

Teacher's Manual

Carvaan

Social Studies

Middle Stage
Class

7



Chapter 1 : How was our Past?

- A. 1. (iii); 2. (i); 3. (iii); 4. (ii); 5. (iv)
- B. 1. Indus; 2. Europe; 3. medieval; 4. 'Hindustan'; 5. 18th
- C. 1. (F); 2. (F); 3. (T); 4. (F); 5. (T)
- D. 1. (iii); 2. (v); 3. (i); 4. (ii); 5. (iv)
- E. 1. **Hindus** : During the medieval period, Muslim chroniclers referred to India as Hindustan - again, a name derived from the Indus. Hence, the people who lived here were called 'Hindus'.
2. **Century** : A period of hundred years.
3. **Hindustan** : a word used to identify 20th century India.
4. **Mausoleum** : A Mausoleum is a building which contains the grave of famous person or the graves of a rich family.
- F. 1. Foreign explorers, conquerors and cultural leaders first came into contact with the people living on the Sindhu or the River Indus. Therefore, they named the whole country after this river. The word 'India' originates from the Indus, called 'Sindhu' in Sanskrit. The Iranians and the Greeks who came through the north-west, called it the 'Hindos' or the 'Indos' and the land to the east of the river was called India.
2. The medieval period is closer to us in time, and the sources that have survived give a clear picture of the period.
3. Ziauddin Barani. He completed his chronicle in 1356 AD, but revised it two years later, possibly because he did not receive the expected favour of Firuz Shah Tughlaq.
4. Foreign travellers who visited India during this period were Al-Beruni, Ibn Batutah, Domingo Paes, Nicolo Conti, Francois Bernier and Jean-Baptiste Tavernier. The invaluable accounts they left behind have contributed significantly about the political, social and economic conditions of India in those days.
- G. 1. Differentiate the Medieval Period and ancient period :
- Medieval Period** : Medieval period also known as past classical history, is said to have begun around 500 AD, following the major cultural and religious upheaval that was common around this time.
- Ancient Period** : Ancient period is the time period where the earliest known human settlements have been found around 6000 BC. It ends with the fall of major empires such as the Roman

Empire, the Han Empire of China and the Gupta empire around 650 AD.

2. Historians divide the past into periods based on the economic and social factors which characterise them. First, economic and social changes keep taking place hence definite boundaries cannot be drawn.

People generally measure time in terms of century, year, month, day and hour. But historians chart the progress of man in terms of Ages that represent different stages of human development, e.g., Stone Age, Bronze Age, Iron Age, etc. These changes do not occur all of a sudden. They occur gradually. But over a period of time, these changes can be seen to be widespread enough to warrant a separate name.

3. The sources of history for medieval India are more reliable and comprehensive than those for the study of ancient India. These sources can be divided into two groups: Archaeological and literary sources. Historians found it difficult to decipher the style of writings mentioned in the manuscripts. The manuscripts were handwritten documents and the handwritings were not legible most of the time. They could not even understand the meanings and thoughts written here and had to assume them.

4. **Archaeological Sources**

Buildings, palaces, forts and tombs built during the medieval period throw much light on the art, architecture and lifestyles of this period. They include (i) Temples such as Konark, Bhubaneswar, Khajuraho, Dilwara, Raja Rajeshwara, Kailash, etc. (ii) Mosques such as Jama Masjid and Moti Masjid in Delhi, Adhai Din ka Jhonpra Masjid at Ajmer, Moti Masjid in Agra Fort, (iii) Mausoleums such as the Taj Mahal at Agra, etc. (iv) Forts like Red Fort and Tughlaqabad Fort in Delhi, Agra Fort and Fatehpur Sikri complex at Agra, Gwalior Fort, Ranthambhor Fort, Mandu Fort, Chittorgarh Fort, etc. (v) Pillars like Minar, Kirti Stambha and (vi) Palaces such as those at Jaisalmer, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Mandu, etc.

We can get useful information from the inscriptions carved on stone and copper tablets, pillars, walls of temples and tombs, about contemporary languages, dates of historical events, land revenue system and religious beliefs.

Coins and seals provide information about the rulers and their administration. These coins were made of copper, silver, gold and even lead. They tell us about contemporary languages and names of rulers, dynastic chronology, land revenue system, socio-economic condition and religious beliefs.

Chapter 2 : Kings and Kingdoms

- A.** 1. (iv); 2. (ii); 3. (ii); 4. (ii); 5. (i)
- B.** 1. Gopala; 2. Mayurasharman; 3. Prithvirajraso 4. Kailash;
5. Pratihara
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (T); 3. (T); 4. (T)
- D.** 1. (iii); 2. (v); 3. (iv); 4. (i); 5. (ii)
- E.** 1. Prashastis, recorded on stone slabs, copper plates, on the walls of temples, etc, give us lots of information about the various activities of king, such as land grants, administration systems, wars, victories, titles, etc.
2. Dirham is a unit of currency in several Arab states.
3. Samantas or petty chieftains were given land grants, in return for which they had to pay taxes to the king or even maintain a small army which the king could call upon in emergency.
4. Maha-mandaleswar means 'the great lord of a circle of region.'
- F.** 1. Al-Beruni, a great Persian scholar. Al-Beruni lived for many years in India and even learnt the Sanskrit language. His famous book Kitab-al-Hind or Tahqiq-i-Hind describes about Indian life, religion, language, culture, etc.
2. The Samantas were usually warrior chiefs and big landlords who acted as subordinates for the kings. As time progressed and they got more powerful, they decided to overthrow their kings and become kings themselves.
3. The conquest of Bengal was the most important achievement of Rajendra, whereafter he assumed the title of 'Gangaikonda Chola.'
4. He led as many as seventeen expeditions against India between 1000 AD and 1027 AD. He learnt that the temples of India had immense amounts of gold, jewellery and precious stones. In his quest to annex this wealth, he destroyed many temples of northern India. Some of his famous campaigns were against Kanauj, Mathura, Nagarkot and Thaneshwar. Of all his expeditions, his plunder and destruction to the famous Somnath Temple of Saurashtra in 1025-26 AD, brought him by far the most loot, estimated to be then worth 20 million dirhams.
- G.** 1. **THE RAJPUTS**
- According to tradition, the four Rajput clans-Parmara, Pratihara, Chauhan and Chalukya-were born from fire altars. They are, therefore, known as agnikulas. There is a long history the Rajputs. A number of Rajput principalities sprang up across

northern and central India after the death of Harsha. Each principality jealously guarded its powers and refused to submit to another. They ruled over areas of the country for four long centuries, between 800 AD and 1200 AD. This period is, therefore, called the 'Rajput period'. But intensive wars and constant rivalry weakened them. So, when invaders from the north-west appeared on the country's frontiers in the 11th and 12th centuries, they failed to present a formidable front and lost their independence one by one. Due to their stubborn independence and rivalry, a foreign race established its sway over the whole country. The first among the new invaders was Mahmud of Ghazni in 1000 AD. He had to face a loose Rajput confederacy, but gained control over it.

2. **The Chola Administration**

The Chola administration was highly systematised and well-organised. The vast empire was divided into six provinces or Mandalas, each governed by a viceroy. The provinces were further divided into districts or Nadus. Each Nadu was subdivided into Kottamas or Kurramas consisting of a number of villages. The king was head of the whole administration. There were a number of high officials in charge of various departments under the king.

