tides - Once a fortnight due to the revolution & declination of moon.
- Monthly tides - Due to the revolution of the moon & its position at Perigee & Apogee.

SPRING TIDES

Spring tides are especially strong tides or high tides. They occur when the Earth, the Sun, & the Moon are in a line. The gravitational forces of the Moon & the Sun both contribute to the tides. Spring tides occur during the full moon & the new moon.

NEAP TIDES

Neap tides are especially weak tides. They occur when the gravitational forces of the Moon & the Sun are perpendicular to one another (with respect to the Earth). Neap tides occur during quarter moons. The Bay of Fundy between Nova Scotia & New Brunswick in Canada experiences the world's greatest tidal range of 50 feet (15.25 meters).

MOUNTAINS OF INDIA

The Himalayas

Means 'Abode of Snow'. They are one of the youngest fold mountain ranges in the world & comprise mainly sedimentary rocks. They stretch from the Indus River in the west to the Brahmaputra River in the east. The Eastern Himalayas-made up of Patkai Hills, Naga Hills, Mizo Hills & the Garo, Khasi & Jaintia Hills-are also known as Purvanchal.

The Pamir, popularly known as the Roof of the World, is the connecting link between the Himalayas & the high ranges of Central Asia.

Can be divided into 3 parallel or longitudinal zones, each with separate features.

THE GREAT HIMALAYAS OR THE HIMADRI

There are few passes & almost all of them have a height above 4,500 m. They include Shipki La & Bara Lapcha La in Himachal Pradesh, Burzil & Zoji La in Kashmir, Niti, Lipulekh & Thang La in Uttarakhand, & Jelep La & Nathu La in Sikkim.

Average elevation extends upto 6000m & some of the world's highest peaks are here :

Mt Everest (or Sagarmatha or Chomo Langm(a)	8848 m (in Nepal)
Mt Kanchenjunga	8598 m (in Indi(a)
Mt Makalu	8481 m (in Nepal)
Mt Dhaulagiri	8172 m (in Nepal)
Mt Cho Oyu	8153m (in Nepal)
Mt Nanga Parbat	8126m (in Indi(a)
Mt Annapurna	8078 m (in Nepal)
Mt Nanda Devi	7817 m (in Indi(a)

LESSER HIMALAYAS OR THE HIMACHAL

Average height of mountains is 3700 – 4500 m.
 Mountains & valleys are disposed in all direction (mountains rising to 5000 m & the valleys touching 1000 m).
Its important ranges are : Dhauladhar, Pir Panjal, Nag Tibba, Mussoorie.

Outer Himalayas or The Shiwaliks

Lowest range (average elevation is 900-1200 m).
 Forms the foothills & lies between the Lesser Himalayas & the plains.

TRANS – HIMALAYAN ZONE

This range lies to the north of the Great Himalayas. It has some important ranges like Karakoram, Laddakh, Zaskar, etc. The highest peak in this region is K2 or Godwin Austin (8611m, in Pak occupied Kashmir). Other high peaks are Hidden Peak (8068 m), Broad Peak (8047 m) & Gasherbrum II (8035 m).
 The longest glacier is Siachin in the Nubra valley, which is more than 72 km long (biggest glacier in the world). Biafo, Baltaro, Batura, Hispar are the other important glaciers in this region. This area is the largest snow-field outside the Polar Regions.

IMPORTANT FACTS

- ⇒ Uttar Pradesh borders the maximum number of States- 8(Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Bihar). After UP is Assam, which touches the border of 7 States.
- ⇒ **Tropic of Cancer passes through 8 States** : Gujarat, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Tripura, Mizoram.
- ⇒ **Indian Standard Meridian passes through 5 States** : Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh.
- ⇒ **10 States form the coast of India. They are** : Gujarat, Maharashtra, Goa, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Orissa & West Bengal.
- ⇒ 2 Union Territories, viz. Daman & Diu & Pondicherry are also on the coast.
- ⇒ The Union Territories of Andaman & Nicobar Islands & Lakshadweep are made up of islands only.

THE PLAINS OF INDIA

To the south of the Himalayas & to the north of the Peninsula lies the great plains of North India. They are formed by the depositional works of three major river systems, Indus, Ganga & Brahmaputra. The vast plains of north India are alluvial in nature & the westernmost portion is occupied by the Thar Desert. The thickness of the alluvium is maximum in the Ganga plains & minimum in the Western Plains.
 The plains consist of four divisions:
Bhabar : Along the foothills of Shiwaliks. Highly porous and small streams known as Chos and Raos disappear.

Tarai : Re-emergence of streams. Zone of excessive dampness – South of Bhabar.

Bhangar : Older alluvial plains, contain calcareous formations called 'kankar'. Also exhibit small tracts of saline and alkaline efflorescences known as Reh, Kallar or Thur.

Khadar : New alluvium & forms the flood plains along the river banks. Also called Bet lands.

Delta Plains : It is extension of Khadar land. Consists mainly of old mud, new mud and marsh. The uplands are called Chars while marshy areas are known as Bils.

PENINSULAR PLATEAU OF INDIA

Spreads south of the Indo-Gangetic plains flanked by sea on three sides. This plateau is shaped like a triangle with its base in the north. The Eastern Ghats & the Western Ghats constitute its eastern & western boundaries, respectively.

⇒ Narmada, which flows through a rift valley, divides the region into two parts: The Malwa Plateau in the north & the Deccan Plateau in the south.

⇒ Vindhya Plateau is situated south of Malwa plateau.

⇒ Chhota Nagpur Plateau lies to the west of Bengal basin, the largest & most typical part of which is the Ranchi plateau.

⇒ The Deccan Plateau is the largest plateau in India. It is made up of lava flows in the Cretaceous-Eocene era through the fissure eruptions.

ISLANDS OF INDIA

Total coastline of India: 7516 km. Longest coastline: Gujarat (Second longest is of Andhra Pradesh).

The Andaman & Nicobar Group

Andaman and Nicobar is a group of 572 islands of which the largest is Middle Andaman. The Andaman are believed to be extensions of mountains system in the N.E. part of the country. Saddle Peak (737 m) in North Andaman is the highest peak.

Volcanic Islands: Barren & Narcondam Islands. Barren is in the process of eruption these days after lying dormant for 200 years.

The Arabian Sea Group

All the islands in the Arabian Sea are coral islands & are surrounded by Fringing Reefs (North: Lakshadweep, South: Minicoy).

DO YOU KNOW?

- Ten Degree Channel separates Andaman from Nicobar (Little Andaman from Car Nicobar)
- Duncan Passage lies between South Andaman & Little Andaman.
- Nine Degree Channel separates Kavaratti from Minicoy Island.
- Eight Degree Channel separates Minicoy Island (Indi(a) from Maldives.

RIVERS OF INDIA

In India, the rivers can be divided into two main groups:

Himalayan Rivers-1) Indus 2) Ganga 3) Brahmaputra

Peninsular Rivers-1) East flowing 2) West flowing

HIMALAYAN RIVERS OF INDIA
THE INDUS SYSTEM

It has a total length of 2880 km (709 km in India). Rises in Tibet (China) near Mansarovar Lake. In Jammu & Kashmir, its Himalayan tributaries are: Zaskar, Dras, Gartang, Shyok, Shigar, Nubra, Gilgit, etc. Its most important tributaries, which join Indus at various places, are: Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas & Satluj.

Sources: Jhelum from Verinag (SE Kashmir), Ravi from Kullu Hills near Rohtang Pass in Himachal Pradesh, Beas from a place near Rohtang Pass in Himachal Pradesh & Satluj from Mansarovar– Rakas lakes in W. Tibet, Chenab-near Bara Lacha Pass in Himachal Pradesh

THE GANGA SYSTEM

It is 2525 km long of which 1450 km is in Uttarakhand & UP, 445 km in Bihar & 520 km in West Bengal. The Ganga, the head stream is constituted of two main rivers – Bhagirathi & Alaknanda, which combine at Devprayag to form Ganga.

Sources: Bhagirathi from Gaumukh, Alaknanda from Badrinath, Mandakini from Kedarnath (all from Uttarakhand). Yamuna (1375 km) is its most important tributary (on right bank). It rises at the Yamunotri glacier in Uttarakhand. It runs parallel to Ganga for 800km & joins it at Allahabad. Important tributaries of Yamuna are Chambal, Betwa (480 km) & Ken (all from south). Apart from Yamuna, other tributaries of Ganga are Ghaghra (1080 km), Son (780 km), Gandak (425 km), Kosi (730 km), Gomti (805 km), Damodar (541 km). Kosi is infamous as 'Sorrow of Bihar', while Damodar gets the name 'Sorrow of Bengal' as these cause floods in these regions. Hooghli is a distributory of Ganga flowing through Kolkata.

THE BRAHMAPUTRA SYSTEM

It has a total length of 2900 km. It rises in Tibet (from Chemayungdung glacier), where it is called Tsangpo, & enters the Indian territory (in Arunachal Pradesh) under the name Dihang. Important Tributaries: Subansiri, Kameng, Dhansiri, Manas, Teesta. In Bangladesh, Brahmaputra is known by the name of Jamuna while Ganga gets the name Padma. Meghna is the most important distributory before it enters the Bay of Bengal.

The combined stream of Ganga & Brahmaputra forms the biggest delta in the world, the Sundarbans, covering an area of 58,752 sq. km. Its major part is in Bangladesh.

Majuli island on Brahmaputra in Assam, is the biggest river island in the world.

Brahmaputra, or the Red River, is navigable for a distance of 1384 km up to Dibrugarh & serves as an excellent inland water transport route.

RIVERS OF THE PENINSULA IN INDIA
A. EAST FLOWING RIVERS OF INDIA (OR DELTA FORMING RIVERS)

Mahanadi River (885 km) : Rises in Raipur district in Chhatisgarh. Hirakud dam is on Mahanadi river.

Godavari River (1465 km) : Also called Vriddha Ganga or Dakshina Ganga. It is the longest peninsular river. Rises in Nasik. Main tributaries: Manjira, Penganga, Wardha, Indravati, Wainganga, etc.

Krishna River (1327 km): Rises in Western Ghats near Mahabaleshwar. Main tributaries: Koyna, Dudhganga, Panchganga, Malprabha, Bhima, Tungabhadra, etc.

Cauvery River (805 km): It is the largest peninsular river (maximum amount of water). In fact, it is the only peninsular river which flows almost throughout the year. It rises from the Brahmagir range of Western Ghats. Main tributaries: Hemavati, Lokpawani, Shimsa.

Subernrekha River (395 km) & Brahmani (705 km) : Rises from Ranchi Plateau.

B. WEST FLOWING RIVERS IN INDIA

Narmada River (1312 km) : Rises in Amarkantak Plateau & flows into Gulf of Khambat and form estuary. It forms the famous Dhuandhar Falls near Jabalpur. Main tributaries: Hiran, Burhner, Banjar, Sher, Shakkar, Tawa, etc.

Tapti River (724 km) : Rises from Betul district in Maharashtra. Also known as twin or handmaid of Narmada. Main tributaries: Purna, Betul, Arunavati, Ganjal, etc.

Sabarmati River (416 km) : Rises from Aravallis in Rajasthan.

Mahi River (560 km) : Rises from Vindhyas in Maharashtra.

Luni River (450 km) : Rises from Aravallis. Also called Salt River. It is finally lost in the marshy grounds at the head of the Rann of Kutch.

Sharavati is a west flowing river of the Sahyadris. It forms the famous Jog or Gersoppa or Mahatma Gandhi Falls (289 m), which is the one of the highest waterfall in India.

Note:

⇒ The largest man-made lake in India is Indira Sagar Lake, which is the reservoir on Indira Sagar Dam on Narmada Sardar Sarovar Project, Omkareshwar Project & Maheshwar Project in Gujarat-Madhya Pradesh.

⇒ Chilka Lake (Oriss(a) is the largest brackish water lake of India. Otherwise also, it is the largest lake of India.

⇒ Wular Lake (J & K) is the largest fresh water lake of India. Dal Lake is situated in J & K.

⇒ From Sambhar & Didwana Lake (Rajasthan), salt is produced. Other important lakes are Vembanad in Kerala & Kolleru & Pulicat in Andhra Pradesh.

The three important Gulfs in the Indian Territory are:

Gulf of Kachchh (west of Gujarat) : Region with highest potential of tidal energy generation.

Gulf of Cambay or Gulf of Khambat (Gujarat) : Narmada, Tapti, Mahi & Sabarmati drain into it.

Gulf of Mannar (south east of Tamil Nadu) : Asia's first marine biosphere reserve.

IMPORTANT RIVER VALLEY PROJECTS IN INDIA

- **Bhakra Nangal Project:** On Satluj in Punjab. Highest in India. Height 226 m. Reservoir is called Gobind Sagar Lake.
- **Mandi Project:** On Beas in Himachal Pradesh.
- **Chambal Valley Project:** On Chambal in Madhya Pradesh & Rajasthan. 3 dams are there under this project: Gandhi Sagar Dam, Rana Pratap Sagar Dam & Jawahar Sagar dam.
- **Damodar Valley Project:** On Damodar in Bihar.
- **Hirakud:** On Mahanadi in Orissa. World's longest dam: 4801 m.
- **Rihand :** On Son(river) in Mirzapur. Reservoir is called Govind Vallabh Pant reservoir.
- **Mayurkashi Project :** On Mayurkashi in West Bengal.
- **Kakrapar Project :** On Tapi in Gujarat.
- **Nizamsagar Project:** On Manjra in Andhra Pradesh.
- **Nagarjuna Sagar Project :** On Krishna in Andhra Pradesh.
- **Shivasamudram Project:** On Cauvery in Karnataka.
- **Tata Hydrel Scheme :** On Bhima in Maharashtra.
- **Sharavathi Hydrel Project :** On Jog Falls in Karnataka.
- **Kundah & Periyar Project -** On Bhawani and Periyar river respectively in Tamil Nadu.
- **Farakka Project:** On Ganga in West Bengal. Apart from power & irrigation it helps to remove silt for easy navigation.
- **Ukai Project :** On Tapti in Gujarat.
- **Salal Project :** On Chenab in J & K.
- **Mata Tila Multipurpose Project :** On Betwa in U.P & M.P.
- **Thein Project :** On Ravi, Punjab.
- **Pong Dam :** On Beas, Punjab.

Climate of INDIA

India has tropical monsoon type of climate.

CLIMATE SEASONS IN INDIA

In India, the year can be divided into four seasons, resulting from the monsoons which occur mainly due to the differential heating of land & movement of the sun's vertical rays.

The highest temperature experienced in South is in April while in North it is in May & June. **NORWESTERS 'Cherry Blossoms'** are there in Karnataka, beneficial to coffee plantation & **'Mango showers'** in elsewhere South India, which are beneficial to mango crops.

The south – west monsoon enters the country in two currents, one blowing over the Bay of Bengal & the other over the Arabian Sea. This monsoon causes rainfall over most of the country (except Tamil Nadu & Thar Desert are(a).

The Bay of Bengal branch after crossing the deltaic region enters the Khasi valley in Meghalaya & gets entrapped in it due to funnel shape of the region. It strikes Cherrapunji in a perpendicular direction causing heaviest rainfall in Mawsynram (Approx. 1400 cm). From mid-Sept to mid-Dec, the monsoon retreats. As the sun's vertical rays start shifting towards the Tropic of Capricorn, the low pressure area starts moving south & winds finally start blowing from land to sea. This is called **north-east monsoon**. The withdrawal of monsoon is a much more gradual process than its onset. It causes rainfall in Tamil Nadu as the winds pick some moisture from Bay of Bengal. This explains the phenomenon why Tamil Nadu remains dry when the entire country receives rain & why it gets rain when practically the entire country is dry.

CLIMATIC REGIONS OF INDIA

India can be divided into a number of climatic regions.

Tropical Rainy Climate: Found in the west coastal plains, the Western Ghats & parts of Assam. Characterised by high temperatures throughout the year. Rainfall, though seasonal, is heavy- about 200 cm annually during May-November.

Tropical Savanna Climate : In most of the peninsula region except the semi-arid zone in the leeward side of the Western Ghats. It is characterized by long dry weather throughout winter & early summer & high temperature (above 18.2 Deg.(c); annual rainfall varies from 76 cm in the west to 150 cm in the east.

Tropical Semi-Arid Steppe Climate : It prevails in the rain-shadow belt running southward from Central Maharashtra to Tamil Nadu in the leeward side of the Western Ghats & the Cardamom Hills. It is characterized by low rainfall which varies from 38 cm to 80 cm, high temperature between 20 & 30 degree.

Tropical & Subtropical Steppes : Large areas in Punjab, Haryana & Kutch region. Temperature varies from 12-35 Deg. c. The maximum temperature reaches up to 49 Deg.c. The annual rainfall, varying from 30.5-63.5 cm, is also highly erratic.

Tropical desert : This climate extends over the western parts of Banner, Jaisalmer & Bikaner districts of Rajasthan & parts of Kutch. It is characterized by scanty rainfall (30.5 cm), which is highly erratic. Rains are mostly in the form of cloud-burst. Mean monthly temperature is uniformly high (about 35(c).

Humid Subtropical Climate with Dry Winters : This area includes south of the Himalayas, east of the tropical & subtropical steppes & north of tropical savannah. Winters are mild to severe while summers are extremely hot. The annual rainfall varies from 63.5 cm to more than 254 cm, most of it received during the south west monsoon season.

Mountain Climate : Such type of climate is seen in mountainous regions which rise above 6,000 m or more such as the Himalayas & the Karakoram Range.

Factors Affecting India's Climate

Latitude: The Indian landmass is equally divided by The Tropic of Cancer. Hence, half of India has tropical climate & another half has subtropical climate.

Altitude: While the average elevation in the coastal areas is about 30 metre, the average elevation in the north is about 6,000 metre. The Himalayas prevent the cold winds from Central Asia from entering the Indian subcontinent. Due to this, the subcontinent gets comparatively milder winters as compared to Central Asia.

Pressure & Winds: The Indian subcontinent lies in the region of north-easterly winds. These winds originate from the subtropical high-pressure belt of the northern hemisphere. After that, these winds blow towards south. They get deflected to the right due to the Coriolis force & then move towards the low pressure area near the equator.

Soils

1. Alluvial Soil:

In India it covers about 40 per cent of the total land area. It is very fertile & contributes the largest share of agricultural wealth. Found mostly in the Northern Plains, starting from Punjab in the west to West Bengal & Assam in the east. The northern parts & the coastal areas of Gujarat also have some deposits of alluvial soil. The fine particles of sand, silt & clay are called alluvium.

The alluvial soil can be divided into

- a. Old alluvium, called bhangar
- b. New alluvium, called khadar.

Alluvial soil is most suited to irrigation & can produce bumper crops of rice, wheat, maize, sugarcane, tobacco, cotton, jute, oilseeds, etc.

2. Black Soil:

The black soil is locally called regur, a word derived from Telugu word 'reguda'. It is also called the Black Cotton Soil, as cotton is the most important crop grown in this soil. The black soil is mostly found in the Deccan Trap, covering large areas of Maharashtra, Gujarat & western Madhya Pradesh. The black soil is well-known for its capacity to hold moisture. Black soil is widely used for producing cotton, wheat, linseed, millets, tobacco & oilseeds.

3. Red Soil:

The red soil occupies about 18 per cent area of India, mostly in the south-eastern part of the Peninsular India. The red soil is found in Tamil Nadu, parts of Karnataka, southeast Maharashtra, eastern parts of Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa & Jharkhand. The red colour is due to the high percentage of iron contents. This soil is rich in potash, but poor in lime, phosphate, nitrogen & humus. Red soils can give excellent yields of cotton, wheat, rice, pulses, millet, tobacco, oilseeds, etc.

4. Laterite Soil:

The word 'laterite' has been derived from a Latin word meaning 'brick'. It is mainly found on the summits of the Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats, Rajmahal Hills, Vindhyas, Satpuras & Malwa plateau. It is well- developed in southern Maharashtra, & parts of Orissa, West Bengal, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Bihar, Assam & Meghalaya. Such climatic conditions promote leaching of soil. Leaching is a process in which heavy rains wash away the fertile part of the soil.

The laterite soil is red in colour & composed of little clay & much gravel of red sandstones.

Due to intensive leaching, the laterite soil generally lacks fertility & is of low value for crop production. But when manured & timely irrigated, the soil is suitable for producing plantation crops like tea, coffee, rubber, coconut, arecanut, etc.

5. Mountain Soil:

The mountain soil is generally found on the hill slopes covered with forests. This soil is also found in the Western & Eastern Ghats & in some parts of the Peninsular India. This soil is rich in humus, but poor in potash, phosphorus & lime.

In the Himalayan region wheat, maize, barley & temperate fruits are grown on this soil. This soil is especially suitable for producing plantation crops, such as tea, coffee, spices & tropical fruits in Karnataka, Tamil Nadu & Kerala.

6. Desert Soil:

The desert soil is found mostly in the arid & semi-arid regions, receiving less than 50 cm of annual rainfall. Such regions are mostly found in Rajasthan & the adjoining areas of Haryana & Punjab. The Rann of Kachchh in Gujarat is an extension of this region. The desert soil has sand (90 to 95 per cent) & clay (5 to 10 per cent). Desert soil can produce a variety of crops, such as wheat, millet, barley, maize, pulses, cotton, etc.

NATURAL VEGETATION IN INDIA

Tropical Evergreen Forests-In areas over 250 cm rainfall. In Western Ghats, hilly areas in N.E. India & Andaman & Nicobar Islands. Trees are rosewood, shisham, ebony, ironwood, etc.

Tropical Deciduous Forests-In areas having rainfall 100 – 200 cm. In peninsular region & along the foothills of Himalayas in Shivaliks, Bhabhar & Tarai. The trees of these forests drop their leaves for about 6-8 weeks during the spring & early summer when sufficient moisture isn't available. Trees are teak, sal, bamboo, sandalwood, rosewood, etc.

Tropical Thorny Forests-In areas having rainfall between 25 & 80 cm. In arid regions of Rajasthan, Punjab, Haryana & Gujarat. Trees are palm, acacia, etc.

Alpine and Sub-alpine Forest-In hills of Southern India & the Himalayas. **The type of trees depends upon the height of the mountain** : Sal & bamboo below 1000 m; oaks, chestnuts & other fruit trees, & chir forests between 1000 & 2000 m; pine, deodar, silver fern & spruce between 1600 & 3300 m; above 3600 m alpine forests with trees like silver firs, pines, birches, etc. Alpine forests give way to Alpine grasslands & scrubs as we move up further.

Tidal or Mangrove Forests- Also known as Littoral or Swamp Forests. Occur along the sea coast & in the estuaries of rivers, especially in Sunderbans & the Andamans. Most important tree is Sundari. It provides hard & durable timber which is used for construction & building purposes as well as for making boats.

IMPORTANT POINTS

Madhya Pradesh has the largest area under forests followed by Arunachal Pradesh. As per percentage of forest area to total area, first is Andaman & Nicobar Islands, followed by Mizoram. In Mangrove forests, West Bengal holds the first position, followed by Gujarat & Andaman & Nicobar Islands. The lowest forest percentage is in Haryana & Punjab, because of the extensive agriculture.

BIOSPHERE RESERVES IN INDIA

In India, the first biosphere reserve – Nilgiri biosphere reserve – came into being in 1986. So far, 18 biosphere reserves have been set up in the country.

NATIONAL PARKS & WILD LIFE SANCTUARIES

There are 103 National Parks & 544 Wildlife Sanctuaries in India. Madhya Pradesh & Andaman & Nicobar Islands have the maximum number of National Parks (9 each) while Andaman & Nicobar Islands has 96 & Maharashtra has 42 Wildlife Sanctuaries (maximum in Indi(a).

CROPPING SEASONS IN INDIA

Kharif Crops of India

Sown in summers between May & July, & harvested after the rains, in September & October.

E.g. : Rice, Jowar, Bajra, Maize, Cotton, Jute, Sugarcane, Tobacco, Groundnut, Pulses, etc.

Rabi Crops of India

Sown at the beginning of winter & harvested before the onset of the summer season, between February & April. E.g. : Wheat, barley, oilseeds, gram, potatoes, etc.

Zaid Crops

They are raised between April & June.

E.g. : Melon, Watermelon, Cucumber, Toris, leafy & other vegetables.

Cash Crops of India (Commercial Crops)

Grown mainly for the market, only a small portion of the product is consumed by the farmers themselves (cotton, sugarcane etc.)

Sugarcane	In UP, Maharashtra, Karnataka
Cotton	In Maharashtra, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh
Jute & Mesta	In West Bengal, Bihar, Assam
Tea	In Assam, West Bengal, Himachal Pradesh
Coffee	In Kamalaka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu
Rubber	In Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka
Silk	In Karnataka, Jammu & Kashmir, Andhra Pradesh. In India all 4 varieties of silk are available: Mulberry, Tussar, Eri & Muga. Mulberry is the main variety, while Tussar is mainly found in Bihar.
Tobacco	In Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka

Jhum

Shifting type of cultivation practiced in the hill slopes of Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Mizoram & Nagaland. In this, the trees are felled & set on fire. The ash of the burnt trees & the other vegetation adds to the fertility of soil. This land is used for 2-3 years till the soil gets exhausted & the jhum is abandoned. It is also known as Dahi, Koman, Penda, Podu and Bewar in different parts of country.

Green Revolution

- To increase yield per hectare government of India introduced a programme called Green Revolution.
- The Green Revolution (first) was launched in 1967-68.
- Father of Green Revolution - Dr. Norman Borlaug.
- Father of Green Revolution in India - Dr. M.S. Swaminathan.
- Green Revolution focused the development of high-yielding varieties of cereal grains, expansion of irrigation infrastructure, & distribution of hybridized seeds, synthetic fertilizers, & pesticides to farmers.

White Revolution

- The White Revolution in the country has been achieved by means of Operation Flood. It was carried out in three phases.
- Operation Flood I - 1970 - 1981
- Operation Flood II - 1981 - 1985

- Operation Flood III - 1985 - 1996.
- White revolution launched to increase the quality & quantity of milk & dairy products.
- The Father of the White Revolution in India is Dr. Varghese Kurien. He is also known as **Milkman of India**.

TRANSPORT IN INDIA

Indian Railway-Indian railway system is the largest in Asia & the fourth largest in the world. It is the biggest departmental public undertaking in the country. The first train ran in India between Bombay & Thane, a stretch of 34 km. on April 16th, 1853. The second train ran between Howrah & Hooghly in 1854. The headquarters of Indian Railway is in New Delhi.

The first electric train in India was 'Deccan Queen'. It was introduced in 1929 between Bombay & Poona. Indian Railways has the second biggest electrified system in the world after Russia.

The fastest train in India is the Shatabdi Express whose maximum speed is 140 km/hr. The total route covered is approx 63,000 km. The total number of railway stations in India is 7,100. The longest railway platforms are: Gorakhpur railway station, Uttar Pradesh, India: 1,366.33 m (4,483 ft) (longest in the world). Mumbai is the destination where maximum number of trains in India head for.

The first Metro Rail was introduced in Kolkata (West Bengal) on October 24, 1984. The two stations connected were Dum Dum & Belgachhia.

Konkan Railways India : It is a project to shorten the distance between Maharashtra, Goa & Karnataka. The total route length is 786 km between Apta (Maharashtra) & Mangalore (Karnataka).

Water Transport in India

The total length of navigable waterways in Indian comprising rivers, canals, backwaters, etc, is 14,500 km out of which 3700 km is navigable by mechanised boats.

The government has recognised the following National Waterways of India:

- NW 1: Allahabad to Haldia – 1,629 kms
- NW 2: Sadia to Dhubari (on Brahmaputra river) – 891 kms
- NW 3: Kollam to Kottapuram – 186 kms
- NW 4: Kakinada to Marakkanam (Along Godavari & Krishna river) – 1,100 km

Ports in India

The Waterways Authority in India divides Indian ports into three categories, major, minor & intermediate. India has about 190 ports in all, with 12 major & the rest intermediate & minor.

