

HISTORY AND CIVICS

MATRICULATION

STANDARD

10

Untouchability is a Sin
Untouchability is a Crime
Untouchability is Inhuman



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PREFACE

History is one of the most fascinating subjects taught in the school curriculum. It is not a lifeless summary of past events but an inspiring record of humanity's achievements.

The teachers of History have to inspire patriotism in the minds of pupils and create an eagerness to acquire a wealth of knowledge through the study of history. They have to train the young minds to have a cosmopolitan outlook through a study of the intellectual growth and development of humanity since ancient times. Once the importance of the subject is implanted in the formative minds of the pupils, they will vividly look forward to History classes.

We have taken utmost care to prepare the lessons according to the latest revised syllabus of the Matriculation Board for class X in the subject History and Civics. Great effort has been made to present the matter in a simple and lucid style. The maps, pictures and suggested activities would further enliven the pupils. Since most of the students know how to use the computer as learning aid, we have given internet site URLs to aid the children to know more.

- Authors

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HISTORY

UNIT – I IMPERIALISM

CHAPTER – 1 IMPERIALISM

MEANING

The term *Imperialism* denotes control or rule by a country over the political and economic life of another country, outside its borders. It means extending a country's powers over another country through military or other means. The policy adopted by the European countries from 1492 to 1763 is known as *Colonialism*. During this period England, France, Spain, and Portugal established colonies in the Asian and American continents. From 1763 to 1870 the European countries were involved in a number of wars and unification movements. After 1870 all the European countries including Germany, Italy and Belgium began to establish their political and economic powers in Africa and Asia. This policy of imperialism followed by European countries from 1870 to 1945 is known as *New Imperialism*. USA and Japan also joined the race, adopting the imperialist policy.

POLITICAL IMPERIALISM

Political imperialism refers to building of an empire under a powerful power, through conquest of other countries by military force. Thus a country, which is militarily, politically and economically powerful, conquers a less powerful, weaker country. It annexes the weaker one and makes it a colony. Political control is then established upon her colony by the mother country, which attempts to impose her political ideologies and institutions upon it. An outstanding example of this kind of imperialism is the British imperialism in India.

The Industrial Revolution led to economic imperialism or '*neo-imperialism*'. In this case, the industrially advanced countries economically exploited the regions that were rich in raw materials. These regions were also used as markets for their finished products and for

investment of surplus capital. This kind of economic imperialism was imposed by England, France, Italy, Germany, and the U.S.A. upon China. Though China was politically independent and sovereign under the Manchu rule, it was economically dominated by these European and American countries.

CAUSES FOR THE RISE OF IMPERIALISM

Various causes which contributed to the rise of Imperialism, are given below.

a) The Economic causes

The *foremost* were the *economic factors*. The Industrial Revolution created a great need for raw materials. Asia and Africa seemed to contain most of the raw materials such as rubber, tin, petroleum, cotton, silk, vegetable oils and rare minerals.

Owing to the Industrial Revolution, Great Britain, Germany and other European nations, began to produce *surplus goods* for which they *required markets abroad*. Asia as well as Africa served this purpose well.

There was *excessive surplus capital in the industrialized countries*, which was invested in foreign lands. Political control over these lands would thus act as a guarantee of security of their investments.

The Industrial Revolution introduced great progress in the means of transport and communication. Ocean liners could carry heavy articles like manganese ore from any part of the world. The telegraph linked the whole world and reduced great distances. The development of railways speeded the movement of goods between colonies and the mother country.

Some parts of Africa and the Far East served as valuable naval bases and ports of call, for trade, commerce and investment.

b) The Political causes

The *activities of political groups and intellectuals*, who desired to ensure national security and self-sufficiency, instigated colonial imperialism. Often, Presidents or Prime Ministers worked towards colonial imperialism owing to the influence of business or some other interest.

Some stress that states are motivated to expand primarily by the desire for power, prestige, security, and diplomatic advantages. Late 19th-century French imperialism was intended to restore France's international prestige

after its humiliating defeat in the Franco-Prussian War. Similarly, Soviet expansion into Eastern Europe after 1945 can be understood in terms of security needs, specifically the need to protect the nation from another invasion across its western border.

c) Ideological or Moral causes

A third set of explanations focuses on ideological or moral motives. According to this perspective, political, cultural, or religious beliefs, force states into imperialism as a “missionary activity.” There was an inner *urge to spread Christianity* among Christian European nations. Both Catholic and Protestant missionaries went to the colonies to convert non-believers into Christians. Britain’s colonial empire was motivated at least in part by the idea that it was the “white man’s burden” to civilize “backward” people. Germany’s expansion under Hitler was based in large measure on a belief in the inherent superiority of German national culture. The desire of the U.S. to “protect the free world” and of the former Soviet Union to “liberate” the people of Eastern Europe and the Third World are also examples of imperialism driven by moral and ideological concerns.

A strong motive for imperialism was the *spirit of national pride and prestige*. The British Empire had set the precedent that it was essential to have colonies in order to become a world power. Hence both Germany and Italy entered the colonial race.

d) Reactive Motive or Neo Imperialism

The activities of explorers and adventurers like De *Brazza* in Equatorial Africa, and the German *Karl Peters* in East Africa, helped to promote the new wave of imperialism. They explored the interior of the continents and paved the way for traders and soldiers to exploit the abundant wealth of the countries.

The *expansion of population* also contributed to the spread of imperialism. This was further aided by the periodical recurrence of unemployment, which compelled millions of Europeans to emigrate, in search of new homes and careers abroad.

There was *international anarchy*. Every nation was free to do what it pleased, because of the lack of any international machinery to enact laws for nations and force them to respect such laws. This state of affairs encouraged the colonial race.

Finally, some explanations of imperialism focus not on the motives of powerful states but rather on the political circumstances in weaker states. The British conquest of India and the Russian colonization of Central Asia in the 19th century are classic examples of reactive imperialism.

Thus various factors and forces were working towards the spread of imperialism in different countries.

FORMS AND TECHNIQUES OF IMPERIALISM

Several forms and techniques were adopted by modern imperialism in order to establish itself.

1. Conquest and Annexation

In the early modern times, the Spaniards, the Frenchmen and the British used to send soldiers to distant lands. They overpowered the native chiefs, annexed the conquered lands and made them a colony. Outright conquest and annexation proved to be expensive and burdensome.

2. Leasehold

When the exclusive right to exploit some economic resources was accompanied with the grant of lease of a stretch of territory and the actual exercise of political control over it, it was called a leasehold. For example the German Empire acquired such leasehold of ninety-nine years over a part of the Shantung Peninsula in China.

3. Sphere of Influence and Sphere of Interest

When a state acquires an exclusive or even a preferential right to exploit and develop a backward region economically, and claims that other states have no right or claim to establish any form of control over it, it was called the Sphere of influence. This was the method adopted in China, by the European countries.

4. Protectorate

Protectorate means an indirect exercise of political control by a powerful nation, over a weak and backward region through a native puppet ruler. For example in 1912, France established a protectorate over Morocco.

5. Financial or Tariff Control

Economic imperialism could assume the form of financial or tariff control. Thus, the powerful nation could take over the complete charge of

the finances of a weak and backward region, or its tariff system. Before World War I, the Turkish finances were actually run by the Ottoman Public Debt Administration, an organization composed of mainly European officials.

6. The Mandate System

This was the last form of the new imperialism. It emerged at the Paris Peace Conference, at the suggestion of General Jan Smuts of South Africa. Most of the former colonies and other weak and backward regions were assigned to the League of Nations. The League delegated its authority, subject to some restrictions, to various states as its agents or “mandatories.”

EXERCISES

PART – A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. China was politically independent under the _____ rule.
a) British b) Manchu c) French
2. The German Empire leased part of Shantung Peninsula in China for _____ years.
a) 100 b) 99 c) 97
3. France established a protectorate over Morocco in _____.
a) 1920 b) 1917 c) 1912
4. After 1870 all the European nations started to establish their political powers in _____.
a) America and Asia b) South Africa and Asia
c) Africa and Asia
5. The European countries adopted _____ method in China.
a) Mandatories b) Spheres of Influence c) colonialism

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. What did Industrial Revolution lead to?
2. What need was created by the Industrial revolution?
3. Which two countries seemed to contain most of the raw materials?
4. What was the inner urge among the European nations?
5. When did the Mandate system emerge?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Karl Peters | a) 1492 – 1763 |
| 2. De Brazza | b) 1870-1945 |
| 3. Gen.Jan Smut | c) Equatorial Africa |
| 4. New Imperialism | d) East Africa |
| 5. Colonialism | e) Mandatory system. |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Political Imperialism
 - a) What is Political imperialism?
 - b) Give an example for this type of imperialism.
 - c) Why did the industrially advanced countries exploit these regions?
 - d) Which countries imposed economic imperialism?
 - e) Who dominated China?
2. Reactive Motive or Neo Imperialism
 - a) Who were the adventures and explorers to promote new wave of imperialism?
 - b) What did the exploration of the adventurers pave the way for?
 - c) What also contributed to the spread of imperialism?
 - d) Why did millions of Europeans emigrate?
 - e) Give examples of reactive imperialism.
3. Forms and techniques of Imperialism
 - a) In the early modern times which countries sent the soldiers to distant lands?
 - b) What is a leasehold?
 - c) What is a Sphere of Influence?
 - d) What is meant by Protectorate?
 - e) Who was actually running the Turkish finances?

PART – C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Discuss the causes of Imperialism.
2. What were the several forms and techniques adopted by modern imperialism?

ACTIVITY

1. Visit the URL given below to learn more about Imperialism.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1902hobson.html>.

CHAPTER – 2

IMPERIALISM IN ASIA AND AFRICA

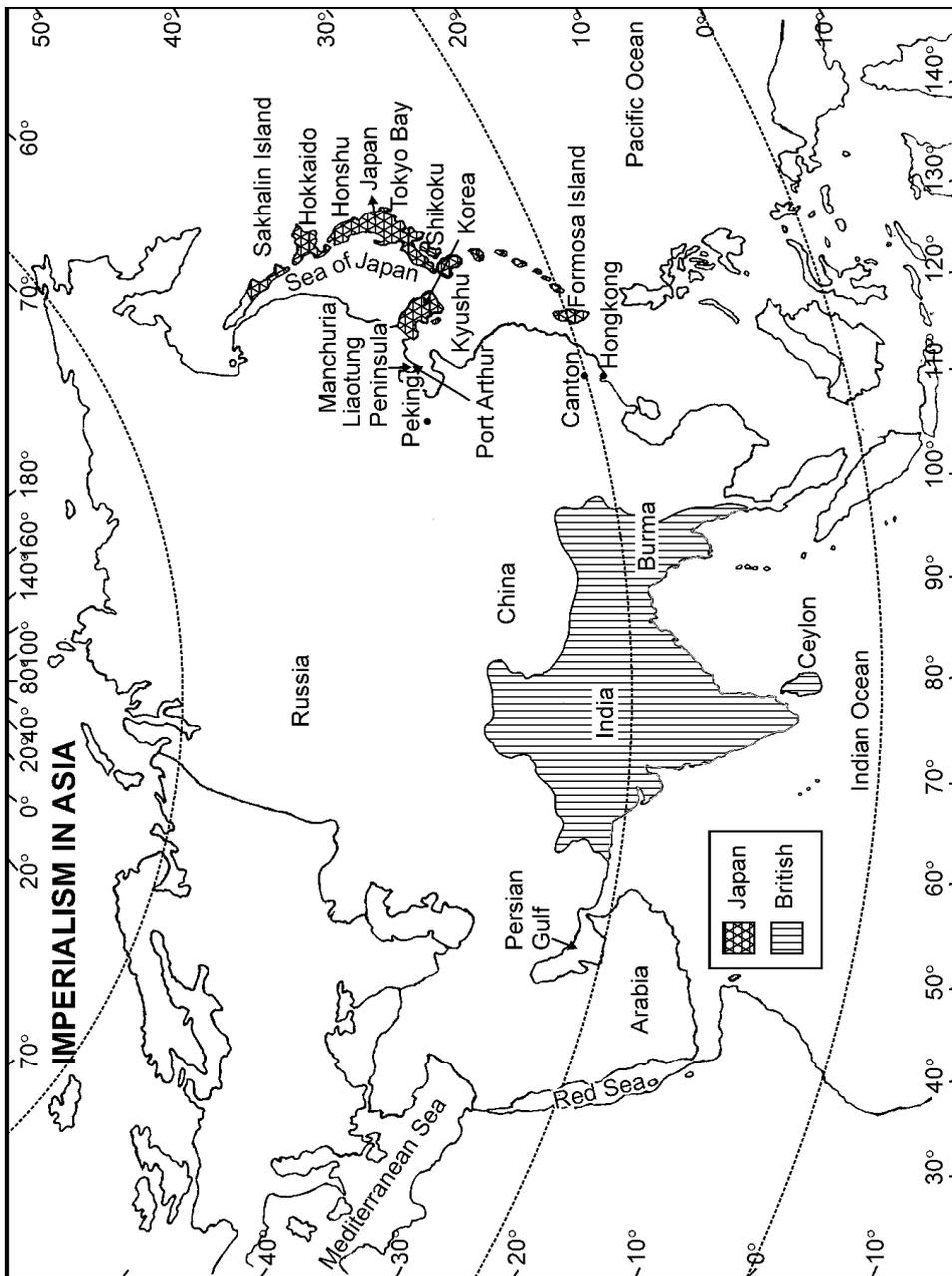
The European countries were importing spices, silk, muslin, ivory etc. from Asian countries. The demand for these products increased and European countries wanted to ensure regular supply of these goods. So taking advantage of the chaotic conditions in Asian countries, England, France, Portugal and Holland tried to establish their colonies in Asia.

IMPERIALISM IN INDIA

The English East India Company was formed in 1600. It obtained permission from the Mughal Emperor Jahangir to trade in India. The French East India company was established in 1664 by Colbert, a minister of Louis XIV. There was a power struggle between these two companies which resulted in the *Carnatic Wars* in Deccan. After the battles of Plassey and Buxar, Bengal came under the rule of the English. The French East India company was ousted from India by 1763. Taking advantage of the rivalry of the native rulers, the English acquired more and more territories in India. Lord Wellesley by his *Subsidiary Alliance* and Lord Dalhousie by his *Doctrine of Lapse* acquired many places in India. In 1857 the Indians revolted against the English East India company's rule. But this revolt was crushed and the East India Company's rule ended. The British Crown took over the administration of the territories. This was effected by Queen Victoria's Proclamation. India continued under the British rule till her independence in 1947.



Fig. 2.1 Colbert



IMPERIALISM IN CHINA

Chinese Civilization is one of the oldest in the world. China consisted of five regions - *China Proper, Manchuria, Mongolia, Sinkiang and Tibet*. Different empires rose and fell but it had a stable society and continuous history. In 1644, the Manchu kings, who belonged to Manchuria, conquered China and continued to rule China till 1912. They created a strong military organization.

Attitude of the Chinese towards the Foreigners

Chinese did not have close contact with the outside world. So they considered themselves the most civilized and most superior to the Europeans. Chinese considered trade an inferior occupation and traders were looked down upon with contempt. The other Asian invaders adopted the Chinese customs, while the Europeans refused to adopt Chinese customs. So the Europeans were not favoured by the Chinese. The Jesuits were the first to reach China to preach Christianity. The Portuguese reached China in 1516 to establish trade. Later the Dutch, English, Americans and other European powers reached China. Since the Chinese illtreated the foreigners, there were conflicts between them. So trade was restricted to the city of Canton from 1757 by the Chinese emperor.

Conflicts between the Chinese and the Foreigners

The European powers felt that they were not allowed to trade freely. The Chinese felt that the Europeans smuggled opium into China and disturbed the peace of the country. This led to further conflicts. The English were the main traders with Chinese and they decided to resort to war to settle the issue. In 1840 the well known *First Opium War* or *Anglo – Chinese War* started between the English and the Chinese. The Chinese had neither an organized army nor a strong navy. So they were easily defeated. By the *Treaty of Nanking*, China gave the island of *Hongkong* and a war indemnity to Britain. She also opened five ports for the English trade. The other European powers followed suit and got more concessions from China. The *Second Opium War* in which also China was defeated in 1856, forced China to legalise import of opium and open more ports.

Taiping and Boxer Rebellions

The Chinese rose in rebellion against the Manchu kings as well as the foreigners in 1854, to take revenge for their defeat. This is known as *Taiping*

Rebellion. But this was quickly suppressed. But the Manchu rule deteriorated. When China was defeated by Japan in *Sino Japanese war* in 1894, China gave the island of Formosa to Japan. Empress *Tzu-Hsi* who was known as Old Buddha, decided to avert the public wrath against her by inciting the youth to rebel against the foreign powers in 1899. This is known as Boxer Rebellion. The youth attacked European settlements and Christian missionaries. The combined army of the foreign powers defeated the Boxers and marched to Peking, the capital. Empress Tzu – Hsi fled the capital. The United States of America and England formulated the *Open Door Policy*. The Chinese territories were partitioned among the foreign powers for trade rights. Thus China became an international colony. This partitioning of China into different trade zones is called “*Cutting of the Chinese Melon*”.



Fig. 2.2 CIXI (Tzu-Hsi)

IMPERIALISM OF JAPAN

Shogunate Rule and Discontent of People

Till the Second World War Japan did not come under the control of any foreign power. Japan was ruled by Shoguns or military rulers. They closed Japan for the entry of any foreign power. In the later years the Shogunate rulers became weak and their rule deteriorated slowly. They taxed the peasants heavily and farmers were discontented.

Opening of Ports and Meiji Restoration

Many attempts were made by foreign powers to open trade with Japan. Especially the United States of America was interested in opening trade ports in Japan. The long journey across the Pacific was difficult. They wanted to break journey at the Japanese ports and take supplies. In 1853 an American fleet came to Japan with a letter from the American President. But Japan refused to allow them to enter the port. In 1854, *Commodore Mathew C. Perry* arrived at *Tokyo Bay* with a large fleet and threatened to destroy

the port. The Shoguns agreed to open two ports. Soon other European powers, England, Russia, and Netherlands also made treaties with Shoguns.

This opening of ports to foreign powers made Shoguns unpopular. The people rose in rebellion against both Shoguns and foreigners. This agitation led to the fall of Shogunate empire. *Mikado*(emperor) was restored to full power. This is called Meiji Restoration. Thus the dual rule of Shoguns and dummy kings was abolished. Tokugawa Shogunate, the last Shogunate was abolished in 1868. The Mikado who was restored to power was *Mutsuhito*. His reign from 1868 to 1912 is known as *Meiji Era* or *Enlightened Government*.

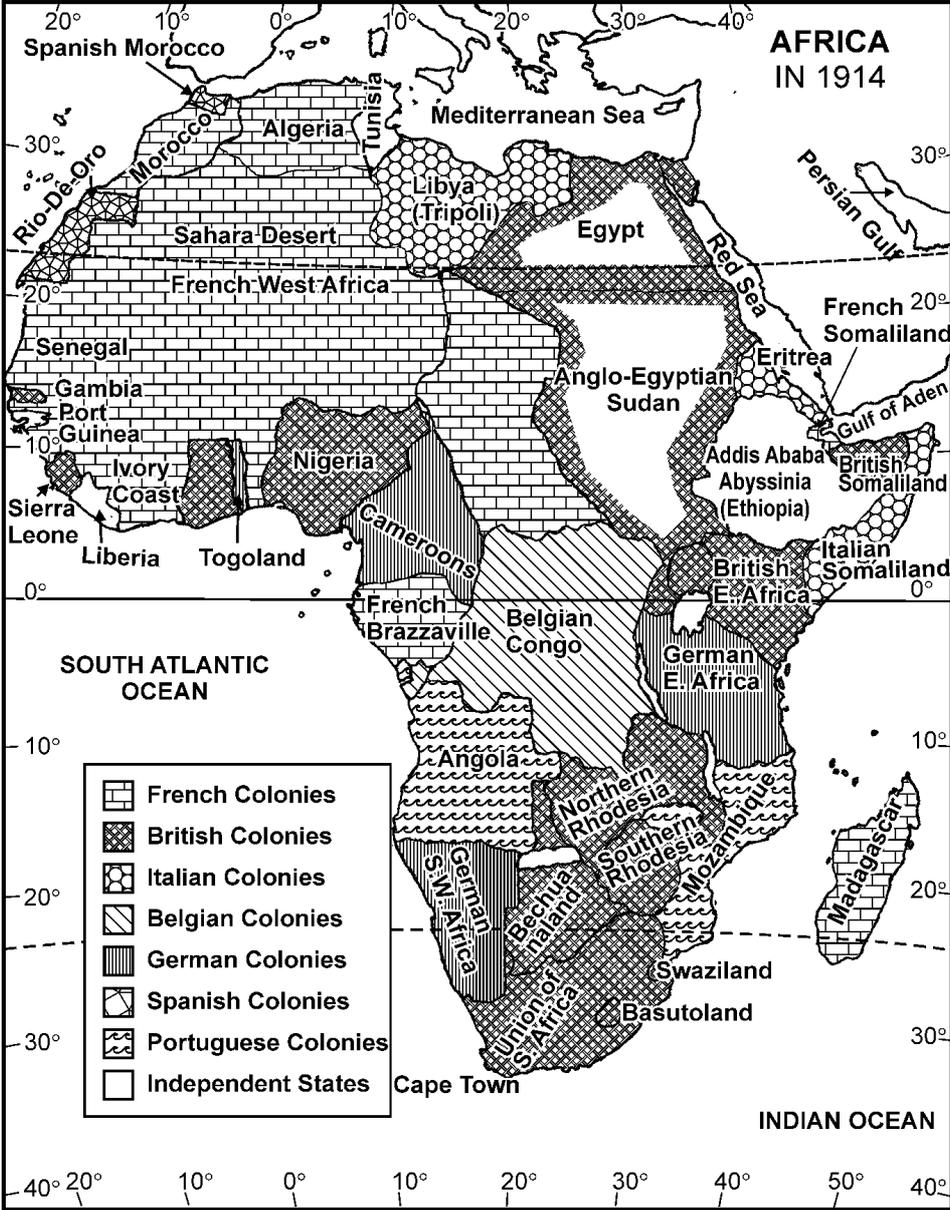
During this era, Japan forged ahead in all respects. It adopted western civilization and became an industrial nation. She started on the policy of expansion for her increasing production. The Korean kings recognized the suzerainty of China. They also used to send missions to Japan with gifts for Japanese kings. Japan feared that Russia would establish its rule over Korea taking advantage of China's weakness. So in 1894 Japan thrust a treaty on Korea declaring it to be an independent country. It also sent a force to reform Korea. Korea protested and asked China for help. So Japan attacked Korea and defeated the Chinese army on land as well as on sea. China conceded defeat and concluded the *Treaty of Shimonoseki* by which she gave Formosa to Japan and paid a huge war indemnity.

Russia taking advantage of this, advanced into Manchuria. Russia also got Port Arthur from China which was given back by Japan. So Japan was having a grudge against Russia. Russia constructed a railway line from Moscow to Port Arthur. So Japan declared war against Russia in 1905. The strange fact was that the *Russo Japanese war* was fought on the Chinese soil. A Japanese fleet led by *Admiral Togo* destroyed a Russian fleet of 45 ships. President Theodore Roosevelt of America mediated and the *Treaty of Portsmouth* was signed between Russia and Japan. Japan got the Liaotung Peninsula, Port Arthur and parts of Sakalin Island. Later Japan conquered Korea also.

After this victory Japan became a world power and was called the *Britain of the east*. Japan embarked on a policy of imperialist conquests.

IMPERIALISM IN AFRICA

Several European explorers inaugurated the European penetration into the "Dark Continent." The most prominent among them were:



1. *David Livingstone*, a Scottish physician, who went to Africa in 1840, as a Protestant missionary.

2. *Henry Stanley* an Anglo-American journalist who went in search of David Livingstone.
3. *Karl Peters*, a German student of British colonial activities.
4. An Englishman *Cecil Rhodes*, an outstanding African 'Empire-builder.' Further, Baker, Burton, Grant and Speke explored the courses of the four great rivers the Nile, the Niger, the Congo and the Zambezi. Henry



Fig. 2.3 David Livingstone



Fig. 2.4 Cecil Rhodes

Stanley also described these explorations in his books: *How I found Livingstone*, *Through the Dark Continent* and *In Darkest Africa*.

King Leopold II of Belgium organized in 1878, a private commercial company, under the name the *International Africa (Congo) Association*. He was the president and the chief stockholder. The purpose of the purchase of Congo land was for the exploitation of rubber resources. The king then secured international sanction, at the Berlin conference (1884-1885) for transforming the Company's lands into the Congo Free State, with himself as its personal sovereign. He earned great profits in this undertaking. By 1908, the government of Belgium took over the Congo Free State as a Belgian colony, on payment of liberal financial compensation to Leopold II.

Many European nations such as Portugal, Spain, Italy, France and Germany entered a race to acquire lands in Africa, owing to its valuable resources.

1. *Portugal* established its hold over the province of Angola, to the South of the Belgian Congo. It also founded the colony of Mozambique, which came to be known as Portuguese East Africa.
2. *Spain* acquired Morocco, the Canary Island, islands on the Guinea Coast, Rio Muni, and Rio de Oro.
3. In 1889, *Italy* acquired the small territories of Eritrea and Somaliland, on the East Coast of Africa. It also acquired Tripoli (capital of Libiya) and Cyrenaica, by defeating Turkey in 1911-1912.
4. France established a protectorate over Tunis in 1881 as well as over Morocco. On the West Coast of Africa, Senegal was already under the control of France. It conquered Upper Nigeria in 1882 and in 1896, she acquired the island of Madagascar. The French also carved out a big state in the Congo Valley, under the name - the French Congo.
5. England acquired the Cape Colony in South Africa. In 1875, Disraeli, the Prime Minister of England purchased 176,000 shares of the Suez Canal Company from Ismail Pasha of Egypt, with the idea of securing dominant control over the hundred-mile long Suez Canal. England established a protectorate over Egypt.
6. In 1884, Karl Peters of Germany acquired Eastern African lands, which took the shape of Africa, lying between British Uganda and British Rhodesia. The *Germans* established two other protectorates, namely (a) Cameroons on the South of the Congo and (b) Togoland.

The Boer Wars in South Africa

The Boers opposed the British rule in the Cape Colony, especially after 1833, when the British government made slavery illegal in the Cape Colony. This forced the Boers to emigrate from the Cape Colony. *Piet Retief* and his followers established the Republic of Natalia. In May 1842, British forces invaded the Republic of Natalia and converted it into a British colony. From Natal, many Boers again trekked northwards to the Orange River, where they established two states, namely Transvaal and the Orange Free State, respectively. However, as a result of the *Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902)*, both Transvaal and the Orange Free State became British colonies. In 1909, all the British colonies of South Africa joined together to form the South African Union. Louis Botha was the first premier of South African Union.

British colonialists under the leadership of Cecil Rhodes acquired three

British protectorates namely Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland. By 1888 they founded British, East Africa and by 1894, they took Uganda. Nigeria was acquired by the Royal Niger Company between 1886 and 1889.

Thus in the span of forty years, the whole of the Dark Continent (except Ethiopia and Liberia) was divided between the European powers.

Significance and Consequences of Imperialism

There were far-reaching effects of imperialism in several respects:

1. Formation of Military Alliances

Owing to a simultaneous colonial expansion of western powers into Asia and Africa, there were *frequent colonial collisions* all over Asia and Africa. The major collisions were five:

- i) between Great Britain and France, over Egypt and Sudan
- ii) between Great Britain and Germany, over South Africa
- iii) between Great Britain and Russia, over Persia
- iv) between Russia and Japan, over China
- v) between Germany and France, over Morocco.

This led to the formation of political and military alliances and counter alliances, which ultimately brought about World War I (1914-1918).

2. Westernisation

An important result of Imperialism was that *Asia and Africa got westernized*. The process of *Europeanization in language, culture and civilization* began in the 16th century. In India, the British introduced western education and English medium, from the primary schools to the University level.

- a) remodelled Indian political and administrative institutions according to the English pattern;
- b) industrialized India by building railways, stringing telegraph wires and setting up factories, mills and workshops;
- c) introduced western customs and ideas to the Indians.

The Africans also obtained the fruits of Western Civilization.

3. Loss of Culture

However, the imperialists *reduced the colonies to poverty and social degradation*. They became masters in their colonies. The natives were transformed into servants and slaves.

Some of the *African and Asian nations* could not stand the attack of the European imperialists. They were *wiped out of existence* and their lands were occupied by the Imperialist powers.

Owing to the process of *Europeanization*, some of the colonies lost their culture and civilization. They became *Europeanized* and lost their identity as a nation.

4. Loss of Freedom

Many African and Asian countries lost their political freedom due to imperialist conquests. They were suppressed and exploited and lost their freedom of speech and action. They became virtually slaves to the masters.

5. Economic Backwardness

The most important and lasting consequence was the economic backwardness of the colonies. The natural resources of the colonies came under the control of the imperialist countries and they were exploited by them for their industries. They were the suppliers of raw materials and market for finished goods. Their surplus production was sold to the colonies at a cheaper price. This led to the destruction of their indigenous industries. Their cottage industries were destroyed by the mill goods. Their traditional economy was destroyed and in its place a super efficient industrialized economy emerged. The need for raw materials led to production of cash crops instead of food crops. This led to the impoverishment of the colonies. The European imperialists like the Belgians, the British, the French, the Portuguese, the Dutch, the Japanese and the European imperialists in China, *exploited* their colonies *economically, commercially, industrially, socially and politically*. The economic underdevelopment and impoverishment of many of the countries of the world are mainly due to the imperialist conquests.

6. Racial Discrimination

The idea of superiority of the white race was held in colonies and discrimination against the local population started. The worst principle of racial segregation, was popularized by the conquerors.

EXERCISES

PART – A

I. Choose the Correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The Mughal Emperor _____ gave permission for the English to trade in India.
a) Aurangzeb b) Jahangir c) Shahjahan
2. The French East India company was established in _____.
a) 1664 b) 1764 c) 1674
3. The Manchu kings conquered China in _____.
a) 1634 b) 1644 c) 1654
4. In 1516, the _____ reached China and established trading posts.
a) Spanish b) Portuguese c) Dutch
5. In _____ an American fleet came to Japan, with a letter from the American President.
a) 1853 b) 1843 c) 1833
6. As a Protestant missionary _____ went to Africa.
a) Karl Peters b) David Livingstone c) Henry Stanley
7. Portugal established its hold over the province of _____.
a) Congo b) Tunis c) Angola
8. Spain acquired _____.
a) Morocco b) Eritrea c) Tunis
9. In 1875, _____ purchased 176,000 shares of the Suez Canal Company.
a) Ismail Pasha b) Disraeli c) Churchill
10. The French acquired the Island of _____ in 1896.
a) Mozambique b) Canary Island c) Madagaskar

II. Answer the Following each in a word or phrase:

1. Who established the French East India Company?
2. Name the system introduced by Lord Wellesley?
3. Who were the first to reach China?
4. To which city was the trade restricted by the Chinese emperor?
5. By which war was China forced to legalise the import of opium?
6. Name the last Shogunate which was abolished?
7. Name the period between 1868-1912 in Japan?
8. How was Japan known after the Russo Japanese war?
9. How was Africa known as to the European explorers?

10. Who wrote the book, "Through the Dark Continent"?
11. After which war did Transvaal and Orange Free State become British colonies?
12. Who was the first premier of South African Union?
13. Who led the British colonialists in South Africa?
14. When was East Africa founded?
15. When did the British acquire Uganda?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. a) Treaty of Nanking | Old Buddha |
| b) Treaty of Shimonoseki | Meiji Era |
| c) Treaty of Portsmouth | First Opium war |
| d) Tzu Hsi | Sino Japanese war |
| e) Mutsuhito | Russo Japanese war |
| 2. a) David Livingstone | President of South African Union |
| b) Henry Stanley | German Student |
| c) Cecil Rhodes | Protestant Missionary |
| d) Karl Peters | Journalist |
| e) Louis Botha | Empire builder |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Imperialism in India
 - a) When was East India company formed?
 - b) Who established the French East India company?
 - c) Why were the Carnatic wars fought?
 - d) How was Bengal acquired by English East India company?
 - e) What were the two policies adopted by Lord Wellesley and Dalhousie?
2. Imperialism in China
 - a) Why did the Chinese consider themselves superior?
 - b) Which occupation was considered inferior by the Chinese?
 - c) Name the island given to the British by the Treaty of Nanking?
 - d) Which island was given to Japan by China?
 - e) What were the two rebellions against the Manchus and foreigners?
3. Imperialism in Japan
 - a) Why were the farmers discontented?
 - b) Who arrived with a big fleet at Tokyo Bay in 1854?
 - c) Why did Japan thrust a treaty on Korea?
 - d) Why Japan declared war on Russia?
 - e) Who defeated the Russian fleet?

4. Meiji Restoration
 - a) Why did the Shoguns become unpopular?
 - b) What was the reaction of the people?
 - c) What was the result?
 - d) What do you understand by the term Meiji Restoration?
 - e) Write about the Meiji Era.
5. Europeans in Africa
 - a) Name the colony founded by Portugal.
 - b) Which places were acquired by Spain?
 - c) Which places were lost by Turkey to Italy?
 - d) Name the places acquired by France in 1882 and 1896.
 - e) Who established protectorate over Egypt?
6. The Boer Wars in South Africa
 - a) What forced the Boers to emigrate from Cape Colony?
 - b) Who established the Republic of Natalias?
 - c) When and by whom was Nigeria acquired?
 - d) Name the states established by the Boers.
 - e) What were the three British protectorates acquired by Cecil Rhodes?

PART - C

V. Answer each the following in not more than 2 pages:

1. How did China become an international colony?
2. What was Meiji Restoration? Why was Japan called the “Britain of the East”?
3. Give an account of the colonization of Africa by different European countries.
4. What were the consequences of Imperialism?

PART – D

VI. i) Mark on the map of Asia the following places:

- | | | |
|----------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| a) Canton | b) Hongkong | c) Peking |
| d) Port Arthur | e) Liatong Peninsula | f) Korea |
| g) Formosa | h) Tokyo Bay | i) Sakhalin Island |
| j) Manchuria | | |

ii) Mark on the map of Africa, the following places:

- a) French colonies – Tunisia and Morocco
- b) Spanish colonies – Rio – de- oro and Spanish Sahara
- c) Italian colonies – Eritria and Italian Somaliland
- d) British colonies - Sierra Leone and Nigeria
- e) German colonies – Togoland and Cameroons
- f) Belgian colony – Congo
- g) Portuguese Colonies – Angola and Mozambique

ACTIVITIES

- 1) Go to the following URL to see the photographs of the explorers.
http://www.phschool.com/atschool/worldhistory/ModEra_3e/Student_Area/WHME_S_CHAP12_index.html-
- 2) Conduct a debate on the good and bad effects of imperialism.

UNIT - II FIRST WORLD WAR

CHAPTER – 3

THE FIRST WORLD WAR (1914 – 1918)

The war which began in 1914 and which was to last for four years and three months, was in many ways entirely novel in history. Previous wars such as the French revolutionary and Napoleonic wars, had involved as many states and lasted longer. In every decade since 1815, there had been a war somewhere and thirteen separate wars had been fought in Europe alone. The World War I was the general conflict between the highly organized states of the twentieth century. It was the first war fought on a large scale which dislocated the international economy. The European nations which had grown up during the nineteenth century had collectively controlled most of the world. The First World War was fought with determination and desperation. It was fought on land, and sky, on sea and under the sea.

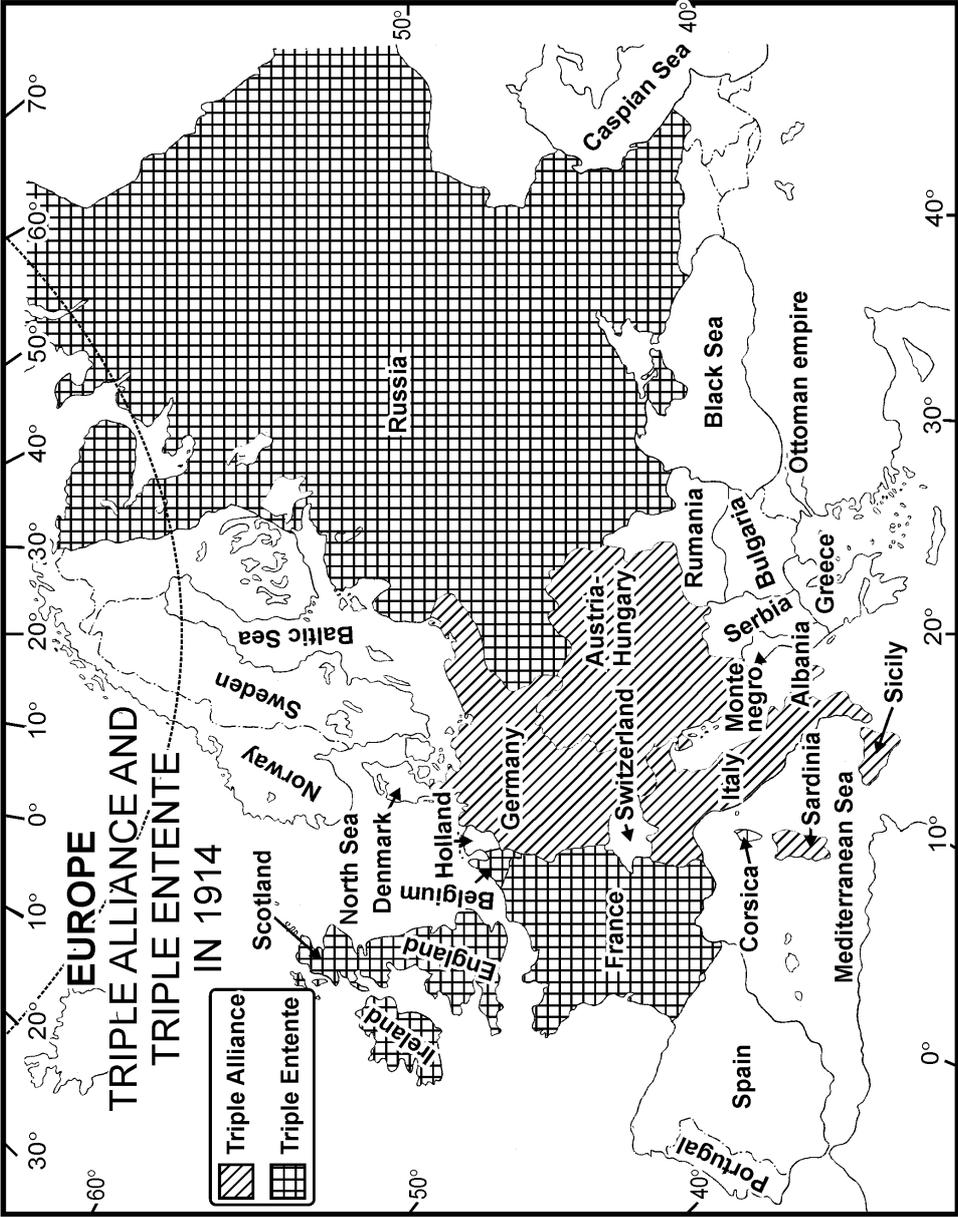
CAUSES

The great war of 1914, was a culmination of the developments that had been going on for more than a generation. Like the other wars in history, the First World War had both inherent and immediate causes.

1. International Anarchy

One of the causes of the war was, the international anarchy. All major countries depended on the secret diplomacy. No country bothered to follow the code of international law. Though this was in existence, there was no one to enforce it.

Each state had some territorial dispute or other with its neighbours. France was not reconciled to the loss of Alsace and Lorainne. As there was no international body to settle their disputes, or to guide and control the countries they were forced to resort to war.



2. Armed Camps

After Franco-Prussian war, the European countries were divided into two warring camps. It became evident that in future, the wars would be fought not by individual nations but by the groups of states. The struggle was between the members of the Triple Alliance and *Triple Entente* nations. *Triple Alliance* countries were Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy and the Triple Entente nations were France, England, and Russia. They were openly divided into two warring camps. Both the parties were committed to help the member of their groups. The system of secret alliances was followed after the Franco Prussian war. The terms of their treaty were not revealed. These secret alliances proved very harmful for international diplomacy.

Before the accession of Kaiser William II, Bismarck, the Chancellor of Germany had formed the Triple Alliance in 1882, among Germany, Austria and Italy. This alliance was aimed against France and naturally France was anxious to get allies. When the ambitions of Germany became clear through the dynamic programme of Kaiser William II, Britain allied herself with France, and formed the Entente Cordiale in 1904. This alliance was a diplomatic revolution. Britain, which had been at war with France for centuries, now became her ally. It laid the foundation for Anglo-French friendship, in the years to follow. France and Russia had already formed the *Dual Alliance* in 1895. In 1907, Britain joined the Dual Alliance and the *Entente Cordiale*, expanded into Triple Entente.

3. Armament Race

The result of this competition was a tremendous increase in the size of the European armies. Both the groups began to pile up arms and armaments to protect themselves. France made it compulsory for all its citizens to serve in the army for two years. After sometime it was extended to three years and the other countries also did the same.

4. Moroccan Problem

According to Entente Cordiale, France recognized the British occupation of Egypt. Britain recognized the French position in one part of Morocco, and the other part under Spanish control. Kaiser William II objected to France and Spain controlling Morocco. He visited Tangier, the Moroccan harbour and demanded that an international conference should settle the Moroccan problem. France had to agree and an International conference took place at

Algeciras in 1906, which decided in favour of the independence of Morocco, with freedom of commerce to all the nations.

5. Agadir Crisis of 1911

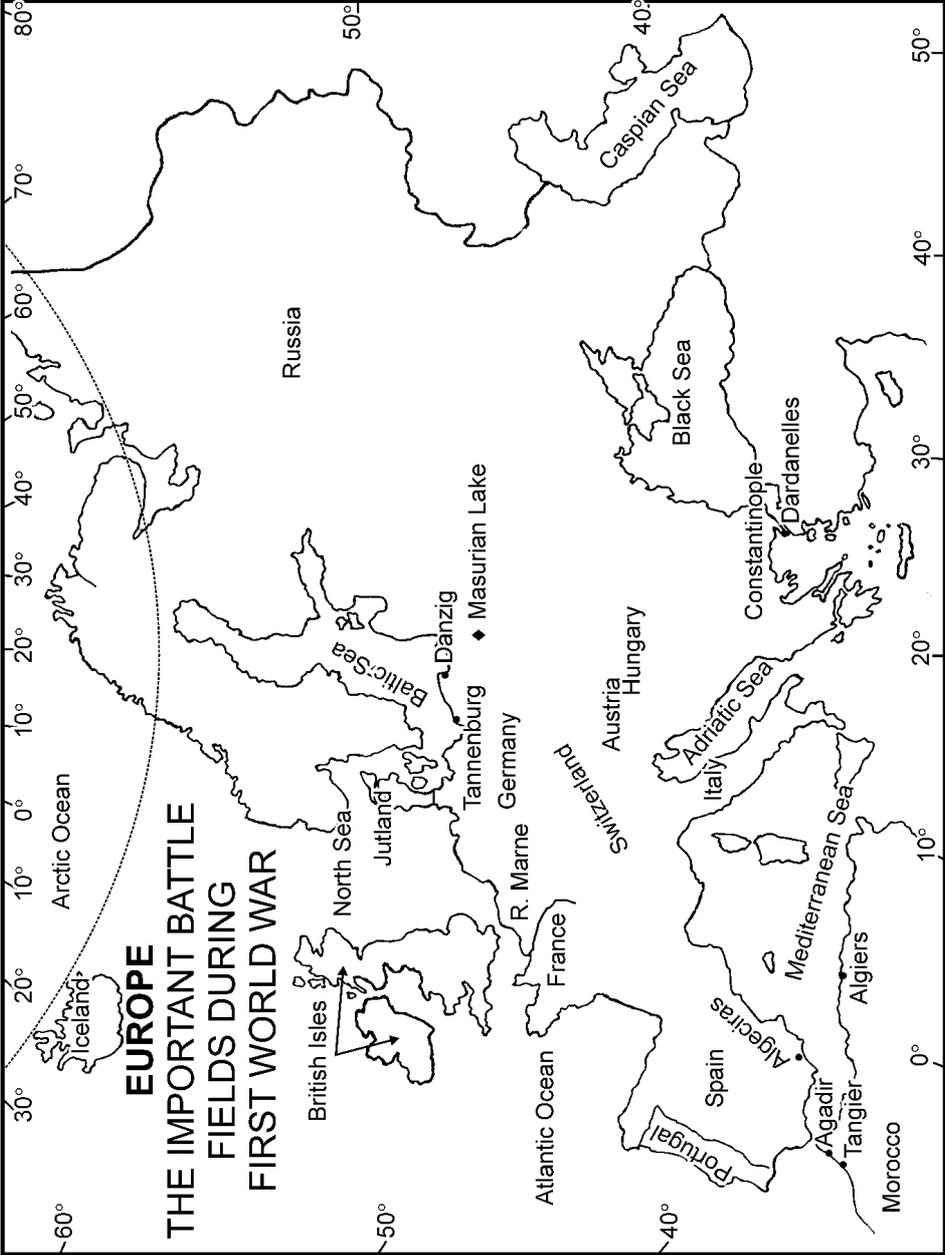
France occupied Morocco with her troops on the plea of serious internal disorder. This was not liked by Kaiser William II, who sent two warships called Berlin and Panther to Agadir, a Moroccan port. A critical situation arose. England declared that if Germany attacked France, it would help France. Germany withdrew from open confrontation and agreed to the establishment of French protectorate over Morocco, on condition that other countries were given freedom of trade. This defeat set Germany on the road to increase her arms and armaments.