Provincial Administration

Generally, the king appointed persons belonging to the royal family as governors. They carried out the orders of the king in the provinces. They were also responsible for maintaining law and order in their territories. They had high officials to assist them in carrying out their duties.

Village Administration

Under the Chola kings, the villages enjoyed self-government. All the powers of administration in the village were given to village assembly, Ur or Sabha. It carried on its work through various committees. It had the power to collect and spend the revenue of the village. It undertook works of public utility and maintained charitable institutions. Rich peasants of Vellala caste exercised great control over village administration. The landlords were bestowed with many titles such as *muvedavelan* (a *velan* or peasant serving three kings), *ariyar* (chief), etc., by Chola kings and entrusted them with important offices of the state at centre.

Financial Administration

Land revenue was the main source of income of the state. it was probably one-sixth of the total produce. The other sources of

revenue were the salt tax, custom duties, professional tax, water cess, fines, etc. The income of the state was spent on king and his court, salaries of officials, army, religious institutions and construction of works of public utility. The chola inscriptions use more than 400 terms for describing different kinds of taxes Vetti or forced labour and kadamai or land revenue are the most frequently mentioned tax.

3. Tripartite struggle for Kanauj

Many powerful empires arose in northern India and the Deccan between 750 AD and 1200 AD. The Pala kings ruled the eastern and northern regions of India till the middle of the 9th century. The Pratihara empire dominated western and northern parts of India till the middle of the 10th century, while the Rashtrakuta empire dominated the Deccan. The possession of Kanauj was supposed to be sovereignty over northern India and hence all of these rulers struggled to rule over Kanauj.

It all began with the clash between the Pratihara ruler Vatsaraj and Pala ruler Dharampala. The Pala ruler was defeated and Kanauj fell into the hands of Vatsaraj. But at this crucial stage, the Rashtrakuta ruler Dhruva attacked the Pratihara territory. The Pratihara ruler had to rush to Rajputana. Dhruva returned to the Deccan and Dharampala seized the chance to recover his territories, recapture Kanauj and become the lord of north India.

Nagabhatta, the next Pratihara ruler also tried to capture Kanauj. But the Pratihara attempt was again foiled by the intervention of Rashtrakuta ruler.

Thus, Dharampala and his son, Devapala continued to rule over Kanauj. When Devapala's successors proved weak and incompetent, the Pratihara ruler Nagabhatta II (805-833AD) defeated Chakrayudh of Kanauj and transferred his capital to that city. He founded the Gurjara-Pratihara kingdom at Kanauj.

This put an end to the hundred-year struggle among the three powers for the control of Kanauj.

4. In 1191 AD, the First Battle of Tarain was fought between Prithviraj Chauhan and Muhammad Ghori. In this battle, Ghori had to flee from the battlefield with bleeding wounds. Next year, he returned better prepared to fight Prithviraj. The Second Battle of Tarain, fought in 1192 AD, is regarded as the turning point in Indian history because Muhammad Ghori Prithviraj was defeated, taken captive and ultimately executed. Thus, during a short period of fourteen years, just a few battles in the plains of north-western India changed the fate of India. It provoked Prithviraj Chauhan to attack Muhammad Ghori.

Chapter 3 : Delhi : 12th to 15th Century

- A.** 1. (iv); 2. (ii); 3. (ii); 4. (i); 5. (iii)
- B.** 1. Siri; 2. Devagiri; 3. Gouri's; 4. Nusrat Khan; 5. Shahna-I Mandi
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (F); 3. (F); 4. (F); 5. (T)
- D.** 1. (iv); 2. (v); 3. (i); 4. (ii); 5. (iii)
- E.** 1. Mamluk' means a slave who was born of free parents. They were called slave rulers because three Sultans-Qutub-ud-din, Iltutmish and Balban were themselves once slaves.
2. Sijdah is prostration before the Sultan.
3. The Forty is a clique of forty Turkish nobles.
4. Iqta system means the land or land revenue assigned to an individual on behalf of the ruler.
- F.** 1. Alauddin Khalji born Gurshap, became the Sultan of Delhi through series of strategic moves. He staged a successful revolt against his predecessor, Jalaludin and consolidated power. Alauddin defended the kingdom against Mongol invasions and expanded it by conquering regions like Gujrat, Chittor and Malwa.
2. The Iqtadars, who were granted land revenue rights under the Iqta system in medieval India, Played a crucial role in governance. They collected revenue from their assigned territories, which could be in the form of agricultural produce or monetary taxes. In return, they provided services such as maintaining law and order, contributing to stability and ensuring prosperity within their regions.
3. Before his death, Iltutmish had nominated his daughter Raziya as his heir. However, some Turkish nobles were not ready to accept a woman as their sultan. The nobles accused her of showing undue favours to an Abyssinian noble, Jalal-ud-din Yakut. All these factors provoked the nobles to revolt.
4. Iltutmish was a great lover of buildings. He completed the construction of the Qutub Minar in Delhi which was started by Qutub-ud-din Aibak. He also built a magnificent mosque at Badayun, and his own Mausoleum in red sandstone at Delhi.
- G.** 1. **Social Life**
- Indian society during the medieval period was mainly distributed into four major classes or group: the aristocracy, the priests, the town people and the village people or peasants.
- The upper class or aristocracy comprised the ruling class. It included the sultan, the nobles, the landlords and Hindu kings or princes.

The second class included the priests or the Ulemas, the Maulvis, the Qazis, the Brahmins or the Pandits. They advised the rulers on the matters of administration in accordance with the sacred laws. This priestly class received land grants from the rulers for their living. Common people also offered them gifts and donations. The people in towns formed the third section of society. They included shopkeepers, merchants, traders, etc. Most of the farmers and peasants formed the fourth and lowest section of society. They mostly paid land revenue and other taxes but led a miserable life.

2. Qutub-ud-din Aibak, with whose reign began the Slave dynasty.

Qutub-ud-din Aibak (1206-1210 AD)

Qutub-ud-din Aibak ruled India only for four years. He had been sold as a slave in his childhood, and after passing through a few hands, was finally bought by Sultan Muhammad Ghori.

Muhammad Ghori soon recognised his efficiency and gave him an important post. Qutub-ud-din Aibak is known as the founder of the Slave dynasty or Mamluk dynasty. Mamluk' means a slave who was born of free parents. They were called slave rulers because three Sultans - Qutub-ud-din, Iltutmish and Balban were themselves once slaves. After Ghori's death, Aibak set up a free kingdom with its headquarters in Lahore. He thus laid the foundations of the Delhi Sultanate.

Aibak was the first free sultanate ruler in India. He was very kind. His habit of distributing large sums of money in charity gained him the title of 'Lakhabaksh', i.e., the 'Giver of Lakhs'. He built two great mosques, one at Delhi called the Quwwat-ul-Islam (Power of Islam) and another at Ajmer called 'Adhai Din ka Jhonpra'. He made no fresh victories because he was busy with consolidating his rule in the conquered territories. He did not even try to establish a healthy system of administration; he followed a military rule. He also started the construction of the famous Qutub Minar at Delhi, but most of the work was finished by Iltutmish.