The 12 Major Ports are:

Port	State
Kolkata (including Haldi(a))	West Bengal
Paradip	Orissa
Vishakhapatnam	Andhra Pradesh
Chennai	Tamil Nadu
Ennore	Tamil Nadu
Tuticorin	Tamil Nadu
Cochin	Kerala
New Mangalore	Karnataka
Mormugao	Goa
Jawaharlal Nehru	Maharashtra
Mumbai	Maharashtra
Kandla	Gujarat

BOUNDARY LINES

Durand Line	Pakistan & Afghanistan
MacMohan Line	India & China
Radcliffe Line	India & Pakistan
Maginot Line	France & Germany
Oder Niesse Line	Germany & Poland
Hindenberg Line	Poland & Germany (at the time of First World War)
38th Parallel	North & South Korea
49th Parallel	USA & Canada

Area Geography & Boundaries OF INDIA

1. Geography Area of India: 32,87,263 sq. km. Accounts for 2.4% of the total world area & roughly 16% of the world population.
2. Mainland India has a coastline of 6,100 km. Including the Lakshadweep & Andaman & Nicobar Islands, the coastline measures about 7516.6 km.
3. In India, of the total land mass:
 - a. Plains: 43.3%
 - b. Plateaus: 27.7%
 - c. Hills: 18.6%
 - d. Mountains: 10.7%
4. In the South, the Gulf of Mannar & the Palk Strait separate India from Sri Lanka.
5. Total land neighbours: 7 (Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh & Myanmar).
6. India's Islands include the Andaman & Nicobar Islands in Bay of Bengal & Lakshadweep, Minicoy & Amindive Islands in the Arabian Sea.

INDIA FACTS

- Highest Civilian Award-Bharat Ratna
- Highest Gallantry Award-Param Vir Chakra
- Longest Tributary river of India-Yamuna
- Largest Lake-Wular Lake, Kashmir (Fresh Water)
- Largest Lake (Saline Water)-Chilka Lake, Orrisa
- Largest Man-Made Lake-Govind Vallabh Pant Sagar (Rihand Dam)
- Highest Lake-Devital Lake, Gadhwal (Uttarakhan(d)
- Highest Peak-Karkoram or K-2(8,611 meters) (Indi(a)
- Largest Populated City-Mumbai
- Highest rainfall-Cherrapunji (426 inches per annum) Mawsynram
- State wise largest area under forest- Madhya Pradesh
- Largest Delta- Sunderbans Delta
- Longest River Bridge- Bhupen Hazarika Setu on Lohit river(Assam)
- Biggest Cave temple-Ellora
- Longest Road-Grand Trunk Road
- Longest Canal-Indira Gandhi Canal or Rajasthan Canal (Rajasthan)
- Largest Museum-India Museum at Kolkata
- Longest Dam-Hirakud Dam (Odish(a)
- Highest Dam-Tehri Dam (260 meters , 850 ft)
- Largest District-Kutch district (Area wis(e)
- Longest Highway National Highway 44 (NH 44) begins from Srinagar and terminates in Kanyakumari
- Smallest State (Population)-Sikkim
- Smallest State (Are(a)-Goa
- Largest State (Are(a)-Rajasthan
- Largest State (Population)-Uttar Pradesh
- Largest Cave Temple-Kailash Temple, Ellora (Maharashtra)
- Largest Port-Mumbai
- Largest Church-Saint Cathedral (Go(a)
- Longest Beach-Marina Beach, Chennai
- Highest Airport-Leh (Laddakh)
- Largest River Island-Majuli (Brahmaputra River, Assam)

Major Mountain Ranges of the World

- **Andes** -South America
- **Himalayas**-Karakoram-Hindukush -South Central Asia
- **Rockies** -North America
- **Great Dividing Range**-East Australia
- **Western Ghats**-Western India
- **Caucasus Europe**-Asia
- **Alaska** -USA
- **Alps** -Europe
- **Apennines** -Europe
- **Ural** -Asia
- **Pennines** -Europe
- **Pyrenees**-Europe
- **Appalachian** -North America

HIMALAYAS

- **Punjab Himalaya**-Between Indus & Satluj
- **Kumaon Himalaya**-Between Satluj & Kali
- **Nepal Himalaya**-Between Kali & Tista
- **Assam Himalaya**-Between Tista & Dihang (Brahmaputra(a)

IMPORTANT LAGOONS & LAKES

- **VEMBNAD LAKE**- Large sized lagoon located in Kerala.
- **KAYALS**-Popularly called back water in Kerala. Peaty soils of backwaters are called Kari in Kerala.
- **CHILKA LAKE**- Situated in south west of the Mahanadi Delta.
- **WULAR LAKE**: Situated in Jammu & Kashmir. Largest fresh water lake of India
- **KOLLERU LAKE**: Andhra Pradesh
- **PULICAT LAKE**: Andhra Pradesh
- **JAISAMAND LAKE**: Largest fresh water lake of Rajasthan
- **NAKKI LAKE**: Small natural lake near Mt. Abu surrounded by hills important as tourist place.
- **LOKTAK LAKE**: Manipur.
- **SAMBHAR LAKE**: Largest Lake of Rajasthan lies on the border of Jaipur & Nagaur District.
- **DEEDWANA LAKE**: Rajasthan

MISCELLANEOUS
Principal Peaks of Himalayas

1. Mt. Everest -8848 m (Nepal-Tibet)
2. Mt. K2-8611 m (Indi(a)
3. Kanchenjunga -8597 m (Nepal-Indi(a)
4. Dhaulagiri - 8172 m (Nepal)
5. Nanga Parbat - 8126 m (Indi(a)
6. Annapurna - 8078 m (Nepal)
7. Gasherbrum - 8068 m (Indi(a)
8. Nanda Devi - 7817 m (Indi(a)
9. Mt. Kamet - 7756 m (Indi(a)
10. Gurla Mandhata - 7728 (Tibet)

Valleys and its locations

- Araku Valley : Andhra Pradesh
- Damodar Valley : Jharkhand and West Bengal
- Darma Valley : Uttarakhand
- Dzukou Valley : North-eastern part
- Johar Valley : Uttarakhand
- Markha Valley : Ladakh
- Nubra Valley : Ladakh
- Sangla Valley : Himachal Pradesh
- Saur Valley : Uttarakhand
- Suru Valley : Ladakh
- Tons Valley : Uttarakhand
- Yumthang Valley : Sikkim

States and Union Territories of India

States - Capital

1. Andhra Pradesh - Hyderabad
2. Arunachal Pradesh - Itanagar
3. Assam – Dispur
4. Bihar - Patna
5. Chhattisgarh- Raipur
6. Goa - Panaji
7. Gujarat - Gandhinagar
8. Haryana - Chandigarh
9. Himachal Pradesh - Shimla
10. Jharkhand - Ranchi
11. Karnataka - Bangaluru
12. Kerala - Tiruvananthapuram
13. Madhya Pradesh - Bhopal
14. Maharashtra - Mumbai
15. Manipur - Imphal
16. Meghalaya - Shillong
17. Mizoram - Aizawl
18. Nagaland - Kohima
19. Odisha - Bhubaneswar
20. Punjab - Chandigarh
21. Rajasthan - Jaipur
22. Sikkim - Gangtok
23. Tamil Nadu - Chennai
24. Uttarakhand - Dehradun
25. Uttar Pradesh - Lucknow
26. Tripura - Agartala
27. West Bengal - Kolkata
28. Telangana - Hyderabad

Union Territory - Capital

1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands - Port Blair
2. Chandigarh - Chandigarh
3. Dadra & Nagar Haveli and Daman & Diu - Daman
4. Lakshadweep - Kavaratti
5. Puducherry - Puducherry
6. National Capital Territory of Delhi - New Delhi
7. Jammu & Kashmir - Srinagar
8. Ladakh - Leh

River Valley Projects

- Bhakra Nangal Project On Sutlej in Punjab, Highest in India. Ht 226 m. Reservoir is called Gobind Sagar Lake.
- Mandi Project On Beas in HP.
- Chambal Valley Project On Chambal in M.P. & Rajasthan. 3 dams are there: Gandhi Sagar Dam, Rana Pratap Sagar Dam and Jawahar Sagar Dam.
- Damodar Valley Project On Damodar in Bihar. Based on Tennessee Valley Project, USA.
- Hirakud Project On Mahanadi in Orissa. World's longest dam : 4801 m.

- Rihand Project On Son in Mirzapur. Reservoir is called Govind Vallabh Pant reservoir.
- Kosi Project On Kosi in Bihar.
- Mayurkashi Project On Mayurkashi in WB.
- Kakrapara Project On Tapti in Gujarat.
- Nizamsagar Project On Manjra in AP.
- Nagarjuna Sagar Project On Krishna in AP.
- Tungabhadra Project On Tungabhadra in AP & Karnataka.
- Shivasamudram Project On Kavery in Karnataka. It is the oldest river valley project of India.
- Tata Hydrel Scheme On Bhima in Maharashtra.
- Sharavathi Hydrel Project On Jog Falls in Karnataka.
- Kundah & Periyar Project In Tamil Nadu.
- Farakka Project On Ganga in WB. Apart from power and irrigation it helps to remove silt for easy navigation.
- Ukai Project On Tapti in Gujarat.
- Mahi Project On Mahi in Gujarat.
- Salal Project On Chenab in J & K.
- Mata Tila Multipurpose Project On Betwa in UP & MP.
- Thein Project On Ravi, Punjab.
- Pong Dam On Beas, Punjab.
- Tehri Project On Bhagirathi, Uttarakhand.
- Sardar Sarovar Project On Narmada, Gujarat/MP.

Wildlife Sanctuaries and National Parks in India

1. Bandipur National Park - Mysore, Karnataka.
2. Balpakram Sanctuary - Garo Hills, Meghalaya.
3. Chandraprabha Sanctuary - Varanasi, Uttar Pradesh.
4. Corbett National Park - Nainital, Uttarakhand.
5. Dachigam Sanctuary - Jammu and Kashmir.
6. Dudhwa National Park - Lakhimpur Kheri, Uttar Pradesh.
7. Ghana Bird Sanctuary - Bharatpur, Rajasthan.
8. Gir National Park (Home of the Asiatic Lion) - Junagarh, Gujarat.
9. Hazaribagh National Park - Hazaribagh, Jharkhand.
10. Jaldapara Sanctuary - Jalpaiguri, West Bengal.
11. Kanha National Park - Mandla and Balaghat, Madhya Pradesh.
12. Kaziranga National Park - Jorhat, Assam.
13. Manas (Tiger Sanctuary) - Barpeta, Assam.
14. Mudumalai Sanctuary - Nilgiri Hills, Tamil Nadu.
15. Namdapha National Park - Tirap district, Arunachal Pradesh.
16. Palamau - Daltonganj, Jharkhand.
17. Parkal - Warangal, Andhra Pradesh.
18. Periyar - Idukki, Kerala.
19. Ranganthitu Bird Sanctuary - Mandya, Karnataka.
20. Shivpuri National Park - Shivpuri, Madhya Pradesh.
21. Sunderbans (Tiger Sanctuary) - West Bengal.
22. Vedanthangal Bird Sanctuary - Tamil Nadu.
23. Wild Ass Sanctuary - Little Rann of Kutch, Gujarat.

Indian Towns on Rivers

1. Allahabad (Prayagraj) - At the confluence of the Ganga and Yamuna.
2. Patna - Ganga
3. Varanasi- Ganga
4. Kanpur- Ganga
5. Haridwar - Ganga
6. Badrinath - Alaknanda
7. Agra- Yamuna
8. Delhi - Yamuna
9. Mathura - Yamuna
10. Ferozpur - Satluj
11. Ludhiana - Satluj
12. Srinagar - Jhelum
13. Lucknow - Gomti
14. Jaunpur - Gomti
15. Ayodhya - Saryu
16. Bareilly - Ram ganga
17. Ahmedabad - Sabarmati
18. Kota - Chambal
19. Jabalpur - Narmada
20. Panji - Mandavi
21. Ujjain - Kshipra
22. Surat -Tapti
23. Jamshedpur - Subarnarekha
24. Dibrugarh -Brahmaputra
25. Guwahati -Brahmaputra
26. Kolkata -Hooghly
27. Sambalpur- Mahanadi
28. Cuttack -Mahanadi
29. Serirangapatnam -Cauvery
30. Hyderabad -Musri
31. Nasik - Godavari
32. Vijayawada - Krishna
33. Curnool - Tungabhadra
34. Tiruchirapalli - Kaveri

Nick Name of Indian Places

1. Golden City - Amritsar.
2. Manchester of India - Ahmedabad
3. Twin City Hyderabad-Sikandarabad
4. City of festivals - Mudurai
5. Deccan Queen - Pune
6. City of Buildings - Kolkata
7. Dakshin Ganga - Godavari
8. Old Ganga - Godavari
9. Egg bowls of Asia - Andhra Pradesh
10. Soya region - Madhya Pradesh

11. Manchester of the South - Coimbatore
12. City of Nawabs - Lucknow
13. Venice of the east - Kochi
14. Queen of the Mountains - Mussoorie (Uttarkhan(d)
15. Sacred river - Ganga
16. Hollywood of India - Mumbai
17. City of Castles - Kolkata
18. State of five rivers - Punjab
19. City of weavers - Panipat
20. City of lakes - Srinagar
21. Steel city of India - Jamshedpur (called Tatanagar)
22. City of Temples - Varanasi
23. Manchester of the north - Kanpur
24. City of Rallies - New Delhi
25. Heaven of India - Jammu & Kashmir
26. Boston of India - Ahmedabad
27. Garden of spices of India - Kerala
28. Switzerland of India - Kashmir
29. Abode of the God- Prayag (Allahaba(d)
30. Pittsburg of India -Jamshedpur
31. City of seven islands- Mumbai
32. Blue Mountains -Nilgiri
33. Queen of Arabian Sea- Kochi
34. Space City -Bengaluru
35. Garden City of India - Bengaluru
36. Silicon valley of India - Bengaluru
37. Electronic City of India - Bengaluru
38. Pink City – Jaipur
39. Gateway of India- Mumbai



Ancient History for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

STONE AGE

PALEOLITHIC OR OLD STONE AGE (5,00,000 B.C. – 10,000 B.C.)

- In India, the Palaeolithic Age developed in the Pleistocene period or the Ice Age and was spread.
 - In practically all parts of India except the alluvial parts of Ganga and Indus.
 - Food gathering and hunting were the main occupations of the people of this phase. They had no knowledge of agriculture, fire or pottery of any material.
 - Man during this period used tools of unpolished, undressed rough stones and lived in cave and rock shelters.
 - They mainly used hand axes, cleavers, choppers, blades, scrapers and burin.
 - Their tools were made of hard rock called 'quartzite'.
 - Hence Paleolithic men are also called 'Quartzite Men'.
 - Homo sapiens first appeared in the last phase of Paleolithic age.
 - The Paleolithic Age in India has been divided into three phases according to the nature of stone tools used by the people and also according to the nature of change in the climate – Early or lower Paleolithic, Middle Paleolithic and Upper Paleolithic.
- (a) The Early Paleolithic Age covers the greater part of the Ice Age. Its characteristic tools are hand axes, cleavers and choppers. Such tools have been found in Soan and Sohan river valley (now in Pakistan) and in the Belan Valley in the Mirzapur district of UP. In this period climate became less humid.
- (b) Middle Paleolithic Phase is characterized by the use of stone tools made of flakes mainly scrapers, borers and blade like tools. The sites are found in the valleys of Soan, Narmada and Tungabhadra rivers. During this phase, Pithecanthropus or Homo erectus evolved.
- (c) In the Upper Paleolithic Phase, the climate became warm and less humid. This stage is marked by burins and scrapers. Such tools have been found in AP, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Bhopal and Chhota Nagpur plateau.
- The Old Stone Age sites are widely found in various parts of the Indian subcontinent and are generally located near water sources.
 - In the Old Stone Age, food was obtained by hunting animals and gathering edible plants and tubers. Therefore, these people are called as hunter-gatherers.
 - The hunting of large animals would have required the combined effort of a group of people with large stone axes. Their way of life became modified with the passage of time since they made attempts to domesticate animals, make crude pots and grow some plants.
 - A few Old Stone Age paintings have also been found on rocks at Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh and other places. The period before 10000 B.C. is assigned to the Old Stone Age.

- Some of the famous sites of Old Stone Age in India are:
 - (a) The Soan valley and Potwar Plateau on the northwest India;
 - (b) The Siwalik hills on the north India;
 - (c) Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh;
 - (d) Adamgarh hill in Narmada valley;
 - (e) Kurnool in Andhra Pradesh; and
 - (f) Attirampakkam near Chennai.
- At Chopani-Mando in the Belan valley of the Vindhyas and the middle part of the Narmada valley a sequence of occupation from all the three stages of the Paleolithic to Neolithic stage have been found in sequence. Chopani Mando is an important site where fossil animal bones have been found.
- The Son and the adjacent Belan valley (Mirzapur, UP) provide a sequence of artifacts from lower Paleolithic to Neolithic.

MESOLITHIC OR MIDDLE STONE AGE (10,000 B.C. – 6000 B.C.)

- The next stage of human life is called Mesolithic or Middle Stone Age which falls roughly from 10000 B.C. to 6000 B.C. and was the transitional phase between the Paleolithic Age and Neolithic Age.
- Various Mesolithic sites are found in the Chhotanagpur region, Central India and also south of the Krishna River.
- Mesolithic remains are found in Langhanj in Gujarat, Adamgarh in Madhya Pradesh and also in some places of Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.
- In the sites of Mesolithic Age, a different type of stone tools is found. These are tiny stone artifacts, often not more than five centimeters in size. These characteristic tools of the Mesolithic Age are known as Microliths-pointed, crescentic blades, scrapers, etc, all made of stone.
- The paintings and engravings found at the rock shelters give an idea about the social life and economic activities of Mesolithic people. The hunting-gathering pattern of life continued during this period.
- However, there seems to have been a shift from big animal hunting to small animal hunting and fishing. The use of bow and arrow also began during this period.
- Also, there began a tendency to settle for longer periods in an area. Therefore, domestication of animals, horticulture and primitive cultivation started.
- The last phase of this age saw the beginning of plain cultivation. Animal bones are found in these sites and these include dog, deer, boar and ostrich.
- Occasionally, burials of the dead along with some microliths and shells seem to have been practiced.

NEOLITHIC AGE (6000 BC – 1000 B.C.)

- A remarkable progress is noticed in human civilization in the Neolithic Age. In the world context, the New Stone Age began in 9000 B.C.
- The only Neolithic settlement in the Indian subcontinent attributed to 7000 B.C. lies in Mehrgarh, which is situated in Baluchistan, a province of Pakistan.
- In India, Neolithic Age is not earlier than 6000 BC and at some places in South and Eastern India; it is as late as 1000 B.C.
- These include the Kashmir valley, Chirand in Bihar, Belan valley in Uttar Pradesh and in several places of the Deccan.
- The important Neolithic sites are:
 - (a) Burzahom and Gufkral in J&K (famous for pit dwelling, stone tools and graveyard in house),
 - (b) Maski, Brahmagiri, Tekkalakota in Karnataka, Paiyampatti in Tamil Nadu,
 - (c) Piklihal and Hallur in AP,
 - (d) Garo hills in Meghalaya,
 - (e) Chirand and Senuwar in Bihar (known for remarkable bone tools),
 - (f) Amri, Kotdiji, etc.
- Koldihawa in UP revealed a threefold cultural sequence: Neolithic, Chalcolithic and Iron Age.
- The chief characteristic features of the Neolithic culture are the practice of agriculture, domestication of animals, polishing of stone tools and the manufacturing of pottery.
- The cultivation of plants and domestication of animals led to the emergence of village communities based on sedentary life.
- There was a great improvement in technology of making tools and other equipments used by man.
- Stone tools were now polished and these polished axes were found to be more effective tools for hunting and cutting trees.
- Mud brick houses were built instead of grass huts.
- Neolithic people knew about making fire and making pottery, first by hand and then by potters wheel. They also painted and decorated their pottery.
- Pottery was used for cooking as well as storage of food grains.
- Large urns were used as coffins for the burial of the dead.
- There was also improvement in agriculture. Wheat, barley, rice, millet were cultivated in different areas at different points of time.
- Neolithic sites in Allahabad district are noted for the cultivation of rice in the sixth millennium B.C. Domestication of sheep, goats and cattle was widely prevalent.
- Cattle were used for cultivation and for transport.
- The people of Neolithic Age used clothes made of cotton and wool.

CHALCOLITHIC OR METAL AGE

- The end of the Neolithic Period saw the use of metals of which copper was the first and a culture based on the use of stone and copper arrived.
- Such a culture is called Chalcolithic which means the stone-copper phase.
- The new technology of smelting metal ore and crafting metal artifacts is an important development in human civilization.
- But the use of stone tools was not given up. Some of the micro-lithic tools continued to be essential items.
- People began to travel for a long distance to obtain metal ores which led to a network of Chalcolithic cultures and the Chalcolithic cultures were found in many parts of India.
- Generally, Chalcolithic cultures had grown in river valleys.
- Gold was probably one of the earliest discoveries, but it served as a material for ornaments only.
- Important sites of this phase are spread in Rajasthan, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Bihar, MP, etc.
- In South India the river valleys of the Godavari, Krishna, Tungabhadra, Pennar and Kaveri were settled by farming communities during this period. Although they were not using metals in the beginning of the Metal Age, there is evidence of copper and bronze artifacts by the end of second millennium B.C.
- Several bronze and copper objects, beads, terracotta figurines and pottery were found at Paiyampalli in Tamil Nadu.
- The Chalcolithic people used different types of pottery of which black and red pottery was most popular.
- These people were not acquainted with burnt bricks and generally lived in thatched houses.
- It was a village economy.
- The Chalcolithic age is followed by Iron Age. Iron is frequently referred to in the Vedas.
- The Iron Age of the southern peninsula is often related to Megalithic Burials.
- Megalith means Large Stone.
- The burial pits were covered with these stones. Such graves are extensively found in South India.
- Some of the important megalithic sites are Hallur and Maski in Karnataka, Nagarjunakonda in Andhra Pradesh and Adichchanallur in Tamil Nadu.
- Black and red pottery, iron artifacts such as hoes and sickles and small weapons were found in the burial pits.

INDUS VALLEY CIVILIZATION IN INDIA

- The Indus Valley Civilization was an ancient civilization thriving along the Indus River & the Ghaggar-Hakra River in what is now Pakistan & north-western India.
- According to radio-carbon dating, it spread from the year 2500 – 1750 BC.

- Dayaram Sahni first discovered Harappa (on Ravi) in 1921. R.D. Banerjee discovered Mohenjodaro or 'Mound of the Dead' (on Indus) in 1922. Sir John Marshal played a crucial role in both these.
- Harappan Civilization forms part of the proto history of India & belongs to the Bronze Age.
- Copper, bronze, silver, gold were known but not iron.
- The Indus-Valley people were well-acquainted with the use both of cotton & wool.

Domestication of animals:

- Stock breeding was important in Indus culture. Besides sheep & goats, dogs, humped cattle, buffalo & elephant was certainly domesticated. The camel was rare & horse was not known.

Indus Valley Civilization Town Planning :

- Elaborate town-planning. It followed the Grid System. Roads were well cut, dividing the town into large rectangular or square blocks.
- Used burnt bricks of good quality as the building material. Elsewhere in the contemporary world, mud-bricks were used.
- In Mohenjodaro, a big public bath (Great Bath) measuring 12 m by 7 m & 2.4 m deep, has been found. Steps led from either end to the surface, with changing rooms alongside. It was probably used for ritual bathing.
- Underground Drainage System.

Major Cities & Their Features:

- Mohenjodaro (Sin(d) is situated on the right bank of the Indus. Great Granary, Great bath, Assembly halls, Shell strips, Pashupati Mahadev/Proto Shiva(Seal), Bronze image of Dancing girl, Steatite image of Bearded man, Clay figure of Mother goddess found in Mohenjodaro.
- Chanhudaro lies on the left bank of the Indus about 130 km south of Mohenjodaro. City without a citadel, Inkpot, Imprints of dog's paw on Brick, Terracotta model of a bullock cart, Bronze toy cart are important archeological findings of Chanhudaro.
- Kalibangan (Rajasthan) was on the banks of the river Ghaggar which dried up centuries ago. Ploughed field surface, 7 Fire alters, decorated bricks, wheels of a toy cart, Mesopotamian cylindrical seal are found in Kalibangan.
- Lothal is at the head of the Gulf of Cambay. Important excavations are Dockyard, Fire alters, Terracotta figurine of Horses, Double Burial, Terracotta Model of a ship, Dying vat, Persian/Iranian seal, Painted Jar (Bird And Fox).
- Banawali (Haryan(a) was situated on the banks of the now extinct Saraswati River. Important features of Lothal are lack of grid pattern town planning, lack of systematic drainage pattern, Toy Plough, Clay figures of Mother Goddess.

- Surkotoda (Gujarat) is at the head of the Rann of Kutch. Important archeological excavations are Bones of Horse, Oval Graves and Pot Burials.
- Dholavira (Gujarat) excavated is in the Kutch district. Bronze Images(Charioteer with Chariot, ox, elephant and rhinoceros) are important excavations.

Trade & Commerce in Indus Valley Civilization :

- There was no metallic money in circulation & trade was carried through Barter System.
- Weights & measures of accuracy existed in Harappan culture (found at Lothal). The weights were made of limestone, steatite, etc. & were generally cubical in shape.
- 16 was the unit of measurement (16, 64, 160, 320).
- A dockyard has been discovered at Lothal. Rangpur, Somnath & Balakot functioned as seaports. Sutkagendor & Sutkakoh functioned as outlets.

Indus Valley Civilization Script :

- The script is not alphabetical but pictographic (about 600 undeciphered pictographs).
- The script has not been deciphered so far, but overlaps of letters show that it was written from right to left in the first line & left to right in the second line. This style is called 'Boustrophedon'

VEDIC CULTURE(1500 BC-600 B(C)

The Vedic Civilization was the culture and traditions of the society prevalent during the Vedic age (1500- 600 BC(E).

It should be noted here that after the decline of Indus Valley civilization by 1500 BCE.

Vedic Literature:

The term Veda means "superior knowledge" in Sanskrit.

Four major Vedas constitute the vedic literature. They are – Rig Veda, Yajur Veda, Sam Veda, and Atharva Veda.

Rig Veda – Earliest veda. Has 1028 hymns in praise Gods.

Yajur Veda – Has details of rules to be followed during sacrifices.

Sam Veda – Has a collection of songs. The origins of Indian music are traced to it.

Atharva Veda – has a collection of spells and charms.

Besides these Vedas, there were Brahmanas, Upnishads, Aryankas, and epics- Ramayana and Mahabharata.

Brahmanas – Prose about vedic hymns, rituals and philosophies.

Aryankas – Deal with mysticism, rites and rituals.

Upnishads – Philosophical texts dealing with soul, mysteries of nature.

Ramayana was authored by Valmiki.

Mahabharata was written by Ved Vyasa.

Classification of Vedic Period:

The period of Vedic Civilization(1500-500 BC(E) is divided into two broad parts –

Early Vedic Period (1500-1000 B(C), also known as Rig Vedic Period.

Later Vedic Period (1000- 600 B(C).

Political Organisation in Vedic Age:

In Early Vedic Age: 'Kula' was the basic unit of political organization. Multiple families together of kinship formed a 'grama'. Group of villages were called 'visu', headed by 'vishayapati'. The highest political and administrative unit was 'jana' or tribe. There were several such tribal kingdoms – Bharatas, Matsyas, Yadus and Purus. There were two bodies- Sabha(council of elders) and Samiti(general assembly of people).

Society in Vedic Civilization: The Rig Vedic society was basically patriarchal. The basic unit of society was 'griha' or family, its head was called as 'grihapathi'. Apala, Viswara, Ghosa and Lopamudra were women poets.

Women could attend the popular assemblies. No child marriage, sati practice.

Social divisions were not rigid. Varna system in vedic civilization.