6. Balkan Problem

The Ottoman empire, ruled by the Turkish Sultan of Constantinople, extended over the Balkan Peninsula, consisting of Christian states like Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, Montenegro and Rumania. Turkey was the “Sick-Man of Europe”. Taking advantage of her weakness, these states had either become independent or autonomous in the 19th century. In their fight for freedom, they were helped by Russia. In 1908, Austria supported by Germany, annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, which she had been asked to administer by the Congress of Berlin of 1878. Since these two provinces were peopled by slavs, Serbia wanted to get these provinces. Russia had been defeated by Japan in the Russo-Japanese war in 1905 and was unable to help Serbia. Italy declared war on Turkey in 1911 and annexed Tripoli in North Africa. Bulgaria, Rumania, Greece, Serbia, and Montenegro declared war on Turkey in 1912, and won it. *The First Balkan* war ended with the *Treaty of London*. But in the distribution of the spoils of war, the Christian states quarrelled among themselves. So Greece, Rumania, Serbia and Montenegro declared war on Bulgaria. This is known as the *Second Balkan War*. Bulgaria was defeated and Serbia was the greatest gainer. Bulgaria and Turkey looked to Germany for help in recovering some of their territories.

7. Immediate Cause

The immediate cause for the outbreak of the First World War was the murder of the Austrian *crown prince Francis Ferdinand* and his wife at Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia, on June 28, 1914, by a Serbian lad. So Austria wanted to use this opportunity to crush Serbia. Austria sent an



ultimatum to Serbia imposing many humiliating conditions on her. When Serbia refused to accept them, Austria declared war on it. Russia mobilised her troops to support the cause of Serbia against Austria. Germany declared war on Russia. France by her Dual Alliance went to help Russia. So Germany declared war on France. The nations of Europe had agreed to preserve the neutrality of Belgium by the *Treaty of London (1839)*. But Germany violated the treaty and mobilising her troops entered Belgium with a view to attacking France. So Britain declared war on Germany. Thus the *First World War started in 1914*.

COURSE OF THE WAR

Italy though a member of the Triple alliance did not join with Germany and Austria. On the contrary it joined the Allies in 1915. Germany and Austria were called the Central Powers. Bulgaria and Turkey joined the Central Powers. On their opposite side were the Allies consisting of members of the Triple Entente, Belgium and Serbia. U.S.A. joined the Allies in the last stage of the War in 1917.

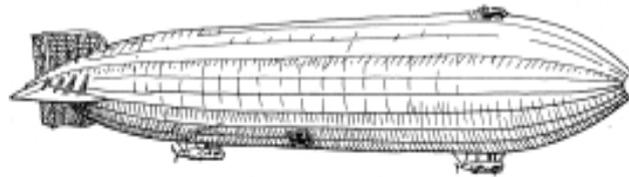


Fig. 3.1 Zeppelin

It was a global war which took place in several parts of the world. For the first time, air was used as a field of war. Air ships called Zeppelins and later on aeroplanes were sent to raid Britain. Tanks, which were a British invention were used in the last stage of the war. Trench warfare on land and submarine warfare on the sea were the other features of the war.

War on the Eastern Front

Russia invaded East Prussia with half a million men under the command of *Grand Duke Nicholas*, but her forces were crushed by a German army under *Von Hindenburg* at *Tannenburg*. In the meantime Turkey had joined the Central Powers and Italy joined the Allies. Britain sent a powerful fleet to attack the *Dardanelles*, with a view to open up a path to Russia.

The Dardanelles Straits linked the Mediterranean Sea with the Sea of Marmora. This not only gave ready access to the Turkish capital Constantinople (Istanbul) and much of the Turkish Empire's industrial

powerhouse, but also provided a lane to the Black Sea. Moreover access to the Sea of Marmora was bound to give Britain and France supply route to their eastern ally, Russia. Therefore if Britain and France gained the Straits they could succeed in not only eliminating Turkey from the war, but also in drawing Greece and Bulgaria into the war against the Central powers. As it might be expected the Straits were however heavily defended, chiefly by natural geography. To the north they were protected by the Gallipoli Peninsula; to the south by the shore of Ottoman Asia. In addition, fortresses were well positioned on cliff-tops overlooking shipping lanes. But the Dardanelles expedition was an utter failure.

On land a German army under *Von Hindenburg*, defeated a Russian army near *Masurian lakes*, invaded Poland and captured Warsaw. Another German army under *Von Mackensen* cleared the Carpathian region of the Russian armies. These defeats fuelled the fire of hatred against the Czarist regime and brought about the Russian Revolution of 1917. Russia kept out of the war and concluded the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany surrendering a number of territories on the Baltic to Germany.

War on the Western Front

German forces overran the whole of Belgium and invaded France. They advanced towards Paris, but on the banks of the *River Marne*, an Anglo-French army under Generals French and Joffre defeated the German army. The Battle of Marne was a turning point of the war. After this, there was only trench warfare for a long time on the Western Front

The year 1916 was marked by two operations on a very large scale on the western front. The Germans attempted a great offensive at Verdun, the gateway of France. The losses on both sides were great but the French maintained their position with heroism. The second operation was the Anglo-French offensive on the Somme conducted on a huge scale. The fighting was severe and the casualties were enormous. Though the Germans were not entirely defeated, the pressure on Verdun was relieved and France could recover the lost ground.

In Africa, British and French forces overran Togoland and Cameroon and conquered German colonies in south west Africa.

The War at Sea

From the outset British navy seized the command of the sea. The German commerce was wiped out and a blockade was established. In 1916

came the *Battle of Jutland*. The losses on both sides were heavy. But the advantage gained was that the German fleet never ventured into Northern Sea again. The British supremacy on the sea was of immense help to the Allies. Besides protecting the shores of Great Britain, British Navy transported and conveyed soldiers, arms and ammunitions, to the many fields of war.

America Enters War (1917)

Germany started unrestricted submarine warfare against the British. Ships of all nationalities were ordered to be sunk, when they came near the British Isles. In 1915, Germany sunk a ship called *Lusitania*, a British transport ship, which was carrying hundreds of American passengers in it. Totally 1200 passengers lost their lives. When America sent a strong protest to Germany, the German government ignored it. Besides Germany tried to induce the Mexicans to attack their neighbouring states in America. When this news reached Washington, Woodrow Wilson, the President of America, decided to enter the war on the side of the Allies. Moreover, many American ships were sunk by German submarines. So on April 17, 1917, America entered the war.

Kaiser William II was frustrated with his defeats and ordered his army to start a vigorous offensive against the Allies. The German army was using long range guns and poison gas. The Allies had an able commander *General Foch*. He was able to give a crushing defeat to the German army in the *Second Battle of Marne*. The German army was forced to retreat. On November 7, 1918, a mutiny broke out at *Kiel* and Kaiser William II abdicated. Two days after this the German government signed an armistice and surrendered. *General Allenby* was able to defeat Turkey in Syria, Arabia, Palestine and Mesopotamia. The Turkish empire came to an end. The ruler of Bulgaria abdicated when a revolution broke out there. Bulgaria also surrendered. Austria –Hungary also sued for peace.

In the middle of November, the First World War came to an end. Great Britain, France and their allies came out victorious. But many countries had lost men and material. There were untold sufferings for common people in all the countries due to war. In this atmosphere of loss and suffering, the delegates of victorious powers met in *Paris* to make peace.

RESULTS OF THE WAR

The First World War came to an end by the Paris Peace Conference of 1919. The main personalities of the conference were, *Clemenceau of France*,

Lloyd George of Britain, Orlando of Italy and President Woodrow Wilson of America. Separate treaties were concluded with all the defeated countries.



Fig. 3.2 Lloyd George

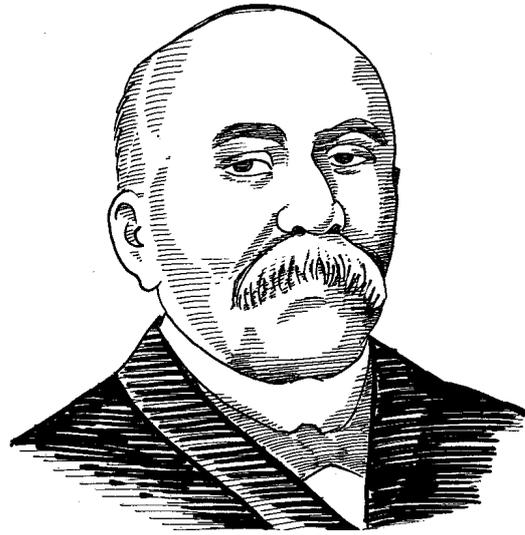


Fig. 3.3 Clemenceau

The treaty with Germany was called *Treaty of Versailles*. The *Treaty of Germaine* was concluded with *Austria*, the *Treaty of Traianon* with *Hungary*, *Treaty of Neuilly* with *Bulgaria* and the *Treaty of Sevres* with *Turkey*. President Woodrow Wilson put forward the terms and conditions in his Fourteen Points. Though they were not accepted by the other countries, the terms of the treaty were based upon these points. The provisions of the treaty are :

- i) The covenant of the League of Nations was drawn up.
- ii) A huge war indemnity was imposed on Germany. Her army was reduced.
- iii) Germany surrendered Alsace and Lorainne to France. She had to give up the Saar coal fields to France for a period of 15 years.
- iv) A new state of Poland was created with territories taken from Germany, Austria and new Russia.
- v) New nations, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, and Finland were created.
- vi) Austria was greatly reduced in size. Historians comment that Austria which was of football size was reduced to a small badminton size ball. Hungary was separated from Austria.

- vii) A new republic called Czechoslovakia was formed from territories taken from Austria and Hungary.
- viii) Yugoslavia a new nation was formed by the addition of territories to Serbia.
- ix) Rumania was increased in size by the addition of territories taken from Hungary, Russia and Bulgaria.
- x) Bulgaria and Turkey were reduced in size.
- xi) The overseas possessions of Germany were divided among the victorious nations.
- xii) Monarchy was abolished in Germany, Russia, Austria and Turkey.

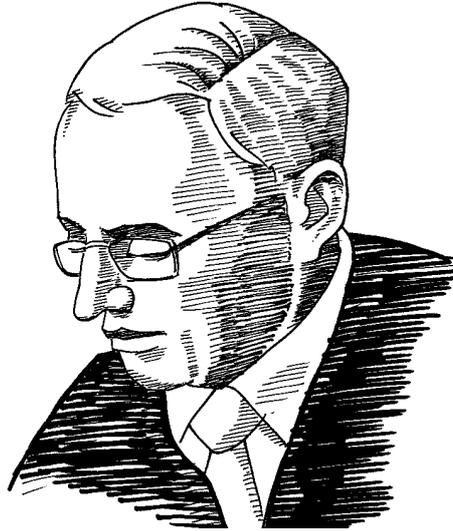


Fig. 3.4 Woodrow Wilson

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The First World war brought untold misery to people. All the nations wanted a permanent world body to maintain peace in the world. The result was the establishment of the League of Nations, in 1920 with headquarters in Geneva in Switzerland. There were 42 members in the beginning.

Aims of the League

The chief aim of the League was to promote international cooperation, peace and security. The member nations should settle all the disputes peacefully. If any member nation commits aggression, the other member nations should cut off trade and financial relationship with that nation.

Organs of the League

The League of Nations had an Assembly, a Council, a Secretariat, a Court and an International Labour Organisation.

Achievements of the League

The International Court successfully handled many cases. The dispute between Sweden and Finland regarding the possession of Aaland islands

was settled peacefully. The League averted a war between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925. It settled a border dispute between Columbia and Peru and Iraq and Turkey.

Failure of the League

The League failed in its most important aim of preventing a second war. The most important reason for its failure was the refusal of the great powers to honour their pledges and obligations. Treaties were violated. When Japan invaded Manchuria in 1931, China complained to the League. Japan withdrew from the League. Mussolini invaded Ethiopia and annexed it. The league did not take any steps to check it. Hitler's aggressive acts were also not checked. The League was a helpless observer of all these acts, because there was no international army at its disposal. In spite of these, the League tried its best to check the disputes by peaceful methods. Moreover it served as a predecessor to the U.N.O.

Causes for the Failure of the League

1. The main cause for the failure of the League was that it was limited in its effectiveness as many countries were not its members.
2. Its economic sanctions could not achieve immediate results.
3. The League did not intervene till the crucial stage was reached.
4. All the members were not prepared to abide by the military sanctions and covenants, if it was against their interests.
5. United States of America, though proposed the setting up of the League, was not a member.
6. France regarded the League's policies negatively and disregarded them if it endangered her relationship with other countries.
7. Finally, there was no military force to enforce peace in warring countries.

Simply said, the League of Nations failed because the Big Powers failed her.

7. What is the name of the Airship sent to raid Britain?
8. How was Turkey called?
9. What was the capital of Bosnia?
10. Who invented the tanks?
11. What was the new feature of war on land?
12. Which battle was the turning point of the First World War?
13. Name the ship sunk by Germany.
14. When was the League of Nations established?
15. When did Japan invade Manchuria?

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|
| A) 1. Lloyd George | Germany |
| 2. Woodrow Wilson | Italy |
| 3. Clemenceau | England |
| 4. Orlando | United States |
| 5. Kaiser William II | France |
| | |
| B) 1. Treaty of Varsailles | Hungary |
| 2. Treaty of Severes | Austria |
| 3. Treaty of Germaine | Bulgaria |
| 4. Treaty of Neuilly | Turkey |
| 5. Treaty of Traianon | Germany |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Moroccan Problem
 - a) Who objected to France and Spain controlling Morocco?
 - b) Where did the international conference take place?
 - c) Name the warships sent by Germany.
 - d) Where were the warships sent?
 - e) Who declared that it would help France?
2. Balkan Problem
 - a) Which empire was ruled by the Turkish Sultan?
 - b) How was Turkey known at that time?
 - c) By whom was Austria asked to administer Bosnia and Herzegovina?
 - d) By which treaty did the First Balkan war end?
 - e) Which country was defeated in the Second Balkan war?

3. First World War
 - a) Who were the Central Powers?
 - b) Who joined the Central Powers later?
 - c) What was used for the first time in the war?
 - d) What were used in the last stages of the war?
 - e) What were the other features of the war?
4. War on the Eastern Front
 - a) Where was the Russian forces under Grand Duke Nicholas defeated?
 - b) Where did Britain send a big army to open up a path to Russia?
 - c) How were the Straits protected in the North and South?
 - d) Where did the Russian army suffer a defeat again?
 - e) Name the two German generals.
5. War on the Western Front
 - a) Where was the German army defeated in France?
 - b) Name the two generals who defeated the German army?
 - c) Name the two great battle fields in which French succeeded.
 - d) Name the two German colonies taken by the British and French forces in Africa
 - e) Give the name of the battle fought in North Sea.

PART – C

V. Answer the following, each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Describe the causes and results of the First World War.
2. Critically examine the role played by the League of Nations.

PART - D

VI. Mark on the map of Europe the following important battlefields of the First World war:

- | | | | |
|------------------|------------|----------------|------------|
| a) Agadir | b) Algiers | c) Dardanelles | |
| d) Tannenburg | e) Jutland | f) Danzig | |
| g) Masurian Lake | h) Italy | i) Marne | j) Tangier |

ACTIVITIES

1. Go to the following URLs to see the photos of First World War.
<http://freepages.military.rootsweb.com/~worldwarone/WWI/TheGeographyOfTheGreatWar/index.html#List%20of%20Figures>, <http://www.worldwar1.com/maproom.htm>.
2. See the films “A Farewel to Arms”, and “Bridge on the River Kwai”.
3. Prepare a chart showing the different organs of League of Nations.

UNIT-III WORLD BETWEEN THE WARS

CHAPTER – 4

(A) RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The Russian Revolution was one of the most important events in modern world history. Its impact was evident in both Europe and America. Although the Revolution did not directly spread Communism, it did give various other struggling third world countries an enticing example to follow.

CAUSES OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

Various causes that led to the Russian Revolution of 1917, are given below.

a) Nihilism, Anarchism and Marxism

Nihilism was a theory of revolution popular among Russian extremists until the fall of the Czarist government (1917); Nihilism stressed the need to destroy existing economic and social institutions. Even though Nihilists were not without constructive programmes, direct action, such as assassination and arson, was their main characteristic. The assassination of Czar Alexander II was one of the results of such terrorist activities.

Anarchism, is the theory that equality and justice are to be sought through the abolition of the state. The main theme of anarchist thought is the belief that society is natural and that people are good but are corrupted by artificial institutions.



Fig. 4.1 Karl Marx

Marxism, is the economic and political philosophy started by Karl Marx. It is also known as scientific socialism. Marxism has had a profound impact on contemporary culture; modern communism is based on it.

b) Economic Causes

The *economic causes* were the main factors contributing to the revolution, as they resulted in poverty, misery and exploitation of the masses by the nobility. Russia was mainly a highly backward agricultural country *before* the revolution. The royal family, the nobility and the clergy owned most of the agricultural land. In addition they had to use primitive tools, implements and methods of cultivation, which were not very productive. Further, the poor peasants became poorer as they had to pay huge sums of rent and tributes to their landlords every year. This created great discontent among the farmers who were ready to revolt against the Czarist government, in order to end this economic and social system.

In the *industrial sphere* too, Russia was backward and depended only on foreign capital. The workers and labourers had to endure miserable working conditions. They received extremely low wages. It was considered a crime to form trade unions. Moreover, the government did not attempt to improve these conditions. There was an imbalance in the social structure, owing to the above economic factors. As a result 70% of the Russian population was *illiterate*. The social structure of Russia was completely devoid of education, medical relief and public health.

c) Social Causes

The social causes of the Russian Revolution mainly started from centuries of oppression towards the lower classes by the Czarist regime. Serfdom was most often associated with the Middle Ages, yet it accurately describes the social situation in Russia under Nicholas. A small class of noble landowners controlled a vast number of peasants. In 1861, Czar Alexander II of Russia emancipated these peasants, not for moral reasons, but because it was preventing Russia from advancing socially. This newfound freedom was of limited use, however, since they now had no land to work. First World War only added to the chaos. In addition, because more factory workers were needed, peasants moved out of the country and into the cities, which soon became overpopulated, and living conditions rapidly grew worse. Further, more food was needed for the soldiers, but the

food supply grew scarce. By 1917, famine threatened many of the larger cities.

d) Political Causes

The Political aspect of the Russian Revolution is essentially the combination or result of the Social and Economic problems created by the dictatorship of Czar Nicholas II. Since 1904, Russia's lower class workers had faced a dire economic situation. Most of them were working 11 hours a day without any health and safety provisions. There were numerous strikes and protests. Almost all of these were either ignored by Nicholas or broken up, often in a violent and deadly fashion. Things took a critical turn for worse, however, when, in 1915, Nicholas decided to take direct command of the army, leaving his incapable wife Alexandra in charge of the government. As this discontent and utter hate of Nicholas grew, the State Duma (lower class of Russian parliament comprised of landowners, townspeople, industrial workers, and peasants) issued a warning to Nicholas in November 1916 stating that disaster would overtake the country unless a constitutional form of government was put in place. In typical fashion, Nicholas ignored them. As a result, Russia's Czarist regime collapsed a few months later during the February Revolution of 1917. A year later, the Czar and his family were executed.



Fig. 4.2 Czar Nicholas II

The growing discontent among the masses manifested itself in all aspects of national life. The working class became highly receptive to Marxist ideas infiltrating into Russia. In 1893, the *Social Democratic Party* was founded and in 1903, this party was split into two; the *Bolsheviks (radicals)* led by *Nikolai Lenin* and the *Mensheviks (liberals)* led by *Martov*. While the former was revolutionary and supported by *Stalin*, the latter was evolutionary and supported by *Trotsky*.

In the *Russo-Japanese War of 1905*, Russia, a giant state, received a crushing defeat at the hands of Japan, a very small Asian power. The people

realized that the Russian defeat was due to the lack of a well trained and a well-equipped army. Thus it became essential to end the Czarist regime.

Czar Nicholas II of Russia was under the *influence* of his *Czarina Alexandra*. She in turn was under the sway of the wicked and notorious monk *Rasputin*, who claimed to have spiritual powers that could heal the young prince. The latter was suffering from an incurable disease. In order to please Rasputin, *Czarina Alexandra* used to interfere in the day-to-day administration of the state. Thus the ministers and high officials were appointed and dismissed on the careless advice of Rasputin, causing great discontent among the people. Though Rasputin was killed by the nobles in December 1916, the *Czarina* continued to influence the affairs of the state till the Revolution of 1917.



Fig. 4.3 Rasputin

e) Immediate Cause

The social, economic, political and psychological conditions in Russia had become so vulnerable that it only required a spark to cause the revolution. The First World War was responsible in setting the ball of revolution rolling in Russia. Acute shortage of ammunition, poor generalship, lack of factories, demoralized soldiers, a corrupt government and high treason at all ranks, created a crisis in the state. The entire national life of the state was paralyzed. The peasants and workers denounced the World war and the Czarist government.

FEBRUARY REVOLUTION (1917)

The February Revolution came about almost spontaneously when people of Petrograd protested against the czarist regime because of food shortages in the city.

There was also great dissatisfaction with Russia's continued involvement in the First World War. As the protests grew, various political reformists (both liberal and radical left) started to rebel against the government together. In early February the protests turned violent as large

numbers of city residents rioted and clashed with police and soldiers. When the bulk of the soldiers garrisoned in the Russian capital Petrograd joined the protests, they turned into a revolution ultimately leading to the abdication of Czar Nicholas II in a nearly bloodless transition of power.

A new Provisional Government (Duma) was formed. Elections were being planned. Between February and October, revolutionists attempted further change, working through the Petrograd Soviet or more directly. In July, the Petrograd Bolsheviks, in combination with the Petrograd anarchists, started a civil revolt. This revolt failed.

OCTOBER REVOLUTION (1917)

The October Revolution was led by Lenin and was based upon the ideas of Karl Marx. It marked the beginning of the spread of communism in the twentieth century. It came about as the result of deliberate planning and coordinated activity. On November 7, 1917, Bolshevik leader Vladimir Lenin led his leftist revolutionaries in a nearly bloodless revolt against the ineffective Provisional Government (Russia was still using the Julian calendar at the time, so period references show an October 25 date). The October Revolution ended the revolution instigated in February, replacing Russia's short-lived provisional government. The Soviet Union was established in December 1922 as the union of the Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, and Transcaucasian Republics ruled by Bolshevik parties under the leadership of Lenin. After the death of Lenin, there was a power struggle between Leon Trotsky and Stalin. Leon Trotsky was a supporter of democratic principles whereas Stalin was for dictatorship. Stalin gained control of the USSR. Trotsky and his supporters, as well as a number of other democratically-minded communists, were persecuted and eventually imprisoned or killed by Stalin.



Fig. 4.4 Lenin

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was an event of international

significance. It made an irresistible appeal to the proletarians. Therefore it was claimed that “The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries, unite!” The Russian Revolution thus invited the labourers all over the world to unite against the capitalist class. Thus a war was declared between totalitarian dictatorship and democratic socialism, between Marxism and capitalism.

(B) FASCISM AND NAZISM

FASCIST RULE IN ITALY

After the First World War, discontent and disorder prevailed in Italy. She was on the side of Central Powers first. But later with the hope of gaining more territories she joined the Allies. There was confusion, political and social unrest and economic distress in the country. People accused the government for their sufferings. The prices of goods rose and cost of living increased. As a result socialism gained popularity. Labour strikes occurred in industries. This confusion and unrest paved the way for Benito Mussolini to capture power.

Benito Mussolini

Mussolini was born in 1883 to parents of humble means. His father was a blacksmith and mother a teacher. During the First World War he served as a soldier in the Italian army. After the war he gathered a band of young Italians and started the National Fascist Party in 1919.

Since they wore black uniform they were called Black Shirts. Mussolini disciplined them with implicit obedience. Believe, Obey and Fight were their watch words. Though the Fascist party grew, he was not able to secure a majority in elections. So he marched to Rome on October 30, 1922 and



Fig. 4.5 Benito Mussolini

forced King Victor Emmanuel III to hand over the government to him. This is called March on Rome, which established Fascist dictatorship over Italy under Mussolini. However Victor Emmanuel III continued to be the powerless king of Italy.

Fascism

Fascism had three aims; exaltation of the state, protection of private property, and spirited foreign policy. It was started mainly as an anti Communist movement but later it emerged as a reaction against liberalism and democracy. Fascism set up a totalitarian state. Fascist motto was “Everything within the state, nothing against the state, nothing outside the state.” Mussolini wanted to revive the ancient glories of Roman empire. He wanted to make the Mediterranean Sea, an Italian lake, with Italian territories on Northern and Eastern parts of Africa. Fascism believed in one party rule and all the other parties were banned, and press censored. Public liberty was curtailed brutally. Mussolini’s secret police was known as Ovra and it created terror among the people. Mussolini was called Duce by his followers.

Achievements

Fascism saved Italy from anarchy due to the disorder and demoralization into which it had fallen after the First World War. Parliament was no longer constituted on a territorial basis. Free public elections were stopped and only the party candidates were elected by the Fascist party. One of Mussolini’s achievements was the settlement of the long standing dispute between Papacy and Italian government. By the Lateran Treaty of 1929, the Papacy recognized Victor Emmanuel III as king with Rome as capital. In turn, Mussolini recognized the sovereignty of Pope in the Vatican City. Thus he got the support of the church.

Mussolini organized the nation on a strong economic basis. Industries flourished under the fostering care of the state. He drained marshes and reclaimed a lot of waste lands for cultivation. Use of modern machines and scientific methods of cultivation, increased agricultural production. He undertook many works of public utility like building of hydro-electric plants and electrification of railways. He eradicated illiteracy and made Italy strong and financially prosperous within three years.

After 1930, he followed an aggressive policy. He invaded Abyssinia. He formed the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. He attacked Albania. In the Second World War, he captured many places by joining hands with Hitler. But after

1943, the fortunes of war turned away from the Axis powers. The Italian forces were beaten back from their colonies in Africa. The Allies invaded Italy and Sicily. Mussolini fell from power and tried to escape from Italy. But he was shot dead by an Italian mob in 1945.

NAZI RULE IN GERMANY

The First World War brought ruin and disaster to Germany. King William II abdicated the throne in 1918. A republican government was established at Weimar near Berlin. Since the people were not ready for the republican idea, it became an easy prey for the agitators and opportunists. Due to its huge war indemnity, Germany was economically ruined. It was humiliated and its military strength was reduced. The prices rose up and unemployment increased. The German currency Mark depreciated in value. The Great Economic Depression of 1929-30 also shattered her economy. The Germans were looking for someone to save them and restore their pride. Adolf Hitler came in the form of a saviour.



Fig. 4.6 Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler was the son of a petty customs official. In the First World War he served as a soldier and later became a politician. He was an excellent orator who can sway the peoples emotions with his fiery speeches. He organized the National Socialists Party or the Nazi Party. He tried to capture power in 1923, but was caught and imprisoned for 5 years. He wrote a book called *Mein Kampf (My struggle)* in the prison which became the Bible for Nazis.

Nazism

Hitler kept Swastika as his party's emblem and his followers were known as Brown Shirts. By 1933, his party became the single largest party in German Reichstag (Parliament). He became Chancellor. After the death of President Hindenburg, in 1934, he made himself the President and Chancellor of Germany. He abolished the Weimar Republic and proclaimed

the Third Reich (Third empire) with himself as dictator. He was called Fuhrer. (Leader)

Nazis glorified the state. The greatest happiness of the people in the Nazi State lay in obeying the state blindly and working for its glory. The individual had no rights against the state. Hitler boasted of the superiority of the Nordic race which accounted for the rise of all cultures in the past. He wanted to maintain the purity of the race and so prohibited marriage with other races whom he thought inferior. He was especially against the Jews. So he persecuted them. Nazism was anti spiritual. He declared, “one people, one state, one leader.” He felt that the place of women was in the kitchen and they should be treated as child bearing machines. He also banned all the other political parties. His secret police, Gestapo was feared by all. He believed in terrorism and bloodshed.

Achievements

He created a strong unified and highly despotic state. He outlawed strikes. He replaced the trade unions with Labour Front. He took steps to see that the children were trained in Nazi cult. His aggressive policy brought danger and destruction to his country and sufferings to Jews. He rearmed Germany and marched into Rhineland. He annexed Austria in 1938 and committed aggression against Czechoslovakia. The Sudetanland affair was prevented from blowing up into war by Neville Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister. In the Second World War, Hitler gained many victories in the first two years. His invasion of Russia started his downfall. German forces were defeated in all the battles after 1943. In 1945, Allied forces invaded Germany and conquered Berlin. Hitler committed suicide in his bunker (an underground bomb proof shelter) in 1945. After his death Nazism fizzled out.

(C) THE GREAT ECONOMIC DEPRESSION

The United States in 1919 seemed to assume the mantle of leadership. But after the end of the war, United States chose to withdraw from the world affairs. Herbert Hoover became the President of the United States in March 1929. He believed in private enterprises only. It was during his time that the great economic depression happened.

Stock Market

America in those days was a land of crazes and the stock market was the greatest craze of all. People became rich quickly by having shares in big industrial combines. Many people became shareholders in big businesses, not only for the dividends but also for the resale value and speculation. People started buying shares indiscriminately, without even knowing what it was. Stock market became a big gambling game involving a major section of the population. Six months after Hoover became President, stock market recorded highest prices. Then suddenly the prices started to fall. People thought that as usual prices will rise again. But it did not happen. In October 1929 the stock market crashed. There were many people selling while no one was there to buy. So the market crashed and many people were ruined, and became paupers overnight.

Collapse of the Stock Market

The immediate cause of this collapse was that people were speculating on borrowed money. They got money by selling when price rose. But if the price fell they lost money. This kind of indiscriminate selling without buyers made many people hold valueless stocks. Another cause was that, America overproduced goods. Due to falling prices, employers had to cut down their production. Less production means, they had to retrench extra workers. Unemployed people had no income to buy anything. So again supply was more than demand. Thus this became a vicious circle. The American government imposed heavy duties on imported goods. This resulted in American goods facing heavy duties in their exports to other countries. So exports declined. Domestic market was not able to absorb the excess goods. Many industries had heavy debts. Many companies went bankrupt. There was huge unemployment. By 1933, nearly fourteen million people were unemployed. Production declined in many American factories.

Remedial Measures

People blamed the government for this situation. Hoover and other Americans thought America would soon recover from this. Hoover set up the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in 1932 to lend money to banks, industries and rail roads. But the public lost faith in Hoover. In the Presidential elections in 1932, Franklin D. Roosevelt or FDR as he was called, became the President. In his election manifesto he said, "I pledge you, I pledge myself to a New Deal for the Americans." He assumed office

on March 4, 1933. He consulted a panel of lawyers, economists, and college professors and proposed many relief measures. One of them was the famous Tennessee Valley Authority. The Congress was asked to create the National Industrial Recovery Administration.

New Deal

The *New Deal* legislation was of two types. The first was to relieve those who suffered from depression. The other was to place American economy on its legs.

The *Tennessee Valley Authority* started in 1933, was a significant achievement of FDR. It covered 40,000 sq. miles. Seven states were given the opportunity to build and operate dams in the valley, generate and sell electric power, bring lands under cultivation, make the river navigable, and improve the social and economic condition of the people.



Fig. 4.7 Roosevelt

FDR's recovery measures were geared towards building up the internal economy. The *Emergency Banking Act* was passed. The *Reconstruction Finance Corporation* advanced funds to affected banks. The Treasury was given powers to unearth hoarded money and prevent hoarding. The *Security Exchange Act* of 1934 issued licences to Stock Exchanges and they have to cooperate with the Federal Reserve Board.

On the labour and industrial fronts, the *National Industrial Recovery Act* was passed. The act permitted businessmen to fix prices and production quotas. The workers were paid fair wages. The congress passed the *Agricultural Adjustment Act* which enabled the agriculturists to cut down their production and enhance the prices.

Critical Evaluation of New Deal

The New Deal was not entirely a success. Some programmes failed. Some were only partially successful. But in the early days it saved jobs, the farms, houses and lives of countless Americans. The Tennessee Valley transformed a vast region to agriculture and prosperous industries.

The greatest achievement of FDR was in changing the outlook of Americans. The ideas like collective bargaining between the employer and workers, regulation of stock exchange and restriction of hours of work are all accepted as part of American way of life. The New Deal has become synonymous with reform throughout the world. By 1940 America had recovered her economy.

EXERCISES

(A) RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

PART – A

I. Choose the Correct Answer and complete each statement:

1. Karl Marx started the philosophy known as _____.
a) Nihilism b) Anarchism c) Marxism
2. The assassination of Czar Alexander II was by the terrorist activities of _____.
a) Nihilists b) Anarchists c) Marxists
3. Czar _____ emancipated the peasants.
a) Alexander II b) Alexander III c) Nicholas II
4. The Social Democratic Party was founded in _____.
a) 1873 b) 1883 c) 1893
5. Rasputin influenced the Czar _____.
a) Alexander II b) Nicholas I c) Nicholas II

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Give the other term for Marxism.
2. Mention the two branches of the Social Democratic Party.
3. Who led the Mensheviks?
4. When did the Russo – Japanese war take place?
5. Give the name of the Czarina who was influenced by Rasputin.

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|------------------|----------|
| 1. Bolsheviks | Rasputin |
| 2. Mensheviks | Stalin |
| 3. Revolutionary | Trotsky |
| 4. Evolutionary | Lenin |
| 5. Russian monk | Martov |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Nihilism
 - a) What was Nihilism?
 - b) What did Nihilism stress?
 - c) What was the main characteristic of the Nihilists?
 - d) Give the main theme of the anarchists.
 - e) What is the other name of Marxism?
2. Economic Causes of Russian Revolution
 - a) Why were the economic causes considered as the main factors contributing to the revolution?
 - b) What type of country, Russia was, before the revolution?
 - c) Who owned most of the agricultural land?
 - d) Why did the poor peasants become poorer?
 - e) What was considered a crime to form?
3. Political Causes of Russian Revolution
 - a) Who created the social and economic problems in Russia?
 - b) When and by whom was a dire economic situation faced?
 - c) When did Nicholas decide to take direct command of the army?
 - d) What happened to the Czar and his family?
 - e) Whose ideas infiltrated into Russia?
4. February Revolution (1917)
 - a) Who protested against the Czarist regime and why?
 - b) What situation did lead to a bloodless transition of power?
 - c) What was formed after the transition of power?
 - d) Who started a civil revolt?
 - e) What was the result of this revolt?
5. October Revolution (1917)
 - a) Who led the October revolution?
 - b) On whose ideas was the October revolution based?
 - c) What was ended by the October revolution?
 - d) What was established?
 - e) Who gained control of USSR?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the Following in not more than 2 pages:

1. What were the causes of the Russian revolution?
2. Give an account of the February and October revolutions.

ACTIVITY

1. Read Tolstoy's "War and Peace" to understand Russian Environment.

(B) FASCISM AND NAZISM

PART – A

I. Choose the Correct Answer and complete each statement:

1. Mussolini marched to Rome on _____, 1922.
a) September 30 b) October 30 c) October 13
2. Mussolini was shot dead by _____.
a) an Italian mob b) Italian army c) Allies army
3. By _____ Hitler's party became the single largest party.
a) 1923 b) 1933 c) 1943
4. Hitler annexed _____ in 1938.
a) Austria b) Albania c) Abyssinia
5. Hitler felt that the place of _____ was in the kitchen.
a) men b) women c) jews

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. What was the name given to Mussolini's party members?
2. Who was the powerless king of Italy, who handed over the power to Mussolini?
3. How was Mussolini called by his followers?
4. By which treaty did Papacy recognize Victor Emmanuel as king?
5. What was the emblem of the Nazi party?
6. Which book became the Bible of the Nazis?
7. How was Hitler called by his followers?
8. Who prevented the Sudetenland affair from blowing up into war?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Adolf Hitler | Bible of the Nazis |
| 2. Benito Mussolini | Nazi symbol |
| 3. Ovra | Fuhrer |
| 4. Swastika | Duce |
| 5. Mein Kamph | Fascist secret police |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Benito Mussolini
 - a) When was Mussolini born?
 - b) Who were his parents?
 - c) What did Mussolini do after the First world War?
 - d) Give the watchwords of Mussolini.
 - e) Explain the term “March on Rome”.
2. Fascism
 - a) State the three aims of Fascism.
 - b) Why was it started?
 - c) How did it emerge later?
 - d) Give the Fascist motto.
 - e) What did Mussolini want to revive?
3. Achievements of Fascism
 - a) From what kind of situation was Italy saved by Fascism?
 - b) What change was brought in the field of elections?
 - c) How did Mussolini get the support of the church?
 - d) What changes were brought in the economy of Italy?
 - e) What happened to Mussolini, finally?
4. Adolf Hitler
 - a) Who was Hitler?
 - b) What type of person was Hitler?
 - c) What party was organized by him?
 - d) What did he do in 1923?
 - e) Name the book written by Hitler.
5. Nazism
 - a) What was the progress made by the Nazis in 1933?
 - b) When did Hitler become the Chancellor of Germany?
 - c) What did he abolish?
 - d) What did he proclaim?
 - e) How was he called by his followers?
6. Achievements of Nazism
 - a) What did Hitler create?
 - b) What did he replace?
 - c) What were the aggressive acts committed by him?
 - d) Which invasion started his downfall?
 - e) What was his end?

PART – C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Write about Mussolini and his party.
2. Give an account of Hitler and Nazi party.

ACTIVITIES

1. Read the books, “A Diary of Anne Frank”, “Exodus” by Leon Uris, to know about the situation before and during Second World War.
2. To see the movie, “Schindler’s List”.
3. Conduct a debate on similarities and differences between Fascism, Nazism and Communism.
4. Visit the following URL to know more about these parties.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/modsbook.html-world>

(C) GREAT ECONOMIC DEPRESSION

PART – A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. President Roosevelt assumed office on _____ 1933.
a) January 3 b) March 3 c) March 23
2. Tennessee Valley Authority covered _____ sq. miles.
a) 40,000 b) 400,000 c) 14,000
3. The Security Exchange Act was passed in _____ .
a) 1924 b) 1934 c) 1943
4. In _____ 1929, the share market crashed.
a) September b) October c) November
5. The New Deal Policy was introduced by President _____ .
a) Hoover b) Jefferson c) Roosevelt

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Who was the President of USA, when the stock market crashed?
2. What was the significant achievement of FDR?
3. Which organization advanced funds to affected banks?
4. What was the greatest craze of the Americans?
5. Which Act issued licenses to Stock Exchange?
6. Name the act passed on the industrial front?

III. Match the Following:

1. Herbert Hoover	1933
2. Roosevelt	1934
3. Reconstruction Finance Corporation	1940
4. The Security Exchange Act	1929
5. Recovery of America	1932

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Stock Market
 - a) What was the greatest craze in America?
 - b) How did people become rich quickly?
 - c) Why did the people buy shares?
 - d) What happened when Hoover became President?
 - e) How were people affected due to the crash of the stock market?
2. FDR
 - a) Expand FDR.
 - b) What was his election manifesto?
 - c) Whom did he consult after becoming President?
 - d) Mention one of his famous relief measures.
 - e) What was the congress asked to create?
3. New Deal
 - a) Mention the two types of New Deal Legislation.
 - b) Explain the Tennessee Valley Authority measure.
 - c) How did Roosevelt build up the internal economy?
 - d) What steps were taken by him on the labour and industrial fronts?
 - e) What were the achievements of New Deal in the earlier days?

PART – C

V. Answer the Following in not more than 2 pages:

1. Give a critical analysis of the remedial measures taken by President Roosevelt in America?

ACTIVITY

1. Visit the following URL to see the photos of American people during depression. http://www.indianchild.com/the_great_depression.htm.

UNIT - IV SECOND WORLD WAR

CHAPTER – 5

THE SECOND WORLD WAR (1939 – 1945)

The First World War brought death and destruction on a large scale. The people of the world realized the futility of war and made every effort to avoid another global war. The Treaty of Versailles signed at the end of the First World War itself contained the seeds of the Second world War. Within a span of twenty years the Second World War broke out engulfing more countries and bringing about more destruction than the first war.