3. Muhammad-bin-Tughluq was one of the most efficient rulers of his time. But he was hasty and impatient. Therefore, many of his experiments failed. He has been named an 'ill-starred idealist' by historians. The most controversial step he undertook was the transfer of the capital from Delhi to Devagiri. It appears that the Sultan wanted to make Devagiri a second capital because he felt he would be able to keep an eye over south India better from there. Devagiri (or Daulatabad) was more than 1500 km away

from Delhi. Only half of the people who started the journey could reach Daulatabad safely.

After some years, he decided to leave Daulatabad mainly because he noticed that just as he could not check the south from Delhi, so also he could not control the north India from Daulatabad. Another bold step which turned out to be a great failure was the introduction of token currency. He decided to introduce a bronze coin (due to scarcity of silver) which was to have the same value as the silver tanka. Thus, people amassed gold and silver coins and used only bronze or copper coins for trade. Hence, traders and common men did not accept it. People began forging the new coins, which thus became greatly devalued in the market. Finally, the Sultan had to withdraw the token currency.

4. Delhi Sultanate and Their Administration

The rulers of the Delhi Sultanate were autocrats and enjoyed enormous powers. The sultan's word was law. He could appoint any person to any post and dismiss him according to his will. He governed with the help of some advisors and ministers. The sultan was expected to follow the rules based on the Quran and Islamic traditions.

The Qazi and the Ulema had a great impact on the administration. But sultans like Balban, Ala-ud-din Khalji and Muhammad-bin-Tughluq did not give much importance to them. The power of the Delhi Sultans depended on their army. They maintained their power by the sword. War booty was one of the main sources of income for these sultans.

The most important among sultan's ministers were the Wazir or the Revenue Minister and the Mir Bakshi or the Paymaster of the Army. The minister in charge of the military organisation was called Diwan-i-Ariz. The Diwan-i-Risalat was the minister of religious affairs.

The empire was divided into provinces (subas). The subas were divided into shiqs and shiqs into parganas. These parganas consisted of some villages. The governor of a province was called the Wali, Muqti or Subedar. The main duty of the governor was to maintain law and order in the province.

The village was the primary unit of local administration. A group of villages was called a pargana. The chief officer of the pargana was called the Amil, who was responsible for the collection of land revenue. The village headman was called Muqaddam or

Chaudhari. The Kotwal was the head of the police department of the town. Criminals were given severe punishments during the rule of the Delhi Sultans.

Chapter 4 : Forts and Sacred Places

- A.** 1. (ii); 2. (i); 3. (ii); 4. (iv); 5. (ii)
- B.** 1. Shah Jahan; 2. Humayun's; 3. Fatehpur Sikri; 4. Qutub Minar; 5. Trablate
- C.** 1. (F); 2. (T); 3. (F); 4. (T); 5. (T)
- D.** 1. (iii); 2. (iv); 3. (i); 4. (v); 5. (ii)
- E.** 1. Trabeate is having horizontal beams or lintels rather than arches.
2. The dome is a large area enclosed by hollow, semicircular roof.
3. Mausoleum is building erected over the place of burial of sultans, Mughal emperors and nobles.
4. Pietra dura is inlaying of precious stones of various colours in walls.
- F.** 1. Sher Shah Suri built numerous monuments to his glory, including the following the Rohtas Fort, Multiple structures in Bihar's Rohtasgarh Fort, Putna's Sher Shah Suri Masjid, the Purana Qila complex's Qila-i-Kuhna mosque and the Sher Mandal (the eventual "library of Humayun") of the city of Diwali.
2. Trabeate Principal also known as post and lintel construction. Relies on horizontal beams (lintels) supported by vertical columns or posts. Commonly seen in ancient Greek and Roman architecture, such as the Parthenon.
Arcuate Principal utilizes arches and vaults for support. Commonly found in Gothic Cathedrals, Romanesque churches and Islamic architecture.
3. The famous buildings made by Shah Jahan in Delhi are Red fort, Jama Masjid, Moti Masjid.
4. The Palace-cum-fort complex that Vincent Smith described as "Romance in Stone" is Fateh Pur Sikri. This magnificent deserted city, located about 40 kilometers west of Agra, was built by the Mughal Emperor Akbar. The red sandstone minarets of Fatehpur Sikri pierce the blue sky, creating a captivating and romantic atmosphere.
- G.** 1. Mughal architecture reached at its peak during the reign of Shah Jahan. Some of the finest monuments of our country were built during his reign-the Taj Mahal, the Red Fort, the Jama Masjid

and the Moti Masjid (all in Delhi) and the Masumman Burz in Agra Fort.

Shah Jahan's death brought the Mughal architecture to a stand still because Aurangzeb showed no interest in construction. The only notable buildings of his reign are the Badshahi Mosque at Lahore and Moti Masjid at Delhi. But Mughal architectural traditions, based on a combination of Indo-Persian forms, lived on robustly in the succeeding periods. The Mughal tradition influenced the palaces and forts of many provincial and local kingdoms.

2. The Muslim rulers of India began constructing gardens, tombs and forts. The Mughals, in particular, made excellent progress in these fields. As we have already read, Babur made beautiful gardens in India. From that time, gardens became an intrinsic part of the design of Mughal palaces and mausoleums. The Mughal Age is famous for its culture, developments and has been called the Second Classical Age, the first being the Gupta Age in Northern India. A new style of Indo-Persian architecture developed during the Mughal period.

They built beautiful forts, palaces, public buildings, baolis (water tanks or wells), mosques, etc. A special feature of Mughal architecture was the use of running water in the palaces and pleasure resorts. Babur was especially fond of gardens and laid out some beautiful gardens around Agra and Lahore. Important Mughal gardens which have survived even today are Shalimar Bagh at Lahore and Srinagar, Nishat Bagh in Srinagar and the Pinjore Gardens in Punjab.

All the sources and evidences show that the Mughals were enthusiastic builders. Their massive forts at Delhi, Agra and Fatehpur Sikri are proof of their scientific techniques and precision. Sher Shah, though not a Mughal, built the Purana Qila near Delhi. He also built his mausoleum at Sasaram (Bihar) which still stands.

3. The medieval rulers built many architectural beauties. Muslims and Hindus built beautiful mosques and temples for worship. The development of architecture should not be seen in isolation. Worship places were erected not simply because of religious beliefs; they were often meant to showcase the power, prestige, and wealth of the patrons. It was common practice of rulers to earn the respect of their subjects, by showing religious fervour.

That is why most of the famous temples and mosques were built by kings or wealthy people such as landlords or merchants.

Similarly, rulers also encouraged learned men and saints, and tried to transform their capitals and cities into cultural hubs. For example, Mahmud of Ghazni transformed his capital into a magnificent city of architectural wonders and cultural sophistication.

4. Shah Jahah shifted his capital from Agra to Delhi. He established a beautiful city on the banks of the river Yamuna. Most of the nobility also rushed to construct homes on the banks of the river Yamuna. These constructions were designed in the Char Bagh format, but it was river facing.

Historians thus describe the complex as a 'riverfront garden'. It must have been a stunning sight in those days, this exclusive, hushed enclave for the super-rich facing the blue, unpolluted expanse of the pristine Yamuna! It is perhaps good that Shah Jahan did not then know that one day, as an old man and toppled from his throne, he would find himself gazing wistfully through prison bars at this very scene, from the other side of the river.

