

Chhavi Goyal M.A. (Geography) B.Ed. (Specialisation in Indian Tourism and Oceanography)

Namrata Bahadur M.A. (History) B.Ed. Faculty: City Montessori School (CMS), Lucknow





FEATURES OF THE SERIES

- LEARNING OUTCOMES: list the focus of each lesson
- LET'S GET STARTED: short, doable warm-ups
- * BE A RESEARCHER, IQ, TIME TO THINK: questions to provoke thinking and debate
- GEOFACT, GOOD TO KNOW, MATTER OF FACT, TIME MACHINE, FACT BOX: topic-related nuggets of information
- GLOSSARY: definitions of conceptual terms
- * CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL: recapitulation of the chapter for quick revision
- EXERCISES: MCQs, gap-filling, alternate responses, matching and wh- questions
- HOTS: questions to encourage analytical thinking
- PATHBREAKER: inspires and prompts to 'be the change'
- TEST ASSIGNMENTS and TEST PAPERS: evaluate the learners' comprehension of concepts

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

These features promote interactive and fun classrooms through collaborative and exploratory activities, the cornerstone of experiential learning.

PROJECTS

research-based tasks

LIFE SKILLS, VALUES real-life critical thinking using the do-and-learn approach

MAP SKILLS

puts history and geography in contextual perspective

ACTIVITIES

exploratory tasks

CASE STUDIES

theoretical concepts in an applied setting

HERITAGE POINT explores India's rich heritage

INFO ORGANISERS

hone the skill of organising information for better recall

Teacher's CDs with test generator and more

Teacher's Manuals available with lesson plans, worksheets and answers

Web resources @ eduline.co.in











CONTENTS

Part I

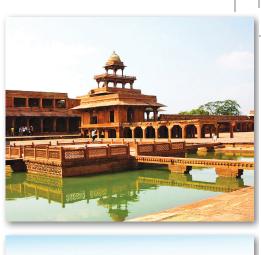
Geography

LEA	RNING OBJECTIVES					
1.	Our Environment					
2.	Composition of Our Planet					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 1					
3.	Intra-planetary Movement and Major Landforms 23					
4.	. External Processes and Changing Landforms					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 2					
5.	Our Atmosphere					
6.	Weather and Climate					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 3					
7.	The Water World					
8.	Natural Vegetation and Wildlife67					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 4					
	Info Organiser					
9.	Human Settlements					
10.	Transport and Communication					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 5					
11.	Life in the Deserts					
12.	Tropical and Subtropical Regions102					
13.	Temperate Grasslands					
	Disaster Management					
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 6					

Part II

History

LEA	RNING OBJECTIVES 128
1.	When, Where and How?129
2.	Kings and Kingdoms140
	Info Organiser 1
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 1
3.	The Delhi Sultanate157
4.	The Mughals168
5.	Architecture, Painting and Music 183
	Info Organiser 2
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 2 199
6.	Trade, Towns and Crafts
7.	Tribal and Nomadic Communities 209
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 3 217
8.	Religious Beliefs and Popular Movements 219
9.	Emergence of Regional Cultures
10.	New Political Formations
	TEST ASSIGNMENT 4

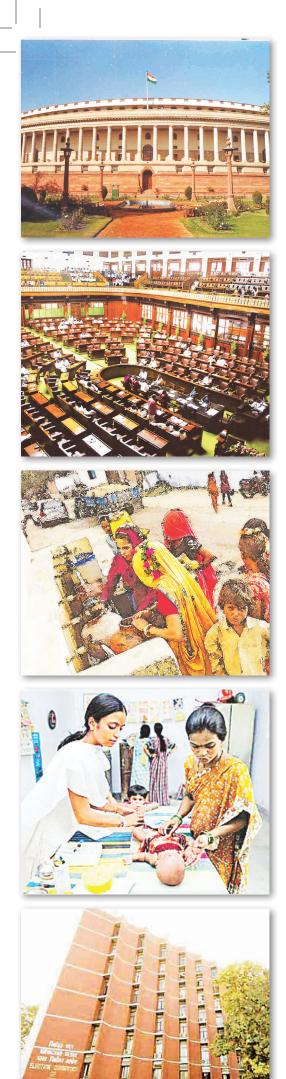






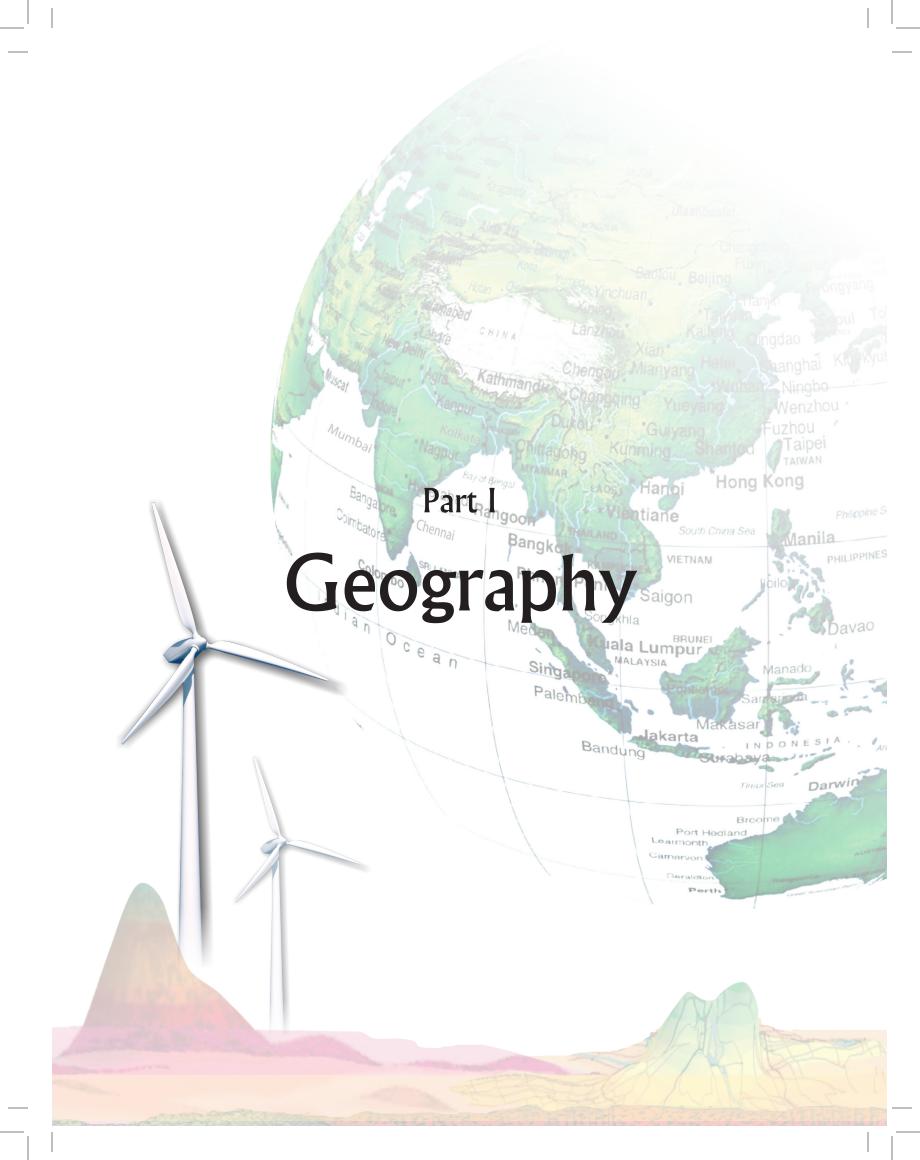






Part III

Social and Political Life



Learning Outcomes

OUR ENVIRONMENT

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the components of the natural environment and the interaction among them.
- the different living organisms who make biosphere their home.
- the interdependency that exists in the ecosystem leading to creation of the biosphere.
- the role that humans play in the natural environment and how they depend on it.

COMPOSITION OF OUR PLANET

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the structure of the Earth in terms of its crust, mantle and core.
- the rocks and minerals that are found in the Earth as well as their types.
- the meaning of the rock cycle and the different uses of rocks and minerals.

INTRA-PLANETARY MOVEMENT AND MAJOR LANDFORMS At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the movements of the Earth in terms of plate tectonics.
- the major landforms that are found on the Earth as well as the manner in which they came up.
- the role that earthquakes and volcanoes play in creating or destroying the different landforms of the Earth.

EXTERNAL PROCESSES AND CHANGING LANDFORMS At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand.

- the meanings of terms like gradation, degradation and aggradation in terms of geographical phenomena.
- identify and recall the different agents of gradation.
- the different landforms formed by the action of water, glacier, wind and seas and oceans.
- the soil profile and how it is formed or lost.

OUR ATMOSPHERE

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the different components of our atmosphere and the composition of the air around us.
- the significance of the atmosphere as well as its structure.
- and appreciate the role of ozone gas in protecting life on Earth.

WEATHER AND CLIMATE

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the role that temperature plays in dividing the Earth into different temperature zones.
- how temperature is measured as well as the factors that affect the temperature of a place.
- about atmospheric pressure as well as the factors that determine the atmospheric pressure over a place.
- the role played by winds in creating a high-pressure or lowpressure area.
- the role played by humidity, evaporation, condensation and precipitation in regulating the temperature of the place.
- the concept of weather forecasting.

THE WATER WORLD

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the composition of our hydrosphere.
- the major water bodies that are found on the Earth's surface

and the movements of the ocean water.

- tides as well as their importance.
- and identify the different ocean currents and the importance of hydrosphere.

NATURAL VEGETATION AND WILDLIFE

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the different types of natural vegetation and forest ecosystems that are found on the Earth.
- the different types of forests, grasslands and deserts.
- and recall the places where these natural vegetations along with the wildlife and the vegetation found there.
- the result of human activities on them and the urgent need to preserve and conserve them.

HUMAN SETTLEMENTS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the meaning of the term settlement as well as the number of factors that determine the selection of a settlement.
- the different types of patterns found in rural settlements.
- the urban settlements that are centered around economic activities.
- the interdependence between urban and rural areas.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the evolution of transport since ancient times and its various uses in modern times.
- the different modes of transport.
- the cheapest, fastest, safest and the most popular means of transport.
- the manner in which means of communications have grown since earlier times.
- the need for harmony between human activities and the physical environment.

LIFE IN THE DESERT

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- and compare life in the hot tropical desert of Sahara as against that in the cold temperate desert of Ladakh.
- the geographical location, climate, natural vegetation, wildlife and life of the people in extreme climatic conditions.

TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL REGIONS

- At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:
- and learn about the two fertile river basins in the world the Amazon Basin and the Ganga-Brahmaputra Basin.
- geographical location, climatic conditions, natural vegetation and wildlife found in the plains.
- the life of the people in the plains in terms of economic activities.

TEMPERATE GRASSLANDS

- At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:
- the temperate grasslands of North America.
- geographical location, climatic conditions, natural vegetation and wildlife found in the temperate grasslands.
- and appreciate the role of human-nature interaction.



Our Environment



Let's get started

Look at the images given below. Which aspects of our environment are represented by them?



The term 'environment' has come from the French word 'environer' meaning 'to surround'. This term refers to the surroundings within which an organism exists. These surroundings or conditions may be natural or artificial.

The various components of the environment can be categorised into natural environment and artificial or human-made environment. The natural environment consists of living and non-living things that occur naturally on the Earth. The human-made environment comprises the elements that developed as a result of interaction between human being and nature. Parks, dams etc. are some examples of different forms of interaction.

Natural Environment

The natural environment consists of physical elements or the abiotic environment and biological elements or the biotic environment.

Abiotic Environment

The abiotic environment comprises the inorganic or non-living things in the environment. On the basis of the physical characteristics, it is divided into the lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere. These, along with biosphere comprising our biotic environment, are also called the four realms of the Earth. The lithosphere is the solid rock surface of the Earth that makes the existence of plants, animals and human beings possible. It also provides us space to build settlements, soil to cultivate crops and plants, forests, mines and the various geological resources used for different purposes. The hydrosphere or the realm of water (liquid or solid) including groundwater is extremely essential for the survival of all forms of life on the Earth. The atmosphere or the mixture of gases, which surrounds the Earth, sustains life by providing different life-supporting gases, protects the Earth from the harmful radiations of the Sun and regulates the temperature of the Earth by making it habitable.

Biotic Environment

The three realms or spheres—lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere—converge to form

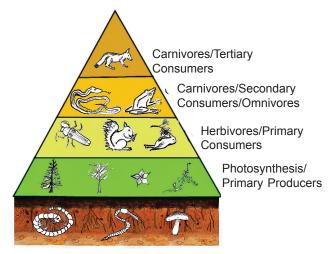


Fig 1.1 A food chain

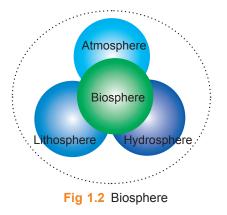
a narrow zone of interaction, the biosphere, which supports life. Therefore, it includes the biotic environment and also, abiotic environment to a great extent. The biosphere is spread from the bottom of the ocean (about 11,000 m below sea level) to the peak of the loftiest mountains (about 9,000 m above sea level).

The biosphere is home to all the living organisms. These include, the producers, consumers and decomposers which are interdependent. The producers, also called autotrophs such as green plants, can prepare their own food using water, carbon dioxide and sunlight.

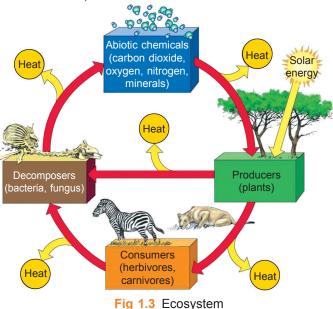
Most of the other living beings are directly or indirectly dependent on plants for their food. These are known as consumers or heterotrophs. Consumers are of three types—herbivores, carnivores and omnivores. Decomposers include micro-organisms such as bacteria which cause the breakdown of dead animals and plants. Energy is transferred from one living being to another in the form of various food chains. Several such food chains link up to form food webs. All the food webs are delicately balanced; if one link in the web is destroyed, all the other organisms will be affected.

Interaction between the Components of the Environment

An ecosystem comes into existence following the interaction among all living organisms that are



dependent on each other, and their interaction with the physical environment in which they reside, for instance, forests, grasslands, deserts etc. It is a natural unit comprising non-living (land, water and air) and living elements (plants and animals).



The biosphere also contains distinct regions called **biomes** and **aquatic life zones** wherein each zone has its own physical conditions and unique organic composition. The biotic and abiotic components are not only interrelated but also function in a systematic manner, forming a definite system. This is why the biosphere is referred to as the global ecosystem and biomes as the regional ecosystems.

Constant interaction between living and nonliving things imparts a dynamic character to our environment. Any change in the abiotic environment produces a resultant change in the biotic environment, especially in terms of numbers and kinds of species. Living things, in turn, modify their physical environment to suit them.

Human Environment

The environment is the source of all resources which human beings require in order to prosper and survive. Early humans lived in harmony with nature but with the advancement of science and technology, rapid industrialisation and spread of agriculture, **urbanisation** and overpopulation resulted. Human beings have transformed the environment to fulfill their needs.

Activities such as clearing of forest land, lumbering and mining became unsustainable with the passage of time. These activities have intensified the process of environmental degradation. An increase in the amount of carbon dioxide in the air has led to global warming.



Fig 1.4 Human activities

Sustainable development should take place in a society where the requirements of the present, do not, in any way, compromise the ability of future generations to meet their needs. Growth of such a social system involves checking population growth, sensible use of resources, using renewable sources of energy, recycling of wastes etc.

Chapter in a Nutshell

- Major components of environment include the natural environment (including abiotic and biotic environments) and the man-made environment.
- These components of the environment continuously interact and are interrelated. They function in an organised manner, as in a definite system.
- Early human beings lived in harmony with nature. However, human activities gradually became unsustainable due to advancement in technology.
- Sustainable development is the need of the hour, that is, requirements of the present should, in no way, compromise with the needs of the future generations.

Glossary

Aquatic life zone A water-based region where different forms of living beings survive e.g., a river | Biome A large ecological community occupying a major habitat such as a desert, forest etc. | Ecosystem A system formed by interactions among all living organisms with one another and with their immediate environment | Urbanisation The process of formation of large towns and cities along with large-scale settlement of people

Exercises

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. The natural environment consists of the physical or ______ environment and the biological or ______ environment.
- 2. The four realms of the earth are _____, hydrosphere, _____ and biosphere.
- 3. The hydrosphere comprises of the realm of water and includes ______ as an extremely essential part for the survival of life on earth.

- 4. The ______ is actually a mixture of gases that surround the ______ and sustains life on it.
- The life supporting gases in the Earth's atmosphere protects it from the harmful
 ______ of the sun and ______ the temperature on Earth by making it
 sustainable.
- 6. The biosphere is the home to all the living organisms like the ______ consumers and the ______.
- 7. _____ are green plants which can prepare their own food using water, _____ and sunlight.
- 8. There are three types of consumers namely herbivores, _____ and
- 9. _____ causes the breakdown of the dead plants and animals and are called as decomposers.
- 10. The biosphere contains distinct regions called ______ and aquatic life zones where each zone has its own physical conditions and unique ______ composition.

B. Match the columns.

Column A

- 1. autotrophs
- 2. carbon dioxide
- 3. abiotic
- 4. biome
- 5. herbivore

- Column B
- a. primary consumers
- b. green plants
- c. ecological community
- d. physical elements
- e. global warming

C. Write True or False.

1.	The	abiotic	environment	consists	of the	biospł	nere on	ly.	

- 2. There are four realms of Earth namely the hydrosphere, the troposphere, the stratosphere and the biosphere.
- 3. It is because of the lithosphere or the solid rock surface that the plants, animals and human beings can exist on Earth.
- 4. The atmosphere gives the Earth a layer of protection by providing different life supporting gases as well as protecting it from the harmful radiation of the Sun.
- 5. An increase in the amount of hydrogen and nitrogen lead to global warming.

D. Answer the following in brief.

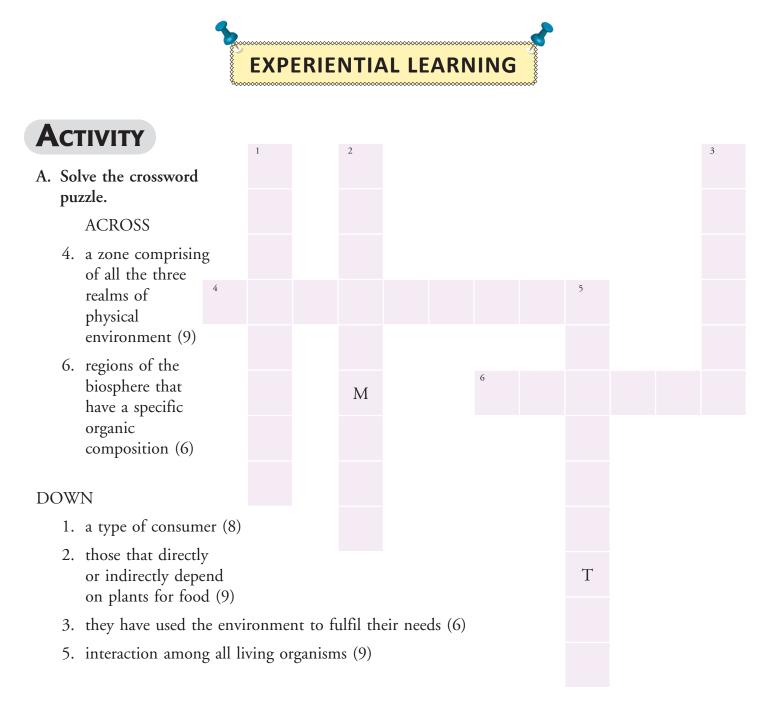
- 1. Name the two components of the environment.
- 2. What is food web? Why is it said that it is delicately balanced?
- 3. What are autotrophs and heterotrophs? Give examples of each.
- E. Answer the following in detail.
 - 1. Define ecosystem and draw a diagram to illustrate your answer.
 - 2. Constant interactions between living and non living things impart a dynamic character to our

environment. Explain the meaning of this statement.

- 3. What events have led to the change in the manner in which the humans use the environment?
- 4. How can the human dependence on the environment be turned favourable?

Hots

- 1. What would have happened to Earth had there been no atmosphere? Think and answer.
- 2. Which out of the following is an example of a natural ecosystem. Explain why.
- a. your house b. the cricket field c. the cement factory d. the pond



B. Write an essay on 'We are dependent on the abiotic elements of the environment' in 100 to 150 words.

Project

Make a scrapbook containing pictures as well as a write-up on the human activities that are interfering with the natural balance of our environment. Collect at least ten such pictures and conclude on how sustainable growth can be achieved.

VALUES

What are our actions when we go out on a picnic with our friends?

- Do we litter the picnic spot?
- Do we pluck flowers and damage the natural beauty of the place?
- Do we throw biscuit and chips wrappers everywhere except in the dustbin because the dustbin is slightly far away from the place?
- Do we play loud music and disturb everyone around?

Give an honest answer and see for yourself whether we are looking after the environment or hurting it. If the answer is the latter, then think of steps that you should take to immediately reverse your actions.

Heritage Point

Have you heard about the Chernobyl Nuclear Disaster that occurred on 26 April 1986, in Russia? After the radioactive waste spilled out of the reactor and spread in the neighbourhood, a nearby pine forest turned reddish brown and died, earning the name of the 'Red Forest'. However, years later in 2009, a photograph taken showed that the forest had begun to grow back! Also, research conducted under extreme precaution in the abandoned reactor that had overheated and blasted showed that a type of radioactive fungi was growing inside that turned the harmful gamma radiation into food! This has reduced the radiation level in the surrounding regions radically. That is nature's way of healing itself! Find out more about it from other sources like the library or the Internet.





Let's get started

Observe the images given below and find out about the specific features of the Earth which they represent.



Scientists believe that the Earth is approximately four to five billion years old. According to them, it originated as an extremely hot mass of gas and molten materials. It cooled slowly to form the solid crust or lithosphere. At present, there are a variety of landforms such as plains, mountains, valleys, **gorges**, plateaus etc. spread across the world. A proper and systematic understanding of the features of these landforms demands a sound perception of the formation and structure of the Earth's interior. Our indirect sources of information regarding the Earth's interior are volcanic eruptions, deep mines and earthquake waves. Geology is a branch of science that deals with the study of the Earth's structure. Scientists involved in this study are known as geologists.

Structure of the Earth

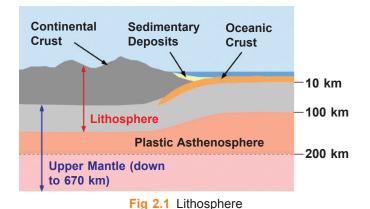
On the basis of composition, properties of rocks and their density, the Earth is divided into three concentric layers—crust, mantle and core.