CAUSES FOR THE SECOND WORLD WAR

a) The Treaty of Versailles

The unjust nature of the Treaty of Versailles dissatisfied Germany. She was deprived of her colonies. Her army was reduced. She was asked to pay a huge war indemnity, which was impossible for her to pay. She was deprived of her coal and steel resources. She was cut into two parts by the establishment of the Polish Corridor. Her navy was completely destroyed. Germany was humiliated by this treaty and she was waiting for an opportunity to show her strength.

b) Failure of the League of Nations

The League of Nations was formed to maintain peace in the world. But the members of the League violated its covenant and started military aggressions. All the nations tried to use the League to serve their personal ends. In 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria. Later Mussolini captured Ethiopia. Hitler's aggressive acts were not checked. All these were not checked by the League which remained a silent observer. Provision was made in the Charter of the League to punish the aggressors by stopping economic sanctions. But the League was too weak to impose it. The purpose of the League of Nations was lost with the outbreak of the Second World War.

c) The Rise of Japan

The ambitions of Japan had increased during the First World War. She rose to the position of an imperialistic nation by increasing her military strength. She developed her navy. Successes in the First World War encouraged her to be more ambitious. Even the League could not prevent her when she occupied Manchuria. Japan joined the Rome-Berlin- Tokyo Axis and was planning for war on a large scale.

d) The Rise of Dictatorship

The rise of dictatorship in Europe was another cause. Hitler armed Germany to the teeth and carried out a career of aggression. Mussolini and his Fascist followers aimed at making Italy a power to be reckoned with. Germany and Italy joined with Japan which was another ambitious nation.

e) Conflict of Ideologies

Dictatorship and democracy were two different and conflicting ideologies. Germany, Italy and Japan believed in dictatorship, while Great Britain, France and United States were powerful democracies. Mussolini described the conflict between the two ideologies thus; “The struggle between the two worlds can permit no compromise; “Either We or They”. The two ideologies differed in their attitude towards the individual and state. The two ideologies differed in spiritual, territorial, and economic matters.

f) The problem of Minorities

The Treaty of Versailles failed to solve the problem of minorities. There were German minorities in Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland who wanted to join Germany. Hitler encouraged them to fight for their rights. They were subjected to economic, political and military oppression.

g) Weakness of the Democratic States

Soon after the peace settlement of 1919, Great Britain and France began to drift apart. Great Britain began to follow a policy of aloofness from European politics and refused to accept any commitment for the preservation of peace. Great Britain followed a policy of appeasement with the Axis powers. France began to fear that Germany might attack her. She asked for guarantees from USA and Britain. When she failed to get them, she formed military alliances with countries like Poland, Czechoslovakia and Belgium. Unfortunately her alliances were more of liabilities than assets.

h) Armament Race

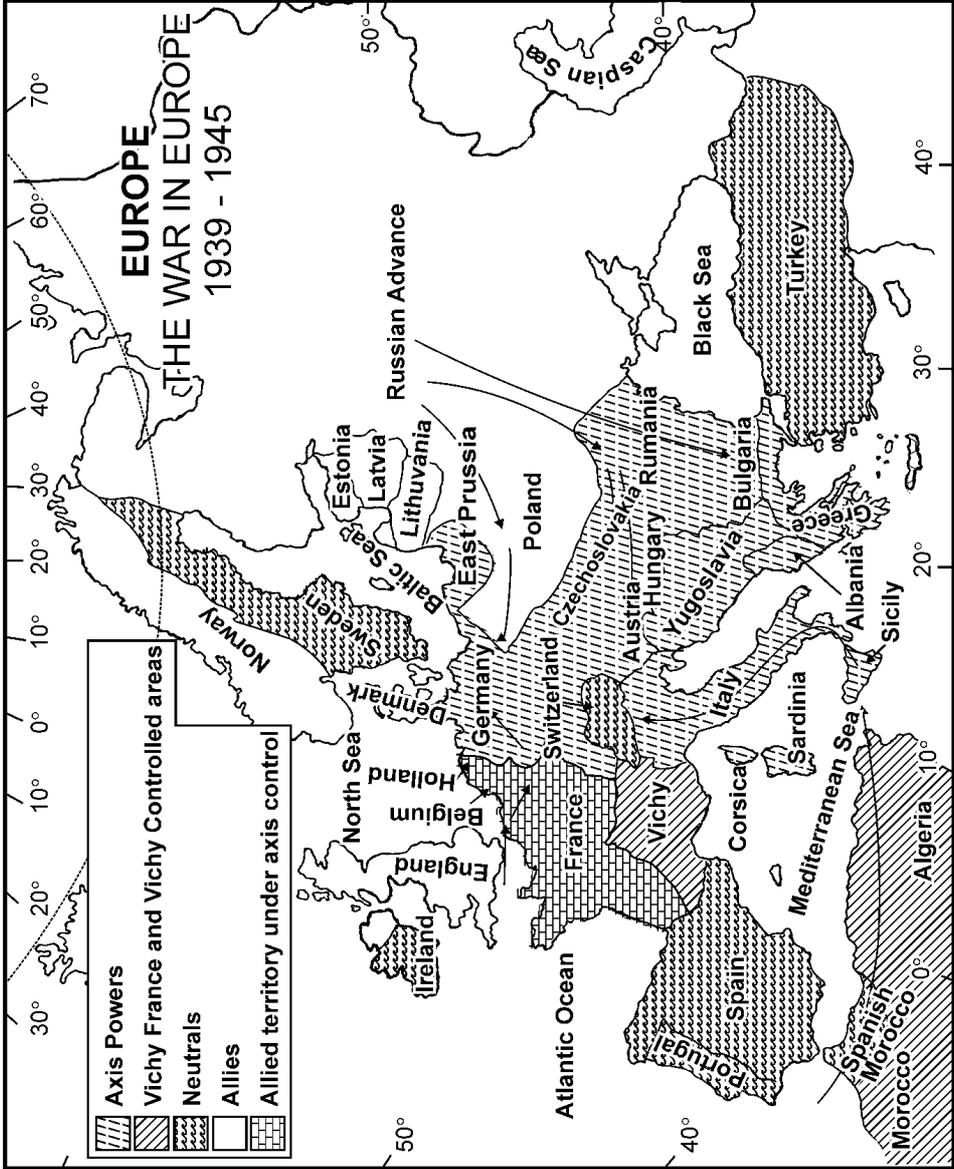
Germany, Japan and Italy believed in the Armament Race to realize their aim of becoming important world powers. These countries even strengthened their navy. They violated the disarmament clause of the League. Hitler felt that rearmament was the only road to success and started increasing his air force and made it one of the strongest in Europe. Both Italy and Japan were of the same minds, and followed suit. This finally led to war.

i) Economic Needs of the European Powers

The European powers were always on the lookout for colonies. There was need for raw materials and market for finished goods. The colonies provided both. Germany, Italy and Japan were in search of colonies for raw materials and their surplus goods. Most of the European countries followed the Protective Trade Policy and after the depression all the countries needed to protect their industries. Since the Axis countries suffered due to these policies, they carried on a path of aggression. Japan invaded Manchuria, Italy occupied Abyssinia. Added to this Germany's aggressive activities led to the Second World War.

j) Hitler's Aggressive Nature

It was Hitler's aggressive nature that culminated in the Second World war. The immediate cause was the aggressive acts of Hitler. In 1936 he marched into Rhineland and violated the Locarno Treaty of 1925, by which Britain, France, Germany and Italy agreed to maintain the Franco-German frontier as it existed then. In 1938 Hitler annexed Austria when the Axis powers formed an alliance. In the same year he committed aggression against Czechoslovakia and annexed Sudetanland, on the plea that there was a large German population there. Due to the efforts of Neville Chamberlain the British Prime Minister, a global war was averted. The Munich Agreement was signed between Britain and Germany and Germany agreed not to annex any more territories. But violating this Hitler annexed the whole of Czechoslovakia in 1939. Mussolini annexed Albania. Hitler forced Lithuania to surrender Memel. In August 1939, a treaty was signed between Russia and Germany. He promised to give Russia a free hand in the Baltic states. Hitler demanded from Poland a right to construct a military road through the Polish Corridor to connect Germany with East Prussia. She also demanded the surrender of Danzig. Poland refused and Germany sent troops to Poland on September 1, 1939. Britain and France warned Germany to



Vichy France was established after the country had surrendered to Germany in 1940 (It lasted upto 1944). It takes its name from the government’s capital in Vichy, south-east of Paris near Clermont-Ferrand.

Vichy France, while officially neutral in the war, was essentially a Nazi puppet state which collaborated with the Nazis, including on the Nazis’ racial policies. It opposed the Free French Forces, based first in London and later in Algiers.

withdraw her troops. Germany refused and so Britain and France declared war on Germany, on September 3, 1939. Thus the Second World War broke out.

COURSE OF THE WAR

The Second World War was called a global war because it engulfed almost all the countries of the world. Not only the soldiers were affected, but also the civilians of various countries. The war took place on land, in the air and in the sea.

a) War in Poland

When Poland refused to surrender, Germany declared war on her. Hitler made a sudden attack on Poland known as “Blitzkrieg”. The Poles put up a stiff resistance, but they were completely defeated. At the same time Russia invaded Poland from the east. Poland was divided between Germany and Russia. Next Russia annexed the Baltic States of Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania, and captured Finland also.

b) War in the Western Front

In April 1940, Germany conquered Denmark, Norway, Holland and Belgium. Hitler then attacked France from the side of Belgium. France surrendered to Germany in June 1940. A puppet government was set up in France under Marshall Petain. Britain evacuated her troops from Dunkirk. After the collapse of France, Italy joined the war.

c) Battle of Britain

Hitler then turned his attention to Britain. He sent his Luftwaffe (airforce) to drop bombs on Britain. His U Boats torpedoed many British ships. During the months of August and September, in 1940, the Luftwaffe, continuously bombed London and other cities daily throughout the night. This is called the Battle of Britain. Under the Prime Ministership of Winston Churchill, the British Royal Air force, not only repulsed these raids but also retaliated by raiding German towns. A great deal of civilian property was destroyed and many people lost their lives.

d) War in North Africa

Between 1941 and 1943 Africa was the theatre of many battles. The Italian Somaliland was captured. The British forces advanced to Libya but they had to withdraw. General Montgomery captured Tripoli and advanced

up to Tunisia. American and British troops occupied Algeria, a French colony. In 1943, Italian and German troops left North Africa.

e) War in South and South East Europe

In 1940, Hitler brought Rumania under his control. At the same time Italy invaded Greece from Albania. But the Italians were driven out by the Greeks. Hitler sent an army to help Italy. The army marched through Bulgaria and Yugoslavia, and conquered those territories. Greece and Crete fell after a stiff resistance.

f) Russian Campaign (1941)

Germany and Russia soon quarrelled on the question of Balkans. Hitler launched a massive attack on Russia. This was his fatal error. He committed the same mistake as Napoleon Bonaparte. Russia adopted the scorched earth policy. Russians abandoned villages and destroyed crops, factories, roads, railways and even houses. The German army had no food or shelter and suffered a lot due to severity of winter. The defeated German army reached Stalingrad and besieged it for 5 months. But the Russians resisted with help from Allies. The German army moved to Moscow and captured an empty city. While returning the rest of the German army was destroyed by the severe winter and the ambushing Russians.

g) United States enters War

In the beginning America was only helping with men and materials. In 1941, President F.D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill met on board a battleship in the Atlantic and concluded the Atlantic Charter. Japan had embarked on a career of aggression. She turned her attention to America. On December 7, 1941, the Japanese airforce bombed the American fleet stationed at Pearl Harbour. So America declared war on Japan and other Axis powers. Japan rapidly captured Phillipines, Indo – China, Siam, Dutch East Indies, Malaya Peninsula, Hongkong and Singapore, invaded Burma and captured Rangoon and Mandalay. Japan was threatening to invade India.

End of the War

The Allied troops planned an invasion of France from England. In June 1944, a big American and British force landed in Normandy. This event is known as “The Invasion”. They were joined by secret underground French forces. They attacked Germany from the west. From the east the Russian

forces attacked Germany. When Hitler came to know about the advance of the armies from two sides reaching Berlin, he committed suicide in his underground bunker. On May 7, 1945, Germany surrendered unconditionally. Mussolini was shot dead by his enemies.

The Allies served an ultimatum to Japan to surrender. When Japan refused, the USA dropped atom bombs on Hiroshima, on August 6, 1945 and on Nagasaki, on August 9. The Japanese surrendered unconditionally to the Allies on August 14, 1945. Thus the Second World War came to an end.

Results of the War

- a) The Second World War brought about destruction to life and property on a large scale.
- b) Germany was divided into 4 zones, each under an Allied power. Russia, Britain, USA, and France took over the different zones. The German leaders of war were tried and executed.
- c) Dictatorship ended in Germany and Italy. The war was a triumph for the democratic countries.
- d) America and Russia emerged as Super Powers. Britain lost its place as a Super Power. A Cold war started between Russia and America.
- e) General McArthur of USA disarmed Japan and introduced a parliamentary form of government.
- f) The Second World war triggered the freedom movements in Asia and Africa. India, Burma, Egypt, Indonesia, Indo-China, Ceylon, and Philippines achieved their freedom.
- g) The United Nations Organisation was set up to maintain International peace and harmony. The organization worked hard to maintain international co-operation and for the promotion of human welfare.

THE UNITED NATIONS ORGANIZATION

The Second World War ended in May 1945. The different nations of the world felt the need for a powerful organization, which would maintain peace in the world. With such a view the Charter of the United Nations was signed at Sanfrancisco in June 1945. Its headquarters was in New York. The main aim of the UNO is to maintain International peace and security,

development of friendly relations among nations and to solve socio-economic and humanitarian problems. The work of the UNO is carried on by its six organs and specialized agencies.

The Organs of the UNO

The United Nations Organization officially came into existence on October 24, 1945. The main organs, are (i) General Assembly, (ii) Security Council, (iii) Economic and Social Council, (iv) Trusteeship Council, (v) International Court of Justice, (vi) Secretariat.

i) General Assembly

Every member country of UNO is a member of the General Assembly. The Assembly meets once in a year. It has the power to discuss, review and supervise the work of other organs. It elects or nominates members to various organs of the UNO. Vijayalakshmi Pandit, Nehru's sister was elected the President of the General Assembly in 1953.

ii) Security Council

The Security Council has 5 permanent Members and 10 non permanent members elected by the General Assembly for a term of 2 years. The 5 permanent members are China, Russia, France, USA and the UK. The Security Council settles international issues through peaceful negotiations. Every permanent member has the power to veto. A veto is a negative vote. Even if one permanent member exercises the veto power the resolution cannot be passed.

iii) The Secretariat

The Secretariat coordinates the functions of the organs of the UNO. The Secretary General is the chief Administrative Officer. Mr. Kofi Annan is the present Secretary General of the UNO.

iv) The Economic and Social Council

The Council has 18 members elected by the General Assembly. It makes studies regarding economic, social, educational, health and other related matters. It coordinates its activities with the specialized agencies.

v) Trusteeship Council

The Trusteeship Council looks after certain Territories placed under the Trusteeship of the UNO. Every member nation can send one qualified representative to the Council.

vi) The International Court of Justice

This Court consists of 15 judges chosen by the General Assembly and the Security Council. It decides cases which involve two or more countries.

Achievements of the UNO

The UNO has helped to solve many International disputes and preserved peace in the world. The UNO intervened when Pakistan attacked India in 1947. In 1965 and 1971 also the UNO took steps to stop war between the two countries. The UNO played a vital role in the Suez Canal crisis of 1956. It made France, Britain and Israel to withdraw troops from Egypt. The UNO also settled the Korean War, Vietnam War and disputes between Israel and Palestine.

The specialized agencies of the UNO are many. A few are mentioned below:

The World Health Organization (W.H.O), The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), The International Labour Organization (ILO), Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and The World Bank (IBRD), These Organizations develop the economic and social aspects of the member countries.

EXERCISES**PART – A****I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:**

1. The Treaty of _____ contained the seeds of the Second World War.
a) Versailles b) London c) Vienna
2. An opportunity was awaited by _____ to show her strength.
a) Italy b) Germany c) Turkey
3. In 1931, _____ invaded Manchuria.
a) Japan b) England c) France
4. Soon after the peace settlements of 1919, _____ and France began to drift apart.
a) Germany b) America c) Great Britain

5. Hitler occupied _____ in 1936.
a) Rhineland b) Albania c) Abyssinia
6. The German Air force was known as _____ .
a) U-boats b) Luftwaffe c) Lusitania
7. The Japanese Air force bombed the American fleet stationed at _____
a) Port Arthur b) Pearl Harbour c) Suez Canal
8. The Munich agreement was signed between Britain and _____ .
a) Germany b) France c) Italy

II. Answer the following each in a word or a phrase:

1. Which region was declared as demilitarized zone?
2. What was the lightning attack on Poland by Hitler known as?
3. Name the policy followed by Russia during the course of Second World War.
4. When did U.S.A. drop bomb on Nagasaki?
5. When was the Atlantic Charter signed?
6. What is the main aim of the U.N.O.?
7. What is the important function of the Economic and Social Council?
8. Who is the chief Administrative Officer of the UN Secretariat?
9. Expand UNESCO.
10. How many permanent members are there in the Security Council?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Germany | a) Tripoli |
| 2. Italy | b) Scorched Earth Policy |
| 3. Japan | c) Albania |
| 4. Russia | d) Austria |
| 5. Montgomery | e) Manchuria |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Failure of the League of Nations
 - a) Why was the league formed?
 - b) How did the members of the League violate its covenant?
 - c) When was Manchuria invaded by Japan?
 - d) What was the reaction of the League?
 - e) What provision was there in the league to punish the aggressors?

2. Economic needs of the European powers
 - a) For what were the European nations on the look out?
 - b) What did the colonies provide?
 - c) Who were in search of colonies?
 - d) What trade policy was followed by most of the countries?
 - e) What path was carried on by these countries?
3. Hitler's aggressions
 - a) What was the Locarno Treaty?
 - b) How did Hitler violate the Locarno treaty?
 - c) Name a region annexed by Hitler on the excuse that there was a large German population.
 - d) Why was the Munich Pact signed?
 - e) How did Hitler violate the Munich Pact?
4. Russian Campaign
 - a) Why did Russia and Germany quarrel?
 - b) Who did the same error previously?
 - c) What was scorched earth policy?
 - d) How long was Stalingrad besieged?
 - e) Who destroyed the returning German army?
5. Course of the Second World War
 - a) Name the countries occupied by Russia at the beginning of the war.
 - b) Who was the Prime minister of England in 1940?
 - c) Name the city destroyed by Germany during the Russian Campaign?
 - d) What is Atlantic Charter?
 - e) Name the places conquered by Hitler in Western Europe.

PART –C

V. Answer the following each in not more than two pages:

1. Write an essay on the causes and results of the Second World War.
2. Describe the formation, organs, and achievements of the U.N.O.

PART –D

VI. On the outline map of Europe mark the following places during World War II:

- a) Axis Powers :
- | | | |
|---------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| (i) Italy | (ii) Germany | (iii) Austria |
| (iv) Hungary | (v) Yugoslavia | (vi) Bulgaria |
| (vii) Rumania | (viii) Albania | (ix) Greece (x) East Prussia |

b) Allies :

(i) England

(iv) Lithuania

(ii) Estonia

(v) Norway

(iii) Latvia

c) Neutrals :

(i) Portugal

(iv) Ireland

(ii) Spain

(v) Turkey

(iii) Sweden

(vii) Switzerland

ACTIVITIES

1. See the film “Longest Day”
2. Read the book “ Is Paris Burning” by Cornelius Ryan
3. To know more about the World War II, go to the URLs given below.
<http://www.army.mil/cmh-pg/brochures/normandy/nor-pam.htm>- normandy maps
http://www.historylink101.com/1/world_war_II/maps.htm- world war II maps

UNIT - V WORLD AFTER THE SECOND WORLD WAR

CHAPTER – 6 COLD WAR

During the Second World War, Britain, United States and Russia had only one aim - overthrow of Hitler. At the end of the war, the Allies began to drift apart. USA and Russia became the two Super Powers, There was a state of tension between the two Super Powers, which was termed Cold War. In other words cold war is a state of strained relationship and antagonism among the nations. It was not a war in the actual sense as no weapons were used. America represented the Democratic bloc and Russia the Communist bloc. The democratic bloc was not prepared to allow the Soviet Union to extend its sphere of influence. So the United States initiated the Truman Doctrine followed by the Marshall Plan, NATO, SEATO and Baghdad Pact or CENTO.

TRUMAN DOCTRINE

Soon after the Second World war, there was a threat of communism spreading in the Mediterranean countries. The Truman Doctrine was enumerated to help Greece and Turkey. Greece was in danger of losing her independence. The Communist led guerillas, who received arms and equipment from Communist countries surrounding it, sabotaged the government. The Soviet Union encouraged communist guerillas to fight against Greece. Turkey was also facing the same situation. Both of them appealed to the United States for help. To stop the spread of communist influence from Russia, President Truman of USA announced The Truman Doctrine in 1947. It was a proposal to render military and economic aid to Greece and Turkey. By 1950 peace was restored in Greece and Turkey and the guerillas were completely eliminated.

THE MARSHALL PLAN

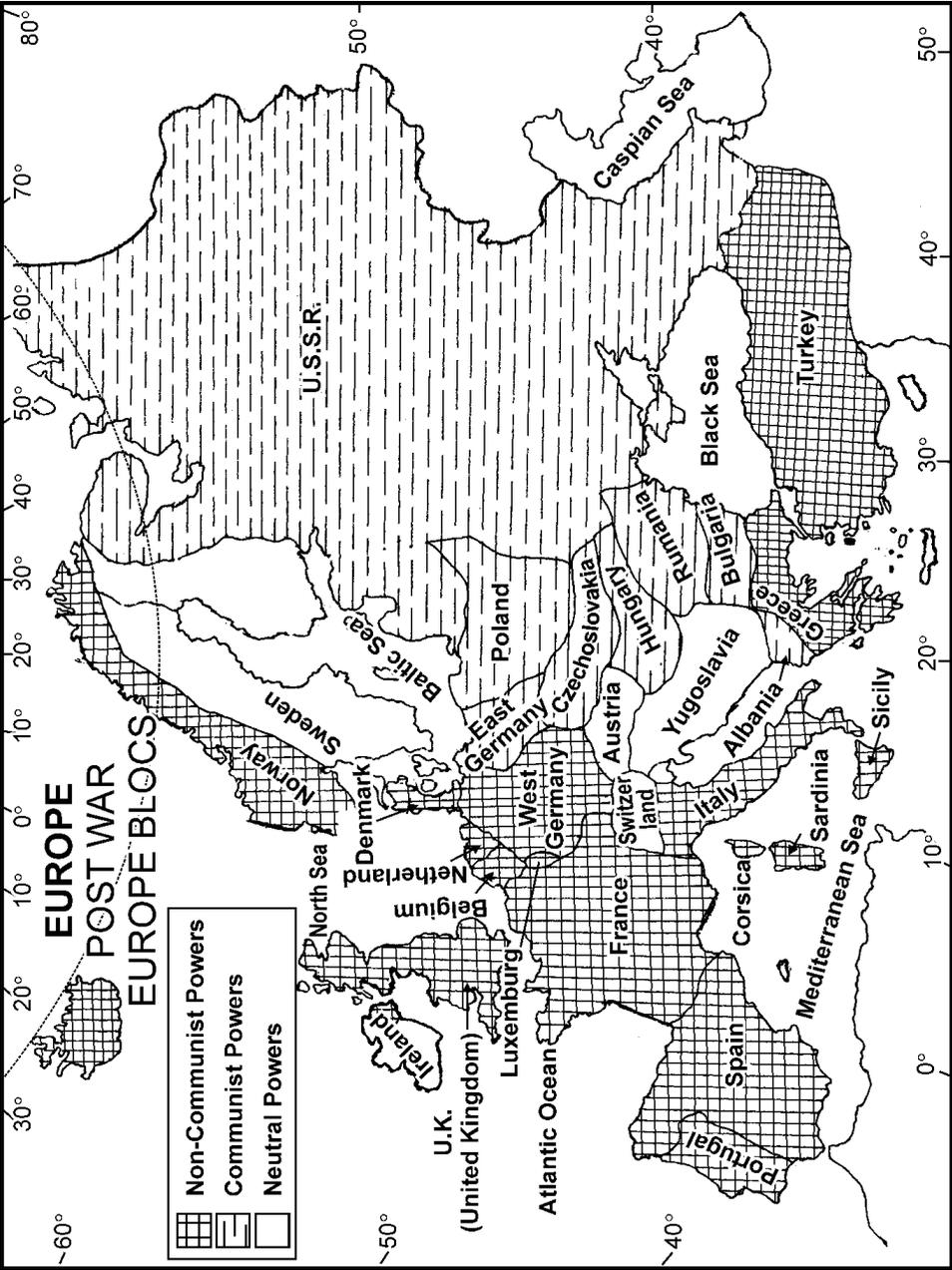
American Secretary of State George. C. Marshall evolved the Marshall Plan in June 1947. The plan proposed to help the countries of Europe with American dollars and recover from the damages caused by the Second World War. The plan dealt with Europe in general and not with any particular state as was the case with Truman Doctrine. Thus the communist threat was kept at bay. This plan strengthened the movement for European unity. As was to be expected the plan was attacked by Soviet Union, and the tension between them increased.

NATO – NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANISATION (1949)

This treaty was signed in Washington, on April 4, 1949. The USA, Canada, Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, The Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United Kingdom formed the NATO. Later Greece and Turkey joined the organisation in 1952. The Federal Republic of Germany joined the NATO in 1955. The chief aim of NATO was to safeguard the freedom of democratic countries and to preserve the peace and security in the North Atlantic region. The members agreed that an armed attack against any one of them will be considered as an aggression against all the members of NATO. NATO has a well developed ground, air and naval force. It succeeded in checking Soviet expansion. There has been no war in Europe since the NATO came into existence. NATO strengthened the morale of Western Europe.

SEATO or MANILA PACT (1954)

The countries of South East Asia were alarmed at the emergence of Communist China as a great power in the world. Developing countries like Philippines, Siam and South Korea were menaced by the Communists. They were making suggestions for the setting up of a defensive organisation. When the Korean War broke out, North Korea was helped by Communist China and the Soviet Union. This alarmed the other Asian countries. With in a few weeks of the Geneva Conference, many western and Asian countries met at Philippines on September 6, 1954. India refused the invitation and so Pakistan attended it. On September 8, 1954, the USA, Great Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, Pakistan, Thailand and the Philippines signed a treaty called South East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) or Treaty of Collective Defence of South East Asia at Manila.



The member countries undertook to settle any international disputes in which they might be involved by peaceful means. The member countries recognized the sovereign equality of all its members. They desired to live in peace with all countries. They promised to strive for self government and independence for all countries. They agreed to help in keeping international peace, security and justice.

CENTO OR BAGHDAD PACT (1955)

Initially this pact was made with the Prime Ministers of Iraq and Turkey, to provide a defence shield in the Middle East against Soviet penetration. Its original members were Turkey, Iran, UK, Pakistan and Iraq. In 1958, The United States signed a declaration of collective security to cooperate with member states. CENTO was known as the Baghdad Pact till 1958. After USA joined it, it came to be known as Central Treaty Organisation (CENTO). This treaty is open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region. Their main objective was to check communism.

WARSAW PACT (1955)

Since the western powers formed alliances, The Soviet Union and her followers could not be expected to lag behind. In December 1954, a conference of eight European nations namely, Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Poland, Rumania and the USSR was held in Moscow. They concluded the treaty of friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance on May 14, 1955. This is known as Warsaw pact. It was decided to set up a joint command of armed forces of the member countries with its headquarters in Moscow.

The Warsaw Pact was like a carbon copy of NATO. But there were a few differences. The Warsaw Pact was open to any state, whereas unanimity is required to extend the membership of NATO. Though it was agreed that all members were equal in both treaties, Soviet Union overshadowed the others in Warsaw Pact.

INCIDENTS OF COLD WAR

The formation of two military blocs created insecurity and strained relations between the communist and democratic blocs, which resulted in the cold war. The following events aggravated the cold war conditions.

U-2 INCIDENT (1960)

On May 1, 1960, An American aircraft called U-2, which was a spy plane from its bases in Pakistan and Turkey, crossed the Soviet border and penetrated more than 2000 kms. It was shot down by the Soviet Union. Though both the countries justified their actions, this incident led to a lot of bitterness between USA and USSR.

BAY OF PIGS EPISODE (1961)

It was reported in 1961 that the Soviet military equipment had arrived in Cuba along with a large number of technicians and other military personnel. Cuba is a communist country. Soon after the election of President John F. Kennedy of the USA, he decided to attack Cuba. It was a violation of international peace terms. In April 1961, thousands of anti Castro, Cuban exiles, armed and trained by USA, landed at the Bay of Pigs, in Cuba. They were easily captured by Castro's troops.

BERLIN CRISIS (1961)

Berlin continued to be an area of tension between the USA and the USSR. On June 15, 1961, Khrushchev set a deadline for the settlement of the Berlin issue. West Germany provided refuge to thousands of East Germans who fled East Germany every year. Khrushchev wanted to seal this escape route. West Germany had a higher standard of living and prosperity compared with the East Germans. Suddenly before the dawn of August 13, 1961, the East German government closed its borders between East and West Berlin with electric wire. Later on a huge concrete wall was created in its place. Any person jumping over the wall was shot dead. Many East Germans lost their lives in their bid to freedom. Thus East Germany was completely isolated. Though USA protested, the wall remained intact, until it was finally broken down in 1991.

CUBAN CRISIS

To further strain the relationship between the USA and USSR, the Cuban Missile crisis arose in 1962. Missile bases were under construction in Cuba, by Russia and thousands of Russian technicians were stationed at Cuba. When America realized that Russia was setting up nuclear bases at Cuba, American President John F. Kennedy appeared on American television and showed the evidence of armed missiles in Cuba. He declared that ships

carrying missiles would be stopped by American warships. Kennedy ordered the US navy to prevent Russian ships from reaching Cuba. United Nations Secretary General U Thant appealed to both the parties to halt their activities. Khrushchev soon withdrew the nuclear missiles and thus a nuclear war was averted.

NUCLEAR TEST BAN TREATY (1963)

This treaty was drawn up in August 1963. With in a year more than hundred nations signed it. Great Britain, America, and the Soviet Union took part in the conference, which met at Geneva. It was agreed that all tests in the earth's atmosphere, in the outer space, in the ocean, and under ground should be stopped. Thus nuclear tests were prevented in the atmosphere, outer space and under water.

THE COMPREHENSIVE TEST BAN TREATY (CTBT)

This treaty was adopted by the UN General Assembly on September 10, 1996. It is yet to come into force as some countries including India have not signed it. These countries must ratify the treaty before it comes into force.

EXERCISES

PART – A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The Truman Doctrine was announced by _____.
a) England b) U.S.A. c) France
2. One of the member countries of NATO is _____.
a) Russia b) China c) Italy
3. SEATO was signed at _____.
a) Philippines b) Thailand c) Manila
4. After _____ signed the Baghdad pact it came to be known as CENTO.
a) U.S.A. b) UK c) USSR
5. The American President _____ showed the evidence of armed missiles in Cuba.
a) John. F. Kennedy b) Franklin. D. Roosevelt c) Nixon

II. Answer each of the Following in a Word or Phrase:

1. What is meant by Cold War?
2. Give the expansion of CENTO.
3. Name the Pact concluded by the Communist countries.
4. What was the main objective of Baghdad Pact?
5. When was Warsaw Pact formed?
6. How many countries were there in the Warsaw Pact?
7. Why did the U.S.A. announce the Truman Doctrine?
8. Where did the American forces land in Cuba?
9. Which treaty reduced the tension among the different countries of the world?

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------|
| 1. Truman Doctrine | a) Geneva |
| 2. Manila Pact | b) Castro |
| 3. Baghdad Pact | c) Pakistan |
| 4. U-2 Incident | d) Iraq |
| 5. NTBT | e) Greece |

PART –B

IV. Answer all the Questions given under each caption:

1. Truman Doctrine
 - a) Why was the Truman Doctrine enumerated?
 - b) Who encouraged the Communist guerillas?
 - c) What was announced in 1947?
 - d) What did the proposal state?
 - e) When were these guerillas completely eliminated?
2. NATO
 - a) When was NATO signed?
 - b) Name the countries which joined it in 1952.
 - c) What was its chief aim?
 - d) What does NATO have?
 - e) What did NATO strengthen?
3. Baghdad Pact
 - a) With whom was the pact made initially?
 - b) Who were its original members?
 - c) In 1958, what was the declaration signed by the USA?
 - d) By what name was it known after USA joined it?
 - e) What was their main objective?

4. Manila Pact (1954)
 - a) Who were alarmed at the emergence of Communist China as a great power?
 - b) Who were menaced by the Communists?
 - c) What alarmed the Asian countries?
 - d) Where did the Asian countries meet?
 - e) Name the countries which signed SEATO.
5. Warsaw Pact
 - a) Name the countries which met at Moscow.
 - b) What type of treaty did they conclude?
 - c) What did these countries decide?
 - d) Which was their headquarters?
 - e) What resulted in cold war?
6. Incidents of Cold War
 - a) Which incident did lead to a lot of bitterness between USA and USSR?
 - b) What did arrive in Cuba?
 - c) What was a violation of international peace terms?
 - d) Where did the Cuban exiles land?
 - e) What did the East German government do before dawn?

PART –C

V. Answer the following in not more than two pages:

1. What were the efforts taken by the U.S.A. to arrest the spread of Communism in Europe.

PART –D

VI. On the outline map of Europe mark the following:

- 1) Non – Communist countries :

(i) Portugal	(ii) Spain	(iii) France
(iv) United Kingdom	(v) Norway	(vi) West Germany
(vii) Italy	(viii) Belgium	(ix) Greece
(x) Turkey		
- 2) Communist Countries :

(i) East Germany	(ii) Czechoslovakia	(iii) Hungary
(iv) Rumania	(v) Bulgaria	(vi) Albania
(vii) USSR	(viii) Poland	

3) Neutral Countries :

(i) Switzer Land

(ii) Austria

(iii) Yugoslavia

(iv) Sweden

(v) Finland

ACTIVITIES

1. Conduct a debate on Cold War between the U.S.A. and USSR.
2. Assess their relevance in today's world.
3. Go to the following URL to see pictures and stories of cold war.
http://www.coldwar.org/museum/coldwar_stories.html

CHAPTER – 7

STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE IN ASIA & AFRICA

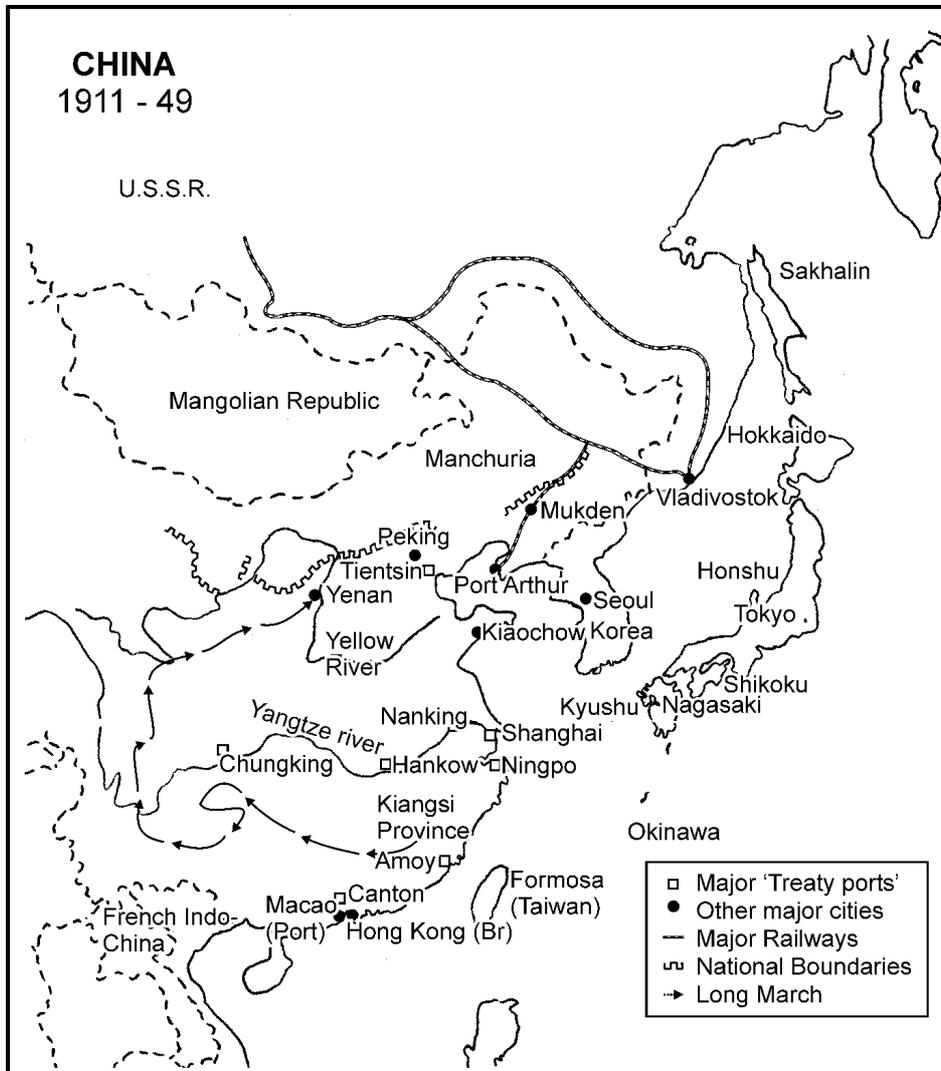
The Second World War encouraged many Asian and African countries to sever their connections from the colonial powers and become independent. India was one of the earliest countries to attain independence. India's first Prime Minister Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru helped to strengthen freedom movements in other countries.

A) CHINA

The Chinese Revolution of 1911 ended the 267 years old Manchu rule and the Chinese Republic was established. The Revolution marked the end of a long and weary path of traditionalism and medievalism. The founder of the national movement in China was Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen. In 1917 he set up a government in South China. The party formed by him was called Kuomintang. Dr. Sun-Yat-Sen's three principles were Democracy, Nationalism and People's livelihood or Socialism.

In 1920, the Communist Party of China was formed by Mao Tse Tung, (Mao Ze Dong) Chou En Lai and other leaders in Peking. Mao Tse Tung realized that the peasants could play a big role in bringing about a Communist Revolution. In 1924, The Kuomintang and the Communist Party decided to work together. Soviet Union gave various kinds of aids and also trained the revolutionary army.

After the death of Sun-Yat-Sen in 1925, the unity between the Kuomintang and the Communist party was broken. In 1931, when Japan attacked and captured Manchuria, the two parties agreed to work together against the Japanese invasion. The Kuomintang was led by Chiang Kai Shek and the Communist party was under Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai. However the conflicts of interest between the two never ceased. The communists increased their influence among the workers and peasants and obtained recruits for their army. The Kuomintang represented the interests of the landlords and capitalists.



Since the Communists were caught and tortured, Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai organized a march from South China to North China, a distance of nearly 6000 miles. It was known as "The Long March" of 1934 - 35. Nearly a lakh Communists marched on foot for 268 days to reach Shaanxi. about 80,000 comrades lost their lives due to the oppression of Chiang Kai Sheik. The policies of the Communist party won over the hearts of millions of people. It also organized the People's Liberation Army. After the defeat

of Japan, a civil war broke out in China. Chiang Kai Sheik was supported by the United States which gave him liberal aid. But by 1949, Chiang Kai Sheik's army was defeated and he went to Taiwan (Formosa). There he formed a government, which was recognized by the U.S.A.

After their victory over the Kuomintang, the Communists proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China with its capital at Peking (Beijing) in 1949. The new government was a Communist dictatorship. The United States refused to recognize the People's Republic of China. Later, the U.S.A. recognized China and it became one of the five permanent members of the U.N.O.

B) INDO CHINA

Indo China consisted of Laos, Vietnam and Cambodia. The region was under French colonial rule. During the Second World War Japan moved her forces into Indo-China. The people of Indo-China had organized themselves under Ho-Chi-Minh to resist French rule. Their leader Ho-Chi-Minh started the Communist Party of Indochina. When Japan occupied Vietnam, the Vietnamese opposed it. They organized a People's Army, called Viet Minh. After Japan surrendered in 1945, the French troops tried to return to power. The Viet Minh proclaimed their independence in the northern part of Indochina and called it the Democratic Republic of Vietnam with Ho-Chi-Minh as its President. The French army fought with Viet Minh and set up a puppet government under Bao Dai. The war between them continued for eight years. In 1954 the French forces suffered defeat at the hands of the Viet Minh. An international conference was held at Geneva in July. Vietnam was partitioned into North and South Vietnam, the dividing line being the 17th parallel. Laos and Cambodia were made independent countries.

The U.S.A. supported South Vietnam and Russia and China recognized North Vietnam. Then the U.S.A. helped South Vietnam with maximum military aid. This was opposed by the other countries of the world. In January 1973, the American troops started withdrawing from Vietnam. By April 30, 1975, all the American troops had withdrawn from Vietnam. North and South Vietnam were finally united as one country in 1976.

C) KOREA

The outbreak of the Second World War witnessed the revival of Korean nationalism. Japan had control over Korea since 1910. At the end of the

Second World War Korea was split into two zones, namely the Northern zone under Soviet occupation and the Southern zone under American control.

The People's Democratic Republic of Korea occupies the northern part of the Korean peninsula. It was under the leadership of Korean Communists. The Republic of Korea (South Korea) was under the leadership of Syngman Rhee. During the Second World War America occupied South Korea and Russia occupied North Korea. At the Potsdam Conference, the 38th parallel of latitude was recognized as the line of division between North and South Korea. There were frequent clashes between the two countries. A civil war broke out in 1950. Since America feared the spread of communism, it sent troops to South Korea during the civil war. The Soviet Union and Communist China aided North Korea. An armistice was signed in 1953 and Korea was divided into two countries.

D) SOUTH AFRICA

There are about forty countries in Africa. Almost all of them were brought under the control of European countries. After the Second World War one by one they fought for independence and got it.

In 1910, the African National Congress (ANC) was formed. India was the foremost country to support ANC, soon many others followed. Nelson Mandela, a great Leader of the Africans protested against the policies of the White Minority government. Mandela was imprisoned from 1962 to 1990. He became the symbol of African struggle for racial justice. In July 1991, Nelson Mandela was elected President of the African National Congress a party opposed to discrimination of the Africans.

Apartheid

The National Party ruled South Africa from 1948 to 1990. An African dominated Republic was formed on May 31, 1961. The policy of apartheid was followed for many years. Apartheid means racial segregation. South Africans were segregated from whites.



Fig. 7.1 Nelson Mandela

Separate schools, Universities and residential areas were established for each group. Apartheid became an official policy of the government of South Africa.

Nelson Mandela was released from prison in 1990, after 26 years of imprisonment. In 1991, the government repealed all the laws related to apartheid. Mandela continued to fight all traces of racial injustice in South Africa including laws denying the Africans the Right to Vote.

The ban on ANC was lifted and the provision of free and fair election was given. A new Constitution was framed and all the South Africans were given the right to vote. Elections were held in April 1994. Nelson Mandela became the President of the Republic of South Africa.

EXERCISES

PART – A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. One of the earliest countries to attain independence was _____.
a) India b) Vietnam c) Korea
2. The Chinese Revolution of 1911, ended the _____ rule of the Manchus.
a) 287 years b) 267 years c) 297 years
3. In _____ both Kuomintang party and the Communist party decided to work together.
a) 1920 b) 1922 c) 1924
4. Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai organized a march called _____.
a) Long March b) Dandi March c) Salt March
5. Indo –China was under the control of _____.
a) Britain b) Germany c) France

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Who helped to strengthen freedom movements in other countries?
2. Who was the founder of the National Movement in China?
3. Who founded the Communist party of China?
4. How long did the Communists take to reach Shaanxi?
5. Which places were jointly called Indo China?
6. Who started the Communist party of Indo China?

7. What is Apartheid?
8. Give the expansion of ANC.
9. Name the African leader who protested against the policy of Apartheid?
10. Who was the leader of the Republic of Korea (south)?

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Dr.Sun Yat Sen | Vietminh |
| 2. Mao – Tse-Tung | South Africa |
| 3. Bao Dai | Kuomintang |
| 4. Ho-Chi-Minh | Puppet government |
| 5. Nelson Mandela | Long March |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Indo China
 - a) Whose colony was Indo China?
 - b) Who moved into Indo China with her forces during World War II?
 - c) What was the reaction of the people of Indo China?
 - d) Who captured the northern part of Indo China after 1945?
 - e) Where was an international conference held?
2. Vietnam
 - a) Which line divided Vietnam into North and South Vietnam?
 - b) Which were made independent countries?
 - c) Who supported South Vietnam?
 - d) Who supported North Vietnam?
 - e) When were north and south Vietnam united as one country?
3. Korea
 - a) Till which year was Korea under Japan?
 - b) When and how was Korea split into two zones?
 - c) Who was ruling Democratic People’s Republic of Korea?
 - d) Who was the leader of the Republic of Korea?
 - e) What was the result of Potsdam conference?
4. South Africa
 - a) When was ANC formed?
 - b) Who protested against the policies of white minority government?
 - c) What was the policy practiced by the white minority government?
 - d) How long was Mandela imprisoned?
 - e) When did Mandela become President?

PART – C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. How did Chinese establish the People's Republic of China?
2. Clearly explain the steps taken by Dr.Nelson Mandela, to establish the Republic of South Africa.

ACTIVITIES

1. Go the following URL to learn more about the freedom struggles in Asia.
<http://www.historylearningsite.co>.
2. Collect pictures of all the important personalities connected with the lesson and prepare an album.

UNIT - VI STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

CHAPTER – 8 THE GREAT REVOLT OF 1857

The great revolt of 1857 was a great upheaval, which some historians call the First War of Independence. It is also known as the sepoy mutiny as the uprising sprang up from the Indian sepoys or soldiers working under the British officers. The Revolt started in Meerut and spread to other parts of the country. Many peasants, artisans and common man joined the sepoys of the Indian army. They made a sincere effort to end the foreign rule. The Revolt of 1857 was not a sudden occurrence. It was a culmination of accumulated grievances of the Indian people against the British rule. It is aptly described by Asoka Mehta thus: “The rebellion of 1857 was more than a mere sepoy mutiny and was an eruption of the social volcano, wherein many pent up forces found vent”. The scars of the rebellion remained deep and shining.

1. CAUSES OF THE REVOLT

The Revolt occurred during the Governor generalship of Lord Canning. The important causes for the outbreak of the Revolt are given below.

a) Political Causes

The British policies of annexation and expansion created suspicion in the minds of the Indians. Lord Dalhousie’s Doctrine of Lapse and policy of abolishing the titles of Indian rulers made them the enemies of the British. It created a spirit of uneasiness and suspicion throughout India. Dalhousie refused to recognize the adopted sons of the Rajas of Nagpur, Satara and Jhansi. The state of Oudh was annexed even though its ruler was always faithful to the British government. This annexation angered the soldiers of the English East India Company, most of whom came from Oudh. The Indian rulers never felt the same under British Imperialism. The British government confiscated the estates of majority of the zamindars and they became the enemies of the British. Even the most faithful and loyal among them could

not be sure of their future. The Indians did not like the judicial set up of the British as it was time consuming and costly.

b) Economic Causes

The British rule disrupted the life of the Indians. India was drained of its wealth. The introduction of machine made goods by the British destroyed the indigenous industries. The common masses resented the condition.