Economic Conditions in Vedic Civilization: The Rig Vedic Aryans were pastoral, cattle rearing people. After they permanently settled in North India they began agriculture. Carpenters produced chariots and ploughs. A variety of articles with copper, bronze and iron were made by workers. Spinning was an important occupation – cotton and woolen fabrics. Goldsmiths made ornaments. The potters made different kinds of vessels for domestic use.

Trade was conducted by barter system in beginning but later shifted to use of gold coins called 'nishka' for large transactions. Rivers acted as means of transport.

Coins: Besides 'nishka', 'satamana' – gold coins and 'krishnala' – silver coins were also used as a media of exchange.

Religion in Vedic Period: Rig Vedic Aryans worshiped natural forces like earth, fire, wind, rain and thunder by personifying them into many gods. Some important Rig Vedic gods – Prithvi (Earth), Agni (Fire), Vayu (Wind), Varuna (Rain) and Indra (Thunder). And 'Indra' was most popular. 'Agni' – an intermediary between the gods and the people.

'Varuna' – the upholder of natural order.

Female Gods – 'Aditi' and 'Ushas'. No temples and no idol worship. Prayers were offered to gods for rewards.

BUDDHISM IN INDIA

- Buddha Born in 563 BC on the Vaishakha Poornima Day at Lumbini (near Kapilavastu) in Nepal.
- His father Suddhodana was the Saka ruler.
- His mother (Mahamaya, of Kosala dynasty) died after 7 days of his birth. Brought up by stepmother Gautami.
- Married at 16 to Yoshodhara. Enjoyed the married life for 13 years & had a son named Rahula.
- Left his palace at 29 (with Channa, the charioteer & his favourite horse, Kanthak(a) in search of truth (also called 'Mahabhinishkramana' or The Great Renunciation) & wandered for 6 years.
- Attained 'Nirvana' or 'Enlightenment' at 35 at Gaya in Magadha (Bihar) under the Pipal tree.
- Delivered the first sermon at Sarnath where his five disciples had settled. His first sermon is called 'Dharmachakrapravartan' or 'Turning of the Wheel of Law'.
- Attained Mahaparinirvana at Kushinagar (identical with village Kasia in Deoria district of UP) in 483 BC at the age of 80 in the Malla republic.

Buddhist Councils:

- The monks gathered 4 times after the death of Buddha & the effect of these events had their effect on Buddhism.
- **First Council:** At Rajgriha, in 483 BC under the chairmanship of Mahakassapa (King was Ajatshatru). Divided the teachings of Buddha into two Pitakas – Vihaya Pitaka & Sutta Pitaka. Upali recited the Vinaya Pitaka & Ananda recited the Sutta Pitaka.
- **Second Council:** At Vaishali, in 383 BC under Sabakami (King was Kalasoka). Followers divided into Sthavirmadina & Mahasanghikas.
- **Third Council:** At Pataliputra, in 250 BC under Mogaliputta Tissa (King was Ashoka). In this, the third part of the Tripitaka was coded in the Pali language.
- **Fourth Council:** At Kashmir (Kundalvan), in 72 AD under Vasumitra (King was Kanishka). Vice-Chairman was Ashwaghosh(a). Divided Buddhism into Mahayana & Hinayana sects.



Buddist Literature:

- Buddhist scriptures in Pali are commonly referred to as Tripitakas, i.e. 'Threefold Basket'.
- **Vinaya Pitaka:** Rules of discipline in Buddhist monasteries.
- **Sutta Pitaka:** Largest, contains collection of Buddha's sermons.
- **Abhidhamma Pitaka:** Explanation of the philosophical principles of the Buddhist religion.

JAINISM IN INDIA

- There were 24 tirthankaras (Prophets or Gurus), all Kshatriyas.
- First was Rishabhanath (Emblem: Bull).
- The 23rd Tirthankar Parshwanath (Emblem: Snake) was the son of King Ashvasena of Banaras. His main teachings were: Non-injury, Non-lying, Non-stealing, Non-possession.
- The 24th & the last Tirthankar was Vardhman Mahavira (Emblem: Lion).

Vardhman Mahavira :

- He was born in Kundagram (District Muzaffarpur, Bihar) in 599 BC.
- His father Siddhartha was the head of Jnatrika clan. His mother was Trishala, sister of Lichchavi Prince Chetak of Vaishali.
- Mahavira was related to Bimbisara.
- Married to Yashoda, had a daughter named Priyadarsena, whose husband Jamali became his first disciple.
- At 30, after the death of his parents, he became an ascetic.
- In the 13th year of his asceticism (on the 10th of Vaishakh(a), outside the town of Jrimbhikgrama, he attained supreme knowledge (Kaivalya(a).
- From now on he was called Jaina or Jitendriya & Mahavira, & his followers were named Jains. He also got the title of Arihant, i.e., worthy.
- At the age of 72, he attained death at Pava, near Patna, in 527 BC.

Note: In Jainism, three Ratnas (Triratnas) are given & they are called the way to Nirvana. They are Right Faith, Right Knowledge & Right Conduct.

History of Jain Councils:

- **First Council:** Held at Pataliputra by Sthulabhadra in the beginning of third century BC. It resulted in the compilation of 12 Angas to replace 14 Purvas.
- **Second Council:** It was held at Vallabhi (Gujarat) in the fifth century AD under the leadership of Devridhigani.

THE MAGADHA EMPIRE

- **Period of Magadha Empire:** 6th Century – 4th Century BC.
- **Extent of Magadha Empire:** Magadha embraced the former districts of Patna, Gaya & parts of Shahabad & grew to be the leading state of the time.

Haryanka Dynasty: Originally founded in 566 BC by the grandfather of Bimbisara, but actual foundation by Bimbisara.

King Bimbisara of Magadha (544 BC – 492 B(C):

- Contemporary of Buddha.
- His capital was Rajgiri (Girivraj(a)
- His capital was surrounded by 5 hills, the openings in which were closed by stone walls on all sides.

Ajatshatru (492 BC – 460 B(C):

- Son of Bimbisara killed his father & seized the throne.
- Buddha died during his reign; arranged the first Buddhist Council.

Udayin (460 – 444 B(C): He founded the new capital at Pataliputra, situated at the confluence of the Ganga & Son.

Shishunaga Dynasty:

- Founded by a minister Shishunaga. He was succeeded by Kalasoka (IInd Buddhist council).
- Dynasty lasted for two generations only.
- Greatest achievement was the destruction of power of Avanti.

Nanda Dynasty:

- Founder was Mahapadma Nanda.
- Alexander attacked India in their reign. Dhana Nanda was there at that time.

Alexander's Invasion of India

- Alexander (356 BC – 323 B(C) was the son of Philip of Macedonia (Greece) who invaded India in 326 BC.
- At that time NW India was split up into a number of small independent states like Taxila, Punjab (kingdom of Porus), Gandhara etc.
- Except Porus who fought the famous battle of Hydaspes (on banks of Jhelum) with Alexander, all other kings submitted meekly.
- Except Porus who fought the famous battle of Hydaspes (on banks of Jhelum) with Alexander, all other kings submitted meekly.
- When Alexander reached Beas, his soldiers refused to go further, so he was forced to retreat.
- To mark the farthest point of his advance, he erected 12 huge stone altars on the northern bank of Beas.
- Remained in India for 19 months & died in 323 BC at Babylon.

THE MAURYAN DYNASTY

Chandragupta Maurya (322 – 297 B(C):

- With the help of Chanakya, known as Kautilya or Vishnugupta, he overthrew the Nandas & established the rule of the Maurya dynasty.
- Built a vast empire, which included not only good portions of Bihar & Bengal, but also western & north western India & the Deccan.
- This account is given by Megasthenes (A Greek ambassador sent by Seleucus to the court of Chandragupta Maury(a) in his book Indica. We also get the details from the Arthashastra of Kautilya.
- Chandragupta adopted Jainism & went to Sravanabelagola (near Mysor(e) with Bhadrabahu, where he died by slow starvation.

Bindusara (297 – 273 B(C):

- Chandragupta Maurya was succeeded by his son Bindusara in 297 BC.
- He is said to have conquered 'the land between the 2 seas', i.e., the Arabian Sea & Bay of Bengal.

Ashoka (269 – 232 B(C):

- Ashoka was the most famous Mauryan king and one of the greatest rulers. Ashoka assumed the title of Priyadarshi (pleasing to look at) and Devanampriya (beloved of Gods). In the Sarnath inscription, he adopted the third title, i.e. Dharmshoka.
- Ashoka's Rock Edicts - Major rock edicts (a set of 14 inscription) found at following 8 places: Dhauli, Girnar, Jaguguda, Kalsi, Mansehra, Shahbazgarhi, Sopara and Yenagardi.
- Minor rock edicts found at 13 places: Bairat, Brahmagiri, Gavimath Gajarra, Jatinga-Rameshwar, Maski, Palkigunda, Meadagiri, Rupanath, Sasaram, Siddhapur, Suvarnagiri and Verragudi.

Major rock edicts-

- 1st Major Rock Edict-** Prohibition of animal sacrifice.
- 2nd Major Rock Edict-** Related to measures of social welfare.
- 3rd Major Rock Edict-** Respecting one's parents.
- 4th Major Rock Edict-** Impact of Dhamma, Non-violence towards animals.
- 5th Major Rock Edict-** Appointment of Dhamma Mahamantras to spread Dhamma.
- 6th Major Rock Edict-** Welfare measures of efficient

The Kalinga War:

(261 BC, mentioned in XIII rock edict): It changed his attitude towards life. Ashoka became a Buddhist after that.

Ashoka's Dhamma

Dhamma is the Prakrit word form of the Sanskrit term 'Dharma' which means religious duty. Ashoka gave up the policy of conquest through war (dig-vijay(a) and began to follow a policy of conquest through dharma (dharma-vijay(a). Ashoka's Dhamma was related to norms of social behaviour and activities. Its norms are mentioned in Ashoka's edicts. Due to this policy, his name shines with unique brilliance.

Causes of the fall of Mauryan Empire:

- Ashoka's patronage of Buddhism & his anti-sacrificial attitude is said to have affected the income of the Brahmins. So they developed antipathy against Ashoka.
- Revenue from agrarian areas was not sufficient to maintain such a vast empire as booty from war was negligible.
- Successors of Ashoka were too weak to keep together such a large centralized empire.

Note: The last Mauryan king Brihadratha was killed by Pushyamitra Shunga (Commander in Chief) in 185 BC, who started the Shunga dynasty in Magadha.

SANGAM AGE IN INDIA

Cholas :

- The kingdom was called Cholamandalam or Coromondal. The chief centre was Uraiyur, a place famous for cotton trade. Capital was Kaveripattanam/Puhar.
- A Chola king named Elara conquered Sri Lanka & ruled it over for 50 years.
- Karikala was their famous king.
- Main source of wealth was trade in cotton cloth. They also maintained an efficient navy.
- The Iron Age in South India laid the foundation stone for a golden period which began in 300 BC and lasted till 300 AD. This period, popularly known as SANGAM AGE, is widely regarded as the golden age of the Tamils.
- The literature collectively produced by the ancient Tamil poets is commonly known as the Sangam literature.
- Sangam literature makes a mention of three kingdoms— Chola, Chera and Pandiyan.



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THE CHALUKYAS

1. Pulakesin I (543-566) was the first independent ruler of Badami with Vatapi in Bijapur as his capital.
2. Kirthivarma I (566-596) succeeded him at the throne. When he died, the heir to the throne, Prince Pulakesin II, was just a baby & so the king's brother, Mangalesha (597-610), was crowned the caretaker ruler. Over the years, he made many unsuccessful attempts to kill the prince but was ultimately killed himself by the prince & his friends.
3. Pulakesin II (610-642), the son of Pulakesin I, was a contemporary of Harshavardhana & the most famous of the Chalukyan kings. His reign is remembered as the greatest period in the history of Karnataka. He defeated Harshavardhana on the banks of the Narmada.
4. After conquering the Kosalas & the Kalingas, & eastern Chalukyan dynasty was inaugurated by his(Pulakeshin II) brother Kubja Vishnuvardana.
5. In 631, the Chalukyan empire extended from sea to sea. However, Pulkeshin II was defeated & probably killed in 642, when the Pallavas under Narsimhavarma I attack on their capital & captured the chalukyan capital at Badami.
6. The Chalukyas rose to power once again under the leadership of Vikramaditya I (655-681), who defeated his contemporary Pandya, Pallava & Cholas rulers to establish the supremacy of the Chalukyan empire in the region.
7. Vikramaditya II (733-745) defeated the Pallava king Nandivarma II to capture a major portion of the Pallava kingdom.
8. Vikramaditya II's son, Kirtivarma II (745), was disposed by the Rashtrakuta ruler, Dhantidurga, who established the Rashtrakuta dynasty.

THE CHOLAS (9TH TO 13TH CENTURY)

1. The Chola dynasty was one of the most popular dynasties of south India which ruled over Tamil Nadu & parts of Karnataka with Tanjore as its capital.
2. Early Chola rulers were the Karikala Cholas who ruled in the 2nd century.
3. In 850, Vijayalaya captured Tanjore during the Pandya-Pallava wars. To commemorate his accession, he built a temple at Tanjore. The giant statue of Gomateswara at Shravanbelagola was also built during this period.
4. Vijayalaya's son Aditya I (871-901) succeeded him to throne.
5. It was Rajaraja I (985-1014) during which the CHOLAS reached at its zenith. He snatched back lost territories from the Rashtrakutas & become the most powerful of the Chola rulers. Rajaraja is also famous for the beautiful shiva temple which he constructed at Thanjavur(Tamil Nadu). It is called Rajarajeswara after his name.

6. Rajendra Chola (1014-1044), son of Rajaraja I, was an important ruler of this dynasty who conquered Orissa, Bengal, Burma & the Andaman & Nicobar Island. The Cholas dynasty was at its zenith also during his reign. He also conquered Sri Lanka.
7. Kulottunga I (1070-1122) was another significant Chola ruler. Kulottunga I united the two kingdom of the eastern Chalukyas of Vengi & the Cholas of Thanjavur. After a long reign of about half a century, Kulottunga I passed away sometime in 1122 & was succeeded by his son, Vikrama Chola, surnamed Tyagasamudra.
8. The last ruler of the Chola Dynasty was Rajendra III (1246-79). He was a weak ruler who surrendered to the Pandyas. Later, Malik Kafur invaded this Tamil state in 1310 & extinguished the Chola empire.

THE GHAZNAVIS

Mahmud of Ghazni (997-1030)

- (a) He was also known as "But-Shikan" (destroyer of the imag(e) because of seventeen plundering expeditions between 1000 AD & 1027 AD in India.
- (b) Annexing Punjab as his eastern province, he claimed to have come here with twin objectives of spreading Islam in India, & enriching himself by taking away wealth from India.
- (c) In 1025, he attacked & raided the most celebrated Hindu temple of Somnath, Gujarat.
- (d) Beruni who wrote Kitab-ul Hind, & Firdausi, who wrote Shah Namah, were the court Historians of Mahmud Ghazni & give a good account of the polity & society on the eve of Mahmood's invasion. From 1010 to 1026, the invasions were thus directed toward the temple-towns of Thaneswar, Mathura, Kannauj & finally Somnath.

Muhammad Ghori

In AD 1173, Shihab-ud-din Muhammad (AD 1173-1206) also called Muhammad of Ghori ascended the throne of Ghazni. The Ghoris were not strong enough to meet the growing power & strength of the Khwarizmi Empire; they realized that they could gain nothing in Central Asia.

Conquest of Punjab & Sind

- (a) Muhammad Ghori led his first expedition in AD 1175. He marched against Multan & freed it from its ruler. In the same campaign he captured Uchch from the Bhatti Rajputs.
- (b) Three years later in AD 1178 he again marched to conquer Gujarat but the Chalukya ruler of Gujarat, Bhima II defeated him at the battle of Anhilwara. But by AD 1190 having secured Multan, Sind & Punjab, Muhammad Ghori paved the way for a further thrust into the Gangetic Doab.

Delhi Sultanate

After the assassination of Muhammad Ghori, Qutubuddin Aibek got the control over Delhi.

This period can be divided into 5 distinct periods viz.

1. The Slave Dynasty (1206-90)
2. The Khilji Dynasty (1290-1320)
3. The Tughlaq Dynasty (1320-1414)
4. The Sayyid Dynasty (1414-51)
5. The Lodhi Dynasty (1451-1526).

The Slave Dynasty

Qutubuddin Aibak (1206-10)

- A Turkish slave by origin, he was purchased by Mohammad Ghori who later made him his Governor.
- After the death of Ghori, Aibak became the master of Hindustan & founded the Slave Dynasty in 1206.
- The capital during his reign was not Delhi but **Lahore**.
- For his generosity, he was given the title of **Lakh Bakhsh** (giver of lakhs).
- He died in 1210 while playing Chaugan or Polo.
- He constructed two mosques i.e. Quwat-ul-Islam at Delhi & Adhai din ka Jhohpra at Ajmer.
- He also began the construction of Qutub Minar, in the honour of famous Sufi Saint Khwaja Qutubuddin Bakhtiyar Kaki.
- Aibak was great patron of learning & patronized writers like Hasan-un-Nizami, author of 'Taj-ul- Massir' & Fakhruddin, author of 'Tarikh-i-Mubarak Shahi'.

Aram Shah (1210)

- He was the son of Aibak, who was defeated by Illutmish in the battle of Jud.

Shams-ud-din Illutmish (1210-36)

- He was a slave of Qutubuddin Aibak of Mamluk tribe & occupied the throne of Delhi in 1211.
- Illutmish began his career as Sar-e Jandhar or royal bodyguard.
- He was a very capable ruler & is regarded as the 'real founder of the Delhi Sultanate'.
- He made Delhi the capital in place of Lahore.
- He saved Delhi Sultanate from the attack of Chengiz Khan, the Mongol leader, by refusing shelter to Khwarizm Shah, whom Chengiz was chasing.
- He introduced the silver coin (tank(a) & the copper coin (jital).
- He organized the Iqta System & introduced reforms in civil administration & army, which was now centrally paid & recruited.
- He set up an official nobility of slaves known as Chahalgani/Chalisa (group of forty).
- He completed the construction of Qutub Minar which was started by Aibak.
- He patronized Minhaj-us-Siraj, author of 'Tabaqat-i-Nasiri'.

Rukn-ud-din Feroz : 1236

- He was son of Illutmish & was crowned by her mother, Shah Turkan, after death of Illutmish.
- He was deposed by Razia, daughter of Illutmish.

Razia Sultana: (1236 – 40)

- Illutmish had nominated his daughter Razia as the successor, the nobles placed Ruknuddin Feroz on the throne.
- She was the 'first & only Muslim lady who ever ruled India'.
- She use to rule without the veil
- She further offended the nobles by her preference for an Abyssian slave Yakut.
- The wazir of Illutmish Junnaidi revolted against her but was defeated.
- There was a serious rebellion in Bhatinda, Altunia, governor of Bhatinda refused to accept suzerainty of Razia. Razia accompanied by Yakut marched against Altunia.
- However, Altunia got Yakut murdered & imprisoned Razia.
- Subsequently, Razia was married to Altunia & both of them marched towards Delhi as nobles in Delhi raised Bahram Shah (3rd son of Illutmish) to throne.
- In 1240 AD, Razia became the victim of a conspiracy & was assassinated near Kaithal (Haryan(a).

Bahram Shah: 1240-42

- Illutmish's third son Bahram Shah was put on throne by powerful Turkish council Chalisa.
- He was killed by Turkish nobles.

Allauddin Masud Shah: 1242-46

- He was son of Ruknuddin Feroz.
- He was disposed after Balban & Nasiruddin Mahmud's Mother, Malika-e-Jahan, conspired against him & established Nasiruddin Mahamud as the new Sultan.

Nasiruddin Mahmud 1246-66

- He was the eldest son of Illutmish.
- Minhaj-us-Siraj has dedicated his book Tabaquat-i-Nasiri to him.

Ghiyasuddin Balban : 1266-87

- After the death of Nasiruddin, Balban ascended the throne in 1266.
- He broke the power of Chalisa & restored the prestige of the crown. He made kingship a serious profession.
- The Persian court model influenced Balban's conception of Kingship. He took up the title of Zil-i-Ilahi (Shadow of Go(d)).
- He introduced Sijda (prostration before the monarch) & Paibos (kissing the feet of monarch) as the normal forms of salutation.
- Divine right of the king was emphasized by calling himself Zil-i-Ilahi.

- He gave great emphasis on justice & maintaining law & order.
- He established the military department Diwan-i-Arz.
- In his last days he overlooked Sultanate affairs due to death of his eldest & most loving son, Muhammad, & rebellion by his closest & most loved slave, Tughril. Muhammad died fighting Mongolians in 1285 & Tughril was captured & beheaded.

Kaiqubad: 1287-90

- He was the grandson of Balban was established on the throne by Fakhruddin, the Kotwal of Delhi.
- But Kaiqubad was killed by Khalji nobles.

The Khalji Dynasty (1290-1320 A.D.)

Jalaluddin Khalji

- Jalaluddin Khalji founded the Khalji dynasty
- He was a liberal ruler & adopted the policy of religious toleration
- His son-in-law & nephew was Alauddin Khalji

Allauddin Khalji (1296-1316)

- He was the first Turkish Sultan of Delhi who separated religion from politics. He proclaimed 'Kingship knows no Kinship'.
- During the reign of Jalaluddin Khalji, he was the governor of Kara
- He adopted the title Sikander-e-Saini or the second Alexander
- Alauddin annexed Gujarat (1298), Ranthambhor (1301), Mewar (1303), Malwa (1305), Jalor (1311).
- In Deccan, Alauddin's army led by Malik Kafur defeated Ram Chandra (Yadava ruler of Devagiri), Pratap Rudradeva (Kakatiya ruler of Warangal), Vir Ballala III (Hoyasala ruler of Dwarsamudra) & Vir Pandya (Pandya ruler of Madurai).
- Malik Kafur was awarded the title Malik Naib.

Administrative & Market reforms during Alauddin

Alauddin issued 4 ordinances -

1. Aimed at confiscation of the religious endowments & free grants of lands.
2. Reorganized the spy system.
3. Prohibited the use of wine.
4. Nobles should not have convivial parties & they should not inter-marry without his permission.

- He introduced the system of Dagh (the branding of horse) & Chehra (descriptive roll of soldiers).
- Alauddin ordered that all land was to be measured & then their share of state was to be fixed.
- The post of special officer called Mustakharaj was created for the purpose of collection of revenue.
- Alauddin sought to fix cost of all commodities.

- All goods for sale were brought to an open market called Sara-i-Adal.
- Many forts were built by him & the most important of them was Alai fort. He also constructed the Alai Darwaja, the entrance gate of Qutub Minar. He also built the Palace of thousand Pillars called Hazar Sutun.
- He was a patron of art & learning. Amir Khusrau, the poet-musician was his favorite court poet.
- **Malik Kafur**
- In 1316, after death of Alauddin, Malik Kafur seized the throne.
- Before Kafur died, he nominated Shihabuddin (Alauddin's 6 year old prince) as King but imprisoned eldest prince Mubarak Khan.
- Kafur was killed by the loyalists of the royal family of Alauddin.

The Tughlaq Dynasty

Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq(1321-25)

- Ghazi Malik or Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq of Qaurana tribe was the founder of Tughlaq dynasty.
- He was the governor of Dipalpur before coming to power as Sultan.
- He died in the collapse of the victory pavilion near Delhi.

Mohammad Bin Tughlaq (1325-51)

- Prince Jauna, son of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq ascended the throne in 1325.
- He gained the title Ulugh Khan, he was most educated of all the Sultans of the Delhi Sultanate.
- He created a department Diwan-e-Amir-e-Kohi for the improvement of the agriculture.
- He distributed Sondhar i.e. agriculture loans advanced for extension of agriculture of barren land.
- He encouraged cash crops in place of cereals.

The five experiments during reign of Mohammad Bin Tughlaq-

- **Taxation in the Doab:** The Sultan made an ill-advised financial experiment in the Doab between the Ganges & Yamuna. The Sultan created a new department of Agriculture called Diwan-i-Kohi.
- **Transfer of Capital:** The most controversial step which Mohammad-bin Tughlaq undertook soon after his accession was the so called transfer of capital from Delhi to Devagiri. Devagiri was thus named Daulatabad.
- **Introduction of Token Currency:** Mohammad-bin-Tughlaq decided to introduce bronze coins, which were to have same value as the silver coins.

- **Proposed Khurasan Expedition:** The Sultan had a vision of universal conquest. He decided to conquest Khurasan & Iraq & mobilised a huge army for the purpose. He was encouraged to do so by Khurasani nobles who had taken shelter in his court. Moreover there was instability in Khurasan on account of the unpopular rule of Abu Said. This project was also abandoned because of the change in political scenario in Khurasan.
- **Quarachil Expedition:** This expedition was launched in Kumaon hills in Himalayas allegedly to counter Chinese incursions. It also appears that the expedition was directed against some refractory tribes in Kumaon-Garhwal region with the object of bringing them under Delhi Sultanate. The first attack was a success but when the rainy season set in, the invaders suffered terribly.

He died in Thatta while campaigning in Sindh against Taghi, a Turkish slave.

Feroz Shah Tughlaq (1351-88)

- He was a cousin of Mohammad-bin Tughlaq.
- He adopted the policy of appeasement with the nobility, the army & theologians.
- The new system of taxation was according to Quran. Four kinds of taxes sanctioned by the Quran were imposed & those were Kharaj, Zakat, Jizya & Khams. Kharaj was the land tax, which was equal to 1/10 of the produce of the land, Zakat was 2% tax on property, Jizya was levied on non-Muslims & Khams was 1/5 of the booty captured during war.
- Feroz tried to ban practices, which the orthodox theologians considered non Islamic. Thus he prohibited the practice of Muslim women going out to worship at graves of saints & erased paintings from the palace.
- It was during the time of Feroz that Jizya became a separate tax.
- In order to encourage agriculture, the Sultan paid a lot of attention to irrigation. Feroz repaired a number of canals & imposed Haque-i-Sharb or water tax.
- He was a great builder as well; to his credit are cities of Fatehabad, Hisar, Jaunpur & Ferozabad.
- The two pillars of Ashoka, one from Topra (Haryana) & other from Meerut (U.P.) were brought to Delhi.
- The Sultan established at Delhi, a hospital described as Dar-ul-Shifa.
- A new department of Diwan-i-Khairat was set up to make provisions for marriage of poor girls.
- However his rule is marked by peace & tranquility & credit for it goes to his Prime Minister Khan-i-Jahan Maqbul.
- He died in 1388.

The Sayyid dynasty

- Khizr Khan (1414-21)
- Mubarak Shah (1421-34)

- Muhammad Shah (1434-45)
- Alam Shah (1445-51)- He was the last Sayyid king descended in favour of Bahlol Lodhi & he retired. Thus began the Lodhi dynasty.

The Lodi Dynasty

Bahlol Lodi : 1451-89

- Bahlol Lodhi was one of the Afghan sardars who established himself in Punjab after the invasion of Timur.
- He founded the Lodi dynasty.
- Jaunpur was annexed into Delhi Sultanate during his reign.

Sikandar Lodi : 1489-1517

- Sikandar Lodi was the son of Bahlol Lodhi who conquered Bihar & Western Bengal.
- Agra city was founded by him.
- Sikandar was a fanatical Muslim & he broke the sacred images of the Jwalamukhi Temple at Nagar Kot & ordered the temples of Mathura to be destroyed.
- He reimposed Jaziya tax on non muslims.
- He used to write poems with the pen name "Gulrukhi".
- He took a keen interest in the development of agriculture. He introduced the Gaz-i-Sikandari (Sikandar's yard) of 32 digits for measuring cultivated fields.

Ibrahim Lodi : 1517-26

- He was the last king of the Lodi dynasty & the last Sultan of Delhi.
- He was the son of Sikandar Lodi.
- At last Daulat Khan Lodi, the governor of Punjab invited Babur to overthrow Ibrahim Lodi.
- Babur accepted the offer & inflicted a crushing defeat on Ibrahim Lodi in the first battle of Panipat in 1526.
- He was the only Sultan who died in battle field.