Crust

The crust or lithosphere is the solid outermost layer of the Earth, composed of rocks and minerals. Its average thickness varies between 8 km to 50 km. The two distinct layers which the crust comprises are the continental crust or sial and oceanic crust or sima.

The continental crust or sial constitutes the uppermost layer of the Earth's crust. Its

thickness is up to 50 km. It consists of lighter rocks rich in silica and aluminium. This layer is not continuous and is mostly found in the continental areas, above the lower crust.



The lower crust or sima is a continuous layer forming an extremely thin ocean floor. It may range from a few metres to 10 km in thickness. The main minerals of this layer are silica and magnesium.

Mantle

The mantle or the mesosphere is a term used for the second layer of the Earth. It lies beneath the crust and extends up to the core of the Earth. Its average thickness is 2,900 km. The mantle is made up of rocks which are far denser than those constituting the crust.

The mantle consists of three layers, depending on temperature and pressure conditions. They cause the rocks to be solid or semi-solid. The temperature of the mantle is extremely high because it contains molten magma coming to the surface as lava during volcanic eruptions. Iron, magnesium and silicon are the major constituents of the mantle.

- The uppermost mantle of solid rock extends from the crust downwards to a depth of 75 km to 100 km.
- The middle mantle has an approximate depth of 300 km. Because of intense heat, the rocks are partially molten and therefore in a fluid state. This layer is also called the asthenosphere (In Greek, the term 'asthenos' means 'to flow').
- The rocks of the lower mantle are solid due to heat and pressure.

Core

The Earth's innermost layer is known as the core or barysphere. This layer has a thickness of about 3,500 km. It is mainly made up of heavy metals, particularly nickel and iron (ferrum). This is why it is also known as nife (nickel+ferrum). The boundary separating the mantle and the core is known as Gutenberg discontinuity named after German geophysicist Beno Gutenberg.

The temperature of the core ranges between 3000° C to 6000° C. Besides such a high

temperature, the core is also subject to extremely high pressure. The metallic nature of the core lends magnetic properties to the Earth. The core has two layers—the solid inner core and the liquid outer core. The outer core comprises semi-solid rocks. The inner core is solid. Though temperatures here are the highest, the pressure of the overlying layers keeps the rocks in a solid state.

Rocks and Minerals

The Earth's crust comprises numerous types of rocks and minerals. Rocks are natural masses of minerals found on the crust of the Earth. They consist of one or more minerals and include the hard as well as compact rocks such as granite, diamond and loose particles like clay, mud sand, etc. Rocks may have different colours, sizes and texture.



Fig 2.2 Minerals

A mineral is an inorganic substance that contains one or more elements having specific physical and chemical properties. The study of minerals is known as mineralogy. Quartz, feldspar, mica, etc., are some of the common rock-forming minerals. Rocks containing a particular metallic mineral in large quantities are called ores. Bauxite, for instance, is an ore of aluminium. Similarly, haematite is an ore of iron.

Classification of Rocks

Based on the formation, appearance and the type of minerals constituting them, rock have been categorised into three major groups—igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic. Rocks categorised under each group exhibit differences in colour, hardness and density.

Igneous Rocks

The term 'igneous' is derived from the Latin word 'ignis' which means 'fire'. It signifies rocks formed by the cooling and solidification of hot lava and magma beneath the Earth's interior. These rocks are still taking new forms due to volcanic activity. Since they were the first to be formed, they are also referred to as primary rocks.

The lithosphere originally comprised primary or igneous rocks. Due to certain internal and external processes, these rocks underwent changes, and many of these were transformed into what are called sedimentary and metamorphic rocks.

On the basis of origin, igneous rocks may be classified as follows.

- Lava is the molten material which reaches the Earth's surface through volcanic vents or fissures. It forms extrusive or volcanic rocks by cooling and solidifying. When the lava gets exposed to the air, it cools rapidly and finegrained, crystalline rocks come into existence. Some examples of these rocks are basalt, pumice etc.
- Occasionally, the molten material or magma may cool and solidify below the Earth's surface

to form intrusive or plutonic rocks. As the molten material within the Earth cools slowly, larger crystals or coarse-grained, crystalline rocks are formed, e.g. granite, dolerite etc.

Igneous rocks are generally crystalline in structure as well as hard and compact. They stop water from percolating through them. Moreover, these are not formed in layers, and hardly contain the remains of plants and animals, i.e. fossils, within.

Sedimentary Rocks

Rock fragments are carried by running water, wind and moving ice, and are deposited in depressions under water. Over a period of time, these deposited materials or sediments are continuously accumulated in layers, get compressed and hardened with the aid of cementing materials such as lime to form sedimentary rocks. Therefore, they belong to the secondary group of rocks. These rocks often consist of layers having varying compositions. In Latin, the term 'sedentum' means 'settling down'.

Based on their formation, sedimentary rocks are generally classified into three types.

The largest of the sediment particles such as sand and pebbles get deposited initially while the finer sediments such as clay and silt get deposited later. Sedimentary rocks thus present





Sandstone

Shale

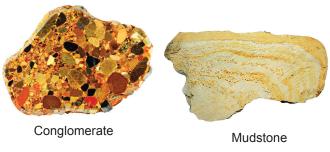


Fig 2.5 Sedimentary rocks

a layered or stratified structure and are also known as stratified rocks. Sedimentary rocks formed in this way are the mechanically formed sedimentary rocks e.g., sandstone, shale, conglomerate and mudstone.

 Sedimentary rocks are also formed from the deposition of chemicals including salts through evaporation. Rock salt is an example of such a chemically-deposited sedimention



Fig 2.6 Rock salt

chemically-deposited sedimentary rock.

In many cases, the skeletal remains of sea organisms and decayed plants are trapped in the sediments and deposited on the seafloor. Over the years, these remains become organically formed sedimentary rocks. Limestone and coal are some examples of these rocks.

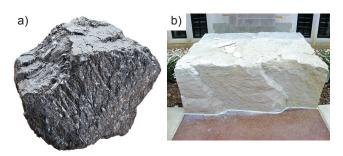


Fig 2.7 a. Coal b. Limestone

Sedimentary rocks are soft compared to igneous rocks and their structure is non-crystalline. Such rocks, at times, also contain fossils in between the layers of the sediments.

Metamorphic Rocks

The term 'metamorphic' is derived from the Greek word metamorphosis which means 'change of form'. When existing igneous and sedimentary rocks change their chemical and physical form due to intense heat and pressure, they are called metamorphic rocks. These processes may take millions of years. Due to the effect of heat and pressure, they are often banded or layered. This group also belongs to the secondary one, as they are formed from existing igneous and sedimentary rocks. For example, granite changes to gneiss, sandstone to quartzite, and limestone to marble, among others. Interestingly, all metamorphic rocks make extremely good materials for building and construction.



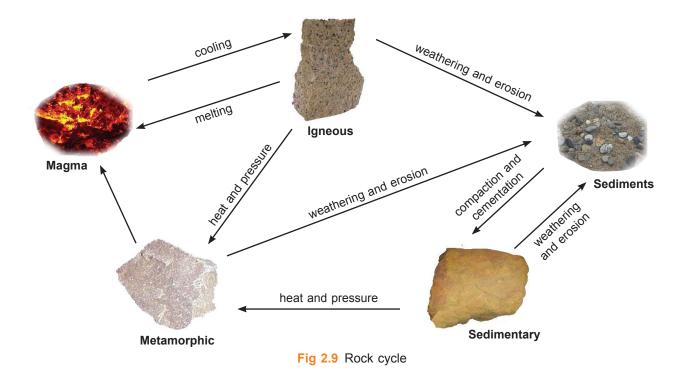
Fig 2.8 Metamorphic rocks

Generally, metamorphic rocks have a crystalline structure and they are perhaps the hardest of all rocks. They have almost no pores and so they do not allow water to percolate through them. They also do not contain fossils.

The Rock Cycle

Due to heating, melting, erosion, deposition and chemical action, one group of rocks leads to the formation of another group. The formation and development of these types of rocks is a cyclic process known as the rock cycle.

Igneous rocks are formed first after being broken down by natural processes such as weathering and erosion. As a result, deposited and compacted sediments form sedimentary rocks. After being subjected to great heat and pressure, igneous and sedimentary rocks are transformed into metamorphic rocks. Sedimentary rocks may be buried again and melted due to heat from the interior of the Earth forming magma.



Metamorphic rocks may be broken down into sediments due to natural forces later forming sedimentary rocks and even buried again to form magma. Thus, a **cyclical** relationship exists between the three rock groups. The entire process is powered by the energy of the Sun and involves processes, both on the surface of the Earth as well as in its interior.

Uses of Rocks and Minerals

The branch of geography that deals with the origin and structure of rocks is called petrology.

Rocks comprise different minerals which are of immense value to humans. Rocks are used as building material, e.g. granite, sandstone and marble. Minerals like natural gas, coal and petroleum or fossil fuels are sources of power. Besides, rocks have also made agriculture possible as soil is formed by the decomposition or degradation of rocks. Chemicals found in rocks are sometimes used as fertilisers also. Moreover, rocks contain fossils which tell us about life in the past.

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

- The Earth has three concentric layers—the crust, the mantle and the core.
- The Earth's solid outermost layer comprising rocks and minerals, is known as the crust or lithosphere.
- The mantle or the mesosphere, located beneath the crust, is the second layer of the Earth.
- The innermost layer of the Earth is known as the core or the barysphere.
- Rocks are defined as a natural mass of mineral matter on the crust of the Earth.
- A mineral is a naturally occurring inorganic substance which contains one or more elements with definite physical and chemical properties.
- Based on formation, appearance and the kind of minerals which constitute them, rocks are classified as
 igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic.
- Rock cycle signifies the cyclical transformation of one kind of rock into another.

Glossary

Asthenosphere The middle part of the mantle made up of semi-solid rocks, below the lithosphere | Barysphere The heavy interior portion of the Earth within the lithosphere | Cyclical An event that occurs at regular intervals of time | Degradation The process of wearing down by erosion | Geophysicist A geologist who studies the properties of the Earth using physical principles | Gorge a deep narrow passage with steep rocky sides

Exercises

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. The crust or the lithosphere is the solid outermost layer of the Earth composed of ______ and _____.
- 2. The continental crust consists of lighter rocks rich in _____ and _____.
- 3. The main minerals found in the oceanic floor are _____ and _____.
- 4. The mantel rocks are solid and semi-solid depending on the _____ and _____ and _____ condition.
- 5. Barysphere is the name given to the Earth's innermost layer which is also known as the
- 6. The metallic nature of the core lends _____ properties to it.
- 7. A mineral is an ______ substance that contains one or more elements with specific physical and chemical properties.
- 8. The term 'igneous' is derived from the _____ word 'ignis' which means 'fire'.
- 9. _____ is the molten material which reaches the Earth's surface through volcanic vents or fissures.
- 10. _____ rocks often contain layers of varying compositions as they are formed by settling down of sediments carried by the wind and water.

B. Write True or False.

	1. The Earth's crust consists of two layers, namely sima and sial.						
	2.	2. The key components of the Earth's crust are iron, silicon and nickel.					
	3. The Earth's layer that is also referred to as 'nife' is actually the other name for mantle.						
	4. Bauxite is an ore of aluminium and haematite is an ore of iron.						
	5. Granite and dolerite are examples of intrusive rocks.						
C. Match the columns.							
		Column A		Column B			
	1.	nickel and iron	a.	aluminium			
	2.	bauxite	b.	oceanic crust			
	3.	sima	с.	semi solid rocks			
	4.	outer core	d.	'to flow'			
	5.	asthenos	e.	nife			

D. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. Define the following terms.
 - a. Sial b. Sima c. Ores d. Sedimentary rocks

ocks e. Rock cycle

- 2. What keeps the rocks in the inner core in a solid state?
- 3. What are rocks and how are they formed?
- 4. What is mineralogy? Give examples of it.

E. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. How are igneous rocks formed? Why are they also called primary rocks?
- 2. What are the various types of igneous rocks based on their origin?
- 3. How are sedimentary rocks formed? How are they classified on the basis of their formation?
- 4. Differentiate between igneous rocks and sedimentary rocks.
- 5. How are metamorphic rocks formed? Why are they layered?
- 6. What is the cyclical relationship that exists between the three rock groups?
- 7. What are the different uses of the rocks?

Hots

- 1. Since ancient times, humans have been dependent on rocks, be it for making tools or for creating shelters during the night or rough weather. Their current usage has changed greatly. How do you think they are used by humans now?
- 2. Imagine that a group of geologists have decided to go on an expedition to the centre of the Earth. What hurdles do you think they might have to face in their journey? Do you think that this mission is likely to be successful? Give reasons for your answers.



MAP SKILLS

India is a country of variety not only in terms of weather and nature but also in terms of rocks. In which parts of the country do we find igneous rock, sedimentary rock and metamorphic rock? Plot the data on the map of India and paste it in the notebook. Use an index to denote your findings.

PROJECT

The Earth's crust is full of rocks and minerals, most of the precious ones being under the surface of the Earth. They are often called precious and semi-precious stones and are used in the jewellery sector for making/decorating ornaments. Find out more about the variety of these stones and paste their pictures in the notebook, with a small write-up on them.

TEST ASSIGNMENT 1

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. An ______ is formed by the interaction of all living organisms that are interdependent and interlinked with each other.
- 2. The ______ extends from the bottom of the ocean (about 11,000 m below sea level) to the top of the highest mountains.
- 3. The ______ rocks are those rocks that are formed by the cooling and solidification of hot lava and magma beneath the Earth's interior.
- 4. Rock salt is an example of a chemically deposited _____ rock.
- 5. Different _____ link up to form food webs.
- 6. Intrusive igneous rocks are usually _____ grained.

B. Write True or False.

- 1. Igneous rocks which allow water to percolate through them, are formed in layers.
- 2. The lithosphere originally consisted of igneous rocks.
- 3. Ores are rocks which contain a particular metallic mineral in large quantities.
- 4. Human beings are the only living beings on Earth who have transformed the environment to fulfill their needs.
- 5. Metamorphic rocks are usually crystalline in structure and perhaps the hardest of all rocks.
- 6. The study of minerals is called petrology.
- 7. The regional write ecosystem is called by this name.
- 8. The middle part of the mantle made up of semi-solid rocks.

C. Answer the following questions.

- 1. Define the terms 'biome' and 'ecosystem'. How are they different?
- 2. What do you mean by sustainable development?
- 3. What does the term 'plate' mean in geographical context? Which factors account for the movement of plates?
- 4. How do earthquakes affect landforms? Substantiate your answer with suitable examples.
- 5. How are the igneous rocks formed?
- 6. What do you mean by Gutenberg discontinuity?
- 7. Describe the major features of a biome.
- 8. Describe global warming. What are its causes?

Intra-planetary Movement and Major Landforms



Let's get started

Look at the images below. What do they tell you about the changes that have taken place on Earth?



Movements of the Earth

In the beginning, scientists believed that the positions of the continents were more or less fixed. However, it was discovered that the continents were in a state of constant motion and the movement was due to changes taking place inside our **dynamic** Earth.

In his book *The Origin of Continents and Oceans.* Professor Alfred Wegener, a German **meteorologist** suggested the theory of continental drift. According to him, all the continents were once joined together as one super continent known as Pangaea which began to break apart about 200 million years ago resulting in the drifting apart of the continents from each other. His theory was reaffirmed by the discovery of new evidences in the form of sea-floor spreading.

The scientific theory that deals with the largescale motions of the lithosphere is known as the theory of plate tectonics. According to this theory, the lithosphere is divided into several large as well as small irregularly shaped plates. These can be continental or oceanic in nature. It is generally felt that these are 'floating' on the molten mantle or the plastic asthenosphere and are in a state of constant motion. These movements take place mainly due to the heat generated within the interior of the Earth.

The surface of the Earth is constantly undergoing changes due to external or exogenic forces that originate outside the Earth's crust, for instance, through erosion and deposition by agents like wind, water etc. The internal or endogenic forces originate within the Earth's crust and comprise sudden movements like volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, landslides etc.

Formation of Major Landforms

Motions of the lithosphere cause the Earth's movements to be slow resulting in the formation of continents, ocean beds, mountains, plateaus and plains as well as sudden Earth movements, due to volcanic activities and earthquakes.

Let us now try to understand how these plates actually move and affect the geography of our planet. Geologists know where the convection current in the asthenosphere is ascending, the lithospheric plates diverge or pull apart horizontally.

- At low lying places on the ocean floor, new rock material rises to reach the surface of the Earth. This seafloor spreading leads to the formation of new lithospheric material, continents and ocean basins.
- Wide rifts may sometimes be created as in the San Andreas Fault in California, USA. The places where the convection current in the asthenosphere descends, the lithospheric plates above it converge or move horizontally towards each other.
- When two oceanic plates converge, one is pushed under the other leading to the formation of a deep-sea trench, such as the Mariana Trench in the Pacific Ocean.
- When two continental plates collide, neither gets pushed down as both possess the same density, much like what happens when icebergs collide. The force of compression causes the lithosphere to get buckled into folds, and mountains are formed.

Formation of Mountains

Usually, the formation of mountains is attributed to the movement of lithospheric plates, giving rise to horizontal or orogenic movements. Such movements result in folding and faulting of the Earth's crust and are responsible for the formation of mountains.

Folding: The movement of two lithospheric plates towards each other results in collision and



Fig 3.1 Fold mountains

creation of a force of compression leading to the wrinkling of the rock layers of the Earth's crust. This is referred to as folding. The upfolded parts or ridges are known as anticlines while the downfolds or valleys are known as synclines. Most of the world's greatest mountain chains have been formed in this way.

Mountains like the Appalachians in the USA, the Urals in Eurasia and the Aravallis in India were formed millions of years ago due to horizontal plate movements. These are known as old fold mountains. The Himalayas, Rockies, Alps and Andes are young fold mountains as they are still being subjected to horizontal plate movements that are pushing them higher even now.

Peaks of the old fold mountains are rounded. They have gradual slopes with a height lower than the young fold mountains while the young fold mountains exhibit pointed peaks and deep and steep valleys.

Faulting: When plates move, stresses and strains are set up in the lithosphere giving rise to fissures and fractures. This causes large-scale displacement of the rock structure which is known as faulting resulting in the formation of block mountains and rift valleys.

When there are two almost parallel faults on the Earth's crust and the land between them is either uplifted or left standing even after the surrounding areas have subsided, a block mountain is formed. The uplifted part is known as horst or block mountain and the subsided part is referred to as graben or rift valley.

The Vindhya and Satpura ranges in India, and Vosges and Black Forest mountains of Germany are examples of block mountains while the Death Valley in the USA is an example of a graben. Normal faulting occurs when the horizontal movement of rocks is tensional, or in opposite directions, away from a given point. On the other hand, when the horizontal movement of rocks is compressional, reverse faulting leads to the rock strata being pushed up between two faults leading to the formation of a block mountain or horst.

Tear faults occur when the rock structure is displaced laterally, in opposite directions, e.g., the San Andreas Fault in California.



Fig 3.2 a. Satpura Range, India b. San Andreas Fault, California (USA) c. Death Valley, USA

Earthquakes

A sudden displacement or dislocation of the lithosphere along the plate boundaries causes earthquakes to occur. This displacement, below the surface of the Earth produces vibrations or tremors that spread out in all directions similar to the ripples created in a pool when we throw a stone into it.

Volcanic eruptions, landslides, faulting, etc. can also cause earthquakes. Minor earthquakes can also occur due to human activities like drilling, blasting, building dams, bomb explosions etc. The point or place of origin of an earthquake under the surface of the Earth is known as the focus of an earthquake. From the focus, the earthquake waves travel in all directions and these vibrations

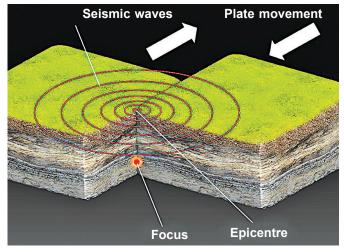


Fig 3.3 Occurence of earthquake

are referred to as seismic waves. These vibrations depend on the intensity of the earthquake which is contingent on the distance of a place from the **epicentre** of the earthquake. Epicentre is the point on the Earth's surface, vertically above the focus, which suffers maximum damage during the occurrence of an earthquake.

Measuring Earthquakes

The study of earthquake waves is called seismology. Scientists who study them are known as seismologists. A seismometer or seismograph is an instrument used to detect and measure the vibrations produced by earthquakes. The first modern seismometer was invented by John Milne, an English seismologist and geologist in 1880.

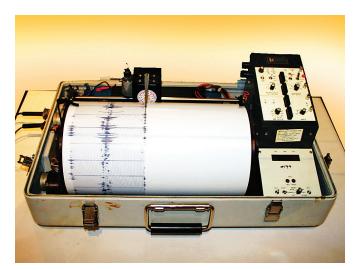


Fig 3.4 Seismometer

An earthquake may be mild or severe. The strength of an earthquake is usually measured on either the Mercalli Scale or the Richter Scale. Giuseppe Mercalli invented the Mercalli Scale in 1902 which measures the intensity of an earthquake. Improved in 1931, the modified Mercalli Scale makes use of the observations of people, who experienced an earthquake, so as to estimate its intensity. Hence, it is not considered as accurate as the Richter Scale.

The Richter Scale, ranging from 0 to 9, was developed by the American seismologist, Charles Richter. Severe earthquakes, which measure 6 and above on the Richter Scale, cause extreme destruction, leading to havoc and extensive loss of life and property.

Earthquakes occur along most plate margins and especially where one plate is pushed under or against another. Lands bordering the Pacific Ocean, the mountain belts and the mid-oceanic ridges experience earthquakes the most. Several areas in India are earthquake prone, especially the Himalayan ranges which were recently formed and are relatively unstable.

Volcanoes

A volcano can be defined as a vent or opening in the Earth's crust allowing hot magma, volcanic ash, steam, rock particles and gases to escape from below the surface of the Earth. The magma, which comes out as lava along with the gases, dust and steam, eventually cools and settles around the vent in layers, forming a conical mountain. If the volcanic eruption takes place through a long crack, it is known as a fissure eruption. Some famous examples of volcanoes



Fig 3.5 Mt Fuji (Japan) and Mt Kilimanjaro (Tanzania)

are Mt Fujiyama in Japan, Mt Kilimanjaro in Africa and the Deccan Plateau in India.

On the basis of their frequency of eruption, volcanoes are classified into the following types:

- Active volcanoes
- Dormant volcanoes
- Extinct volcanoes

Many active volcanoes are present in a circular belt around the Pacific Ocean and the islands within it. This region has, therefore, earned the name, the Pacific Ring of Fire. The Midcontinental belt which runs along the middle of Europe and Asia, includes some very important volcanoes like Mt Etna (Sicily), Mt Vesuvius (Italy), etc. As volcanic activity and earthquakes are both associated with the dislocation of the lithosphere due to plate tectonics, they mostly occur in the same places, i.e. at plate margins.