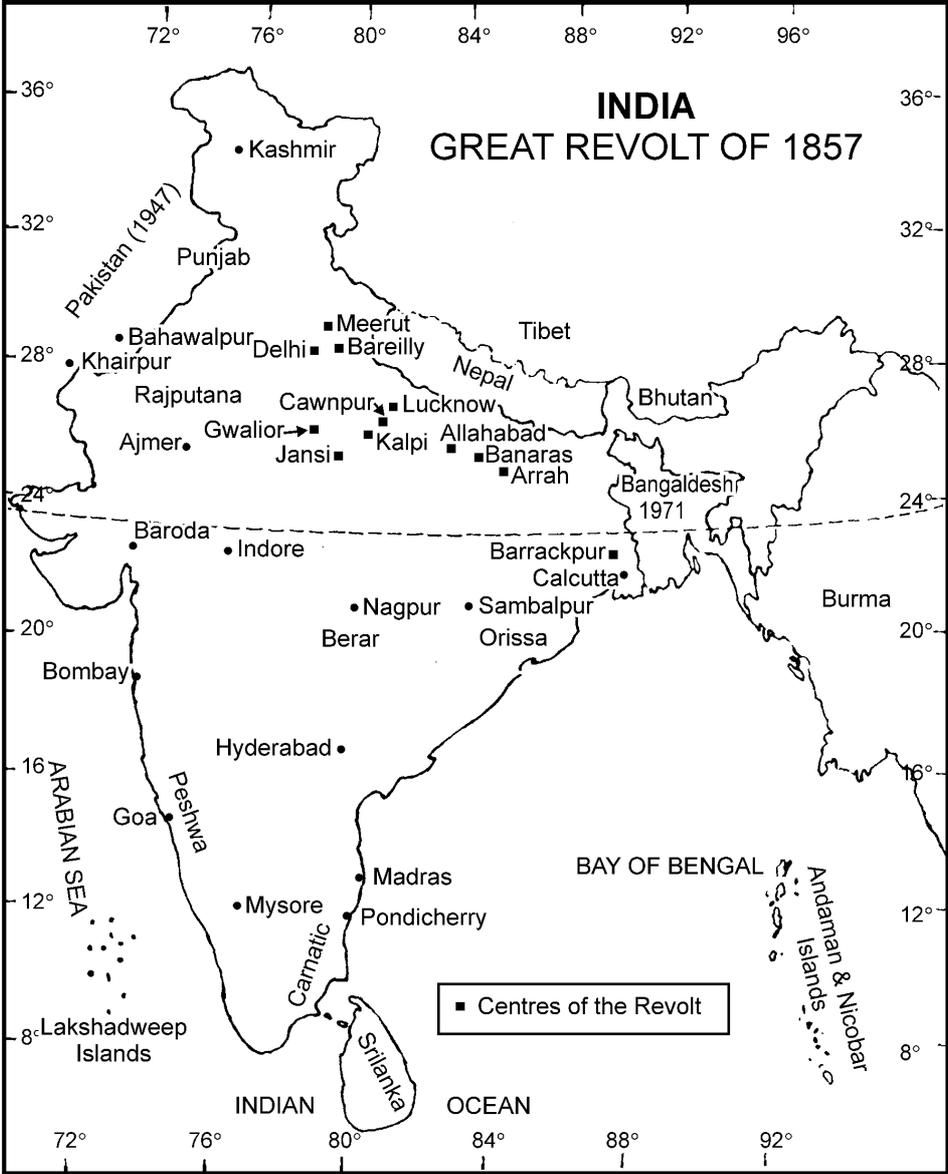
The annexation of native states deposed the Indian ruler and hundreds of people who worked under him lost employment. The resumption of rent free estates by Bentinck in Bengal brought a lot of money to the government but the landowners were reduced to poverty, since either they had lost their land deeds or they got the land through ancestral property. When Oudh was annexed by the British, The Zamindars were put to untold miseries. These discontented landlords became the leaders of the Revolution. When a king was deposed, the higher strata of court officials lost their high administrative posts. All high posts were reserved for the English and the Indians were not promoted or appointed to these posts. Such a policy was resented by the Indians, especially those who were competent.

c) Social and Religious Causes

The Indians felt that their religion and society were in danger of being destroyed by western influence. The introduction of railways, telegraph and western education created suspicion in the minds of the people, who thought that the British would convert them to Christianity. The abolition of the sati and child marriage and encouraging widow remarriage also meant interference in religious affairs. The Christian missionaries resorted to wholesale conversion of the Indians. The Hindu law of property was changed with a view to facilitate the conversion of the Hindus to Christianity.

d) Military Causes

The Indian soldiers had numerous grievances against the British. They asked for better pay and good treatment by British officers. The general Service Enlistment Act passed in 1856 at the time of Lord Canning created bitterness among Indian soldiers. He ordered all recruits of the Bengal army to be ready for service both inside and outside India. The Indian soldiers were reluctant to go overseas since it was against their religion. There was a large percentage of Indian soldiers in the army. This emboldened them to rise in revolt. Moreover in order to make the sepoy look smarter, the sepoy were ordered to trim their moustaches and beards. They were also ordered



to remove the caste marks on their forehead and to replace the turban with leather hat. These were totally alien to the Indian soldiers. The Muslims felt that to remove the beard was against their religion. The Sikhs never trim their hair or beard. The replacement of turban with leather hat was unacceptable to both the Muslims and the Hindus as they wondered on the origin of leather.

e) Immediate Cause

The immediate cause of the Revolt of 1857 was the introduction of greased cartridges in the new Enfield Rifle. These cartridges had to be bitten by the Sepoys in order to load them in the rifle. A rumour spread that these cartridges were greased with the fat of the cow and pig. To both the Hindus and the Muslims the use of this greased cartridge was something that was against their religion. The sepoy got infuriated and refused to use them as cow was considered sacred by the Hindus and the pig was detested by the Muslims. At Barrackpore, near Calcutta, Mangal Pandey, an Indian officer of 34th native infantry shot his officer dead on March 29, 1857. He was hanged to death and the 34th infantry was disbanded.



Fig. 8.1 Mangal Pandey

2. MAIN EVENTS OF THE REVOLT

Though this first sign of unrest appeared early in 1857 at Barrackpore and Berhampore in Bengal, that was quickly suppressed and the rebels were punished. As was the practice in those days, all the British officers left the plains and went to hill stations on leave till the end of hot summer. The ratio of English soldiers to Indians was one to eight thousand. On April 23, the commanding officer asked the sepoy in Meerut to load the rifles with cartridges. The sepoy refused and were all court martialled and imprisoned. But the sepoy broke out in to open revolt at Meerut. They broke open the prison and released their imprisoned comrades. Then they galloped to Delhi and brought it under their control. The Revolt then spread to Lucknow, Bareilly, Cawnpore, Agra, Jhansi, Banares, Central India, Bundelkhand and other places.

Delhi

Though there was a king (Bahadur Shah II) at Delhi, he had no kingdom. When the Mutineers reached Delhi on the morning of May 11, they attacked the fort gates. Bahadur Shah II did not have the courage to confront this unruly crowd. Moreover his guards also joined the rebels. Unlike Meerut, Delhi had no European troops. After killing a large number of Europeans, they occupied Delhi. Bahadur Shah II, the old Mughal Emperor was placed on the throne of Delhi. After that the army just kept on looting in an unruly manner. This gave some breathing space to the English. The English troops under John Nicholson, came from Punjab and stormed the Kashmir gate and entered Delhi. For six days there was intensive street fighting and finally entered the palace and captured Bahadur Shah II. Two of his sons and one grandson were shot dead before his eyes. He was charged of rebellion and sent to Rangoon, where he died at the ripe age of 87.



Fig. 8.2 Bahadur Shah II

Cawnpore (Kanpur)

At Cawnpore the mutiny was led by Nana Sahib or Dundu Panth as he was called. He was the adopted son of Peshwa Bajji Rao II. Nana saheb was helped by Tantia Tope, a gallant leader. Azimullah another loyal official of Nana Sahib also contributed to the success of the Indians over the British. The English Commander surrendered after a futile resistance. Though Nana Sahib assured of a safe passage for the Englishmen to reach Allahabad, the sepoys opened fire on the English troops and killed them. Nana Sahib imprisoned 150 British women and children. But when it was learnt that an English contingent was coming towards the city, these women and children were murdered. Colonel Havelock and Colonel O' Neill entered the city and defeated the rebels. In the end Nana Sahib was defeated by the British. He refused to surrender but escaped to Nepal, where he died after a few years. By the middle of November 1857, Cawnpore was brought under control.

Lucknow

Begum Hazarat Mahal of Oudh led the Revolt at Lucknow. She declared her son Birjis Kadr as the Nawab of Oudh. The mutineers besieged the Residency. Maulavi Amanullah of the Faizabad was another great leader of this region. Sir Henry Lawrence was killed during the course of the siege of the residency. Later General Outram and Havelock forced their way in to the residency and with extra help from other troops Lucknow fell in the hands of the English in March 1858 and a large number of inhabitants were mercilessly massacred.



Fig. 8.3 Nana Sahib

Central India

The Mutiny in Central India centered round Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi and Tantia Tope. She encouraged even women to fight against the British. Sir Hugh Rose advanced from Bombay and besieged Jhansi. Tantia Tope came with a force to help her. Jhansi Rani managed to escape and joined with Tantia Tope and marched to Gwalior. When the British attacked it she fought back gallantly till she died. Tantia Tope escaped but was given up by the prince with whom he took shelter. He was captured and put to death.

Kunwant Singh, an 80 year old land lord of Jagadispur led the revolt at Arrah in Bihar. He fought bravely till his death in 1858 and then his brother Amarsingh took the lead, but this revolt collapsed soon.

3. CAUSES FOR THE FAILURE OF THE REVOLT

Various causes led to the failure of the Revolt of 1857. There was disunity among the Indians. The ideal of nationalism was not spread among the Indian masses. The mutiny was localized. There were many parts of India which were not affected by it at all. Particularly, the territory south of Narmada was undisturbed. Sind and Rajputana were quiet. Gurkhas of Nepal rendered timely help to the British in fighting. The British managed to get

the loyalty of Madras and Bombay Regiments. The Sikhs, the Afghans and the Gurkhas supported the British.



Fig. 8.4 Rani Laxmi Bai



Fig. 8.5 Tantia Tope

There was lack of resources in men and money. There was lack of leadership among them. The rebels worked without any common plan. They were short of modern weapons and ammunition. The army was neither organized nor disciplined. There were either too many leaders or none. The educated Indians also did not support the Revolt. There was no common aim except the hatred of the English. Once they captured a place, they did not know what else to do and spent their time in looting. The Indian Revolutionaries lacked careful planning, while the English men were well disciplined. The British were led by great men like Sir. John Lawrence, Outram, Havelock and Nicholson. Indian leaders like Bahadur Shah II, Nana Sahib, Tantia Tope, and Lakshmi Bai were no match for them.

So the freedom fighters could not continue the struggle for long. The telegraphic network and postal system helped the British in communication. The Railways could transport the soldiers quickly. The British had mastery over the seas, and so they could pour men and materials into India.

The Revolt broke out much earlier than the appointed day, that is, May 31, 1857. The Indians were not fully prepared by then.

4. RESULTS OF THE REVOLT

The great Revolt, though it failed to achieve its aim, produced far reaching results.

The Revolt sounded the death knell of the East India Company. The administration of India was taken over by the British Crown. Queen Victoria's Proclamation was issued in November 1858. The Board of Control and the Board of Directors were abolished and the office of the Secretary of State for India and India Council were created. The Governor General of India was designated as Viceroy of India.

It endorsed the treaties made by the Company with the Indian Princes, promised to respect their rights, dignity and honour. The loyalty of the Rajput, Maratha, and Sikh chiefs and of the Nizam was recognized. An attempt was made to reward them. The Proclamation assured that in future the British government would not annex the Indian states. They were given the right of adoption.

The Indian army was reorganized. The European forces were increased. More officers were appointed. Military positions and strategic points were transferred to European troops. All the key positions were kept in the hands of Englishmen. No Indian could be employed at Army Headquarters.

It created bitterness between the English and the Indians. Englishmen looked with suspicion on the Indians.

5. QUEEN'S PROCLAMATION OF 1858

A Royal Durbar was held at Allahabad in November 1, 1858. A proclamation was issued by Queen Victoria. It was read at the Durbar by Lord Canning, who was the last Governor General and the first Viceroy of India. The important features of the Queen's Proclamation were the following.

- i) The Act laid down that henceforth India shall be governed by and in the name of the Queen.
- ii) It abolished the Board of Control and the Court of Directors. The post of a Secretary of State was created. He was to be assisted by a Council of India which was to consist of fifteen members.
- iii) The Doctrine of Lapse was cancelled and the British stopped the policy of annexation.

- iv) A general amnesty (pardon) was granted to the rebels except those who were directly involved in killing the British subjects.
- vi) The office of the Governor General was changed to that of Viceroy of India.

Various views were expressed regarding the nature of the Mutiny. Although the British historians did not give much importance to the Mutiny, the Indian historians called it India's First War of Independence. So it occupies a unique place in history. Definitely it laid the foundation for the freedom movement in India.

EXERCISES

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The 'Doctrine of Lapse' was the policy of annexations of _____.
 a) Lord Wellesley b) Lord Dalhousie
 c) Lord William Bentinck
2. The General Service Enlistment act was passed in _____.
 a) 1857 b) 1856 c) 1872
3. The Revolt at Cawnpore was led by _____.
 a) Begum Hazrat Mahal b) Jhansi Rani
 c) Nana Sahib
4. Lucknow fell into the hands of the English in _____.
 a) March 1858 b) April 1857 c) June 1858
5. In Central India, the Revolt was led by _____.
 a) Rani Lakshmi Bai b) Begum Hazrat Mahal
 c) Nana Sahib

II. Answer each of the following in one word:

1. Which state was annexed on the pretext of misgovernment?
2. Name the Governor General who passed the 'General Service Enlistment Act'?
3. Who joined Rani Lakshmi Bai during the revolt?
4. Where did Nana Sahib die?
5. When was Queen Victoria's proclamation issued?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Barrackpore | a) Kunwant Singh |
| 2. Delhi | b) Tantia Tope |
| 3. Bihar | c) Colonel Havelock |
| 4. Cawnpore | d) Bahadur Shah II |
| 5. Central India | e) Mangal Pandey |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Immediate cause of the Revolt
 - a) What was the immediate cause of the Revolt of 1857?
 - b) What was used to grease the cartridges of Enfield Rifles?
 - c) Who shot an English officer at Barrackpore?
 - d) Why did the Hindus and Muslims refuse to use the greased cartridges?
 - e) How was Mangal Pandey punished?
2. Revolt at Cawnpore
 - a) Who led the revolt at Cawnpore?
 - b) How did the sepoys attack the British troops?
 - c) How many British women were imprisoned by Nana Sahib?
 - d) Who defeated the rebels of Cawnpore?
 - e) What happened to Nana Sahib?
3. Revolt at Delhi
 - a) Name the king of Delhi during the Revolt of 1857.
 - b) How did the rebels occupy Delhi?
 - c) Name the British military general who captured Bahadur Shah II.
 - d) How did the British treat Bahadur Shah II?
 - e) What happened to the sons of Bahadur Shah II?
4. Queen Victoria's Proclamation
 - a) When was the Queen's Proclamation issued?
 - b) Who was the Governor General of India at that time?
 - c) What was the status of the Queen with regard to Indian territory?
 - d) Name the new post created to help administration
 - e) What was the title given to the Governor General after 1858.

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in not more than two pages:

1. Enumerate the causes of the Great Revolt of 1857.
2. Why was the Revolt a failure and what were its results?

PART - D

VI. On the outline map of India mark the following centres of Mutiny:

- | | | |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| a) Delhi | b) Cawnpore | c) Lucknow |
| d) Barrackpore | e) Meerut | f) Bareilly |
| g) Gwalior | h) Calcutta | i) Jhansi |
| j) Arrah | | |

CHAPTER - 9

FREEDOM STRUGGLE

The second half the 19th century witnessed the political consciousness among the Indians. This led to an organized national movement in India. Indian nationalism arose to meet the challenge of foreign domination. Indians realized that foreign rule was a barrier to India's economic, political and cultural development.

A. FACTORS LEADING TO THE FREEDOM MOVEMENT

1) British Imperialism

The most important factor was the British Imperialism. It was British Imperialism that brought about the unification of the country. Before the advent of the British, the people of the south were usually separate from the rest of India except for some short intervals. British imperialism made the people of the whole of India think as one nation.

2) Contact with the European Countries

The establishment of British supremacy in India brought the Indians into intimate contact with the European countries, and the latter influenced them immensely. Nineteenth century in Europe was the century of nationalism and liberalism and the Indians learnt their lessons from the Europeans on both these points. If Germany and Italy could become independent, the natural question arose in the minds of Indians to fight for the liberation of their country.

3) Modern Methods of Transport and Communication

The improvements in the means of Transport and communication also quickened the pace of nationalist movement in the country. The Indian leaders found themselves in a position to carry on their national propaganda to every nook and corner of the country. The frequent meetings of the leaders among themselves and their direct personal contact with the people in different parts of the country gave a momentum to the nationalist movement in the country.

4) Religious and Social Reformers

The religious and social reformers contributed towards the progress of nationalist movement in the country. The reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Devendra Nath Tagore, Kishore Chandra Sen, P.C. Sarkar, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Swamy Dayanand Saraswati, Ramakrishna Paramahans, Vivekananda, etc. presented a glorious picture of India's past and appealed to the people of India to bring back those good days once again. It was Dayanand Saraswati who proclaimed India for Indians. Like Dayanand, Vivekananda taught young Indians self confidence and trust in their own strength.



Fig. 9.1 Raja Ram Mohan Roy



Fig. 9.2 Swami Vivekananda



Fig. 9.3 Swami Dayanand

5) Great Leaders of India

Our National Leaders played an important part for the development of

freedom movement in India. Of all these, Gopala Krishna Gokale, Rabindranath Tagore, Lokamanya Tilak, Pt. Motilal Nehru, Lala Lajpath Rai, Mahatma Gandhi and Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru, etc. contributed a lot towards the progress of the nationalist movement in India. They inspired the people with the ideas of self-respect and self-confidence. They gave a great impetus to patriotism and encouraged the people to fight against the foreign rule. Swami Dayanand said, “Good Government is no substitute for Self Government”. Likewise Lokamanya Tilak gave the words “Swaraj is my birthright and I will have it” which became the catch-word of the revolutionaries in India.

6) Indian Press and Literature

The Indian press and literature also played a vital part in the awakening of the country. In the nineteenth century a large volume of national literature was created which brought about a great revolution in the minds of the people and inspired them to fight against the British Imperialism. The Indian vernacular press also contributed in arousing the national consciousness among the people of India. Newspapers like The Indian Mirror, Bombay Samachar, The Amrit Bazar Patrika, The Hindu, The Kesari and several others had a great influence on the political life of the country. The patriotic articles written by great leaders like Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, Din Bandu Mitra, Rabindranath Tagore, Tilak, Subramanya Barathiyar etc. worked a miracle in rousing political consciousness among the Indians and prepared them for the national struggle.

7) Economic Exploitation

The economic exploitation of India created resentment in the hearts of the Indians. The interests of the Indians were subordinated to the British interests. The policy of free trade followed by the British Government proved disastrous for India because the Indian manufacturers could not compete with the English capitalists. Soon India became an exporter of raw materials and market for the finished products of the British goods and a place for investing British capital to make profits

8) The Revolt of 1857

The English ruthlessly crushed the Great Revolt. The Indians were completely shaken by the atrocities done by the English. They were humiliated and hated the rule of the British.

9) Racial Discrimination

Racial Discrimination was practised during the British rule. All high posts were reserved for the English and the Indians were debarred from them. The British considered the Indians as inferior and uncivilized. In Railway compartments, hospitals, parks, and libraries places were reserved for the Europeans. Equality before law was not practised. The English men escaped with minor punishments for the serious crimes committed, whereas, that was not the case for the Indians.

The Vernacular Press Act of 1878 was meant to suppress the vernacular newspapers. It was a great humiliation to the Indians. Similarly, The Ilbert Bill by which the Europeans could be tried by European judges in cases involving Europeans and Indians, was hated by the Indians.

10) The English Language

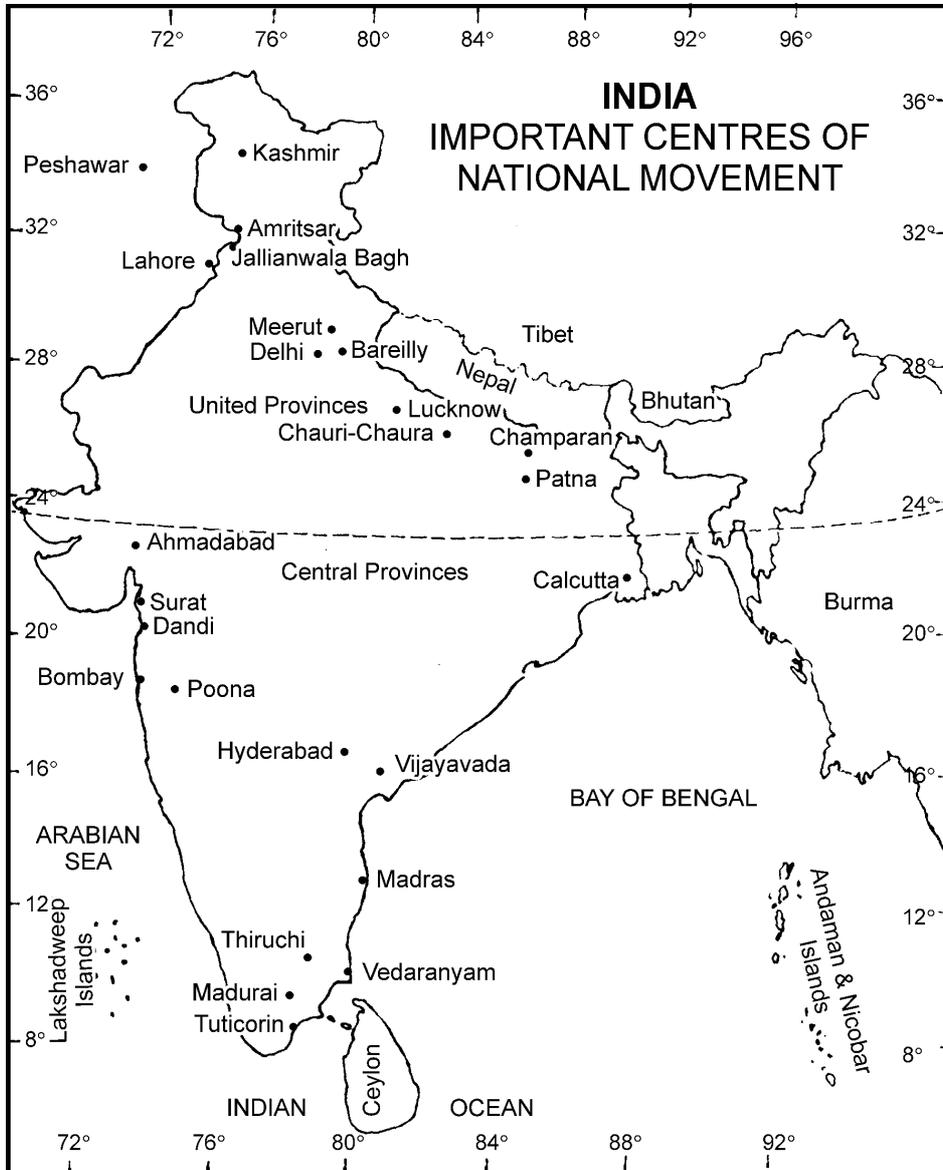
The English language played a very important part in the growth of nationalism in this country. It acted as the lingua franca of the intelligentsia of India. Without the common medium of the English language, it would have been out of question for the people speaking different languages to sit at one table and discuss the common problems facing the country. More over they were able to read the books on freedom movement of other countries and revolutionaries.

B. FREEDOM MOVEMENT IN INDIA – PHASE I (1885 to 1919) PRE-GANDHIAN- ERA

1) The Indian National Congress (1885)

Political consciousness dawned on Indians, who began to think of an All India Organization to protect their interests. In 1883 Surendranath Banerjee organized the Indian National Conference at Calcutta. Representatives from all over India attended it. This conference was a forerunner of the Indian National congress.

The Indian National Congress was founded in 1885 due to the initiative of Allan Octavian Hume, a retired British civil servant. The first session of the Congress was held at Bombay (Mumbai) in 1885 under the Presidentship of Womesh Chandra Banerjee (W.C Banerjee). The second and third sessions of the Congress were held at Calcutta (Kolkata) and Madras (Chennai) respectively.



A large number of delegates attended the sessions. The main aims of the Congress were the following: More Indians should be employed on higher posts, Provincial and Central legislatures should be expanded, more opportunities should be given for education, both general and technical, taxation should be made lighter and military expenses should be reduced.

2) The Moderates and Extremists

The Indian National Congress met every year during Christmas week in some important city. In the early stage, the Congress leaders were from the educated middle class. These leaders believed in the fairness of the British justice and adopted peaceful and constitutional methods to press their demands and claims. Surendranath Banerjee, Dadabai Naoroji, Pheroze Shah Mehta, Gopal Krishna Gokhale and Justice Mahadev Govind Ranade were some of the early leaders of the Congress, who were known as



Fig. 9.4 W.C. Banerjee



Fig. 9.5 Dadabai Naoroji



Fig. 9.6 Gopal Krishna Gokhale

the Moderates of the Congress. Throughout the nineteenth century, the Congress concerned itself with the criticism of the government policies

and demands for reforms. These methods were described as “Political Mendicancy”. Some of the demands they made were, elected representatives in the Provincial and central Legislative Council, spread of education, holding of I.C.S examination in India and raising of the minimum age of entry for that examination, and industrial development.

In the beginning the British Government showed a friendly attitude towards the Congress. When the Congress began to ask for more reforms the British government was not prepared. So, The Congress started criticizing the government openly. As a result the British condemned the Congress and suppressed its activities.



Fig. 9.7 Lala Laj Pat Rai



Fig. 9.8 Bal Gangadhar Tilak

A section of the Congress began to lose faith in the methods of the Congress. The leaders of this section were Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal, Lala Lajpat Rai and Arabind Ghosh. They advocated a radical way of political agitation. They came to be known as ‘Extremists’. They extolled the past of India in order to inculcate self-confidence and national pride among the people of India. Tilak was active in the Congress since 1890. He had started a newspaper ‘Kesari’ in Marathi through which he conducted his national campaign. He revived the ‘Ganapati’ and ‘Shivaji’ festivals to arouse national feelings.

3) Partition of Bengal (1905)

In 1905 Lord Curzon announced the partition of Bengal. The province was to be divided into two parts- East Bengal and Assam on one side and the rest of Bengal on other side. Though the object of the partition was given as administrative convenience, the actual reason was to disrupt Hindu-Muslim unity. This angered not only the extremists but also the moderates. The people of Bengal rose up in protest against the British Government. As the people were agitated the partition was revoked in 1911.

The national leaders organized Swadeshi and Boycott movements. The people were encouraged to boycott British goods. The Swadeshi movement encouraged the progress of Indian industries and the use of goods made in India. Bankim Chandra Chatterjee composed Vande Mataram, which became the national song of Bengal.

4) Formation of the Muslim League (1906)

The activities of the Indian National Congress created fear in the minds of the Muslims. Educated Muslims also felt the need for separate organization to champion the cause of the Muslims. The Muslim community led by Aga Khan met Minto II and asked for the representation of Muslims as a separate community. The British government used the policy of “Divide and Rule”. So the Viceroy agreed to their demands. In 1906 the All India Muslim League was formed under the leadership of Salimullah khan, the Nawab of Dacca. The aim of the Muslim league was to protect the rights of the Muslims and to remain loyal to the British Government.

5) Surat Split (1907)

There were differences between the moderates and the extremists factions of the Congress. In 1907, at the 23rd session of the Indian National Congress, at Surat the extremists were expelled and the moderates held the sway. Tilak and his followers stayed out of the Congress till 1915.

6) The Minto Morley Reforms of 1909

The Minto Morley reforms or the Indian Council Act of 1909 was passed to appease the sentiments of the Muslims in India. For the first time an Indian was included in the Executive Council of the Viceroy. He was Sir S.P. Sinha, who was appointed the Law Member. The Minto Morley Reforms expanded the Legislative Councils and introduced separate electorates for the Muslims. The provision for separate electorate

disillusioned the moderates for they knew that the forces of communalism were bound to create complications in their struggle for Swaraj.

7) The First World War (1914 - 1918)

During the First World War, Britain, France and Russia were on one side. As India was a part of the British Empire, Indian soldiers actively participated in the war. The Indian National Congress supported the British hoping that at the end of the war, they would be rewarded with self government.

8) The Home Rule Leagues (1916)

The nationalist movement grew during the period of the First World War. B.G. Tilak was released from jail. He formed the Home Rule League in Bombay (Mumbai) in 1916. Mrs. Annie Besant also started a Home Rule League in Madras (Chennai). The two leagues carried on propaganda in favour of Home Rule or Self-Government for India, Motilal Nehru and



Fig. 9.9 Annie Besant



Fig. 9.10 Motilal Nehru

C.R Das were two other leaders who joined the movement. Repressive measures followed. Mrs. Annie Besant was interned. Her paper “New India” was banned. Just then the famous August Declaration of Montague came in 1917, promising responsible government to the people of India by stages. Indians whole heartedly supported the British war efforts in the hope of

attaining self-government after the war. Hence the Home Rule Movement was slowly withdrawn.

9) Lucknow Pact (1916)

The Lucknow Session of the Indian National Congress was important for two reasons. Firstly, at this session the moderates and the extremists became united. Secondly, the Congress and the Muslim League signed a Pact to co-operate with each other and fight for free India.

10) August Declaration (1917)

The August Declaration of 1917 promised responsible government to the people of India by stages, so that the Indians would learn the art of governing their own state.

11) Montague Chelmsford Reforms of 1919

In 1918 the Montague Chelmsford report was published. Its provisions were incorporated into the Government of India Act of 1919. This Act introduced Dyarchy in provinces. It further encouraged the communal, racial and religious interests by allowing the Sikhs, Anglo-Indians and Europeans to send their own separate representatives.

Montague Chelmsford reforms were condemned by leaders like Tilak and Annie Besant who criticized the proposal as “Disappointing and Unsatisfactory”. There was again a split in the congress and this time it was the moderates who kept out of the Congress. They formed a separate organization known as Indian National Liberal Federation. The revolutionary wing now came to dominate the Congress and the British Government was once again forced to use repressive measures.

C. FREEDOM MOVEMENT IN INDIA – PHASE - II (1919 - 1947)

GANDHIAN ERA

The Second Phase of the Freedom Movement, that is, from 1919 to 1947 is called the Gandhian Era. At this time India saw the emergence of a new leader called Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi, who is known as the “Father of Our Nation”.

Gandhiji was born on October 2, 1869, at Porbandar in Gujarat. After studying law in England he went to South Africa and practised there for 22 years. In South Africa he experienced racial discrimination. Gandhiji returned to India in 1915. In 1916 he started the Sabamathi Ashram which was open

to people of all castes and classes. He practised untouchability. His aim was to uplift the Indian masses.

During the First World War he rendered every possible help to the British Government and even won a silver medal. But when he found the attitude of the British Government to be very deplorable he plunged into the Freedom Movement with heart and soul and did not take rest till he had broken the shackles of slavery of his motherland. During this period (1929-47) he was the chief figure to guide his countrymen, through many ups and downs, to ultimate goal of liberty. He dominated the political field of his country so thoroughly that many historians call his period as 'The Gandhian Era'.

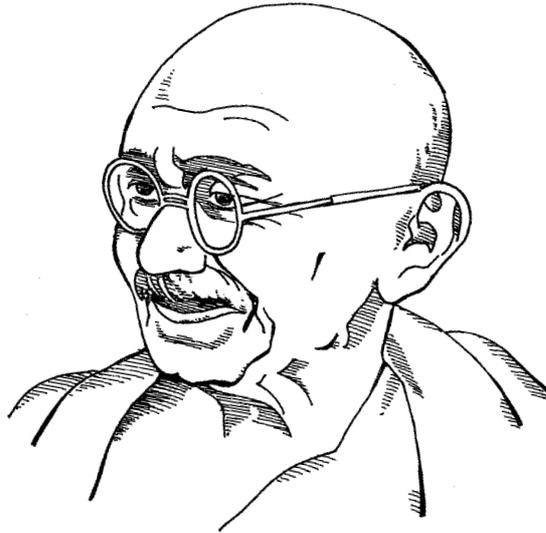


Fig. 9.11 Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi

In the struggle against the discriminatory and racialist policy of the South African Government he developed his technique of 'Satyagraha', a movement based on truth and non-violence. According to Gandhiji, non-violence was the weapon of the strong and not the weak and cowardly. A true 'Satyagrahi' will never bow before injustice. The sufferings of a 'Satyagrahi' would bring a change in the attitude of the wrong-doer. A Satyagrahi does not hate the wrong doer but his wrong actions. Gandhiji's programme of non-violent resistance brought millions of people into the nationalist movement.

1) Rowlatt Act of 1919

The Rowlatt act was passed in 1919. It empowered the British Government to arrest anyone with out any warrant. Anyone could be imprisoned with out trial. The Indians under the leadership of Gandhiji opposed it. There was country wide hartal on April 6, 1919.

2) Jallian Wala Bagh Tragedy (1919)

At Amritsar, two important leaders Dr. Satyapal and Dr. Kitchlew were arrested. On April 13, 1919, a large crowd gathered around Jallian Wala Bagh to protest peacefully against the arrest of their leaders. The British troops commanded by General Dyer surrounded the Bagh on all side. The park had only one entrance which was blocked by the armed men. General Dyer the Military Commander of Amritsar ordered his men to shoot on the peaceful unarmed crowd which included many women and children. Hundreds of people were killed and wounded. Martial law was imposed. Great atrocities were committed on the people. The Jallian Wala massacre horrified the Indians. Rabindranath Tagore renounced his knighthood to protest against this incident.

3) Khilafat Movement (1920)

The Muslims of India also had their grievances against the British. The First World War ended with the defeat of Germany along with the allies including Turkey. The Ottoman Empire under the Turkish Sultan was broken up and the territories were shared by Britain and France. The Muslims in India protested against the humiliation of the Turkish Caliph, who was also their religious head. The important leaders of this movement were the Ali-Brothers - Muhammad Ali, Shaukat Ali and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad. Gandhiji whole heartedly supported the Khilafath cause, as he felt that the Indian Muslims were genuinely aggrieved over the wrong done to Turkey. In the Khilafat Movement Gandhiji saw an opportunity of Hindu-Muslim unity.

4) Non-Cooperation Movement (1920 - 1922)

The Non Cooperation Movement was started under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. The main aim of the movement was to attain Swaraj through non- violence and peaceful means. The Indians who received titles and honours were to remove them in protest. All government institutions including schools, colleges, offices, and legislatures were boycotted. In 1921, at the Congress session at Ahmadabad, the Non-Cooperation Movement called for the refusal to pay taxes, till their demands were met.

On January 5, 1922, a procession of 1000 peasants was organized at Chauri- Chaura. The police fired at the peasants. In retaliation the angry peasants attacked and burnt the police station killing 22 police men. Mahatma Gandhi condemned the action of the peasants and suspended the non cooperation movement.

The action of Mahatma was severely criticized by some congress leaders. The activities of the national movement were suspended for some years. During this period, Gandhiji worked for Hindu Muslim unity, removal of untouchability and uplift of women.

5) The Swarajya Party (1922)

A section of the nationalist leaders like C.R. Das and Motilal Nehru formed the Swarajya Party in 1922. Instead of boycotting the Assemblies, these leaders wanted to oppose the British Government from within the Legislature. Hence the Swarajya party contested elections in November, 1923 and won a majority in the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces. For the first time the Legislative Assembly wore the appearance of a truly National Assembly where national grievances were fully voiced, national aims and aspirations expressed without any reservations and the real character of the British rule was exposed. The new party had some success in making the government realize that the system of Dyarchy introduced in the provinces was unworkable. But the main objective of wrecking the government from within was not fulfilled, and the influence of the Swarajya party on Indian Politics suffered a decline especially after the death of C.R. Das in 1925.

6) Role of Jawaharlal Nehru in Freedom Movement

Jawaharlal Nehru, the son of Motilal Nehru was born in 1889, in an aristocratic family. He qualified himself as a Barrister in England and returned to India in 1912. He was influenced by Gandhiji's leadership and actively participated in the Non-Cooperation movement. He was deeply moved by the condition of the peasants in United Province and championed the cause. He made a determined effort to improve the condition of the downtrodden Indians and became an undisputed leader of the masses.



Fig. 9.12 Jawaharlal Nehru

7) Simon Commission (1928-1929)

The British government appointed the Simon Commission under the leadership of Sir. John Simon to enquire in to the working of the Act of 1919. The Commission did not have any Indian member. The fact that no Indian was considered to review the conditions and plan for the future of their own countrymen, was an insult to the Indians. There were wide spread protests all over the country. Simon was met with Black Flag demonstrations and placards carrying the words, “Go Back Simon”. The leaders and the people were lathi charged. Lala Lajpat Rai succumbed to his injuries. Bhagat Singh and other revolutionaries sought to avenge his death.

8) Lahore Session (1929)

At the Lahore Session of the Congress held in December, 1929, the Congress under the Presidentship of Jawaharlal Nehru declared Purna Swaraj or complete independence as its goal. In order to achieve complete independence Mahatma Gandhi started the Civil Disobedient Movement. Consequently, January 26, 1930, was celebrated as Independence Day all over the country. The Indian Constitution was formally adopted on January 26, 1950 to make this day memorable in our history. This day is now celebrated as Republic Day.

9) Civil Disobedient Movement (1930) (Dandi March)

The British had the sole right to manufacture salt. Salt was used by millions of people and the tax levied on salt hit the poor hard. Gandhiji was determined to defy the salt tax. He took the historic march to Dandi in Gujarat. On March 12, 1930 a distance of about 400 km, was covered by foot from Sabarmathi Ashram to Dandi. Gandhiji and 78 chosen followers undertook the march and reached Dandi on April 6,

Mahatma Gandhi violated the salt laws by picking a handful of salt from



Fig. 9.13 Dandi March

the sea coast. The government resorted to repressive measures and put nearly 60,000 people behind the bars. At around the same time C. Rajagopalachari (Rajaji) organized the Vedaranyam Salt Sathyagraha in Tamil Nadu.

When the government found that repressive measures were ineffective, they followed a conciliatory policy and called the First Round Table conference in London in 1930. The Congress boycotted the conference. It was attended by the representatives of Muslims, Sikhs, and other sections of Indian Communities.

In 1931, the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed. The Civil Disobedience Movement was suspended and the Congress decided to attend the next Round Table Conference.

In 1931, Gandhi attended the Second Round Table conference in England. As no decision could be reached regarding the communal question and constitutional changes, Mahatma Gandhi returned to India without any settlement. The Civil Disobedience Movement was once again revived.

In November 1932, the Third Round Table conference was held in England. The decision taken at the conference provided the outline for the Government of India Act of 1935.

10) Communal Award (1932)

In 1932, when Gandhiji was in jail, the British Government announced a scheme known as the “communal award” under Ramsay Mc. Donald. Among other things, the communal award provided a separate electorate for the depressed classes. Gandhiji protested against this and went on a fast unto death to secure its modification. Finally he succeeded in getting the Poona Pact of 1932 by which the depressed communities agreed to have joint electorates with adequate representation.

11) Government of India Act of 1935

According to the Act of 1935, elections were to be held for Provincial



Fig. 9.14 C. Rajagopalachari

Legislatures in 1937. In this election the Congress got majority in six out of eleven provinces and formed ministries in United Provinces, parts of Bengal, Central Provinces, Bombay and Madras.

12) The Second World War (1939 - 1945)

The administration of the Congress was highly successful and it implemented many progressive policies. The work was going on smoothly until the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. India was dragged in to the war without her consent. The Congress, ofcourse, condemned the aggression of the Axis countries and demanded the establishment of a National Government in India. When there was no satisfactory reply from the British, the Congress ministries resigned in October - November in 1939.

13) Demand for Pakistan (1940)

In 1940, at the Lahore session of the Muslim League, the demand for a separate nation of Pakistan was made. Muhammad Ali Jinnah put forth the "Two Nation Theory", that is, two different Nations namely India and Pakistan for the Hindus and Muslims respectively.

14) Cripp's Mission (1942)

In March 1942, Stafford Cripps was sent to India to negotiate with Indian leaders. Cripps offered Indians Dominion Status after the Second World War and allowed them to frame a new constitution. The Congress and the Muslim League were opposed to Cripp's proposals.

15) Quit India Movement (1942)

On August 8, 1942, the All India Congress Committee adopted a resolution in favour of starting a mass movement on a large scale. Gandhiji gave the slogan 'Quit India'. The Congress demanded the immediate ending of the British rule in India. The day after the resolution was passed, the Congress was banned and all important leaders were arrested. This was followed by the repressive policy and cruel atrocities were committed on the innocent people. As there was lack of proper leadership, riots broke out all over the country. The people set fire to many police stations, post offices, railway stations and other government buildings. The government tried to suppress the agitation with an iron hand. Mass arrests were made. Thousands of Indians became the target of the British bullets.

16) Subash Chandra Bose and the Indian National Army (I.N.A.)

Subash Chandra Bose, popularly known as Nethaji, was a great leader, who was elected President of the Indian National Congress in 1939. But he resigned the post a few months later. The British Government kept him under house arrest in Calcutta, in 1941. He escaped and reached Germany from where he carried on an anti British propaganda. Later he reached Japan, where he organized the Indian National Army (I.N.A.) or Azad Hind Fauj, out of the soldiers who had been arrested by the Japanese as prisoners of war. The I.N.A. fought several battles but their soldiers were no match for the British armies.

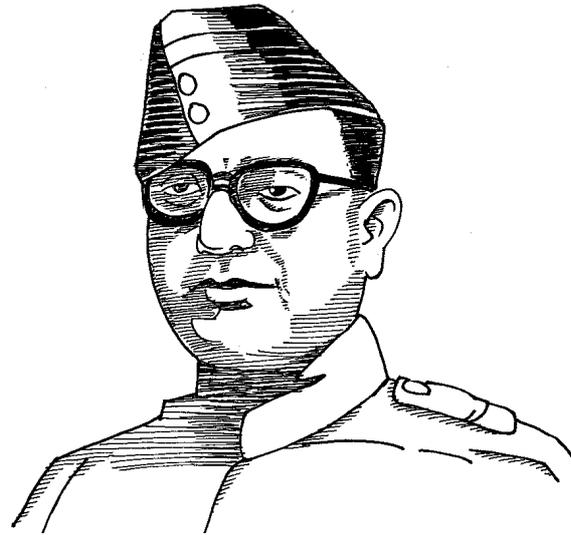


Fig. 9.15 Subash Chandra Bose

The I.N.A., next planned to attack the British in India. They had already reached Burma (Myanmar) with the dropping of atom bombs in Nagasaki and Hiroshima, Japan surrendered to the British in May 1945. Netaji went back to Tokyo and the Japanese radio announced that he died in an air crash.

17) The Cabinet Mission (1946) and the Indian Independence Act (1947)

In March 1946, the British government sent the Cabinet Mission to negotiate with the Indian leaders and to make India a free country. The Mission had three members consisting of Sir. Stafford Cripps, Lord Pethic Lawrence and Mr. A.V.Alexander. It wanted India to be a federation comprising both the Indian states and the Provinces of British India. It proposed to form a Constituent Assembly to draw up the constitution. The Cabinet Mission also recommended the formation of an Interim Government.

In July 1946, the Muslim League opposed the proposals of the Cabinet Mission and demanded a separate nation called Pakistan.

In September 1946, an Interim Government was set up at the center under the leadership of Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru.

In March 1947, Lord Mountbatten was appointed the Viceroy of India. The British government announced that it would transfer the power to the Indians by June 1948.