2.2 Administration under Sultanate

There were four pillars of the state :

Diwan-i-Wizarat or finance department

Diwan-i-Risalat or department of religious matters & appeals

Diwan-i-Arz or department of military affairs

Diwan-i-Insha or department of royal correspondence

2.3 Art & architecture under Delhi Sultanate

- The new features brought by the Turkish conquerors were : The dome, the lofty towers, the true arch unsupported by beam, the vault.
- Aibak built a Jami Masjid & Quwwatul Islam mosque, he also began the construction of Qutub Minar.
- Aibak also built the Adhai-din ka Jhonpra at Ajmer has a beautiful prayer hall, an exquisitely carved Mehrab of white marble & a decorative arch screen.

- The first example of true arch is said to be the tomb of Ghiyasuddin Balban in Mehrauli (Delhi).
- Allauddin Khilji began the work of Alai minar to rival Qutab Minar, but this could not be completed because of his death.
- Some notable Tughlaq monuments are the fort of Tughlaqabad, the tomb of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq which marked a new phase in Indo-Islamic architecture.

MUGHAL PERIOD

Babur

- The foundation of the Mughal rule in India was laid by Babur in 1526.
- He was a descendant of Timur (from the side of his father) & Chengiz Khan (from the side of his mother).
- Babur was invited by Daulat Khan Lodi & Alam Khan Lodi against Ibrahim Lodi
- Babur defeated Ibrahim Lodi in the first battle of Panipat on April 21, 1526 & established Mughal dynasty.
- In 1527, he defeated Rana Sanga of Mewar at Khanwa.
- In 1528, he defeated Medini Rai of Chanderi at Chanderi.
- In 1529, he defeated Muhammad Lodi (uncle of Ibrahim Lodi) at Ghaghra.
- In 1530, he died at Agra. His tomb is at Kabul.
- He was the first to use gunpowder & artillery in India.
- Two gun masters Mustafa & Ustad Ali were in his army.
- He wrote his autobiography Tuzuk-i-Baburi in Turkish .
- Tuzuk-i-Baburi was translated in Persian (named Baburnam(a) by Abdul Rahim Khan-e-khana & in English by Leyden and Erskine.
- He compiled two anthologies of poems, Diwan (in Turkish) & Mubaiyan (in Persian). He also wrote Risal-i-Usaz or letters of Babur.

Humayun (1530-40 & 1555-56)

- He was the son of Babur & ascended the throne in 1530. His succession was challenged by his brothers Kamran, Hindal & Askari along with the Afghans.
- In 1532 he established Tabl-e-adl at Agra.
- He fought two battles against Sher Shah at Chausa (1539) & at Kannauj/Bilgram (1540) & was completely defeated by him.
- He escaped to Iran where he passed 12 years of his life in exile.
- After Sher Shah's death Humayun invaded India in 1555 & defeated his brothers the Afghans. He once again became the ruler of India.
- He died while climbing down the stairs of his library (at Din Panah) in 1556 & was buried in Delhi.
- Abul Fazal calls him Insan-e-Kamil.
- His sister, Gulbadan Begum wrote his biography Humayunama.
- He built Din Panah at Delhi as his second capital.

Sur Empire (Second Afghan Empir(e) 1540-55

Sher Shah: 1540-45

- He was the son of Hasan Khan, the Jagirdar of Sasaram.
- In 1539, he defeated Humayun in the battle of Chausa & assumed the title Sher Shah as emperor.
- As an emperor, he conquered Malwa (1542), Ranthambhor (1542), Raisin (1543), Rajputana annexation of Marwar (1542), Chittor (1544) & Kalinjar (1545). He died in 1545 while conquering Kalinjar.
- Purana Quila was built during his reign.
- During his brief reign of 5 years he introduced a brilliant administration, land revenue policy & several other measures to improve economic conditions of his subjects.
- He issued the coin called **Rupiah** & fixed standard weights & measures all over the empire.
- He also improved communications by building several highways. He built the Grand Trunk Road (G.T. Road), which runs from Calcutta to Peshawar. The other roads built during his reign were: Agra to Mandu, Agra to Jodhpur & Chittor, Lahore to Multan.
- He set up cantonment in various parts of his empire & strong garrison was posted in each cantonments.
- According to Abul Fazal the empire of Sher Shah was divided into 63 sarkars or districts.
- The unit of land measurement was "bigha".
- Like Allauddin Khalji he also introduced Dagh & Chehra in the army
- Zamindars were removed & the taxes were directly collected.
- He was buried in Sasaram.

Akbar (1526-1605)

- Akbar, the eldest son of Humayun, ascended the throne under the title of Jalaluddin Muhammad Akbar Badshah Ghazi at the young age of 14.
- His coronation took place at Kalanaur.
- Second Battle of Panipat (5 Nov., 1556) was fought between Hemu (the Hindu General of Muhammad Adil Shah) & Bairam Khan (the regent of Akbar). Hemu was defeated, captured & slain by Bairam Khan.
- In the initial years of his rule Akbar was first under the influence of his regent Bairam & then under her foster mother Maham Anga.
- The period of influence of Maham Anga on Akbar i.e. from 1560-62 is known as the period of Petticoat government.
- **Reforms by Akbar -**
- Age of marriage for boys & girls was increased to 16 years & 14 years respectively
- **Sati was prohibited**
- In his 24th year Akbar introduced Dashala system for the collection of land revenue by the state.

- The Mansabdari system under Akbar, divided the Mansabdar into 66 categories. This system fixed the following service conditions: Rank & status, Salary, Number of Sawars (horsemen).
- As a revolt against the orthodoxy & bigotry of religious priests, Akbar proclaimed a new religion, Din-i-Ilahi, in 1581. Birbal was the only Hindu who followed this new religion.
- Akbar built Fatehpur Sikri, Agra Fort, Lahore Fort & Allahabad Fort & Humayun's Tomb at Delhi. Fatehpur Sikri, place near Agra. Sheikh Salim Chisti, a Sufi saint blessed Akbar with a son who was named Salim/Sheikho Baba (Jahangir). In honour of Salim Chisti, Akbar Shifted his court from Agra to Fatehpur Sikri.
- Tulsidas (author of Ramcharitmanas) also lived during Akbar's period.
- When Akbar died, he was buried at Sikandara near Agra.
- Birbal was killed in the battle with Yusufzai Tribe (1586).
- Abul Fazl was murdered by Bir Singh Bundela (1601).
- Akbar gave Mughal India one official language (Persian).

Jahangir (1605-27)

- Salim, son of Akbar, came to the throne after Akbar's death in 1605.
- He established Zanjir-i-Adal (i.e. Chain of Justice) at Agra Fort for the seekers of royal justice.
- In 1611, Jahangir married Mihr-un-nisa, widow of Sher Afghan, a Persian nobleman who was sent on expedition to Bengal. Later on she was given the title Nurjahan.
- Nurjahan exercised tremendous influence over the state affairs. She was made the official Padshah Begum.
- Jahangir issued coins jointly in Nurjahan's name & his own.
- Jahangir also married Jodha Bai of Marwar.
- In 1608, Captain William Hawkins, a representative of East India Company came to Jahangir's court. In 1615 Sir Thomas Roe, an ambassador of King James I of England also came to his court. He granted permission to the English to establish a trading port at Surat.
- His reign was marked by several revolts. His son Khusrau, who received patronage of 5th Sikh Guru Arjun Dev, revolted against Jahangir (1605). Arjun Dev was later sentenced to death for his blessing to the rebel prince (1606).
- During his last period, Khurram (Shahjahan), son of Jahangir & Mahabat Khan, military general of Jahangir also revolted (Khurram: 1622-25 & Mahabat Khan : 1626-27).
- He wrote his memories Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri in Persian.
- He was buried in Lahore.

Shah Jahan(1628-1658)

- His real name was Khurram, he was born to Jodha Bai (daughter of Raja Jagat Singh).
- Shahjahan ascended the throne in 1628 after his father's death.

- Three years after his accession, his beloved wife Mumtaz Mahal (original name- Arzumand Bano) died in 1631. To perpetuate her memory he built the Taj Mahal at Agra in 1632-53.
- He continued applying tika (tilak) on the fore-head.
- He introduced the Char-Taslim in the court.
- In addition to Jahangir's empire, Nizam Shahi's dynasty of Ahmadnagar was brought under Mughal control (1633) by Shahjahan.
- Shahjahan's reign is described by French traveler Bernier & Tavernier & the Italian traveler Nicoli Manucci. Peter Mundi described the famine that occurred during Shahjahan's time.
- The Red Fort, Jama Masjid & Taj Mahal are some of the magnificent structures built during his reign.
- Shahjahan's failing health set off the war of succession among his four sons in 1657.
- Aurangzeb emerged the victor who crowned himself in July 1658. Shahjahan was imprisoned by his son Aurangzeb in the Agra Fort where he died in captivity in 1666. He was buried at Taj Mahal (Agra).

Aurangzeb(1658-1707)

- The war of succession took place in the later stage of the Shah Jahan reign.
- His four sons Dara Shikoh, Aurangzeb, Shah Shuja & Murad were in the state of war for the throne.
- His daughters also supported one son or the other in the tussle for throne Jahan Ara supported Dara. Roshan Ara supported Aurangzeb. Gauhara supported Murad.
- Aurangzeb was coronated twice, he was the only Mughal king to be coronated twice
- Bernier was the foreign visitor who saw the public disgrace of Dara after he was finally defeated in war at Deorai.
- During the first 23 years of the rule (1658-81) Aurangzeb concentrated on North India. During this period the Marathas under Shivaji rose to power & were a force to reckon with.
- Highest numbers of Hindu Mansabdars were there in the service of Mughals during the reign of Aurangzeb.
- Aurangzeb captured Guru Teg Bahadur, the 9th Guru of Sikhs in 1675 & executed him when he refused to embrace Islam.
- The 10th & last Sikh Guru, Guru Gobind Singh, son of Guru Teg Bahadur, organized his followers into militant force called Khalsa to avenge the murder of his father.
- Guru Gobind Singh was, however murdered in 1708 by an Afghan in Deccan. Banda Bahadur, the militant successor of Guru Gobind Singh continued the war against Mughals.

Religious policy of Aurangzeb:

- He was called Zindapir or living saint.
- Muhatasibs were appointed for regulation of moral conduct of the subjects.
- He forbade singing in the court, but allowed musical instruments. He himself played Veena.

- He ended Jhoraka darshan started by Akbar.
- He ordered that no new Hindu temples were to be built. Old temples were allowed to be repaired.
- The Viswanath temple at Kashi & the Keshav Rai temple of Bir Singh Bundela at Mathura were destroyed.
- In 1679 he re-imposed Jaziya tax.

CLASH WITH MARATHAS

- Shivaji was the most powerful Maratha king & an arch enemy of Aurangzeb.
- When Aurangzeb could not eliminate him, he conspired with Jai Singh of Amber, a Rajput, to eliminate Shivaji in 1665.
- On the assurance given by Jai Singh, Shivaji visited Aurangzeb's court. Shivaji was imprisoned by Aurangzeb but he managed to escape & in 1674 proclaimed himself an independent monarch.
- Shivaji died in 1680 & was succeeded by his son Sambhaji, who was executed by Aurangzeb in 1689. Sambhaji was succeeded by his brother Rajaram & after his death in 1700, his widow Tarabai carried on the movements.

Mughal administration

- Mansabdari system:
- Each Mughal officer was assigned a mansab (rank), there were 66 categories of Mansabdars.
- Jahangir introduced Du-Aspah-Sih-Aspah system whereby the specific noble was to maintain double the number of horsemen.

Central administration:

- **Wakil:** He was initially the Prime Minister, however later became revenue advisor only.
- **Mir Bakshi:** He was the head of military department.

Provincial administration:

- The empire was divided into provinces or Subas.
- In 1580, Akbar divided the empire into 12 provinces. The number of provinces became 15 towards the end of his reign.
- In Jahangir's reign the number of provinces rose to 17 & further in Aurangzeb's reign to 21.
- The Nazim or Subedar was the head of provinces.

Local administration:

- The provinces were divided into Sarkars, which were sub divided into Parganas & further into villages.

Mughal Culture:

- Jahangir's reign was the apex culmination for the Mughal painting while that of Shah Jahan was the apex culmination for architecture.
- Babur built two mosques, one at Kabulibagh in Panipat & the other at Sambhal in Rohilakhand.
- Humayun's tomb was built by his widow Haji Banu Begum.

- The Mariam's palace, Diwan-i-Aam, Diwan-i-Khas at Sikri are Indian in their plan.
- Buland Darwaja (built after Gujarat victory), formed the main entrance to Fatehpur Sikri.
- Salim Chisti's tomb (redone in Marble by Jahangir) is the first Mughal building in pure marbl(e). Palace of Birbal & palace of Tansen are also inside the Fatehpur Sikri.
- Akbar also began to build his own tomb at Sikandara which was later completed by Jahangir.
- The architecture of Fatehpur Sikri is known as Epic in red sand stone.
- Nurjahan built Itimad-ud-daula or Mirza Ghiyas Beg's marble tomb at Agra, which is noticable for the first use of Pietra Dura (floral designs made up of semiprecious stones) technique.
- Jahangir built Moti Masjid in Lahore & his mausoleum at Shahdara (Lahor(e)).
- Some of the important buildings built by Shahjahan at Agra are Moti Masjid (only Mosque of marbl(e). Khaas Mahal, Musamman Burz (Jasmine Palace where he spent his last year in captivity) etc.
- He laid the foundations of Shahjahanabad in 1637 where he built the Red Fort & Takht-i-Taus (Peacock thron(e)).
- Only building by Aurangzeb in the Red Fort is Moti Masjid.
- Only monument associated with Aurangzeb is Bibi ka Makbara which is the tomb of his wife Rabbia-ud-daura in Aurangabad.
- Aurangzeb also built the Badshahi Masjid in Lahore.
- Humayun had taken into his service two master painter Mir Syed Ali & Abdus Samad.
- Daswant & Basawan were two famous painters of Akbar's court.
- Abdul Hassan, Ustad Mansur & Bishan Das were three famous painters of Jahangir's court.



BENGALI

Target ICAR

ই-বুক আকারে সম্পূর্ণ স্টাডি মেটেরিয়াল
 চাপ্টার ভিত্তিক MCQ ক্লাস

Starts Jan 3, 2022 **11 AM to 3 PM**

The landmark events that took place during the reign of Akbar :

- 1562 - Ban on forcible conversion of war-prisoners into slaves
- 1563 - Abolition of Pilgrimage Tax
- 1564 - Abolition of Jaziya
- 1571 - Foundation of Fatehpur Sikri
- 1579 - Proclamation of 'Mazhar' (written by Faizi)
- 1580 - Dahsala Bandobast introduced
- 1582 - Din-i-Ilahi / Tauhid-i-Ilahi
- 1584 - Ilahi Samvat i.e. Calender
- 1587 - Ilahi Gaz i.e. Yard

Mughal Literature and writers

- Akbar Nama--Abul Fazl
- Tabaqat-i-Akbari--Khvajah Nizamuddin Ahmad Baksh
- Iqbalnama-i-Jahangiri—Muhammad Khan
- Ain-i-Akbari --Abul Fazl
- Padshah Namah-- Abdul Hamid Lahori
- Shahjahan Namah-- Inayat Khan
- Surr-i-Akbar-- Dara Shikoh
- Safinat-ul-Auliya -- Dara Shikoh
- Majma-ul-Bahrain -- Dara Shikoh
- Raqqat-e-Alamgiri – Aurangzeb

Bahadur Shah I (1707-12)

- Muazzam succeeded Aurungzeb after latter's death in 1707.
- He acquired the title of Bahadur Shah.
- Granted Sardeshmukhi to Marathas but not Chauth.
- Released Shahuji (son of Sambhaji) from prison (who later fought with Tarabai).
- Tried to make peace with Guru Gobind Sahib by giving him a high Mansab.
- After Guru's death, Sikhs again revolted under the leadership of Banda Bahadur. This led to a prolonged war with the Sikhs.
- Made peace with Chhatarsal, the Bundela chief & Churaman, the Jat chief.

Jahandar Shah (1712-13)

- Death of Bahadur Shah plunged the empire into a civil war.
- Jahandar Shah, son of Bahadur Shah, ascended the throne in 1712 with help from Zulfikar Khan.
- Zulfikar Khan, his wazir, was virtually the head of the administration.
- Zulfikar Khan abolished jizyah.
- Peace with Rajputs: Jai Singh of Amber was made the Governor of Malwa. Ajit Singh of Marwar was made the Governor of Gujarat.
- Chauth & Sardeshmukh granted to Marathas. However, Mughals were to collect it & then hand it over to the Marathas.

- Ijarah: (revenue farming) the government began to contract with revenue farmers & middlemen to pay the government a fixed amount of money while they were left free to collect whatever they could from the peasants.
- Jahandhar Shah defeated in January 1713 by his nephew Farrukhsiyar at Agra.

Farrukhsiyar (1713-19)

- Owed his victory to Sayyid Brothers: Hussain Ali Khan Barha & Abdullah Khan.
- Abdullah Khan: Wazir, Hussain Ali: Mir Bakshi.
- Farrukhsiyar was an incapable ruler. Sayyid brothers were the real rulers.

Sayyid Brothers

- Known the Indian History as King Makers.
- Adopted the policy of religious tolerance. Abolished jizyah.
- Pilgrim tax was abolished from a number of places.
- Marathas: Granted Shahuji Swarajya & the right to collect Chauth & Sardeshmukhi of the six provinces of the Deccan.
- They failed in their effort to contain rebellion because they were faced with constant political rivalry, quarrels & conspiracies at the court.
- Nobles headed by Nizam-ul-Mulk & Muhammad Amin Khan began to conspire against them
- In 1719, the Sayyid Brothers killed & overthrew Farrukhsiyar.

Muhammad Shah 'Rangeela' (1719-1748)

- Weak-minded, frivolous & over-fond of a life of ease.
- Neglected the affairs of the state.
- Naizam ul Mulk Qan Qulik Khan, the wazir, relinquished his office & founded the state of Hyderabad in 1724.
- "His departure was symbolic of the flight of loyalty & virtue from the Empire".
- Hereditary Nawabs arose in Bengal, Hyderabad, Awadh & Punjab.
- Marathas conquered Malwa, Gujarat & Bundelkhand.

Nadir Shah's Invasion (1739)

- Attracted to India by its fabulous wealth.
- The two armies met at Karnal on 13th Feb 1739. Mughal army was summarily defeated. Muhammad Shah taken prisoner.
- Massacre in Delhi in response to the killing of his soldiers.
- Plunder of about 70 crore rupees. Carried away the Peacock throne & Kohinoor.
- Muhammad Shah ceded to him all the provinces of the Empire west of the river Indus.
- Significance: Nadir Shah's invasion exposed the hidden weakness of the empire to the Maratha sardars & the foreign trading companies.

Ahmed Shah Abdali

- One of the generals of Nadir Shah
- Repeatedly invaded & plundered India right down to Delhi & Mathura between 1748 & 1761. He invaded India five times.
- 1761: Third battle of Panipat. Defeat of Marathas.
- As a result of invasions of Nadir Shah & Ahmed Shah, the Mughal empire ceased to be an all-India empire. By 1761 it was reduced merely to the Kingdom of Delhi.

Shah Alam II (1759)

- Ahmed Shah Bahadur (1748-54) succeeded Muhammad Shah.
- Ahmed Shah Bahadur was succeeded by Alamgir II (1754-59).
- 1756: Abdali plundered Mathura.
- Alamgir II was succeeded by Shah Jahan III.
- Shah Jahan III succeeded by Shah Alam II in 1759.
- Shah Alam spent initial years wandering for he lived under the fear of his wazir.
- In 1764, he joined forces with Mir Qasim of Bengal & Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh in declaring a war upon the British East India company. This resulted in the Battle of Buxar.
- Pensioned at Allahabad.
- Returned to Delhi in 1772 under the protection of Marathas.

Decline of the Mughal Empire

- After 1759, Mughal empire ceased to be a military power.
- It continued from 1759 till 1857 only due to the powerful hold that the Mughal dynasty had on the minds of the people of India as a symbol of the political unity of the country
- In 1803, the British occupied Delhi.
- From 1803 to 1857, the Mughal emperors merely served as a political front of the British.
- The most important consequence of the fall of the Mughal empire was that it paved way for the British to conquer India as there was no other Indian power strong enough to unite & hold India.

The Marathas
Shivaji (1627-80)

- Shivaji was the son of Shahji & Jijabai & was born in the fort of Shivner.
- Shivaji inherited the Jagir of Poona from his father in 1637.
- His guru was Ramdas Samrath.
- After the death of his guardian, Dadaji Kondadev, in 1647, he assumed full charge of his Jagir.
- He conquered many Forts -
- Singh Garh/ Kondana (1643)
- Rohind & Chakan (1644-45)
- Toran (1646)
- Purandhar (1648)

- Rajgarh/ Raigarh (1656)
- Supa (1656)
- Panhala (1659).
- In 1657 Shivaji first confronted the Mughals, talking advantage of the Mughal invasion of Bijapur, he raided Ahamednagar & plundered Junnar.
- In 1659-60, Afzal Khan was deputed by Adil Shah of Bijapur to punish Shivaji; but the later Afzal Khan was murdered by Shivaji in 1659. The famous "baghnakh" episode is related with the death of Afzal Khan.
- In 1660, Shaista Khan, governor of Deccan, was deputed by Aurangzeb to check Marathas. Shivaji lost Poona, Kalyan & Chakan also suffered several defeats till he made a bold attack on Shaista Khan(1663) & plundered Surat (1664) & later Ahmadnagar.
- Raja Jai Singh of Amber & Diler Khan were then appointed by Aurangzeb to curb the rising power of Shivaji in 1665.
- Jai Singh succeeded in beseiging Shivaji in the fort of Purandhar. Consequently the treaty of Purandhar (1665) was signed according to which Shivaji ceded some forts to the Mughals & paid a visit to the Mughal court at Agra.
- In 1666, Shivaji visited Agra but there he was insulted.
- In 1670, Shivaji captured most of the forts lost by the treaty of Purandhar.
- In 1674 Shivaji was coronated at capital Raigarh & assumed the title of Haindava Dharmodharak (Protector of Hinduism).
- After that Shivaji continued the struggle with Mughals & Siddis (Janjir(a)). He conquered Karnataka during 1677-80.
- His last expedition was against Ginjee & Vellore.

Shivaji's Administration

- Swarajya was directly under the control of Maratha.
- Chauth & Sardeshmukhi were taxes collected by Marathas.
- Chauth was paid to the Marathas so as not be subjected to Maratha raids.
- Sardeshmukhi was an additional levy of 10% on those lands of Maharashtra over which the Maratha claimed hereditary rights, but which formed part of the Mughal Empire.
- Marathi became the official language.
- Shivaji divided his territory under his rule (Swarajya) into three provinces, each under a viceroy. Provinces were divided into Prants which were subdivided into parganas or tarafs.
- Shivaji was helped by the Ashtapradhan (Eight-minister) which was unlike a council of ministers, for there was no collective responsibility; each minister was directly responsible to Shivaji.
- **Shivaji's Ashtapradhan**
 - **Peshwa (Mukhya Pradhan):** Finance & general administration, later he became Prime Minister & assumed great importance.

- **Sar-i-Naubat (Senapati):** Military commander. This is an honorary post with no real military powers.
- Later on the ninth minister named Pratinidhi was added by Raja Ram a successor of Shivaji
- Most of the administrative reforms of Shivaji were based on Malik Ambar's (Ahmadnagar) reforms.

Successors of Shivaji

Shambhaji: 1680-1689

- Sambhaji, the elder son of Shivaji, defeated Rajaram, the younger son of Shivaji, in the war of succession.
- He provided protection & support to Akbar II, the rebellious son of Aurangzeb.
- He was captured at Sangameswar by a Mughal noble & executed(kille(d)).

Rajaram: 1689-1700

- He succeeded the throne with the help of the ministers at Rajgarh.
- He fled from Rajgarh to Jinji in 1689 due to a Mughal invasion in which Rajgarh was captured along with Sambhaji's wife & son (Shahu) by the Mughals.
- Rajaram died at Satara, which had become the capital after the fall of Jinji to Mughal in 1698.
- Rajaram created the new post of Pratinidhi, thus taking the total number of minister to nine (Pratinidhi + Ashtapradhan).

Tarabai: 1700-1707

- Rajaram was succeeded by his minor son Shivaji II under the guardianship of his mother Tarabai.
- Tarabai continued the struggle with Mughals.

Shahu : 1707-1749

- Shahu was released by the Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah.
- Tarabai's army was defeated by Shahu at the battle of Khed (1700) & Shahu occupied Satara.
- Shahu's reign saw the rise of Peshwas & transformation of the Maratha kingdom into an empire based on the principle of confederacy.

Balaji Viswanath (1714-20): The First Peshwa

- He began his carrier as a small revenue official & was given the title of Sena Karte (marker of the army) by Shahu in 1708.
- He became Peshwa in 1713 & made the post the most important & powerful as well as hereditary.
- He concluded an agreement with the Syed Brothers-King Maker (1719) by which the Mughal emperor Farrukhsiyar recognised Shahu as the king of the Swarajya.

Baji Rao I: 1720-40

- Baji Rao, the eldest son of Balaji Viswanath, succeeded him as Peshwa at the young age of 20.
- He was considered the greatest exponent of guerrilla tactics after Shivaji & Maratha power reached its zenith under him.
- Under him several Maratha families became prominent & got themselves entrenched in different parts of India.
- He conquered Bassein & Salsette.

Salsette from the Portuguese (1739).

- He also defeated the Nizam-ul-Mulk near Bhopal & concluded the treaty of Doraha Sarai by which he got Malwa & Bundelkhand from the latter (1738).
- He convince Shahu for attacking Mughals by saying about Mughals: 'Let us strike at the trunk of the withering tree & the branches will fall of themselves'.

Balaji Baji Rao: 1740-61

- Popularly known as Nana Saheb, he succeeded his father at the age of 20.
- After the death of Shahu (1749), the management of all state affairs was left in his hands.
- In an agreement with the Mughal emperor Ahmad Shah, the Peshwa was to protect the Mughal empire from internal & external enemies (like Ahmad Shah Abdali) in return for Chauth (1752).
- Third battle of Panipat (January 14, 1761) resulted in the defeat of the Marathas by Ahmad Shah Abdali & the death of Viswas Rao & Sadashiv Rao Bhau. This event shocked the Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao & after six month he also died. This battle ended the Maratha power



Modern History for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

The Advent of the Europeans

Portuguese

1. Discovery of the New Sea Route "the Cape route" was discovered from Europe to India by Vasco da Gama. He reached the port of Calicut on the May 17, 1498 & was received by the Hindu ruler of Calicut (known by the title of Zamorin). This led to the establishment of trading stations at Calicut, Cochin & Cannanore. Cochin was the early capital of the Portuguese in India. Later Goa replaced it.
2. Afonso de Albuquerque arrived in India in 1503 as the governor of the Portuguese in India in 1509 (The first governor being Francisco de Almeida between 1503-09). He captured Goa from the ruler of Bijapur in 1510.

Other Governors

1. Nino da Cunha (1529-38)— Transferred his capital from Cochin to Goa (1530) & acquired Diu & Bassein (1534) from Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.
2. Martin Alfonso de Souza (1542-45) —The famous Jesuit saint Francisco Xavier arrive in India with him.
3. The Portuguese rule began to decline afterwards & in the end they left only with GOA, DAMAN & DIU which they retained till 1961.

English

Before the East India Company established trade in the India -

1. John Mildenhall a merchant adventurer was the first Englishman who arrived in India in 1599 by the land route, for the purpose of trade with Indian merchants.
2. Popularly known as the 'English East India Company'. It was formed by a group of merchants known as the "Merchant Adventurers" in 1599 & in 1600 the company was given rights to trade in the entire east by QUEEN ELIZABETH I.
3. Following the decision of the East India Company to open a factory at Surat (1608). Captain Hawkins arrived at Jahangir's court (1609) to seek permission. A Farman was issued by Jahangir permitting the English to build a factory at Surat (1615).
4. Sir Thomas Roe came to India as ambassador of James I to Jahangir's court in 1615 to obtain the permission to trade & establish factories in different parts of the empire.