Significance of Volcanoes: Besides serving as popular tourist attractions, volcanoes serve to bring to the surface useful minerals from the interior of the Earth. The magma and other material, which come out as lava, help to increase the fertility of the soil.



Fig 3.6 Mt Etna (Sicily) and Mt Vesuvius (Italy)

Chapter in a Nutshell

- The scientific theory which deals with large-scale motions of the lithosphere is known as the Theory of Plate Tectonics.
- Our planet Earth is a dynamic planet and its endogenic as well as exogenic movements continuously change the Earth's surface.
- The Mercalli Scale and the Richter Scale are used to measure the magnitude of an earthquake.
- Volcanoes are classified as active, dormant and extinct, contingent on their frequency of occurrence in historical time.

Glossary

Dynamic Energetic, forceful | **Epicentre** The point on the Earth's surface, vertically above the focus, which suffers maximum damage during the occurrence of an earthquake | **Meteorologist** A specialist who studies processes in the atmosphere of the Earth which cause weather | **Vent** An opening for the escape of material upon eruption of a volcano

EXERCISES

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. The scientific theory that deals with the large-scale motion of the lithosphere is known as the theory of ______.
- 2. The young fold mountains have _____ peaks and _____ steep valleys.
- 3. _____ results in the formation of block mountains and rift valleys.
- 4. Minor earthquakes can occur due to human activities like _____,
 - _____, building dams and bomb explosions.
- 5. _____ waves is the name given to the vibrations that travel to all three directions from the epicentre.
- 6. The study of earthquake waves is called _____.
- 7. The ______ scale was developed by the American seismologist _____.
- 8. Several areas in India are earthquake prone, especially the ______ ranges which were recently formed and relatively unstable.
- 9. Volcanic eruption that takes place through a long crack is known as a ______ eruption.
- 10. Volcanoes serve as popular tourist spots as well as they help in bringing useful ______ from the ______ of the Earth.

B. Write True or False.

- 1. The three kinds of volcanoes are Pangea, Lava and Magma.
- 2. When two oceanic plates converge, one is pushed under the other leading to the formation of a deep sea trench.

27

3. Peaks of the old fold mountains are rounded but they still have deep and steep valleys.	
4. The Vindhyas and the Satpura Ranges in India and Vosges and Black Forest mountains in Germany are examples of Block Mountains.	
5. San Andreas Fault is an example of a typical rock structure that occurs due to tear faults.	
6. Lands bordering the Pacific Ocean, the mountain belts and mid-oceanic ridges experience most of the earthquakes.	
7. The Pacific Ring of Fire is the region in the Pacific Ocean which has many active volcanoes.	
8. Seismologists are the scientists who study the suddent displacement or dislocation of lithospheric layers due to tectonic movements.	

C. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. What is the German meteorologist trying to say through his book *The Origin of Continents* and Oceans?
- 2. Define the following terms:

a. plate tectonics b. exogenic and endogenic forces c. rift valleys b. dormant volcanoes

- 3. What do you understand by fissure eruption? Give examples of it.
- 4. What do you understand by the epicentre of an earthquake?
- 5. How are young fold mountains formed?

D. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. Describe how these were formed.
 - a. San Andreas b. Marina Trench c. The Himalaya mountains
- 2. What is Pangea and who propounded the theory about Pangea? What did he base his study on?
- 3. The surface of the Earth is constantly undergoing changes. Explain.
- 4. Differentiate between the Mercalli Scale and the Richter Scale.
- 5. Why are volcanoes considered very important for mankind despite their dangers?

Нотѕ

- 1. How do you think that Professor Alfred Wegener concluded that once all the continents of the world were joined together and had drifted apart many, many years ago?
- 2. The only way to deal with a natural disaster is to be prepared for it. What does it mean?
- 3. The places where earthquakes occur frequently are also the places where volcanic activities are recorded frequently. What connection do you see here?



Project

Do a research project on the earthquake-prone zones in India and make a poster to spread awareness regarding preparedness during this particular natural disaster. Paste the poster in your school corridor or in your society's bulletin board and spread awareness about it.

MAP SKILLS

Find out about the different active volcanoes in the world. Identify and locate them on the world map.

LIFE SKILLS

SOCIAL SKILL, THINKING SKILL

A. Conduct a class discussion on the topic, 'Nature continues to rule us despite immense developments made by man.' Cite instances where nature has created situations that humans have not been able to deal with and illustrate your point in the class.

B. What will you do if an earthquake hits your locality? Will you

- panic and scream, making all the others around you nervous?
- quickly lead everyone out of the building into an open space, away from electric poles or cable lines?
- strain grab a pillow and hide under a table?
- Iook for money and other valuables and try to reach the door quickly?
- simply wait wherever you are for the earthquake to subside?



Part II History



745

in h

Hull







Learning Outcomes

WHEN, WHERE AND HOW?

- At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:
- the significance of periodisation in studying history.
- what the term 'medieval' means in the historical context of India.
- the broad historical trends characterising the medieval period of Indian history.
- the major sources of information regarding the medieval period of Indian history.
- the significance of geography in studying the medieval period.

KINGS AND KINGDOMS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- and develop an insight into the political situation prevailing in India after the death of Harshavardhana.
- the importance Kanauj and the tripartite struggle involving the Gurjara-Pratiharas, the Palas and the Rashtrakutas.
- the major achievements of the Chola rulers of South India.
- the reasons and outcomes of Turk invasions under Mahmud Ghaznavi and Muhammad Ghori.

THE DELHI SULTANATE

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- how Turkish rule began in India.
- the major political developments and socio-economic changes in the life of people during the Sultanate period.
- and develop an insight into the five ruling dynasties of the period under study.
- the important features of the administration of the period under study.

THE MUGHALS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- who the Mughals were and how the Mughal rule started in the Indian subcontinent.
- and learn about the military power and major achievements of the Mughals.
- how Sher Shah Suri came to power.
- the religious and other policies of Akbar.
- the major political developments that took place during the reigns of Jahangir, Shah Jahan and Aurangzeb.
- the causes of the decline of this empire.

ARCHITECTURE, PAINTING AND MUSIC

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the different trends in architecture, painting and music that became popular during this period.
- the different styles of temple and Islamic architectures.
- how the architecture in the monuments indicate the might and glory of the rulers.

 and develop an insight into the major features of medieval painting and music.

TRADE, TOWNS AND CRAFTS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the activities relating to internal and overseas trade carried out during the medieval period.
- the different types of towns or urban centres that became prominent during this period.
- the importance of different towns and how they achieved so much of prominence.
- and learn about the emergence of some towns (Hampi, Masulipatnam and Surat).

TRIBAL AND NOMADIC COMMUNITIES

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- and learn about the various tribal societies during the medieval period of Indian history.
- the distinctive features of tribal societies.
- how medieval tribal societies interacted with the dominant political powers of the period under study.
- what happened to the kingdoms of the Gonds and the Ahoms.

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND POPULAR MOVEMENTS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- how the Bhakti Movement began and gained popularity throughout the Indian subcontinent.
- the key features of the Bhakti Movement.
- the main features of Sufism and how it originated as a major spiritual force and affected society.
- why the medieval Bhakti Movement and Sufism are together regarded as a cultural landmark in our history.

EMERGENCE OF REGIONAL CULTURES

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

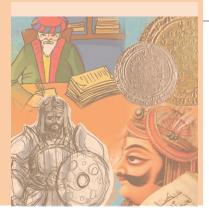
- the development of different languages spoken and used in the Indian subcontinent today.
- the key factors that led to the emergence of the various regional cultures.
- the different forms of art that became popular during this period.

NEW POLITICAL FORMATIONS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- and learn about the successors of Aurangzeb and how they were responsible for the downfall of the great Mughal Empire.
- and develop an insight into the emergence and increasing spread of the political influence of regional powers during the period under study.
- the rise of Maratha power under Shivaji and his successors.

When, Where and How?



Let's get started

Starting from infancy, every individual crosses many milestones like crawling on all fours, standing with support, standing without support, staggered walk, first gibberish, then broken speech to coherent speech. In adults too, there are many milestones, like writing a long essay without parental help, speaking in front of the whole class or school in assembly for the first time with/without preparation, participating in debates and extempore, painting and so on. These milestones are a part of our growth and an example for others to follow. Think of the milestones you would like to cover in the coming years. Share at least two such milestones with the class.

Indian history is generally divided into the ancient, medieval and modern periods on the basis of changes in social, political and economic organisations, and in ideas and beliefs. Each of these periods has certain distinctive features determined by the various developments recorded in different walks of life during that period. The actual duration of the period which is historically regarded as 'medieval' is not the same everywhere. While the medieval period in Europe lasted between 600 and 1400 CE, the medieval period in India extended from the 700-1700 CE — which is exactly a thousand years. It is further subdivided into the early medieval period (700-1200 CE) and the late medieval period (1200–1700 CE), respectively.

The Medieval Period: Major Historical Trends

Before we start discussing the various events and developments that took place during the medieval period of Indian history, let us try to develop an insight into the political, social, economic and cultural changes that characterised this period. The initial phase of the period under study was marked by the emergence of regional kingdoms throughout the country. A powerful group of people rose to prominence during this period, primarily as warriors and kings in northern and central India. These people came to be called the Rajputs. The Rajputs claimed their descent from either the solar family (Surya Vansh) or the lunar family (Chandra Vansh). However, there were four clans which claimed that they had not descended from either of these two families but had originated directly from a sacrificial fire conducted by Sage Vashishtha on the peak of the present day Mount Abu. They claimed descent from Agni Kula. These included the Pratiharas, the Chauhans (Chahamanas), the Solankis and the Pawars (Parmars). These four clans played an important role in the history of this period.

Establishment of the Delhi Sultanate following the arrival of the Turks from the north-west and setting up of the Mughal Empire were the two most important political events of the period. Feudalism or the royal practice of granting land to nobles in lieu tributes and military help was a significant political trend of the period. The important social trends of the medieval age included the proliferation of new castes, the rise of tribal groups with their own distinctive identities and customs and a sharp distinction between rural and urban areas. The flourishing of trade and the introduction of a more systematic assessment of land revenue were the significant economic trends of the medieval period.



Fig 1.1 The practice of land measurement during medieval period

In the spiritual sphere, this period marked the emergence of new forms of Hinduism and Islam which were more **assimilative** in nature. Religious



Fig 1.2 A group of people singing religious songs

reforms in the form of Bhakti and Sufi movements triggered some of the major developments of the period. In the sphere of architecture, distinctive styles and technologies arose, thereby adding to the grandeur and magnificence of medieval India.

In all, widespread cultural diversity was the hallmark of this period which went on to enrich India's culture and history.

Key Changes over a Thousand Years

Historians use different types of sources to learn about the past, depending on the period of their study and the nature of their investigation. Sources such as coins, inscriptions, paintings, architectural remains and textual records serve as the link to the past. Medieval Indian history has left behind a rich legacy of archaeological and literary sources which help us reconstruct the history of the period.

Archaeological Sources

Archaeology is the study of history through the material remains of human life. Archaeological sources may include monuments, paintings, sculptures, inscriptions and coins.

Monuments and Buildings

Historical monuments and buildings such as palaces, temples, forts, mosques, tombs, clock towers, etc., help to reconstruct the past in many ways.

To begin with, these buildings reveal the architectural styles and cultural influences of the period. The famous monuments of the medieval period include the Humayun's Tomb, Qutb Minar, mosques such as Quwwat ul-Islam and Jama Masjid, Red Fort in Delhi and Agra, Taj Mahal, Hoysaleswara Temple etc. They provide invaluable information regarding the architectural skills of workers, the materials used to construct these monuments and the mode of transportation in use, besides the cultural and religious beliefs prevalent during the period under study.



Fig 1.3 Jama Masjid

Inscriptions

Inscriptions are writings engraved on solid surfaces including rocks, metals, pillars and stone tablets, and other structures. Written in various languages and scripts, these inscriptions record royal proclamations, religious instructions and gifts to temples, people or villages. Many of these available even today are attributed to the Rajput and Chola rulers. Besides, there are several inscriptions on the walls of the Taj Mahal, the Red Fort and other palace walls. All these inscriptions usually tell us about the social and economic conditions of the people and sometimes even provide dynastic lists of kings or their genealogies.

Coins

Coins give us invaluable information about the polity and economy of a period. The writings on the coins generally convey the names, date of issue, titles and portraits of kings, and occasionally even their dynastic **emblem**. Coins throw light on art, religion, economic conditions, trade etc. The composition of the metal or alloy used in the coins tells us about the scientific advancement attained during the corresponding period. Moreover, the distant places where the coins are excavated give an idea about the extent of the empire. The Sultans of Delhi, the Mughal emperors, the Cholas and other regional rulers issued many coins.



Fig 1.4 Medieval coin

Paintings and Sculptures

Paintings and sculptures also give important information about medieval Indian history. The paintings reflected themes of religion, forest life, court scenes, mythological stories, lifestyle of people and food habits of the times. Different styles of miniature paintings also evolved during this period. The bronze sculpture of the Nataraja, the dancing Shiva, is representative of the sculpture produced during the period. The sculptures were made of bronze, wood or stone, and depicted figures of gods and goddesses, queens and kings.

Literary Sources

Much of our understanding of the medieval period of Indian history comes from a **plethora** of written sources. These include both religious and non-religious sources, available in the form of **biographies** and **autobiographies**, court **chronicles** (at times called *namas* in Persian) and historical accounts by pilgrims, traders and royal ambassadors. The literary sources usually categorised into indigenous and foreign writings covering subjects such as religion, economics, politics, culture, etc. A variety of languages such as Persian, Sanskrit, Arabic, Urdu and many other regional languages were used to produce



Fig 1.5 A medieval manuscript

this bulk of writings.

It is interesting to note that paper was still not in use in the Indian subcontinent during the early medieval period. Palm leaves, bark of birch trees and animal skins were used as materials for writing. It was only in the late medieval period that paper became the main writing material.

Literary sources of medieval history can be divided into following categories.

Court Chronicles

A number of scholars belonging to this period wrote about history of dynasties of the period.

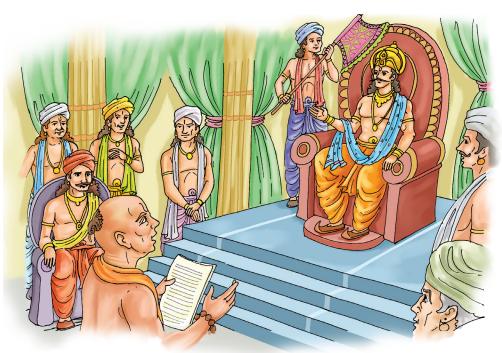


Fig 1.6 A poet reciting lines from his *prashasti* in a royal court These are known as court chronicles. One well-known example of a court chronicle is Abd al-Qadir Badauni's *Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh* or Selection of Chronicles, a work in three volumes that deals with the reigns of Babur, Humayun and Akbar. Barani's *Tarikh-i-Firoz Shahi* (an account of Firoz Shah Tughlaq's reign) is another famous court chronicle which describes the history of the Delhi Sultanate. *Rajatarangini*, authored by Kalhana in the 11th century, provides information about the history of the rulers of Kashmir.

Many rulers of this period appointed historians in their courts to record the events of their rule. Usually, historians travelled with the ruler and recorded the events. Abul Fazl's Akbarnama is a fine example of such a work. Its third volume, Ain-i-Akbari highlights the salient features of Akbar's mode of governance and statistical reports of his empire. A number of foreign travellers, scholars, pilgrims and royal ambassadors visited the courts of different rulers during the medieval period and left behind accounts of the period. Apart from writing about the ruler and his administration, they also focused on the life of the common people. Ibn Battuta, the Moroccan traveller and scholar, visited India during the rule of the Tughlaqs and wrote the *Rihla* (travels). This book tells us about the geography of India. Al Biruni's Tarikh al-Hind, written around 1030 CE, when he accompanied Mahmud Ghaznavi on his campaigns into northern India, is regarded as

one of the finest foreign accounts of medieval India.

Autobiographies and Biographies

including Biographies Prithviraj Raso by Chand Bardai and Humayun Nama by Gulbadan Begum as well as autobiographies such as Babur's Baburnama (also known as Tuzuk-i-Babri) in Turkish and Jahangir's Tuzuki-Jahangiri in Persian were written during this period. The Baburnama provides detailed information about the flora and fauna of Hindustan while the Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri provides a fascinating insight into the court politics during this period besides giving details of the emperor's personal life. Firoz Shah Tughlaq also wrote his own autobiography titled Futuhat-i-Firoz Shahi.

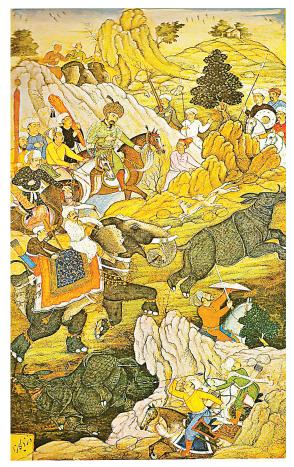


Fig 1.7 A scene from Baburnama

Writings of Foreign Travellers

The writings of many European travellers like Duarte Barbosa and Domingo Paes of Portugal, Ralph Fitch, William Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe of England, Niccolo Conti and Niccolao Manucci of Italy, Bernier and Tavernier of France also serve as valuable sources for the history of the medieval period.

Athanasius Nikitin's visit to India is described in his book, *The Journey Beyond Three Seas*. Sidi Ali Reis, an Ottoman admiral, was another important foreigner whose travels to India and other countries are recorded in the book, *Mirat ul Memalik* or *The Mirror of Countries*.

Religious Literature

The medieval period of Indian history was also the period of the Bhakti and Sufi movements which spread across the subcontinent and contributed to some fundamental changes in the social and cultural outlook of people at large. The saints and sages associated with these movements composed poems, songs, **dohas**, etc. in the local languages which are a reflection on the period during which they wrote. During this period, the religious texts, *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata*, were translated into regional languages.



Fig 1.8 Kabir composing his doha

Regional Literature

Regional literature of the period was highly acclaimed in the form of stories, poems and

dramas such as Jayadeva's *Gita Govinda* and Chand Bardai's *Prithviraj Raso*. During this period, texts were composed in different languages such as Marathi, Urdu, Tamil, Persian, Kannada, Arabic and some European languages as well.

Calligraphy

Calligraphy is basically the art of writing alphabets in an artistic manner. It was a common feature of the manuscripts written during the medieval period of Indian history. Floral and geometric motifs were used to decorate books and monuments of the period. Although the knowledge of calligraphy had already existed in India, it was only with the Persian influence that a distinctive style emerged.

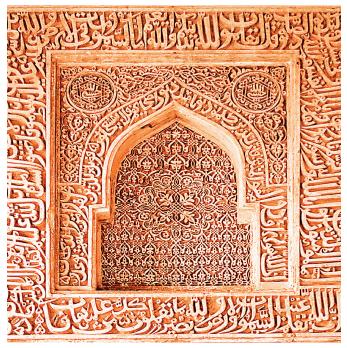


Fig 1.9 A medieval monument showing the skill of calligraphy developed by people of that period

Archival Records

Apart from various literary sources discussed above, government documents or archives in the form of royal *farmans* or decrees issued by rulers, treaties or agreements between different kings, chronicles of court and records of revenue also serve as important sources of information for this period. They throw light on the administrative policies and the political system of the kingdoms.

Importance of Geographical Factor

Geography is one of the most significant drivers of history. In the absence of the concept of space, history would rather be incomplete and devoid of its vital substance. That is why history is often regarded both as the history of mankind and the history of the environment. Keeping this in mind, it is crucial to go back in time in order to understand the geography and environment of the regions that have influenced the history of India. The three major physiographical divisions that have played an important role in the history of the Indian subcontinent are the Himalayan uplands, the Indo-Gangetic Plains and Peninsular India.

The Himalayan uplands consist of a chain of lofty mountains. Due to weathering and erosion, huge quantities of fertile alluvium are continuously carried down into the plains from these mountains. The three great perennial river systems, i.e., the Indus, the Ganga and the Brahmaputra are fed by the Himalayan snows. The alluvial plains of northern India appear on the map like a huge arc extending for about 3200 km from the mouth of the Indus to the mouth of the Ganga. The Harappan or Indus Valley Civilisation, one of the earliest civilisations in the world and the first in the subcontinent, flourished in the plains along the River Indus and its tributaries more than four millennia ago. Similarly, the Ganga Plains have sustained and nurtured city life, state, society and imperial rule from the first millennium bce. We have already read in the previous class about their key role in the making of our ancient history.

The northern plains and Peninsular India are separated by a large intermediate zone, called central India, extending from Gujarat to western Odisha over a stretch of 1600 km. The Aravalli hills in Rajasthan separate the Indus plain from the peninsula. The intermediate zone is characterised by the presence of the Vindhya and Satpura ranges and the Chota Nagpur plateau covering portions of Bihar, Bengal and Orissa. This region can be subdivided into four subregions: the land of the Rajputs between Udaipur and Jaipur; the Malwa plateau around Ujjain more popularly known as Avanti in ancient India; Vidarbha or the sub-regions around Nagpur; and the Chhattisgarh plains in eastern Madhya Pradesh or Dakshina Kosala.

Despite difficulty in communication and movement across the intermediate zone, contacts between these four apparently isolated pockets, and between this region and other physiographic divisions, did take place.

On the southern edge of central India begins the formation called Peninsular India. The rocky formation gently slopes from west to east, and four major rivers flow into the Bay of Bengal. These four rivers—Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Kaveri have produced alluvial plains and helped the creation of nuclear areas in the plains and deltas enabling cultural growth to be sustained for prolonged periods through history.

The Narmada and the Tapti, however, have a westward flow and run into the Arabian Sea in Gujarat after running through the hilly central India. The Deccan plateau is the well known feature of the region. It extends from the Vindhyas in the north to the southern limits of Karnataka. The black soil in Maharashtra and in the adjoining parts of central India is especially rich. The soil yields good crops of cotton, millets, peanuts and oilseeds. It was this reason why the early farming cultures (Chalcolithic) in western and central India emerged here. In the west, the plateau terminates with the Western Ghats and in the east its contours are marked by the Eastern Ghats. The Nilgiris and the Cardamom hills are regarded as offshoots of the basic peninsular formation.

Like any other country of the world, the course of Indian history has largely been shaped by the geographical features of India. The Ganga-Yamuna Doab, the Middle Ganga Valley, Malwa,



Map 1.1 A map of India and its neighbours during the early medieval period

Northern Deccan, Andhra, Kalinga (coastal Orissa) and the Tamil plains are the major perennial nuclear regions which emerged as bases of power quite early. Smaller areas, such as the Konkan, Kanara and Chhattisgarh have also made a mark. Some areas such as the Raichur Doab between the Krishna and Tungabhadra, and Vengi between the Godavari and Krishna have been continuously contested for their agricultural resource potential.