On July 18, 1947 the British Parliament passed the Indian Independence Act. Two new dominions were set up – India and Pakistan. The Princely states were given the choice to join either India or Pakistan. India got independence on August 15, 1947. Lord Mountbatten was the first Governor- General of free India and Jawaharlal Nehru was its first Prime Minister.



Fig. 9.16 Lord Mountbatten

We are greatly indebted to many national leaders who sacrificed for the freedom of our country, but, there is none that can be compared with Mahatma Gandhi. The announcement about the partition led to riots in many places. Gandhiji tried his best to maintain peace and unity among the Hindus and Muslims. When he was assassinated on January 30, 1948, Jawaharlal Nehru remarked, “The Light has gone out of our lives and there is darkness everywhere”.

18) Reorganization of States

Unification of India by integrating the states became a crucial problem. A state ministry was set up under Sardar Vallabai Patel, who by his clever diplomacy got almost all the states except Junagadh, Hyderabad, Jammu-Kashmir to sign the Instrument of Accession and become a part of the Indian union.

Junagadh was a small state on the coast of Gujarat. The Nawab of Junagadh wished to join Pakistan and the people of Junagadh objected to it. In 1948, a plebiscite was held by the government of India. Junagadh merged with the Indian Union.

The Nizam of Hyderabad wanted to be independent. He refused to join either India or Pakistan. Finally the Indian troops entered Hyderabad and the Nizam surrendered and agreed to join the Indian union.

The ruler of Kashmir wanted to maintain his independence. About 5000 tribes men from the North Western Provinces of Pakistan invaded Kashmir and the Maharaja left Srinagar. He appealed to the Indian government to help. The Instrument of Accession was signed. The Indian troops entered Kashmir, which was integrated to the Indian Union. The task of unification of India was achieved by Sardar Vallabhai Patel. Hence he is rightly called as the “Bismarck of India” or the “Iron Man of India”.

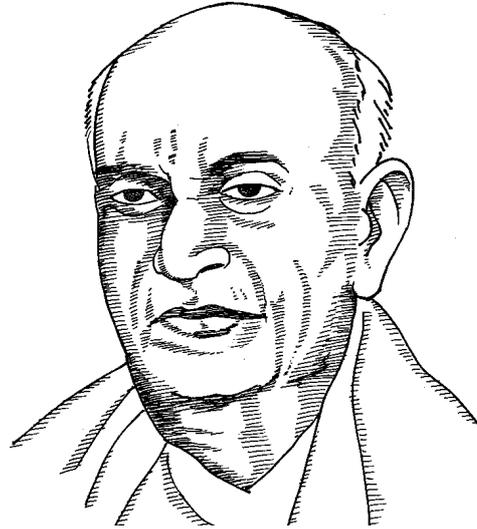


Fig. 9.17 Vallabbhai Patel

19) Building New India

The Constituent Assembly had set itself the task of preparing a new constitution for free India. The Drafting



Fig. 9.18 Dr. Ambedkar



Fig. 9.19 Dr. Rajendra Prasad

Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar completed the work in November, 1949. The Constitution of India came in to force on

January 26, 1950, when India became a Republic. Dr. Rajendra Prasad became the first President of India on that day.

D. ROLE OF TAMIL NADU IN FREEDOM MOVEMENT

The Congress leaders and volunteers in Tamil Nadu played a very important role in struggle for freedom. Several leaders like

G. Subramaiya Iyer, P. Anandacharlu and P. Rangaiah Naidu went to Bombay in 1885, to establish the Indian National Congress.

V.O.Chidambaram Pillai (Kappalottia Thamizhan) and poet Subramania Bharathiar were the strong supporters of B.G. Tilak.

Annie Besant started the Home Rule Movement in Madras in 1916. Sri. S. Subramania Iyer, Thiru V. Kalyana Sundaranar and Dr. P. Varadarajulu Naidu helped her to propagate Home Rule ideals.

Gandhiji came to Tamil Nadu several times. The Congress launched the Non- Cooperation Movement in 1920. Salem C. Vijayaraghavachariar, C. Rajagopalachari (Rajaji) E.V. Ramaswamy Naicker and S. Sathyamurthi made the Movement a great success.



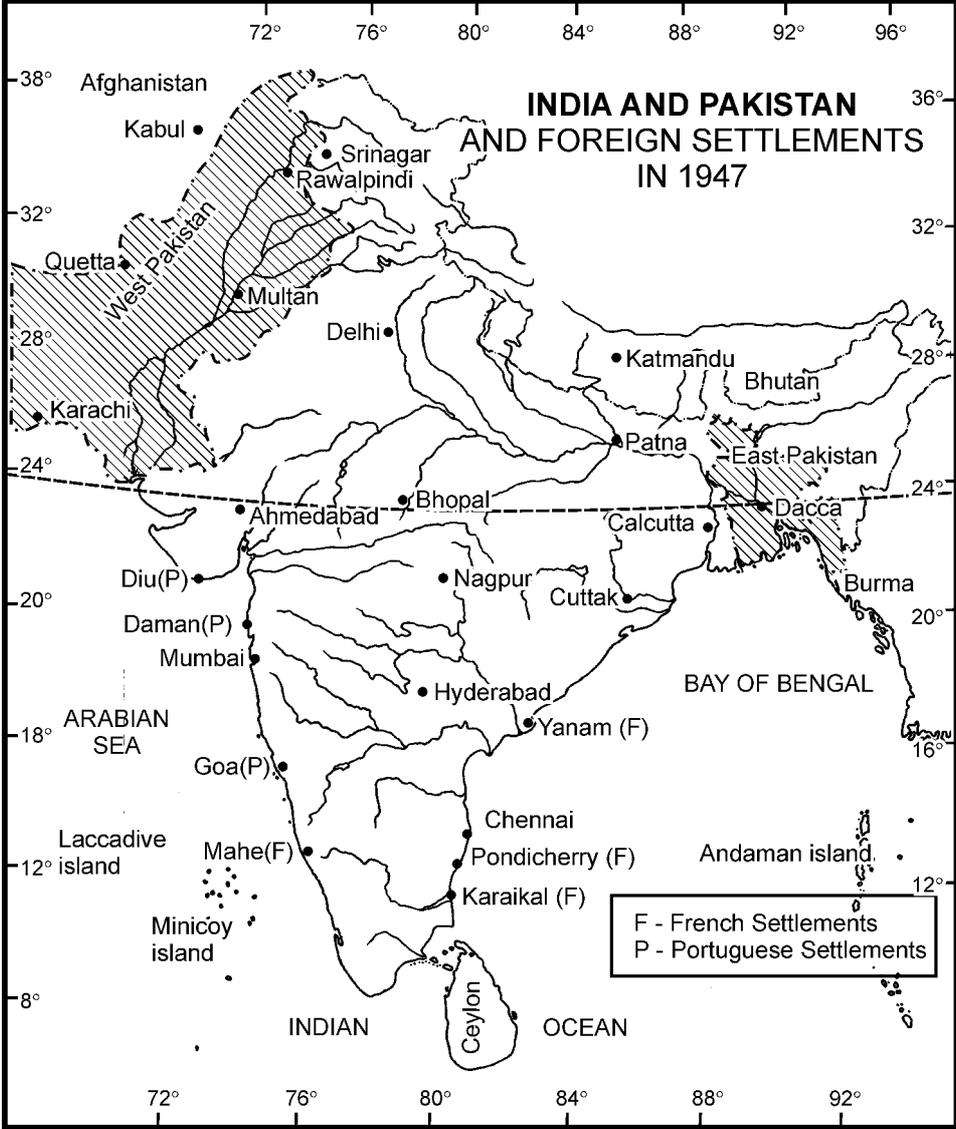
Fig. 9.20 Subramania Bharathi

The Civil Disobedience Movement was started in 1930. It is also known as Salt Sathyagraha. C. Rajagopalachari, Dr. T.S.S.Rajan, Mrs. Rukmani Lakshmipathy and others carried on the Movement.

The Quit India Movement was started in 1942. K.Kamaraj, M. Bhaktavatchalam and many others participated in the Movement.

Netaji Subash Chandra Bose formed the Indian National Army in Singapore in 1941. Several thousands of Tamil soldiers served in that army. Thus Tamil Nadu played a glorious role in our freedom struggle.

Though the British left India in 1947, the French and the Portuguese



retained some of their colonies in India. The French had Pondicherry, Chandranagore, Mahe, Karaikal and Yanam., while the Portuguese had Goa, Daman, Diu and Dadra and Nagar Haveli. These territories later merged with India. In 1954, the French withdrew from Pondicherry. In August 1962, Pondicherry was transferred to India. On January 7, 1963, Pondicherry became a Union Territory. The Portuguese were expelled from Goa, Daman

and Diu in 1962. On May 30, 1987, Goa became a Union Territory.

The Indian states were demarcated on linguistic basis. Majority of the People belonging to a particular state spoke a single language. For eg. Tamil is spoken in Tamil Nadu and Gujarati in the state of Gujarat.

The British had left India, socially and economically backward. The new government of India shouldered the responsibility of developing the country in all spheres.

EXERCISES

PART –A

I. Choose the correct answers and complete each statement:

- A glorious picture of India's past was presented to the Indians by _____.
a) British b) Europeans c) Reformers
- It was the British _____ that brought about the unification of the whole of India.
a) Inventions b) Conquests c) Imperialism
- The improvement in _____ helped to carry on national propaganda in every nook and corner of the country.
a) Industries b) Agriculture c) Communication
- Nineteenth century in Europe was a century of _____.
a) Industrial growth b) Agricultural production
c) Nationalism
- The news paper _____ inspired the people of India with patriotism.
a) Femina b) Weekly c) Indian Mirror
- It was _____ who proclaimed India for Indians.
a) Vivekananda b) Gandhi c) Swami Dayanand
- Due to _____ all high posts were reserved for the English.
a) High education b) Great experience c) Racial Discrimination
- The lingua franca of the intelligentsia was _____.
a) Tamil b) Gujarati c) English
- The forerunner of the Indian National Congress was _____.
a) Indian National Conference b) Indian Liberation
c) Indian Federation

10. The Indian National Congress was founded in _____.
 a) 1875 b) 1885 c) 1895
11. The third session of Indian National congress was held at _____.
 a) Bombay b) Calcutta c) Madras
12. One of the moderates in the freedom movement of India was _____.
 a) Dada Bai Naoraji b) Bhagat Singh c) Tilak
13. Political Mendicancy was the policy followed by the _____.
 a) Extremists b) Moderates c) Social Reformers
14. Tilak published his news paper _____ in Marathi language.
 a) Bombay Samachar b) Kesari c) Marathi
15. The Re-union of Bengal took place in _____.
 a) 1912 b) 1911 c) 1913

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Who partitioned Bengal?
2. Name the Governor General met by Aga Khan.
3. When was the Surat Session held?
4. What change was brought in the system of election by the Act of 1909?
5. When did the moderates and extremists get united?
6. Which declaration promised responsible government to the people of India by stages?
7. Which Act introduced Dyarchy in Provinces?
8. Where was Gandhi born?
9. Who is called as the Father of our Nation?
10. What technique was followed by Gandhi in the freedom struggle?
11. Name the commander of the British troops in the Jallian Wala Bagh tragedy.
12. Who were the leaders to start Khilafat Movement in India?
13. In which year did the Swarajya Party contest the elections?
14. Which day was celebrated as Independence Day in 1930?
15. Who organised Salt Sathyagraha at Vedaranyam?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| (A)1. Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar | a) Great leader |
| 2. Motilal Nehru | b) British goods |
| 3. Amrit Bazaar Patrika | c) Racial Discrimination |
| 4. Indian Markets | d) Newspapaer |
| 5. Illbert Bill | e) Social Reformer |

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| (B)1. Dandi March | a) Pakistan |
| 2. Communal award | b) Dominion Status |
| 3. Muslim league | c) Indian National Army |
| 4. Stafford cripps | d) Salt sathyagraha |
| 5. Subash Chandra Bose | e) Poona Pact |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Religious and social reformers
 - a) Mention any two social and religious reformers who contributed towards freedom movement
 - b) What did they present?
 - c) What did they appeal to the people of India?
 - d) What was proclaimed by Swami Dayanand?
 - e) What did Vivekananda teach young Indians?
2. The Indian National Congress
 - a) Who took initiative to found the Indian National Congress?
 - b) Where was the first session held?
 - c) Who was the President of this session?
 - d) Where was the second session held?
 - e) Give any one aim of the Congress?
3. Moderates and Extremists
 - a) Mention any two moderates of the Congress.
 - b) What did they believe in?
 - c) Give any one of their demands.
 - d) Mention any two extremists of the Congress.
 - e) What did the extremists extoll in the Indians?
4. Partition of Bengal (1905)
 - a) How was the province of Bengal divided by Lord Curzon?
 - b) What was the object of this partition?
 - c) What was the actual reason?
 - d) What was the reaction of the Bengalis?
 - e) What was the result?
5. Formation of the Muslim League (1906)
 - a) What created fear in the minds of the Muslims?
 - b) What was felt by the educated Muslims?
 - c) Who met Lord Minto II?
 - d) Why did they meet?
 - e) Give the aims of the Muslim League.

6. Non Co-operation movement (1920 - 22)
 - a) What was the main aim of this movement
 - b) How did the Indian act to achieve this aim?
 - c) What happened in 1921?
 - d) Why did Gandhiji suspend the Non Co-operation Movement?
 - e) How did the Congress react to it?
7. Dandi March (1930)
 - a) Why did Gandhi march to Dandi?
 - b) Write about this historic march.
 - c) What was the reaction of the British?
 - d) Who organised Vedaranyam salt sathyagraha?
 - e) Name the Pact signed in 1931.
8. Quit India Movement (1942)
 - a) Who adopted a resolution in favour of starting a mass movement?
 - b) What was the slogan given by Gandhi?
 - c) What was the demand of the Congress?
 - d) What steps were taken by the British to suppress the movement?
 - e) What was the result of lack of leadership among the Indians?
9. Role of Tamil Nadu in freedom struggle
 - a) Name the people from Tamil Nadu who went to Bombay to establish the Indian National Congress.
 - b) Name the supporters of Tilak from Tamil Nadu.
 - c) Who helped to propagate Home Rule ideals?
 - d) Who made the Non Co-operation Movement a great success?
 - e) Who participated in the Quit India Movement?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the following in not more than two pages:

1. Give an account of the factors responsible for the growth of the freedom movement in India.
2. Explain the main events of the freedom movement from 1885 - 1919.
3. Outline the main landmarks of the freedom movement from 1919 - 1947.

or

Describe the role of Mahatma Gandhi in India's struggle for freedom.

PART - D

VI. 1) On the outline map of India mark the following centers of Nationalist Movement:

- | | | | |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| a) Amritsar | b) Ahmadabad | c) Madras | |
| d) Vedaranyam | e) Dandi | f) Champaran | |
| g) Chauri Chaura | h) Calcutta | i) Surat | j) Hyderabad |

2) On the outline map of India mark the foreign settlements:

- a) Portuguese - Goa, Diu, Daman
- b) French - Mahe, Karaikal, Pondicherry, Yanam

ACTIVITIES

1. Film Gandhi, Bharat Ek Khoj.
2. Prepare the time line charts to show the years and events of the phases of the freedom movement.

UNIT - VII THE WORLD TODAY

CHAPTER – 10 EUROPEAN UNION

The historical roots of the European Union lie in the Second World War. The idea of European integration was conceived to prevent such killing and destruction from ever happening again. It was first proposed by the French Foreign Minister Robert Schuman in a speech on May 9, 1950.

For centuries, Europe was the scene of frequent wars. In the period 1870 to 1945, France and Germany fought with each other three times, and suffered terrible loss of life. A number of European leaders became convinced that the only way to secure a lasting peace between their countries was to unite them economically and politically.

So, in 1950, the French Foreign Minister Robert Schuman proposed integrating the coal and steel industries of Western Europe. As a result, in 1951, the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was set up, with six members: Belgium, West Germany, Luxembourg, France, Italy and the Netherlands. The power to take decisions about the coal and steel industry in these countries was placed in the hands of an independent, supranational¹ body called the “High Authority”. Jean Monnet was its first President.

In 1957 they signed the Treaties of Rome, creating the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM) and the European Economic Community (EEC). The member states set about removing trade barriers between them and forming a “common market”.

In 1967 the institutions of the three European communities were merged. From this point onwards, there was a single Commission and a single Council of Ministers as well as the European Parliament.

¹ *outside or beyond the authority of one national government, as a project or policy that is planned and controlled by a group of nations.*

Originally, the members of the European Parliament were chosen by the national parliaments. When the first direct elections were held, in 1979 the citizens of the member states were allowed to vote for the candidate of their choice. Since then, direct elections have been held every five years.

European Union (EU) means that these countries have to take joint decisions on economic and political integration between the member states on many matters. So they have developed common policies in a very wide range of fields.

There are five EU institutions, each playing a specific role

- European Parliament (elected by the peoples of the Member States);
- Council of the European Union (representing the governments of the Member States);
- European Commission (driving force and executive body);
- Court of Justice (ensuring compliance with the law);
- Court of Auditors (controlling sound and lawful management of the EU budget).

These are flanked by five other important bodies along with a number of agencies.

THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT (EP)

The European Parliament is the democratic voice of the people of Europe. Directly elected every five years, the members of the European Parliament (MEPs) sit not in national blocs but in seven political groups. Each group reflects the political ideology of the national parties to which its members belong. Some MEPs are not attached to any political group. In the European Parliament in June 1999, nearly 30 % of the MEPs elected were women.

THE COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

The Council of the European Union formerly known as the Council of Ministers is the main legislative and decision-making body in the EU. The Council together with the European Parliament sets the rules for all the activities of the European Community (EC), which forms the first “pillar” of the EU. It covers the single market and most of the EU’s common policies, and guarantees freedom of movement for goods, persons, services and capital. It brings together the representatives of all the Member State

governments, who are elected at national level. They meet regularly when they decide the major policy guidelines.

THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION

The European Commission does a lot of the day-to-day work in the European Union. It drafts proposals for new European laws, which it presents to the European Parliament and the Council. The Commission makes sure that EU decisions are properly implemented and supervises the way EU funds are spent. It also keeps an eye out to see that everyone abides by the European treaties and European law.

COURT OF JUSTICE

When common rules are decided in the EU, it is of course vital that they are also followed in practice and that they are understood in the same way everywhere. The Court of Justice of the European Communities ensures this.

EUROPEAN COURT OF AUDITORS

The funds available to the EU must be used legally, economically and for the intended purpose. The Court of Auditors, an independent EU institution located in Luxemburg, is the body that checks how EU money is spent. In effect, these auditors help European taxpayers to get better value for the money that has been channelled into the EU.

THE EUROPEAN CENTRAL BANK

European Central Bank is in charge of the single currency, “the Euro”. The Bank independently manages European monetary policy. The Bank’s main objective is to ensure price stability, so that the European economy will not be damaged by inflation.

In the early years, much of the co-operation between EU countries was about trade and the economy, but now the EU also deals with many other subjects of direct importance for everyday life, such as citizens’ rights; ensuring freedom, security and justice; job creation; regional development; environmental protection; and making globalisation work for everyone.

The European Union has delivered half a century of stability, peace and prosperity. It has helped to raise living standards, built a single Europe

wide market, launched the single European currency, the Euro, and strengthened Europe's voice in the world.

MERITS OF THE EU

Unity in diversity

Europe is not only a continent with many different traditions and languages, but also with shared values. The EU defends these values. It fosters co-operation among the peoples of Europe, promoting unity while preserving diversity and ensuring that decisions are taken as close as possible to the benefit of the citizens.

Single Currency

The Euro is the name of the single European currency that was put into circulation on January 1, 2002. The symbol of the Euro is €. Having a single currency makes it easier to travel and compare prices, and it provides a stable environment for European business, stimulating growth and competitiveness.

Freedom of Movement between Countries

People can travel, study and work wherever they want in the 15 European Union countries, if they are EU citizens. The EU is working constantly to give its citizens greater freedom of movement as a fundamental right and to get rid of all discrimination based on nationality.

Keeping Peace

War between EU countries is now unthinkable, thanks to the unity that has been built up between them over the last 50 years. Given this success, the EU is now increasingly involved in preserving peace and creating stability in neighbouring countries.

More Jobs

By creating a frontier-free single market and a single currency, the Euro, the EU has already given a significant boost to trade and employment in Europe. It has an agreed strategy for stimulating growth and generating more and better jobs. Tomorrow's jobs will be created through research, training and education,

Help in Scientific Research

In a world of rapid technological change, the EU is increasingly active

in helping European research to achieve scientific excellence. In a variety of sectors covering the whole spectrum of modern technology, the EU finances projects undertaken by research centres, universities and industries.

Environmental Awareness

Pollution has no respect for national frontiers. Many environmental problems in Europe could not be tackled without joint action by all EU countries.

CURRENT ISSUES FACING THE EU

Major issues facing the European Union at the moment include :

- a) the adoption, abandonment or reflection on a new constitutional treaty,
- b) the Union's enlargement to the south and east,
- c) the revision of the rules of the stability and growth rate and
- d) the common agricultural policy.

During the next summit meeting, leaders will also have to decide what to do with the European Constitution. Some countries would like to freeze the ratification process, while others would like it to continue. Now that France and the Netherlands have rejected the Constitution, EU leaders can adopt parts of the Constitution in a piecemeal approach without putting the changes up for referendum.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The idea of European Union was first proposed by Robert Schuman in a speech on _____ .
a) May 9, 1950 b) May 19, 1950 c) June 9, 1950
2. The European Coal and Steel community was set up with _____ members.
a) 4 b) 5 c) 6
3. In _____ the institutions of the three European communities were merged.
a) 1957 b) 1967 c) 1976

3. Current Issues Facing the EU
 - a) What are the major issues facing the EU?
 - b) What will the leaders have to decide in the next meeting?
 - c) What are the different views of the countries?
 - d) Who have rejected the Constitution?
 - e) What can the leaders do about the Constitution?

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Trace the establishment of the European Union.
2. What are the merits of the European Union?

ACTIVITY

1. Go to the following URL to know more about the European Union.
european-convention.eu.int

CHAPTER - 11

BREAKUP OF SOVIET UNION

Prior to its collapse, the Soviet Union had the largest centrally directed economy in the world. It consisted of 15 Republics.¹ The regime established its economic priorities through central planning.

After World War II, the country's economy faced an uneven rate of growth. Still living standards were modest for most of the inhabitants of Russia.

CAUSES FOR THE DISSOLUTION

Economic Causes

In the mid-1980s Soviet leaders faced many problems. Production in the consumer and agricultural sectors was often inadequate. In the consumer and service sectors, a lack of investment resulted in black markets in some areas.

In addition, since the 1970s, the growth rate had slowed substantially. Extensive economic development was no longer possible; the productivity of Soviet assets remained low compared with other major industrialized countries. Product quality needed improvement. The leaders of the late 1980s were seeking to mould a programme of economic reform to improve the economy. The leadership, headed by Mikhail Gorbachev, was experimenting with solutions to economic problems with an openness (*glasnost*) never before seen in the history of the Soviet Union.

Diverse Nature of Nationalities and People

The major proportion of the population were Russians; there were also Ukrainians (16.9 percent), Uzbeks (3.8 percent) and many other nationalities. The Soviet Union was so large, in fact, that even after all associated republics

¹ *Latvia, Russia, Moldova, Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgistan, Estonia, Ukraine, Republic of Georgia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Lithuania, Belarus, Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan.*

gained independence, Russia remained the largest country by area, and still remains quite ethnically diverse. For close to seventy years, Soviet leaders had maintained that, frictions between the many nationalities of the Soviet Union had been eliminated and that the Soviet Union consisted of a family of nations living harmoniously together. However, the Soviet Union in the late 1980s proved that seventy years of communist rule had failed to remove national ethnic differences. Facing this reality Gorbachev and his colleagues felt that, they had to find alternative solutions in order to prevent the disintegration of the Soviet Union.

Religion and State

The state was separated from the church by the Decree of Council of People's Commissars. Christianity and Islam had the most believers. Although there were many ethnic Jews in USSR, the actual practice of Judaism was rare in Communist times. However, two-thirds of the Soviet population had no religious beliefs.

Russification

Soviet Union consisted of fifteen states speaking different languages. Russification used to denote the influence of Russian language on other Slavic languages. In the nineteenth century Russification intensified. In the Soviet Union, publications in technical and scientific journals were mostly in Russian; this led to underdevelopment of modern technical and scientific terminology in Slavic languages, further degrading their status.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF CPSU

In 1917 the social democratic workers' party (Bolsheviks) had 200000 members. The following year, Vladimir Lenin persuaded members to change the name of the organisation to the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU). Traditionally, the Party Congress elected a 27 member Central Committee every year. Lenin decided this was too large to determine policy and in 1919 the party created a Politburo. This was made up of five members (increased to nine in 1925 and ten in 1930). Its first members were Vladimir Lenin, Leon Trotsky, Joseph Stalin, Lev Kamenev and Nikolai Krestinsky.

There were over 700000 members of the CPSU in 1921. The CPSU was now all powerful and all other political parties were banned. It controlled the government, which consisted of the Council of Peoples' Commissars, headed by its Chairman (who was "Prime Minister"). The CPSU also

appointed all local and national public officials, who had to be members of the party before they could be appointed to these posts.

Gradually power passed from the Politburo to the General Secretary, who controlled the appointment of party members to key jobs throughout the country. Joseph Stalin, who became General Secretary in April, 1922, dominated the CPSU after the death of Vladimir Lenin in January, 1924.

After Stalin, CPSU was headed by different leaders. But Russia, which was behind the “Iron Curtain” was brought to the forefront by Mikail Gorbachev.

Mikhail Gorbachev

Mikhail Gorbachev the son of an agricultural mechanic on a collective farm, was born on March 2, 1931. Gorbachev worked as a combine harvest operator before studying law at Moscow University. While a student Gorbachev joined Communist Party (CPSU). After leaving university Gorbachev became a full time official with Komsomol (Communist Youth Organization). In 1955 Gorbachev was appointed first secretary of the Komsomol Territorial Committee. Gorbachev made rapid progress and by 1960 he was the top Komsomol official. Gorbachev was elected by the Central Committee as General Secretary of the Communist Party in 1985. As party leader he immediately began forcing more conservative members of the Central Committee to resign. He replaced them with younger men who shared his vision of reform.

In 1985 Gorbachev introduced a major campaign against corruption and alcoholism. He also spoke about the need for Perestroika (Restructuring) and this heralded a series of liberalizing economic, political and cultural reforms with the aim of making the Soviet economy more efficient.

Gorbachev introduced policies with the intention of establishing a market economy by encouraging the private ownership of Soviet industry and agriculture. However, the Soviet authoritarian structures made these reforms ineffective and there was shortage of goods in the shops.

Gorbachev also announced changes to Soviet foreign policy. In 1987 he met with Ronald Reagan and signed the Intermediate Nuclear Forces (INF) abolition treaty. He also made it clear he would no longer interfere in the domestic policies of other countries in Eastern Europe and in 1989 announced the withdrawal of Soviet forces from Afghanistan. In 1990 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

PERESTROIKA AND GLASNOST

Gorbachev introduced a number of political reforms under the name of *glasnost*. These included relaxing censorship and political repression, reducing the powers of the KGB (Soviet secret police) and democratisation.

Under these reforms, much to the alarm of party conservatives, competitive elections were introduced for the posts of officials (by people within the Communist Party).

However, Gorbachev's attempts to create more political openness had the unexpected effect of re-awakening long suppressed nationalist and anti-Russian feelings. Nationalist feeling also took hold in other Soviet Republics such as Ukraine, Georgia, and Azerbaijan. These nationalist movements were strengthened greatly by the declining Soviet economy. Domestically, Gorbachev implemented economic reforms that he hoped would improve living standards and worker productivity as part of his *perestroika* programme. In this programme for the first time, the law permitted private ownership of businesses in the services, manufacturing, and foreign-trade sectors. Gorbachev's introduction of *glasnost* gave new freedoms to the people, such as a greater freedom of speech. The press became far less controlled, and thousands of political prisoners and many dissidents were released. However, by the late 1980s the process of openness and democratisation began to run out of control, and went far beyond what Gorbachev had intended.

Relaxation of censorship resulted in the Communist Party losing its grip on the media. The media began to expose severe social and economic problems which the Soviet government had long denied existed and covered up. Problems such as poor housing, alcoholism, and the neglect of welfare of women, which the official media had ignored, were now receiving increasing attention. Additionally, the mishandling of the 1986 Chernobyl² accident continued to cause a significant backlash against the Soviet leadership. The media also began to expose crimes committed by Stalin. In

³ *On April 25 - 26, 1986 the World's worst nuclear power accident occurred at Chernobyl, in the former USSR (now Ukraine). The Chernobyl nuclear power plant had 4 reactors and while testing reactor number 4, many safety procedures were neglected. The chain reaction in the reactor became out of control and exploded, killing more than 30 people immediately and resulted in high radiation levels in the surrounding area for more than 20 miles.*

all, the very positive view of Soviet life which had long been presented to the public by the official media, was being rapidly dismantled, This began to undermine the faith of the public in the Soviet system.

Gorbachev's attempts to make the Soviet Union a more democratic country made him unpopular with conservatives still in positions of power. In August 1991 he survived a coup staged by hard-liners in the Communist Party. Gorbachev responded by dissolving the Central Committee. However, with the Soviet Union disintegrating into separate states, Gorbachev resigned from office on December 25, 1995.

BORIS YELTSIN

Yeltsin began his career as a construction worker. He joined the Communist Party in 1961. In 1985 he was chosen by Mikhail Gorbachev as Moscow party boss, and in 1986 he was inducted into the party's ruling Politburo. In Oct., 1987, however, he was ousted from his Moscow post after clashing with conservatives and criticizing Gorbachev's reforms as inadequate. Attracting a large following as a populist advocate of radical reform, Yeltsin won (1989) election to the USSR's Supreme Soviet (parliament) as an opposition member.

In 1990, Yeltsin was elected as Russian President by the Supreme Soviet. When Gorbachev introduced free elections, Yeltsin stood for the Presidency and won the election. By June 1991, Yeltsin was elected President of the Russian Federated Republic, though that Republic remained very much under the broader control of Soviet President Gorbachev. Yeltsin made a name for himself quickly by challenging the expectations and distinctly secretive nature of the Soviet Union's Communist Party. It was in August 1991, though, when hard-line Communist conservatives staged a rebellion to re-assert party control in the Soviet Union, that Boris Yeltsin definitely proved himself the most dynamic leader of Russia's democratic forces.

The leaders of Russia, Ukraine and Belarus met at a hunting lodge near Minsk. They signed on December 8, 1991, the Belovezh Agreement, dissolving the Soviet Union and establishing a Commonwealth of Independent States. Later that month, the Crimson flag bearing the hammer and sickle was lowered at the Kremlin for the last time. The U.S.S.R. died quietly, 74 years after its founders had vowed Communism would triumph across the world.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. Soviet Union consisted of _____ republics.
a) 12 b) 15 c) 25
2. Gorbachev resigned on _____.
a) Dec.15, 1991 b) Dec.25, 1991 c) Dec.25, 1992
3. In 1991 elections _____ won.
a) Gorbachev b) Stalin c) Boris Yeltsin
4. Gorbachev's introduction of _____ gave new freedoms to people.
a) perestroika b) glasnost c) competitive elections
5. Mikhail Gorbachev was awarded the Nobel prize in _____.
a) 1990 b) 1991 c) 1992

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. What separated the state from the church in Russia?
2. What is the name given to the political reforms of Gorbachev?
3. What is the name given to the economic reforms of Gorbachev?
4. What caused a backlash against the Soviet leadership?
5. Who was a critic of Gorbachev?
6. Where did the leaders meet to issue the dissolution of USSR?

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|------------------|--|
| 1. Perestroika | March 1985 |
| 2. Glasnost | The populist candidate |
| 3. Russification | Economic reforms |
| 4. Gorbachev | Influence of Russian language on other languages |
| 5. Boris Yeltsin | Freedom of speech |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Causes for the Breakup of Soviet Union
 - a) What was the result of lack of investment?
 - b) Who were the other nationalities in Russia?
 - c) What did the Soviet leaders maintain?
 - d) How was the state separated from the church in Soviet Union?
 - e) What is Russification?

2. Perestroika and Glasnost
 - a) Who instituted a number of political reforms?
 - b) What was introduced for the posts of officials?
 - c) What was Perestroika?
 - d) What was Glasnost?
 - e) What were the things revealed by the media?
3. Gorbachev
 - a) When was Gorbachev born?
 - b) What steps were taken by him as party leader?
 - c) What major campaign did he introduce in 1985?
 - d) How did he try to establish a market economy?
 - e) What changes did he bring in Soviet Foreign policy?

PART - C

V. Answer the following in not more than 2 pages:

1. Enumerate the causes for the break up of Soviet Union.

ACTIVITY

1. Visit the following site to learn more about break up of Soviet Union. <http://www.historylearningsite.co>.

CHAPTER - 12

REUNIFICATION OF GERMANY

GERMANY AFTER WORLD WAR II

After the end of World War II in Europe, Germany had been divided into four occupation zones. The old capital of *Berlin*, was the seat of the *Allied Control Council*. Although the intention of the occupying powers was to govern Germany together in the borders from 1937, the advent of *Cold War* tension caused the *French, British and American* zones to be formed into the *Federal Republic of Germany (FRG)* including *West Berlin* while the *Soviet* zone formed the *German Democratic Republic (GDR)* including *East Berlin* in 1949. The FRG and the GDR made competing claims to be the legitimate legal successors of German state in 1945.

At first proposal for German reunification was put forth by *Josef Stalin* in 1952. It called for the creation of a neutral Germany with an eastern border on the *Oder-Neisse line* and all allied troops removed within the year. The West German government under *Konrad Adenauer* favoured closer integration with Western *Europe*. Also, Stalin had offered reunification of whole of Germany under condition that Germany joined the *Warsaw Pact*.

The government of the GDR made it illegal for its citizens to leave the country, and built the *GDR border system* in 1961. The *Berlin Wall* was a part of it which prevented the citizens from leaving the country. The *democratic* government of the Federal Republic of Germany and its *NATO* allies at first did not recognize the German Democratic Republic.

THE END OF THE DIVISION (“WENDE”)

By the mid-1980s, the prospect of German reunification was widely regarded within both Germanies as a distant hope, unattainable as long as communists ruled *Eastern Europe*. This hope was suddenly placed within reach by political changes within the Soviet Union.

In August 1989, *Hungary* removed its border restrictions with Austria and in September more than 13,000 East Germans escaped to the West through Hungary. Mass demonstrations against the East German regime



began in late 1989, most prominently the *Monday demonstrations* in *Leipzig*. Faced with civil unrest, East German leader *Erich Honecker* was forced to resign in October, 1989. The travel restrictions for East Germans were removed by the new government on *November 9, 1989*, and many people immediately went to the Wall where the border guards opened access points and allowed them through.

On *March 18, 1990* the first and only free elections in the history of the GDR were held, producing a government. It negotiated to end the then existing government and the state. As one East German ideologist noted in

1989, “Poland would remain Poland even if communism fell, but without communism East Germany has no reason to exist.”

East Germany negotiated with West Germany, Great Britain, France, the USA and the Soviet Union, the preconditions for a German reunification. Parallel to this, negotiations between the East and West German governments led to the signing on May 18 of an agreement for an Economic, Social and Currency Union, which entered into force on July 1. On August 23, the East German Parliament (*Volkskammer*) approved the proposal that on October 3, both the Germanys would unite. The German Unification Treaty (Einigungsvertrag”) was signed on *August 31, 1990* by representatives of the FRG and GDR. Germany was officially reunified on *October 3, 1990*, when the five re-established federal states of East Germany formally joined the *Federal Republic of Germany* (West Germany). The FRG made some changes to the constitution for the reunification.

EFFECTS OF REUNIFICATION

The cost of reunification has been a heavy burden to the *German economy* and has contributed to Germany’s slowed economic growth in recent years. The costs of reunification are estimated to amount to over 1.5 trillion *Euro*. This is more than the national debt of the German state. The primary cause of this was the severe weakness of the East German economy, especially compared to the West German economy. Today, there are already special transfers of more than 100 billion Euros every year to rebuild the eastern part of Germany. During the *1980s*, the capitalist economy of West Germany had prospered while the communist economy of East Germany had declined. Providing goods and services to East Germany strained the resources of West Germany. Money-losing industries formerly supported by the East German government had to be privatized. Since unification, hundreds of thousands of former East Germans have continued to migrate to Western Germany to find well-paid jobs.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. German reunification was first proposed by _____.
a) Stalin b) Churchill c) Roosevelt
2. Stalin wanted Germany to join the _____.
a) Warsaw Pact b) Baghdad Pact c) Manila Pact
3. In _____ 1989, Hungary removed its border restrictions with Austria.
a) April b) August c) September
4. East German leader _____ resigned in October 1989.
a) Konrad Adenauer b) Stalin c) Erich Honecker
5. Germany was officially reunited on _____.
a) August 23, 1990 b) August 31, 1990
c) October 3, 1990

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Expand FRG.
2. Expand GDR
3. Who favoured closer integration with Western Europe?
4. Where did the Monday Demonstrations begin?
5. What treaty was signed on August 31, 1990?
6. Give the name of the East German Parliament.

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. GDR border system | East German Parliament |
| 2. Monday Demonstrations | German Unification Treaty |
| 3. Erich Honecker | Leipzig |
| 4. Volkskammer | Berlin Wall |
| 5. Einigungsvertrag | East German leader |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Germany after World War II
 - a) Who formed FRG?
 - b) Who formed GDR?
 - c) What claims did FRG & GDR make?
 - d) By whom was a first proposal put forth for reunification?
 - e) What did it call for?
2. End of the Division (“Wende”)
 - a) Why was the prospect of the unification of Germany regarded a distant hope?
 - b) How did this hope suddenly come within reach?
 - c) How did Hungary help the East Germans escape to the West?
 - d) Explain Monday Demonstrations in Leipzig.
 - e) Who resigned in October 1989?
3. Effects of Reunification
 - a) Write about the cost of reunification?
 - b) What is the primary cause of this cost?
 - c) What amount is specially transferred to build eastern part of Germany?
 - d) Write about the economic standard of East and West Germany during 1980s.
 - e) What strained the resources of West Germany?

PART - C

V. Answer the following in not more than 2 pages:

1. Write an essay on the reunification of Germany.

ACTIVITY

1. Go to the following URL to know more about the reunification of Germany.
<http://www.historylink101.com>

CHAPTER - 13

ISRAEL AND PALESTINE CONFLICT

INTRODUCTION

Palestine is bordered on the West by the Mediterranean Sea, on the east by Syria and Jordan and in the north by Lebanon. Palestine has a distinguished strategic and geographic location as it lies in the heart of the world, connecting Asia, Africa and Europe. It is considered the Holy land for Muslims, Christians and Jews. It has several religions sites which attract millions of Muslims and Christian pilgrims. Palestine serves as the passage for all the commercial convoys heading from the east to west. In the current time, Haifa, Jafa, Gaza are main harbours as Haifa harbour exports the Iraqi fuel to Europe.

The British Mandate in Palestine

By the early years of the 20th century, Palestine was becoming a trouble spot of competing territorial claims and political interests. The Ottoman Empire was weakening, and European powers were entrenching their grip on areas in the eastern Mediterranean, including Palestine. During 1915-16, as World War I was underway, the British High Commissioner in Egypt, Sir Henry McMahon, secretly corresponded with Husayn ibn Ali, Ottoman Governor of Mecca and Medina. McMahon convinced Husayn to lead an Arab revolt against the Ottoman Empire, which was aligned with Germany against Britain and France in the War. McMahon promised that if the Arabs supported Britain in the War, the British government would support the establishment of an independent Arab state under Hashemite rule in the Arab provinces of the Ottoman Empire, including Palestine. The Arab revolt, led by T. E. Lawrence (“Lawrence of Arabia”) and Husayn’s son Faysal, was successful in defeating the Ottomans, and Britain took control over much of this area during World War I.

In 1921, the British divided this region into two: east of the Jordan River became the Emirate of Transjordan, to be ruled by Faysal’s brother Abdullah, and west of the Jordan River became the Palestine Mandate. This was the first time in modern history that Palestine became a unified political entity.

The rising tide of European Jewish immigration, land purchases and settlement in Palestine generated increasing resistance by Palestinian Arab peasants, and political figures. They feared that this would lead eventually to the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine.

In 1928, Muslims and Jews in Jerusalem began to clash over their respective communal religious rights at the Wailing Wall. (al-Buraq in the Muslim tradition). The Wailing Wall, is one of the holiest sites for the Jewish people. But this site is also holy to Muslims, since the Wailing Wall is adjacent to the Temple Mount. On the mount is the site of the al-Aqsa Mosque and the Dome of the Rock, believed to mark the spot from which the Prophet Muhammad ascended to heaven on a winged horse.

Following World War II, the British withdrew from their mandate of Palestine, and the UN partitioned the area into Arab and Jewish states, an arrangement rejected by the Arabs. Subsequently, the Israelis defeated the Arabs in a series of wars without ending the deep tensions between the two sides.

CONFLICT BETWEEN THE PALESTINIAN ARABS AND THE JEWS

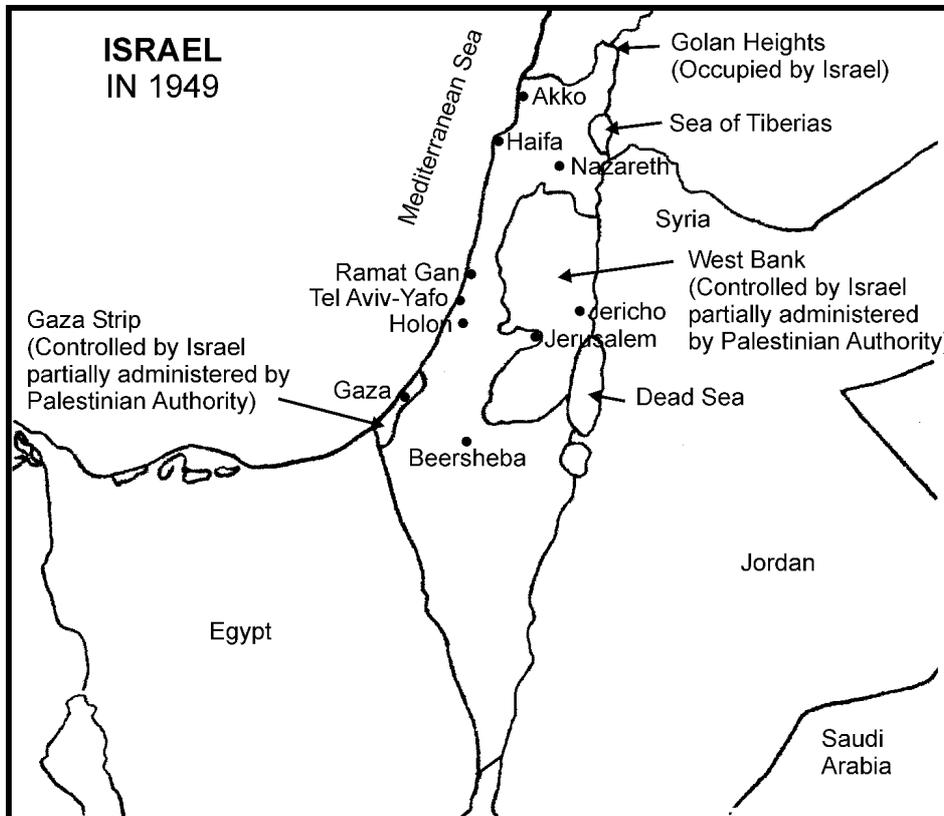
The conflict between the Palestinian Arabs and the Jews is a modern phenomenon, which began around the turn of the 20th century. Although these two groups have different religions, religious differences are not the cause of the conflict. It is essentially a struggle over land. Until 1948, the area that both groups claimed was known internationally as Palestine. But following the Arab-Israeli War of 1948 - 49, this land was divided into three parts: the state of Israel, the West Bank (of the Jordan River) and the Gaza Strip.

The Jews claim that;

1. This was the historical site of Israel handed to the descendants of Abraham.
2. There was a need for a haven from European anti-semitism.

The Palestinians claim that;

1. They have been residing there continuously for hundreds of years.
2. They reject that biblical era kingdom does not constitute a valid base for modern claim.