French

1. The French East India Company was formed by Colbert in 1664.
2. The first French factory was established at Surat by Francois Caron in 1667. A factory at Masulipatam was set up in 1669.
3. The French power in India was revived under Lenoir & Dumas (governors) between 1720 & 1742. They occupied Mahe in the Malabar, Yanam in Coromandal & Karikal in Tamil Nadu (1739).
4. The arrival of Dupleix as French governor in India in 1742 saw the beginning of Anglo-French conflict (Carnatic wars) resulting in their final defeat in India.

IMPORTANT BATTLES

The First Anglo-Mysore War (1767-69)

A tripartite alliance was formed against Haider Ali by the British, the Nizam & the Marathas. The war ended with the defeat of British. The panic-stricken Madras government concluded the humiliating Treaty of Madras in 1769.

Treaty of Madras

It was signed by Haider & the allies consisting of the Company, the Raja of Tanjore, & the Malabar ruler.

The Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-1784)

Haider Ali arranged a joint front with the Nizam & the Marathas against the common enemy - the English East India Company. The war lasted from 1780-1784. But he died in 1782 & was succeeded by his son Tipu Sultan.

Tipu continued the war for another year but absolute success eluded both the sides. Tired of war the two sides concluded peace **Treaty of Mangalore**. By this Treaty it was decided that English would return Seringapatnam to Tipu & Tipu would handover Fort of Badnur to English.

Treaty of Seringapatam

It was signed by Tipu on the one hand & the English & their allies (Nizam & the Peshwa) on the other. The Treaty stipulated that:

- The earlier treaties between the English & the rulers of Mysore stood confirmed.
- Tipu was to cede half his territories where where to be shared among the three allies.
- Tipu was also to order the release of all prisoners of war.
- Pending fulfilment of these terms two of his sons were to be detained as British hostages.

The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (1799)

With his defeat in the third Anglo-Mysore war, Tipu was burning with revenge. He wanted to get back his territory & to achieve that objective he carried on negotiations with the French & Zaman Shah of Kabul. Tipu wanted his allies to expel the English. Lord Wellesley after making Subsidiary Alliance with the Nizam asked Tipu Sultan to accept the same but he refused. Mysore was attacked from two sides. The main army under General Harris supported by Nizam's subsidiary force under Arthur Wellesley attacked Mysore from the east while another army advanced from Bombay.

Tipu was at first defeated by the Bombay army & was later on defeated by the General Harris at Mallavalli. Tipu died fighting bravely.

ANGLO-MARATHA WARS**First Anglo Maratha War (1775-82)**

The primary cause of the first Maratha war was the interference of the English government at Bombay in the internal affairs of the Marathas. Peshwa Madhav Rao died in 1772 & was succeeded by his younger brother Narain Rao. His uncle Raghunath Rao wanted to become the Peshwa & got him murdered. The Maratha chiefs took up the cause of Madhav Rao Narain the son of Narain Rao. Ragobha approached British for help & signed the treaty of Surat hoping to gain the coveted Gaddi with the help of English subsidiary troops. By this treaty he also promised to cede Salsette & Bassein & refrain from entering into alliance with the enemies of the company.

In the war that followed nobody gained any success & two parties realized the futility of the struggle by concluding the Treaty of Salbai(1782). By the Treaty of Salbai, status quo was maintained which gave the British 20 years of peace with the Marathas. The treaty also enabled the British to exert pressure on Mysore with the help of the Marathas in recovering their territories from Haider Ali.

Second Anglo- Maratha War (1803-1806)

The second Anglo-Maratha war was fought at the time of Lord Wellesley who wanted the Marathas to accept his Subsidiary Alliance system. The Marathas refused to accept it but were tricked by Wellesley due to their own internal differences. The Treaty of Bassein made conflict with the Marathas inevitable. The main provisions of the treaty were the recognition of Peshwa's claim in Poona acceptance of Subsidiary Alliance by Baji Rao II & relinquishing of all rights of Surat by Baji Rao to the British.

For Marathas Treaty of Bassein was loss of national honor. Holkar & Scindia stopped fighting. Scindia & Bhonsle combined but Holkar & Gaikwad remained aloof. Scindia & Bhonsle were asked by the English to withdraw their troops to the north of the Narmada River but they refused & it led to war. Both Scindia & Peshwar had accepted the sovereignty of the English. British turned their attention towards Holkar but Yashwant Rao Holkar proved more than a match for the British. Wellesley was recalled from India & the Company made peace with the Holkar in January 1806 by the Treaty of Rajghat giving back to the latter the greater part of the territories.

Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-1818)

Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-1818) Maratha made a desperate last attempt to regain their independence & prestige in 1817. This led in organizing a united front of the Maratha Chiefs & was taken over by the Peshwa who was uneasy under the rigid control exercised by the British Resident. However once again the Marathas failed to evolve any plan of action. The Peshwa attacked the British Residency at Poona in 1817, Appa Saheb of Nagpur attacked the Residency at Nagpur & Madhav Rao Holkar made preparations for war.

The Maratha confederacy was altogether destroyed so many territories were taken from its various members that they were rendered powerless to do anything against the British. Thus the work was accomplished by Lord Hastings in 1818. Now the British Government became the supreme & paramount authority in India

Siraj-ud-Daula

Siraj-ud Daula came to power in 1756. Calcutta was renamed Alinagar after its capture by Siraj-ud-Daula. He tried to control the activities of East India Company. He wrote letters to the British governor of Calcutta to demolish additional fortifications & also to stop unlawful activities against him.

The British refused to comply with his orders & he seized the English factory at Kasimbazar & then Calcutta. In 1757, his men were attacked by English army led by Robert Clive. This forced the nawab to come to an understanding & establish peace with the English.

Treaty of Alinagar (1757)**The treaty comprised:**

- A list of demands made by the Company.
- An agreement affirming to return to status quo.
- A number of farmans & dastaks issued by the nawab.
- As long as nawab shall observe his agreement, English will continue to support him. All the trade privileges held earlier by the Company stood confirmed.
- Additionally the English were authorized to fortify Calcutta against possible French attack & issue their own coins.

Battle of Plassey (23 June 1757)

The treaty was violated by conquest of Chandannagore by the British in 1757. Siraj ud Daula protested by offering protection to the French. The British decided to remove him through conspiracy. The battle of Plassey took place on June 23, 1757. This battle saw the treachery of Mir Jafar & Rai Durlabh, bravery of small force & desertation of Nawab's army. Siraj-ud-Daula was captured & executed by son of Mir Jafar.

Mir Jafar (1757-60)

Mir Jafar granted the right to free trade in Bengal & Bihar & Orissa & zamindari of the 24 parganas to the British besides paying them a sum of Rs 17.7 million as compensation. His period saw the beginning of the drain of wealth from India to Britain. He tried to replace the English with the Dutch but the Dutch were defeated by the English at Bedara in 1759. He was replaced by Mir Qasim.

Mir Qasim (1760-63)

Mir Qasim granted the zamindari of Burdwan, Midnapore & Chittagong to the British officials. He transferred his capital from Murshidabad to Monghyr. He stopped the misuse of the dastaks or free passes allowed to the company & abolished all duties on internal trade against British.

Battle of Buxar

Mir Qasim fought against the British along with three allies – Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh & Shah Alam II in 1764. This battle led to their defeat by the British forces under Major Hector Munro.

The Revolt of 1857

The Revolt of 1857 is an important landmark in the history of India. As per the British historians it was the "**Sepoy Mutiny**", it was the "**First war of independence**".

Immediate cause: The introduction of Enfield greased rifles whose cartridges were said to have a greased cover made of beef & pork sparked off the revolt. It agitated both Hindu & Muslim soldiers & resulted in immediate launch of movement.

The course of events

- On March 29, 1857, an Indian sepoy of 34 Native Infantry, Mangal Pandey, killed two British officers- Hugeson & Baugh-on parade at Barrackpore (near Calcutt(a).
- The mutiny really started at Meerut on 10th May 1857. The 3rd Native Infantry revolted. The occasion was the punishment of some sepoys for their refusal to use the greased cartridges. The soldiers alongwith other groups of civilians, went on a rampage shouting 'Maro Firangi ko'. They broke open jails, murdered Europeans, burnt their houses & marched to Delhi after sunset.
- The appearance of the marching soldiers next morning (i.e. 11th May) in Delhi was a signal to the local soldiers, who in turn revolted, seized the city & proclaimed the 82-year old Bahadur Shah 'Zafar', as Shahenshah-i-Hindustan (i.e. Emperor of Indi(a).
- The British allies during the revolt were Sindhia, the Nizam of Hyderabad & the Begum of Bhopal.

LEADERS OF REVOLT OF 1857 IN INDIA

Mangal Pandey--Mangal Pandey joined the sepoy force of the British East India Company in the year 1849 at the age of 22. Pandey was part of the 34th Bengal Native Infantry & is primarily known for his involvement in an attack on his senior British officers on 29th March 1857 at Barrackpore. This incident marked an opening stage of Sepoy Mutiny of 1857 or the First War of Indian Independence.

Nana Sahib--At Kanpur, the revolt was led by Nana Sahib, the adopted son of exiled Maratha Peshwa Baji Rao II.

Rani Lakshmbai--Rani Lakshmbai (Manikarnik(a) was married to Raja Gangadhar Rao Newalkar, the Maharaja of Jhansi in 1842 & became the queen of Jhansi. After their marriage, She gave birth to a son Damodar Rao in 1851.

Tatya Tope--Tatya Tope was Nana Sahib's close associate & general. During the Siege of Cawnpore in 1857, Nana Sahib's forces attacked the British entrenchment at Kanpur in June 1857.

Kunwar Singh--Kunwar Singh, the king of Jagdispur, currently a part of Bhojpur district, Bihar, was one of the leaders of the Indian revolt of 1857.

Shah Mal--Shah Mal lived in a large village in pargana Barout in Uttar Pradesh. He mobilised the headmen & cultivators of chaurasee des, moving at night from village to village, urging people to rebel against the British.

Maulvi Ahmadullah Shah--Maulvi Ahmadullah Shah was one of important persons who played an important part in the revolt of 1857. Educated in Hyderabad, he became a preacher when young. In 1856, he was seen moving from village to village preaching jehad (religious war) against the British & urging people to rebel. When he reached Lucknow in 1856, he was stopped by the police from preaching in the city. Subsequently, in 1857, he was jailed in Faizabad.

Leaders of Revolt at various places -

Delhi-- Mughal Emperor, Bahadur Shah, but real command lay with Bakht Khan (was from the Bareilly unit of the army).

Kanpur-- Nana Sahib (from Kanpur, along with Tantia Tope & Azimullah)

Lucknow-- Begum Hazrat Mahal of Awadh (declared her son Birjis Qadr as the Nawab of Awadh).

Bareilly-- Khan Bahadur Khan

Bihar (Arrah)--Kunwar Singh, Zamindar of Jagdishpur.

Jhansi -- Rani Lakshmi Bai

Allahabad -- Liaquat Ali

Important Governor Generals of India
Robert Clive (1757-60 & 1765-67)

1. Governor of Bengal during this period.
2. Started dual Government in Bengal in 1765.
3. He was a British officer who established the military & political supremacy of the East India Company in Bengal.
4. The foundations of the British empire in India were, it is said, laid by Robert Clive, known to his admirers as the "conqueror of India".
5. Clive defeated the Nawab of Bengal Shiraj-ud-daula in the famous Battle of Plassey in 1757.
6. Clive first arrived in India in 1743 as a civil servant of the East India Company; he later transferred to the military service of the Company & returned to England in 1753.
7. On 22 November 1774 Clive committed suicide, aged forty-nine, at his Berkeley Square home in London.

Warren Hastings (1772-74)

1. He Abolished Dual Government started by Robert Clive in 1772.
2. Introduced quintessential settlement of land revenue in 1772.
3. Foundation of Asiatic Society of Bengal with the help of William Jones in 1784.
4. After his return to England in 1785, Impeachment proceeding were initiated against him in the house of Lord.
5. The first Governor-General of Bengal was Warren Hastings.
6. Rohilla War in 1774, First Anglo-Maratha War (1776-82) & Second Anglo-Mysore War from 1780-84.

Lord Cornwallis (1786-93)

1. First Person to codify Laws in 1793. The code separated the revenue administration from the administration of Justice. Created the post of District Judge.
2. Introduced the Permanent settlement in 1793.
3. Cornwallis called "Father of Civil Service in India".
4. He also led the British forces in the third Anglo-Mysore war & defeated the Great Tipu Sultan, ruler of Mysore.
5. In 1793, He returned to England to receive the title of the Marques. & was granted seat in the Privy Council & died in 1805.

Lord Wellesley(1793-1798)

1. Described himself as "Bengal Tiger"
2. Introduced the system of Subsidiary Alliance.
3. Madras Presidency was formed during his period.
4. Signed the Treaty of Bassien & fought Second Anglo-Maratha war.

Lord Hastings (1813-1823)

1. Introduction of Ryotwari settlement in Madras Presidency by Governor Thomas Munro in 1820.
2. Adopted the Policy of intervention & War.
3. Mahalwari (Village Community) system of Land Revenue was made in North West Province by James Thomson.

Lord William Bentinck(1828-1835)

1. First Governor General of India by Government of India Act 1833.
2. Most Liberal & Enlightened Governor General of India & regarded as the "Father of Modern Western Education in India".
3. Banned practiced of Sati in 1829. & banned female infanticide.
4. He made the English the court Language in higher court but Persian continued in Lower court.
5. Abolished Court of Appeals & Circuit set up by the Cornwallis.
6. Sir Charles Metcalfe (1835-36) called Liberator of Press.

Lord Dalhousie(1849-1856)

1. Lord Dalhousie introduced the Policy of Doctrine of Lapse captured Satara in 1848, Jaitpur & Sambhalpur in 1849. Baghat in 1850, Udaipur in 1852, Jhansi in 1853, & Nagpur in 1854.
2. Introduced Wood's Dispatch known as Magna Carta of English Education in India prepared by Charles Wood. It suggested a scheme of education from Primary to University level.
3. He laid the first Railway Line in 1853 from Bombay to Thane & second from Calcutta to Raniganj.
4. Gave a great impetus to Post & Telegraph. Telegraph lines were first laid from Calcutta to Agra.
5. Hindu Marriage Act passed in 1856.
6. A Post office Act was passed in 1854. Postage stamp were issued for the first time.
7. He was the youngest Governor General of India. He assumed charge at age of 36.
8. An Engineering Collage at Roorkee was established.
9. A separate Public Works Department was setup for the first time, Started work on Grand Trunk Road & developed the Harbours at Karachi, Bombay, & Calcutta.

Lord Canning (1856-62)

He was the first last Governor General of India & First Viceroy of India.

1. Revolt of 1857.
2. Queen Victoria's Proclamation & passing the Indian council act of 1858.
3. Doctrine of Lapse which was started by Lord Dalhousie was withdrawn in 1859.
4. Foundation of the Universities in Calcutta, Bombay, & Madras in 1857.
5. Indigo Revolt in Bengal in 1859-60.
6. Bahadur Shah was sent to Rangoon.
7. IPC & Cr.PC was enacted.
8. Income Tax was introduced for the first time in 1858.
9. Indian High Court act 1861 was enacted.



MODERN HISTORY AFTER 1885**The Indian National Congress**

- Formed in 1885 by A.O.Hume, an Englishman & a retired civil servant.
- First session in Bombay under W.C.Banerjee in 1885 (72 delegates attended it).
- In the first two decades (1885 – 1905), quite moderate in its approach.
- But the repressive measures of the British gave rise to extremists within Congress like Bipin Chandra Pal, Bal Gangadhar Tilak & Lala Lajpat Rai (Lal, Bal, Pal).

Partition of Bengal:

- By Lord Curzon on October 16, 1905, through a royal Proclamation, reducing the old province of Bengal in size by creating East Bengal & Assam out of rest of Bengal.
- The objective was to set up a communal gulf between Hindus & Muslims.

Swadeshi Movement (1905):

- Lal, Bal, Pal, & Aurobindo Ghosh played the important role.
- INC took the Swadeshi call first at the Banaras Session, 1905 presided over by G.K.Gokhale. Bonfires of foreign goods were conducted at various places.

Formation of Muslim League (1906)

In December, 1906, All India Muslim League was set up under the leadership of Aga Khan, Nawab Salimullah of Dacca & Nawab Mohsin-ul-Mulk at Dacca. The League supported the partition of Bengal, opposed the Swadeshi movement & demanded special safeguards for its community & a separate electorate of Muslims.

Calcutta Session of INC (1906)

In Dec. 1906 at Calcutta, the INC under the leadership of Dada Bhai Naoroji adopted 'Swaraj' as the goal of Indian people. Naoroji in his presidential address declared that the goal of the INC was 'self government of Swaraj like that of United Kingdom'.

Surat Split (1907)

The INC split into the two groups i.e. the extremists & the moderates at the Surat session in 1907. The extremists were led by Tilak, Lajpat Rai & Bipin Chandra Pal while the moderates were led by G.K. Gokhale.

Alipore Bomb Case 1908

In 1908 a revolutionary conspiracy was intrigued to kill the Chief Presidency Magistrate D.H. Kingford of Muzaffarpur. The task was entrusted to Khudiram Bose & Prafulla Chaki. They threw the bombs on a vehicle coming out of the magistrate's home on April 30, 1908.

Morley-Minto Reforms (1909)

Morley-Minto Reforms were introduced in 1909 during the period when Lord Minto was the Viceroy of India while Morley was the secretary of the state. The reforms laid the foundation of institutionalized communalism as per the policy of divide & rule by introducing the separate electorates for Muslims. As per the provisions of the reform Muslims could only vote for Muslim candidates.

Arrival of Lord Hardinge (1910)

From 1910 to 1916, Lord Hardinge served as India's Viceroy. The important event during his tenure was the Delhi Durbar of 1911.

Delhi Durbar of 1911

In 1910, there was a succession in England where King George V ascended the throne. In 1911 he paid a visit to India. Darbar was held to commemorate the coronation of King George V & Queen Mary as Emperor & Empress of India. In this Darbar, the King declared that Capital of India will be transferred from Calcutta to Delhi. In the same Darbar it was also declared the Partition of Bengal is cancelled.

Delhi conspiracy case 1912

It is said that the Delhi Conspiracy was hatched by Ras Bihari Bose, but was never proved. On 23 December 1912, a Bomb was thrown at the Viceroy Lord Hardinge when his procession was moving from Chandni Chowk. The Viceroy wounded in the attempt, but his Mahavat (driver & keeper of an elephant) was killed.

Ghadar Party (1913)

- Formed by Lala Hardayal, Taraknath Das & Sohan Singh Bhakna. Its headquarters was at San Francisco.

Home Rule Movement (1915-16)

B.G Tilak was released from the Mandalay jail in the year 1914. In 1915 he reentered INC. B.G. Tilak founded Indian Home Rule League at Pune on 28 April, 1916. Annie Besant, inspired by the Irish rebellion, started Home Rule Movement in India in September 1916. She started two newspapers i.e. Young India & Commonwealth. The leagues advocated passive resistance & civil disobedience.

Arrival of Lord Chelmsford 1916

On April 4, 1916, Lord Chelmsford took over as next Viceroy of India.

Lucknow Pact-Congress-League Pact (1916)

An important step forward in achieving Hindu-Muslim unity was the Lucknow Pact (1916). Anti-British feelings were generated among the Muslims following a war between Britain & Turkey which opened way for Congress & Muslim League unity. Both the Congress & the Muslim League held session at Lucknow in 1916 & concluded the famous Lucknow pact. The congress accepted the separate electorate & both organizations jointly demanded 'dominion status' for the country.

Montague Declaration (August Declaration of 1917)

Montague made the landmark statement in the context of self rule in India in 1917. He said that the control over the Indian government would be transferred gradually to the Indian people. This was the result of Hindu-Muslim unity exhibited in Lucknow pact.

The Champaran Satyagraha of 1917 was Mahatma Gandhi's first Satyagraha. Champaran & Kheda Satyagraha were the events which later put Gandhi on the front seat of Indian National Revolution & made Satyagraha a powerful tool.

Kheda Satyagraha 1918

In 1918, Gujarat as a whole suffered a severe epidemic of Plague & in Kheda alone around 17000 people lost their lives. Further, cholera also broke out locally. This was the immediate reason of the revolt. The revolt was against the taxes. The government said that if the taxes are not paid, the property would be seized. This revolt gave India a robust leader in Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel. Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel & his colleagues organized this major tax revolt, which was able to mobilize all the castes & creeds of the region.

Rowlatt Act (March 18, 1919)

- This gave unbridled powers to the government to arrest & imprison suspects without trial for two years maximum.

Jallianwala Bagh Massacre (April 13, 1919):

- People were agitated over the arrest of Dr. Kitchlew & Dr. Satyapal on April 9, 1919. General O' Dyer fires at people who assembled in the Jallianwala Bagh, Amritsar on 13th April 1919 for celebration of Baisakhi. As a result hundreds of men, women & children were killed & thousands injured.
- Rabindranath Tagore returned his Knighthood (titl(e) in protest.
- Sir Shankaran Nair resigned from Viceroy's Executive Council after this.
- Hunter Commission was appointed to enquire into it.
- On March 13, 1940, Sardar Udham Singh killed O'Dyer when the later was addressing a meeting in Caxton Hall, London.

Hunter Committee Report

The Jallianwala Bagh massacre was followed by establishment of a non-official enquiry committee the Government established a committee headed by Lord Hunter a Senator of the "College of justice of Scotland".

Khilafat Movement (1919-20):

- Muslims were agitated by the treatment done with Turkey by the British in the treaty of Sevurus that followed the First World War.
- Two brothers, Mohd.Ali & Shaukat Ali started this movement.

Non cooperation movement (1920-22)

The Non cooperation was the first mass movement launched under the leadership of Gandhi.

The program of non-cooperation included:

1. Surrender of titles
2. Boycott of government affiliated educational institutions
3. Boycott of courts of law
4. Boycott of foreign cloth
5. Nonpayment of taxes

Chaura Chauri Incidence (1922)

On 5th February 1922, the Non Cooperation Movement was called off by Gandhiji because of an unfortunate incidence at Chauri Chaura in Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh. In this incidence the crowd participating in the Non Cooperation & Khilafat procession indulged into the violence with the police. As a result the crowd burnt a Police station & in the incidence 22 policemen were killed.

The Swaraj party (1923)

During this time a new political strategy; to carry forward the struggle against the colonial rule; was advocated by C.R. Das & Motilal Nehru. C.R. Das & Motilal Nehru put forward the changed strategy in Gaya session (1922) of the Congress. There were leaders in Congress like Vallabhbhai Patel, Rajendra Prasad & C.Rajgopalachari who opposed these changes of council entry. C.R. Das & Motilal Nehru resigned from the Congress & formed the Swaraj Party.

Simon Commission (1927)

- Constituted under John Simon, to review the political situation in India & to introduce further reforms & extension of parliamentary democracy.
- Indian leaders opposed the commission, as there were no Indians in it.
- At Lahore, Lala Lajpat Rai was severely beaten in a lathi-charge during a protest against. He died in 1928.
- It had 7 member & no Indian is there.

Nehru's Report (1928)

Lord Birkenhead, the Conservative Secretary of the State challenged Indians that they were not capable to formulate a concrete scheme of the constitutional reforms which had the support of wide section of political parties. He was of the view that a scheme of constitutional reform made by one political party in India would be opposed by the others & Indian political parties lacked the capabilities to form a consensus. To meet this challenge All Parties Conferences were held in 1928. A scheme was finalized which is popularly called "Nehru Report" as Motilal Nehru was its chief architect.

14 Points of Jinnah (March 9, 1929)

Jinnah, the leader of Muslim League, did not accept the Nehru Report. Jinnah thereafter drew up a list of demands, which was called '14 points of Jinnah'.

Lahore Session (1929)

At its annual session held in Lahore in December 1929, under the presidentship of Jawaharlal Nehru, the Indian National Congress passed a resolution declaring 'Poorna Swaraj' (Complete Independence) to be the goal of the national movement. On Dec. 31, 1929, the newly adopted tricolor flag was unfurled & Jan 26 fixed as the Independence Day which was to be celebrated every year, pleading to the people not to submit to British rule any longer.

Civil Disobedience Movement

Phase "I" of Civil Disobedience Movement

In 1929 at Lahore Session, Congress made the "Purna Swaraj" or the complete independence as the aim of the Congress. On 31st January 1930, Gandhi gave his ultimatum to Lord Irwin with his 11 point demand. The Gandhi asked Irwin either to accept the 11 point demands else the Congress will launch Civil Disobedience. The demands were ignored by the British government. Thus Gandhi launched the Civil Disobedience Movement with the Dandi march. It was started from Sabarmati to Dandi. Gandhiji along with his 78 followers broke the Salt Act.

First Round Table conference (1930)

- It was the first conference arranged between the British & Indians as equals. It was held on November 12, 1930 in London to discuss Simon commission.
- Boycotted by INC, Muslim League, Hindu Mahasabha, Liberals & some others were there.

Gandhi Irwin Pact (1931)

- The two (government represented by Irwin & INC by Gandhiji) signed a pact on March 5, 1931.
- In this the INC called off the civil disobedience movement & agreed to join the second round table conference
- The government on its part released the political prisoners & conceded the right to make salt for consumption for villages along the coast.

Second Round Table Conference(1931)

- Gandhiji represented the INC & went to London to meet British P.M. Ramsay MacDonald.
- However, the session was soon deadlocked on the minorities issue & this time separate electorates was demanded not only by Muslims but also by Depressed Classes, Indian Christians & Anglo – Indians.

Phase "II" of CDM

After the failure of Second Round Table Conference, the working committee of the Congress resumed Civil Disobedience movement.

The Communal Award (August 16,1932)

- Announced by Ramsay McDonald. It showed divide & rule policy of the British.
- Envisaged representation of Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians, Anglo Indians, women & even Backward classes.
- Gandhiji, who was in Yeravada jail at that time, started a fast unto death against it. Poona Pact (September 25, 1932).
- After the announcement of communal award & subsequent fast of Gandhiji, mass meeting took place almost everywhere.
- Political leaders like Madan Mohan Malviya, B R Ambedkar & M.C.Rajah became active.
- Eventually Poona pact was reached & Gandhiji broke his fast on the sixth day (Sept 25, 1932).
- In this, the idea of separate electorate for the depressed classes was abandoned, but seats reserved to them in the provincial legislature were increased.

Third Round Table Conference (1932)

- Proved fruitless as most of the national leaders were in prison. The discussions led to the passing of the Government of India Act, 1935.

The Government of India Act, 1935

The Simon Commission report submitted in 1930 formed the basis for the Government of India Act, 1935. The new Government of India Act received the royal assent on Aug. 4, 1935. The continued & extended all the existing features of earlier constitutional reforms. But in addition there were certain new principle introduced. It provided for a federal type of government. Thus, the act:

1. Introduced provincial autonomy.
2. Abolished dyarchy in provinces.



Pakistan Resolution/Lahore Resolution (March 24, 1940)

It was 1930 that Iqbal suggested the union of the Frontier Province, Baluchistan, Sindh & Kashmir as Muslim state within the federations. The idealist Chaudhary Rehmat Ali developed this conception at Cambridge, where he inspired a group of young Muslims & invented the term 'Pakstan' (later 'Pakistan') in 1935. The ideology of Iqbal, the vision of Rehamat Ali, & the fears of Muslims were thus united by the practical genius of Jinnah to bind Muslim together. The Lahore session of the Muslim League, held on March 24, 1940, passed Pakistan Resolution & rejected the Federal scheme envisaged in the government of India Act, 1935.

The August Offer (1940)

In order to win the public opinion in India, Linlithgow put up an offer to get the support of the nationalist in the World War II.

Main Features

- A promise of Dominion Status in an unspecified future.
- A post war body to be created to enact a constitution, however this was to happen only after the approval from the British Parliament.
- Immediate expansion in the Viceroy's executive council.
- Formation of a war advisory council.