Shah Jahan selected the site for the Taj Mahal because it was river facing. The Taj came up amidst a huge river front garden. The site for constructing the new city of Shahjahanabad was also selected because it was on the river.

Chapter 5 : Social Change : Mobile and Settled Communities

- A. 1. (i); 2. (ii); 3. (iii); 4. (iii); 5. (iii)
- B. 1. Suhungmung; 2. 1740s 3. Genealogical; 4. Gujarat; 5. Mansabdar
- C. 1. (F); 2. (T); 3. (F); 4. (T); 5. (T)
- D. 1. (iii); 2. (i); 3. (v); 4. (ii); 5. (iv)
- E. 1. A tribe is a group of people who live together, share the same language, culture and history and stay outside towns or cities.
2. **Tribe** : The term 'Rajput' denotes a tribe or clan, the kinsmen of which put forth the claim that they were Kshatriyas.
3. **Paiks** : The Ahom state depended upon forced labour, and those forced to work for the state were called 'Paiks'.
4. Gonds are sometimes referred by their tribal dialect Gonds. The name 'Gond' originates from the Telugu word Konda which means 'hill'.
- F. 1. In the countryside, there emerged a class of village elders and headmen called Mahattaras, who were supposed to be informed of land transfers. Later, they were also classified into a caste.

2. Different tribal communities had established their independent kingdoms. Some prominent among them were the Gonds in central India (14th to 18th century), the Chero (in the 16th century) in the region of today's Jharkhand, and Ahoms in the north-east region. Many other tribes were spread across the country, including the Kolis in Maharashtra, the Bhils (along with Gonds) in central India, and the Munda and Santhal tribes in the eastern parts of India.
3. The Gonds settled in 'Gondwana' between the 8th to the 13th centuries. After the 12th century AD, the Rajput dynasty in this region disappeared and Gond kingdoms were established at Kharla in Betul, at Deogarh in Chhindwara, at Garhmandal around Jabalpur and at Chanda near Bhandarkar, between the 16th and mid-19th centuries. Muslim writers describe about the rise of Gond states after the 14th century. The Akbar Nama talks about the existence of the Gond kingdom of Garh Katanga that had 70,000 villages.

We do not have much information about the early history of the Garhmandal dynasty. Sangram Singh was its most famous king. He was the lord of 52 districts. He was succeeded by Dalpat Shah who married Durgawati, the Rajput princess of Mahoba. The king died early and queen Durgawati took over the reins. In 1565, Asaf Khan invaded the Gond kingdom as a general of Akbar. The queen fought valiantly but was defeated by the powerful Mughal army. She committed suicide and the throne was given by Akbar to Chander Shah on the condition that he ceded ten northern districts, which later formed Bhopal. Narhar Shah, the last Gond Raja of Garhmandal, was killed by Maratha general Morarji. Garhmandal became a subah of Marathas in 1781.

The Marathas swept into the Gond regions in the 1740s. They overthrew the Gond rajas and seized most of their territory. Some Gond zamindaris (estates) survived until recently.

4. During the Vedic period, society was organized into distinct categories based on an individual's work. Here's a concise overview:
 1. **Brahmins** : Priests and teachers, responsible for sacred duties and knowledge preservation.
 2. **Kshatriyas** : Warriors, governing and defending
 3. **Varshyas** : Businessman and traders.
 4. **Shudras** : Service providers.

- G. 1. During the Gupta era, there was proliferation of castes into numerous subcastes because of many factors. A large number of foreigners had been assimilated into Indian society, and each group of foreigners was considered a kind of Hindu caste. Since the foreigners mainly came as conquerors in India they were given the status of the Kshatriya in society. The Huns, ultimately, came to be recognised as one of the thirty-six clans of the Rajputs.

2. To understand the origin and development of the caste system in India, let's explore some important points:

Origin of Castes : Castes emerged through various cultural and historical processes. These castes were categorized based on experience, occupation, birth and religious factors.

Four Uarnas (Classes) : India's social system was organized into four Uarnas : Brahmins, Kshatriyas, vaishyas and Shudras. This classification was primarily determined by an individual's birth.

Occupational Specialisation : People within each caste pursued specific occupations to sustain their livelihoods and support their families.

3. Suhungmung is considered as one of the real builders of the Ahom state. He undertook the first population census of his kingdom and brought different classes of craftsmen from outside his state and established them in his kingdom. Shankardeva started his neo-Vaishnavite movement in Assam during his reign. He established friendship with king Prataprudra of Odisha and excavated a tank near Jagannath temple. The Ahoms faced many invasions. In 1662, the Mughals attacked Ahoms and despite brave defense they were defeated.

Ahom state was dependent on forced labour (paiks). Each village had to send a number of paiks by rotation and adults were employed in army during the war. Ahom society was divided into Khels. The village administration was controlled by Khels.

4. Tribals	Caste-Based Society
1. Tribal communities have indigenous roots and often inhabit remote forested or hilly regions. They unique cultral practices, languages, and customs.	1. The caste system is deeply entrenched in India society, with rigid hierarchies based on birth. Caste identity is inherited and defines an individuals social status .

2. Tribals primarily engage in Subsistence agriculture, hunting gathering and handi crafts. Their livelihoods are closely tied to nature.	2. Castes are associated with specific occupations. brohim Brahmins (priests), Kshatriyas (Warriors), vaishyas (merchants), and shudras (service providers) each have designated roles.
3. Tribals follow animistic or nature based religions, worshipping sprits, deities and natural elements.	3. Hinduism dominates the caste based system, with rituals, temples and caste specific practices.

Chapter 6 : Inside our Earth

- A.** 1. (i); 2. (iv); 3. (iii); 4. (ii); 5. (iii)
- B.** 1. Sima; 2. Granite; 3. Metamorphic; 4. Mantle; 5. Moho discontinuity
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (F); 3. (F); 4. (F); 5. (F)
- D.** 1. (iv); 2. (v); 3. (i); 4. (ii); 5. (iii)
- E.** 1. Scismic waves are the waves of energy caused by the sudden breaking of rock within the earth or an explosion.
2. The boundary that separates the crust from the mantle is called the Moho discontinuity.
3. Various minerals combine to form new minerals. The rocks thus transformed are called metamorphic rocks.
4. The rock cycle is the change in type of rocks within sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic varieties, including the process of weathering and erosion.
- F.** 1. Sedimentary rocks are formed in layers or strata and are therefore also called stratified rocks.
2. The Taj Mahal is made of White Marble as Sangmarmar.
3. The remains of dead animals and plants, which get trapped in the layers of sedimentary rocks, are called fossils. Coal, oil and natural gas are fossil fuels obtained from this type of rocks.
4. The interior of the earth is divided into three main layers—crust, mantle and core.
- G.** 1. Solid outer shell of the earth is called crust. It is a very thin layer. Its thickness varies from about 5 km under the oceans to about

40 km under the plains (like the Gangetic Plain or the Prairies of North America). Under high mountains, such as the Himalayas and the Alps, the crust may vary in thickness from 50 km to 80 km.