At most periods of its history, India, though a cultural unit, was torn by internecine wars. Famine, flood and plague killed millions of people. Inequality of birth was given religious sanction, and the lot of the humble was generally hard. This, however, was true for any part of the ancient world of the time. Judged in the context of time, the relations among the people or between the people and the state were fair enough and humane.

Unlike Egypt, Mesopotamia and Greece, however, the traditions of India have been preserved without a break to the present day. To this day, legends known to the humblest Indian recall the names of shadowy chieftains who lived nearly a thousand years before Christ, and the orthodox Hindus in their daily worship repeat hymns composed even earlier. India and China have, in fact, the oldest continuous cultural traditions in the world.

Terms used to Describe the Indian Subcontinent

Throughout its history, the Indian subcontinent has been known by varied names. During the ancient period, it was referred to by such names as Bharatavarsha and Jambu-dvipa. The Vishnu Purana says, 'The country lying to the north of the ocean and south of the Himadri, i.e., the Himalayas, is called Bharatavarsha'. This name is also mentioned in the Rig Veda. South Asia was also called Jambudvipa or the land of the wood-apple tree in the Puranic and Buddhist texts. The term 'Aryavarta' or land of the Aryans is said to have been used by Patanjali to denote the northern part of India lying between the Himalayas and the Vindhyas.

The *Zend Avesta*, the sacred book of the Parsees, describes the subcontinent as Sapta Sindhu or 'the land of seven rivers'. The ancient Greeks referred to the Indians as 'Indoi' or 'people of the Indus'. During the medieval period, the name that gained popularity was Hindustan.

This name is still used in India and therefore, it is important to know how this name came into existence.

On a physical map of India, you can notice that the River Indus or Sindhu and its five tributaries (Ravi, Sutlej, Beas, Chenab and Jhelum) form the western frontier of India. Sindhu was an ancient Aryan name which could not be pronounced correctly by people who invaded or visited India from northwest; e.g., the Iranians, Afghans, Turks, Mughals etc. In their language, the 's' became 'h'. So, they pronounced the river's name as Hindu. The name Hindustan or 'the land of the River Hindu' came from the term 'Hindu' only. It was from the River Sindhu (Indus) that the people living on the eastern side of the river came to be known as Hindus in medieval India.

The terms 'Hind' and 'Hindustan' were used in both Persian and Arabic languages after the Islamic conquests of the 11th century. Thus, the rulers of the Delhi Sultanate and the Mughals called their Indian empire by the name of Hindustan. The term came to be used for the region of India between the rivers Indus and Brahmaputra and the Himalayan and Vindhya mountain ranges.

Though the name Hindustan continued to be popular throughout the medieval period, the area which was covered by this name varied widely. During the early medieval period, for instance the name denoted the land lying between Indus and its five branches and the land between rivers Ganga and Yamuna; in the late medieval period the name came to denote much of what modern India is today including south India.

Chapter in a Nutshell

- The period of Indian history that lasted for about a millenium extending from 700 CE –1700 CE is called the medieval period. This period is divided into two phases; the early medieval period and the late medieval period.
- Inscriptions, coins, monuments, sculptures and paintings are some of the major archaeological sources used to reconstruct the history of the period.
- Court chronicles, biographies, autobiographies, translated works and archives form the literary sources of medieval Indian history.
- India had different names in the past such as Bharatavarsha, Aryavarta etc. During the medieval period, it was called Hindustan.

Glossary

Assimilative Able to absorb something | **Autobiography** The biography of a person written by himself/ herself | **Biography** An account of a person's life | **Chronicle** A historical account of events arranged in the order in which they happened | **Emblem** A symbol or figure used as a mark of identification for something | **Legacy** Heritage; treasure or a place where something is stored | **Plethora** A large amount of something

EXERCISES

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. Bharatavarsha, Jambudvipa, Aryavarta, Sapta Sindhu and Hindustan were the different names given to describe the ______ subcontinent.
- 2. Indian history is generally divided into ______ parts based on changes in social, political and economic organization.
- 3. In India, the Medieval period is from ______ to _____ CE and is divided into ______ Medieval Period and ______ Medieval Period.
- 4. The Rajputs in North and Central India claimed their descent from ______ family or the ______ family.
- 5. The royal practice of granting lands to the nobles in lieu of salary was called
- 6. The writings on ______ convey the names, date of issue, title, portrait and the royal emblem.
- 7. Abul Fazl's ______ is a fine example of court chronicle highlighting the salient features of Akbar's rule.
- 8. _____ wrote *Tarikh-al-Hind* when he accompanied Mahmud Ghaznavi in his campaign of northern India.
- 9. Humayun Nama is a biography on Humayun written by his sister _____
- 10. *Baburnama* provides a detailed information about the ______ and _____ of Hindustan.

B. Write True or False.

1.	Autobiographies are self-written	while biographies are written by
	court chroniclers.	

- 2. *Mirat-ul-Memalik* is a book of records written by an Ottoman admiral, Athanasius Nikitin.
- 3. *Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh* is a detailed work recording the lives of the three Mughal Emperors namely Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan.
- Jama Masjid, Red Fort and the Taj Mahal are the examples of monuments built during the ancient period of Indian history.

5. Coins, monuments and buildings are all the examples of literary sources.

C. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. How are biographies different from autobiographies? Give examples of each.
- 2. Why is Abul Fazl's Ain-i-Akbari considered as a unique source of information?
- 3. What are the different theories that surround the origin of the Rajputs?
- 4. Define feudalism. Why did it emerge?
- 5. List the various archaeological sources that are of help in reconstructing the history of the period under our study.

D. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. What were the different names by which India was known in the earlier times?
- 2. Briefly discuss the many historical trends that came up in the Medieval period in India.
- 3. How have the writings of the foreign travellers thrown light on the history of Medieval India?
- 4. What is calligraphy and where is it found?
- 5. Why are coins considered an important source of history for the Medieval period in Indian history?

Hots

- 1. A lot of developments in history are actually closely linked to geography of a place. Can you think why? Give examples to support your answer.
- 2. Ibn Battuta's *Rihla* is a very interesting account of India as it describes in detail some of the things that he was completely unfamiliar with. Guess what is being described by him.
- a) These trees look exactly like date palms, their fruits look like huge nuts that resembles a man's head with two eyes, a mouth, attached to a fibre that looks like hair. (Hint: Coir is made from it.)
- b) This tree has no fruits but is grown only for its leaves, the leaves are eaten with areca nuts which is broken into small pellets, which are chewed along with the leaves leaving a red stain in the mouth. (Hint: usually given as a mouth freshener after meals)



Αстіνіту

Observe the calligraphy in Figure 1.9 of your book. Beside the Arabic letters, many geometric patterns and shapes are also used. What are these patterns and shapes? Try and write a paragraph in calligraphy using a language of your choice.

LIFE SKILLS

THINKING SKILL

In earlier times, people used to hoard and store their riches, mostly coins, underground. This was done to keep these riches safe from any harm and stored in jars in order to dig them out in future. Imagine that while digging your garden, you have come across a similar jar containing old coins. What will you do?

- a. Keep all the coins and display them as objects of antiquity in your house.
- b. Go to the market, sell them and get the money.
- c. Go to the curator of a museum of history and submit the coins for the government to take care.

Think and answer.



Kings and Kingdoms

Let's get started

North India, during the period under our study, was ruled by many rulers, each dominating a particular region and often with expanding or contracting boundaries. Imagine that you are a foreign visitor taking a trip to India during this period. What will your experience be like? Do you think you will like what you see? Why do you think that India did not have a powerful Emperor then, whereas during the earlier periods, particularly during the Mauryas and the Guptas, there was unified rule? Have a lively discussion around it with each one of your peers imagining themselves to be a foreign visitor.

Around the time when Harshavardhana and Pulakesin II were locked in a war for supremacy in India, a revolutionary change was taking place not too far away from the Indian shores. It was the emergence of Islam in Arabia.

Emergence of New Kingdoms

During the earliest phase of the medieval history roughly starting from the 7th century, vassals or chieftains representing numerous clan identities rose in prominence in different parts of the subcontinent. Soon, they acquired power and wealth and asserted their independence to establish independent kingdoms. For instance, Dantidurga defeated the Chalukyas and laid the foundation of the Rashtrakuta dynasty. Some chieftains such as the Gurjara-Pratiharas gave up their traditional occupation and successfully established their kingdom in Rajasthan.

A clan of warriors referred to as the Rajputs dominated the history of north and central India from about 750 CE to 1200 CE. They claimed descent from the solar family or lunar family. Many historians trace their ancestry to tribes such as the Huns, Kushanas, Shakas etc. They established their kingdoms throughout North India and guarded the land from Arab and Turk invaders. During the reign of Harshavardhana, Kanauj became the centre of all political developments in North India. On account of its strategic position, Kanauj fostered trade and commerce, and high fertility of the soil encouraged agricultural growth. Due to this, all new kingdoms that sprang up after the disintegration of Harshavardhana's Empire were equally interested in acquiring control over Kanauj.

Warring Kingdoms involved in Tripartite struggle

The beginning of medieval Indian history was marked by a long struggle involving the Gurjara-Pratiharas of Malwa, the Rashtrakutas of Deccan and the Palas of Bengal to establish their supremacy over Kanauj. As this event involved three major regional powers, it is described by historians as the Tripartite Struggle. The constant struggle eventually weakened the three dynasties and resulted in their ultimate decline.

家にあった

The Gurjara-Pratiharas

The Gurjara-Pratiharas were the dominant power in Western India, i.e., parts of western and central Rajasthan and parts of central India. Initially, they had been local officials who later succeeded in establishing independent principalities. They also resisted the Arab incursions. The long line of powerful rulers of this dynasty included Nagabhatta I (750–780 CE), the founder of the dynasty, Vatsaraja and Mihir Bhoja. Mihir Bhoja (836–890 CE), the most prominent among them, established the largest empire in northern India, with Kanauj as his capital. He issued silver coins bearing the emblem of Varaha, an incarnation of Lord Vishnu. He also assumed the title of Adivaraha.

Al Masudi, a foreign traveller, wrote extensively about the power and prestige of the Gurjara-Pratihara rulers. They were great patrons of learning and literature. Rajasekhara, the famous Sanskrit poet, was patronised by the Pratihara rulers.

The Palas

The Pala Empire was established by Gopala around 750 CE. His kingdom extended over the states of present day Bengal, Bihar, parts of Orissa and Nepal. They fought many wars with the Gurjara-Pratiharas and Rashtrakutas. The Pala dynasty expanded their political boundaries under Dharmapala and his son Devapala. Their empire included Kanauj, Orissa, Bihar, Assam and northern India. According to the Tibetan chronicles, the Palas were patrons of Buddhist learning, literature and education. Dharmapala established the famous Vikramshila Buddhist University. Pala rulers also donated generously to Nalanda University, another famous centre of Buddhist learning and education. They had trade and cultural relations with the countries of South-East Asia. Mahipala, one of the later rulers, was defeated by Rajendra Chola of the Chola dynasty in 1023 CE. Ramapala (1082–1124 CE) was the last known king of the dynasty. The

Khalji invasions eventually dealt the final blow to the Pala dynasty.



Fig 2.1 Nalanda University founded by the Palas was one of the most important educational institutions and centres of learning during this period.

The Rashtrakutas

The Rashtrakuta kingdom was established by Dantidurga or Dantivarman. The word *rashtra* in Sanskrit means 'territory' while *kuta* means 'chieftain'. Prior to acquiring the status of a ruling dynasty in the Deccan, the Rashtrakutas were the vassals of the Chalukyas in central India. The dynasty produced many famous warriors and efficient administrators.



Fig 2.2 Kailashnath Temple

Malkhed or Manyakhet near modern Sholapur in Maharashtra was the capital of the Rashtrakutas. They fought many wars with the Gurjara-Pratiharas, the Chalukyas of Vengi, the Pallavas of Kanchi and the Pandyas of Madurai. Gradually, large tracts of Maharashtra, Gujarat and Malwa came to be included in the Rashtrakuta Empire.



Map 2.1 Regional kingdoms in India

The Rashtrakuta rule in the Deccan lasted till the end of the 10th century. Govinda III (793–814 CE), Amoghavarsha (814–878 CE) and Krishna III (934–963 CE) were the most famous among the Rashtrakuta rulers. The rock-cut cave temples at Ellora and Elephanta in modern day Maharashtra, now two of the UNESCO World Heritage Sites in India, were built by the Rashtrakuta rulers.

Other Prominent Kingdoms

The Chauhans

The Chauhans were the last prominent Indian dynasty of North India. The Chauhan or Chahamana dynasty of Ajmer was established in the 11th century. Before coming to power, they were vassals of the Gurjara-Pratiharas. One of the famous rulers of the Chauhan dynasty was Vigraharaj who captured Chittor. Prithviraj Chauhan, the most outstanding Chauhan ruler, ascended the throne of Ajmer around 1169 CE. He followed a policy of expansion. His most famous **expedition** was against the Chandellas of Bundelkhand. The events of Prithviraj's reign have been described in *Prithviraj Raso*, composed by his court poet and friend, Chand Bardai.

Prithviraj Chauhan was engaged in the First and Second Battles of Tarain against Muhammad Ghori in 1191 CE and 1192 CE, respectively. In the First Battle of Tarain, he defeated Ghori. However, in the second battle, he was defeated and executed.



Fig 2.3 Prithviraj Chauhan

The Kalachuris

Kalachuri is the dynastic name used by two kingdoms in Central India and parts of Karnataka. Kings bearing this dynastic name ruled from the tenth to twelfth centuries. To differentiate them, historians call them the northern and southern branches of Kalachuri dynasty. The northern Kalachuris ruled over the areas of the present day western Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. They were earlier called Chedi or Haihaya. The southern Kalachuris who ruled over parts of Karnataka, are supposed to be offshoot of Abhira of Traikutaka dynasty. The northern Kalachuris, who probably rose to prominence earlier, traced their origin to a royal line that dominated northern Maharashtra, Malwa and western Deccan in the sixth and early seventh centuries. Their capital was Mahismati in the Narmada river valley. There were three prominent members of this ruling class including Krishnaraja, Shankaragana and Buddharaja. Subsequently, they shifted their base to Tripuri or Tewar in Central India. They expanded significantly in the 11th century, and

declined in the twelfth to thirteenth centuries.

Southern Kalachuris rose to power in the Deccan between 1156 and 1181 CE. At their peak, they ruled parts of the Deccan extending over regions of present day North Karnataka and parts of Maharashtra. They traced their origins to Krishna who was the conqueror of Kalinjar and Dahala in Madhya Pradesh. Bijjala, a ruler of this dynasty, wrested power from the Chalukya king Taila III and established his authority over Karnataka. He was succeeded by his sons, Someshwara and Sangama. Their rule was short and eventful. A new religious sect called the Lingayat or Virashaiva was founded during their rule. Besides, a unique and purely native form of Kannada literature-poetry called the Vachanas also came into existence during this time. The writers of Vachanas were called Vachanakaras (poets). Many other important works like Virupaksha Pandita's Chennabasavapurana, Dharani Pandita's Bijjalarayacharite and Chandrasagara Varni's Bijjalarayapurana were also written during the reign of the Southern Kalachuris.

The Chandelas

The Chandelas were a powerful dynasty of North India during the early medieval period. They ruled over Central India from the ninth century to the thirteenth century. Their first capital was Khajuraho, the famous temple town. Later, the capital was shifted to Mahotsava Nagar or Mahoba. They are regarded as one of the lunar dynasties.

The kingdom of the Chandelas of Khajuraho was a part of the large empire of the Gurjara-Pratiharas. The founder of the Chandela dynasty, Nannuk was the ruler of a small kingdom. According to inscriptions, he was the chief of his clan in the first quarter of the ninth century. He was succeeded by his son Vakapati, a contemporary of the Pratihara ruler Mihir Bhoja.

Jaishakti and Vijayshakti, the two sons of Vakapti, succeeded him, one after the other. Both the princes were strong and valorous and annexed considerable territories to their kingdom. Jaishakti, the elder brother who ruled first, was also called Jai Jak and from this name the region ruled by the Chandelas acquired the name of Jaijikbhukti. Rahil and Harshdev, the successors of Vijayshakti, further consolidated the Chandela kingdom.

Yashoverman, the son of Harshdev, was probably the most powerful among the early Chandela kings. He proclaimed himself as an independent king and annexed large areas of the Rashtrakuta kingdom. He also captured Kalinjar. The frontiers of his kingdom extended from the banks of the Yamuna in the north to the borders of Malwa in the south. During his reign, Chandelas became a strong political power in North and Central India. He is also credited with having constructed the magnificent Lakshmana Temple.

Yashoverman was succeeded by a line of other mighty rulers including Dhanga, Gand and Vidyadhar. During the reign of Dhanga, Kalinjar acquired great importance and was regarded as the second capital of the kingdom after Khajuraho. Dhanga assumed the title of Maharajadhiraj Kalinjaradhipati (Lord of Kalinjar). He was also a great patron of art and learning in addition to being a great ruler and a great conqueror. He built two of the more important temples—the Vishwanath and the Parshwanatha temples.

Parmardidev, the last important king of this dynasty, is known in history for his conflict with the Chauhan king Prithviraj Chauhan. The battle between them ended in the defeat of Parmardidev. It marked the gradual decline of the Chandela power. In 1202, Kalinjar along with the territories ruled by the Chandelas was annexed by the Turkish ruler of Delhi.

The outstanding contribution of the Chandelas was to build the famous temples (and town) of Khajuraho between the mid-10th and mid-11th centuries. The temples provide a rare and striking example of north Indian temple architecture in this era. The Chandelas have left a number of other inscriptions. They are known to have endowed a large number of Jain and Hindu temples.

The Gahadavalas

The Gahadavalas were among the many ruling families of North India on the eve of the Muslim conquests in the 12th–13th century. The history of this line of rulers ranges between the second half of the 11th century and mid-13th century.

The ruling family perhaps originated in the area of Benares (Varanasi) and Oudh (Ayodhya) in Uttar Pradesh. Subsequently, however, it came to be associated with Kannauj, which had become one of the most crucial political centres in India. The dynastic power became gradually consolidated in the period of the first three rulers, namely, Yashovigraha, Mahichandra, and Chandradeva (c. 1089-1103). By the time of Chandradeva, the Gahadavalas had taken control of Varanasi, Ayodhya, Kannauj, and Indrasthaniyaka (modern Delhi), and had expanded throughout Uttar Pradesh. The Gahadavalas tried to ward off the growing menace of Muslim incursions by expedient alliances and the payment of tributes, at least until the period of Chandradeva's son Madanapala. Despite the regularity of Muslim attacks, which were at least temporarily repulsed by Govindachandra (1113-15), the Gahadavalas endeavoured to spread eastward to the Patna and Munger areas in Bihar. In 1168-69, south western Bihar was under a feudatory of his son Vijayachandra (1155–69). Conventional accounts seem to suggest that Govindachandra had varied relations with an impressive number of Indian and non-Indian countries.

The weakness of the internal structure of the Gahadavala kingdom was exposed in the 12th century during the invasions of Muhammad Ghori. Jayachandra (1170–94), who ruled Uttar Pradesh and parts of Bihar, was an enemy of Prithviraj Chauhan. After defeating Prithviraj Chauhan, Muhammad Ghori also defeated Jayachandra in the Battle of Chandawar. Although

the Gahadavalas lingered in Harishchandra's reign in the Kannauj, Jaunpur and Mirzapur regions until 1197, the buildup of Muslim expansion in the areas was steady through the early 13th century. During this period, the Gahadavalas completely lost their power.

The Hindu Shahis

A long line of Hindu kings ruled one of the middle kingdoms of India which included portions of the Kabulistan and the old province of Gandhara (now in northern Pakistan), from the decline of the Kushan Empire in the 3rd century. The kingdom was known as Kabul Shahi between 565 and 879 cE when they had Kapisa and Kabul as their capital. Later, they became more popular as Hindu Shahis.

Jayapala, Anandpala, Trilochanpala and Bheempala were the prominent rulers of this dynasty.

During the reign of Anandpala, many losses were inflicted on his kingdom by the Ghaznavids. In the Battle of Kachach, his forces fought bravely against the forces of Mahmud Ghaznavi. However, he lost the battle and suffered much financial and territorial loss. This was Anandapala's last stand against Mahmud Ghaznavi. He eventually signed a treaty with the Ghaznavid Empire in 1010 CE and passed away soon. Trilochanpála, the son of Anandapala, ascended the imperial throne in about 1011 CE. He rebelled against Sultan Mahmud and was later assassinated by some of his own mutinous troops in 1021–22 CE.

Prince Bhimapala, son of Tirlochanpala, succeeded his father in 1021–22 CE. He was referred to by Utbí, the eminent Ghaznavid chronicler, as 'Bhim, the Fearless' due to his courage and valour. Considering his kingdom was at its lowest point, possibly only in control of Nandana, he admirably earned the title of "fearless". He is known to have commanded at the Battle of Nandana personally and seriously wounded the commander of the Ghaznavid army Muhammad bin Ibrahim. He ruled for five years. His death in 1026 CE marked the decline of this dynasty.

Pattern of Administration during the Period

The king headed the administration. He was also the commander-in-chief of the army and the supreme judicial authority. Usually, the position of the king was hereditary although the rules of succession were not rigidly fixed. Titles like Maharajadhiraja and Chakravartin spoke of the emperor's power and strength. A council of ministers assisted the king and advised him on affairs of the state. The mahamantri (prime minister) was the head of the council of ministers. There were separate ministers in each department such as the akshapatalika (revenue minister), sandhi vigrahika (foreign minister), mahapratihara (guard of the royal palace), rajpurohita (royal priest) and the mahasenapati (commander of the army).

The kingdoms consisted of areas which were directly administered and those ruled by vassal chiefs or Samantas. The vassal chiefs were independent as far as their internal affairs were concerned and had to pay a fixed tribute as well as supply a quota of troops to the overlord. However, the ambition to be independent led to frequent conflicts between the chiefs and the rulers.

The directly administered territories were further divided into bhuktis (provinces) and mandalas or visayas (districts). The governor of a province, known as uparikas collected revenue and maintained law and order with the help of the army. The head of a district was called the visayapati. The smaller chieftains known as bhogapatis became powerful when the power of the king weakened. Gradually, they merged with the visayapatis over a period of time. The land was granted to them for a short time in lieu of salaries and land revenue was collected by the king. The defeated kings were accorded the status of Samantas. They ruled under the overlordship of the emperor. They also paid tribute and helped the king with troops.

Village and Town Administration

The village served as the basic unit of administration. The headman and accountant of the village, known as the *gramapati*, carried out administrative responsibilities. To assist him, there were village committees that looked after local schools, roads, water tanks, temples etc.



Fig 2.4 A village in the early medieval period

Such committees also existed in towns; there were similar committees where the heads of trade guilds were associated with administration. Law and order issues in towns and neighbouring areas were looked after by the kotwal.