Individual Satyagraha

The August offer shocked nationalists, & the Congress launched the individual Satyagraha. Vinobha Bhave was the first Satyagrahi while Nehru was second.

The Cripps Mission – 1942

- In Dec. 1941, Japan entered the World War – II & advanced towards Indian borders. By March 7, 1942, Rangoon fell & Japan occupied the entire S E Asia.
- The British govt. with a view to getting cooperation from Indians sent Sir Stafford Cripps, leader of the House of Commons to settle terms with the Indian leaders.
- He offered a draft which proposed dominion status to be granted after the war.
- Rejected by the Congress as it didn't want to rely upon future promises.
- Gandhiji termed it as a post dated cheque in a crashing bank.
-

Quit India Movement

- The causes for the launch of Quit India Movement were:
- The failure of the Cripp's Mission was an eye opener for the nationalist.
- The news of Allied reverses in World War & British withdrawal from South-East Asia & Burma leaving local people at the mercy of Japanese.

Course of Events

- Quit India resolution was passed on 8th August 1942 at Bombay.
- The Congress envisaged a "mass struggle on the non-violent lines on the widest possible scale".
- It was made clear that if Congress leadership gets removed by arrest, "every Indian who desires freedom & strives for it must be his own guide".
- Gandhi & all the leaders of the Congress working committee were arrested on the early hours of August 9, 1942.
- There was a three month strike in Ahmedabad.
- Usha Mehta ran an illegal radio station whose broadcasting station was often change to avoid Police arrest.
- Rajagopalachari & Communists opposed the Quit India Movement.
- The three parallel governments were formed at: 1. Ballia under Chittu Pandey 2. Tamkul- Jatia Sarkar of Satish Samant 3. Satara- Prati Sarkar under Nana Patil.

Gandhiji's Fast (February 10 – March 7, 1943)

Gandhiji undertook a 21-day fast in jail. His condition deteriorated after 13 days & all hopes of his surviving were given up. However, as a result his moral strength & spiritual stamina, he survived & completed the 21-day fast. This was his answer to the government which had been constantly exhorting him to condemn the violence of the people in the Quit India Movement.

C.R. Formula (1944)

In 1944, Chakravarti Rajagopalachari (C.R.) proposed to appoint a commission to separate the district in North-West & East where Muslims were in majority. In such areas, a voting to be held on the basis of adult suffrage to decide the issue of separation. They would be given freedom in case they favoured a sovereign state. In case of acceptance of partition, agreement to be made jointly for safeguarding defence, commerce, communications etc.

Muslim League was to endorse Congress demand for independence & cooperate in formation of provisional government. Jinnah objected, as he wanted Congress to accept two-nation theory & wanted only Muslims of the North-West & East of India to vote. Hindu Leaders led by V.D. Savarkar condemned the plan.

Wavell Plan & Shimla Conference (June 14 – July 14, 1945)

After consultations with the British Government on the Indian problem, Lord Wavell, the Viceroy of India, issued a statement known as Wavell Plan. The Plan, which chiefly concerned Viceroy's Executive Council, proposed certain changes in the structure of the council. One of the main proposals was that the Executive Council would be constituted giving a balanced representation to main communities in it, including equal representation to Muslims & Hindus. Soon after the Wavell Plan

was issued the members of the Congress Working Committee were released from jails. A conference of 22 prominent Indian leaders called at Shimla to consider the Wavell Plan, reached no decision. What scuttled the conference was Mr. Jinnah's unflinching stand that Muslim approved only by the Muslim League should be included in the Executive Council. Communalism thus again became a stumbling block. For the Britishers, however, the dissension between the Congress & the Muslim League was a source of happiness.

The Indian National Army

- Founded by Ras Behari Bose with Captain Mohan Singh.
- Subhash Chandra Bose escaped from India in 1941 & reached Berlin. In July 1943, he joined the INA at Singapore. There, Ras Behari Bose handed over the leadership to him.
- The soldiers were mostly raised from Indian soldiers of the British army who had been taken prisoners by the Japanese after they conquered S.E. Asia.
- Two INA head quarters were Rangoon & Singapore (formed in Singapor(e)).
- INA had three fighting brigades named after Gandhiji, Azad & Nehru. Rani Jhansi Brigade was an exclusive women force.

INA Trials

- The first trial of INA prisoners took place at Red Fort.
- P.K. Seghal, Shah Nawaz & Gurbaksh Singh Dhillon were made accused.
- The counsels for defense were Bhulabhai Desai, Tej Bhadur Sapru, K.N. Kataju, J.L. Nehru & Asaf Ali.
- Even though the Court Martial held the INA prisoners guilty, the Government felt it expedient to set them free.
- The question of guilt was not the issue, however it was Britain's right to decide the matter concerning Indians.

The revolt of Royal Indian Navy (RIN)

- In February 1946, Bombay Ratings of HMIS Talwar revolted against British & struck work.
- The racial discrimination & bad food was the immediate cause of the revolt.
- B.C Dutta scrawled Quit India on the ships
- The HMIS Hindustan in Karachi also mutinied.
- By the end of February the strike had spread to naval bases all over the country involving about 20000 ratings.

The Cabinet Mission Plan (1946)

- The struggle for freedom entered a decisive phase in the year 1945-46. The new Labour Party Prime Minister Lord Attlee, made a declaration on March 15, 1946, that British Cabinet Mission (comprising of Lord Pethick Lawrence as Chairman, Sir Stafford Cripps & A.V. Alexander) will visit India.

- The mission held talks with the INC & ML to bring about acceptance of their proposals.
- On May 16, 1946, the mission put towards its proposals. It rejected the demand for separate Pakistan & instead a federal union consisting of British India & the Princely States was suggested.
- Both Congress & Muslims League accepted it.

Direct Action Campaign (August 16, 1946): Provoked by the success of the Congress (in the voting for Constituent Assembly), the Muslim League launched a 'direct action' campaign on August 16, 1946, which resulted in heavy communal riots in the country.

Interim Government (September 2, 1946):

On Sept. 2, 1946, an interim government was formed. Congress members led by Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru joined it but the Muslim League did not as it withdrew its earlier acceptance of the Cabinet Mission Plan.

Formation of Constituent Assembly (Dec. 9, 1946):

This Constituent Assembly met on Dec. 9, 1946, & Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected its President. The Muslim League did not join the Assembly.

Attlee's Announcement (Feb. 20, 1947): On Feb. 20, 1947, British PM Attlee announced that the British would withdraw from India by June 30, 1948 & that Lord Mountbatten would replace Wavell.

Mountbatten Plan (June 3, 1947)

- On June 3, 1947, Lord Mountbatten put forward his plan which outlined the steps for the solution of India's political problem.
- The outlines of the Plan were:
- India to be divided into India & Pakistan.
- Bengal & Punjab will be partitioned & a referendum in NEFP & Sylhet district of Assam would be held.
- There would be a separate constitutional assembly for Pakistan to frame its constitution.
- The Princely states would enjoy the liberty to join either India or Pakistan or even remain independent.
- Aug.15, 1947 was the date fixed for handing over power to India & Pakistan.
- The British govt. passed the Indian Independence Act of 1947 in July 1947, which contained the major provisions put forward by the Mountbatten plan.

Partition & Independence (August 1947): All political parties accepted the Mountbatten plan.

- At the time of independence, there were 562 small & big Princely States in India.
- Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel, the first home minister, used iron hand in this regard.

By August 15, 1947, all the States, with a few exceptions like Kashmir, Hyderabad & Junagarh had signed the Instrument of Accession.

Goa was with the Portuguese & Pondicherry with the French.

Revolutionary Activities

- In 1908, Khudiram Bose & Prafulla Chaki threw a bomb on the carriage of kingford, the unpopular judge of Muzaffapur. Khudiram, Kanhaiyalal Dutt & Satyendranath Bose were hanged (Alipur Cas(e)).
- In 1912, Rasbihari Bose & Sachindra Nath Sanyal threw a bomb & Lord Hardinge at Delhi. (Delhi Conspiracy Cas(e)).
- In October 1924, a meeting of revolutionaries from all parts of India was called at Kanpur. They setup Hindustan Republic Association.
- They carried out a dacoity on the Kakori bound train on the Saharanpur-Lucknow railway line on Aug. 9, 1925.
- Bhagat Singh, with his colleagues, shot dead Saunders (Asst. S.P. of Lahore, who ordered lathi charge on Lala Lajpat Rai) on Dec.17, 1928.
- Bhagat Singh & Batukeshwar Dutt threw a bomb in the Central Assembly on April 8, 1929. Thus, he, Rajguru & Sukhdev were hanged on March 23, 1931 at Lahore Jail (Lahore Conspiracy Cas(e)).
- In 1929 only Jatin Das died in Lahore jail after 63 days fast to protest against horrible conditions in jail.
- Surya Sen, a revolutionary of Bengal, formed the Indian Republic Army in Bengal. In 1930, he masterminded the raid on Chittagong armoury. He was hanged in 1933.
- In 1931, Chandrashekhar Azad shot himself at Alfred Park in Allahabad.

Important British Viceroy's in India

Lord Canning (1856 – 1862):

- The last Governor General & the first Viceroy.
- Mutiny (Revolt of 1857) took place in his time.
- Withdrew Doctrine of Lapse (introduced by Lord Dalhousi(e)).
- The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay & Madras were established in 1857.
- Indian Councils Act was passed in 1861.

Lord Lawrence (1864 – 1869) :

- Telegraphic communication was opened with Europe.
- High Courts were established at Calcutta, Bombay & Madras in 1865.

- Expanded canal works & railways.
- Created the Indian Forest department.

Lord Mayo (1869 – 1872) :

- Started the process of financial decentralization in India.
- Established the Rajkot college at Kathiawar & Mayo College at Ajmer for the Indian princes.
- For the first time in Indian history, a census was held in 1871.
- Organised the Statistical Survey of India.
- Was the only Viceroy to be murdered in office by a Pathan convict in the Andamans in 1872.

Lord Ripon (1880 – 1884) :

- Repeated the Vernacular Press act (1882)
- Passed the local self government act (1882)
- Took steps to improve primary & secondary education (on William Hunter Commission's recommendations).
- 1st Factory act, 1881, aimed at prohibiting child labour.
- Passed the Ilbert Bill (1883) which enabled Indian district magistrates to try European criminals.

Lord Dufferin (1884 – 1888) : Indian National Congress was formed during his tenure.

Lord Lansdowne (1888 – 1894) :

- II Factory act (1891) passed during his time.
- Categorization of Civil Services into Imperial, Provincial & Subordinate.
- Indian Council act of 1892 was passed.
- Appointment of Durand Commission to define the line between British India & Afghanistan.

Lord Elgin II (1894 – 1899) : Great famine of 1896 – 1897. Lyall Commission was appointed.

Lord Curzon (1899 – 1905) :

- Passed the Indian Universities act (1904) in which official control over the Universities was increased.
- Partitioned Bengal (October 16, 1905) into two provinces Bengal (proper) & East Bengal & Assam.
- Appointed a Police Commission under Sir Andrew Frazer to enquire into the police administration of every province.
- The risings of the frontier tribes in 1897 – 98 led him to create the North Western Frontier Province (NWFP).
- Passed the Ancient Monuments Protection act (1904), to restore India's cultural heritage. Thus the Archaeological Survey of India was established.
- Passed the Indian Coinage & Paper Currency act (1899) & put India on a gold standard.

Lord Minto (1905 – 1910) :

There was great political unrest in India. Various acts were passed to curb the revolutionary activities. Extremists like Lala Laipat Rai & Ajit Singh (in May, 1907) & Bal Gangadhar Tilak (in July, 1908) were sent to Mandalay jail in Burma. The Indian Council act of 1909 or the Morley Minto Reforms was passed.

Lord Hardinge (1910 – 1916) :

- (a) Held a durbar in December, 1911 to celebrate the coronation of King George V.
- (b) Partition of Bengal was cancelled (1911).
- (c) Capital shifted from Calcutta to Delhi (1912).
- (d) A bomb was thrown at him; but he escaped unhurt (December 23, 1912).
- (e) Gandhiji came back to India from South Africa (1915).
- (f) Annie Besant announced the Home Rule Movement.

Lord Chelmsford (1916 – 1921) :

- (a) August Declaration of 1917, whereby control over the Indian government would be gradually transferred to the Indian people.
- (b) The government of India act in 1919 (Montague Chelmsford reforms) was passed.
- (c) Rowlatt act of 1919; Jallianwala Bagh Massacre (April 13, 1919).
- (d) Non Cooperation Movement.
- (e) An Indian Sir S.P.Sinha was appointed the Governor of Bengal.
- (f) A Women's university was founded at Poona in 1916.
- (a) Saddle Commission was appointed in 1917 to envisage new educational policy.

Lord Reading (1921 – 1926) :

- (a) Rowlatt act of 1919 was repealed along with the Press act of 1910.
- (b) Prince of Wales visited India in November, 1921.
- (c) Formation of Swaraj Party.
- (d) Vishwabharati University started functioning in 1922.
- (e) Communist party was founded in 1921 by M.N. Roy.
- (f) Kakori Train Robbery on August 9, 1925.
- (g) Communal riots of 1923 – 25 in Multan, Amritsar, Delhi, etc. Swami Shradhdhanand, a great nationalist & a leader of the Arya Samajists, was murdered in communal orgy.

Lord Irwin (1926 – 1931) :

- (a) Simon Commission visited India in 1928.
- (b) Congress passed the Indian Resolution in 1929.
- (c) Dandi March (March 12, 1930).
- (d) Civil Disobedience Movement (1930).
- (e) First Round Table Conference held in England in 1930.
- (f) Gandhi Irwin Pact (March 5, 1931) was signed &
- (g) Civil Disobedience Movement was withdrawn.
- (h) Martyrdom of Jatin Das after 64 days hunger strike (1929).

Lord Willingdon (1931 – 1936) :

- (a) Second Round Table conference in London in 1931.
- (b) On his return Gandhiji was again arrested & Civil Disobedience Movement was resumed in January, 1932.
- (c) Communal Awards (August 16, 1932) assigned seats to different religious communities. Gandhiji went on a epic fast in protest against this division.
- (d) Third Round Table conference in 1932.
- (e) Poona Pact was signed.
- (f) Government of India act (1935) was passed.

Lord Linlithgow (1936 – 1944) :

- (a) Government of India act enforced in the provinces.
- (b) Congress ministries formed in 8 out of 11 provinces.
- (c) Churchill became the British Prime Minister in May, 1940. He declared that the Atlantic Charter (issued jointly by the UK & US, stating to give sovereign rights to those who have been forcibly deprived of them) does not apply to India.
- (d) Outbreak of World War II in 1939.

Lord Wavell (1944 – 1947) :

- (a) Arranged the Shimla Conference on June 25, 1945 with Indian National Congress & Muslim League; failed.
- (b) Cabinet Mission Plan (May 16, 1946).
- (c) Elections to the constituent assembly were held & an Interim Government was appointed under Nehru.
- (d) First meeting of the constituent assembly was held on December 9, 1946.

Lord Mountbatten (March 1947 – August 1947) :

- (b) Last Viceroy of British India & the first Governor General of free India.
- (c) Partition of India decided by the June 3 Plan.
- (d) Indian Independence Act, 1947 passed by the British parliament on July 4, 1947, by which India became independent on August 15, 1947.
- (e) Retired in June 1948 & was succeeded by C. Rajagopalachari (the first & the last Indian Governor General of free India).

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS BY THE BRITISH
Important Acts
The Regulating Act, 1773

- First attempt by the British Parliament to regulate the affairs of the Company.
- Provided for centralization of Administration of Company's territories in India.
- Governor of Bengal became Governor-general for Bengal.
- Governor General & council of 4 members appointed for Bengal.
- Bombay & Madras Presidency subordinated to Bengal presidency.
- Supreme court to be set up at Calcutta.

The Pitts India Act, 1784

- This Act gave the British government the supreme control over Company's affairs & its administration in India.
- Court of directors consisting of 24 members was appointed to look after commercial functions.
- Board of control consisting of 6 parliamentary Commissioners appointed to control civil, military & revenue affairs of India.
- Strength of Governor general-in council reduced to 3.
- Subordinated the Bombay & Madras presidency to Bengal in all questions of war, diplomacy & revenues.
- First effective substitution of Parliamentary Control over East India Company.

The Charter Act of 1833

- End of company's trade monopoly even in tea & with China.
- Company was asked to close its business at the earliest.
- Governor-General of Bengal to be Governor-General of India. (1st Governor-General of India-Lord William Bentinck).
- Govt. of Madras & Bombay deprived of legislative powers.
- A fourth member, law member added to council of Governor-General.
- Government Service was thrown open to the people of India.
- All laws made by Governor General-in-council henceforth to be known as Acts & not regulations.

The Charter Act of 1853

- Extended life of the Company for an unspecified period.
- First time separate legislative machinery consisting of 12 member legislative council was created.
- Law member was made a full member of the Executive Council of the Governor-General
- Recruitment to Civil Services was based on open annual competitive examination. (excluding Indians)

The Govt of India Act, 1858

- Rule of Company in India ended & that of the Crown began.
- System of double Government ended. Court of Directors & Board of Control abolished.
- Secretary of State (a member of the British Cabinet) for India was created. He was assisted by a 15-member council (Indian Council). He was to exercise the powers of the Crown.
- Secretary of State governed India through the Governor-General. Governor-General was to be called the Viceroy & was the direct representative of the Crown in India.
- A unitary & highly centralized administrative structure was created.

The Indian Council Act, 1861

- Policy of Association of Indians in legislation started.
- A fifth member who was to be a jurist, was added to the Viceroy's executive council.
- Viceroy could issue ordinances in case of emergency.
- For legislation, executive Council of Viceroy was enlarged by 6 to 12 members composed of half non-official members. Thus foundations of Indian legislature were laid down.
- Legislative powers of the Presidency Government deprived in 1833 were restored.

Indian Council Act, 1909 (Morley-Minto Act)

- Morley was the secretary of state, while Minto was the Indian Viceroy.
- Additional members in central legislative assembly were increased to 60
- Introduced for the first time indirect elections to the Legislative Councils.
- Separate electorates were introduced for the muslims.
- Non-official seats were to be filled in by elections. They were distributed as follows
 - (b) By non-official members of the Provincial Legislative councils.
 - (c) By landholders of 6 provinces
 - (d) By Muslims of 5 provinces
 - (e) Alternately by Muslim landholders of Up/Bengal Chambers of commerce of Calcutta & Bombay.

Muslim were to be elected by Separate electorates.

- Resolutions could be moved before the budget was taken in its final form.
- Supplementary questions could be asked.

The Government of India Act, 1919

- Popularly known as Montague(Secretary of Stat(e)-Chelmsford(Viceroy) Reforms.
- The idea of "Responsible Government" was emphasised upon.
- Devolution Rules:
- Subjects of administration were divided into two categories-"Central" & "Provincial".
- Subjects of all India importance (like railways & financ(e) were brought under the category of Central, while matters relating to the administration of the provinces were classified as provincial.
- Dyarchy system introduced in the Provinces. The Provincial subjects of administration were to be divided into two categories "Transferred" & "Reserved" subjects.

- The transferred subjects were to be administered by the Governor with the aid of Ministers responsible to the Legislative Council. The Governor & his Executive Council were to administer the reserved subjects (Rail, Post, Telegraph, Finance, Law & Order, etc.) without any responsibility to the legislature.
- An office of the High commissioner of India was created in London.
- Indian legislature became "bicameral" for the first time.
- Communal representation extended to Sikhs, Indian christen Anglo-Indians.
- Secretary of State for India now to be paid from British revenue.

Government of India Act, 1935

- Sought to introduce a federation.
- Provided for 3-fold division of legislative power, i.e. three lists - Federal, Provincial & Concurrent Lists.
- Residuary powers to be vested with Governor-General.
- Dyarchy was introduced at the Centre.
- Autonomy replaced dyarchy at provincial level.
- Provided for establishment of a Federal Court.

Indian Independence Act, 1947

- This Act did not lay down any provision for the administration of India.
- Partition of India & the establishment of two dominions of India & Pakistan.
- Constituent Assembly of each Dominion would have unlimited powers to frame & adopt any constitution.
- The rule of the crown over Indian states was terminated.
- The office of the Secretary of State for India was to be abolished.

SOCIAL REFORMS DURING MODERN PERIOD

Atmiya Sabha

- Started in 1815 in Kolkata(then Calcutt(a) by Raja Ram Mohan Roy to make reforms in the Hindu society.

Wahabi Movement

- From 1820-1828 in Rohilkhand by Syed Ahmed of Rae Bareilly.
- Popularized the teachings of Waliullah; stressed role of individual conscience in religion.

BRAHMO SAMAJ

- Established in 1828 by Raja Ram Mohan Roy in Calcutta. It emphasized on human dignity & criticized social evils as Sati.

Young Bengal Movement (1826-1832)

- Established in Calcutta by Henry Vivian Derozio.
- Opposed vices in the society; believed in truth, freedom & reason; social reform.

Dharma Sabha

- Dharma Sabha was formed in 1830 in Calcutta by Raja Radhakant Deb.
- The organization was established mainly to counter the ongoing social reform movements led by protagonists such as Raja Ram Mohun Roy and Henry Derozio.

Kuka/ Namdhari Movement (1872)

- Started by Bhai Balak Singh & Baba Ram Singh in NWFP & Ludhiana.
- Spread the true spirit of Sikhism & opposed to all caste distinctions.

Prarthana Samaj

- Established by Atmaram Pandurang in 1867 at Bombay.
- Reforming Hindu religious thought & practice in the light of modern knowledge.

Indian Reform Association

- The Indian Reform Association was formed on 29 October 1870 with Keshab Chandra Sen as president at Calcutta.
- Create public opinion against child marriages & for legalizing the Brahma form of (Civil) marriage.
- Promote the intellectual & social service.

Arya Samaj

- Arya Samaj was founded by Swami Dayananda Saraswati in 1875 at Bombay to reform Hindu religion in North India.

Theosophical Society

- Founded in 1875 at New York by madame HP Blavatsky and Col. H S Olcott.
- Advocated the revival & strengthening of ancient religions of Hinduism, Deccan Zoroastrianism & Buddhism.

Deccan Education Society

- Founded in 1884 by M G Ranade at Pune.
- To contribute to the cause of education & culture in Western India.

Seva Sadan

- Established by Behramji & Malabari in 1885 at Bombay.
- Campaign against child marriages & enforced widowhood & care for socially exploited women.

Ramakrishna Mission

- Swami Vivekananda started Ramakrishna Mission in 1887 at Calcutta.
- To carry on humanitarian relief & social work.

Indian National Social Conference(The social reform cell of the Indian National Congress)

- Established by M G Ranade and Raghunath Rao in 1887 at Bombay.
- To focus attention on matters relating to social reforms. The social reform cell of the Indian National Congress.

Bharat Dharma Mahamandala

- Established in 1902 by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya at Varanasi.
- Organization of the orthodox Hindus, also known as Sanatandharmis, to counter the teachings of the Arya Samaj.

The Servants of India Society

- The Servants of India Society was established by Gopal Krishna Gokhale in 1905 at Bombay.
- To work for social reforms & train "national missionaries for the service of India".

Poona Seva Sadan

- Founded by G K Devadhar & Ramabai Ranade in 1909 at Pune.
- Establish institutions for the economic uplift & useful employment of women.

The Indian Women's Association

- Founded by Mrs. Annie Besant in 1917 at Madras.
- Work for uplift of Indian women & "to secure a larger a free & fuller life for them".

MUSLIM SOCIAL REFORMS/ORGANIZATION
Khudai Khidmatgar Movement

- Started in 1929 in North Western Frontier Provinces under leadership of Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan.
- Upliftment of people of Frontier & prepare them for attainment of independence.

Deoband Movement

- (A school of Islamic Theology at Deoband Saharanpur,UP)
- Mohd. Qasim Nanautavi & Rashid Ahmad Gagohi started Deoband Movement in 1867.
- Improve the spiritual & moral conditions of India Muslim.

Aligarh Movement

- Started in 1875 at Aligarh by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan.
- Liberalization of Indian Islam & modernization of Indian Muslims through religious reinterpretation, social reform & modern education.

Ahmadiya Movement

- Started in 1889-90 at Faridkot by Mirza Ghulam Ahmad.
- Universal religion of all humanity, opposed to Islamic orthodoxy & spread of western liberal education among Indian Muslims.

Lower Caste Movements
Satya Shodhak Samaj

- Jyotiba Phule established in 1873 at Maharashtra.
- Opposed to untouchability, Brahmin domination, belief in social equality & uplift of the lower castes by educating them.

Aravippuram Movement

- Shri Narayan Guru started Aravippuram Movement in 1888 at Aravippuram, Kerala.
- Opposed to religious disabilities against lower castes, believed in social equality, attacked Brahmin domination & worked for the uplift of lower castes by educating them. Demanded free entry of the people of lower castes temples.

Bahujan Samaj

- Established by Mukundrao Patil in 1910 in Satara, Maharashtra.
- Opposed to exploitation of the lower castes by the upper caste people. Brahmins, landlords, merchants & moneylenders.

Depressed Classes Society

- Established in 1924 by Dr B R Ambedkar in Bombay.
- To propagate the gospel of social equality among caste Hindus & untouchables. Demanded constitutional safeguards for the depressed classes.

Self-Respect Movement

- E.V.Ramaswami started Self-Respect Movement in 1925 at Madras(Tamil Nadu).
- Anti-Brahmin & Hindu Orthodoxy radical movement, advocated, weddings without priests, forcible temple entry, total defiance of Hindu social laws.

Static GK for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam**Trophies Associated with Various Sports and Games****Air Racing**

Jawaharlal Challenge Trophy, King's Cup, World Cup.

Archery

Federation Cup

Athletics

Charminar Trophy, Federation Cup, World Cup.

Badminton

Agarwal Cup, Amrit Diwan Cup, Asia Cup, Austrelasia Cup, Chadha Cup, European Cup, Harilela Cup, Ibrahim Rahimatollah Challenge Cup, Konica Cup, Narng cup, Sophia Kitiakara Cup, Konica Cup, S. R. Ruia Cup, Thomas Cup, Tunku Abdul Rahman Cup, Uber Cup, World Cup, Yonex Cup.

Basketball

Basalat Jha Trophy, B. C. Gupta Trophy, Federation Cup, S. M. Arjuna Raja trophy, Todd Memorial Trophy, William Jones Cup.

Billiards

Arthur Walker Trophy, Thomas Cup.

Boat Rowing

American Cup (Yacht racing), Wellington Trophy (India).

Boxing

Aspy Adjahia Trophy, federation Cup, Val iBaker Trophy.

Bridge

Basalat Jha Trophy, Holkar Trophy, Ruia Gold Cup, Singhania Trophy.

Chess

Naidu Trophy, Khaitan Trophy, Limca Trophy, Linares City Trophy, World Cup.

Cricket

Anthony D'Mellow Trophy, Ashes, Asia Cup, Benson and Hedges Cup, Bose Trophy, Champions Trophy, Charminar Challenge Cup, C. K. Nayudu Trophy, Cooch-Bihar Trophy, Deodhar Trophy, Duleep Trophy, Gavaskar-Border Trophy, Duleep Trophy, Gavaskar-Border Trophy, G. D. Birla Trophy, Gillette Cup, Ghulam Ahmad Trophy, hakumat Rai Trophy, ICC World Cup, Interface Cup, Irani Trophy, Jawaharlal Nehru Cup, Lombard World Challenge Cup, McDowell's Challenge Cup, Merchant Trophy, Moin-ud-Dowla Cup, NatWest Trophy, Prudential Cup (World Cup), Rani Jhansi Trophy, Ranji Trophy, Rohinton Baria Trophy, Rothmans Cup, Sahara Cup, Sharjah Cup, Sheesh Mahal Trophy, Sheffield Shield, Singer Cup, Sir Frank Worrel Trophy, Texaco Cup, Titan Cup, Vijay Hazare Trophy, Vijay Merchant Trophy, Vizzy Trophy, Wisden Trophy, Wills Trophy, World Series Cup.