The crust can be broadly divided into continental landmass and ocean floor. The main mineral constituents of the continental landmass are Silica and Alumina, together called Sial (Si = Silica, Al = Aluminium). The oceanic crust is called Sima (Si = Silica, Ma = Magnesium), after its main mineral elements.

2. **Igneous Rocks**

These are called the Primary Rocks because they were the first to be formed on the earth and all other rocks are ultimately derived from them. They are formed by cooling and solidification of the molten matter of the earth. 'Igneous' is derived from Latin word 'ignis' meaning 'fiery' (the Sanskrit word 'agni' also has a similar meaning).

There are two types of igneous rocks—intrusive igneous and extrusive igneous.

The molten matter known as magma, during its movement, enters rock crevices and comes out on Earth's surface. It is then known as lava. The lava rapidly cools down and becomes solid. Rocks formed in such a way are known as extrusive igneous rocks. Basalt is a fine example of extrusive igneous rock. Like all other extrusive igneous rocks, it has a fine grain structure. Being thermal in origin, solidification may take place in the interior of earth as well. Rocks so formed are called intrusive igneous rocks. Because of slow cooling and solidification, they have large grains. These rocks are also called plutonic rocks. These rocks are of various types depending on how and when the magma solidifies. Important examples of intrusive rocks are granite and gabbro.

3. **Sedimentary Rocks**

These rocks are found in various forms and are regarded as the earth's outermost crust. The elements of climate—temperature, rainfall, and air—break down the rocks on the surface of the earth. These materials, removed by rivers, winds and glaciers, are transported and deposited in depressions, oceans and lakes. Layer upon layer is thus deposited over millions of years.

These layers are then compacted or cemented due to heavy overlying pressure. These hardened layers are known as sedimentary rocks.

Economic Importance

- (i) They are the main source of coal and mineral oils.
 - (ii) Clay, cement, glass and sand are made from these rocks.
 - (iii) Limestone is used for building purposes.
 - (iv) Many chemicals and fertilizers are obtained from these rocks, contained in bulk crystallised particles.
4. The molten matter known as magma, during its movement, enters rock crevices and comes out on Earth's surface. It is then known as lava. The lava rapidly cools down and becomes solid. Rocks formed in such a way are known as extrusive igneous rocks. Basalt is a fine example of extrusive igneous rock. Like all other extrusive igneous rocks, it has a fine grain structure. Being thermal in origin, solidification may take place in the interior of earth as well. Rocks so formed are called intrusive igneous rocks.

Chapter 7 : Our Changing Earth

- A.** 1. (iv); 2. (iii); 3. (iv); 4. (i); 5. (i)
- B.** 1. Mt. Everest; 2. Richter Scale; 3. tributaries; 4. Glaciers; 5. weathering
- C.** 1. (F); 2. (T); 3. (T); 4. (T); 5. (F)
- D.** 1. (ii); 2. (i); 3. (iv); 4. (v); 5. (iii)
- E.** 1. Exogenic forces act on the surface of the earth and are both erosional and depositional in nature.
2. The point above the focus on the earth's surface is called the epicentre of the earthquake.
3. Meanders (large bends and loops).
4. These channels, which do not join the river again, are called its distributaries.
- F.** 1. Deltas only form when the velocity of water is very sluggish.
2. The earth's surface is divided into six large and several small plates. Several changes take place on the earth's surface because of movement of these plates. The movement of these plates is called tectonic activity.
3. The seven continents in order of size are Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Europe, Australia and Antarctica.
4. The most active agents of denudation are :
- (i) Running Water or rivers (ii) Glaciers (iii) Winds (iv) Waves (v) Underground Water

- G.** 1. On account of internal and external processes, many changes take place on the earth, which operate continuously in the form of an endless cycle. The internal forces are known as endogenic forces. The external forces at work on the surface are called exogenic forces. The given flow chart describes the processes and agents of change.
2. Earthquakes bring about changes on the surface of the earth in a number of ways. They may cause landslides in the hilly areas and cracks in the earth's crust. In the coastal areas, the earthquakes sometimes submerge land or old islands and sometimes they give birth to new ones. Sometimes hidden minerals buried under deep earth reveal themselves on the surface of the earth.
3. The tectonic or horizontal movements of the earth bring about disturbances in its interior portions as well.
The point where these vibrations originate is called the focus of the earthquake. The point above the focus on the earth's surface is called the epicentre of the earthquake.
4. In the middle course, the velocity of water is less. The river can no longer transport its load. The silt begins to settle to the river bed or is deposited on the riverbanks.
Meanders (large bends and loops), oxbow lakes (cut-off loops, forming lakes) and alluvial cones (cone-shaped deposits) are formed in this part of the river. In this course, many streams join the main river and increase its volume of water. The small rivers which join the main river are called its tributaries. Yamuna is the tributary of Ganga which converge into Ganga at Allahabad.

Chapter 8 : Air

- A.** 1. (i); 2. (ii); 3. (ii); 4. (iii); 5. (ii)
- B.** 1. altitude; 2. equitable; 3. Chinook (Local); 4. insolation; 5. Pollutants
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (f); 3. (T); 4. (T); 5. (T)
- D.** 1. (iii); 2. (i); 3. (ii); 4. (v); 5. (iv)
- E.** 1. The glasshouse allows sunlight to enter, but does not allow the internal heat to go out. Pollutants in the atmosphere create heat sinks and raise the average mean temperature of the earth.
2. The word 'smog' is derived by combining 'smoke' with 'fog'. Smog can be seen in many metropolitan cities, especially during winter and is a dangerous kind of air pollution.
3. **Ionosphere**

The rarity of atmospheric gases in the thermosphere allows this layer to absorb heat from the sun. This absorption produces electrically charged particles known as ions. Because of these ions, this sphere is also known as the Ionosphere.

4. The process of conversion of vapour into raindrops is called condensation.

- F.** 1. Air is a mixture of tiny molecules of gases. The composition of these gases in dry air is shown in the pie-chart.

The two main gases in the atmosphere are Nitrogen (about 78%) and Oxygen (about 21%). The other gases (about 1%) present in the atmosphere are Argon, Carbon dioxide, Ozone, Hydrogen, Helium, etc.

2. The glasshouse allows sunlight to enter, but does not allow the internal heat to go out. Pollutants in the atmosphere create heat sinks and raise the average mean temperature of the earth. This is known as Global Warming. The melting of glacier in Antarctica and on high mountain is the result of global warming.

3. Weather	Climate
1. State of atmosphere over a smaller given area and over a short period of time.	1. State of atmosphere over a large area, often a region, and over a long period of time.
2. Its elements are temperature, pressure, rainfall, humidity and precipitation.	2. Its elements are the same but include only aggregate conditions over a longer period of time or duration.
3. A small change in any of the elements may change the weather.	3. Small changes over short periods don't affect climate.
4. Weather may be cold, hot, sunny or rainy during a particular season.	4. The world is divided into several climatic zones.

4. They blow in definite directions during particular seasons. That is why, they are also called seasonal winds. Monsoon winds, and land and sea breezes, are such winds.

- G.** 1. **Ozone layer in stratosphere**

Within the stratosphere, there exists another layer in which ozone is concentrated. This gas is densest at the altitudes of 21-26 km. The ozone layer absorbs much of the harmful ultraviolet

radiation of the sun. It therefore protects the earth's surface and living things from these harmful solar rays. The upper boundary of the stratosphere is known as the stratopause, where the temperature begins to fall again.