Military Organisation

The armed forces had a crucial role to play in the expansion and maintenance of the empire. Apart from a strong infantry and cavalry, a large number of war elephants were also maintained. According to the available literary sources, the Pala rulers maintained the largest number of elephants while the Gurjara-Pratihara dynasty had the finest cavalry in the country. The Rashtrakuta rulers owned a large number of forts garrisoned by special troops.

Social Life

The caste system was the basis of social life

during this period. The Brahmins (priests) and the Rajputs (Kshatriyas) enjoyed the highest status in society, while the Vaishyas (traders and merchants) played a significant role in local administration. There was a decline in the position of women during this period. Sati

> and child marriage were practised. Polygamy was also common.

Economy

Agriculture was the major occupation of people. Trade relations with China, south-east Asia and the western world flourished during this period. The main items of export were spices, textiles and precious stones while the main imports comprised horses, precious metals and stones. Merchants operated through guilds known as *shrenis*. The chiefs of the guilds, called *shresthins*,

held important positions in city administration.



Fig 2.5 A medieval shresthi sitting with other members of the guild

The Kingdom of the South: The Cholas

The Cholas ruled in South India between 800 and 1200 CE. The founder of the empire was Vijayalaya who was initially a feudatory of the Pallavas. Vijayalaya built the capital town of Thanjavur, a beautiful city of temples. The glory of the Chola dynasty is, in large measure, attributed to Rajaraja Chola I and Rajendra Chola I.

Famous Kings

Rajaraja Chola I (985–1014 CE)

Rajaraja Chola I initiated the policy of war and conquest by defeating Cheras the and the Pandvas. He invaded Sri Lanka and annexed its northern part to his empire. His kingdom was organised on the lines of efficiency, both economic and military. One of his naval exploits was the conquest of the Maldive



islands. He also annexed Fig 2.6 Rajaraja Chola I the north-western parts of the Ganga region in Karnataka and overran Vengi.

Rajendra Chola I (1014–44 CE)

Rajaraja Chola I was succeeded by his son, Rajendra I who continued his father's expansionist policies. He defeated the western Chalukyas and the Pala rulers of Bengal and completed the conquest of Sri Lanka. He marched across Kalinga to Bengal, crossing the Ganga and defeated the local rulers. To



Fig 2.7 Rajendra Chola I

commemorate his victory, Rajendra I assumed the title of Gangaikondachola or the Chola conqueror of Ganga and built a new capital near the River Kaveri called Gangaikondacholapuram or the city of the Chola conqueror of the Ganga. Rajendra I also defeated the ruler of the Sri Vijaya Empire, which extended over the Malay peninsula, Sumatra, Java and the neighbouring islands, and controlled the overseas trade route with China. Sri Vijaya did not want the Indian merchants to trade with China. The Cholas led an expedition that resulted in the conquest of Kadaram (or Kedah) and the Malaya peninsula and Sumatra. Thus, the Chola navy emerged as the strongest in the Bay of Bengal region.

Chola Administration

The Cholas had a highly organised administrative structure headed by the king and a council of ministers to aid and advise him. In order to protect the country, the Cholas maintained a large army comprising cavalry, infantry, elephants and a strong navy. The empire was divided into *mandalams* or provinces. Each province was further divided into *valanadu* or districts and *nadu* or groups of villages. A large town was administered separately and called a Taniyur. At times, princes were appointed as the governors of provinces. Officials were usually paid by granting them assignments of revenue bearing lands.

Village Administration

The Cholas had a well-developed system of local self-government. The ur and the sabha or mahasabha were the two assemblies. Inscriptions tell us that the *ur* was a general assembly of all classes of people, who owned land within the village. In contrast, the sabha was an assembly found in villages where Brahmins owned all the land as brahmadeya grants. As the Chola rulers granted land to a large number of Brahmins, a number of Brahmin settlements emerged in the Chola Empire. Parantaka's inscription found inside the temple at Uttaramerur describes the functioning of the sabha. It operated through committees. It had different committees to look after various aspects of local administration including temples, gardens, irrigations, assessment of land revenue, maintenance of law and order etc.

The *nagaram*, as the name suggests, was an assembly found in towns and cities. Its members were mainly traders, merchants and sometimes artisans. The *nagaram* played an important role in urban administration.

Economy

The Cholas promoted both inland and overseas trade and commerce. The Coromandel and Malabar coasts served as the centres of India's trade with south-east Asia. To fix the government's share of land revenue, an elaborate land survey was carried out. Taxes were also collected from tolls on trade, professions and from the plunder of neighbouring territories.

Temples

The Chola rulers built many large temples which were the centre of cultural life. Besides being spiritual centres, they also served as places for other activities such ceremonial dances performed by the **devadasis**. The temple was a miniature city or palace with living rooms for priests. The temples usually enjoyed revenue free grants and donations from the wealthy merchants. The style of temple architecture was known as Dravida as it was confined to South India. The building of storey upon storey above the chief deity room called *garbha griha* was the main feature of the Dravida style of temple building.

Chola Inscriptions

Our main sources of information on the Chola dynasty are the inscriptions of the period. The Tamil copper plate inscriptions served not only as title deeds of land grants, but also as records of the conquests and events.

The copper plate inscriptions are actually long documents engraved or embossed on thin sheets of copper which are then punched and tied together. They record grants of land and bear the royal seal to indicate their authenticity. They also contain details about the land, wells, trees, canals, rivers, pastures, etc., types of taxes and fines and all other rights enjoyed by the grantee. At times, they contained royal **genealogies** as well. Inscriptions on stone, pillars and temple walls, such as the ones inside the Brihadeshwara Temple at Thanjavur are useful in reconstructing the history of the period. We get to know about local self-government in the Chola Empire primarily from of the details provided in the Chola king Parantaka I's Uttaramerur temple inscriptions of 919 CE and 921 CE. These inscriptions describe the village assemblies in great detail.

These inscriptions shed light on the socioeconomic life of the medieval period. Some of these also showed the royal seal of the dynasty. Marks of masons are sometimes found on these inscriptions. The inscription we read here tells us about the conquests of King Rajaraja of the Chola dynasty and the gifts made to the temple. The systematic way of giving donations informs us about the organisational capabilities of the ruler. Names of officers like those who collected revenue, managed the temple, aided and advised the king are also mentioned in the inscriptions. Land grants were given to the Brahmins, either individually or collectively.

Language and Literature

The Chola rulers patronised art and literature during the period of their reign. Popular saints called nayanars and alvars, who were devotees of Shiva and Vishnu, respectively, flourished in the

Tamil region between the 6th and 9th centuries. The age of Kamban is considered the golden age of Tamil literature and his Ramayana is considered a classic in Tamil literature.

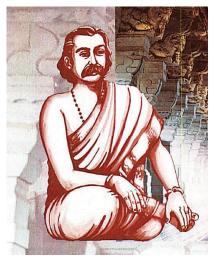


Fig 2.8 Kamban

Spearheads of Turkish Invasion: Ghaznavi and Ghori

Mahmud of Ghazni (998–1030 CE), also called Mahmud Ghaznavi, was a Turkish conqueror who established his empire in Ghazni (present day Afghanistan). As part of his expansionist policy, he raided India 17 times between 1001 and 1027 CE at places like Punjab, Mathura, Multan and Thaneshwar. His most daring raids were at Kanauj in 1018 CE and Somnath in 1025 CE.

He planned his attacks carefully and did not allow his enemies to combine against him. Ghazni did not wish to rule over India. He plundered India and carried away wealth, artisans and learned men. He was closely associated with the rebirth of Iranian culture. He decorated the palaces, mosques and tombs in Ghazni. Many scholars resided at his court. Among them, Firdausi, the author of *Shahnama*, was the most famous. Mahmud's attacks were devastating in nature as they showed the weakness of the existing kingdoms and paved the way for future invasions. He died in 1030 CE at Ghazni. Muhammad Ghori Muizuddin Muhammad bin Sam, also known as Shihabuddin Muhammad Ghori, ascended the throne of Ghazni in 1173 CE. He conquered Multan and Uchch en route to Delhi and the Gangetic Valley and made Punjab his base. Around this time, Prithviraj Chauhan, ascended the throne of Ajmer, defeated the Chandellas and occupied Delhi. So, two powerful rulers, Prithviraj Chauhan and Muhammad Ghori, both desiring control of the Gangetic Valley and Punjab, came into conflict with each other. They fought the two Battles of Tarain in 1191 CE and 1192 CE, respectively.

The First Battle of Tarain resulted in Prithviraj Chauhan's victory. However, in the Second Battle of Tarain, the superior Turkish military and organisational abilities led to Muhammad Ghori's victory and his control over Delhi, Bihar, Bengal and the Ganga-Yamuna doab. After the Battles of Tarain, Muhammad Ghori returned to Ghazni leaving the control of his Indian territory in the hands of his trusted slave, Qutubuddin Aibak.

Sources to study the history of the period Literary sources

Various chronicles, accounts and literary texts including *Shahnama* by Firdausi (A Persian literary masterpiece on the achievements of Mahmud Ghaznavi); *Prashastis* and *Rasos* or long poetic compositions written in praise of different Indian rulers by their court poets; accounts of travellers like Marco Polo; land grant records documented in local languages as well as Sanskrit; writings on the walls of temples; some of the Puranic texts describing the origin of the Rajput clans of solar and lunar lineages (*Surya vanshi* and *Chandra vanshi*) etc.

Non-literary sources

Various monuments and structures such as cave and rock-cut temples, stupas, forts, palaces etc.

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

- The disintegration of Harshavardhana's Empire resulted in the establishment of several small regional kingdoms throughout India.
- The Arabs under Muhammad bin Qasim, were the earliest Muslim invaders to reach the Indian subcontinent.
- The Rajputs, a warrior clan of varied descents, continued to dominate the Indian political scene between 750 CE and 1200 CE.
- The Palas, Rashtrakutas and Gurjara-Pratiharas were engaged in a Tripartite Struggle to acquire control over Kanauj.

- The First and Second Battles of Tarain were fought between Prithviraj Chauhan and Muhammad Ghori in 1191 CE and 1192 CE, respectively.
- The rock-cut temples of Ellora and Elephanta in modern day Maharashtra are the legacy of the Rashtrakuta dynasty.
- The Kalachuris, the Chandels, the Gahadavalas and the Hindu Shahis were the other prominent dynasties that ruled over different parts of Indian Subcontinent during the early medieval period.
- The king was the head of the administration, commander-in-chief of the army and dispenser of justice.
- North India was invaded many times in 11th and 12th centuries by Muslim rulers such as Mahmud of Ghazni and Muhammad Ghori.
- Rajaraja I and Rajendra I were the two famous Chola rulers.
- Inscriptions are the most important sources on the history of the Cholas.

Glossary -

Autonomous Independent | Devadasis Female temple dancers dedicated to the service of God | Expedition A long journey undertaken for a specific purpose | Garrison A group of soldiers residing inside a fort in order to defend it | Genealogy Representation of a person, family or group's descent | Kotwal An official responsible for ensuring law and order issues in towns | Vassal A person under the protection of his overlord to whom he owes allegiance

Exercises

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. _____ and _____ were the two capitals of the Chandelas.
- 2. It was over ______ that the Tripartite Struggle was fought between the ______, the ______ and the ______.
- 3. After Muhammad Ghori left India, the Indian territories were given in the hands of ______ who was his ______.
- 4. _____ plundered India and carried away her wealth, artisans and learned men to his hometown.
- 5. _____ of the Rashtrakuta king defeated the Chalukyas.
- 6. The Pala king ______ established the Vikramshila Buddhist University as well as donated generously to ______ University.
- 7. _____ issued silver coins bearing the emblem of Varaha and called himself Adivaraha.
- 8. _____ was a foreign traveller who wrote extensively about the power and prestige of the Gurjara-Pratiharas.
- 9. Prithviraj Chauhan's reign has been described in detail in ______ written by his court poet ______.
- 10. _____ the Gahadhavala ruler was defeated in the Battle of Chandawar by

- 11. Rajendra I, the Chola ruler, assumed the title of ______ after he successfully conquered territories up to the river ______ in the north.
- 12. Parataka's inscription found inside the temple at ______ describes the functions of a village Sabha under the ______ rulers.

B. Match the columns.

Column A

- 1. Akshapatalika
- 2. Mahasenapati
- 3. Khajuraho Temple
- 4. Prithviraj Chauhan
- 5. Muhammad Ghori

Column B

- a. Ruler from Ajmer and Delhi
- b. I and II Battle of Tarain
- c. Commander of the army
- d. The Chandelas
- e. Revenue Minister

C. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. What was the Tripartite Struggle over Kanauj?
- 2. How can we say the Rashtrakutas and the Chandelas were patrons of art and architecture?
- 3. List the many dynasties that ruled the North India during the beginning of the Medieval Period.
- 4. Who was Kamban nd what is his contribution yo the literature of South India?
- 5. On the outline map of India, identify ad locate Kanauj as well as the three warring dynasties.

D. Answer the following questions in detail.

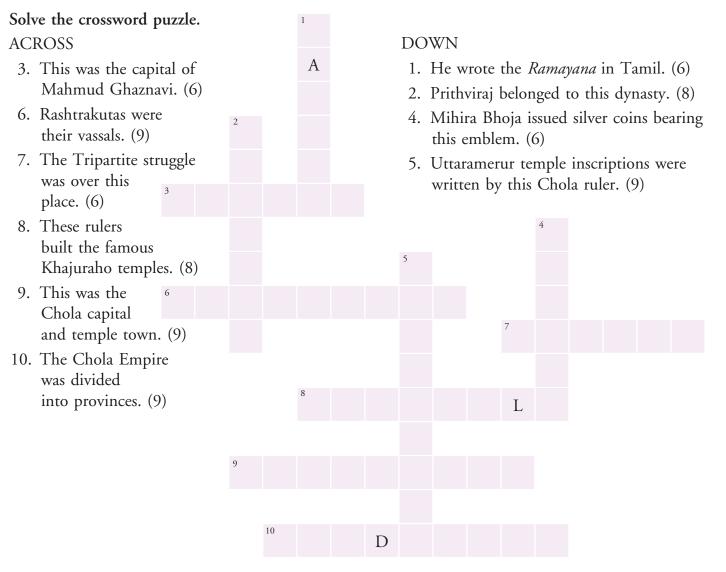
- 1. Why were the important ruling dynasties interested in conquering Kanauj during the beginning of the Medieval period in India?
- 2. Rajaraja Chola I and Rajendra Chola are considered as the most important rulers of the Chola dynasty. Why?
- 3. Write a brief note on the administrative structure of the Imperial Colas.
- 4. List the works of foreign travellers as well as court authors who wrote extensively during the period under our study.
- 5. Chola administration of the provinces, towns and villages was meticulous. Explain how?

Hots

- 1. Temple building was one of the most important teasks of the rulers of the Medieval period in India. Why?
- 2. Had Prithviraj Chauhan defeated Muhammad Ghori in both the Battles of Tarain, the history of India would have been very different. How?

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING





CI

Project

There is a legendary story about Prithviraj Chauhan, who was taken captive by Muhammad Ghori and blinded in prison. In prison, he plotted the murder of his captor with his court poet Chand Bardai. Find out about it and share it with the class.

INFO ORGANISER 1

CHIL

SOME IMPORTANT KINGDOMS (800-1200 CE)

	Founder:
Gurjara-Pratiharas —	Emblem on their coins:
	Famous court poet patronised:
	Foreign traveller to visit their court:
	Founder:
	Emblem on their coins:
Rashtrakutas -	Famous court poet patronised:
And the second s	Foreign traveller to visit their court:
	Founder:
	Emblem on their coins:
Palas	Famous court poet patronised:
L EN CONTRACTOR	Foreign traveller to visit their court:
point Com	Founder:
A Starting N - Drain AS W	Emblem on their coins:
Chauhans D D D	Famous court poet patronised:
	Foreign traveller to visit their court:
Mounder Ordhaum Dominic Dominic States State	Founder:
	Emblem on their coins:
Chandelas	Famous court poet patronised:
HARDEMAN HARDEMAN HARDEMAN	Foreign traveller to visit their court:

TEST ASSIGNMENT 1

A. Tick (\checkmark) the correct answer.										
	1.	The term 'Aparant' or 'pratichya' was used in the ancient texts to refer to the:								
		a. north-western India								
		c. north-eastern India 🗌 d. southern India 🗌								
	2.	Padmavat was a famous literary work composed by:								
		a. Malik Muhammad Jayasi 🗌 b. Banabhatta 🗌								
		c. Kalhan 🗌 d. Amir Khusrau 🗌								
	3.	Who among the following was not one of the foreign travellers visiting India during the medieval period?								
		a. Ralph Fitch 🗌 b. Niccolo Conti 🗌								
		c. Francis Drake 🗌 d. Niccolao Manucci 🗌								
	4.	Which of the following medieval texts provides details about the flora and fauna of India during that time?								
		a. Tuzuk-i-Babri 🗌 b. Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri 🗌								
		c. Futuhat-i-Firoz Shahi 🗌 d. Tabaqat-i-Nasiri								
	5.	Bijjala was a famous ruler.								
		a. Kalachuri \square b. Parmar \square c. Chahamana \square d. Chandela \square								
	6.	was the founder of the Chandela dynasty.								
		a. Vidyadhar 🗌 b. Nannuk 🗌 c. Vakpati 🗌 d. Dhang 🗌								
	7.	Muhammad Ghori defeated the Gahadavala ruler Jayachanda in the Battle of:								
		a. Tarain 🗌 b. Chach 🗌 c. Chandavar 🗌 d. Chausa 🗌								
	8.	The Uttaramerur temple inscriptions of 919 CE is attributed to the Chola king:								
		a. Vijayalaya 🛛 🖄 b. Rajendra Chola I 🔅								
		c. Rajaraja Chola I 🗌 d. Parantaka I 🗌								
	9.	Which of the following was a term used for a type of village assembly during the Chola period?								
		a. nagaram 🗌 b. shreni 🗌 c. ur 🗌 d. vish 🗌								
]	0.	Shahnama, a literary masterpiece that describes the life and achievements of Mahmud								
		Ghaznavi, was composed by:								
		a. Firdausi 🗌 b. Utbi 🗌 c. Al Masudi 🗌 d. Alberuni 🗌								
B.	Fil	l in the blanks.								
	1.	The term 'Dakshinapatha' was used for the upper Deccan north of the river								
	2.	, the capital of Gandhara, was a famous seat of learning and a centre of								
		trade.								
	3.	The Indian subcontinent was referred to as 'the land of seven rivers' in, the sacred book of the Parsees.								
	<i>[</i> .									
	4.	is a historical account of events arranged in the order in which they happened.								
		парренец.								

(Chapters 1-2)

- 5. A symbol or figure used as a mark of identification for something is called an
- 6. _____, the author of the book named *Kitab-al-Hind*, was a famous scholar from Central Asia who visited India during the early medieval period.
- 7. _____ compiled the first Sanskrit grammar in a European tongue.
- 8. *Humayunnama*, written by Humayun's sister _____, is an important source of information regarding the political developments in North India after the death of Babur.
- 9. ______ were decrees issued by the rulers in the medieval period.

10. Athanasius Nikitin's visit to India is described in his book, _____

C. Write True or False.

Babur wrote his autobiography <i>Baburnama</i> in Arabic language.	
Ain-i-Akbari by Abul Fazl mainly focuses on the religious outlook of Akbar.	
Paper was still not in use in the Indian subcontinent during the early medieval period.	
Medieval historians were usually court chroniclers who travelled with their rulers and recorded the events.	
The Arabs tried to invade Sindh for the first time in 643 CE, when their navy attacked the port of Debal in 643 CE.	
The Pratihara king Nagabhatta I and the Chalukya feudatory Pulakesin successfully checked the Arabs' advance.	
Vassals were chieftains who represented clan identities.	
The Gurjara-Pratihara king Mihir Bhoja assumed the title of Adivaraha.	
Dantidurga was the founder of the Gurjara-Pratihara dynasty.	
The rock-cut cave temples at Ellora and Elephanta were built by the Rashtrakutas.	
	 Paper was still not in use in the Indian subcontinent during the early medieval period. Medieval historians were usually court chroniclers who travelled with their rulers and recorded the events. The Arabs tried to invade Sindh for the first time in 643 CE, when their navy attacked the port of Debal in 643 CE. The Pratihara king Nagabhatta I and the Chalukya feudatory Pulakesin successfully checked the Arabs' advance. Vassals were chieftains who represented clan identities. The Gurjara-Pratihara king Mihir Bhoja assumed the title of Adivaraha. Dantidurga was the founder of the Gurjara-Pratihara dynasty. The rock-cut cave temples at Ellora and Elephanta were built

D. Match the following.

		Column A		Column B			
		(king)		(dynasty)			
	1.	Chandradeva	a.	Rashtrakuta			
-	2.	Gand	b.	Hindu Shahi			
-	3.	Vigraharaj	с.	Gahadavala			
2	4.	Trilochanpala	d.	Chauhan			
-	5.	Amoghavarsha	e.	Chandela			
E.]	E. Name the following.						
	1. A group of soldiers residing inside a fort in order to defend it:						
, ,	2. A person under the protection of his overlord to whom he owes allegiance:						

- 3. Female temple dancers dedicated to the service of God:
- 4. A long journey undertaken for a specific purpose: _____

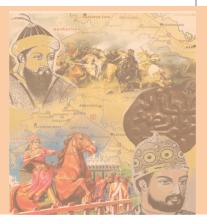
- 5. Representation of a person, family or group's descent:
- 6. An official responsible for ensuring law and order issues in towns:
- 7. The room in a temple where the idol of the chief deity was kept:
- 8. The assembly of traders, merchants and artisans in towns under the Chola administration:
- 9. The chief of a guild of merchants or traders:
- 10. The head of a district in a North Indian Hindu kingdom during the early medieval period:

F. Answer the following questions.

- 1. What did the term 'bhukti' signify in the early medieval period?
- 2. What was the main function of the official called sandhi vigrahik?
- 3. Which ruler of the Hindu Shahi dynasty was referred to by Utbí, the eminent Ghaznavid chronicler, as 'Bhim, the Fearless', and why?
- 4. Discuss the rule of the Gahadavalas, and the reasons for their downfall.
- 5. Describe the major achievements of the Chandela rulers. Who were the prominent rulers of this dynasty?
- 6. Which were the two branches of the Kalachuris? Where did they establish their kingdoms?
- 7. What were the vachanas? Where and when did they originate?
- 8. Which families did the Rajputs claim their descent from? Give some examples of each.
- 9. Describe the impact of the Arab invasion under Muhammad-bin-Qasim. How did it affect the later course of the history of India?
- 10. Describe how the term 'Hindustan', used alternatively for India and Bharat, come into existence.



The Delhi Sultanate



Let's get started

When the Turkish rulers came to settle down in India, they also brought with them the nobles, artists, musicians, court poets and entertainers to decorate their court in India. Imagine you are one such noble who has to leave his hometown to accompany the Sultan. Would you be excited about the prospect? Would you be apprehensive? How will you prepare yourself for the new place and people? How do you think you will contact the people at home? What will you carry along with you as memories of your homeland? Think and answer.