Football

African Natons Cup, Airlines Cup, america Cup, Asia Cup, Asian Women's Cup, Bandodkar Trophy, B. C. Roy Trophy, Begum Hazrat Mahal Cup, Bicentennial Gold Cup, BILT Cup, Bordoloi Trophy, Colombo Cup, Confederations Cup, DCM Cup, Durand Cup, European Cup, FA Cup, Federation Cup, G. V. Raja Memorial Trophy, gold Cup, Governor's Cup, Greek Cup, Great Wall Cup, IFA Shield, Independence Day Cup, Indira Gandhi Trophy, Inter-Continental Cup, Jawaharlal Nehru Gold Cup, Jules Rimet Trophy, Kalinga Cup, Kings Cup, Kirin Cup, Lal Bahadur Shastri Trophy, McDowell Cup, Merdeka Cup, Nagjee Trophy, Naidunia Trophy, Nations Cup, NFL Trophy, Nehru Gold Cup, Nizam Gold Cup, Raghbir Singh Memorial Cup, Rajiv Gandhi Trophy, Rovers Cup, Sanjay Gold Cup, Santosh Trophy, Scissors Cup, Sir Ashutohs Mukherjee Trophy, Stafford Cup, Subroto Cup, Supercup Trophy, Todd Memorial Trophy, UEFA Cup, US Cup, Vittal Trophy, Winner's Cup, World Cup.

Golf

Canada Cup, Eisenhower Trophy, Inter-Continental Cup, Maekyung LG Fashion Open Trophy, Muthiah Gold Cup, Nomura Trophy, Paralambi Trophy, President's Trophy, Prince of Wales Cup, Ryder Cup, Solheim Cup, Topolino Trophy, Walker Cup, Waterford Crystal Trophy, World Cup.

Hockey

Agha Khan Cup, Allwyn Asia Cup, Azlan Shah Cup, Beighton Cup, Bhim Sain Trophy, BMW Trophy, Bombay Gold Cup, Champions Trophy, Clarke Trophy, Dhyan Chand Trophy, Esanda Champions Cup, European Nations Cup, Gurmeet Trophy, Guru Nanak Cup, Gyanvati Devi Trophy, Indira Gandhi Gold Cup, Intercontinental Cup, Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan Cup, Kuppuswamy Naidu Cup, Lady Rattan Tata Cup (women), Lal Bahadur Shastri Cup, Maharaja Ranjit Singh Gold Cup, Modi Gold Cup, Murugappa Gold Cup, Nehru Trophy, Obaidullah Gold Cup, Prime Minister's Gold cup, Rangaswami Cup, Ranjit Singh Gold Cup, Rene Frank Trophy, Sanjay Gandhi Trophy, Scindia gold Cup, Shriram Trophy, Tunku Abdul Razak Cup, Wellington Cup, World Cup, Yadavindra Cup.

Horse Racing

Beresford Cup, Blue Riband, Derby, Grand Natonal Cup.

Kabaddi

Federation Cup

Kho-Kho

Federation Cup

Netball

Anantrao Pawar Trophy.

Polo

Ezar Cup, Gold Cup, King's Cup, President Cup, Prithi Singh Cup, Radha Mohan Cup, Winchester Cup.

Rowing

Beefeather's Gin.

Rugby Football

Bledisloe Cup; Calcutta Cup, Webb Ellis Trophy.

Shootng

North Wales Cup, Welsh Grand Prix.

Snooker

Team Tournament Asean Cup.

Table Tennis

Asian Cup, Berna Bellack Cup, Corbillon Cup (women), Electra Gold Cup, Gasper-Giest Prize, Grand Prix, Jayalaxmi Cup (women), Kamala Ramanunjan Cup, Marcel Corbillon Cup, Pithapuram Cup (men), Swaythling Cup (men), Travancore Cup (women), U Thant Cup, World Cup.

Tennis

Ambre Solaire Cup, A T&T Cup, Champions Cup, ATP President's Cup, Davis Cup, Dr. Rajendra Prasad Cup, Edgbaston Cup, Evert Cup, Federation Cup, Ghafar Cup, Grand Prix, Grand Slam Cup, Nations' Cup, Watson's Water Trophy, Wightman Cup, Wimbledon Trophy, World Cup, World Team Cup.

Volleyball

Centennial Cup, Federation Cup, Indira Pradhan Trophy, Shivanthi Gold Cup, World Cup, World League Cup.

Weightlifting

World Cup.

Wrestling

Bharat Kesari, Burdwan Shield, World Cup.

Yachting

America Cup

List of the cities in India through which major rivers flow.

City	River	State
Gangakhed	Godavari	Maharashtra
Agra	Yamuna	Uttar Pradesh
Ahmedabad	Sabarmati	Gujarat
Allahabad	At the confluence of Ganga, Yamuna and Saraswati	Uttar Pradesh
Ayodhya	Sarayu	Uttar Pradesh
Badrinath	Alaknanda	Uttarakhand
Banki	Mahanadi	Odisha
Cuttack	Mahanadi	Odisha
Baranagar	Ganges	West Bengal
Brahmapur	Rushikulya	Odisha
Chhatrapur	Rushikulya	Odisha
Bhagalpur	Ganges	Bihar
Kolkata	Hooghly	West Bengal
Cuttack	Mahanadi	Odisha
New Delhi	Yamuna	Delhi
Dibrugarh	Brahmaputra	Assam
Deesa	Banas	Gujarat
Ferozpur	Sutlej	Punjab
Guwahati	Brahmaputra	Assam
Haridwar	Ganges	Uttarakhand
Hyderabad	Musi	Telangana
Karimnagar	Maner	Telangana
Ramagundam	Godavari	Telangana
Jabalpur	Narmada	Madhya Pradesh
Kanpur	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Kota	Chambal	Rajasthan
Jammu	Tawi	Jammu & Kashmir
Jaunpur	Gomti	Uttar Pradesh
Patna	Ganges	Bihar

City	River	State
Rajahmundry	Godavari	Andhra Pradesh
Srinagar	Jhelum	Jammu & Kashmir
Surat	Tapi	Gujarat
Varanasi	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Vijayawada	Krishna	Andhra Pradesh
Vadodara	Vishwamitri	Gujarat
Mathura	Yamuna	Uttar Pradesh
Modasa	Mazum	Gujarat
Mirzapur	Ganga	Uttar Pradesh
Morbi	Machchu	Gujarat
Auraiya	Yamuna	Uttar Pradesh
Etawah	Yamuna	Uttar Pradesh
Bangalore	Vrishabhavathi	Karnataka
Farrukhabad	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Rangpo	Teesta	Sikkim
Rajkot	Aji	Gujarat
Gaya	Falgu (Neeranjana)	Bihar
Fatehgarh	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Kannauj	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Mangalore	Netravati, Gurupura	Karnataka
Shimoga	Tunga River	Karnataka
Bhadravathi	Bhadra	Karnataka
Hospet	Tungabhadra	Karnataka
Karwar	Kali	Karnataka
Bagalkot	Ghataprabha	Karnataka
Honnar	Sharavathi	Karnataka
Himmatnagar	Hathmati	Gujarat
Gwalior	Chambal	Madhya Pradesh
Gorakhpur	Rapti	Uttar Pradesh
Lucknow	Gomti	Uttar Pradesh
Kanpur Cantonment	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Shuklaganj	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Chakeri	Ganges	Uttar Pradesh
Malegaon	Girna River	Maharashtra
Sambalpur	Mahanadi	Odisha
Rourkela	Brahmani	Odisha
Patan	Saraswati	Gujarat
Pune	Mula, Mutha	Maharashtra
Rairangpur	Khadkhai	Odisha
Valsad	Auranga	Gujarat
Madurai	Vaigai	Tamil Nadu
Thiruchirapalli	Kaveri	Tamil Nadu
Chennai	Cooum, Adyar	Tamil Nadu
Coimbatore	Noyyal	Tamil Nadu
Erode	Kaveri	Tamil Nadu

City	River	State
Tirunelveli	Thamirabarani	Tamil Nadu
Bharuch	Narmada	Gujarat
Karjat	Ulhas	Maharashtra
Nashik	Godavari	Maharashtra
Mahad	Savitri	Maharashtra
Nanded	Godavari	Maharashtra
Navsari	Purna	Gujarat
Kolhapur	Panchaganga	Maharashtra
Nellore	Pennar	Andhra Pradesh
Kurnool	Tungabhadra	Andhra Pradesh
Nizamabad	Godavari	Telangana
Sangli	Krishna	Maharashtra
Karad	Krishna, Koyna	Maharashtra
Hajipur	Ganges	Bihar
Ujjain	Shipra	Madhya Pradesh ^[1]
Ashta	Parwati ^[2]	Madhya Pradesh
Kanchipuram	Vegavathi, Palar	Tamil Nadu
Thanjavur	Vennaaru, Vadavaaru	Tamil Nadu
Murshidabad	Hooghly	West Bengal
Munger	Ganges	Bihar
Jamalpur	Ganges	Bihar
Purnia	Koshi	Bihar
Golegaon	Godavari	Maharashtra
Budaun	Sot	Uttar Pradesh
Amaravati	Krishna	Andhra Pradesh

List of dams and reservoirs in India

Dams In India

Name of Dam	State	River
Nizam Sagar Dam	Telangana	Manjira River
Somasila Dam	Andhra Pradesh	Pennar River
Srisaillam Dam	Andhra Pradesh	Krishna River
Singur dam	Telangana	Manjira River
Ukai Dam	Gujarat	Tapti River
Dharoi Dam	Gujarat	Sabarmati River
Kadana dam	Gujarat	Mahi River
Dantiwada Dam	Gujarat	Banas River
Pandoh Dam	Himachal Pradesh	Beas River
Bhakra Nangal Dam	Himachal Pradesh and Punjab Border	Sutlej River
Nathpa Jhakri Dam	Himachal Pradesh	Satluj River
Chamera Dam	Himachal Pradesh	Ravi River

Name of Dam	State	River
Baglihar Dam	Jammu and Kashmir	Chenab River
Dumkhar Hydroelectric Dam	Jammu and Kashmir	Indus River
Uri Hydroelectric Dam	Jammu and Kashmir	Jhelum River
Maithon Dam	Jharkhand	Barakar River
Chandil Dam	Jharkhand	Swarnarekha River
Panchet Dam	Jharkhand	Damodar River
Tunga Bhadra Dam	Karnataka	Tungabhadra River
Linganamakki dam	Karnataka	Sharavathi River
Kadra Dam	Karnataka	Kalinadi River
Alamatti Dam	Karnataka	Krishna River
Supa Dam	Karnataka	Kalinadi or Kali river
Krishna Raja Sagara Dam	Karnataka	Kaveri River
Harangi Dam	Karnataka	Harangi River
Narayanpur Dam	Karnataka	Krishna River
Kodasalli Dam	Karnataka	Kali River
Malampuzha Dam	Kerala	Malampuzha River
Peechi Dam	Kerala	Manali River
Idukki Dam	Kerala	Periyar River
Kundala Dam	Kerala	Kundala Lake
Parambikulam Dam	Kerala	Parambikulam River
Walayar Dam	Kerala	Walayar River
Mullaperiyar Dam	Kerala	Periyar River
Neyyar Dam	Kerala	Neyyar River
Rajghat Dam	Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh Border	Betwa River
Barna Dam	Madhya Pradesh	Barna River
Bargi Dam	Madhya Pradesh	Narmada River
Bansagar Dam	Madhya Pradesh	Sone River
Gandhi Sagar Dam	Madhya Pradesh	Chambal River
Yeldari Dam	Maharashtra	Purna river
Ujani Dam	Maharashtra	Bhima River
Pawna Dam	Maharashtra	Maval River
Mulshi Dam	Maharashtra	Mula River
Koyna Dam	Maharashtra	Koyna River
Jayakwadi Dam	Maharashtra	Godavari River
Bhatsa Dam	Maharashtra	Bhatsa river
Wilson Dam	Maharashtra	Pravara River
Tansa Dam	Maharashtra	Tansa river
Panshet Dam	Maharashtra	Ambi River
Mula Dam	Maharashtra	Mula river

Name of Dam	State	River
Kolkewadi Dam	Maharashtra	Vashishti River
Girna Dam	Maharashtra	Girana river
Vaitarna Dam	Maharashtra	Vaitarna river
Radhanagari Dam	Telangana	Bhogawati River
Lower Manair Dam	Telangana	Manair River
Mid Manair Dam	Telangana	Manair River and SRSP Flood Flow Canal
Upper Manair Dam	Telangana	Manair River and Kudlair River
Khadakwasla Dam	Maharashtra	Mutha River
Gangapur Dam	Maharashtra	Godavari river
Jalput Dam	Andhra Pradesh and Odisha Border	Machkund River
Indravati Dam	Odisha	Indravati River
Hirakud Dam	Odisha	Mahanadi River
Vaigai Dam	Tamil Nadu	Vaigai River
Perunchani Dam	Tamil Nadu	Paralayar River
Mettur Dam	Tamil Nadu	Kaveri River
Govind Ballabh Pant Sagar Dam also Rihand dam	Uttar Pradesh	Rihand River
Tehri Dam	Uttarakhand	Bhagirathi River
Dhaulti Ganga Dam	Uttarakhand	Dhaulti Ganga River

Reservoir in India

Name of Dam	State	River
Dindi Reservoir	Telangana	Krishna River
Lower Manair Reservoir	Telangana	Manair River
Tatipudi Reservoir Project	Andhra Pradesh	Gosthani River
Gandipalem Reservoir	Andhra Pradesh	Manneru River
Himayat Sagar Reservoir	Telangana	Osman Sagar
Shriram Sagar Reservoir	Telangana	Godavari River
Gobind Sagar Reservoir	Himachal Pradesh	Sutlej River
Maharana Pratap Sagar Reservoir	Himachal Pradesh	Pong Dam Lake
Ghataprabha Reservoir	Karnataka	Ghataprabha River
Hemavathi Reservoir	Karnataka	Hemavati River
Tawa Reservoir	Madhya Pradesh	Tawa River
Balimela Reservoir	Odisha	Sileru River
Aliyar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Aliyar River

Name of Dam	State	River
Chittar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Chittar River
Krishnagiri Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Thenpennai River
Manimuthar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Tamirabarani River
Pechiparai Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Kodayar River
Shoolagiri Chinnar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Chinnar River
Thunakadavu Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Thunacadavu River
Varattu Pallam Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Vidur Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Amaravathi Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Amaravathi River
Gundar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Berijam Lake
Kullursandai Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Arjuna Nadi
Pambar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Pambar River
Periyar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Periyar River
Stanley Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Kaveri River
Uppar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Vattamalaikarai Odai Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Odai River
Willingdon Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Periya Odai River
Bhavanisagar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Bhavani River
Kodaganar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Kodagananar River
Manimukthanadhi Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Parambikulam Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Parambikulam River
Sholayar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Thirumurthi Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Parmabikulam and Aliyar River
Varadamanadhi Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Vembakottai Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	Vaippar River
Manjalar Reservoir	Tamil Nadu	
Salal Project	Jammu and Kashmir	Chenab River
Chutak Hydroelectric Project	Jammu and Kashmir	
Indirasagar Project	Madhya Pradesh	Narmada River
Narmada Dam Project	Madhya Pradesh	Narmada River
Rihand Project	Uttar Pradesh	Rihand River and Son River

Complete List of Rivers |Their Lengths, Origins and Tributaries

Following list shows the names of rivers in India with their lengths, origins and tributaries.

S.No.	Rivers	Origin	Length (km)	End
1.	Ganga	Gangotri Glacier (Bhagirathi), Uttarakhand	2,525	Bay of Bengal
2.	Yamuna	Yamunotri Glacier, Uttarakhand	1,376	Merges with Ganga at Allahabad (Triveni Sangam - Kumbh Mela spot)
3.	Brahmaputra	Himalayan Glacier in Tibet, but enters India in Arunachal Pradesh	1,800	Merges with Ganga and ends in Bay of Bengal
4.	Chambal	Tributary of Yamuna river, starting at Madhya Pradesh	960	Joins Yamuna river in UP
5.	Son	Tributary of Ganga, starting at Amarkantak, Madhya Pradesh	784	Joins Ganga just above Patna - also considered part of Vindhya river system
6.	Gandak	Nepal; Ganges tributary at Indo-Nepal border (Triveni Sangam)	630	Joins Ganga near Patna
7.	Kosi	Starts from Bihar near Indo-Nepal border	720	Joins Ganga near Katihar district of Bihar
8.	Betwa	Tributary of Yamuna, rises at Vindhya region, MP	590	Joins Yamuna at Hamirpur in UP
9.	Gomti	Tributary of Ganga, starting at Gomat Taal, UP	900	Joins Ganga in Varanasi district
10.	Ghaghara	Himalayan Glacier in Tibet, tributary of Ganga	1080	Joins Ganga in Bihar
11.	Hugli (Hooghly)	Tributary of Ganga near West Bengal	260	Merges with Ganga at Bay of Bengal
12.	Damodar	Tributary of Hugli near Chandwara, Jharkhand	592	Merges with Hugli in West Bengal
13.	Mahananda	Paglajhora falls, Darjeeling, West Bengal	360	Merge in Ganga
14.	Alaknanda	Satopanth & Bhagirathi-Kharak glacier	190	Merge in Ganga, Devprayag, Uttarakhand
15.	Bhagirathi	Gaumukh, Uttarakhand	205	Merge in Ganga, Devprayag, Uttarakhand
16.	Indus	Originates in Tibetan plateau, Enters India in J&K	3180	Merges into Arabian sea near Sindh
17.	Chenab	Upper Himalayas in the Spiti district of Himachal Pradesh	960	Merges with Indus
18.	Jhelum	Tributary of Chenab river, Punjab	725	Merges with Chenab at Jhang (Pakistan)
19.	Ravi	Starts from Bara Bhangal, Kangra district, Himachal Pradesh	720	Joins Chenab in Pakistan
20.	Sutlej	Tributary of Indus river, originates at Rakshastal, Tibet	1500	Meets Beas river in Pakistan and ends at Arabian sea
21.	Beas	Rises at Himalayas in central Himachal Pradesh	470	Joins Sutlej river in Punjab, India

S.No.	Rivers	Origin	Length (km)	End
22.	Parbati	Mantalai Glacier near Pin Prabati Pass	-	Mixes with Beas River at Bhuntar, near Kullu of Himachal Pradesh
23.	Suru	Panzella Glacier, Pensi La Pass, Kargil	185	Indus, Nurla, Skardu, Pakistan
24.	Dras	Machoi Glacier, Zoji La, ear Sonamarg, Jammu & Kashmir	86	Suru River at Kharul, Kargil
25.	Zaskar	Doda River (First Branch), Kargyag and Tsarap River (Second Branch)	-	Indus River near Nimmu in Ladakh
26.	Tsarap	Pankpo La, Sarchu	182	Zaskar River, Padum, Kargil
27.	Doda	Drang-Drung Glacier, Pensi La	79	Zaskar River, Padum, Kargil
28.	Kaveri	Talakaveri in Western Ghats in Karnataka	765	Ends in Bay of Bengal
29.	Krishna	Originates in the Western Ghats near Mahabaleshwar in Maharashtra	1400	Ends in Bay of Bengal near Andhra Pradesh
30.	Godavari	Starts in Maharashtra and passes through 7 Indian states	1465	Empties in Bay of Bengal
31.	Tungabhadra	Tributary of Krishna river starting at Karnataka	531	Joins Krishna river along the border of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh
32.	Tapti	Rises in Eastern Satpura Ranges, Madhya Pradesh	724	Empties into Gulf of Khambhat, Gujarat
33.	Mahi	Rises in Madhya Pradesh	580	Flows into Arabian sea from Gujarat
34.	Narmada	Starts from Amarkantak, Madhya Pradesh	1315	Drains into Arabian sea via Gulf of Cambay
35.	Indravati	Dandakaranya range, Kalahandi district, Odisha	535	Godavari near border of Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh and Telangana
36.	Pranhita	Confluence of Wardha and Wainganga, near Sirpur Kaghaznagar	113	Godavari, near Kaleshwaram, Telangana
37.	Wardha	Satpura range, Multai, Betul district of Madhya Pradesh	528	Pranhita River
38.	Kolab (Sabari)	Sinkaran hills, Koraput, Odisha	200	Godavari
39.	Manjira	Balaghat hills	724	Godavari, near Kandakurthi, Karnataka
40.	Wainganga	Satpura range, Mundara, Seoni district, Madhya Pradesh	579	Pranhita River
41.	Painganga	Ajanta range, Aurangabad, Maharashtra	676	Wardha river, Chandrapur district, Maharashtra
42.	Vedavathi	Confluence of Veda and Avathi	-	Tungabhadra river, near Siruguppa
43.	Bhima	Bhimashankar	861	Krishna river, near raichur

S.No.	Rivers	Origin	Length (km)	End
44.	Indrayani	Lonavala, Maharashtra		Bhima river
45.	Pavana	Sahyadri range, Lonavala Maharashtra	58	Mula river
46.	Ghataprabha	Western ghats, Sindhudurg, Maharashtra	283	Krishna river, Almatti
47.	Venna	Mahabaleshwar, Maharashtra	130	Krishna river, Satara, Maharashtra
48.	Koyna	Mahabaleshwar, Maharashtra	130	Krishna river, near Karad, Satara
49.	Amravati	Anamalai hills, Pambar, Chinnar rivers	282	Kaveri river at Karur, Tamil Nadu
50.	Bhavani	Silent valley National Park, Kerala	135	Kaveri river at Kongu Nadu region of Tamil Nadu
51.	Hemavati	Western Ghats, Chikmagalur, Karnataka	245	Kaveri river near Krishna Raja Sagara, Karnataka
52.	Mahanadi	Dhamtari, Dandakaranya, Chhattisgarh	858	Bay of Bengal, near False Point, Kendrapara, Odisha
53.	Subarnarekha	Chota Nagpur plateau, near Ranchi, Jharkhand	395	Kirtania Port, near Talsari, Bay of Bengal
54.	Kangsabati	Chota Nagpur plateau, Purulia district, West Bengal	465	Bay of Bengal near Haldia
55.	Penner (Penna)	Nandi Hills, Chikkaballapur district, Karnataka	597	Bay of Bengal, near Nellore, Andhra Pradesh
56.	Palar	Nandi hills, Kolar district Karnataka	348	Bay of Bengal, near Vayalur, Tamil Nadu
57.	Vaigai	Varusanadu Hills, Tamil Nadu	258	Palk Strait, Tamil Nadu
58.	Vellar	Shevaroy Hills	150	Bay of Bengal, near Parangipettai, Tamil Nadu
59.	Ponnaiyar	Nandidurg, Chikkaballapur	400	Bay of Bengal
60.	Noyyal	Velliangiri Hills, Western Ghats, Tamil Nadu	180	Kaveri river
61.	Gomai	Satpura Range	-	Tapti river, near Prakasha, Nandurbar, Maharashtra
62.	Panzara	Near Pimpalner, Dhule, Maharashtra	-	Tapti river
63.	Purna	Satpura Range, Betul, Madhya Pradesh	-	Tapti river, near Changdev, Maharashtra
64.	Kolar	Vindhya Range, near Sehore district, Madhya Pradesh	101	Narmada, near Raisen district of Madhya Pradesh
65.	Tawa	Satpura Range, Betul, Madhya Pradesh	172	Narmada near Hoshangabad district
66.	Sabarmati	Dhebar lake, Aravalli range, near Udaipur, Rajasthan	371	Gulf of Khambhat

S.No.	Rivers	Origin	Length (km)	End
67.	Zuari	Hemad-Barshem in western ghats	34	Arabian sea
68.	Ulhas	Near Rajmachi hills, Sahyadri range	122	Vasai creek, Mumbai
69.	Mithi	Vihar lake and Powai lake	15	Arabian sea, Mahim creek, Mumbai
70.	Mandovi	Bhimgad, Karnataka	77	Arabian sea
71.	Kali	Kushavali, Karnataka	184	Arabian sea
72.	Netravati	Kudremukh, Chikmagalur, Karnataka	-	Arabian sea, near Mangalore, Karnataka
73.	Sharavati	Western Ghats, Tirthahalli, Karnataka	128	Arabian sea, near Honnavar, Uttara Kannada district, Karnataka
74.	Periyar	Sivagiri hills, Sundaramala, Tamil Nadu	244	Lakshadweep sea, Kerala
75.	Bharathappuzha	Anamalai Hills, Tamil Nadu	209	Lakshadweep sea, Ponnani, Kerala
76.	Pamba	Pulachimalai Hills, Western Ghats	176	Vembanad Lake
77.	Chaliyar	Elambaleri Hills, Western Ghats, Wayanad, Kerala	169	Lakshadweep sea, Kerala

Discoveries & their Inventor

Year	Discoveries	Scientist Name
1905	Photon	Albert Einstein
1897	Electron	J.J.Thomson
1919	Proton	Ernest Rutherford
1808	Atom	John Dalton
1932	Neutron	James Chadwick
1687	Law of Motion	Isaac Newton
1779	Coulomb	Charles-Augustin de Coulomb
1827	Ohm's Law	Georg Simon Ohm
1831	Electromagnetic Induction	Michael Faraday
1880	Thermionic Emission	Thomas Edison
1896	Radioactivity	Henri Becquerel
1898	Radium	Marie Sklodowska-Curie
1900	quantum theory	Max Planck
1905	Photoelectric Effect	Heinrich Rudolf Hertz & Albert Einstein
1895	X-Ray	Röntgen
1905	Relativity	Albert Einstein
1913	Atomic Structure	Neil Bohr & Rutherford
1942	Nuclear Reactor	Anrico Fermi

List of all Famous Inventions and their Inventor

S.N.	Invention	Inventor	Country	Year
1	Adding Machine	Pascal	France	1642
2	Aeroplane	Wright brothers	USA	1903
3	Balloon	Jacques and Joseph Montgolfier	France	1783
4	Ball –Point pen	C. Biro	Hungary	1938
5	Barometer	E. Torricelli	Italy	1644
6	Bicycle	K. Macmillan	Scotland	1839
7	Bicycle Tyre	J.B. Dunlop	Scotland	1888
8	Calculating Machine	Pascal	France	1642
9	Centrigrade Scale	A.Celsius	France	1742
10	Cinematograph	Thomas Alva Edison	USA	1891
11	Computer	Charles Babbage	Britain	1834
12	Cine Camera	Friese-Greene	Britain	1889
13	Cinema	A.L. and J.L. Lumiere	France	1895
14	Clock (Machanical)	Hsing and Ling –Tsan	China	1725
15	Clock (Pendulum)	C. Huggyens	Netherlands	1657
16	Diesel engine	Rudolf diesel	Germany	1892
17	Dynamite	Alfred Nobel	Sweden	1867
18	Dynamo	Michael Faraday	England	1831
19	Electric Iron	H.W. Seeley	USA	1882
20	Electric lamp	Thomas Alva Edison	USA	1879
21	Electromagnet	W. sturgeon	England	1824
22	Evolution (theory)	Charles Darwin	England	1858
23	Film (with sound)	Dr. Lee de forest	USA	1923
24	Fountain Pen	LE. Waterman	USA	1884
25	Gas Lighting	William Murdoch	Scotland	1794
26	Gramophone	T.A . Edison	USA	1878
27	Jet Engine	Sir Frank whittle	England	1937
28	Lift	E.G. Otis	USA	1852
29	Locomotive	Richard Trevithick	England	1804
30	Machine Gun	Richard Gatling	USA	1861
31	Match (Safety)	J.E. Lurdstrom	Sweden	1855
32	Microphone	David Hughes	USA	1878