2. On account of unequal heating of land and water bodies, water vapour is added to the atmosphere. Evaporation is the process of transformation of liquid water into gaseous state. The process of conversion of vapour into raindrops is called condensation. Some tiny droplets float and drift in the air. The tiny droplets of water rise high into the atmosphere and form clouds. During this movement, droplets join together to form bigger droplets or ice crystals (if the air is very cold). The bigger droplets or ice crystals fall to earth in the form of rainfall or snowfall. Falling droplets of water or ice crystals (i.e., rain, hail or snow) are jointly called precipitation. The forms of precipitation are rainfall, snowfall, hail (frozen pellets of ice mixed with rain), sleet and drizzle?

3. **Factors Affecting Temperature**

The important factors that affect the temperature of a place are:

(i) Latitude

The inclination of the sun's rays depends upon the latitude of that place. Places at or around the equator receive more heat than places towards the poles. Duration of days and nights also varies as we move from the equator towards the poles. The longer the day, the hotter it is.

(ii) Altitude

Temperature decreases with altitude. It is cooler at the top of a mountain than at the bottom. The rate of decrease of air temperature with increasing height is called 'Lapse Rate'. The average lapse rate is 1°C for every 165 m of height. Find out why Shimla is cooler than Ambala.

(iii) Distance from the sea

Land gets heated faster than water. Thus, the temperature of the air over land and water is not the same at a given time. Places near the sea have equitable climate, whereas places away from the sea have extreme climate.

(iv) Winds

Winds blowing from the sea (onshore) lower the summer temperature and raise the winter temperature. Similarly, winds blowing from warmer regions also raise the temperature, and winds blowing from colder regions lower the temperature.

(v) Ocean currents

There are both warm and cold ocean currents circulating around the world. Ocean currents supply moisture and heat to winds, which then raise or lower the temperature in coastal areas.

(vi) Direction of mountains

To understand this, let us take the help of an example. The Himalayas, which lie in the east-west direction, prevent cold winds blowing from the north to enter India. This has the effect of giving a warmer climate to India than it would have otherwise had.

(vii) Slope of land

The slope of a mountain or any other relief feature facing the sun receives more insolation due to almost direct rays of the sun. South facing slopes in the Northern Hemisphere receive direct sunshine, and are

4. Precipitation

On account of unequal heating of land and water bodies, water vapour is added to the atmosphere. Evaporation is the process of transformation of liquid water into gaseous state. The process of conversion of vapour into raindrops is called condensation. Some tiny droplets float and drift in the air. The tiny droplets of water rise high into the atmosphere and form clouds. During this movement, droplets join together to form bigger droplets or ice crystals (if the air is very cold). The bigger droplets or ice crystals fall to earth in the form of rainfall or snowfall. Falling droplets of water or ice crystals (i.e., rain, hail or snow) are jointly called precipitation. The forms of precipitation are rainfall, snowfall, hail (frozen pellets of ice mixed with rain), sleet and drizzle?

Type of Rainfall

Rainfall is the most common form of precipitation on the surface of the earth. According to how the cooling of the warm moist air takes place, rainfall occurs in the following ways:

(i) Convictional Rainfall

In hot regions like the equatorial region, the sun's rays strike the earth at an almost vertical angle. The rising currents of hot air are moisture laden because of the presence of oceans in this latitudinal zone. When these moisture laden winds reach higher levels of atmosphere, they cool, and condensation takes place. Condensed raindrops fall on the earth's surface. This type of rainfall is called convectional rainfall. This type of rainfall is

experienced practically every day in the equatorial region.

(ii) Relief Rainfall

Relief or orographic rainfall, occurs due to the presence of mountains which force the air to rise up. Upon rising, it due to the tendency of moisture, due to the tendency of moisture- saturated air to shed excess moisture at the lower temperatures prevailing at greater heights.

For examples, Mahabaleshwar, situated on the western slopes of the Western Ghats, gets more rainfall than Pune.

(iii) Cyclonic Rainfall

We already know that in a cyclone, winds rush rapidly towards a calm centre of low atmospheric pressure also called a depression. If the rising air is moisture laden, heavy rainfall, called cyclonic rainfall, is caused. This type of rainfall is quite common in the belt of Westerlies, especially during the winter season.

Chapter 9 : Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

- A.** 1. (ii); 2. (ii); 3. (i); 4. (iv); 5. (i)
- B.** 1. Temperate Evergreen; 2. Coniferous; 3. Tundra region; 4. deserts; 5. habitats
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (T); 3. (F); 4. (T); 5. (F)
- D.** 1. (iii); 2. (iv); 3. (v); 4. (ii); 5. (i)
- E.** 1. These are also known as taiga and are located in a broad belt between 50°N to 70°N latitudes.
 - 2. Cold deserts also support some wildlife. Animals have thick skin or fur to protect them from cold. Polar bears, walruses, seals, Arctic foxes, reindeer, etc., are found in the polar regions
 - 3. Habitat is a natural home or environment of an animal, plant or other organism.
 - 4. Temperate Evergreen forests are having trees which retain their leaves cover throughout the year.
- F.** 1. All the plant life growing naturally at a place is known as natural vegetation.
 - 2. Tropical evergreen forests have a thick growth of trees because of hot and humid climate.
 - 3. The climatic changes which occur in the higher altitudes are responsible for variation in the types of vegetation in the highlands. One can find a succession of the vegetation from the

tropical to the alpine types in mountains.

4. The animals in the hot deserts use different ways to survive in the hot and dry climate. Mostly there are small animals except the camel. They can live without water for sometime. Some of them live in burrows.

G. 1. Mediterranean Forests

These are found on the western margins of the continents, mostly in the temperate region in both the hemispheres. In these areas the summer season is dry. There is moderate rainfall, about 80 cm during the winter season. Most of the trees of these forests have broad leaves, long roots and thick barks. These trees can withstand the dry summer conditions without shedding their leaves. Trees are widely spaced and have shrubs between them. The main trees found in the Mediterranean forests are oaks, olives, figs, pines, firs, cedars, cypresses, etc. Nuts, olive oil, citrus fruits and cork are some of the products from these forests.

2. Desert Vegetation

Deserts, found in the tropical and sub-tropical areas are known for high temperatures and extremely low rainfall. Generally short shrubs occur in patches. The small trees have thorns, thick stems, long roots and wax- coated leaves. These features prevent the loss of moisture. The main plants are cacti, thorny bushes and coarse grasses. Acacia trees are also found in the margins of the tropical deserts.

Tundra Vegetation

This type of vegetation is found around the North Pole in Eurasia and North America. This is a treeless area with very harsh climatic conditions. The winters are long and cold while the summers are short and relatively cool. The tundra region is fairly dry. In fact, this region is sometimes called the cold polar desert. Most of the plants are relatively small and grow close to the ground. Even the trees, which are found in the beds of lakes and streams, are small. The main vegetation of tundra region is mosses,

3. A forest is a suitable and natural habitat for the animals. Many types of animals, birds, insects and reptiles dwell in forests.