Turkish Rule in India

The beginning of the Turkish rule was an extremely significant event. As we have read in the previous chapter, Muhammad Ghori defeated Prithviraj Chauhan in the Second Battle of Tarain in 1192 CE. After his victory, Ghori left India for his home in Ghazni. However, he was soon killed by a band of Khokhar rebels. His trusted slave, Qutbuddin Aibak, laid the foundation of the Slave dynasty and became the first sultan of Delhi in 1206 CE. This dynasty is also referred to as the Mamluk dynasty. Mamluk is an Arabic word for 'slave'.



Fig 3.1 Battle of Tarain

The Mamluk Dynasty (1206–1290 CE)

Qutbuddin Aibak (1206–10 CE)

Qutbuddin Aibak was the founder and first ruler of what came to be known as the Delhi **Sultanate**. Under him, the modern day Afghanistan and a large part of the northern



Indian subcontinent Fig 3.2 Qutbuddin Aibak formed the Delhi Sultanate. He initially ruled from Lahore, but he shifted his capital to Delhi later. Aibak was nicknamed 'Lakhbaksh' or the giver of lakhs due to his generosity. The Quwwatul-Islam mosque in Delhi and the Adhai-din ka Jhonpra in Ajmer were built during his reign. He also initiated the construction of the Qutb Minar but was unable to complete it. He died in an accident in 1210 CE while playing *chaugan*, a kind of polo on horseback.

Iltutmish (1210–36 CE)

Iltutmish, a trusted slave and son-in-law of Qutbuddin Aibak, is regarded by historians as the real architect of Turkish rule in North India. He ascended the throne in 1210 CE despite great opposition from the Turkish nobility and external revolts. With a view to winning the support of the nobles, he granted them land and focused his attention on strengthening his empire. He conquered Ranthambore, Bayana, Mandor and Jalor while crushing the revolts in Bengal and Bihar, and annexing them in his



Fig 3.3 Iltutmish

empire. He also strengthened the north-western frontier to safeguard it against Mongol invasions. To make his administration efficient, Iltutmish organised the Turkish nobility into a select group of forty nobles called *chalisa* or *chahalgani*.

Raziya Sultan (1236–39 CE)

Raziya Sultan, the daughter of Iltutmish, was the only Muslim woman ruler of Delhi. Referring to her, Minhaj-us-Siraj, chronicler of the period, says, "She was a great monarch, wise, a dispenser of justice and protector of her subjects



Fig 3.4 Raziya Sultan

but born of the wrong gender. So, in the estimation of men, all her virtues were worthless."

Opposing the gender bias and cultural orthodoxy of her age, she wore male attire and appeared in public without any veil. She established law and order throughout the empire. Her rule triggered a power struggle between the sultan and the *chahalgani*. The nobility opposed her rule and also disapproved of the high position she granted to her Ethiopian slave, Yakut. Eventually, they revolted against her. She was killed as part of a conspiracy by the nobles while she was on her way to reclaim her empire.

Nasiruddin Mahmud (1246–66 CE) and Ghiyasuddin Balban (1266–87 CE)

Raziya was succeeded by her brother Nasiruddin Mahmud. He died in 1266 and was succeeded by Ghiyasuddin Balban, his prime minister and a former member of the *chahalgani*. After ascending the throne, Balban faced opposition from the Turkish chiefs who wanted someone of their choice to occupy the throne. With a view to suppressing them, he sought to centralise all power and authority in his own hands.

His policy is called the policy of 'blood and iron'. Adopting this policy, he laid the foundation of a centralised government and asserted the need for noble origin and prestige of the monarchy. Balban is also credited with having established an efficient spy system to keep himself informed and to ensure the loyalty of the people towards the throne. The Ganga-Yamuna Doab was cleared of all robbers. Similarly, the Mewatis, who often plundered Delhi, were suppressed ruthlessly. Balban also started the Persian customs of sijda and paibos intended to show loyalty towards the sultan. He took important measures to ensure impartiality in the administration of justice. During his reign, the powerful group of the chahalgani nobles was completely broken. In all, Balban strengthened the Delhi Sultanate, in particular its form of government and institutions, thereby paving the way for its expansion.



3.5 Coins issued by Balban

The Khalji Dynasty (1290–1320 CE)

Ghiyasuddin Balban died in 1287 CE. His successors were too weak and incompetent to carry forward his legacy. In 1290 ce, a noble named Jalaluddin Khalji killed Balban's grandson, Kaiqubad and established the Khalji dynasty. The end of Turkish rule by Jalaluddin Khalji, a man of non-Turkish origin, is referred to as the Khalji Revolution.

Jalaluddin Khalji (1290–96 CE)

Jalaluddin Khalji suppressed the revolts of Balban's successors and overcame the external threat of the Mongols. His brief rule was based on the participation of people in the process of governance and tolerance towards different religious communities.

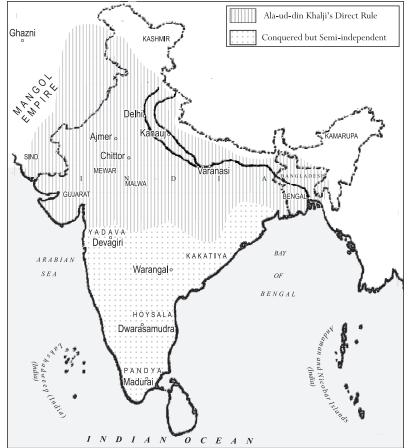
Alauddin Khalji (1296–1316 CE)

Jalaluddin Khalji was killed and succeeded by his nephew and son-in-law, Alauddin Khalji. Alauddin was ambitious. He established a vast empire in India by conquering Gujarat, Malwa and parts of Rajasthan. He had great



Fig 3.6 Alauddin Khalji

administrative skills and military genius. His first military campaign against Gujarat enabled him to have an access to its ports and overseas trade. He also undertook military campaigns to conquer



Map 3.1 India under Alauddin Khalji

Ranthambore, Chittor, Malwa and Jalore in Rajasthan. He sent his trusted commander Malik Kafur to acquire control of the Deccan, and thus became the first Delhi sultan to cross the Vindhya region. The fabulous wealth that his Deccan campaign earned him drew the sultan to the south. Malik Kafur was entrusted the charge of all southern campaigns. By 1313 CE, the Yadavas of Devagiri, the Kakatiyas of Warangal, the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra and the Pandyas of Madurai accepted the overlordship of Alauddin. In Delhi, he built the famous Alai Darwaza, in the Qutb Minar complex to commemorate his Deccan conquests.

Moroccan traveller Ibn Battuta, who visited the Indian subcontinent around this time, says that Alauddin ruled almost the entire country for a brief period of time with Malik Kafur as his viceregent (deputy).

The Tughlaq Dynasty: A Case Study

Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq (1320–25 CE)

Alauddin Khalji died in 1316 CE. His death was followed by a brief period of political unrest. In 1320, the last Khalji ruler Khusro Khan was killed by Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq. An able statesman and administrator, Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq laid the foundation of a new dynasty called the Tughlaq dynasty. He believed that the state should be based on the support of the people. He carried out many works of public utility and built



Fig 3.7 Tughlaqabad fort in Delhi built by Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq

the famous Tughlaqabad Fort in Delhi. He died in 1324 CE. He was succeeded by his son Jauna Khan who assumed the name, Muhammad bin Tughlaq after becoming the sultan.

Muhammad Bin Tughlaq (1325–51 CE)

Muhammad bin Tughlaq was a very learned man. He was well-versed in Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian. He also had a over good command religion, philosophy, science and literature. He tried to resolve disputes through secular measures. He undertook numerous



Fig 3.8 Muhammad bin Tughlag

experimental projects. Despite being innovative, these projects failed since they lacked prudence.

Muhammad bin Tughlaq's empire included the southern states, present day Odisha, Bengal and the Deccan. Shortly after his accession to the throne, he decided to transfer the capital from Delhi to Devagiri (renamed Daulatabad) in the Deccan. Due to the central location of Devagiri, the sultan thought it would enable him to exercise control throughout the country and protect the Sultanate against continuous Mongol attacks. Historians think that he ordered not only the transfer of his court and officials but the entire population. Extensive arrangements were made for the long journey that covered a distance of around 1,500 km. Temporary shelters were set up along the way and free food and drinks were supplied. Nevertheless, many people did not survive the long and arduous journey and the operation turned out to be a total failure. As his ministers, courtiers and soldiers were not keen to stay at the new location, Muhammad bin Tughlaq ordered their return to Delhi.

Another daring experiment undertaken by Muhammad bin Tughlaq was the issuing of bronze and copper token currency. This measure aimed to overcome the financial crisis owing to the drain on the royal treasury as a result of his schemes. Such coins had the same value as the gold and silver coins (known as tanka). People were encouraged to use them in their transactions. Soon, new coins began to be forged at an alarming rate and all the token currency had to be withdrawn from the market. Muhammad bin Tughlaq also increased the land tax in the Ganga-Yamuna Doab region in order to meet the expenses of the army. Unfortunately, this measure was taken at a time when the region was passing through a famine. So, the peasants of the region strongly opposed it.

Firoz Shah Tughlaq (1351–88 CE)

Muhammad bin Tughlaq died in 1351 and was succeeded by his cousin, Firoz Shah Tughlaq. He aimed to consolidate his empire and took a number of measures to reform the administration. He undertook many welfare measures such as banning the practice of inhuman punishments, establishment of hospitals for the poor etc. Firoz founded the city of Firozabad. People were happy during his reign. When he died in 1388, a series of rebellions broke out which hastened the end of the Tughlaq rule.

Timur's Invasion (1398 ce)

Due to the weakness of the Delhi Sultanate, it became vulnerable to external invasions. Timur, the ruler of Samarkand in Central Asia and the founder of the Timurid dynasty, invaded India in 1398 cE. His army plundered Delhi and carried away enormous booty and



Fig 3.9 Timur

many Indian artisans. The last Tughlaq ruler, Nasiruddin was unable to check the invader.

I.Q.

What were the major causes of Timur's invasion? Why did Timur prefer not to stay back in India and expand his empire in the subcontinent?

The Sayyid Dynasty (1414–1451 CE)

When Timur left Delhi, he appointed Khizr Khan as his viceroy. Khizr Khan went on to establish the Sayyid dynasty and took over as the Sultan of Delhi in 1414. He was succeeded by his son, Mubarak Shah in 1421. Yahya-bin-Ahmad Sirhindi's book *Tarikh-i-Mubarak Shahi* gives a detailed account of Mubarak Shah's reign. Mubarak Shah was succeeded by his nephew Muhammad Shah. He was succeeded by his son and the last ruler of the dynasty, Alauddin Alam Shah.

The Lodi Dynasty (1451–1526 CE) and Decline of the Sultanate

In 1451, Alauddin Alam Shah abdicated the throne. This gave Bahlol Lodi, the governor of Sirhind (Punjab), the opportunity to become the new sultan of Delhi. The new dynasty that he founded came to be known as the Lodi dynasty.



Fig 3.10 Ibrahim Lodi

It was the first Afghan dynasty that comes to power during the Sultanate period. Bahlol died in 1489 and was succeeded by his son Sikandar Lodi. He founded the city of Agra in 1503 CE. He was succeeded by his son Ibrahim Lodi in 1517 CE. In the First Battle of Panipat fought in 1526 CE, Ibrahim Lodi was defeated by Babur. It dealt the final fatal blow to the Delhi Sultanate. We will read about this in detail in the next chapter.

Administration in the Sultanate

The Sultan

The sultan was at the centre of the Sultanate administration. He protected the empire against external attacks and was responsible for maintaining law and order. He acted as the commanderin-chief of the army and the chief justice of the Sultanate.

Nobles and Officials

The sultan's court consisted of officials who were responsible for effective functioning of the administrative machinery. The wazir and his deputies looked after the issues relating to income, expenditure, collection of revenue and control of the revenue. The *ariz-i-mumalik* and his deputies looked after the recruitment of soldiers, their training and equipment. The *wakil-i-dar* was responsible for looking after the affairs relating to the household of the sultan, the palace guards and the personal assistants. The *amir-i-hajib* was the master of ceremonies at the court while the chief *qazi* headed the justice department.

The nobles occupied civilian and military positions in the Sultanate. They assisted the sultan in the discharge of his responsibilities as the ruler of the empire. In terms of rank, the Khans occupied the top position followed by the Maliks and the Amirs. The nobles got their salaries from the revenue assigned to them. As per the Iqta system, the land resources of the Sultanate were divided among the nobles in lieu of cash for their services. Iqtadars collected taxes from the farmers and used them to maintain the army.

Slaves had a huge presence in the royal household. They served as personal assistants as well as administrative officials. With a view to meeting the requirements of the royal palace, karkhanas or workshops, under Maliks, were set up. In these karkhanas, various items such as cloth, paintings and other articles were produced. Occasionally, military goods were also produced in these workshops.

Army

The army was a significant part of the Sultanate because it aided the sultan to stay in power, expand and defend his empire. The army comprised of the infantry or foot soldiers, cavalry or horse soldiers, archers and elephants. Horses of fine quality received great attention and therefore, they were imported from Arabia. Alauddin Khalji maintained a detailed description of each soldier known as *chehra*. Each horse was branded in his army known as *dagh*. During his reign, land revenue was collected in cash. Soldiers were also paid in cash.

Division of the Sultanate

The Delhi Sultanate was divided into provinces known as *subas*, which were further divided into *shiqs. Parganas* were the subdivisions of the *shiqs*, which comprised several villages. The province was headed by a governor or *muqti* while the *shiqdar* was the head of a *shiq*. The *amil* was the head of the *pargana*. The landowners, known as *khuts* and *muqaddams*, were the most important officials in the village. The village accountant or *patwari* maintained records of land, crops and taxes to be paid.

Economic and Social Life

Economy

The sultan relied heavily on regular income from the land in order to pay the officials, maintain the army and construct buildings. Different types of taxes such as *kharaj* or land tax, house tax, etc., were levied to extract revenue. Alauddin Khalji is known for the unique market reform policy he introduced during his reign. The prices of essential commodities like food grains, sugar, cooking oil, cloth, horses, cattle and slaves were fixed by him along with the introduction of standardised weights and measures. As a result of commodity price regulation, the sultan earned the support of the people. The market was under the control of an officer known as shahna, who maintained a register of merchants and controlled the shopkeepers and prices. The revenue payable depended on the measurement of the land and its yield. The khuts and muqaddams also had to pay taxes. Muhammad bin Tughlaq introduced new cesses or local taxes. He continued the demand one half of the produce as tax from the peasants. However, lack of rainfall and famine led to the farmer's inability to pay taxes, which resulted in rebellions against the Sultan. His successor Firoz Shah Tughlaq introduced significant modifications in the tax structure.

Society

All the administrative posts in the Sultanate were reserved for the nobles who constituted the ruling class in society. The distinctions of the caste system permeated to all religions. Slaves were bought and sold in huge numbers in the market. At times, they rose up to high posts in the administrative structure and army.

The peasants lived in conditions of abject poverty. They were subjected to oppression from revenue officials and their demands for heavy taxes.

The Political System and Governance under the Sultans of Delhi

- The Turkish sultans in India declared themselves Lieutenant of the faithful, i.e., of the Abbasid Caliphate of Baghdad and included his name in Khutba. This, however, did not mean that the Caliph became the legal ruler. The Caliph had only a moral position.
- Political, legal and military authorities were vested in the sultan. He was responsible for administration and was also the commander-in-chief of the military forces. He was also responsible for the maintenance of law and justice.
- No clear law of succession developed among Muslim rulers. Thus, military strength was the main factor in succession to the throne.
- With the exceptions of Alauddin Khalji and Mubarak Shah Khalji, all other sultans styled themselves as duputies of the Caliph assuming titles such as Nasir-i-amir ur Momin—assistant of the leader of the faithful or Yamin ul Khalifa, i.e., the right hand man of the Caliph.

- When the Turks conquered the country, they divided it into a number of tacts called *Iqtas*, which were assigned among the leading Turkish nobles. The holders of the office were called *Muqtis* or *Walis*. It was these tracts, which later become the Caliph province or *subah*.
- Below the province were the *Shiqs* and below them the *pargana*. We are told that the villages were grouped into units of 100 or 84 traditionally called *Chaurasi*. The *pargana* was headed by *Amil*.
- The Sultanate of Delhi was a police state, whose strength or weakness depended exclusively on the military powers and personality of its depostic sultan.
- The sultan was assisted in the discharge of his function by a number of dignitaries. To begin with, the sultans of the Slave dynasty constituted four ministers at the top level.
- When the Sultanate was well-established, two more department heads were raised to the status of central ministers, viz sadrus-sadur and the diwan-i-qaza.
- The Commander of the royal army, next to the sultan, the crown prince, and the six or seven dignitaries constituted the nucleus of the council of advisers, called *majilis-i-am* of *majilis-i-khas*, which comprised the most trusted and the highest officers of the state.
- The wazir, also styled as vakil was the prime minister and his department was called the diwan-i-wizarat. He was the head of the finance department and usually held overall charge of the entire administrative set up.
- The head of the army establishment or the ministry of defence was the *diwan-i-arz*. He was responsible for the organisation and the maintenance of the royal army and excercised disciplinary control over it.
- The department of correspondence and records of the royal court was called *diwan-i-insha*; it was held under the charge of a central minister, variously known as the *dabir-i-mamlik*, *dabir-i-khas* or *amir munshi*.
- The diwan-i-risalat consistuted the fourth pillar of the imperial administration of the Sultanate. Under the period of Slave dynasty, the head of the department was sadar-us-sadur, who was primarily a minister for ecclesiastical affairs.
- Barid-i-mamlik (intelligence and information); Vakil-i-barbak (royal household); Amir-i-majlis (celebrations & meetings); Amir-i-Shikar (royal hunts); Kotwals (Qazi of metropolis), etc. were other important officials of the time.

Sources to study the history of the period Literary sources

Numerous texts written by court historians and poets such as Minhaj-us-Siraj, Ziauddin Barani, Isami, Firishta, Amir Khusrau, etc.; accounts of foreigners such as Ibn Battuta; official documents, royal decrees and edicts; writings on the walls of different monuments such as the Qutb Minar

Non-literary sources

Monuments such as mosques, palaces, forts, tombs, mausoleums and buildings used for common purposes. Some of the famous monuments of this period include Qutb Minar in Delhi, Quwwasul Islam Mosque, Adhai-Din-ka-Jhonpda, Hauz Khas, Siri Fort, Alai Darwaza, Tomb of Sikandar Lodi etc. Apart from these, various coins issued during this period such as *jital* and *tanka* are also important sources of study.

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

- Qutbuddin Aibak, a slave of Muhammad Ghori, founded the Mamluk or Slave dynasty and became the first sultan of Delhi in 1206 CE.
- Iltutmish, the successor of Aibak, was the real consolditor of Turkish power in North India.
- Raziya Sultan, the daughter of Iltutmish, was the first female ruler of the Delhi Sultanate.
- Ghiyasuddin Balban adopted a policy of blood and iron, through which he firmly handled the affairs of the state.
- The sultan was responsible for maintaining law and order in the empire. He was the commander-in-chief of the army and dispensed justice as well.
- The nobles held both civilian and military posts in the Delhi Sultanate.
- The army comprised infantry, cavalry, archers and elephants.
- Alauddin Khalji introduced practical and innovative economic reforms during his reign.
- Muhammad bin Tughlaq's experiments lacked prudence and ended in failure.
- Timur's invasion of India in 1398 CE exposed the weaknesses of the Delhi Sultanate.
- The Lodis were the first royal line of Afghans that ruled over Delhi.
- The First Battle of Panipat in 1526 CE ended in the defeat of Ibrahim Lodi and dealt the final blow to the existence of the Delhi Sultanate.

Glossary

Chahalgani A group of forty Turkish nobles | **Commemorate** To remind people of an important event from the past with a special action or object | **Hegemony** Control or authority exercised over others | **Overlordship** Supremacy as a ruler | **Paibos** The custom of bending before the sultan and kissing his feet | **Sijda** A custom in which a person had to kneel and touch the ground with his forehead before the sultan | **Sultanate** A kingdom under the rule of a sultan

EXERCISES

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. Muhammad Ghori left India in the hands of his trusted ______ who started the Mamluk dynasty.
- 2. The word 'Mamluk' in _____ means slave.
- 3. Qutbuddin Aibak, the first Sultan over Delhi, was also nicknamed ______ due to his generosity.
- 4. _____ is regarded by historians as the true architect of the Turkish rule in North India.
- 5. _____ was the daughter of Iltutmish and the only Muslim woman ruler of Delhi.
- 6. The select group of forty nobles that was organised by Iltutmish for the efficient administration of his officials is called the _____.
- 7. Nasiruddin Balban adopted the policy of ______ in order to lay the foundation of a centralised government and assert the need for noble origin and prestige of the monarchy.
- 8. Balban started the Persian customs of ______ and _____ intended to show loyalty towards the Sultan.
- 9. _____ became the first Delhi Sultan to cross the _____ region and go to the southern part of India.

- 10. The ______ in Delhi's Qutb Minar complex was constructed by Alauddin Khalji to commemorate his victory over the Deccan.
- 12. All the ambitious ______ of Muhammad Bin Tughluq failed because he was far ahead of his times.
- 13. Ahmad Sirhindi's book ______ gives a detailed account of the Sayyid dynasty ruler
- 14. Sikandar Lodi was the founder of the city of _____.
- 15. During the Sultanate period, the post of 'ariz-i-mumalik' was created to look after the recruitment of the _____.

B. Write True or False.

1.	The 'amir-i-hajib' was the head of the justice department during the Delhi Sultanate.	
2.	Elephants were imported from Arabia and great attention was paid to them in the army under the Sultanates.	
3.	Alauddin Khalji started the 'chehra' and 'dagh' for keeping a detailed description of his soldiers and branding his horses respectively.	
4.	Alauddin Khalji is known in history for his revolutionary reforms in the field of the army and the market during the Sultanate period.	
5.	Muhammad Bin Tughluq had to cancel issuing token currencies as they could be easily forged and minted without the knowledge of the government.	

C. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. Why did Raziya Sultan face so much opposition from her nobility despite being a deserving ruler?
- 2. With what intentions did Balban introduce court customs like 'sijda' and 'paibos'?
- 3. Feroz Shah Tughluq adopted a policy of appeasement towards the nobles and Ulemas. How do we know that?
- 4. Why did Muhammad Bin Tughluq change his capital from Delhi to Daulatabad and again back to Delhi?
- 5. What was the position of the Sultanate during the Delhi Sultanate?
- 6. Alauddin Khalji's reforms in the army are considered revolutionary. What were they?
- 7. The Qarachil expedition of Muhammad Bin Tughluq ended in a failure. Why?
- 8. Why is Iltutmish considered the real architect of the Delhi Sultanate?