S.N.	Invention	Inventor	Country	Year
33	Microscope	Z. Jansen	Netherlands	1590
34	Motor Car (Petrol)	Karl –Benz	Germany	1885
35	Motorcycle	Edward Butler	England	1884
36	Neon -Lump	G. Claude	France	1915
37	Nylon	Dr W.H. Carothers	USA	1937
38	Photography (Paper)	W.H. Fox Talbot	England	1835
39	Printing Press	J. Gutenberg	Germany	1455
40	Rader	Dr A.H. Taylor and L.C. young	USA	1922
41	Radium	Marie and Pierre Curie	France	1898
42	Radio	G. Marconi	England	1901
43	Rayon	American viscose Co.	USA	1910
44	Razor (Safety)	K.G. Gillette	USA	1895
45	Razor (electric)	Col. J. Schick	USA	1931
46	Refrigerator	J . Harrison and A. Catlin	Britain	1834
47	Revolver	Samuel Colt	USA	1835
48	Rubber (Vulcanized)	Charles Good year	USA	1841
49	Rubber (Waterproof)	Charles Macintosh	Scotland	1819
50	Safety Lamp	Sir Humphrey	England	1816
51	Safety pin	William Hurst	USA	1849
52	Sewing Machine	B. Thimmonier	France	1830
53	Scooter	G. Bradshaw	England	1919
54	Ship (Steam)	J.C. Perier	France	1775
55	Ship (turbine)	Sir Charles parsons	Britain	1894
56	Shorthand (Modem)	Sir Issac Pitman	Britain	1837
57	Spinning jenny	James Hargreaves	England	1764
58	Steam engine (Piston)	Thomas Newcome	Britain	1712
59	Steam engine (Condenser)	James Watt	Scotland	1765
60	Steel production	Henry Bessemer	England	1855
61	Stainless steel	Harry Brearley	England	1913
62	Tank	Sir Ernest Swington	England	1914
63	Telegraph code	Samuel F.B. Morse	USA	1837
64	Telephone	Alexander Graham Bell	USA	1876
65	Telescope	Hans Lippershey	Netherlands	1608

S.N.	Invention	Inventor	Country	Year
66	Television	John logie bared	Scotland	1926
67	Terylene	J. Whinfield and H. Dickson	England	1941
68	Thermoscope	Galileo Galilei	Italy	1593
69	Tractor	J. Froelich	USA	1892
70	Transistor	Bardeen, Shockley	USA & UK	1949
71	Typewriter	C. Sholes	USA	1868
72	Valve of radio	Sir J.A. Fleming	Britain	1904
73	Watch	A.L. Breguet	France	1791
74	X-ray	Wilhelm Roentgen	Germany	1895
75	Zip fastener	W.L. Judson	USA	1891

List of Presidents of India

Name Tenure


Dr Rajendra Prasad (1884-1963) January 26, 1950 - May 13, 1962
 Dr Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan (1888-1975) May 13, 1962 - May 13, 1967
 Dr Zakir Hussain (1897-1969) May 13, 1967 - May 03, 1969
 Varahagiri Venkatagiri (1884-1980) (Acting) May 03, 1969 - July 20, 1969
 Justice Mohammad Hidayatullah (1905-1992) (Acting) July 20, 1969 - August 24, 1969
 Varahagiri Venkatagiri (1884-1980) August 24, 1969 - August 24, 1974
 Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed (1905-1977) August 24, 1974 - February 11, 1977
 B.D. Jatti (1913-2002) (Acting) February 11, 1977 - July 25, 1977
 Neelam Sanjiva Reddy (1913-1996) July 25, 1977 - July 25, 1982
 Giani Zail Singh (1916-1994) July 25, 1982 - July 25, 1987
 R. Venkataraman (1910-2009) July 25, 1987 - July 25, 1992
 Dr Shankar Dayal Sharma (1918-1999) July 25, 1992 - July 25, 1997
 K.R. Narayanan (1920-2005) July 25, 1997 - July 25, 2002
 Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam (1931-2015) July 25, 2002 - July 25, 2007
 Smt. Pratibha Devisingh Patil (Birth-1934) July 25, 2007 - July 25, 2012
 Shri Pranab Mukherjee (Birth-1935) July 25, 2012 - July 25, 2017
 Shri Ram Nath Kovind (Birth-1945) July 25, 2017 – Incumbent




List of Vice President of India

S.No	Name	Period	Party
1	Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan	1952-1962	Independent
2	Zakir Husain	1962-1967	Independent
3	Varahagiri Venkata Giri	1967-1969	Independent
4	Gopal Swarup Pathak	1969-1974	Independent
5	Basappa Danappa Jatti	1974-1979	Indian National Congress
6	Mohammad Hidayatullah	1979-1984	Independent
7	Ramaswamy Venkataraman	1984-1987	Indian National Congress

S.No	Name	Period	Party
8	Shankar Dayal Sharma	1987-1992	Indian National Congress
9	Kocheril Raman Narayanan	1992-1997	Indian National Congress
10	Krishan Kantdagger	1997-2002	Janata Dal
11	Bhairon Singh Shekhawat	2002-2007	Bharatiya Janata Party
12	Mohammad Hamid Ansari	2007-2017	Indian National Congress
13	Muppavarapu Venkaiah Naidu	2017 - At Present	Bharatiya Janata Party

International Organisations , Head Quarter & Established Year.

S. No.	Acronyms	Agency	Headquarters	Established	Comment
1	FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization	 Rome, Italy	1946	
2	IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency	 Vienna, Austria	1957	Associated agency
3	ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization	 Montreal, Quebec, Canada	1947	
4	IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development	 Rome, Italy	1977	
5	ILO	International Labour Organization	 Geneva, Switzerland	1919	Originally part of League of Nations
6	IMO	International Maritime Organization	 London, United Kingdom	1948	
7	IMF	International Monetary Fund	 Washington, D.C., United States	1945	
8	ITU	International Telecommunication Union	 Geneva, Switzerland	1865	
9	UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	 Paris, France	1945	
10	UPU	Universal Postal Union	 Bern, Switzerland	1947	
11	WBG	World Bank Group	 Washington, D.C., United States	1945	
12	WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization	 Geneva, Switzerland	1974	
13	WMO	World Meteorological Organization	 Geneva, Switzerland	1950	
14	UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization	 Madrid, Spain	1974	
15	UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime	 Vienna, Austria	1997	

S. No.	Acronyms	Agency	Headquarters	Established	Comment
16	WHO	World Health Organization	 Geneva, Switzerland	1948	to promote mental and physical health of humanity
17	UNHCR	Office of United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees	 Geneva, Switzerland	1950	
18	WFP	Office of United Nations World Food Program	 Rome, Italy	1961	

Important Passes in India

- **Zoji La (Pass)**-It is in the Zaskar range of Jammu & Kashmir. The road route from Srinagar to Leh goes through this pass. It has been created by the Indus River.
- **Banihal Pass**-It is in Jammu & Kashmir. The National Highway NO.1 A that links Srinagar to Jammu goes through it. It has been created by the Indus River.
- **Shipki La (Pass)**-It is in Himachal Pradesh. The road from Shimla to Tibet goes through this pass. The Satluj River flows through this pass.
- **Bara-Lacha Pass**-It is also in Himachal Pradesh. It links Mandi and Leh by road.
- **Rohtang Pass**-It is also in Himachal Pradesh. It cuts through the Pir Panjal range. It links Manali and Leh by road.
- **Mana Pass**-It is in Uttarakhand. The land route to the Kailash and the Manasarovar passes through it.
- **Niti Pass**-It is also in Uttarakhand. The road to the Kailash and the Manasarovar passes through it.
- **Nathu La (Pass)**-It is in Sikkim. It gives way to Tibet from Darjeeling and Chumbi valley.
- **Jelep La (Pass)**-It is also in Sikkim and gives way to Bhutan. The Tista River has created this pass.

Name	State	Height (ft)	Between/ Separating
Asirgarh	Madhya Pradesh		
Auden's Col	Uttarakhand	17,552	
Banihal Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Jammu, Kashmir)	9,291	Jammu & Kashmir
Bara-lacha-la	Himachal Pradesh	16,400	
Bomdila	Arunachal Pradesh		
Changla Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	17,585	Leh & Changthang
Chanshal Pass	Himachal Pradesh	14,830	
Dehra Compass	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		
Debsa Pass	Himachal Pradesh	17,520	
Diphu Pass	Arunachal Pradesh	4,587	
Dongkhala	Sikkim	12,000	
Dhumdhar Kandi Pass	Uttarakhand		
Fotu La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	13,451	
Goecha La	Sikkim	16,207	
Haldighati Pass	Rajasthan		
Indrahar Pass	Himachal Pradesh	14,473	
Jelep La	Sikkim	14,300	
Khardung La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	17,582	Leh & Nubra
Kongka Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	16,965	Ladakh & Aksai Chin
Lanak Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	17,933	Ladakh & Tibet
Kunzum Pass	Himachal Pradesh (Lahaul and Spiti)	14,931	Lahaul & Spiti
Karakoram Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		Ladakh & Xinjiang

Name	State	Height (ft)	Between/ Separating
Lipulekh Pass	Uttarakhand	17,500	
Lungalacha La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	16,600	
Lamkhaga Pass	Himachal Pradesh	17,336	
Marsimik La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	18,314	
Mayali Pass	Uttarakhand	16,371	
Nama Pass	Uttarakhand	18,399	
Namika La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	12,139	
Nathu La	Sikkim	14,140	Sikkim & Tibet
Palakkad Gap	Kerala	750	Kerala & Tamil Nadu
Thamarassery Pass	Wayanad Kerala	1,700	Malabar & Mysore
Shenkottai pass	Kollam Kerala	690	Travancore & Tamil Nadu
Pensi La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		
Rezang La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		
Rohtang Pass	Himachal Pradesh	13,051	Manali & Lahaul
Sasser la	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	17,753	Nubra & Siachen Glacier
Sela Pass	Arunachal Pradesh	14,000	
Shipki La	Himachal Pradesh		
Sia La	Jammu and Kashmir (Siachen Glacier)	18,337	
Shingo La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		
Spangur Gap	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)		
Gyong La	Jammu and Kashmir (Siachen Glacier)	18,655	
Bilafond La	Jammu and Kashmir (Siachen Glacier)	17,881	
Sin La	Uttarakhand		
Tanglang La	Jammu and Kashmir (Ladakh)	17,583	
Traill's Pass	Uttarakhand	17,100	
Zojila Pass	Jammu and Kashmir (Kashmir, Ladakh)	12,400	Kashmir & Ladakh

List of Sports & their number of Players

S.N.	Sports/Games Name	Number of Players
1	Badminton	1 or 2 players(Singles & Doubles respectively)
2	Baseball	9 players
3	Basketball	5 players
4	Beach Volleyball	6 players
5	Billiards/Snooker	1 players
6	Boxing	1 players
7	Bridge	2 players
8	Carrom	1 or 2 players(Singles & Doubles respectively)
9	Chess	1 players
10	Cricket	11 players
11	Croquet	13 or 15 players
12	Cycle Polo	3 or 5 players
13	Field Hockey	11 players
14	Football	11 players
15	Golf	several individuals play together
16	Handball	7 players
17	Hockey	11 players

S.N.	Sports/Games Name	Number of Players
18	Ice Hockey	6 players
19	Kabaddi	7 players
20	Kho-kho	9 players
21	Kickball	10 players
22	Lacrosse	12 players
23	Lawn Tennis	1 or 2 players(Singles & Doubles respectively)
24	Netball	7 players
25	Polo	4 players
26	Rugby Football	15 players
27	Squash	1 players
28	Table Tennis	1 or 2 players(Singles & Doubles respectively)
29	Tennis	1 or 2 players
30	Tug of War	8 players
31	Underwater football	5 players
32	Underwater hockey	6 players
33	Underwater Rugby	6 players
34	Volleyball	6 players
35	Water Basketball	5 players
36	Water polo	7 players
37	Gymnastic	Several individuals compete simultaneously

Scientific Names of Common Plants:

Common Name of Plants	Scientific Name of Plants
Apple	Pyrus malus
Bamboo	Bamboosa aridinarifolia
Brinjal	Solanum melongena
Banana	Musa paradiscum
Black Gram	Palsoes Mungo
Banyan	Ficus benghalensis
Barley	Hordeum vulgare
Black Pepper	Piper nigrum
Carrot	Daucas carota
Cashew nut	Anacardium occidentale
Clove	Syzygium aromaticum
Coriander	Coriandrum sativum
Cucumber	Cucumis sativas
Curry leaf	Murraya koenigii
Capsicum	Capsicum fruitscence
Chiku	Achras sapota
Cotton	Gossypium herbaceum
Dragon fruit	Hylocereus undutus
Finger millet	Eleusine coracana
Green Gram	Phaseolies auicus

Common Name of Plants	Scientific Name of Plants
Guava	Psidium guava
Ginger	Zingiber officinale
Garlic	Allium sativum
Jack fruit	Artocarpus integra
Jowar	Sorghum Vulgare
Kadamb	Anthocephalus indicus
Lemon	Citrus limonium
Maize	Zea mays
Mango	Mangifera indica
Neem	Azadirachta indica
Onion	Allium cepa
Orange	Citrus aurantium
Pea	Pisum sativum
Papaya	Carica papaya
Potato	Solanum tuberosum
Pomegranate	Punica granatum
Peacock Flower (Gulmohar)	Delonix regia rafin
Purple orchid tree (Kachnar)	Bauhinia purpurea
Peepal	Ficus religiosa Linn.
Pineapple	Ananus sativus
Radish	Raphanus sativus
Red maple	Acer rubrum
Rice	Oryza sativa
Rose	Rosa
Soya bean	Glycine max
Silver Oak	Grevillea robusta
Sandalwood	Santalum album
Spinach	Lactuca sativa
Sunflower	Helianthus annuus
Turmeric	Curcuma longa
Tobacco	Nicotina tobaccum
Tulsi	Ocimum sanctum
Teak	Tectona grandis Linn.
Tamarind tree	Tamarindus indica
Tomato	Lycopersican esculentum
Watermelon	Citrullus vulgaris
Wheat	Triticum Aestivum

Scientific Names of Common Animals:

Common Name of Animal	Scientific Name of Animals
Cat	Felis catus
Cobra	Elapidae naja
Camel	Camelus camelidae
Cheetah	Acinonyx jubatus
Chimpanzee	Pan troglodytes
Crocodile	Crocodylia niloticus
Chameleon	Chamaele ontidate
Dog	Cannis familiaris
Deer	Artiodactyl cervidae
Dolphin	Delphinidae delphis
Elephant	Proboscidea elephantidae
Frog	Anura ranidae
Fox	Cannis vulpes
Giraffe	Giraffa camalopardalis
Giant Panda	Ailuropoda melanoleuca
Goat	Capra hircus
Housefly	Musca domestica
Hippopotamus	Hippopotamus amphibius
Horse	Eqqus caballus
Hyena	Hyaenidae carnivora
Kangaroo	Macropus macropodidae
Lion	Panthera leo
Lizard	Sauria lacertidae
Mouse	Rodentia muridae
Panther	Panthera pardus
Pig	Artiodactyla suidae
Porcupine	Hystricomorph hystricidae
Rabbit	Leporidae cuniculas
Rhinoceros	Perrissodanctyl rhinocerotidae
Scorpion	Archinida scorpionida
Sea Horse	Hippocampus syngnathidae
Squirrel	Rodentia sciurus
Tiger	Panthera tigris
Zebra	Equidae burcheli

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Target ICAR
ই-বুক আকারে সম্পূর্ণ স্টাডি মেরিয়াল
চাপ্টার ভিত্তিক MCQ ক্লাস
Starts Jan 3, 2022 11 AM to 3 PM

TEST SERIES
ENGLISH



ICAR-IARI
টেকনিসিয়ান (T1)
25 টি সম্পূর্ণ টেস্ট

List of National Parks in India

State/Union Territory	Name of the National Park
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	Campbell Bay National Park Galathea National Park Mahatma Gandhi Marine National Park (Wandur National Park) Middle Button Island National Park Mount Harriet National Park North Button Island National Park Rani Jhansi Marine National Park Saddle Peak National Park South Button Island National Park
Andhra Pradesh	Papikonda National Park Rajiv Gandhi National Park Sri Venkateswara National Park
Arunachal Pradesh	Namdapha National Park Mouling National Park
Assam	Dibru-Saikhowa National Park Kaziranga National Park Manas National Park Nameri National Park Orang National Park
Bihar	Valmiki National Park Kanwar Lake Bird Sanctuary Vikramshila Gangetic Dolphin Sanctuary
Chhattisgarh	Indravati National Park Kanger Ghati National Park (Kanger Valley) Guru Ghasi Das (Sanjay) National Park
Goa	Bhagwan Mahavir (Mollem) National Park
Gujarat	Vansda National Park Blackbuck National Park, Velavadar Gir National Park Gulf of Kachchh Marine National Park
Haryana	Kalesar National Park Sultanpur National Park
Himachal Pradesh	Great Himalayan National Park Pin Valley National Park Inderkilla National Park Khirganga National Park Simbalbara National Park
Jammu and Kashmir	Dachigam National Park Hemis National Park Kishtwar National Park Salim Ali National Park
Jharkhand	Betla National Park Dimna National Park Hazaribag National Park
Karnataka	Anshi National Park Rajiv Gandhi National Park Bandipur National Park Bannerghatta National Park Kudremukh National Park

State/Union Territory	Name of the National Park
Kerala	Eravikulam National Park Mathikettan Shola National Park Periyar National Park Silent Valley National Park Anamudi Shola National Park Pambadum Shola National Park
Madhya Pradesh	Bandhavgarh National Park Mandla Plant Fossil National Park Kanha National Park Madhav National Park Panna National Park Pench National Park Sanjay National Park Satpura National Park Van Vihar National Park
Maharashtra	Chandoli National Park Gugamal National Park Navegaon National Park Pench National Park Sanjay Gandhi National Park or Borivili National Park Tadoba National Park
Manipur	Keibul Lamjao National Park Sirohi National Park
Meghalaya	Balphakram National Park Nokrek National Park
Mizoram	Murlen National Park Phawngpui Blue Mountain National Park
Nagaland	Ntangki National Park
Orissa	Bhitarkanika National Park Nandankanan National Park Simlipal National Park
Punjab	Harike Wetland
Rajasthan	Darrah National Park Desert National Park Keoladeo National Park Mount Abu Wildlife Sanctuary Ranthambore National Park Sariska National Park
Sikkim	Khangchendzonga National Park
Tamil Nadu	Mudumalai National Park Mukurthi National Park Indira Gandhi (Annamalai) National Park Guindy National Park Gulf of Mannar Marine National Park
Tripura	Bison(Rajbari) National Park Clouded Leopard National Park
Uttar Pradesh	Dudhwa National Park

State/Union Territory	Name of the National Park
Uttarakhand	Gangotri National Park Govind Pashu Vihar Jim Corbett National Park Nanda Devi National Park Rajaji National Park Valley of Flowers National Park
West Bengal	Gorumara National Park Buxa National Park Neora Valley National Park Singalila National Park Jaldapara National Park Sundarbans National Park

First Ranked States in Mineral Production

Mineral/Metal	State
Coal	Jharkhand
Bauxite (Aluminium Ore)	Odisha
Chromite (Chromium ore)	Odisha
Iron Ore	Odisha
Manganese	Odisha
Lead & Zinc	Rajasthan
Calcite (source of marble)	Rajasthan
Gypsum (used in fertiliser, plaster of paris etc.)	Rajasthan
Quartz	Rajasthan
Asbestos	Andhra Pradesh
Limestone	Andhra Pradesh
Mica	Andhra Pradesh
Barytes	Andhra Pradesh
Diamond	Madhya Pradesh
Copper Ore	Madhya Pradesh
Gold	Karnataka
Corundum (source of ruby, sapphire)	Maharashtra
Rock Salt	Himachal Pradesh
Crude Oil	Rajasthan
Natural Gas	Assam

Barytes are used as weighting agent for drilling fluids in oil & gas exploration, barium is used in CT Scan



BENGALI

GENCOM SMART BATCH
1 তিলে 10 পাখি
 (CGL, CHSL, MTS, STENO, PHASE X, LDC, UDC,
 WB Food SI , Clerkship, CO - OP Service)
Starts Jan 18, 2022 **5 PM to 9 PM**



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Target ICAR
 ই-বুক আকারে সম্পূর্ণ স্টাডি মেটেরিয়াল
 চ্যাপ্টার ভিত্তিক MCQ ক্লাস
Starts Jan 3, 2022 **11 AM to 3 PM**

Key Questions for ICAR Technician 2022 Exam

1. Which are the main gases present in Sun? - **Hydrogen and Helium**
2. Which planet takes the longest time to go around the sun? – **Neptune**
3. Project tiger programme was launched in: **1973**
4. Which state in India has the longest coastline? – **Gujarat**
5. Which is largest peninsular river in India? – **Godavari**
6. Which planet has the maximum number of satellites? - **Saturn**
7. The first biosphere reserve that was set up in India in 1986 is - **Nilgiris**
8. Which of the following is called the Land of White Elephants? - **Thailand**
9. Melghat Tiger Reserve is located in which state? - **Maharashtra**
10. Which city is located on the banks of the river Chambal? - **Kota**
11. Which atmospheric layer contains ozone layer? – **Stratosphere**
12. What is the capital of Portugal? – **Lisbon**
13. Gaza strip lies along the coast of - **Mediterranean sea**
14. Bushmen tribes are found in - **Kalahari desert**
15. On which planet would one witness sunrise in the west? - **Venus**
16. The largest freshwater lake by volume in the world is - **Lake Superior**
17. In terms of area, India is the largest country of the world. - **Seventh**
18. The Dudhwa National Park is located in which state? - **Uttar Pradesh**
19. Name the First Governor of RBI. - **Mr. Osborne Smith**
20. Stockholm is the capital of _____. - **Sweden**
21. Pulitzer prize is awarded for outstanding work in the field of - **Literature and Journalism**
22. Bhitarkanika National Park in which state? - **Odisha**
23. Satpura National Park is located in the Hoshangabad district of which of the following state? - **Madhya Pradesh**
24. Fugdi is a Goan folk dance is related to which state? - **Goa**
25. What is the full form of NATO? - **North Atlantic Treaty Organization**
26. TungaBhadra dam is constructed across river Tungabhadra in which state? - **Karnataka**
27. Dachigam National Park is situated in which state? - **Jammu and Kashmir**
28. Eravikulam National Park is located in which state? - **Kerala**
29. What is the Capital city of Belarus? - **Minsk**
30. Who was the first Speaker of Lok Sabha? - **G. V. Mavalankar**
31. Article 356 of the Indian Constitution is about - **Imposition of President's Rule in states**
32. The tribal areas in the states of Assam, Meghalaya, Tripura and Mizoram are separately dealt with the provisions for their administration are to be found in which of the following schedules of the Indian Constitution? - **6th Schedule**
33. How many types of writs can be issued by the Supreme Court? - **5**
34. Which Article of the Constitution permits the Supreme Court to give advice to president? - **Article 143**
35. The concept of Public Interest Litigation, which has become quite popular in India in recent years, originated in - **The United States**
36. Which one of the following Prime Minister never faced the Parliament during the tenure? - **Chaudhary Charan Singh**

- | | |
|--|---|
| 37. Under which article, President of India can proclaim financial emergency? - Article 360 | 53. The tax which the kings used to collect from the people in the Vedic period was called - Bali |
| 38. When were the Fundamental Duties of the Indian citizens incorporated in the Constitution? - 1976 | 54. Name the poet who wrote "Prithviraj Raso", a poem describing Prithviraj Chauhan's life? - Chand Bardai |
| 39. Which of the following Article of Indian Constitution deals with the Right to Equality before Law? - Article - 14 | 55. Who said "Cripps proposals were a post-dated cheque of a crashing bank"? - Mahatma Gandhi |
| 40. Money bills can be introduced in the state legislature with the prior consent of - The Governor | 56. With which one of the following movements is the slogan "Do or die" is associated? - Quit India Movement |
| 41. The Sarkaria Commission was appointed - To examine Centre- State relations | 57. Vinoba Bhave was chosen as the first Satyagrahi of the individual Satyagraha. Who was the second? - Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru |
| 42. From which of the following are the Fundamental duties adopted? - USSR Constitution | 58. Who presided over the first session of the Indian National Congress? - W.C. Banerjee |
| 43. The term 'Socialist' was brought into the Preamble of the Indian Constitution by which amendment - 42nd | 59. Indus Valley Civilization was a _____ age civilization. – Bronze |
| 44. Which article was referred to as the 'the heart and soul' of the constitution by Dr. B. R. Ambedkar? - Article 32 | 60. Battle of Haldighati in 1576 was fought between Akbar and _____. - Maharana Pratap |
| 45. The Supreme Court propounded the theory of 'basic structure of the Constitution' in - Keshavananda Bharati case | 61. Who founded the East India Association? - Dadabhai Naoroji |
| 46. Who of the following Chief Justices of India acted as the president of India also - Justice M. Hidayatullah | 62. Who of the following led the army of the East India Company in the battle of Buxar in 1764? - Hector Munro |
| 47. Anti-defection law is given in which schedule of Indian constitution? - Tenth Schedule | 63. Which freedom fighter was popularly known as 'Deshbandhu'? - Chittaranjan Das |
| 48. The people of the Indus valley civilisation worshipped _____. - Pashupati | 64. Who deciphered the Brahmi script? - James Prinsep |
| 49. During whose tenure as the Viceroy of India were the great martyrs Bhagat Singh, Sukhdev and Rajguru hanged? - Lord Irwin | 65. During whose period Al-Beruni came to India? - Mahmud Ghaznavi |
| 50. During the Civil Disobedience Movement, who led the 'Red Shirts' of North-Western India? - Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan | 66. For the Karachi session of Indian National Congress in 1931, presided over by Sardar Patel, who drafted the Resolution on Fundamental Rights and Economic Programme? - Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru |
| 51. Who estimated the National Income for the first time in India? – Dadabhai Naoroji | 67. Who planted the "Tree of Liberty" at Shrirangpatnam? - Tipu Sultan |
| 52. Ramsay Mc Donald's Communal Award gave – Separate electorates for depressed classes | 68. Gita Govinda was written by - Jayadeva |
| | 69. The 1909 Indian Council Act is also known as - The Minto-Morley Reforms |

70. Over Which territory there were frequent clashes between Bahamani Kingdom and Vijaynagar Kingdom? - **The Raichur Doab**
71. The first Sultan to adopt the principle of measurement of cultivable land for determining the land revenue was - **Alauddin Khalji**
72. To overthrow the British rule, Kuka Movement was organised in - **Punjab**
73. Who was the editor of the famous newspaper Kesari during the National struggle? - **Bal gangadhar Tilak**
74. Who was called 'Grand Old Man of India'? - **Dadabhai Naoroji**
75. Which ruler of Gupta Empire is also known as "Napoleon of India"? - **Samudra Gupta**
76. Process of solid camphor into camphor vapour is called- **Sublimation**
77. What is the reaction between an acid and a base called? - **Neutralisation**
78. What is dry ice? - **Solid Carbon dioxide**
79. Which among the following is used to treat Indigestion? – **Antacid**
80. The poisonous gas accidentally released in Bhopal Gas Tragedy is - **Methyl Isocyanate**
81. Which of the following main elements is used in making matchbox? - **Phosphorous**
82. Solder used in soldering metal pieces consists of any alloy of:- **Tin and Lead**
83. Vitamin A is also known as _____. – **Retinol**
84. Which acid is released when an Ant bites? - **Formic Acid**
85. Isotope $^{14}C_6$ is associated with- **Determining the age of fossil**
86. Galvanized iron is coated with- **Zinc**
87. Polymer of Natural Rubber is- **Isoprene**
88. Process of gaining electrons is known as _____ - **Reduction**
89. In an acid base reaction which product is produced along with a salt? - **Water**
90. Which acid is found in Vinegar? - **Acetic Acid**
91. The unit of measurement of Noise is - **Decibel**
92. Which one of the following processes is responsible for the glittering of air bubble rising through water? - **Total internal reflection of light**
93. In an optical fibre the signal is transmitted - **Due to total internal reflection**
94. Amino acids are required for the synthesis of: **Proteins**
95. The xylem in plants are responsible for: **Transport of water**
96. Scurvy is caused due to the deficiency of - **Vitamin-C**
97. Which of the following induces souring of milk? - **Lactic Acid**
98. Goitre is caused by the deficiency of _____ - **Iodine**
99. Which among the following is also called as 'power house of the cell'? - **Mitochondria**
100. The term 'Rh factor' refers to - **Rhesus factor**