Most of the animals living in tropical forests live on trees and move accordingly. There are monkeys, apes, sloths, bats, flying squirrels, tree lizards, lemurs, etc. There are turtles, crocodiles, alligators and snakes in rivers and swamps. Hippopotamuses are also found in Africa.

Animals living in the temperate forests are almost similar but their species are less. Their routine life is mostly influenced by seasonal changes.

4. **Tropical Deciduous Forests**

These are found in the monsoon region of Asia, parts of Central America, Brazil and northern Australia. These forests are also known as monsoon forests. The trees in this region are less luxuriant due to the distinct dry season. The chief characteristic of deciduous vegetation is that the trees shed their leaves during a particular season. These forests have a thick undergrowth of small trees and shrubs and dense thickets of bamboos. Sal, teak, palm, sandalwood, shisham, bamboo, etc. are some of the valuable trees found in these forests. The mangrove trees are found in the swamps and delta regions. The tropical deciduous forests are being destroyed to fulfill the never ending demand of the people.

Coniferous Forests

These are also known as taiga and are located in a broad belt between 50°N to 70°N latitudes. Such forests are also found in the higher altitudes. This belt is around the north polar region. Coniferous trees are tall, straight, evergreen with narrow needle like leaves. Most of the trees have softwood and are light in weight. Although, there is a wide variety of species in the spruce, pine, fir and larch families, the trees usually occur in pure stands consisting of one particular species.

Chapter 10 : Human Settlement, Transport and Communication

- A. 1. (ii); 2. (i); 3. (ii); 4. (ii); 5. (ii)
- B. 1. in the forest or natural vegetation; 2. Dry; 3. Camels; 4. Atlantic and Pacific Ocean; 5. Internet
- C. 1. (F); 2. (T); 3. (F); 4. (T); 5. (T)
- D. 1. (iv); 2. (i); 3. (v); 4. (ii); 5. (iii)
- E. 1. **Transhumance** : It is the way of life of forest people like the Bakarwals of Kashmir.
2. Such settlements which grow around watercourses like river banks or sea coasts, are called Wet Point Settlement.
3. Today expressways, which have about six lanes, are meant for fast road transport.
4. Other types of fast trains are Monorails, as seen in Germany.
- F. 1. There are three categories of nomads :

- (i) Hunter-gatherers (ii) Transhumance (iii) Gypsies
- 2. Farming allowed humans to form permanent settlements and abandon their nomadic ways.
- 3. Topography plays an important role in the establishment of settlements. The area with plain topology always acts as a great facility for habilitation.
- 4. The significance of inland trade for a nation is that it helps in the facilitation of exchange of goods inside the nation.

G. 1. Reasons for Development of Settled Habitations

The following factors played significant role in the development of settlements:

- (i) Introduction of farming and invention of tools helped man to choose permanent sites for settlements.
 - (ii) Topography or surface features of the land. The terrain of a region influences construction of houses, roads, etc.
 - (iii) Availability of resources for living, such as clean air and water, fruits, vegetables or even animals to hunt for food.
 - (iv) Development of culture and surplus agricultural produce led to quest for higher standards of living.
 - (v) Marriage, kinship, and the security of family and tribe were some of the major attractions of settled life.
 - (vi) They began to use the river as natural pathway for their movement. After constructing boats, they began to carry themselves as well as goods using the river as a medium of transport.
 - (vii) Climatic changes, which took place between 10,000 and 7,000 years ago, forced people to move to better locations. For example, the Sahara in Africa was an area of dense vegetation some 8000-7000 years ago. When it turned into a desert, the people who lived there migrated to other continents.
2. The main features of transport and communication networks are the following:
- (i) It facilitates movement of people and goods from one place to another.
 - (ii) It improves and influences social and economic interaction among people.
 - (iii) It leads to more economic activities which, in turn, lead to development and growth of settlements.

- (iv) Means of communication such as radio and television enrich people's lives by providing facilities for entertainment.
 - (v) They provide convenient services to people, for example, door-to-door services by the railways.
 - (vi) They play a crucial role in integrating diverse cultures, religions and beliefs of people and unites them as a nation, for example, railways during India's Freedom Movement.
 - (vii) They play a crucial role in raising the living standards of people by providing employment and better services.
 - (viii) In many cases, better means of transport have controlled the costs of goods and services. For example, pipelines have made transportation of many liquids and gases convenient and comparatively cheap.
3. The roadways have many advantages over the railways.
- (i) Construction cost of roads is much lower than railway lines.
 - (ii) Roads can be constructed easily in hilly terrains and undulating topography.
 - (iii) Roadways act as a feeder to other modes of transport, as they provide a link between railway stations, air and sea ports.
 - (iv) Road transport provides a faster and less costly means of transporting goods over short distances.
4. Postal communication by using postal stationery articles like postcards, envelopes, etc., is only about 160 years ago. Sending messages by carrier pigeons, runners or horse/stage coach services developed many centuries ago, in China, Persia, Greece and Rome. The first telecommunication device was the telegraph. It was developed in the USA by Samuel Morse, who also developed the Morse Code in the 1830s.

Alexander Graham Bell, in 1876, with his invention of telephone, ushered in a revolution. All the telephone lines in an area meet at the telephone exchange. This system was later used to link not only telephones but also fax machines and home computers. The first Internet service providers used the standard telephone to link computers via a modem.

Later, when mobile telephones without cable links were invented, they used the same principle as used in standard telephones. Instead of wires, radio waves are used to transmit signals between one cell and another. The cellular exchange then directs the message between caller and receiver. If one party is using a landline, a special cellular switching station redirects calls into the cellular phone network.

The Internet, a vast computer network, connects computers globally via telephone lines. Two major developments are e-mail and World Wide Web (www). While e-mail is a receiving-cum-transmission system, the Web is an information gathering-cum-storage system. A new, bigger, much faster Internet is already in its experimental stages.

The system of communication has made the world a safer and much more interconnected due to the advancement and growth of mass media and audiovisual communication.

Chapter 11 : State Government

- A. 1. (i); 2. (ii); 3. (iii); 4. (i); 5. (ii)
- B. 1. Governor; 2. 3. lower; 4. Governor; 5. Money
- C. 1. (F); 2. (F); 3. (T); 4. (T); 5. (T)
- D. 1. (v); 2. (iii); 3. (iv); 4. (ii); 5. (i)
- E. 1. In most of the states, there is Unicameral Legislature, i.e., one that has only one popular chamber, known as Legislative Assembly
2. **Quorum** : It is necessary that one-tenth members of the total members of the Legislative Assembly must be present to run the proceedings of the Legislative Assembly.
3. Ordinance is an order or rule made by a government or somebody in a position of authority .
4. Each state has an official called the Advocate-General who advises the Executive on legal matters and performs other legal functions assigned by the Governor.
- F. 1. There are 6 states in India having bicameral Ragislature– Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Telangana, Bihar, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh.
2. 1. He is the executive head of the state government. All executive actions of the state are taken in his name.
2. He appoints the Chief Minister and on his advice, other Council of Minister are appointed.
3. He appoints the Advocate General, Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.
3. Article 164(2) states that “The state’s legislative Assembly is the responsibility of the council of Ministers.”
4. The objective of land reforms is to give ownership of land rights to the landless and security of land holdings to marginal and small farmers.

G. 1. Powers and Functions of the Governor

The functions and powers of the Governor may be discussed under the following heads.