Refugee Problem

As a consequence of the fighting in Palestine and Israel between 1947 and 1949 over 700,000 Palestinian Arabs became refugees. About 3 million Palestinians now live within this area, which is divided between the state of Israel and the West Bank and Gaza; these latter areas were captured and occupied by Israel in 1967. The remainder of the Palestinian people, perhaps another 3 million, lives in diaspora¹. These Palestinians fled Palestine during 1948 Arab Israeli War.

Israel established a military administration to govern the Palestinian residents of the occupied West Bank and Gaza. Under this arrangement, Palestinians were denied many basic political rights and civil liberties,

¹ *In Modern use, the Diaspora refers to Jews living outside of the Jewish state of Israel. There is Ministry of Diaspora Affairs in the Israeli government.*

including freedom of expression, freedom of the press and freedom of political association. All aspects of Palestinian life were regulated, and often severely restricted by the Israeli military administration.

Israel has built hundreds of settlements and permitted hundreds of thousands of its own Jewish citizens to move to the West Bank and Gaza, despite that this constitutes a breach of international law.

The Palestinian Liberation Organisation (PLO)

The Arab League established the PLO in 1964, as an effort to control Palestinian nationalism while appearing to champion their cause. The 1967 war, between Egypt and Israel which lasted only for six days, established Israel as the dominant regional military power. The speed and thoroughness of Israel's victory discredited the Arab regimes. In contrast, the Palestinian national movement emerged as a major factor after 1967 in the form of the political and military groups that made up the Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO). It enabled younger and more militant Palestinians to take over the responsibilities and gain some independence from the Arab regime. One such young militant leader was Yasar Arafat.

Yasar Arafat

Yasar Arafat was appointed commander-in-chief of the all Palestinian / Arab guerilla forces in September 1970. At this time the PLO was driven out of Jordan after Palestinian factions attempted to overthrow the government of King Hussein. Arafat and the PLO eventually found their way to Beirut, which remained the center of PLO operations against Israel until 1982. In the 70s, the PLO came to be widely recognized as the only legitimate representative of the Palestinian people, and Arafat was recognized as the leader of the Palestinians. Under Arafat's leadership, the PLO often distanced itself from terrorist attacks against Israeli civilians.

Arafat addressed the UN General Assembly in New York for the first time on November 13, 1974, wearing a barely disguised pistol and carrying an olive branch and dressed in a military uniform. This appearance raised world awareness of the Palestinian cause. Under Arafat's guidance, in 1974, the Palestine National Council adopted a policy of gradual liberation of Palestine, declaring that they would set up a Palestinian state on any part of Palestine that had been liberated.

Arafat was elected by the Central Council of the PLO as the first President of the State of Palestine on April 2, 1989.

PEACE SETTLEMENTS

UN Intervention

On November 29, 1947, the UN General Assembly voted to partition Palestine into two states, one Jewish and the other Arab. The UN partition plan divided the country in such a way that each state would have a majority of its own population. The territory designated to the Jewish state would be slightly larger than the Palestinian state (56 percent and 43 percent of Palestine, respectively) on the assumption that increasing numbers of Jews would immigrate there. According to the UN partition plan, the area of Jerusalem and Bethlehem was to become an international zone. But the Palestinian Arab state envisioned by the UN partition plan was never established.

When there was violence on both the sides, on March 12, 2002, the U.N. Security Council asked the sides to stop violence. For the first time since 1947, U.N. Security Council called for the creation of a Palestinian state alongside Israel.

Role of USA in Peace Negotiations

Camp David I

In September 1978, President Jimmy Carter invited the Egyptian President Sadat and the Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin to Camp David, a presidential retreat in Maryland. They worked out two agreements: a framework for peace between Egypt and Israel, and a general frame work for resolution of the Middle East crisis, i.e. the Palestinian question.

The first agreement formed the basis of the Egyptian-Israeli peace treaty signed in 1979. The second agreement proposed to grant autonomy to the Palestinians in the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, and to install a local administration for a five-year interim period, after which the final status of the territories would be negotiated.

Camp David II

In July 2000, President Clinton invited Prime Minister Barak and President Arafat to Camp David to conclude negotiations on the long-overdue final status agreement. The Palestinians sought Israeli withdrawal from the vast majority of the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, including East Jerusalem, and recognition of an independent state in those territories. Negotiations for a final settlement at Camp David in the USA ended in

deadlock in July, 2000. A Palestinians insisted that refugees should have the right to return to Israel, which would produce an Arab majority in Israel. Israel insisted on annexing key portions of the Palestinian areas and on leaving most settlements intact, and offered only a limited form of Palestinian statehood. Violence continued into 2001 and 2002. The terrorist attack on the World Trade Center in the US on September 11, 2001, had direct repercussions on the Israel-Palestine conflict. Arab and Islamic countries tried to leverage on the need for their cooperation in the war against terror to win concessions for the Palestinians.

The Intifadah

In December 1987, the Palestinian population in the West Bank and Gaza started a mass uprising against the Israeli occupation. This intifadah (which means “shaking off in Arabic) was a popular mobilization involving hundreds of thousands of people, including children, teenagers and women. For the first few years it involved many forms of civil disobedience, including massive demonstrations, general strikes, refusal to pay taxes, boycott of Israeli products. However the Intifadah was deemed to be officially over after Sharm-El-Sheikh Conference of 2005.

Israel and Palestinian officials signed September 13, 1993 a Declaration of Principles (also known as the “Oslo Accords”) guiding an interim period of Palestinian self-rule. Outstanding territorial and other disputes with Jordan were resolved in October 26, 1994 Israel-Jordan Treaty of Peace. In addition, on May 25, 2000, Israel withdrew unilaterally from southern Lebanon, which it had occupied since 1982. In keeping with the framework established at the Madrid Conference in October 1991, bilateral negotiations were conducted between Israel and Palestinian representatives and Syria to achieve a permanent settlement. On June 24, 2002, US President Bush laid out a “road map” for resolving the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, which envisions a two-state solution. However, progress toward a permanent status agreement has been undermined by Palestinian-Israeli ongoing violence since September 2000. The conflict may have reached a turning point with the election in January 2005 of Mahmud Abbas as the new Palestinian leader following the death of Yasar Arafat in November 2004.

Sharm El Sheikh Conference

Palestinian President Mahmud Abbas called on Palestinian factions to end the violence and negotiated a truce agreement with Israel. Palestinian police were deployed throughout Gaza with explicit orders to prevent terror

attacks. The sides agreed to meet at a summit conference hosted by Egypt on February 8, 2005. At the conference, attended by Jordan's King Abdullah and Egyptian President Mubarak as well as the Israeli and Palestinian leaders, both sides announced an end to the violence. Israel would be releasing over 900 Palestinian prisoners and gradually withdrawing from Palestinian cities according to newspaper reports. Egypt and Jordan announced that they were returning their ambassadors to Israel. The Intifadah was deemed to be officially over. However, following the pattern of previous conferences of this type, the peace was soon shattered by a suicide bombing in Tel Aviv.

On June 21, 2005, Sharon and Abbas met in a long-awaited summit, but nothing at all appeared to result from the meeting, other than an announcement by Ariel Sharon that he had obtained Palestinian consent to coordination of the Gaza pullout. In September 2005, Israel finally vacated the Gaza strip.

Negotiations are pointless as long as Ariel Sharon insists that Jerusalem cannot be divided and Abbas insists that Jerusalem must be the Palestinian capital and that there will be no compromise on the return of Palestinian refugees to Israel.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

- The place _____ lies in the heart of the world connecting Asia, Africa and Europe.
a) Syria b) Palestine c) Lebanon
- Through the harbour _____ Iraqi fuel is exported to Europe.
a) Jafa b) Haifa c) Gaya
- During World War I, Palestine became the mandatory of _____ .
a) Britain b) America c) Russia
- The PLO was established in _____ .
a) 1954 b) 1964 c) 1974
- In September 1970, _____ was appointed commander-in-chief of the Palestinian guerilla forces.
a) Arafat b) Abbas c) Mubarak

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Name the first President of PLO.
2. Whom did carter invite to Camp David?
3. By whom was Arafat invited to Camp David in 2000?
4. Give the meaning of the term “Intifadah”.
5. What was signed on September 13, 1993?

III. Match the Following:

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Madrid Conference | a) October 1994 |
| 2. Israel Jordan Peace | b) November2004 |
| 3. President Bush | c) January 2005 |
| 4. Yaser Arafat | d) October 1991 |
| 5. Mahmud Abbas | e) June 2002 |

PART – B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Palestine
 - a) Name the border of Palestine
 - b) Why does Palestine have a distinguished strategic location?
 - c) Who consider it as Holy land?
 - d) Why do many Muslims and Christians visit this land?
 - e) Name a few important harbours found here.
2. British Mandate in Palestine
 - a) Who corresponded secretry with the Ottoman Governor of Mecca and Medina?
 - b) Why did he correspond?
 - c) What were the Arabs promised?
 - d) Who were successful in defeating the Ottomans?
 - e) Who took control over much of this area during World War I?
3. The Palestinian Liberation Organisation (PLO)
 - a) When and by whom was PLO established?
 - b) Why was it established?
 - c) Which war made Israel a dominant regional military power?
 - d) Who were enabled to take over responsibilities?
 - e) Who was recognised as the leader of the Palestinians?

4. Yasar Arafat
 - a) When did Arafat address the U.N. General Assembly?
 - b) Describe the appearance of Arafat, which raised world awareness of the Palestinian cause.
 - c) What was adopted by the Palestine National Council?
 - d) What did it declare?
 - e) When was Arafat elected the President of the state of Palestine?
5. Camp David
 - a) Who were invited to Camp David in September 1978?
 - b) What did they workout?
 - c) Who were invited to Camp David in July 2000?
 - d) Why were they invited?
 - e) What did the Palestinians seek?

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Give a short account of the early history of the Israel - Palestine conflict.
2. Discuss the role of PLO and the negotiations conducted by it with Israel.
3. Write about the role of the U.S.A. in peace negotiations between Palestine and Israel.

ACTIVITIES

1. Go to the following URL to learn about the current situation.
<http://www.israelipalestinianprocon.org/summary.htm>

CHAPTER - 14

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS I – SALT - I

Introduction

The negotiations known as Strategic Arms Limitation Talks began in November 1969 and ended in January 1972, with agreement on two documents: the Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty (ABM Treaty) and the Interim Agreement on the Limitation of Strategic Offensive Arms. Both were signed on May 26, 1972.

Interim Agreement between the U.S. and U.S.S.R. was of five-year duration which froze the number of strategic ballistic missiles at 1972 levels. Construction of additional land-based Inter Continental Ballistic Missiles, (ICBM) were prohibited. Modernization of launchers is allowed, however, if kept within specific dimensions.

Negotiations

SALT I, the first series of Strategic Arms Limitation Talks, extended from November 1969 to May 1972. During that period the United States and the Soviet Union negotiated the first agreements to place limits and restraints on some of their central and most important armaments. In an Interim Agreement the two nations took the first steps to check the rivalry in their most powerful land- and submarine-based offensive nuclear weapons.

Soviet and American weapons systems were far from symmetrical. The Soviet Union had continued its development and deployment of heavy ballistic missiles and had overtaken the U.S. lead in land-based ICBMs. (Inter Continental Ballistic Missiles)

During the SALT I years alone Soviet ICBMs rose from around 1,000 to around 1,500, and Soviet submarine-based launchers had quadrupled. The United States had not increased its deployment of strategic missiles since 1967 but it was conducting a vigorous programme of equipping missiles with “Multiple Independently-targeted Re-entry Vehicles” (MIRV).

“MIRV”s permit an individual missile to carry a number of warheads directed at separate targets. MIRVs thus gave the United States a lead in numbers of warheads. The United States also retained a lead in long-range bombers.

Besides these asymmetries in their strategic forces, the defence needs and commitments of the two parties differed materially. The United States had obligations for the defence of allies overseas, such as Western Europe and Japan, while the Soviet Union’s allies were its near neighbours. All these circumstances made it difficult in equating specific weapons, or categories of weapons, and in defining overall strategic equivalence.

In a summit meeting in Moscow, the first round of SALT was brought to a conclusion on May 26, 1972, when President Nixon and General Secretary Brezhnev signed the ABM Treaty and the Interim Agreement on strategic offensive arms.

Both the agreements include provisions that strengthen assurance against violations. Both sides undertake not to interfere with national technical means of verification. In addition, both countries agree not to use deliberate concealment measures, so that verification process is not hindered.

STRATEGIC ARMS LIMITATION TALKS II – SALT -II

Introduction

The primary goal of SALT II was to replace the Interim Agreement with a long-term comprehensive Treaty providing broad limits on strategic offensive weapons systems. Early discussion between the sides focused on

- 1) The weapon systems to be included
- 2) Provision for equality in numbers of strategic nuclear delivery vehicles
- 3) The important differences between the forces of the two sides
- 4) Banning new systems
- 5) Qualitative limits and
- 6) A Soviet proposal to include U.S. forward-based systems.

The positions of the sides differed widely on many of these issues.

A major breakthrough occurred at the Vladivostok meeting in November 1974, between President Ford and General Secretary Brezhnev. At this meeting, the sides agreed to a basic framework for the SALT II agreement.

The completed SALT II agreement was signed by President Carter and General Secretary Brezhnev in Vienna on June 18, 1979. President Carter

transmitted it to the Senate on June 22 for its advice and consent to ratification.

On January 3, 1980, however, President Carter requested the Senate majority leader to delay consideration of the Treaty on the Senate floor in view of the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. In 1980, President Carter announced the United States would comply with the provisions of the Treaty as long as the Soviet Union reciprocated. Brezhnev made a similar statement regarding Soviet intentions.

In May 1982, President Reagan stated he would do nothing to undercut the SALT agreements as long as the Soviet Union abided by the agreement. The Soviet Union again agreed to abide by the unratified Treaty.

President Reagan in June 1985, declared that the United States would continue to refrain from undercutting existing strategic arms agreements to the extent that the Soviet Union exercised comparable restraint. He also declared that the Soviet Union actively pursued arms reductions agreements in the Nuclear and Space Talks in Geneva.

Finally, they decided on the following;

1. Agreed to exchange data on the number of weapons;
2. Give regular updates at each session of the Standing Consultative Commission;
3. Cooperative measures might be used to ensure adequate verification;
4. Cooperate for SALT III agreement.

EXERCISE

PART – A

I. Choose the Correct Answer and complete each statement:

1. The negotiations known as SALT began in _____ 1969 and ended in January 1972.
a) September b) October c) November
2. Both agreements were signed on _____ .
a) May 16, 1972 b) May 26, 1972 c) May 26, 1982
3. President Nixon and General Secretary _____ signed the ABM treaty.
a) Stalin b) Henry Kissinger c) Brezhnev

4. At the meeting in _____ both sides agreed to a basic frame work.
a) Moscow b) Vladivostok c) Vienna
5. In May 1982, President _____ stated that he would do nothing to under cut the SALT agreements.
a) Carter b) Nixon c) Reagan

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Expand ICBM
2. Give the expansion of ABM Treaty.
3. Expand MIRV.
4. Give the expansion of SALT
5. Name the two leaders who met at Vladivostok.
6. Name the two leaders who signed the SALT II agreement.

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. ABM Treaty | President Ford |
| 2. Jimmy Carter | June 18, 1979 |
| 3. Vladivostok | May 26, 1972 |
| 4. Vienna | November 1974 |
| 5. Brezhnev | January 3, 1980 |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. SALT - I
 - a) What was negotiated by the US and the Soviet Union?
 - b) What step was undertaken by them in an Interim Agreement?
 - c) Write about the Soviet and American weapons.
 - d) What is MIRV?
 - e) What do MIRVs permit?
2. SALT - II
 - a) What was the primary goal of SALT-II?
 - b) Mention any two points focussed on by SALT - II.
 - c) When and where did a major break through occur?
 - d) Who signed the completed SALT - II agreement?
 - e) Where and when did they sign?

PART – C

V. Answer the following each in not more than 2 pages:

1. Write briefly about SALT I & II.

ACTIVITY

1. See <http://www.fas.org/nuke/guide/usa/icbm/sicbm.htm> for photos of missiles.

CHAPTER - 15

DEVELOPMENTS IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN INDIA

At the onset of independence, Nehru called Science, “the very texture of life” and optimistically declared that, “Science alone can solve problems of hunger and poverty, of insanitation and illiteracy, of superstition and deadening customs’. Under his leadership, the government set up the Planning Commission in 1950 to cure numerous social problems.

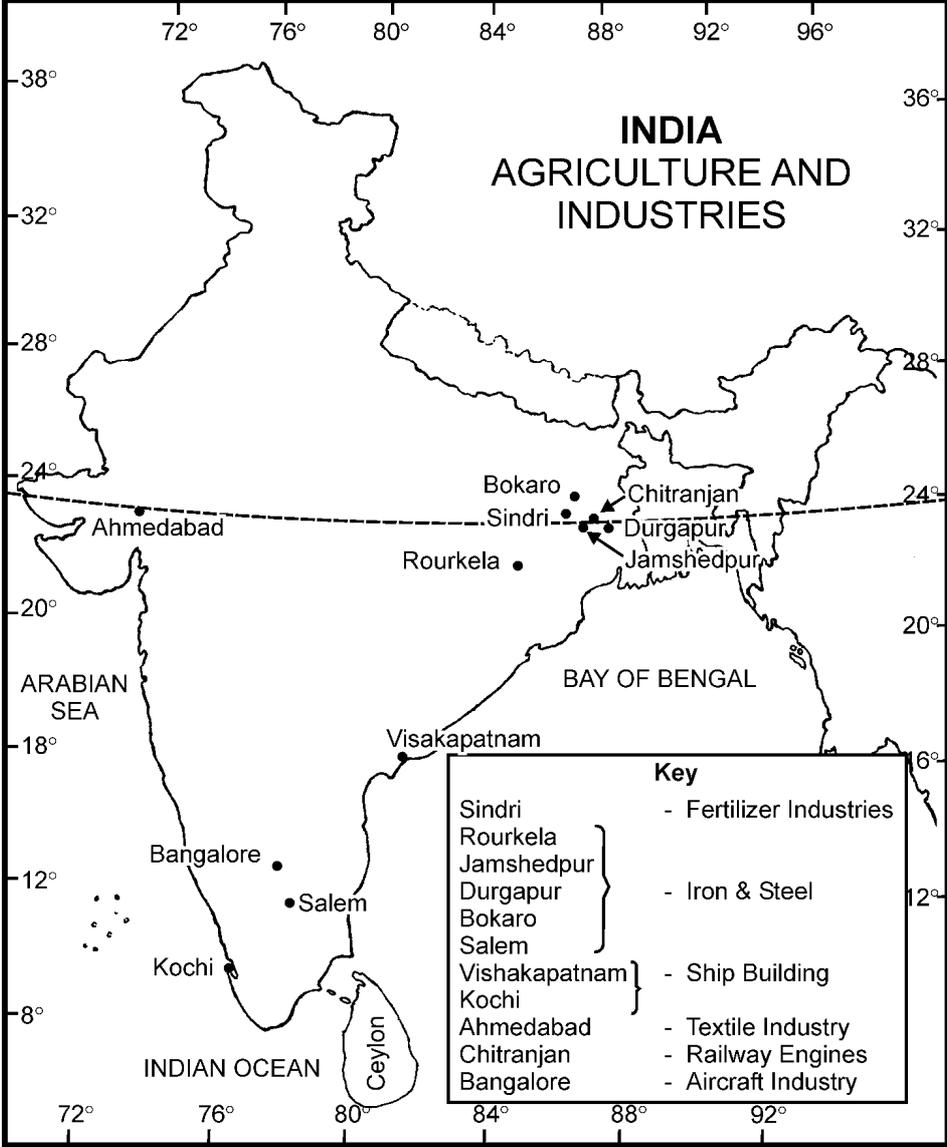
The green Revolution, educational improvement, establishment of hundreds of scientific laboratories, industrial and military research, massive hydraulic projects and entry in to the frontiers of space all evolved from this early decision to embrace high technology. Science and technology initiatives have been important aspects of the governments’ Five Year Plans. We feel very proud to know that India has the second largest pool of scientists and engineers in the world. It has world class recognition in Information Technology, Biotechnology and Space.

AGRICULTURE

Agriculture is an important sector of the economy for it provides food and security and also creates employment. The Indian Council for Agriculture Research (ICAR) was set up in 1929 and was reorganised in 1966 and 1975. The agricultural scientists have developed High Yieldable Varieties (HYV) of seeds, crop protection measures and efficient water management. Many factories have been set up at Sindri, Nangal, Rourkela and Trombay (for the production of Chemical Fertilizers). Hybrid varieties of crops were developed and farmers were educated with scientific and modern methods of farming.

Green Revolution

India realised the first ‘Green Revolution’ in 1967 - 68. A good year of rainfall coupled with efforts to improve the agricultural output with new technology resulted in record food grain production. The spectacular increase in the production of food grains is termed as Green Revolution. The



contribution of M.S. Swaminathan towards scientific research in agriculture is noteworthy. He has been described in the United Nations Environment Programme as “the Father of Economic Ecology” and by Javier Perez de Cuellar, the then Secretary General of the United Nations as “a living legend who will go into the annals of history as a world scientist of rare distinction”.

M.S. Swaminathan Research Foundation (MSSRF) was registered in 1988 as a non-profit Trust. MSSRF is doing research in the following five areas coastal systems research, biodiversity and biotechnology, eco-technology and sustainable agriculture, reaching the unreached and education, communication, training and capacity building.

INDUSTRY

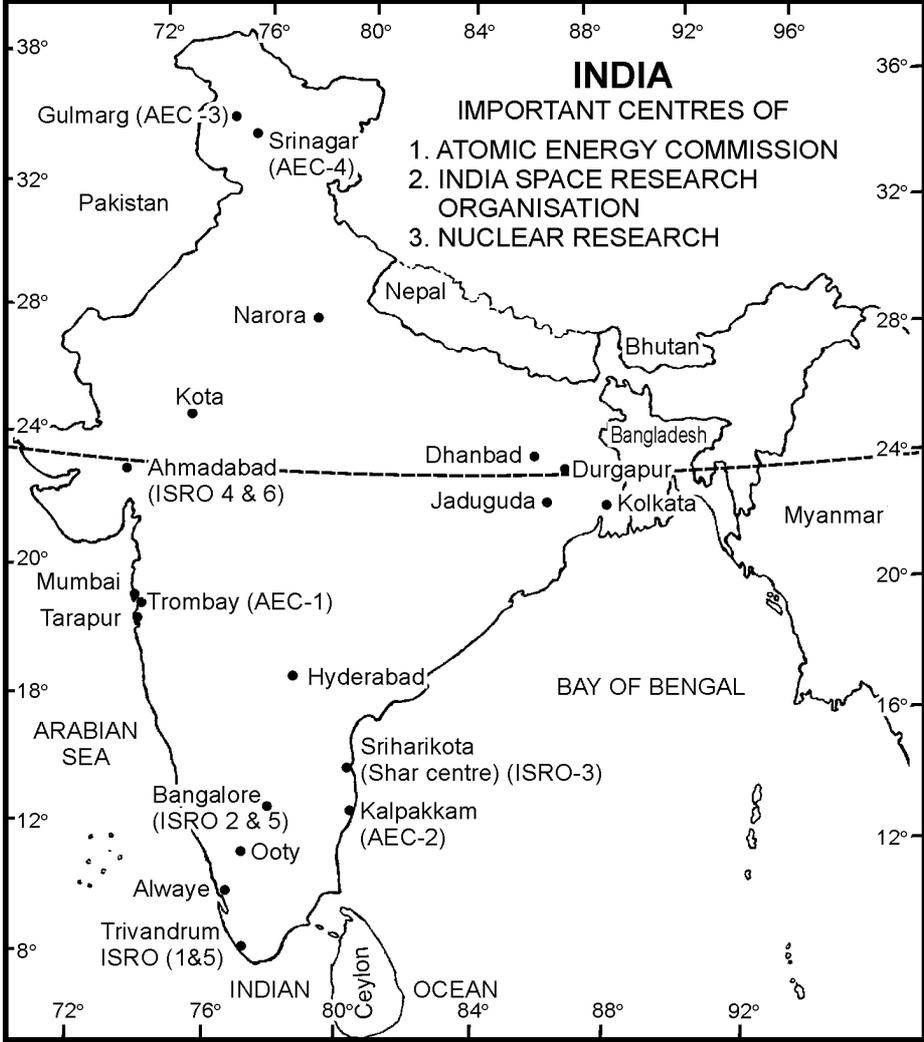
The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) was set up in 1942. It was re-organised after independence Nehru was its President. This department was placed under S.S. Bhatnagar, a great scientist. CSIR has established a vast net work of laboratories and research institutions all over the country. It takes survey of natural resources, roads, public buildings, public utility services like sanitation, water distribution and treatment of industrial wastes.

India had made rapid industrial progress after independence, through the first few Five Years Plans. Iron and Steel is the basic and key industry. In 1907, the Tata Iron and Steel company was setup at Jamshedpur. Later Iron and Steel plants were setup at Rourkela, Bihar, Durgapur, Bokaro, Salem, Vijayanagar and Vishakapatnam. The Bharat Heavy Electrical Ltd. (BHEL) produce heavy electrical goods. Cotton textile industries flourished in Mumbai, Ahmadabad, Chennai, Delhi, Kanpur etc. A factory for the manufacture of railway engines has been established at Chittaranjan (W. Bengal) and another to make railway wagons at Perambur (Tamil Nadu). Ships are built at Vishakapatnam and Kochi and Aeroplanes at Bangalore. Factories have been setup to manufacture motor-driven pumps, diesel engines, tractors and other agricultural implements. Now-a-days efforts are being made to collaborate with foreign firms and also apply advanced technologies in developing indigenous industries. Many of the industries in India have Research and Development (R & D) Department to bring about technological changes in the methods of production.

NUCLEAR CAPABILITIES

The aim of India is to utilise nuclear energy for peaceful purposes such as power generation, applications in agriculture, medicine, industry and research.

The Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) was established in 1948 for developing atomic energy as a source of electricity. The Bhabha Atomic



- 1. ATOMIC ENERGY COMMISSION (AEC)**
- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Bhabha Atomic Energy Centre | 2. Indra Gandhi Centre for Atomic Energy |
| 3. The High Altitude Research Laboratory | 4. Nuclear Research Laboratory |
- 2. INDIAN SPACE RESEARCH ORGANISATION (ISRO)**
- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Vikram Sarabhai Space Centre | 2. ISRO Satellite Centre |
| 3. SHAR Centre | 4. Space Application Centre |
| 5. Auxillary Propulsion Unit | 6. Development of Educational Communication Unit |
- 3. NUCLEAR RESEARCH**
- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------|--------------|------------|
| 1. Mumbai | 2. Trombay | 3. Hyderabad | 4. Gulmarg |
| 5. Durgapur | 6. Dhanbad | 7. Alwaye | 8. Ooty |
| 9. Kolkata | 10. Jaduguda | | |

Energy Research Centre in Mumbai was established in 1957. Atomic Energy Commission extends its support to the Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics, Physical Research Laboratory and Indian Cancer Institute. Dr. Homi Bhabha was a pioneer in the field of atomic energy research. To honour his memory, the Atomic Energy Research Centre at Trombay near Mumbai has been named after him.

The first nuclear power station at Tarapur started generating power in October 1969. Two such centres came at Kota in Rajasthan and Kalpakkam near Chennai in Tamil Nadu. The Fourth one was set up at Narora in Uttar Pradesh.

India has become the first nation to have set up a Fast Breeder Technological Research Centre (FBTR). The Department of Science and Technology (DST) has undertaken control of the department of survey of India, National Atlas and Thematic mapping and Metrological Research. We have Indian Institute of Technology (IIT) to provide high level technological education. The Indian Institute of Technology has established technical institutes at Chennai, Mumbai, Delhi, Kanpur, Karagpur, Rourkee and Assam.

Research and Development has played a vital role not only in independent India, but in pre-independent period also Sir. C.V. Raman (1888 - 1970) won a Nobel Prize in Physics for his work in scattering of light or Raman Effect.

Sathyendranath Bose (1894 - 1974) an Indian physicist solved one of the mysteries of quantum mechanics. His collaborations with Albert Einstein led to a new branch known as the “Einstein-Bose” statistics Subramanya Chandrasekar (1910 - 1995) a Nobel laureate in 1983 in Physics, contributed towards the structure and evolution of stars.

Har Gobind Khorana born in 1922, won a Nobel prize in Medicine for his work on interpretation of the genetic code.

Nuclear Research Centres in India:

Research Centre	Place
Atomic Energy Commission	Mumbai (Maharashtra)
Bhabha Atomic Research Centre	Trombay (Mumbai)
Electronics Corporation of India	Hyderabad (Andhra Pradesh)

Research Centre	Place
High Altitude Research Laboratory	Gulmarg (Kashmir)
Central Mechanical Engineering Research Institute	Durgapur (West Bengal)
Central Mining Research Institution	Dhanbad (Jharkhand)
Indian Rare Earths, Ltd	Alwaye (Kerala)
Radio Astronomy Centre	Ooty (Tamil Nadu)
Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics	Kolkata (West Bengal)
Tata Institute of Fundamental Research	Mumbai
Tata Memorial Centre	Mumbai
Uranium Corporation of India	Jaduguda (Jharkhand)

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Steps are taken to make India an Information Technology Superpower and one of the largest generators and exporters of Software in the world with in ten years. As an initiating step, a high powered National Task Force on IT and Software Development was set up on May 22, 1998. A special website was created to act as a forum to receive suggestions, analyse them and present them on the website for further suggestions from IT professionals in India and abroad.

The satellite WAN, using VSAT technology, has facilitated reliable and quick access from remote areas. International connectivity is achieved through gateways at New Delhi, Bombay, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Chennai and Kolkatta.

The overall production base of the Indian electronics industry is widely distributed. There are more than 3500 units engaged in electronic production.

India is among the three countries in the world, that have built super computers on their own. The other two countries being U.S.A. and Japan. India designed and built a super computer using massively parallel processing technology. It caters to the national requirements in science and engineering applications, mission critical applications and business computing. Centre for Development of Advanced Computing (C-DAC) has

released its latest model - the PARAM 10000, having a peak computing power.

The television, mobile phones and internet have become part of our daily life. Internet basically utilises the convergence of computers and communication technologies. Internet grows rapidly as it provides utility and services to the common man in the society. With the cellular industry adding a million customers every month, the future belongs to the cellular world.

The electronic media in India includes the services of the Akashvani started in 1927 and the Doordharshan which began in India in 1959. Doordharshan reaches 87% of the population of the country through a network of 984 terrestrial transmitters. Doordharshan India, the international channel started in 1995, reaches 50 countries of the world.

The WiFi Technology was started in Chennai International Airport on August 21, 2005. This is a free service helping the international travellers to have internet facilities.

TELECOMMUNICATION

Telecommunication is vital for the flow of information. India has taken steps to modernise its telecom infrastructure. Nearly one thousand new telephone lines are being added in our country every single hour. The Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL) was set up in October 2000 to provide better services to the customers in a competitive environment at affordable prices. The telecommunication Ministry has launched Sanchar Dhabas in villages to act as public-tele-information centres; thus fulfilling communication needs at the door step. Customer services are being improved by regular interaction with the users through the Telephone Advisory Committee, Open House Sessions and Telephone Adalats so as to redress customer grievances.

On January 15, 2005 Bharath Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL) launched its broad band services, Data One in Chennai, Bangalore, Hyderabad and Kolkatta. The broadband services will provide high speed internet connectivity for web-browsing and e-commerce Broadband service would promote economic growth and enhance the quality of life. India's telecom infrastructure between Chennai, Mumbai and Singapore, provides the largest bandwidth capacity in the world, with well over 8.5 Terabits per second (Tbs).

SPACE PROGRAMME

The Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO) programme was launched in 1972. The aim of ISRO is to develop and apply space technology for national and socio-economic projects. The Indian Space programme has a history of gradual development during the past thirty years. It is now capable of launching satellites on its own. There are major ISRO establishments at Thiruvananthapuram, Bangalore, Sriharikota and Ahmedabad. Each establishment is in-charge of different departments of Space Research and Development. The headquarters of ISRO is Bangalore.

ISRO's first-Indian satellite, Aryabhata was launched with Soviet assistance in April 19, 1975. Bhaskara I in 1979 and Bhaskara II in 1981, were launched. Apple an experimental geo-stationary communication satellite was successfully launched in 1981. The INSAT satellites are multipurpose equipments launched into space to establish space laboratories for the study and dissemination of valuable information and data regarding the outer space and to provide a national network of telecommunications and Doordharshan telecasts. Remote sensing is also carried on INSAT 2-A was put into orbit on July 10, 1992 from Kouron in French Guiana in South America.

Apart from supplementing services offered by INSAT-I series, the INSAT-2A has six transponders in the extended 'C' band to meet more requirements. It can also detect distress signals of ships, aircrafts and even people on land.

India's Geosynchronous Satellite Launch Vehicle (GSLV) was indigenously manufactured with most of the components like motor cases, inter-stages, heat shield, cryogenic engine, electronic modules all manufactured by public and private Indian industries. GSLV has been launched from Sriharikota successfully. Since its launch, India has attempted 15 space flights which have been successful.

India is among six countries that launch satellites and do so even for Germany, Belgium, South Korea and Singapore. India's INSAT is among the world's largest domestic satellite communication systems.

Rakesh Sharma, the Indian Squadron Leader was launched into space in the spaceship Soyuz-T II from Baikonur Cosmodrome in Kazaghastan in the USSR on April 3, 1984. Kalpana Chawla was one of the seven astronauts in the Columbia Space Shuttle when it disintegrated over Texas skies just

16 minutes before its scheduled landing on February 1, 2003. She was the second Indian to travel to space.

In Oceanography Indian Scientists have made a good progress. Our scientists have setup a research centre at Antarctica. It is called as “Dakshin Gangotri”. It is concentrating on exploring ocean bed for striking oil fields and resources.

Dr. Avul Pakir Jainulabdeen, Abdul Kalam worked in DRDO in 1958 and then joined ISRO in 1963. Dr. Kalam has made significant contribution to Indian satellite and launch vehicles of ISRO and also in the missile programme of DRDO. As project director, SLV III, he contributed for the design, development and management of India’s first Indigenous Satellite Launch Vehicle (SLV III) to inject Rohini satellite in the near earth orbit. He was responsible for the evolution of ISRO’s launch vehicles programme and configurations. He generated the Technology Vision 2020 documents - a road map for transforming India from “Developing India to Developed India”.

EXERCISES

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

- The Planning Commission was set up under the leadership of _____.
a) Gandhi b) Nehru c) Rajendra Prasad
- India has the _____ largest pool of scientists and engineers.
a) First b) Second c) Third
- The Indian Council for Agricultural Research (ICAR) was setup in _____.
a) 1920 b) 1927 c) 1929
- One of the aims of MSSRF is _____.
a) Coastal systems research b) Space research
c) Atomic research
- CSIR was placed under the great scientist _____.
a) Sri C.V. Raman b) Ramanujam c) S.S. Bhatnagar
- The Tata Iron and Steel company was set up in _____.
a) 1905 b) 1907 c) 1909

7. The nuclear power station is at _____ in Uttar Pradesh.
a) Tarapur b) Kota c) Narora
8. Sri C.V. Raman won a Nobel Prize in _____.
a) Chemistry b) Medicine c) Physics
9. Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited was set up in October _____.
a) 2000 b) 2001 c) 2002
10. There is an ISRO establishment at _____.
a) Andhra Pradesh b) Sri Harikota c) Allahabad

II. Answer each of the following in a word or phrase:

1. Why was the Planning Commission setup?
2. When was ICAR re-organised?
3. When did India realise the first Green Revolution?
4. Who is known as the Father of Economy and Ecology?
5. What is MSSRF?
6. After Independence who was the President of CSIR after independence?
7. Name the industry producing heavy electrical goods.
8. What is meant by R & D?
9. Name the nuclear power station in Tamil Nadu.
10. What is FBTR?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Atomic Energy Research Centre | a) Gulmarg |
| 2. Bhabha Atomic Research Centre | b) Jamshedpur |
| 3. High Altitude Research Laboratory | c) Kolkata |
| 4. Tata Iron and Steel Company | d) Trombay |
| 5. Saha Institute of Nuclear Physics | e) Mumbai |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Agriculture
 - a) When was ICAR set up?
 - b) What did the agricultural scientists develop?
 - c) Name a few places where chemical factories were set up.
 - d) What is called “Green Revolution”?
 - e) Who is responsible for this Green Revolution?

2. Green Revolution
 - a) When did India realise the first Green Revolution?
 - b) Why was there good record in food grain production?
 - c) What is Green Revolution?
 - d) Whose work in this field is note worthy?
 - e) How has he been honoured by the U.N.O.?
3. Industries of India
 - a) When and where was Tata Iron and Steel Company set up?
 - b) Where were Iron and Steel plants set up later?
 - c) Mention two places where fertilizer factories were set up.
 - d) Mention two places where textile industries were set up.
 - e) Where are ships built?
4. Nuclear Capabilities
 - a) How has India planned to use nuclear energy?
 - b) To whom does the Atomic Energy Commission extend its support?
 - c) Who was a pioneer in the field of Atomic Energy Research?
 - d) Mention the research centre named after him.
 - e) When and where was the first nuclear power station started?
5. Information Technology
 - a) What are the steps are taken in the field of information technology?
 - b) What was set up in 1998?
 - c) What was created?
 - d) What is the use of the satellite WAN?
 - e) Where have we achieved international connectivity?
6. Telecommunication
 - a) What was set up in the year 2000?
 - b) Why was it set up?
 - c) What has been launched by the Telecommunication Ministry and why?
 - d) What are the steps taken to improve customer's services?
 - e) What did BSNL achieve in 2005?
7. Space Research Programme (ISRO)
 - a) What is the aim of Space Programme?
 - b) Where do we have major ISRO establishments?
 - c) When was the first Indian satellite launched?
 - d) How do the satellites serve as multi-purpose equipments?
 - e) What is GSLV?

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in not more than two pages:

1. Give an account of the nuclear capabilities of India.
2. Give the achievements of India in the Space Research Programme.
3. What is the role of India in Information Technology and Telecommunication.

PART-D

VI. 1) On the outline map of India mark the following centres of Atomic Energy Commission and India Space Research Organisation:

- | | | |
|--------------|----------------|---------------|
| a) Trombay | b) Kalpakkam | c) Gulmarg |
| d) Srinagar | e) Kota | f) Trivandrum |
| g) Bangalore | h) Sriharikota | i) Ahmadabad |

2) On the outline map of India mark the important centres for Agriculture and Industries:

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|------------------|
| a) Sindri | b) Rourkela | c) Jamshedpur |
| d) Bokaro | e) Salem | f) Vishakapatnam |
| g) Kochi | h) Ahmadabad | i) Chittaranjan |
| j) Bangalore | | |

3) Mark on the outline map of India the following Centres of Nuclear Research:

- | | | |
|--------------|---------------|------------|
| a) Alwaye | b) Dhanbad | c) Kolkata |
| d) Hyderabad | e) Ootacamund | |

ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a project on improvements in Agriculture / Green Revolution.
2. A trip may be arranged to Kalpakkam.
3. Inter-School Science exhibition can be arranged.

CIVICS

UNIT - I INDIAN CONSTITUTION

CHAPTER - 1

THE UNION EXECUTIVE

I. THE PRESIDENT

The executive branch of our government takes the responsibility of administration. It implements the internal and external policies of the government. It enforces the Acts enacted by the Parliament and the judgements delivered by the Judiciary.

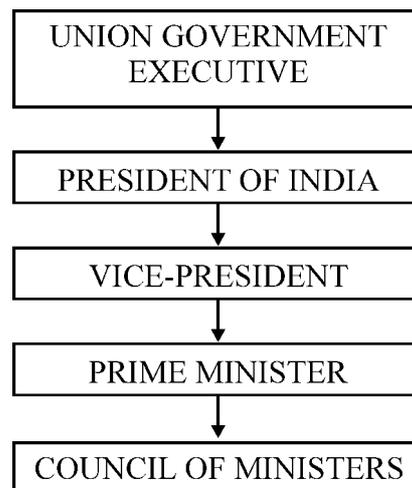


Fig. 1.1 Executive

The Union Executive consists of the President, the Vice President, the Prime Minister and his Council of Ministers. There are a number of officials to assist them in the administration. The President of India is the Head of the Indian Union and occupies the highest office in the country. The entire executive authority in the Union is formally vested in him. The Indian Constitution establishes a Parliamentary form of Government in which

the President, as the Head of State is the Constitutional Head. The real executive powers are vested in the Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister as its head. Further, India is a Republic and as such, the Head of State of the Republic, is indirectly elected. He holds office for a term of Five years.

Qualifications

A candidate should have the following qualifications to contest election to the office of the President of India: (1) He should be a citizen of India, (2) He should have completed thirty-five years of age. (3) He should not hold an office of profit under the Union Government, State Government or a local body. The President should not be a member of the Parliament or the State Legislature. If he is the member of any of these legislative bodies, he should vacate the post. (4) He should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Lok Sabha. (5) His name should be proposed by at least ten electors and seconded by another ten electors of the Electoral College which elects the President.

Election

The President of India is elected by the Electoral college consisting of the elected members of the Lok Sabha, Rajya Sabha and the Legislative Assemblies of all the states. Once elected as the President he has to take an oath of office before the Chief Justice of India.

Term of Office

The President is elected for a term of five years. At the expiry of his term he continues to hold office until his successor is ready to assume the office of the President. He may also resign from the office by addressing his letter of resignation to the Vice President of India. He may be removed from office for violation of the Constitution through the process of impeachment. The President is given a substantial allowance every year for his expenses involving travel, entertainment, grants, staff and household expenses along with his monthly salary. He is also eligible to get a pension on the expiry of his term or on resignation. The pension is supplemented by Rs. 12,000 a year and he is entitled for free medical aid. The emoluments and allowances of the President cannot be reduced during his term of office. Apart from these, the President is entitled to the rent-free use of his official residence, the Rashtrapati Bhavan.

Vacancy in the Office of the President

The election of the new President should be held before the term of the on-going President ends. If there is vacancy on account of death, resignation or the removal of the President, new election is to be held and the newly elected President is to hold office for the full five year term. In the event of occurrence of vacancies in the office of both the President and the Vice President, the Chief Justice of India or in his absence, the senior most judge of the Supreme Court is to discharge the functions of the President.

Powers of the President

Executive Powers

The Constitution of India provides that the executive powers of the Union shall be vested in the President and shall be exercised by him directly or through officers subordinate to him; and that there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister at the head, to aid and advise the President in the exercise of his functions. All the executive actions of the Government are taken in the name of the President.

The President appoints the Prime Minister, the Council of Ministers, the Governors of the states, the Chief Justice and the other judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts. The President as the Head of the State, sends and receives envoys and other diplomatic agents. Every Union Territory is administered by the President acting through the administrators appointed by him. However, the President exercises his power of appointment in accordance with the advice of the Council of Ministers. The executive authority of the President is enhanced when the country is placed under a general emergency.

Legislative Powers

The President is an integral part of the Parliament. His legislative powers cover a wide field. The President summons and prorogues the sessions of the Parliament and may dissolve the Lok Sabha even before the expiry of its term. After each general election, at the commencement of the first session of the Lok Sabha, the President addresses both the Houses of the Parliament in a joint sitting and outlines the national and international policies of the government. In case of a deadlock between the two Houses over a bill, the President may summon them to meet in a joint sitting for the purpose of deliberating and voting on the bill. The President nominates twelve members

to the Rajya Sabha who are experts in different fields. He nominates two Anglo-Indian members to the Lok Sabha.

Money Bills cannot be introduced in the Lok Sabha without his approval. The bills passed by the Parliament become Acts only after the President gives his assent to them. He may return the Bill to the Parliament for amendments. But if the Bill is passed again without amendments, the President is obliged to give his assent to the Bill.

The President can issue ordinances when the Parliament is not in session. The ordinances have the same force and effect as an Act of Parliament, However, the ordinances must be approved by both the Houses of the Parliament within six weeks after its next session begins.

Judicial Powers

The President has the power to grant pardon, remit or suspend a sentence of punishment on an appeal for mercy. He can commute even a death sentence to life imprisonment.