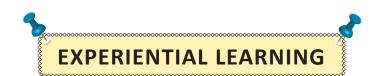
D. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. What were the five experiments that were carried out under the rule of Muhammad Bin Tughluq? Why were they not successful?
- 2. Sketch out the role played by the Turkish nobility under the Delhi Sultans.
- 3. Write a brief note on the achievements of Alauddin Khalji.

- 4. What were the different offices created by the Sultanate to look after its daily administration? Write a brief note on it.
- 5. Why has Ibn Battuta said that Alauddin Khalji ruled almost the entire of India?

Hots

- 1. Both Alauddin Khalji and Muhammad Bin Tughluq are considered great reformist rulers of Delhi Sultanate but while the former's reforms were seen as successful, the latter's were not. Why?
- 2. While Alauddin Khalji controlled the prices of essential commodities in the market, he also paid his soldiers very less salary and yet there are no reports of soldiers being unhappy with him. Why? What connections do you see in this situation?



LIFE SKILLS

SOCIAL SKILL, THINKING SKILL

- A. Do a class dramatisation on Muhammad Bin Tughluq and the various reforms that were introduced by him. Let your teacher select five students (irrespective of gender) who can play the role of Muhammad Bin Tughluq and allow him/her to introduce each one of these reforms one by one with each character introducing one reform at a time. Let the character explain the reason behind introducing the reform while the rest of the class plays the role of subjects who are empowered to raise questions over these reforms. Have Muhammad Bin Tughluq defend the reasons behind these reforms to the subjects as meticulously as possible.
- B. Qutbuddin Aibak died of a freak accident when he fell down from the horseback while playing a kind of polo, twisted and broke his neck. Similar accidents can happen to us as well while playing different sports in the field. Make a list of precautions that as players we must take while playing the following games:

kabaddi
cricket
football
basketball
hockey

You can choose any three out of these five.

Αстіνіту

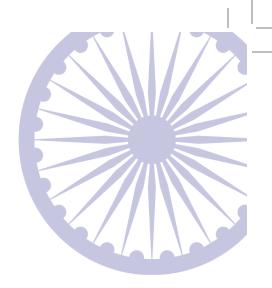
A. Imagine that you are Raziya Sultan, facing a lot of opposition from various sections in the nobility. Write a diary entry reflecting her state of mind over the partial and uncooperative attitude of the nobles in the court.

B. Find the eight hidden words in this word search.

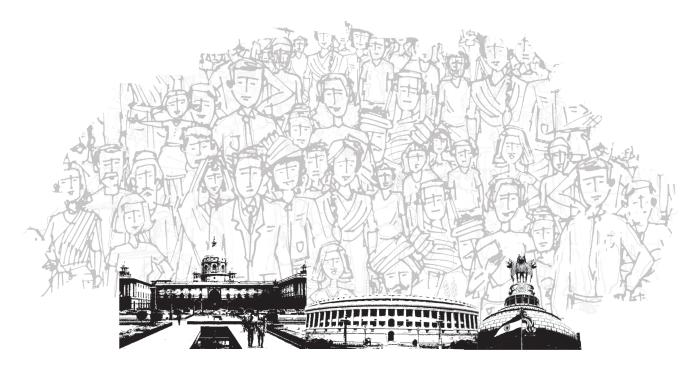
В	Х	V	М	А	М	L	U	K	D
А	E	R	А	S	D	F	L	Ν	М
L	D	D	L	А	R	R	E	S	С
В	W	R	Ι	S	L	А	М	Х	Z
А	Х	С	K	Н	А	R	А	J	S
Ν	Q	W	Е	R	Т	Y	S	U	Ι
0	Р	А	K	S	D	Т	F	G	Н
Q	А	R	А	С	Η	Ι	L	D	G
С	С	V	F	В	Ν	М	М	Ν	J
W	Q	R	U	E	Y	U	Т	Ι	U
А	S	D	R	F	G	R	Н	J	Κ
Ζ	Х	С	V	В	Ν	М	U	Ι	0

MAP SKILLS

On the outline map of India, identify and locate the southern Provinces that were captured by Alauddn Khalji but left independent. Also, mark the extent of the rule of Alauddin Khalji.



Part III Social and Political Life



Learning Outcomes

DEMOCRACY AND EQUALITY

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the meaning of democracy as well as its earliest use as a political order in the ancient times.
- the manner in which democracy has evolved from the ancient to the modern times.
- the different types of governments throughout the world as well as the different types of democracies owing to changes in the population figures as well as the preference of the people.
- and identify the benefits of a democratic order as it promotes equality in all its forms.
- and evaluate the case studies of inequalities around the world and the response of democracy to these inequalities.

INSTITUTIONAL REPRESENTATION OF DEMOCRACY

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the history of Universal Adult Franchise as well as its application in the election process in a democracy.
- and acknowledge the role of the Election Commission in holding free and fair elections in a democracy.
- the role of political parties in the process of elections in a democracy as well as their role post-elections as the ruling party or as the opposition.
- the different party systems that exist in the country as well as the different levels at which these political parties operate.

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the composition of the state legislatures and the manner in which they function.
- and list the qualifications required to be a member of the state legislature as well as its tenure and functions.
- the process through which laws are made in the states.
- the powers and functions of the Chief Minister, the Council of Ministers, the Governor as well as the Advocate General in the states of India.
- and identify the role played by civil servants in the administration of the states and the Union Territories.

ROLE OF THE STATE GOVERNMENT: HEALTHCARE

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the meaning of the Directive Principles of State Policy and recall some of these policies that the states in India are expected to follow.
- the role of state governments in providing healthcare services to the public.

- and identify the drawbacks of the healthcare services provided by the State Governments and how private healthcare services differ from these.
- the functions performed by State governments in the field of land reforms and education.

MEDIA AND DEMOCRACY

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- and recognize the meaning of media and the different types of media.
- the connection between media and public opinion as well as its role in the formulation of public opinion.
- media ethics and the Right to Information Act.

ADVERTISING

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the different forms of advertising and the objectives with which advertisements are made.
- and recognize brand value and its role in creation of choice and opinion among the public.
- the different kinds of advertising.
- the impact of advertising on the lives of the common people.

UNDERSTANDING GENDER: SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASPECTS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the meaning of the term 'gender' as well as the manner in which inequality exists in our country in the name of gender.
- the position of women in Indian society as well as the manner in which social reform movements have affected their position.
- the general manner in which women's labour is approached in society and the condition of working women.
- and appreciate the role played by the country's Constitution in bringing about laws that enforce equal rights for women.

MARKETS

At the end of the lesson, the student will understand:

- the manner in which markets have evolved and the different types of markets that exist todays.
- the difficulties faced by farmers and solutions.
- the causes behind black marketeering and its evil effects on society.
- the different types of retailers as well as the popularity that the markets enjoy in present times.

Democracy and Equality



Summer vacations were almost getting over, and the children of Adarsh Cooperative Society were planning to organise a mango-eating competition for the elders. It would be the best way to beat the heat, they thought. Mansi informed her father, excitedly, "Papa, we will organise the competition on the last Sunday of June, please keep yourself free." Mr Mathur, however, was not free on Sunday. "Beta, all of us will be busy in the general body meeting of the Resident's Welfare Association of our society to elect the managing committe. The committee looks after the general administration of our society. So, all the residents of the society have to attend the meeting." he said. Mansi was disappointed, "But papa, why is it so important to elect the managing committee? The managing committee can be formed on its own," she said. "Beta, we live in a democracy, and electing a body that would take care of governance is an important aspect of democracy. Don't we have elections to elect the government of our country?" Mr Mathur replied. 'Elections', 'democracy' were some of the terms Mansi had learnt in her previous class, and also heard them on television many times. But surely, 'democracy' must be something really important, she wanted to know more about it.

In this chapter, we will learn more about democracy.

Meaning of democracy

Democracy means rule of the people. It is a combination of two Greek words—'demos' which means 'people' and 'kratos' which means 'rule'. American President Abraham Lincoln described democracy as 'government of the people, by the people and for the people'. In Mansi's society, the Managing Committee is a mini-government. It will be made up of people living in the society (of the people); it will be elected by the residents of the society (by the people) and it will look after the administration of the society (for the people).

Today, democracy is the most popular form of government all around the world. When and how did democracy originate? Let us look at the journey of democracy.

History of democracy



The Assembly in the ancient city state of Athens



The Roman senate marked one of the first stages in the evolution of the democratic system



The feudal system in medieval Europe was characterised by the absence of democratic spirit in governance.



The signing of the Magna Carta was the first ever expression of people's will prevailing upon the interests of the Crown.

- In Athens, the ancient city-state of Greece, all the male citizens formed a body called the Assembly that took the important decisions of the state. This was perhaps the earliest form of direct democracy where people directly participated in governance. But slaves, women and people of other states living in Athens were not a part of the Assembly and did not participate in the decision-making.
- Democracy developed further in the Roman Empire (509–27 BCE) and played an important role. An assembly of important citizens called the Senate was formed and people elected consuls to run the government for a one-year term.
- In the age of feudalism that came after the fall of the Roman Empire, democracy was almost forgotten. It was an age of violence, wars and the tyranny of the kings.
- -An important milestone in the history of democracy was the signing of the Magna Carta in 1215 CE. It is also known as The Great Charter of the Liberties of England. The Magna Carta was a document that the king was made to sign by a group of nobles. It restricted the privileges of the king, and established that the king could only punish people on the basis of the laws of the land. Even the king himself was not above the law; the nobles could punish him if he broke the law.
- The American War of Independence was the next important step in the history of





The American War of Independence against British colonialism was followed by the establishment of a democratic system in the USA.

The French Revolution was based on the principles of equality, liberty and fraternity that still serve as the fundamental ideals of democracy.

democracy. Thirteen British colonies in North America declared war against the British monarchy. In 1776, the colonies adopted a document called the United States Declaration of Independence, which stated that the colonies were no longer a part of the British Empire, and they were forming a new sovereign statethe United States of America.

One of the most important events that brought about the downfall of monarchy and the establishment of democracy was the French Revolution (1789–99 CE). The French society was divided into three classes or estates. The first estate, comprising the priests and religious leaders, and the second estate comprising the nobility ruled over the third estate, which almost entirely comprised of poor peasants. The third estate was made to pay all the taxes while the king and the first and second estates led a lavish life. Finally, the third estate revolted that led to the fall of the monarchy. A National Constituent Assembly was formed with representatives of all the three estates. It adopted the Declaration of Rights of Man and of the Citizen in 1789, which stated that 'all men are equal by nature and before the law'.

Find out

Feudalism was a political and economic system that flourished in Europe between the ninth and fifteenth centuries. It was a complex system, with the king, the lord, the fief, the vassal and the peasant. Find out more about feudalism at www. historyforkids.org and www.britannica.com.

Other forms of government

While looking at the history of democracy, we have seen that democracy essentially developed as a response to other forms of governments, such as **monarchy** and **dictatorship**.

Monarchy is the rule of the king. It is the earliest form of government. In a monarchy, the king has absolute powers, and sometimes, he is helped by his council of ministers. History is full of stories of just, benevolent kings as well as those who were cruel and unjust.

Another form of government is dictatorship. In such a system, one person, called the dictator, assumes all powers and rules a country according to his/her own wish. Dictators often tend to become oppressive and unjust. Dictatorship, therefore, results in an unpopular form of government.

A republican form of government is based on the principles of democracy, where the head of the state (the president) is elected by the people.

Types of democracy

We have read that all the male citizens in Athens were members of the Assembly, a body that took all the important decisions. India is a democracy. But do you think all the citizens of India directly take part in all the decisions of the government? Why? Let us try to understand.

In modern times, there are two kinds of democracy—direct and indirect.

Direct democracy is a form of democracy where the citizens directly participate in the affairs of the government. Today, direct democracy exists only in small countries such as Switzerland.

A more popular form of democracy is indirect democracy or representative democracy, where people choose their representatives through elections to form the government. Elections are held after regular intervals, so that people can choose their own representatives. All the citizens of a country, without any discrimination, are allowed to take part in the elections. Thus, all people have equal rights in choosing the government. **Equality** plays a very important role in the successful working of a democracy. Let us know more about equality.

Democracy and equality

- Daughter of an auto rickshaw driver in Mumbai tops the Chartered Accountancy examinations.
- Daughter of a very poor farmer becomes the first doctor of her village.
- A poor newspaper vendor gets admission into a very famous management institute in Kolkata.
- Girls score more than boys in CBSE All India Examinations.
- A talented cricketer from the tribal community has been selected to play for Team India.

What do these reports show? Such reports show that in a democracy like India, every person has an equal opportunity to lead his/her own life and follow his/her own ambitions. There is no discrimination on the basis of caste, creed, religion, sex or gender. Any boy or girl from any part of the country can become a doctor or an engineer if he/she has the right talent. He/She will face no discrimination due to his/her caste, sex or economic background. Similarly, any person, if he/she has enough talent, can represent India in a particular sport or music or dance. There will be no discrimination on the basis of his/ her social background. During elections, all the citizens of India are allowed to vote, without any restrictions on the basis of caste, creed, religion or gender. Thus, we can see that equality is an important aspect of democracy.

There are different kinds of equality.

Political equality

In a democracy, all the adult citizens of a country have the right to vote. This is called universal adult franchise. It is an example of **political equality**. In India, every citizen has the right to caste their votes during elections. Moreover, everyone is treated equally by the law of the land.

Religious equality

Religious equality means that people belonging to all religions are treated equally. The government cannot discriminate against anyone on the basis of religion. Every religion has equal importance and festivals of all the religions are celebrated with equal respect.

Economic equality

Economic equality means equal opportunity for everybody to earn a livelihood.

There is no discrimination on the basis of caste, creed or religion. It means that the workers will not be exploited by their employers, or the farmers will not be exploited by their landlords. It also means equal pay for equal work. Everybody should get the same amount of money for the work they do, irrespective of his/her caste, gender or religion.

Social equality

Social equality means all the citizens living in the society have equal rights to visit all the public places of the country, such as playgrounds, hotels, shops, or markets and wells, roads, and toilets. All the people are treated equally and have equal rights and duties. In India, the laws of the country recognise everybody as equal. Discriminatory practices such as untouchability has been abolished and is punishable by law.

A democracy is only successful where all kinds of equality prevails and people live in a free, unrestricted environment.

I.Q.

Can you think of some other forms of equality?

Marginalisation

Even though equality is such an important feature 256

of a democracy, many kinds of inequalities still exist in a democratic country like India. Let us look at some examples.

- In our houses, the house helps are often not allowed to sit on the sofa or the dining table. They are made to sit on the floor and are given separate beds and utensils. This is an example of social inequality.
- Rohit's father is a poor daily-wage labourer. He cannot afford to send his children to school. Every morning, when they see children of their age going to school in a big bus, they want to go to school themselves. But then they remember, they are too poor to go to school. This is economic inequality.

Many such incidents show that economic and social inequality are still very common. Social practices such as the caste system and less pay for women are important reasons for such inequalities. In India, for many years, people belonging to the upper class or the dominant class, have treated the subordinate classes unfairly, resulting in huge inequalities in the society. They have been subjected to social, economic and religious inequalities and tremendous oppression by the dominant classes. These people are sometimes referred to as the **marginalised** sections of society.

Many social reformers, such as Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Dayanand Saraswati, Jotiba Phule, Dr B R Ambedkar and others raised their voice against the discriminatory practices prevalent in the society. They worked tirelessly for the upliftment of the deprived sections of the society.

As citizens, we should also try to discourage different forms of discrimination in the society by not encouraging any discriminatory practice. Only then, true democracy can be established.

Life Skill

The *Dhobi's* son is your good friend. You want to invite him for your birthday party. But your grandmother does not want him to enter the house. How will you convince her that he is a friend of yours, and he should also be invited, like your other friends, for your birthday party?

Inequalities around the world

People all over the world have faced and are still facing some kind of inequality or discrimnation in some places. There have been people who have stood up against these injustices. One such courageous lady has been relentlessly fighting for the establishment of democracy in her country, Myanmar. Let us know more about her.

Aung San Suu Kyi

The pioneer of democratic movement in Myanmar, Aung San Suu Kyi entered the field of politics in 1988. She was visiting her ailing mother in Myanmar, when people were protesting against the oppressive rule of General Ne Win. On 26 August 1988, Aung San Suu Kyi addressed half a million people at a mass rally in support of a democratic government that had been overthrown by a military government (called the *junta*). In September 1988, Aung San Suu Kyi formed the National League for Democracy and became its general secretary. In July 1989, the government placed Suu Kyi under house arrest in Yangon. She was offered freedom only if she left the country, but she refused.

In the 1990 elections, she was not allowed to contest. Even though the National League for Democracy won many seats, the military government refused to recognise the results of the elections. In 1991, she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize, but she was not freed from house arrest. The award was accepted by her son. With her prize money, she established a health and education trust for the people of Myanmar.

In 1995, due to pressure from various countries of the world, Suu Kyi was freed from house arrest, but her movements were restricted. In 2002, she was again put under house arrest. In 2009, a United Nations body declared her detention illegal under Myanmar's own law. Finally, in 2010, she was freed from house arrest. In May 2012, she contested elections and became a member of parliament. For more on her life dedicated to the establishment of democracy in Myanmar, check http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/43227/Aung-San-Suu-Kyi.

It is a kind of discrimination based on the colour of the skin. The white-skinned people consider the black-skinned people inferior, and treat them very badly.

Martin Luther King Jr

Martin Luther King Jr led a movement against racial discrimination. In the US, the darkskinned people or the 'blacks' faced many discriminations and were denied all rights. Martin Luther King Jr decided



Martin Luther King Jr

to fight for their rights and became the leader of the Civil Rights Movement. In 1964, he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

Martin Luther King Jr first experienced racial discrimination when his white neighbours refused to let him play with their boys. On another occasion, he was travelling by bus with his teacher when the driver asked them to stand up and let two white people have their seats. Martin Luther King Jr decided to fight against such injustice.

Many people around the world have raised their voice against all such injustice and inequalities. Their combined efforts have resulted in the eradication of inequalities and establishment of democracy as the most popular form of government in the world.

Fact box

Rosa Parks was an African-American civil rights activist, who is also referred to as the 'mother of the freedom movement'. On 1 December,1955, while travelling in a bus in Montgomery (Alabama) she refused to obey the bus driver's order to vacate her seat for a white-skinned passenger. This was one of the most important symbols of the Civil Rights Movement.

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

- The earliest form of democracy existed in the Greek city-state of Athens.
- Democracy flourished in the Roman Empire.
- The American War of Independence and the French Revolution were major steps in the establishment of democratic forms of government around the world.
- Democracy can be direct or indirect.
- Equality is the most important factor for the success of democracy.

Glossary

Democracy A form of government where the people of the country choose representatives through elections, who form the government | **Dictatorship** A form of government where one person (the dictator) assumes all power and rules the country according to his/her own wish | **Direct democracy** A form of democracy where the citizens directly participate in the affairs of government | **Economic equality** Equal opportunity for earning livelihood | **Equality** Equal treatment for all without any discrimination | **Indirect democracy** A form of democracy where people choose their representatives who form the government | **Marginalised** A small group of people being discriminated against or treated unfairly by larger groups | **Monarchy** A form of government headed by a king or a queen, with absolute powers | **Political equality** All the citizens having equal right to take part in the election process | **Religious equality** Equal treatment to people belonging to all religions | **Social equality** Equal of status, rights, and duties for all people within a specific society or isolated group

EXERCISES

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. The Magna Carta restricted the privileges of the ______ and established that punishment would be carried out on the basis of ______.
- French society was divided into ______ classes or estates namely the first comprising of the ______ and _____, the second comprising of the ______ while the third comprised of poor ______.
- 3. In a _____, the king has absolute powers and sometimes he is helped by his council of _____.
- 4. A republican form of government is based on the principles of ______ where the head of the state is elected by the _____.
- 5. In a democracy, all the adult citizens have the right to vote which is also called
- 6. In the year 1991, ______ was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize despite being under house arrest.
- 7. In Myanmar, the military government refused to recognise the results of the elections in which the _____ had won many seats.
- 8. In the US, ______ led a movement against racial discrimination which was based on the colour of skin.
- B. Write True or False.
 - 1. Today, democracy is the most unpopular form of government all around the world.

- 2. The National Assembly that was formed in France during the revolution comprised only of the members of the first and the second estates.
- 3. Dictatorships often tend to become oppressive and unjust, thereby making it an unpopular form of government.
- 4. When the National League for Democracy won many seats in Myanmar, the military government recognised it and asked it to form the government.
- 5. Reformers like Jyotiba Phule, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Dayanand Saraswati worked towards the upliftment of the deprived sections of the society.

C. Match the columns.

Column A

- 1. Magna Carta
- 2. Aung San Suu Kyi
- 3. indirect democracy
- 4. France
- 5. Athens

Column B

- three estates a.
- India b.
- England с.
- d. oldest democracy
- Myanmar e.

D. Answer the following questions in brief.

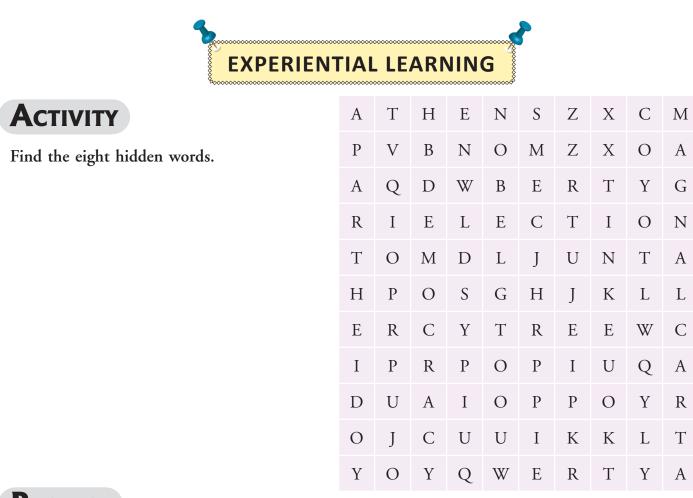
- 1. Define the term democracy. Briefly explain its origin.
- 2. What is direct democracy and where was it exercised in ancient times? Who were exempted from it?
- 3. When and why was the Declaration of Independence drawn up?
- 4. What was stated in the Declaration of Rights of Man and of the Citizen in 1789?
- 5. Name the social reformers who raised their voice against the many discriminatory practices in India.

E. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. How is the Athenian Assembly different from the Roman Senate?
- 2. What is the other name for the Great Charter of the Liberties of England? What did it contain?
- 3. What was the problem with the system of estates in the French society before the Revolution in the year 1789?
- 4. What are the two types of democracies in modern times? Define each with examples.
- 5. What does it mean when we say that in India, there is equality because of democracy?
- 6. List and explain briefly the different types of equality that we can enjoy in a democracy.
- 7. Who are the marginalised sections of the society? What kind of discrimination do they face in society?
- 8. Draw a timeline of events in the life of the democratic leader Aung San Suu Kyi of Myanmar.