Executive Powers

1. He is the executive head of the state government. All executive actions of the state are taken in his name.
2. He appoints the Chief Minister and on his advice, other Council of Ministers are appointed.
3. He appoints the Advocate General, Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.

Legislative Powers

1. The first session after the general election begins with the address of the Governor.
2. He summons and prorogues the sessions of the State Legislature. He can also dissolve the state Vidhan Sabha.
3. Every year, the first session of the State Legislature begins with the Governor's address.
4. The bills passed by the State Legislature are subject to his assent.
5. In case the Legislature is not in session, he may promulgate an ordinance to meet the requirement of the situation.
6. He has the power to address the state legislature and to send written messages to it.

Judicial Powers

He possesses the power of granting pardon to persons convicted by the courts of law or remitting or commuting their sentences, provided the offence falls within the executive competence of the State Government.

Position of the Governor

The functions and powers of the Governor are vast in the sphere of state administration. He is not only the head of the state, but agent of the Central Government. His position has been summed up in the following words: "Governor is the constitutional head of his state just as the President is of the union".

2. Formation of the Council of Ministers

After the completion of Legislative Assembly elections, the task of the formation of the government starts. The leader of the majority party is invited by the Governor to form the Government. He is sworn in as the Chief Minister.

Like the President of India, the Governor also has certain discretionary powers in the matter. They may be called into play only when no political party has clear majority behind it. The appointment of the State Council of Ministers is also made by the Governor in consultation with the Chief Minister.

3. **Powers and Functions of the Chief Minister**

The real control of the state government rests with the Chief Minister and the Council of Ministers. The following powers of the Chief Minister make this point clear:

1. **Formation of the Council of Ministers**

The ministers are appointed by the state governor on the recommendation of the Chief Minister.

2. **Distribution of Portfolios**

He distributes portfolios among the ministers and supervises their work. He has the right to reshuffle their portfolios as well.

3. **Removal of Ministers**

The Chief Minister can remove any minister if he is not satisfied with his work.

4. **Presides over the Meetings of the Council**

He summons the meetings of the Council and presides over them. He also decides the agenda of the meetings.

5. **Link between the Governor and the Council of Ministers**

He is the main link between the Council and the Governor. It is his constitutional obligation to communicate all decisions of the Council of Ministers to the Governor.

6. **Chief Spokesman of the Government**

He is the chief spokesman of the government. He is authorised to issue statements on State Policy.

7. **Chief Adviser of the Governor**

He is the chief adviser of the Governor on matters of state administration.

8. **Appointments**

All those major appointments which are technically made by the Governor are, in reality, made on the recommendation of the Chief Minister.

4. The Central Government has taken the following steps related to land reform:

- The Right to Property has been deleted from the list of

fundamental rights.

- The Constitution has been amended many times to remove legal hurdles to land reform.
- Each Five-Year Plan has emphasised the need for land reform and laid down policy guidelines to ensure the same.
- Land is a 'state' subject. Hence, state governments were directed to introduce agricultural land ceiling acts, limit the size of landholdings, and redistribute excess land among landless and marginal farmers.
- Three major types of land reform have been enacted after Independence in India.
- The abolition of intermediaries.
- Regulation of the size of holding through the imposition of ceilings on landholdings and redistribution, or through land consolidation.
- Settlement and regulation of tenancy.

Chapter 12 : Understanding Media

- A.** 1. (iv); 2. (i); 3. (i); 4. (iv); 5. (ii)
- B.** 1. press; 2. public opinion; 3. breaking news; 4. Information; 5. newspaper
- C.** 1. (T); 2. (T); 3. (T); 4. (F); 5. (T)
- D.** 1. (iii); 2. (i); 3. (i); 4. (v); 5. (iv)
- E.** 1. The act of sharing or exchanging information, idea or feelings is called communications.
Communication is defined as "the passing of ideas, information, and attitudes from person to person".
2. Parivartan founded by Arvind Kejriwal, is a Delhi based citizen's movement trying to ensure a just, transparent and accountable governance.
3. It is the cheapest and most common form of publicity.
4. It is also known as Point of Purchase (POP) or promotional advertising. Its main objective is to impact the customers at the point of purchase itself, allowing them to see and examine the article.
- G.** 1. Mass media plays a significant role in shaping the working of a democracy. These means of mass communication include newspapers, films radio and television.

2. Censorship was imposed on the Indian press by the colonial government to tide down the spirit of nationalism amongst the masses.
3. sponsor is a person or a company that pays for a radio or television programme, or for a concert or sporting event, usually in return for advertising.
4. (i) It creates awareness about living standard.
(ii) It can adversely affect the public psyche.

- H. 1.** Mass media plays a significant role in shaping the working of a democracy. These means of mass communication include newspapers, films radio and television. Of these, the newspaper is the oldest medium, having come into being in some countries not long after the invention of printing. Rest are new and are products of modern technology. Today online newspapers are almost as popular as printed ones. Today's newspaper uses a vast array of technological tools, both in terms of news or information gathering, transmission as well as printing.

The new communications and mass media have had a deep impact on the society in every part of the world. They have created new types of consumerism, new occupations, new art forms, and new ways of influencing and even controlling people. The mass audience-the recipients of information-that they have created, is an entirely new phenomenon in human history. The mass media are equally forms of mass entertainment.

These developments have brought the world closer in terms of ideas, information and attitudes. This is similar to the process by which developments in transport shrank and brought the peoples of the world closer. The mass media have also created problems for which solutions have to be found.

2. Media plays an important role in democracy as it provides news and discusses events taking place around the country and all over the world. It also acts as a watchdog to the conduct of the government by :
 - Criticising the unpopular policies and programs that the government undertakes.
 - Highlighting and even to a certain extent, influencing public opinion.
 - Acknowledging several current issues.
 - Spreading awareness among the general masses.
3. The Right to Information (RTI) Act (2005) is meant to empower

the public to seek performance-related information from the government, and to collect data to help them prove the administration's incompetence, cupidity or apathy. The movement has been gradually gathering momentum in different parts of the country.

Power without accountability is always sweeter than power with responsibility for the individual enjoying it. But it is a disaster for any democratic system. The RTI movement is not for or against particular individuals. It simply aims at making the system more efficient. The Act has already chalked up an impressive record of successful outcomes, where justice has been awarded to officials who failed to furnish the information asked for within the stipulated time. The need for accountability has thus been reinforced as never before, and may be construed as a milestone on the path to a more effective democracy.

The Right to Information Act (2005) has proved to be a boon across communities, professions and issues in bringing to light a host of social ills or bureaucratic lapses, while also exposing several unhealthy practices in governance. Its activities typically include support for the inclusion of media in law school syllabi, and even activation of laws lying dormant in the statute books, etc. These all will go a long way towards creating a healthy media-governance interface, and a better deal for the common man.

4. This is the era of consumerism. In a modern capitalistic society, the consumer is king. Knowledge of consumer rights, which promote protection of consumers, is called consumer awareness. Millions of products are churned out to cater to the preference of consumers. Markets are full of domestic goods as well as foreign commodities. This promotes free trade, a globalised economy and cross border amity. A lot of money is being spent by producers or marketing companies on advertisements. Advertisements inform people about new products on the market shelves, in order to create demand.

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