Financial Powers

The Annual Budget containing the estimate of income and expenditure of the Union Government for the ensuing year is put before the Parliament by the Finance Minister on behalf of the President. No money bill can be introduced except on the recommendation of the President. The Contingency Fund of India is at his disposal. He can make advances out of it to meet unforeseen expenditure. He also appoints Finance Commissions from time to time.

Military Powers

The President is the Supreme Commander of the Defence Forces. He appoints the chiefs of the three wings of the Defence. He declares war or makes peace with any foreign country on the advice of the Council of Ministers.

Emergency Powers

The President has been given wide powers to meet emergencies arising out of war or armed rebellion, failure of constitutional machinery in a particular state or threat to financial stability and economy of the country. However, such a decision should be approved and communicated to him in writing by the Union Cabinet.

Position of the President

According to Jawaharlal Nehru, “We have not given our President any real power but we have made his position one of great authority and dignity. The President exercises a moral influence on the government. He is in a position to influence and give direction to the shaping of national policies of the country”.

II. THE VICE PRESIDENT

Our Constitution provides for a Vice-President. He is elected by the members of both the Houses of the Parliament. A candidate for this office must be a citizen of India, should have completed thirty-five years of age, and should be qualified to be a member of the Rajya Sabha. His term of office is for five years. He is chairman of the Rajya Sabha. When the President is unable to discharge his duties due to illness or absence from the country, the Vice-President attends to the functions of the President. If the office of the President falls vacant due to his resignation, death or impeachment, the Vice-President acts as the President for a maximum period of six months.

III. THE PRIME MINISTER AND THE COUNCIL OF MINISTERS

The Constitution provides that there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Prime Minister at the head to aid and advise the President who shall act in accordance with such advice. He may ask the Council to reconsider their advice, but is bound by the advice given after reconsideration. This clearly shows that the Prime Minister is the real head whereas the President is only a nominal head.

Appointment

The leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha is appointed by the President as the Prime Minister. The other ministers are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister. If no party commands absolute majority in the Lok Sabha, a coalition government will be formed. Then the President can summon the leader of any party who, in his opinion, can manage to form a ministry. The President administers to the ministers the oath of office and of secrecy. The salaries and allowances of the ministers are determined by the Parliament. A person who is not a member of the Parliament can be appointed a minister but he has to get himself elected to the Parliament within six months. There are three categories of ministers -

the Cabinet Ministers, Ministers of State and the Deputy Ministers. The second and third categories are not the members of the Cabinet and do not attend its meetings unless they are specially invited to do so. A Minister of State is higher in status than a Deputy Minister. He acts as the reserve force of the party and can be appointed as a minister of the Cabinet rank. A Deputy Minister works for his chief and works for him in his absence. The work of a department is divided among the Minister of State and the Deputy Minister.

Position and Powers of the Prime Minister

The real executive power in India rests with the Prime Minister. The leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha is appointed by the President as the Prime Minister. The President appoints other ministers on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister distributes portfolios among the ministers. The Prime Minister can ask for the resignation of any minister, if such a need arises. The Prime Minister decides the dates of the meeting of the Cabinet and also prepares the agenda. He presides over the meetings of the cabinet. An efficient working of the cabinet is largely dependent upon the capacity of the Prime Minister. Eventhough the Prime Minister is the Head of the Cabinet, the other ministers are not his subordinates. They are his colleagues. He is the first among the equals. The Prime Minister supervises the work of various ministers.

Prime Minister and the President

The Prime Minister is the main link of communication between the President and the Cabinet. It is the duty of the Prime Minister to communicate to the President all decisions of the Council of Ministers relating to the administration and proposals for legislation. The President acts on the advice of the Council of Ministers, which virtually means, the advice of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister assists the President in making all important appointments. It is on his advice, that the President summons or prorogues both Houses of the Parliament and dissolves the Lok Sabha. The Prime Minister in consultation with the Cabinet, advises the President to proclaim a state of Emergency.

Prime Minister and the Parliament

As the Prime Minister is the leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha, he occupies a commanding position in the Parliament. He makes policy statements on the floor of the House. He is the chief spokesman of the government in the Parliament. He comes to the rescue of other Ministers

in the Parliament when they are attacked by the opposition benches. As already pointed out, the sessions of the Parliament are summoned and prorogued by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister.

Cabinet

The Cabinet is an informal body of senior ministers who form the nucleus of administration. These ministers are trusted men of the Prime Minister. Important decisions of the Government, are taken by the Cabinet. The decisions are bound to be followed by other ministers. Important legislative functions of the Cabinet are, deciding the dates for holding sessions and for proroguing the Parliament. The Cabinet recommends to the President to promulgate ordinances. It is instrumental in moving amendments. Its administrative functions are formulating national policies and coordinating the activities of all the ministries.

The Annual Budget is prepared by the Finance Minister as directed by the Cabinet. The finance bills have their origin in the Cabinet and then they are introduced in the Lok Sabha with the President's recommendation. The Cabinet decides the foreign policy of the Government, approves international treaties, and plays a significant role in the appointment of ambassadors to various countries.

The President cannot declare a Proclamation of General Emergency without receiving in writing the decision of the Cabinet to this effect.

Collective Responsibility

Collective responsibility means that the Council of Ministers as a single body is responsible to the Lok Sabha. The decisions taken by the Cabinet are binding upon all the ministers. If they disagree, they shall have to resign.

If a vote of no-confidence or a censure motion is passed against one minister, the whole team has to resign. The resignation of the Prime Minister implies the resignation of the entire ministry. Either they swim together or sink together.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The Head of the Indian Union is the _____ .
(a) Prime Minister (b) Vice-president (c) President
2. The Ambassadors to India from other countries are received by the _____ .
(a) President (b) Prime Minister (c) Chief Justice
3. The Cabinet meeting is presided over by the _____ .
(a) Prime Minister (b) President (c) Speaker
4. The entire executive authority in the Union is formally vested with the _____ .
(a) Prime Minister (b) Council-of Ministers (c) President
5. The real executive powers are vested with the _____ .
(a) Prime Minister (b) President (c) Council of Ministers
6. The President of India holds office for _____ .
(a) five years (b) four years (c) six years
7. The President nominates _____ Anglo-Indian members to the Lok Sabha.
a) two b) twelve (c) ten
8. The Supreme Commander of the Defence Forces is _____ .
(a) The Chief Justice (b) The Prime Minister (c) The President
9. The Chairman of the Rajya Sabha is the _____ .
(a) Prime Minister (b) Vice President (c) President
10. The Vice President can act as the President for a maximum period
(a) one year (b) nine months (c) six months

II. Answer each of the following in one word or phrase:

1. Who is the Head of the Indian Union?
2. Who is the chairman of the Rajya Sabha?
3. What is the term of office of the Prime Minister?
4. Who administers oath of office to the Ministers?
5. By whom is the Annual Budget prepared?
6. Who occupies the highest office in our country?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. President | a) Senior Ministers |
| 2. Prime Minister | b) Reserve force of the ruling party |
| 3. Cabinet | c) Collective Responsibility |
| 4. Council of Ministers | d) Highest office in the country |
| 5. Minister of State | e) Leader of the majority party |

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. President
 - a) Who takes the responsibility of administration in India?
 - b) What does the Union Executive consist of?
 - c) Who is the head of the Indian Union?
 - d) Mention any one of the qualifications to contest the election of the President of India.
 - e) How is the President of India elected?
2. The Vice President
 - a) Who elects the Vice President of India?
 - b) How is the Vice President of India elected?
 - c) What are the qualifications required to become the Vice President of India?
 - d) What is his term of office?
 - e) What is his position in the Rajya Sabha?
3. Prime Minister and President
 - a) Who is the main link of communication between the President and the Cabinet?
 - b) What is the duty of the Prime Minister?
 - c) On whose advice does the President act?
 - d) When does the President summon or prorogue the Parliament?
 - e) Who proclaims a state of emergency and on whose advice?
4. Cabinet
 - a) What is a Cabinet?
 - b) What types of decisions are taken by the Cabinet?
 - c) What are the important legislative functions of the Cabinet?
 - d) What does the Cabinet recommend to the President?
 - e) What are its administrative functions?

V. Answer the following each in about 15 lines:

1. What is the position of the President in the Union Executive? Mention the qualifications necessary to become the President of India.
2. How is the President of India elected. Explain his legislative powers?
3. How is the Prime Minister of India elected? Explain his executive powers.
4. Discuss the importance of the Cabinet.

ACTIVITY

1. Prepare a picture chart showing different Presidents and Prime Ministers of India.

CHAPTER - 2

THE UNION LEGISLATURE

THE PARLIAMENT

The Union Legislature is termed as the Parliament of India. The Union Legislature consists of two Houses, the House of the People or the Lok Sabha and the Council of States or the Rajya Sabha.

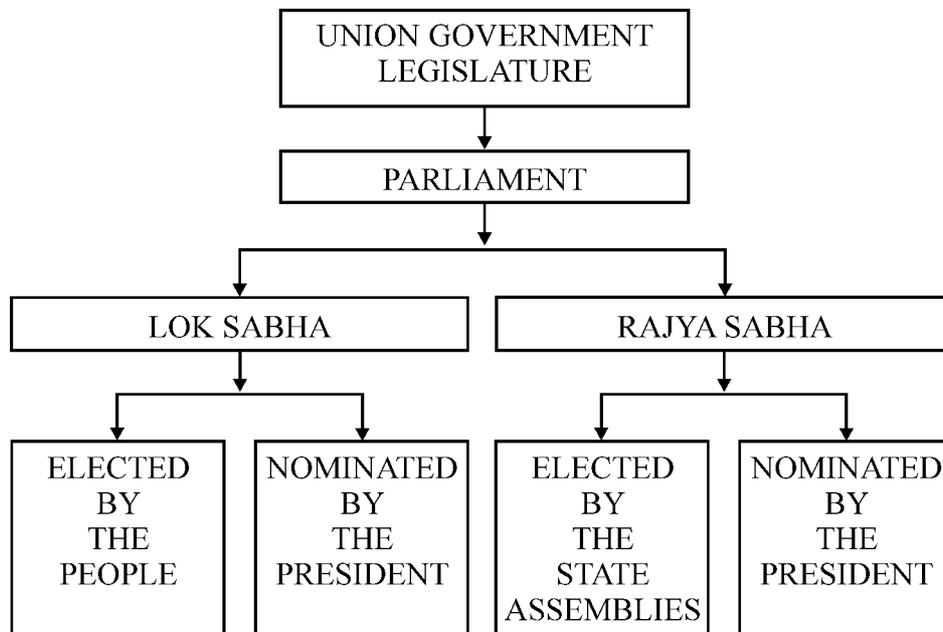


Fig. 2.1 Union Government - Legislature

A) THE LOK SABHA

Composition

Lok Sabha is composed of representatives of the people chosen by direct election on the basis of adult suffrage. The maximum strength of the

House envisaged by the Constitution is 552, upto 530 members to represent the States, up to 20 members to represent the Union Territories and not more than two members of the Anglo-Indian Community to be nominated by the President, if, in his opinion, that community is not adequately represented in the House. The total elective membership is distributed among the States in such a way that the ratio between the number of seats allotted to each State and the population of the State is, so far as practicable, the same for all States. The number is divided among the 28 States and the 7 Union Territories.

Each state and the union territory is divided, for the purpose of election, into what are known as 'Constituencies', The people of each constituency elect one member to the Lok Sabha. Any number of candidates may contest the election from the same constituency. The candidate who gets the majority of votes is declared elected to the Lok Sabha. Seats to the Lok Sabha are allotted to various states and the union territories on the basis of population. Some special provisions have been made for the reservation of seats in the Lok Sabha for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Election

Election to the Lok Sabha is direct, that is, the people elect the candidate of their own choice. 'Universal Adult Franchise' is the keynote of the Indian electoral system. It means that every citizen, who is not less than eighteen years of age and who is not otherwise disqualified under any law on grounds of non- residence, unsoundness of mind, crime or illegal practice, shall be registered as a voter. No person is denied the right to vote on the grounds of caste, creed, religion, status or sex. Elections are held by secret ballot system, so that the voters can cast their votes without fear.

Qualifications for Membership

A person must have the following qualifications to seek the membership of the Lok Sabha:

- a) he should be a citizen of India;
- b) he should not be less than 25 years of age;
- c) he should have his name in the electoral roll in some part of the country
and
- d) he should not hold an office of profit under the Government.

Term of Office

The term of the Lok Sabha is five years. The Lok Sabha can be dissolved by the President before the expiry of its term on the advice of the Prime Minister. During the period of national emergency, the term of the Lok Sabha may be extended by the Parliament for a period of one year. The sessions of the Lok Sabha are summoned by the President of India. There should not be an interval of more than six months between two sessions of the Lok Sabha. That is, the Lok Sabha must meet at least twice a year.

Speaker

The Presiding Officer of the Lok Sabha is called the Speaker. The speaker and the Deputy Speaker are elected from among the members of the Lok Sabha. Their election takes place soon after the newly elected House meets for the first time. The Deputy speaker officiates as Speaker in his absence.

Powers and Functions of the Speaker

The Speaker presides over the meetings of the Lok Sabha and maintains order and decorum in the House during the Parliamentary proceedings. All speeches and remarks made by the members are addressed to him. He determines the order of business in the House. He decides upon the admissibility of resolutions and questions. He has the power to disallow questions or motions which can obstruct the proceedings of the Lok Sabha. No motion for adjournment or a debate on a bill can be taken up without his consent. He appoints the Chairman of the Select Committees. He has to see that all the official business is completed in time, and so he can impose time-limit for every proceeding including the speeches on the budget. No member can speak in the House without his permission. He sees that order is maintained in the House. He can single out any member if he thinks he or she is disturbing the work of the house. Before sending a Bill to the Rajya Sabha or the President he signs the Bill as a token of its having been passed by the Lok Sabha.

He interprets the rules of procedure and applies them while conducting the proceedings of the House. It is the duty of the Speaker to see that the business of the Lok Sabha is transacted only when there is a proper quorum, that is the minimum number of members required to be present in the House to enable it to transact the business. The Speaker may adjourn the Lok Sabha if there is no quorum in the House. The 'term quorum' means one tenth of the strength of the House.

A number of Parliamentary Committees work under his Chairmanship. He appoints the chairman of various committees. He may adjourn the House in case of grave disorder, He prevents unparliamentary expressions in the House. The Speaker presides over the joint session of both the Houses of Parliament. He has a casting vote in case of a deadlock. He is the chief spokesman of the House and he works as a channel of communication between the President and the House.

B) THE RAJYA SABHA

Composition

The maximum strength of the Rajya Sabha is 250 members. 238 of them are elected by the states and Union Territories. Twelve members are nominated by the President from among people of repute in various spheres such as literature, art and social service.

Election

Members of the Rajya Sabha (except those nominated by the President) are elected by the elected members of the State Legislative Assemblies as per the system of proportional representation.

Qualifications for Membership

In order to contest for the Rajya Sabha, a candidate should possess the following qualifications: (1) He must be an Indian citizen, (2) He must be 30 years of age; (3) He must possess such other qualifications as may be prescribed by law; (4) He should not hold any office of profit under the State or Central governments; (5) He should not be of unsound of mind or an undischarged insolvent.

Term of Office

The Rajya Sabha is a permanent House. It can not be dissolved. Members of the Rajya Sabha have a six year term. One-third of its members retire every two years, and new members are elected to fill the seats thus vacated.

Chairman

The Vice-President of India is the ex-officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha. The Rajya Sabha also elects from among its members, a Deputy Chairman who presides over the meetings of the House in the absence of

the Chairman. The Chairman has all the powers of the Speaker of the Lok Sabha.

C) POWERS OF THE PARLIAMENT

The Union Parliament is the legislative wing of the Government of India. Apart from the legislative powers, it also enjoys financial, executive and judicial powers.

Legislative Powers

The Union Parliament can make laws on 97 subjects in the Union List and 47 subjects in the Concurrent List. The constitution can also be amended by the Parliament. It can create new states and change the boundaries by law.

Financial Powers

The Parliament enjoys vast financial powers. Neither can any tax be imposed nor can any money be spent without its authority. The Annual Budget is passed by the Parliament. The Finance Minister may put up some supplementary demands during the course of the financial year. These demands are called the 'Supplementary Budget' It is passed by the Parliament using the same procedure used for the Annual Budget. The Parliament decides the salaries and other allowances of the ministers and other members.

Control over the Executive

The Union Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha. In case the Lok Sabha passes a vote of no-confidence against the Government, the ministry will have to resign. The members of the Parliament can ask questions relating to the policies of the Union Government, during the question hour. The Parliament also exercises its control over the government through Adjournment Motion, Motion of Censure, rejection of a Government Bill, passing of a Private Member's Bill against the wishes of the government.

All the emergency proclamations issued by the President must receive the approval of the Parliament within two months of its promulgation. Similarly, all the ordinances issued by the President must be laid before the Parliament and approved by it within six weeks of its meeting.

Judicial Powers

The Parliament has the sole right of impeaching the President. If two-thirds majority of the total membership of the House is in favour of the

impeachment of the President, he can be removed from office. Similarly, the Parliament can remove the Judges of the Supreme Court and the High Court, the Comptroller and the Auditor-General and the members of the Election Commission.

Legislative Procedure in the Parliament

Bills may be ordinary Bills or Money Bills. Ordinary Bills deal with matters of public interest in general. Money Bills deal with a proposal for taxation or expenditure of public funds. An Ordinary Bill can originate in either House, whereas a Money Bill has to be introduced first in the Lok Sabha. Every Bill has to pass through five stages in each House before it is considered to have been passed by Parliament. The five stages are the first reading, the second reading, select committee stage, the report stage and the third reading.

The first stage of legislation is the introduction of the Bill. In case of a Private Member's Bill, one month's notice must be given to the Speaker. If it is a Government Bill (moved by a minister) there is no need to give a month's notice. When the Bill is submitted to the Speaker with its aims and objectives, a date and time is fixed for its introduction. If the introduction of the Bill is opposed, the Speaker can allow the mover of the Bill and the member opposing it to make explanatory statements. A vote is taken and if the majority is in favour of the Bill, the same is considered to have been moved. After this introduction, the Bill is published in the Gazette of India.

During the second reading, the underlying principles of the Bill are discussed by the members of the House. If the fundamentals of the Bill are approved, the second stage is over, the Bill enters the select committee stage. A Bill is usually referred to a select committee. During the committee stage, the Bill is thoroughly discussed clause by clause. After the committee stage, the Bill enters the report stage. The members of the committee express their views in the report.

After a debate on the committee's report, and after the House decides to take up the Bill, the House takes up the Bill for consideration clause by clause. Amendments are proposed and included if passed by the House. Now the Bill enters the fifth stage known as the third reading. The members are allowed to speak for or against the Bill as a whole. The Bill is then put to vote. If the Bill is passed by the majority of the members present and voting, the Bill is passed by the House. Then it receives the signature of the

Presiding Officer of the House - the Speaker or the Chairman as the case may be. When the Bill is thus passed by one House, it is sent to the other House, and the same procedure is repeated. When the Bill has been passed by both the Houses, it is sent to the President for his Assent. (In case of disagreement between the two Houses, there is a provision for joint sitting.) The President may send the bill back for reconsideration. If the Bill is passed again by both the Houses, with or without amendments, it will be sent to the President. This time the President has to give his assent to the Bill. It becomes an Act with the President's signature.

A Money Bill can originate only in the Lok Sabha. When it is passed in the Lok Sabha, it is forwarded to the Rajya Sabha. The latter should return it within fourteen days with its recommendations. The Lok Sabha may accept or reject them. It is evident that the Rajya Sabha does not exercise any control in the matter of Money Bills.

Annual Budget

Annual Budget is also a Money Bill. After the introduction of the Budget in the Lok Sabha with the approval of the President, a general discussion on the Budget takes place. This is followed by the voting of demands for grants. The House has the power to assent, reduce or reject these demands. A separate demand for grant is made by each ministry. The House discusses all demands. The demands for grants are incorporated in a single Bill called Appropriation Bill.

The second part of the Budget is related to income for the Government. The income is raised by levying taxes. All the taxation proposals of the government are incorporated in a single Bill known as Finance Bill. After the Bill is passed in both the Houses, it is sent to the President for his assent. When the President assents to the Appropriation Bill (incorporating the demands for grants) and Finance Bill, (incorporating the taxation proposals) the Budget for the coming Financial year stands passed.

Question Hour in the Parliament

The first hour of the day, when the Parliament is in session, is allotted for asking and answering questions. It is known as the "Question Hour". During this hour, the members of the Parliament put questions to Ministers in order to obtain information pertaining to their respective Ministries. Members wishing to ask questions must give a twenty one days notice.

EXERCISE

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. A candidate seeking the membership of the Lok Sabha must not be less than the age of _____.
a) 25 years b) 30 years c) 35 years
2. The permanent house of the Parliament is the _____.
a) Lok Sabha b) Rajya Sabha c) Vidhan Sabha
3. Both the State Assemblies and the Parliament can enact laws on the subjects in the _____.
(a) State List (b) Union List (c) Concurrent List
4. The House of the People is known as the _____.
(a) Rajya Sabha (b) Lok Sabha (c) Legislative Council
5. The Presiding Officer of the Lok Sabha is the _____.
(a) Speaker (b) President (c) Prime Minister

II. Answer each of the following in one word or phrase:

1. How many members in the Lok Sabha represent the Anglo-Indian community?
2. Who elects the members of the Rajya Sabha?
3. What is the Bill moved by a Minister called?
4. Which is the House of the People?
5. How are the members of the Lok Sabha elected?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Government Bill | (a) Demand for grants |
| 2. Money Bill | (b) Taxation proposals |
| 3. Annual Budget | (c) Minister |
| 4. Appropriation Bill | (d) Finance Minister |
| 5. Finance Bill | (e) Lok Sabha |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Lok Sabha
 - a) Who elects the members of the Lok Sabha?
 - b) What is the term of office of the Lok Sabha?
 - c) When can the Lok Sabha be dissolved?
 - d) When is the term of the Lok Sabha extended?
 - e) What should be the interval between two sessions of the Lok Sabha?
2. The Rajya Sabha
 - a) What is the maximum strength of the Rajya Sabha?
 - b) How many are elected by the States and Union Territories?
 - c) How many members are nominated by the President?
 - d) Whom does the President nominate?
 - e) Why is the Rajya Sabha called a Permanent House?
3. Powers of the Parliament
 - a) What is the Union Parliament?
 - b) Give its Legislative powers.
 - c) Mention any one of the financial powers of the Parliament.
 - d) When will the ministry have to resign?
 - e) What is impeachment?
4. Annual Budget
 - a) What is an Annual Budget?
 - b) What happens after introducing the Budget in the Lok Sabha?
 - c) What is the power of the Lok Sabha at this stage?
 - d) What is an Appropriation Bill?
 - e) What is a Finance Bill?
5. Question Hour
 - a) What is meant by the term Question Hour?
 - b) Who puts forth questions to the Ministers?
 - c) Why do they put forth questions to the ministers?
 - d) What steps should be taken by the members, who wish to ask questions?
 - e) Do you feel the Question Hour is important why?

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in about 15 lines:

1. Write about the composition and election of the Lok Sabha.
2. Explain the powers and functions of the Speaker.
3. Explain the powers of the Parliament.
4. Clearly state the various stages of a Bill before becoming an Act.

ACTIVITY

1. Attend a Parliamentary session and prepare a report.

CHAPTER - 3

THE UNION JUDICIARY

Our Constitution provides for the establishment of an independent and integrated judiciary with the Supreme Court as the highest and final court in the country. Our Judiciary is independent of the Legislative and the Executive wings of the Union and of the State Government. An integrated judiciary means a single judicial hierarchy for the whole country.

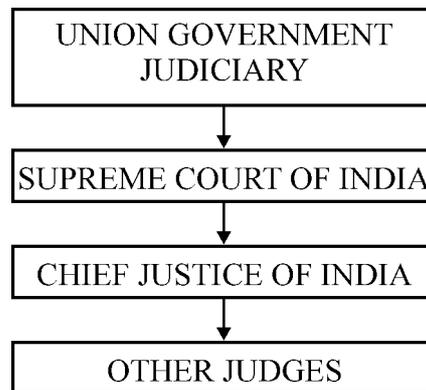


Fig. 3.1 Union Government - Judiciary

COMPOSITION OF THE SUPREME COURT

Our Supreme Court is in New Delhi. In the beginning, there was one Chief Justice and seven other judges. But by the Constitutional amendments from time to time, the number of judges has been increased; Now there are twenty five judges in the Supreme Court apart from one Chief Justice. Besides having regular judges, the Constitution also provides for the appointment of some judges to the Supreme Court on an ad-hoc (temporary) basis as and when required.

APPOINTMENT OF JUDGES

The Chief Justice is appointed by the President of India. The Chief

Justice is consulted by the President in case of appointment of other judges of the Supreme Court.

QUALIFICATIONS OF SUPREME COURT JUDGES

A person to be appointed as a judge of the Supreme Court must have the following qualifications: He must be a citizen of India and he should have worked as a judge of a High Court continuously for at least five years or he should have been an advocate of a High Court for at least ten years.

PRIVILEGES OF THE SUPREME COURT JUDGES

The Chief Justice and other judges are entitled to rent free accommodation and other amenities. The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold office till they complete the age of sixty five years. However, they can be impeached by the Parliament for their proved misbehaviour or incapacity. A Supreme Court Judge can be impeached by passing a motion in each House of Parliament with a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members present and voting.

SEAT OF THE SUPREME COURT

The Supreme Court normally sits in New Delhi. It may also sit in some other place if the Chief Justice, with the approval of the President, so decides.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT

The Supreme Court is the guardian of the Constitution and as such is vested with extensive powers to perform judicial, administrative, advisory and other functions.

JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS

Judicial functions of the Supreme Court extend to original as well as appellate jurisdiction. Original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court extends to those cases which are brought before it in the first instance. The Supreme Court has jurisdiction in any dispute between the Government of India and one or more states, and between the states.

As regards the appellate jurisdiction, the Supreme Court hears appeals against the decisions of the High Court. In civil, criminal and constitutional cases a certificate is required from the High Court that it is fit for appeal to the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court has the power to issue direction or order in the nature of the Writs of Habeas Corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition, Quo Warranto and Certiorari for the enforcement of Fundamental Rights. Cases relating to the interpretation of the Constitution are also directly filed in the Supreme Court.

Writ of Habeas Corpus is issued by the High Court or Supreme Court in case of illegal arrests or wrongful detention and the court orders that the person who has been detained must be produced before it.

Mandamus is an order which commands a person or body to do his or its duty. It protects the petitioner's interests by getting some public duty performed by the authority to whom the court order is issued.

Prohibition is issued to a body to prevent it from hearing a case which is beyond its jurisdiction.

Certiorari is issued to quash an order or decision of the lower court on grounds that it is not competent to deal with the particular case.

Quo Warranto is issued to a public servant to enquire into the legality of his holding a public office.

POWER OF GRANTING SPECIAL LEAVE TO APPEAL

The Supreme Court may, in its discretion, grant special leave to appeal against a judgement passed by any court in India. Those who fail to obtain a certificate for appeal from the lower courts can make use of this concession. This power of the Supreme Court is subject to certain limitations. This power does not apply to any judgement given by a Military Tribunal. The Supreme Court uses this wide power with great caution.

JUDICIAL REVIEW

The Supreme Court is the guardian of our Constitution. If any law goes against the Constitution, the Supreme Court, exercising its power of Judicial Review, declares the law null and void. This checks the arbitrary power of the executive and the legislature.

ADVISORY JURISDICTION

The President may seek advice of the Supreme Court on important, questions of law and fact. However, the opinion of the Supreme Court is not binding on the President.

ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION

The Supreme Court has the administrative control of its own establishment, all high courts and subordinate courts.

COURT OF RECORD

A Court of Record means a superior court whose decisions and judicial proceedings are recorded for future reference. The High Courts and other subordinate courts decide cases in the light of judgements passed by the Supreme Court.

LOK ADALAT SYSTEM

The Legal Services Authorities Act was passed by the Parliament in 1987. By this Act the system of Lok Adalat came into practice. Lok Adalat is a special court presided over by a judge. It provides for giving cheaper and quicker justice to the people. If a case is pending before any court for a very long time and if both the parties agree, it can be settled quickly in the Lok Adalat. Provision has been made for even poor people to get speedy justice. This system has been working in some states.

EXERCISE

PART- A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each sentence:

1. The number of judges in the Supreme Court now including the Chief Justice is _____.
(a) 18 (b) 26 (c) 35
2. The Writ issued to a public servant is called _____.
(a) Certiorari (b) Quo Warranto (c) Mandamus
3. The age of retirement for Supreme Court judges is _____.
(a) 62 (b) 65 (c) 58
4. The Judges of the Supreme Court are appointed by the _____.
(a) President (b) Prime Minister (c) Cabinet
5. The Apex Court in the country is the _____.
(a) High Court (b) Supreme Court
(c) Village Panchayats

6. The Guardian of the Constitution is _____ .
(a) The Supreme Court (b) The High Court
(c) The Village Panchayats
7. “The Legal Services Authorities Act” was passed by the Parliament in _____ .
(a) 1987 (b) 1977 (c) 1967

II. Answer each of the following in one word or phrase:

1. Where is our Supreme Court located?
2. How many judges were there in the Supreme Court in the beginning?
3. Whose judgement cannot be interfered with by the Supreme Court?
4. What is the writ issued to quash an order or decision of the lower courts called?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Indian Judiciary | (a) New Delhi |
| 2. Supreme Court | (b) Parliament |
| 3. Impeachment | (c) Quicker justice |
| 4. Lok Adalat | (d) Mandamus |
| 5. Protects a person’s interest | (e) Independent |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Judicial functions of the Supreme Court
 - a) What is original jurisdiction?
 - b) Give an example of original jurisdiction
 - c) What is appellate jurisdiction?
 - d) What type of cases does it hear under appellate jurisdiction?
 - e) What is required to appeal in the Supreme Court?
2. Writs of the Supreme Court
 - a) What is ‘Habeas Corpus’?
 - b) What is ‘Mandamus’?
 - c) What is ‘Certiorari’?
 - d) When is ‘Prohibition’ issued?
 - e) When is Quo Warranto issued?

3. Power of granting Special Leave to Appeal
 - a) Who grants special leave to appeal?
 - b) When is the special leave of appeal granted?
 - c) Who can make use of this concession?
 - d) What is the limitation of this power of the Supreme Court?
 - e) How does the Supreme Court use this wide power?
4. Lok Adalat System
 - a) Name the Act passed by the parliament in 1987.
 - b) What is Lok Adalat?
 - c) What does it provide?
 - d) What types of cases can be settled in the Lok Adalat?
 - e) How does it help the poor people?

PART - C

V. Answer the following each in about 15 lines:

1. What is the composition of the Supreme Court? How are the judges appointed?
2. What are the judicial functions of the Supreme Court?

ACTIVITY

1. Prepare a chart showing the three wings of the government - Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.

UNIT - II CHALLENGES FACING OUR COUNTRY

CHAPTER - 4

CHALLENGES FACING OUR COUNTRY

India got her independence in 1947. Our country faced many problems during the British rule. The British exploited the Indian resources for their development and progress. Some of their policies encouraged communalism in our country. It resulted in the division of India into India and Pakistan. Education was not provided properly to the Indians. Even though our Government has taken many steps to eradicate the socio-economic problems of India, still we face some problems like communalism, casteism, and anti-social practices.

COMMUNALISM

A great hindrance to democracy is communalism. Communalism means placing one's own community above others, even above the nation. This feeling destroys the unity of the country and retards the progress of our country. The partition of India in 1947 was the result of communalism. There are people belonging to different religions in India. In fact the richness of our culture is the result of diverse religious communities. Our cultural heritage is seen in our monuments. The monuments like Sanchi Stupa, Ajanta and Ellora caves, our famous temples all over India, the famous Taj Mahal and the melodious music of the North and South belong to people of different religions. When we look at any monument we do not think of the community to which the sculptor belongs, but the magnificence of the sculpture. From the ancient period we find that we have developed a secular outlook. But today communal unrest sadly disrupts our lives. Education is the best way to eradicate communalism. Education creates a feeling of brotherhood among the people and fosters nationalism. Open University Scheme has been

implemented by the Universities to educate the interested mass. Radio, Television and Newspapers play a vital role in the spread of mass education through various programmes. The government is trying to spread national integration through television and other mass media.

CASTEISM

Casteism is another major problem in our country. In the beginning castes were formed on the basis of occupation. In course of time this became hereditary. Slowly casteism became rigid. This has created many problems in our country. This poses a serious threat to national integration. It also proves to be a serious impediment to the progress of our country. The Government of India has taken many steps to improve the condition of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The Constitution of India has abolished untouchability. The Untouchability Offences Act was passed in 1955. This Act makes untouchability a punishable crime. Government has reserved seats in the Lok Sabha and the Legislative Assemblies of the states for the Schedule Castes and Schedule Tribes. Scholarships and grants of stipends are given to them. The Government is using the mass media like television, radio, and films, to educate the people against casteism.

ANTI-SOCIAL PRACTICES

Some of the anti-social practices are bribery, corruption, and smuggling. Bribery is called a white collar crime. Bribery usually occurs in connection with contracts, construction works, grant of licences, purchase of land, etc. Bribing at all levels is a crime. Both the bribe giver and bribe taker are criminals. The Government of India has passed the Prevention of Corruption Act in 1947. The term corruption implies all illegal and anti-social activities. It also includes illegal gratification, misuse of power, undue influence in elections, etc. Smuggling is another anti-social activity. Gold, diamonds, electronic goods and drugs are mainly smuggled from foreign countries to India. Snake skins, crocodile skins, Pancha loha idols, etc., are smuggled from India to foreign countries. The Central Excise and Customs Departments are in charge of arresting these smugglers in order to prevent smuggling.

GROWTH OF POPULATION

The rapid growth of population is one of the biggest obstacles to the progress of our country. Scientific advancements in medicine have lowered

the death rate. Along with this higher birth rate also added to the increasing population. In 1951, our population was about 361 millions. In 1981, it was about 685 millions. In 1991, it was about 843 millions and in 2001, it was about 1027 millions. India is considered to be the second most populous country. For the steady progress of our country the growth of population must be checked. As our resources are limited, over population will lead to poverty and unemployment. It will also lower our standard of living.

The government is taking several measures to control over population by effective propaganda through mass media about family planning programmes, and spread of education particularly among women. Most educated people prefer to have a small family so as to have better standard of living.

ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

The greatest impact of man on the environment is pollution. The balance of the eco system is delicate. Pollution affects not only air, water and land but also the organisms in the biosphere. When harmful substances contaminate the environment in large quantities, the eco system is unable to absorb them and the flow of energy from one sphere to another is disturbed. This results in the breakdown of the balance in ecosystem and degradation of the environment. Air pollution and water pollution affect the environment. Some plants and animals have become extinct due to these environmental change. It has also resulted in the depletion of resources. Man cannot live without progress. But he has to understand that progress does not mean the destruction of environment. He has to learn to live in harmony with the environment. He must try to maintain the delicate balance of the ecosystem.

Exnora

Exnora was founded in 1989 by *Mr. M.B. Nirmal*, During his travels abroad, he was much impressed by the clean environment everywhere. He wanted to achieve the same when he came back home. Exnora stands for EXcellent NOvel and RAdical ideas and its main emphasis has been on the generation of innovative ideas and implementing them, which would help transform the society.

CIVIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL OBJECTIVE

The aims of Exnora are organising civic amenities and sanitary facilities on a self-help basis, enactment of suitable legislation for the betterment of

civic standards, environmental protection and thereby making the world a better place to live in.

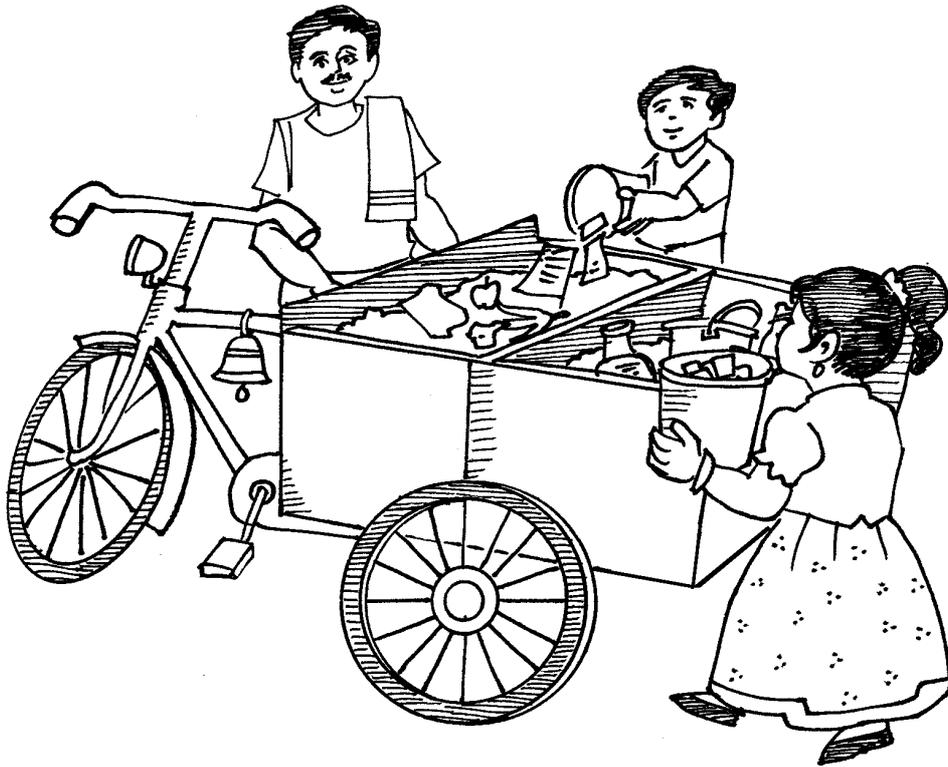


Fig. 4.1 Garbage Collection

Hygiene

A clean environment could be brought about only by a hygienic way of living. Hygiene is a systematic way of living for the preservation and betterment of health. Domestic hygiene means keeping the house clean, maintaining good sanitation inside and outside the house, and disposing of the waste properly. Public hygiene means, keeping the air and water free from pollution, keeping the roads clean, and maintaining good standards of cleanliness everywhere. Industrial hygiene means, preventing the harmful wastes from polluting the water sources, and environment.

AIDS

What is AIDS?

Human body has a control mechanism to fight diseases. It is called immune system. The white blood cells fight invaders successfully. But they fail when a virus called Human Immuno Deficiency Virus (HIV) enters into the human body. This virus destroys the immune system itself. It opens the gate to Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). If the immune system is weakened, the person may be affected by all kinds of infections. Common infections like colds and flu may also become untreatable.

After getting the infection, the stage of AIDS may take anywhere from a few months to 10 or 15 years to develop. The person will not be aware of it and feels as healthy as anyone else. Once AIDS set in, the individual will be quite sick and death follows soon. There is no drug or vaccine to cure this disease.

How is HIV transmitted?

HIV is primarily transmitted through sexual intercourse. It is also spread through transfusion of unscreened blood and blood products. Used needle may carry HIV virus. A pregnant woman having AIDS transmits the disease to her unborn child or after birth through breast feeding.

HIV is not spread through casual contacts like handshake, hugs, eating from the same dish, drinking from the same glass, etc. It is also not spread by mosquitoes or any other insects.

Preventive measures against AIDS :

1. Always disposable needles should be used.
2. We should remember our country's cultural heritage in terms of "One man, One Woman".

There are four kinds of tests for HIV/AIDS : (1) Elisa, (2) Western Blot, (3) PCR test and (4) Latex Agglutination test. Any of them may detect the disease.

If some one does get infected by HIV virus they should not be treated harshly as they need special sympathy and love.

EXERCISES**PART - A****I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:**

1. A great hindrance to democracy is _____ .
(a) Illiteracy (b) Communalism (c)Poverty
2. The Prevention of Corruption Act was passed in _____ .
(a) 1947 (b) 1950 (c) 1957
3. Exnora was founded in _____ .
(a) 1879 (b) 1989 (c)1979
4. There is no drug or vaccine to cure this disease.
(a) TB (b) Cancer (c)AIDS

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. What does the term corruption imply?
2. Name one antisocial activity.
3. Which is called a White Collar Crime?
4. What is the expansion of HIV?
5. Expand the term EXNORA.

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Partition of India | Immune system |
| 2. Snake skins | Polluting water sources |
| 3. Public Hygiene | Communalism |
| 4. Industrial Hygiene | Keeping the roads clean |
| 5. White blood cells | Smuggling |

PART - B**IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:**

1. Communalism
 - a) What is communalism?
 - b) Mention its bad effects.
 - c) What was the effect of communalism in 1947?
 - d) What is the best way to eradicate communalism?
 - e) Who plays a role in spreading mass education?

2. Casteism
 - a) What is casteism?
 - b) What is the great threat posed by casteism?
 - c) Name the Act passed by the Government to remove untouchability?
 - d) When was it passed?
 - e) What has the government done to improve the lot of scheduled castes and scheduled tribes
3. Anti-social practices
 - a) What are different antisocial practices?
 - b) How does bribery occur?
 - c) Name the Act passed by the Government against corruption.
 - d) Who are considered to be the criminals?
 - e) What are the things smuggled into India?
4. EXNORA
 - a) Expand the term EXNORA.
 - b) Who founded EXNORA?
 - c) Why did he start the EXNORA?
 - d) What has been its main emphasis?
 - e) What are the aims of EXNORA?
5. AIDS
 - a) What is AIDS?
 - b) How is HIV transmitted?
 - c) What are the preventive measures against AIDS?
 - d) Do mosquitos spread AIDS?
 - e) What are the tests done to detect HIV?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the following in not more than 15 lines:

1. How are communalism and casteism harmful to our country?
2. What are anti social practices?
3. What are the different types of pollution and write about Exnora's efforts in this regard.
4. How do we maintain hygienic environment?
5. Write a note on AIDS.

ACTIVITIES

1. Arrange a meeting to explain about EXNORA and start it in the school.
2. Collect newspaper cuttings and make an album to show the different types of pollutions. Suggest remedial measures.

CHAPTER - 5

LAW AND SOCIAL CHANGE

The term Social Change refers to a transformation in the existing social structure. The transformation may be due to a gradual evolution or radical change as in the case of French Revolution, Industrial Revolution etc. If a change takes place in a desired direction, it is termed progress. Sometimes the change leads to deterioration or degradation of the society.

The factors that bring about social changes are technology, demography, law and administration, political system, economy and culture. Generally, social changes meet with resistance as it disturbs the usual pattern of life. It would be quite desirable if social changes could be effected through legislation so as to bring about progress. The customs of sati, child marriage and polygamy were eradicated through many Acts passed by the government. But many changes have taken place in our society not merely enforced by law but by other means. The influence of great men like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Iswar Chandra Vidya Sagar, Swami Dayananda Saraswathi and Mahatma Gandhi have been more effective than any law passed by the government.

LEGISLATION ON WOMEN IN BRITISH INDIA

1. Abolition of Sati

Sati is a practice of burning women along with the dead bodies of their husbands. It was sometimes voluntary but mostly it was done under compulsion. Even before the British rule, efforts were made to stop it.

Albuquerque, the Portuguese Viceroy, prohibited Sati in Goa. Some Mughul emperors also issued orders against this practice. The Dutch and the French were also against it. The British at the beginning were unwilling to interfere in the customs of the Hindus. Due to the efforts of Raja Rammohan Roy and other enlightened Indians, Lord William Bentinck decided to abolish Sati immediately. The famous Regulation XVII of 1829 declared Sati illegal and punishable by law.

2. Abolition of Infanticide

The custom of infanticide was particularly prominent among the Rajputs. The Rajputs considered an unmarried daughter a disgrace to their family. But they found it difficult to get their daughters married because of their rigid marriage laws. This led to the cruel practice of female infanticide. Another form of infanticide was a long standing custom among certain Hindus to throw a child into the sea at the mouth of the Ganga in fulfillment of a vow. A childless woman, for example, would take a vow that if she had many children, she would offer one to Mother Ganga. Laws were passed prohibiting both the forms of infanticide. Bengal Regulation XXI of 1795 and Regulation VI of 1802 dealt respectively with the two forms of infanticide, declaring both as murder. In spite of this, the custom continued. The practice, however, slowly died out, as a result of western education and spread of western ideas.

3. Widow Remarriage, Child Marriage, Polygamy

Pt. Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar, a great Sanskrit Scholar, carried on a vigorous agitation for the remarriage of widows. He quoted from the Sastras to prove that widow remarriage was not banned by the Hindu scriptures. Due to his efforts, a law was passed in 1856 by which the remarriage of widows was legalised. The Brahma Samaj, Arya Samaj and other such organisations also advocated widow remarriage. Through the efforts of Keshab Chandra Sen, the Native Marriage Act of 1872, was passed. This Act abolished child marriage, made polygamy penal and sanctioned widow remarriages and inter-caste marriages. An Act was passed in 1891 raising the age of marriage for girls to 12, but there was a strong opposition from orthodox Hindus who maintained that the Act was an infringement of the Queen's Proclamation. Again in 1930, Rai Saheb Harbilas Sarada's Child Marriage Bill was passed, fixing the minimum age of marriage for girls at 14, and for boys at 16. But none of these Acts had any effect due to the opposition of the Hindus. But these customs have almost vanished with the passage of time.

LEGISLATION ON WOMEN IN FREE INDIA

The dowry system is another evil which has led to female infanticide suicide, bride burning and other cruelties in the past as well as in the present. The position of women in the modern times has improved a lot. After independence, the government has adopted several measures to raise the status of women.

India is a Welfare State committed to ensure the well being of all citizens and protecting them from exploitation. The Government has enacted many laws for the welfare of women. The 1961 Dowry Prohibition Act bans the custom of dowry - giving and receiving. The 1986 Amendments provided for drastic punishments for those ill treating the bride in connection with dowry. Dowry offences are non bailable, and dowry death is incorporated as a new criminal offence in the Indian Penal Code.

The Hindu Marriage Act was passed in the year 1955. For the first time, polygamy was banned and made punishable through their legislation. The Hindu Marriage Act and Divorce Act have provided security and safety to women in their married life.

Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act was passed in 1986 prohibiting the indecent representation of women in books, newspapers and advertisements.

The Tamilnadu legislature passed the Prohibition of Eve-teasing Law in 1997. In 2002 it was amended as the Prevention of Harassment of Women Act. Women have the right to education. Emphasis has been laid on enrollment of girl child in formal schooling and non formal education. Many social welfare and women's organisations have played a great role in bringing about these legislations regarding women. But some of the abuses still continue. Laws cannot successfully operate unless supported by the change in the attitude of the people.

LEGISLATION ON CHILDREN IN FREE INDIA

The Directive Principles in our Constitution lay down the following principles in Article 39(f) regarding children - "provision of facilities for children to develop in a healthy manner in conditions of freedom and dignity; provision for proper care for children and youth; and protection against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment". Article 45 provides that 'the State shall endeavour to provide for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years. Article 24 dealing with the Right Against Exploitation provides for prohibition of Child Labour. No child below the age of 14 years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine, or engaged in any other hazardous employment. Even before independence, Employment of Children Act, 1938, prohibited the employment of children below 15 years of age to work in any occupation involving the handling of goods and employment of children below 12 years

in any workshop. After independence, many Acts have been passed against child labour.

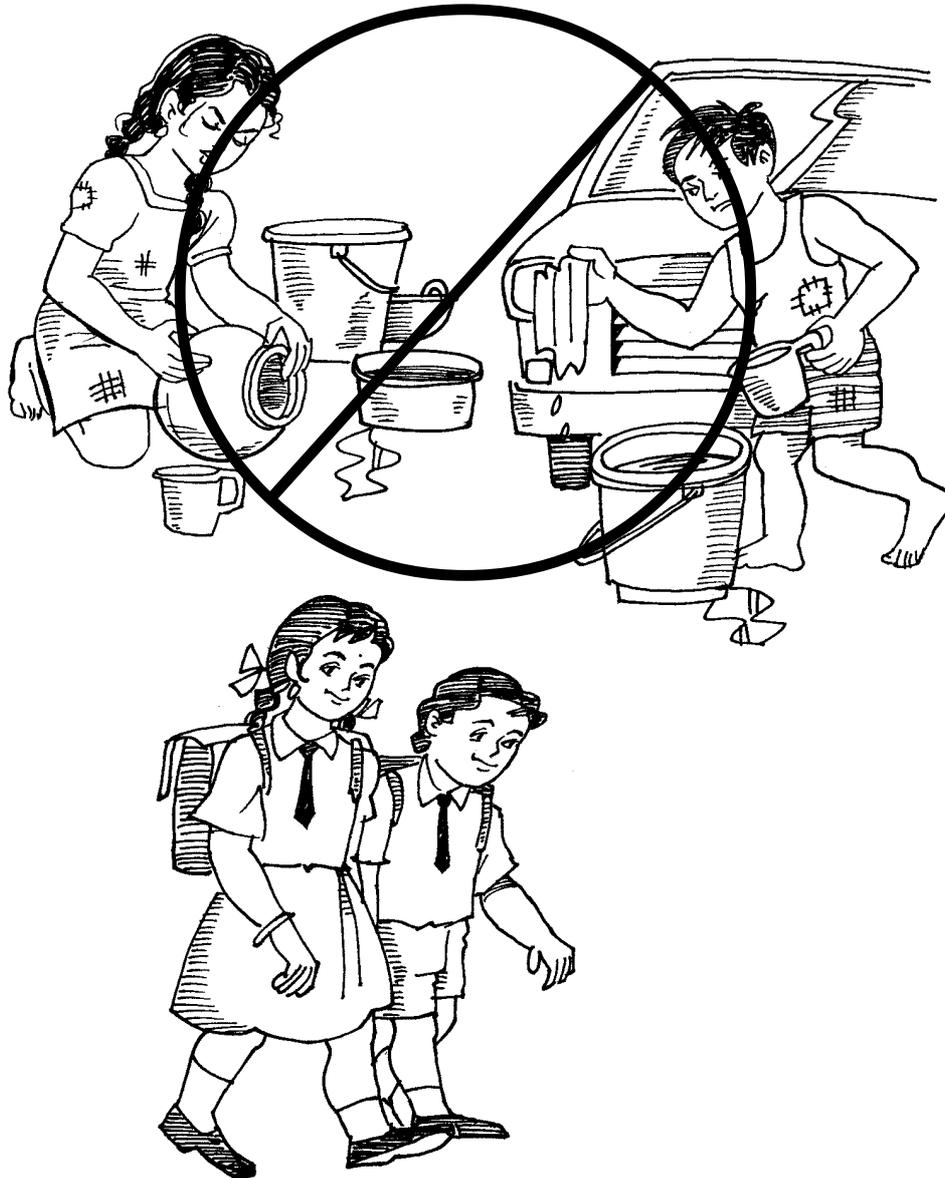


Fig. 5.1 Prohibition of Child Labour and Compulsory Education

The Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act of 1956, provides for the adoption of Hindu children under proper conditions. The Juvenile Injustice Act passed in 1986 (and amended in 2000) tries to protect children deprived of adequate care and to reform the children who come into conflict with law. It has created a number of institutions and facilities for this purpose. In spite of these legislations, child labour still remains a burning problem. Appeals are made to people through the media of doordarshan, radio, newspapers and magazines to put an end to child labour and send the children to school.

The U.N.O. declared the year 1979 as the International year for children. At the International level also women's welfare is being taken care of. The U.N.O. declared the year 1978 as the International Women's year to stress equal status of men and women. In 1995, women from all over the world gathered in Beijing, capital of China, with a message, "Women's rights are human rights, and human rights are women's rights."

EXERCISES

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

- The term social change refers to a transformation in the existing _____ structure.
a) Social b) Economic c) Educational
- One of the factors that bring about social changes in _____ .
a) demography b) Biography c) Physiography
- Lord _____ decided to abolish Sati in India.
a) Dalhousie b) Bentinck c) Canning
- Pandit _____ carried on a vigorous agitation for the remarriage of widows.
a) Iswar Chandra Vidya Sagar b) Jawaharlal Nehru
c) Madan Mohan Malvia
- Rai Saheb Harbilas Sarada's Child Marriage Bill was passed in _____
a) 1920 b) 1930 c) 1940
- The international year for women was _____ .
a) 1979 b) 1978 c) 1977

7. Article 24 deals with _____ .
- Right to Freedom
 - Right against exploitation
 - Right to Freedom of Speech

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

- Give the name of a social reformer of modern India.
- When was Sati declared illegal?
- Among whom was the custom of infanticide particularly prominent?
- Who was responsible for the passing of the Native Marriage Act of 1872?
- Where did women all over India gather in 1995?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Desired Direction | a) Goa |
| 2. Albuquerque | b) Infanticide |
| 3. Bengal Regulation | c) Children's welfare |
| 4. Vidya Sagar | d) Progress |
| 5. Directive principles | e) Widow remarriage |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under caption:

- Law and Social change
 - What does the term social change refer to?
 - Why does this change take place?
 - When is it called progress?
 - Mention any two factors that bring about changes in the existing society.
 - When will social changes be more effective?
- Dowry system
 - What were the evil outcomes of dowry system?
 - What was the Act passed in 1961?
 - What amendments were brought in 1986?
 - How is dowry death incorporated in the Indian Penal Code?
 - Suggest a way to remove the dowry system?

- 3) Legislation on women in Free India
 - a) Name the Act passed in 1955?
 - b) How are the women given safety and security in their married life?
 - c) What was banned for the first time?
 - d) Name the Act prohibiting the indecent representation of women in books.
 - e) What law was passed by the Tamil Nadu government in 1997?
- 4) Legislation on children in Free India
 - a) What does Article 39(f) assure children?
 - b) How does Article 45 help the children?
 - c) What does the Article 24 provide for children?
 - d) Explain the Employment of Children Act of 1938.
 - e) How does the Juvenile Injustice Act protect the children?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the following in 15 lines:

1. Write about Law and Social change.
2. What steps were taken by the British to remove the evils in the Indian society?
3. Give an account of legislation on Women in Free India.
4. Write about the legislation on children in Free India.

ACTIVITY

1. Arrange a debate on:
 - a) The status of women in the 21st century.
 - b) Importance of education to children.

UNIT - III INDIAN DEMOCRACY AT WORK

CHAPTER - 6 DEMOCRACY

DEMOCRACY

The present age is an age of Democracy. Democracy is the form of government in which the highest power of the State is vested with the people. The people rule themselves either directly or indirectly. According to Abraham Lincoln “democracy is the government of the people, by the people and for people”.

Democracy is of two types. Direct Democracy and Indirect Democracy. Direct Democracy is that in which all the citizens take direct part in the functioning of the government. They make laws, pass the budget and decide policy of the government. Direct Democracy is possible only in small countries. This system existed in ancient Greek City States. Indirect Democracy is practised in big countries. In Indirect Democracy, people elect their representatives to the legislature to govern on their behalf. They elect their representatives periodically. These representatives are answerable to the people for their activities. In a democracy, the citizen is both the ruled and the ruler. Citizens should always be conscious of their rights and duties. They should be able to differentiate between good and bad, right and wrong. If the citizen is not alert, selfish men get elected and the welfare of the citizens is forgotten. Hence he should be aware of what is happening in the country. Only then democracy can be a success. In India people elect their representatives through direct and indirect elections. In the direct election, the citizens themselves elect the representatives casting their votes. Every citizen above 18 years of age takes part in the election of representatives to the Parliament. In the Indirect election, citizens do not directly take part in the election. Their elected representatives are the voters here. The members of the Rajya Sabha, the President and the Vice- President are elected in this manner.

POLITICAL PARTIES

Political parties have a special role in a democracy. They perform a variety of functions. They help in forming the public opinion. They contest elections. Through them, the people come to know about the problems of our country and form their opinion. A democratic country can have one or more parties. When a country has only one party, it is known as Single Party System. When a country has more than two parties it is known as Multiparty System. India has many political parties. So it has multiparty system. But if no single party gets a majority, some parties join together to evolve a common programme elect a common leader to form the government. Such government is called coalition government. The Political Parties we find in India can be divided into two types. Some are called National Parties and others are called Regional Parties. National Parties are those that have followers all over the country. They may not have equal strength in all the states. The strength of National Parties vary from state to state. In India a party is called National Party if it is recognised by the Election Commission in four or more states. There are some parties whose work is restricted to a particular state or region. These are called Regional Parties.

ROLE OF OPPOSITION PARTIES

In every democracy all the parties cannot get majority seats all the time in the Parliament. After every election, usually there will be one party which gets majority seats and one or more parties which get less seats. These parties which do not get majority seats are called Opposition Parties. The party which gets majority seats becomes the Ruling Party. The Opposition Parties sit in the legislature. The leader of the Opposition Party enjoys some privileges. The formation of electoral alliances among the opposition is an important ability to win seats in Parliament. In India, the opposition succeeded in forming a government at the centre in 1977.

The work of the Ruling Party is very important. It has to run the government, make policies, and look after the welfare of the people. All the powers mentioned in the Constitution are exercised by the Ruling Party. Anyhow the opposition party also functions in an effective manner. In some ways the work of the Opposition Party is no less important than that of the Ruling Party. In a democratic system, the people decide the government policies. This decision is given once in five years by electing a particular party as the Ruling Party. So till the next elections, there is no way of checking

the work of the government. This work of checking the function of government is done by the Opposition Parties. Day to day work of the government cannot be checked by the electorate. To check the government from becoming authoritarian and to restrict its powers, the Opposition Parties keep a watch over them. It is mainly the duty of the Opposition Party to criticise the policies of the government if they affect the welfare of the citizens. Opposition Parties have to see that the government does not take any action to destroy the rights of the citizens. When any Bill is passed, the Opposition Parties keep a watch over it to see that no harm is done to the citizens. If the Opposition Parties feel that any measure is a threat to the rights of the citizens, or that they are harmful to the country, they criticise the government inside the legislature.

Outside the legislature the Opposition Parties attract the attention of the Press and report their criticism of the government policy in the newspapers. Sometimes Opposition Parties organise demonstrations and agitations against some actions of the government. When a Bill is discussed in the legislature, Opposition Parties not only criticise the Bill inside the legislature but also organise meetings to gather public opinion. In this way the government is prevented from taking arbitrary decisions. The Opposition Parties have the right to check the expenditure of the government also. When the Budget is presented in the Parliament, it is the duty of the Opposition Parties to check the weak points in the Budget. During the Question Hour, the Opposition Parties criticise the government generally. If the Opposition is able to point out the weaknesses of the Ruling Party, they use it to reduce the chances of the party from winning in the next election. The criticism of the Opposition Parties make the Ruling Party correct its actions. Thus the Opposition Parties try to restrain the government from abusing its power.

ELECTION PROCESS

Elections are very important in a democracy because only through elections people elect their representatives to the legislature. Elections give stability to the government. People control the government from becoming despotic. Franchise is the right to vote. In our country every one who is above 18 years can vote. This is called Universal Adult Franchise. 'One person one Vote' is based on the principle of political equality. In modern democracies voting is done by secret ballot. This means that during voting no one else will know to whom a particular person has voted.

Election Commission is headed by the Chief Election Commissioner. Under him work the Election Commissioners and Chief Electoral officers. The Chief Electoral officer is in charge of a state. The Election Commission of India nominates or designates an officer of the government of the state or union territory as the Chief Electoral officer. Such appointment is made in consultation with the state government or union territories. The Chief Electoral Officer is authorised to supervise the election work in the state.

Elections are conducted once in five years in India. If for any reason the Ruling Party loses its majority in the legislature before the five year term, then the government resigns and fresh elections take place. Sometimes when a No-Confidence motion is passed on the Ruling Party, then also the legislature is dissolved and fresh elections take place. There are different

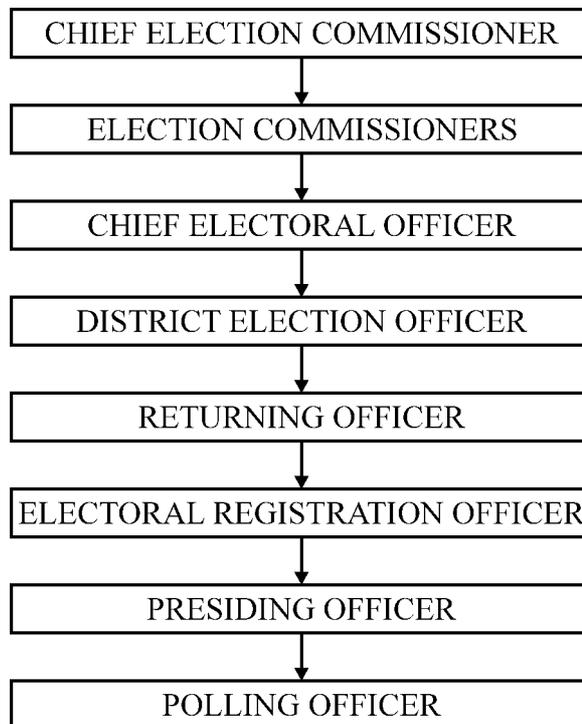


Fig. 6.1 Election Commission in India

stages in an election. Before the elections are announced by the Election Commission, the State Governments prepares the voters list. The voters list

contains the names of all men and women citizens of India who are above eighteen years of age.

1. Selection of Candidates

There are two types of candidates. Once the election is announced, then the Political Parties select their candidates. They are party candidates. These candidates belong to one particular political party. These parties support and organise their campaign. The second type of candidates are called Independents. They do not belong to any political party. They may sometimes be supported by a political party, Once they decide the number of seats, each party prepares its own list of the candidates and publishes it in the newspapers

2. Filing of Nomination Papers

The Election Commission fixes and announces the dates for filing of nomination papers, scrutiny of the papers, and the selection of final list of candidates. All the candidates selected by the party must file the nomination papers with the Election Commission before the last date for filing the papers. The Election Commission takes sometime to check the information given by the candidates. This is known as Scrutiny. If any wrong information is given or if the candidate does not fulfil the requisites of the Election Commission, he can be disqualified. After the scrutiny is over, a date is given for the candidates for withdrawal. If any candidate has second thoughts, he can withdraw. Then the final list is published by the Election Commission.

3. Election Campaign

The next step in the process of election is the campaign by the candidates. Every political party and candidate wants to win the election. So they issue hand bills, posters, hold meetings, make promises. This is called election manifesto. While the Ruling Party tells the citizens what it had done for them, the Opposition Party tells them what the Ruling Party had not done and what it would do if it comes to power. Campaigning stops 48 hours before the polling day.

4. Voting day

On the day of voting, the citizens who are above 18 years go to the polling booths and cast their vote. It is the duty of every citizen to exercise his right to vote. While voting, it should be noted that ballot paper is marked

clearly on the preferred symbol. If the marking is done wrongly or done twice in the ballot paper, it becomes invalid. Voting is done from 7 A.M. to 5 P.M. Once the voting is over, the ballot boxes are sealed and sent to the counting centres.

5. Counting and Declaration of results

On counting day, all the boxes are opened before the candidates or their representatives and the votes are counted. The person who gets the highest number of votes is declared elected. If a particular party gets majority seats, then that particular party is entitled to form government. The leader of that party will be asked to form the government by the Executive Head.

Elections form an important part of any democracy. The very purpose of democracy is defeated if elections are not held in proper manner. It is the duty of the Election Commission to see that elections are held in a fair manner. That is why the Election Commission is made an independent body in our Constitution.

EXERCISES

PART-A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

- In indirect democracy, the representatives are answerable to the _____.
a) government b) people c) Prime Minister
- Political parties help in forming the _____ opinion.
a) democratic b) public c) private
- The right to vote is known as _____.
a) Fundamental Right b) Constitution c) franchise
- Campaigning for election should stop _____ hours before the polling day.
a) 24 b) 48 c) 72
- Voting is done from _____.
a) 10am to 4 pm b) 9 am to 5 pm c) 7 am to 5 pm.

II. Answer each of the following in a word or phrase:

- Who gave the best definition of democracy?
- What does the Opposition do during the Question Hour?
- Who publishes the final list of candidates?

4. When does the ballot paper become invalid?
5. Who forms the government after the election?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Direct democracy | Criticises the government |
| 2. Multiparty system | Legislature is dissolved |
| 3. Opposition parties | Right to vote |
| 4. Franchise | Greek city state |
| 5. No confidence motion | India |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Democracy
 - a) Give Abraham Lincoln's definition of democracy.
 - b) What are the two types of democracies?
 - c) Mention the important duties of a citizen in a democracy.
 - d) Who is eligible to vote in India?
 - e) What is meant by indirect election?
2. Selection of Candidates
 - a) When the election is announced, what do the political parties do?
 - b) What is meant by party candidate?
 - c) What is meant by independent candidate?
 - d) What do the political parties prepare, when the number of seats are known?
 - e) Where do they publish the list of names?
3. Election Campaign
 - a) What does every political party want?
 - b) What is election manifesto?
 - c) How does the Ruling Party impress the citizens?
 - d) How does the Opposition Party impress the citizens?
 - e) When does the campaigning stop?
4. Voting Day
 - a) Who will go to booths on the voting day?
 - b) What is the duty of every citizen?
 - c) What should be followed while voting?
 - d) When does a ballot paper become invalid?
 - e) What is the timing for voting?

5. Counting and Declaration of results
 - a) On the counting day what happens to the ballot boxes?
 - b) Who is declared elected?
 - c) Who is entitled to form government?
 - d) Who will be asked to form the government?
 - e) What is the duty of the Election Commission?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the following in 15 lines:

1. Write a note on Democracy.
2. What is the role of Political Parties in a democracy?
3. Explain the role of Opposition Parties in a democracy.
4. Write about any two stages of Election Process in India.

ACTIVITIES

1. Conduct a mock election in School.
2. Arrange to watch the session of Parliament or Assembly.

UNIT - IV INDIA AND WORLD PEACE

CHAPTER - 7

INDIA'S FOREIGN POLICY

Our country's external relation is based on certain principles and policies. This is known as Foreign Policy. India's foreign policy was evolved with the background of her colonial sufferings. Jawaharlal Nehru the first Prime Minister of India, was the chief architect of India's foreign policy.

The main features of India's foreign policy are : (a) Promotion of world peace, (b) Anti colonialism, (c) Anti imperialism, (d) Anti racialism, (e) Anti terrorism, (f) Policy of disarmament, (g) Panch sheel, (h) Non-Alignment, (i) Regional co-operation and (j) Role in Commonwealth.

A) PROMOTION OF WORLD PEACE

Economic development is not possible in the developing countries with out world peace. It has been India's policy that international disputes should be settled by peaceful means and not by force. We want to settle the Kashmir problem through peaceful negotiation. India played a significant role in the settling of the Korean war, Indo-China conflict, Suez Canal crisis, Congo problem etc., in a peaceful manner.

B) ANTI COLONIALISM

India is always against colonialism. She always supported the cause of all the Asian and African countries which were fighting for freedom. India played a commendable role in freeing Indonesia from the domination of Holland. India opposed French imperialism in Indo-China and the U.S. intervention in Vietnam and supported the freedom movement of the African countries. She condemned the aggressive actions of France, Britain and Russia against Algeria, Cyprus and Hungary respectively.

C) ANTI-IMPERIALISM

Imperialism was one of the major causes for the First and Second World Wars. As a colony of Britain, India was worst affected by these wars and so she had to fight for her independence and overthrow the imperialist dominance. After the Second World War, she was opposed to imperialism in any form. Therefore, anti-imperialism is one of the main features of India's foreign policy.

D) ANTI-RACIALISM

India believes in the equality of all races. In South Africa, the Whites ruled the South Africans. They did not give equal rights to the native Africans. This policy is known as Apartheid. India had raised this issue for the first time in the U.N.O. in 1946. It was due to the continuous struggle of Dr. Nelson Mandela and constant moral support of India that the Apartheid policy has been abolished recently.

E) ANTI-TERRORISM

Terrorism has become a threat to world peace now. India is opposed to terrorism of any kind and she is co-operating with other countries of the world to fight against terrorism. At Gleneagles in Scotland, the G-8 summit took place from July 6 to 8 2005. One of the issues discussed among the eight countries (Russia, Germany, Britain, France, Italy, Canada, U.S.A. and Japan) was anti-terrorism. The Prime Minister of India was invited as a special guest to the summit.

F) POLICY OF DISARMAMENT

India was the first nation to bring a resolution in the U.N. General Assembly in favour of disarmament in 1956. India has stressed the ban of dangerous weapons. Our first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru was the first person to call for the banning of nuclear tests. As a result the Partial Nuclear Test Ban Treaty was signed by the Big Powers. The Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty was signed in June 1968. India refused to sign this treaty as she thought it was based on discrimination. India also refused to sign the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty (1996) for the same reason. India has assured the world leaders that her nuclear technology would be used only for peaceful purposes.

G) PANCH SHEEL

The Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru was of the view that the alternative to war - hot or cold - was peaceful co- existence. He therefore laid stress on five principles of peace and named them as Panch Sheel in 1954. The five principles are: (i) Mutual respect to territorial integrity and sovereignty, (ii) Non-aggression against anyone, (iii) Non-interference in each other's internal affairs, (iv) Equality and mutual benefit and (v) Peaceful co-existence of nations. The twenty nine Afro-Asian countries of the Bandung Conference, which met at Bandung, in Indonesia, in 1955, accepted these principles. Yugoslavia, a European nation, also accepted the Panch Sheel.

H) POLICY OF NON-ALIGNMENT

It is the most important aspect of India's foreign policy. At the time of her independence the world was divided into two hostile blocs. These developments created an atmosphere of tension, distrust, and suspicions in the form of Cold War. In this situation, India chose the policy of Non-Alignment.

Non-Alignment means not joining any of the power blocs and at the same time, it does not imply isolation from world affairs. Nehru affirmed that, "India would keep away from the power blocs or group alignments against one another which have led in the past towards war and which may again lead to disaster on an even vaster scale".

The concept of Non-alignment was designed by Jawaharlal Nehru. It was initially adopted by India, Yugoslavia, Egypt and Indonesia. Later it was adopted by the emerging independent nations as their state policy. The first conference of the Non-Aligned countries was held at Belgrade, capital of Yugoslavia, in 1961. It was attended by twenty five countries. Now the policy of non-alignment is followed by about 125 countries in the world. This policy has been useful in reducing international tension and in promoting peace.

I) REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

The South Asian Association for Regional co-operation (SAARC) was officially launched with its first summit meet at Dacca, in Bangladesh on December 7, 1985. The concept of regional co-operation in South Asia was discussed at the foreign secretaries level meetings of seven countries -

Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, held in April 1981. The SAARC countries identified the following areas for mutual co-operation - transportation, postal services, tourism, shipping, meteorology, health, agriculture, rural reconstruction and telecommunications. At the first summit at Dacca, the aim of the association was declared to be an increased interaction between the member countries and expand co-operative effort in a spirit of partnership and equality. Ashan of Bangladesh was appointed SAARC's first Secretary General.

All the member countries signed a trade agreement called the South Asian Preferential Trade Agreement (SAPTA) in 1993. So far 12 meetings have been held.

J) ROLE OF COMMONWEALTH

The former colonies of England formed commonwealth to have trade and cultural contacts. India is a member of it. Commonwealth countries co-operate in the fields of education, science, technology and culture.

INDIA'S RELATIONS WITH HER NEIGHBOURS

One of our neighbours, Pakistan is on the western part of India. In spite of past conflicts both India and Pakistan are trying to come closer. The Delhi-Lahore bus service was launched on March 16, 1999. This service mainly aims to bring the people of the two countries closer. Negotiations for setting up a 2600 kms long Iran-Pakistan-India gas pipe line are taking place. The Prime Minister of India and the President of Pakistan are ready to work together for peace in the sub continent.

Another neighbour of India in the North-East is China. There is steady improvements in Sino-Indian Relations.

Sri Lanka is a small country at the southern tip of India. It maintains smooth relationship with India. Bangladesh, situated in the eastern part of India is a friendly neighbour.

INDIA'S RELATIONS WITH OTHER COUNTRIES

Indo-U.S. relations are very co-operative in the field of trade, science and technology. India got help from Russia, France, Germany and England to build her steel plants. India has also maintained good contact with the rest of the countries of the world.

INDIA AND THE U.N.O.

The objectives of the U.N.O. are in conformity with our national objectives. Our constitution recognises the ideals of the U.N.O. India has been working in promoting its ideal of peaceful co-existence. In the words of Jawaharlal Nehru, “Towards the United Nations, India’s attitude is that of whole-hearted cooperation and unreserved adherence, in both spirit and letter, to the charter governing it.”

INDIA’S ROLE IN SETTLING WORLD DISPUTES

India has played a great part in settling many world disputes and in checking them from becoming a great threat to world peace. During the Korean War (1950-53) India sent a medical mission to render first aid to the wounded. Impressed by her service, India was made the Chairman of the Commission on the Prisoners of War. India successfully supervised the exchange of prisoners of war. India was also made the Chairman of the Committee for the supervision of the truce in Indo-China. During the Suez Canal Crisis in 1956, India strongly criticised the Anglo-French-Israeli attack on Egypt. As a result of India’s efforts, a UN emergency force was formed and a ceasefire was brought about. Indian contingent played an important role in restoring order during the civil war in Congo in 1960.

INDIA’S ROLE IN HELPING COUNTRIES IN THEIR FREEDOM STRUGGLE

India is against colonization and wants all the countries to attain freedom from foreign domination. India was responsible for organising the world opinion against colonization. India always fought for the freedom of Afro-Asian countries. India took up the cause of freedom of Indonesia from Holland, India supported her cause in the U.N.O. and as a result of an agreement reached, Indonesia became independent in 1949. In 1960, the General Assembly of the UN issued a declaration about the grant of freedom to dependent countries. India was the Chairman of the Committee set up to implement the declaration. Many countries in Asia and Africa became independent due to the pressure given by India in the U.N.O.

EXERCISES

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

1. The chief architect of India's foreign policy was _____.
a) Gandhi b) Jawaharlal Nehru c) Patel
2. It is not possible to leave _____ development without world peace.
a) Economic b) Cultural c) Social
3. India helped Indonesia to free her from _____.
a) Holland b) England c) Scotland
4. India raised the problem of apartheid in the U.N.O. in _____.
a) 1940 b) 1946 c) 1950
5. The G-8 summit was held at _____.
a) Geneva b) Germany c) Gleneagles
6. The First Secretary-General of SAARC is _____.
a) Nixon b) Ashan c) Pranab

II. Answer the following each in a word or phrase:

1. Who fought against apartheid in South Africa?
2. Who was invited as a special guest to G-8 summit?
3. When did India bring a resolution in U.N. in favour of disarmament?
4. Who was the first person to call for the banning of Nuclear Tests?
5. Name the treaty signed in 1968, related to disarmament.
6. How many countries met at Bandung?
7. Where did the Non-aligned countries meet in 1961?
8. What is SAPTA?

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| 1. G-8 summit | a) Yugoslavia |
| 2. Panch Sheel | b) Bhutan |
| 3. Non-alignment | c) India |
| 4. SAARC | d) Canada |
| 5. Freedom of Asian and African countries | e) Nehru |

PART - B

IV. Answer all the questions given under each caption:

1. Foreign policy of India
 - a) What is meant by foreign policy?
 - b) With what background was India's foreign policy evolved?
 - c) Who was the chief architect of India's foreign policy?
 - d) Why does India have promotion of world peace as one of the features of foreign policy?
 - e) What is her role in the promotion of world peace?
2. Anti Racialism
 - a) In what does India believe?
 - b) What was the problem in South Africa?
 - c) Who raised this issue for the first time in the U.N.O.?
 - d) When did she raise it?
 - e) With whose support has the policy of Apathetical been abolished?
3. Policy of Disarmament
 - a) When and where did India bring a resolution in favour of disarmament?
 - b) What has India stressed?
 - c) Who was the first person to call for the banning of Nuclear tests?
 - d) What was the result?
 - e) Which treaty was concluded in 1996?
4. SAARC
 - a) Expand the term SAARC.
 - b) When and Where did SAARC meet for the first time?
 - c) Mention the member countries of SAARC?
 - d) Mention anyone area where the member countries have mutual co-operation.
 - e) What was the main aim of the first summit?
5. India and the U.N.O.
 - a) What was the role of India in the Korean war?
 - b) How did she help Indo-China?
 - c) What was the help rendered by India in the Suez Canal crisis?
 - d) What was the declaration passed in the U.N.O. in 1960?
 - e) Who was appointed as Chairman of the Committee to implement the declaration?

PART - C

V. Answer each of the following in 15 lines:

1. Explain any three features of India's foreign policy.
2. Write about the foreign policy of India with special reference to Panch Sheel and Non-alignment.
3. State India's relations with her neighbours
4. Write about India and the U.N.O.

ACTIVITY

1. Prepare a chart with a map showing the neighbouring countries of India.

DEPARTMENTAL MODEL QUESTION PAPER
HISTORY AND CIVICS

Time : 2½ Hrs.

Max. Marks : 100

- N.B.: 1. Draw diagrams wherever necessary.
2. Outline map of Europe or India should be attached to the answer script after marking on it as asked in the question paper.

PART - A

I. Choose the correct answer and complete each statement:

[10 × 1 = 10]

1. In 1516, the _____ reached China and established trading posts.
a) Spanish b) Portuguese c) Dutch
2. The Treaty of _____ was concluded with Austria.
a) Germaine b) Severes c) Neuilly
3. Mao-Tse-Tung and Chou En Lai organised a march called _____.
a) Long March b) Dandi March c) Salt March
4. The 'Doctrine of Lapse' was the policy of annexations of _____.
a) Lord Wellesley b) Lord Dalhousie c) Lord Bentinck
5. The European Coal and Steel community was set up with _____ members.
a) 4 b) 5 c) 6
6. In _____ 1991, the leaders issued a declaration, that the Soviet Union was dissolved.
a) December 1 b) December 8 c) December 9
7. In September 1970, _____ was appointed commander-in-chief of the Palestinian guerilla forces.
a) Arafat b) Abbas c) Mubarak

8. The International year for women was _____.
a) 1979 b) 1978 c) 1977
9. The right to vote is known as _____.
a) Franchise b) Constitution c) Fundamental Right
10. India helped Indonesia to free her from _____.
a) Holland b) England c) Scotland

II. Answer the following in a word or phrase: [10 × 1 = 10]

11. What was the need created by the Industrial revolution?
12. Who led the Mensheviks?
13. When was the Atlantic Charter signed?
14. What was the main objective of the Baghdad Pact?
15. Who partitioned Bengal?
16. Give the name of East German Parliament.
17. Expand MIRV.
18. Why was the Planning Commission set up?
19. Whose judgement cannot be interfered with by the Supreme Court?
20. Expand the term EXNORA.

III. Match the following:

a) History [5 × 1 = 5]

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|
| 21. Perestrioka | a) Yasser Arafat |
| 22. Monday Demonstrations | b) Trombay |
| 23. PLO | c) Restructuring |
| 24. Bhabha Atomic Research Centre | d) New Deal |
| 25. FDR | e) Leipzig |

b) Civics [5 × 1 = 5]

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 26. President | a) Legislature |
| 27. Parliament | b) Gleneagles |
| 28. Lok Adalat system | c) Small states |
| 29. Direct Democracy | d) Executive Head |
| 30. G-8 Summit | e) Speedy Justice |

PART - B

IV. Answer any Eight (Five from History and Three from Civics)

Answer all the questions given under each caption. [8 × 5 = 40]

31. Political Imperialism
 - a) What is political Imperialism?
 - b) Give an example for this type of imperialism.
 - c) Why did the Industrially advanced countries exploit these regions?
 - d) Which countries imposed economic imperialism?
 - e) Who dominated China?
32. Benito Mussolini
 - a) When was Mussolini born?
 - b) Who were his parents?
 - c) What did Mussolini do after the First World War?
 - d) Give the watch words of Mussolini.
 - e) Explain the term 'March on Rome'.
33. Hitler's aggressions
 - a) What was the Locarno Treaty?
 - b) How did Hitler violate the Locarno Treaty?
 - c) Name a region annexed by Hitler on the excuse that there was a large German population.
 - d) Why was the 'Munich Pact signed'?
 - e) How did Hitler violate the Munich Pact?
34. Manila Pact
 - a) Who were alarmed at the emergence of Communist China as a great power?
 - b) Who were menaced by the Communists?
 - c) What alarmed the Asian countries?
 - d) Where did the Asian countries meet?
 - e) Name the countries which signed SEATO.
35. South Africa
 - a) When was ANC formed?
 - b) Who protested against the policies of White minority government?
 - c) What was the policy practiced by the White minority government?
 - d) How long was Mandela imprisoned?
 - e) When did Mandela become President?

36. Queen Victoria's Proclamation
- When was the Queen's Victoria Proclamation issued?
 - Who was the Governor General of India at that time?
 - What was the status of the Queen with regard to Indian territory?
 - Name the new post created to help administration.
 - What was the title given to the Governor General after 1858?
37. Quit India Movement
- Who adopted a resolution in favour of starting a mass movement?
 - What was the slogan given by Gandhi?
 - What was the demand of the Congress?
 - What steps were taken by the British to suppress the movement?
 - What was the result of lack of leadership among the Indians?
38. Germany after World War II
- Who formed FRG?
 - Who formed GDR?
 - What claims did FRG and GDR make?
 - By whom was the first proposal put forth for reunification?
 - What did it call for?
39. SALT - II
- What was the primary goal of SALT-II?
 - Mention any two points focussed on by SALT-II.
 - When and where did the major break through occur?
 - Who signed the completed SALT-II agreement?
 - Where and when did they sign?
40. Information Technology
- Where does India stand in having built Super Computer?
 - What has India achieved?
 - What has been released by C-DAC?
 - What have become a part of our daily life?
 - What is the use of the internet?
41. Prime Minister and President
- Who is the main link of communication between the President and the Cabinet?
 - What is the duty of the Prime Minister?
 - On whose advice does the President act?
 - When does the President summon or prorogue the Parliament?
 - Who proclaims a state of emergency and on whose advice?

42. Annual Budget
 - a) What is an Annual Budget?
 - b) What happens after introducing the Budget in the Lok Sabha?
 - c) What is the power of the Lok Sabha at this stage?
 - d) What is an Appropriation Bill?
 - e) What is a Finance Bill?
43. Judicial functions of the Supreme Court
 - a) What is original jurisdiction?
 - b) Give an example of original jurisdiction.
 - c) What is appellate jurisdiction?
 - d) What type of cases does it hear under appellate jurisdiction?
 - e) What is required to appeal in the Supreme Court?
44. Anti-Social Practices
 - a) What are different antisocial practices?
 - b) How does bribery occur?
 - c) Name the Act passed by the Government against corruption?
 - d) Who are considered to be the criminals?
 - e) What are the things smuggled into India?
45. Legislation on Children in Free India
 - a) What does Article 39(f) assure children?
 - b) How does Article 45 help the children?
 - c) What does the Article 24 provide for children?
 - d) Explain the Employment of children Act of 1938.
 - e) How does Juvenile Injustice Act protect the children?
46. Policy of Disarmament
 - a) When and where did India bring a resolution in favour of disarmament?
 - b) What has India stressed?
 - c) Who was the first person to call for the banning of Nuclear tests?
 - d) What was the result?
 - e) Which treaty was concluded in 1996?

PART - C

- V. 47. Answer any one of the following in not more than two pages:**
[1 × 10 = 10]

- a) Give an account of the causes of the First World War.
- b) Write about the Freedom movement of India from 1885 to 1919.
- c) Trace the establishment of the European Union.

48. Answer any one set of the following: [2 × 5 = 10]
Each sub question of the set should be answered in 15 lines.

- a) (i) How is the President of India elected? Explain his Legislative powers.
(ii) How are communalism and Casteism harmful to our country?

OR

- b) (i) Give an account of the Legislation on Women in Free India.
(ii) What is the role of political parties in a democracy?

OR

- c) (i) Explain the powers and functions of the Speaker.
(ii) Write about the Foreign policy of India with special reference to Panch Sheel and Non-Alignment.

PART - D

VI. 49. On the outline map of Europe mark the following: 10

- a) Non-Communist Countries
(i) United Kingdom (ii) France (iii) Norway (iv) Italy
- b) Communist Countries
(i) Rumania (ii) Bulgaria (iii) Hungary (iv) Poland
- c) Neutral Countries
(i) Sweden (ii) Switzerland

OR

On the outline map of India, mark the following centres of Science and Technology:

- (i) Trombay (ii) Trivandrum (iii) Gulmarg
(iv) Sindri (v) Kochi (vi) Salem
(vii) Jamshedpur (viii) Dhanbad (ix) Ooty
(x) Kolkata

BLUE PRINT FOR QUESTION PAPER PATTERN

X-STD MATRICULATION

Subject : History

Medium : English

Time : 2½ Hrs

Max. Marks : 100

Sub-Divisions of Question Paper - Distribution of Marks

PART - A (Marks - 30)	PART - B (Marks - 40)	PART - C (Marks - 20)	PART - D (Marks - 10)
<p>Objective Type</p> <p>History</p> <p>I - Choose the correct Answer 7 Qns. II - Answer in a word 8 Qns. III - Match the following 5 Qns.</p> <p>Civics</p> <p>I - Choose the correct Answer 3 Qns. II - Answer in a word 2 Qns. III - Match the following 5 Qns.</p>	<p>Caption Questions Each with 5 Marks 8 out of 16 Questions</p> <p>History 5 out of 10 Qns</p> <p>Civics 3 out of 6 Qns</p>	<p>Essay Type One Essay with 10 Marks</p> <p>History One out of 3 Qns. (Internal Choice)</p> <p>Paragraph Questions Each with 5 Marks</p> <p>Civics 1 out of 3 sets of Qns. (Internal Choice) In each set two sub questions will be given. Each sub question carries 5 Marks.</p>	<p>Map Question Compulsory</p> <p>Choice between</p> <p>World History × Indian History ↓</p> <p>Map Questions will be on Asia or Africa or Europe</p> <p>Outline map of India ↓</p>
30 × 1 = 30 Marks	8 × 5 = 40 Marks	1 × 10 = 10 Marks 2 × 5 = 10 Marks	1 × 10 = 10 Marks

Total Number of Questions = 49

No. of Questions to be Answered = 41

BLUE PRINT OF THE MODEL QUESTION PAPER

X-STD MATRICULATION

Time : 2½ Hours

History and Civics

Max. Marks : 100

Divisions	Chapters	Knowledge				Understanding				Application				Skill			Total		
		O	CQ	SA	E	O	CQ	SA	E	O	CQ	SA	E	O	CQ	SA	E	Questions	Marks
History	1 – 15	10	-	5	10	10	25	10	-	10	10	-	-	-	-	-	Map 10		100
		7(1)	-	-	1(10)	8(1)	3(5)	-	-	5(1)	2(5)	-	-	-	-	-	1(10)		65%
		7	-	-	1	8	3	-	-	5	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	27	
Civics	1 – 7	3(1)	1(5)	-	-	2(1)	2(5)	2(5)	-	5(1)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		35%
		3	1	-	-	2	2	1	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	
		10	5	-	10	10	25	10	-	10	10	-	-	-	-	-	10	41	100%

Note : O - Objective Type
 CQ - Caption Questions
 SA - Short Answers (15 lines)
 E - Essay (2 pages)

WEIGHTAGE TO CONTENT

1. Chapter 1 to 15 - 65% marks (History); Chapter 1 to 7 - 35% (Civics)
2. All the questions should be within the syllabus.
3. PART - A (Objective Questions) is Compulsory. It carries 30% of the total marks.
4. In PART - B, under Caption questions, 5 out of 10 (History) and 3 out of 6 (Civics) should be answered. It carries 40% of the total marks.
5. Under PART - C, in essay type question (History) 1 out of 3 should be answered. It carries 10% of the total marks.
The pattern of Blue Print to select essays is given below. It should be **strictly followed** while framing the question paper.
History
 - a) Chapter 1 to 5 - 1 Question
 - b) Chapter 6 to 9 - 1 Question
 - c) Chapter 10 to 15 - 1 Question
- In Civics out of 3 sets of questions, one set should be answered. Each set carries 2 sub-questions. It carries 10% of the total marks.
The pattern of Blue Print to be followed while framing questions.
Civics
 - a) Chapter 1 to 3 - 1 Question
and 4 and 5 - 1 Question
 - b) Chapter 4 to 5 - 1 Question
and 6 and 7 - 1 Question
 - c) Chapter 6 and 7 - 1 Question
and 1 to 3 - 1 Question
6. PART - D is map question. It is compulsory with internal choice.
[Each correctly marked place should be awarded one mark]. It carries 10% of the total marks.
7. The map question should be based on the places given at the back of the lessons.