Hots

- 1. Out of political, religious, economic and social equality, which one do you think is most important and why?
- 2. There are instances found even today where men and women do not get equal payment for equal kind of work. What do you think is the basis for this discrimination? How can this be rectified?



Project

Find out more about the prominent social reformer of the US, Rosa Parks who began the opposition against racial discrimination by an act of civil disobedience. Paste pictures from her life, the bus where she declined to give up her seat, the protest marches she undertook and paste them in the notebook. Compile this work in not more than two pages of your notebook.

VALUES

There are many forms of inequalities that are present around us and surround us. Can you take a note of these inequalities? What steps would you like to take to deal with the situation? How will you spread awareness about it? Plan a speech with this regard and share your thoughts with the class.

Institutional Representation of Democracy



Mansi was still hopeful of organising the mango-eating competition, even if on a smaller scale. "Papa, why can't other uncles and aunties attend the elections and you come with us for our competition? There are so many elders living in our society, what is the harm if some people skip the elections?" Mr Mathur replied, "Beta, election is a very important process in a democracy. It gives us the right to elect people who form the government, and look after our welfare. It is absolutely important that all the people who have the right to vote take part in the elections. Unless we participate, how will we make sure that a person of our choice gets elected?"

For the success of a democracy, it is important that all people exercise their right to vote. In this chapter, we will look at some of the institutions that make democracy the most popular form of government.

Universal adult franchise

As election is an important feature of democracy, it is important that all the citizens of a country have the right to vote. This is ensured by a system called the **universal adult franchise**, which means that all the adult citizens of a country, above 18 years of age, have the right to vote. No discrimination is made on the basis of education, race, caste, religion, colour or gender. In India, all adult citizens, whether poor or rich, educated or uneducated, differently-abled, men and women belonging to dominant classes or subordinate classes, have the right to vote. Thus, universal adult franchise is one of the most important characteristics of Indian democracy.

Only some people such as people with criminal background are not allowed to vote. This is to make sure that people who are participating in the election process are honest and can independently take right decisions.

Universal adult franchise is based on the principle of **one-person**, **one-vote**. Every adult citizen of a

country can vote only once during one particular election.

Elections

Election is the process through which a democratic government is elected. The word 'election' is derived from the Latin word 'legare' meaning 'to choose'. Through **elections**, people choose their representatives who form the government.

India is a huge country, so elections take place at different levels. Elections are held to form the government at the village level, the state level as well as at the centre. It is a complicated process conducted by an independent agency called the Election Commission.

General elections

In India, general elections are held after every five years to elect representatives to the parliament. The parliament, the prime minister, and the president form the central government. Sometimes, under special circumstances, the government is not able to continue for five years. In such cases, the parliament is dissolved and fresh elections are conducted. Such elections taking place before the completion of a 5-year term are called **mid-term elections**.

Sometimes, if an elected representative dies or resigns before the completion of the 5-year term, fresh elections are held for that particular seat. Such elections are called **by-elections**.

Fact box

In India, the first general election to elect the parliament was held in April 1952. The Indian National Congress (INC) came to power. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru became the first elected prime minister of India. The second general election was held after five years, in April 1957. Since then, India has had 15 general elections.

The Election Commission

The Election Commission is there to conduct free and fair elections in the country. It is a three-member body headed by the chief election commissioner and assisted by two election commissioners, who are appointed by the president of India.



Fig 2.1 The Election Commission of India, New Delhi

Find out Who is the chief election commissioner of India?

Have you seen campaigning before elections? How does campaigning take place?

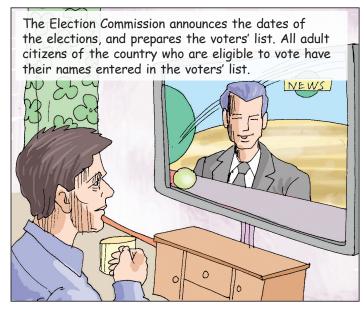
There are different methods of campaigning. A candidate can deliver speeches before large masses, organise rallies and conduct doorto-door campaign to seek votes. He/She can utilise the audio-visual means of campaigning by composing jingles that praise his/her party and talk about the party and its achievements. He/She can also put up posters bearing his/ her image and name, and describing in some detail the kind of work he/she proposes to do. A candidate can also lend support to some charitable or social events being organised in his/her constituency so that people can recognise him/her more and know more about his/her achievements. During campaigning, a candidate makes every voter living in his/ her constituency feel special and important so that he/she votes for him/her during elections. Campaigning stops 48 hours before polling.



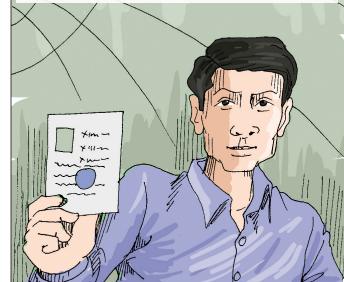
Political parties

A political party is an organised group of people who have common ideals and goals. Political parties can be formed on the basis of distinct political ideals or some particular interests such as religion or region. In a democracy, political parties play a very important role. They create awareness among the people regarding various issues and problems the country is facing and helps in generating public opinion. They take part in the election process through their candidates from various constituencies. After the elections, political parties form the government.

The Election Process



Each person in the voter's list has a photo identity card, which he/she carries to the polling booth, to cast his/her vote.



For the election process, the country is divided into small regions with approximately same number of voters called constituencies. From each constituency, one representative to the parliament is elected. For each seat of a constituency, two or more people, called the candidates, contest. A candidate getting the highest number of votes gets elected.

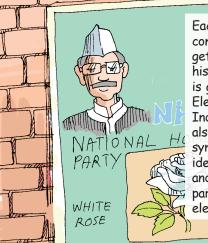




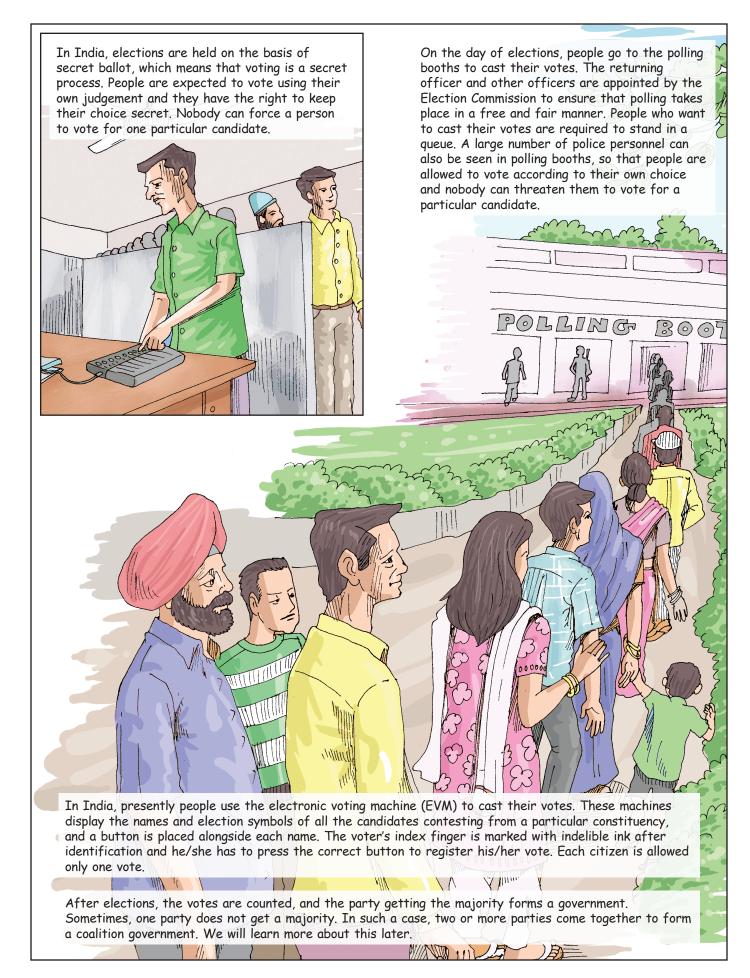
The candidates may belong to a political party or are independent candidates, who do not belong to any political party. Any candidate wanting to contest elections has to file his/her nomination papers, declaring his/her wealth and assets. The nomination papers are thoroughly checked by the returning officer, who is appointed by the Election Commission to ensure that elections take place is a smooth manner.

After the Commission approves the nomination papers, a candidate starts the process of winning over the support of all the voters living in his/her constituency. This process is called campaigning.





Each candidate contesting elections gets a symbol against his/her name, which is given by the Election Commission. Independent candidates also get election symbols. People can identify a candidate and his/her political party through the election symbols.



One important task of a political party is to generate public opinion. Parties use different means of communication such as television, newspapers, magazines, pamphlets to educate the people about the various important issues. Before the elections, each political party brings out an election manifesto which clearly mentions the policies and ideals that the party believes in. It also lists the objectives of the political party, its goals, and a summary of the various measures it will take for the welfare of the people once it comes to power.

The opposition

After elections, parties that are not a part of the government, form the opposition. The opposition plays an important role in a democracy.

- It monitors the functioning of the ruling party and ensures that it does not misuse power.
- It does not allow the government to become dictatorial.
- It highlights the various challenges before the government so that public opinion can be generated.

Different party systems

Countries around the world have different party systems. These are broadly categorised into oneparty or single party; two-party or bi-party; or multi-party systems.

In some countries, only one political party exists. This is called one-party system. In such a system, the voters really do not have much choice as all the candidates belong to one single party. Oneparty system is not very desirable, as the single party might become dictatorial. One party system exists in China.

Some countries such as Japan and the United States of America have a two-party (also called

Think

Do you think democracy can exist in a one-party system?

bi-party) system. After elections, one party forms the government and the other party forms the opposition. In a two-party system, the voters have less but clear choices. Moreover, as both the parties are aware that they can be replaced easily by each other, they work hard to look after the welfare of the people and win their support.

In countries such as India, Pakistan, Canada and Australia, there are many political parties. Voters have a wide choice and they can choose from several candidates belonging to different parties. This is called multi-party system. In such a system, while numerous political parties claim to represent the aspirations of different sections of people, the voters are often confused.

Sometimes, after elections, no single party gets the majority to form a government; two or more parties come together to form a **coalition government**.

Political parties in India

India has a multi-party system. There are many political parties some of which have their presence all over India. These are called national parties. Some political parties that work only at the state levels are called regional parties. The Indian National Congress, Bharatiya Janata Party and Communist Party of India are examples of national parties.

The Bahujan Samaj Party (BSP) in Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand Mukti Morcha (JMM) in Jharkhand, the Asom Gana Parishad (AGP) in Assam, the AIADMK and DMK in Tamil Nadu, the Shiv Sena in Maharashtra, the Rashtriya Janata Dal (RJD) and Lok Janshakti Party (LJP) in Bihar, and the Trinamool Congress in West Bengal are some of the important regional parties in India.

In a country like India, regional parties play an important role. Formed on the basis of language, caste, and even religion, these parties reflect the aspirations of the diverse group of people living in the country.

Coalition government

We have already studied that after elections, when one single party does not win majority of seats required to form a government, many different parties come together to form a coalition government. Before a coalition government is formed, all the parties forming the coalition hold a discussion to chalk out a common minimum programme. For the success of a coalition government, it is important that in spite of differences, all the members of a coalition should respect the common minimum programme. However, in reality, a coalition government is often caught up in the internal squabbles of its members. This greatly hampers the smooth functioning of the government.

Coalition governments have advantages as well as disadvantages. It takes care of the welfare of diverse group of people as the various political parties comprising it represent different sections of the society. So, in a coalition government, public opinion of a larger group of people can be voiced strongly. However, coalition governments sometimes become weak and indecisive as often conflict of interests among the various member parties occurs. Instead of concentrating on the governance, the ruling party spends more time in appeasing the unhappy members. In such cases, governance takes a back seat.

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

- Universal adult franchise, elections, political parties and coalition government are some of the important features of a democracy.
- Universal adult franchise, that is, the right to vote, is enjoyed by all adult citizens of India, irrespective of education, race, caste, religion, colour, wealth or gender.
- In India, general elections are held every five years to elect representatives to the parliament or assembly.
- Candidates belonging to different political parties contest elections. A political party is an organised group of people who have common ideals and goals.
- In India, the election process is organised by an independent body called the Election Commission.
- After elections, a party that wins the required majority forms the government. But when one single party does not win majority, two or more parties come together to form a coalition government.

Glossary

Bi-party A political system where two political parties exist | **Coalition government** A government formed by two or more political parties none of which has individually won majority of seats in the elections | **Elections** A process through which a democratic government is elected | **Election Commission** The body which conducts free and fair elections in the country | **Multi-party system** A political system where more than two political parties exist | **Political party** An organised group of people who have common ideals and goals | **Single party** A political system where only one political party exists | **Universal adult franchise** The voting rights for all the adult citizens of the country, irrespective of their gender, caste, community or economic status

Exercises

A. Fill in the blanks.

1. In a democracy, there is no discrimination made on the basis of _____, race,

_____, religion, _____ and gender.

2. Universal Adult Franchise is based on the principle of ______ vote, one

- 3. In India, people above the age of ______ years have the right to vote.
- 4. When, after elections, not a single party is able to win the elections, then two or more parties join hands and form a ______ government.
- 5. For the purpose of elections, the country is divided into small regions with approximately the same number of voters which is called a ______.
- 6. In India, free and fair elections are conducted by the _____
- 7. Each person in the voter's list has a ______ identity card which is needed to be carried on the day of ______.
- 8. Electronic ______ machines are used for casting of votes in India.

B. Match the columns.

Column A

- 1. Multi Party System
- 2. Regional party
- 3. Returning Officer
- 4. EVM

- a. Jharkhand Mukti Morchab. Electronic Voting Machine
- c. Australia
- d. one person one vote
- e. polling booth

C. Answer the following in brief.

5. Universal Adult Franchise

- 1. Define:
- a. Universal Adult Franchise b. General Elections c. By-election d. Mid term elections
- 2. Who are barred from exercising their right to vote?
- 3. What is the origin of the word 'election'?
- 4. Who conducts elections and at what intervals are they held?
- 5. Who all comprise of the Election Commission of India?
- 6. What is the role played by the opposition in a democratic country?

D. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. List and explain the different functions of a political party.
- 2. What are the different party systems that we find in the world?
- 3. When is a coalition government formed?
- 4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of a coalition government?
- 5. Explain the functions assigned to the Election Commissioner of India.
- 6. How are the regional political parties different from the national political parties? Give examples of each.

Column B

Нотѕ

- 1. If you were given the choice of living in any one of the countries listed in the chapter, China, USA, Japan, Pakistan, Canada or Australia, which one would you choose? Give reasons for your choice.
- 2. In India, elections are held after every five years. Why do you think this time period is given before conducting the next elections?



Αстіνіту

Find out about the different political parties that function in your state. Collect their party symbol, name of the party president as well as their philosophies. Compile the information thus collected in your notebook along with pictures wherever possible.

Project

Party symbols are often a reflection of the party philosophy, especially with the older parties. Use your own imagination and decode the meaning of one political party symbol of your choice. Share it with the rest of the class.

LIFE SKILLS

SOCIAL SKILL

Conduct a class debate on any one of the following topics.

- a. Multi-party system is better that bi-party system.
- b. Dictatorship is better than monarchy.
- c. The more political parties a country has, the more democratic it is.

HERITAGE POINT

There are more than 1600 registered political parties in India. Some of them have eye-catching names: the Religion of Man Revolving Political Party of India which probably is an odd translation from a local language; Poor Man's Party; Yours-Mine Party; the Indian Oceanic Party launched in 2010; the Pyramid Party of India; Stay Awake Party. There is a rationale behind these party names or symbols. However, only democratic elections put these parties to the test and let them either sink or float!



The State Government



Mr Mathur could feel that Mansi was disappointed. He tried to reason with his daughter, 'Beta, do you know how expensive your mango-eating competition will become? Mangoes have become so expensive. Who will sponsor so many mangoes? In fact, look around you. Everything is so expensive. Neither the state government, nor the central government is doing anything to check the rising prices. I will suggest you have a splash party at the pool for children instead. That will be much more fun.' Mansi has often heard elders blaming the government for all the problems—price rise, scarcity of water and electricity, potholes in the roads, overflowing drains and garbage dumps, unkempt parks in the neighbourhood...the list is endless. What a huge amount of tasks a government has to perform, she wondered.

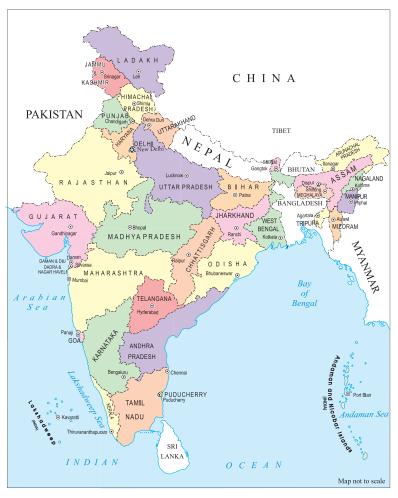
We already know that in India, the government functions at various levels—village level, state level and central level. India follows a federal form of government, where the country is divided into different states. There is one government at the centre and each state has a separate government. The states are further divided into districts, where local governments function.

There are 28 states and 9 union territories in India including the National Capital Region of Delhi. In this chapter, we will look at the structure and functions of a state government.

The State Legislature

A state government has three organs—the legislature, the executive and the judiciary. The Constitution of India clearly defines the structure, powers and functions of each organ of the state government.

When elections are held in a state, people elect representatives who form the state legislative assembly or the Vidhan Sabha. It is the main body that makes laws in a state.



I.Q. Do you have a Vidhan Sabha in your state? Find out. In some states of India, apart from the Vidhan Sabha, there is another house of legislature. This is called the Vidhan Parishad. States which have only one legislative body is called unicameral while states that have both the Vidhan Sabha and the Vidhan Parishad are called bicameral. Maharashtra, Karnataka, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh have bicameral legislatures.

Composition of a state legislature

The Legislative Assembly (Vidhan Sabha)

The members of the legislative assembly are elected directly by the people through elections. The number of members in the legislative assemblies of each state varies, depending on the population of the state. Each state is divided into areas called constituencies and from each constituency, one representative is elected. The minimum number of members of a legislative assembly should not be less than 60 and the maximum number of members should not be more than 500.



Fig 3.1 Inside a state legislature

After elections, the party gaining majority of votes forms the government while other parties form the opposition. Sometimes, coalition governments are also formed, when no single party wins the required number of seats and two or more parties come together to form the government. Sometimes, members of the Anglo-Indian community are nominated to the legislative assembly, if it does not have enough representation in the assembly. A member of a state legislative assembly is called an MLA (Member of the Legislative Assembly).

Fact box

States of Goa, Mizoram, Nagaland and Sikkim have less than 60 members.

The Legislative Council (Vidhan Parishad)

The members of the state legislative council or the Vidhan Parishad are not directly elected by the people, but are elected in the following manner.

- One-third members are elected by the legislative assembly
- One-third members are elected by the members of the local bodies
- One-twelfth members are elected by teachers who have taught in secondary schools in the state and another one-twelfth by graduates from universities in India who have graduated with at least three years standing
- One-sixth members, distinguished in the field of art, literature and science are nominated by the governor of the state

A member of the state legislative council is called the MLC (Member of the Legislative Council).

The total number of members in a Vidhan Parishad should be one-third of the total number of members in the Vidhan Sabha. A Vidhan Parishad cannot have less than 40 members.

Qualifications required for the membership of state legislatures

To become a member of the legislative assembly or the legislative council, a person should have the following qualifications.

- He/She must be a citizen of India.
- He/She must be at least 25 years of age for getting elected to the Vidhan Sabha and 30 years for the Vidhan Parishad.
- He/She must be a registered voter in that state.
- He/She must not hold any office of profit

under the Government.

 He/She must not be mentally unsound or have been proclaimed a criminal by the laws of the state.

Tenure of the state legislatures

The Vidhan Sabha is elected for a period of five years. However, under certain special circumstances, the governor might dissolve the assembly before five years. The Vidhan Parishad is a permanent house and it can never be dissolved. Members are elected for a period of six years. One-third of the members retire after every two years and only these positions are filled through new elections.

Functions of the state legislature

The state legislatures look after the administration of a state and ensure welfare of the people living in the state.

- The most important function of the state legislature is to make laws. In India, the constitution has demarcated subjects on which the central or the state governments can make laws, into the Union List, the State List, and the Concurrent List. The State List contains subjects on which only the state government can make laws. Sometimes, the state governments also make laws on subjects mentioned in the Concurrent List.
- The state government takes decisions about the finances of the state and decides on the amount of money to be collected from people as taxes.
- The members of the state legislature also have certain electoral powers. Members of the Vidhan Sabha are part of the Electoral College and participate in the election of the president of the country. They elect members of the Rajya Sabha and one-third members of the legislative council.

The Speaker

The members of the Vidhan Sabha elect a speaker and a deputy speaker who look after the proceedings of the assembly and also ensure that the discipline in the house is maintained. The proceedings of the Vidhan Parishad are conducted by the chairman, who is elected by the members. He/She presides over meetings and maintains discipline and order in the house. In his/her absence, the deputy chairman takes over his/her responsibilities.

I.Q.

Who is the speaker of your state legislature? Find out.

How are laws made?

The process of making laws is long and complicated. A law is presented before a state legislature in the form of a bill. There are two kinds of bills. Ordinary bills deal with general administrative issues. Money bills deal with some form of expenditure, imposition of new taxes or abolition of existing taxes.

- Ordinary bills can be introduced in the legislative assembly or the legislative council. A bill is introduced in the form of a draft in the legislature. The minister asks for permission from the speaker or chairman of the house, to introduce the bill. This is called the first reading of the bill. At this stage, generally only the title of the bill is read out.
- In the second reading, a general discussion takes place on the bill. The house can send the bill to a select committee of the house or a joint committee of both the houses for further discussion. In some cases, the bill is even circulated among the people to understand public opinion.
- After the bill comes back to the house, it is discussed in greater detail—clause by clause. The third reading happens only if the bill has passed through the first two stages.
- After the third reading, the bill is sent to

the other house, if the state is bicameral. In the other house again, the same process is followed, and if passed, the bill is sent to the governor for approval.

The bill becomes a law after the governor signs the bill. However, the governor can also send it back to the legislature with some suggestions. The governor might also reserve the bill for the consideration of the president.

Money bills

A money bill can be introduced in the Vidhan Sabha only. After the bill is passed, it is sent to the Vidhan Parishad for recommendations. After the bill has been passed by both houses, it is sent to the governor for his/her approval.

The State Executive

The state executive implements the laws that are made by the state legislatures. The state executive comprises the chief minister, the council of ministers and the governor.

The chief minister

The members of the ruling party elect a leader from amongst themselves, who becomes the chief minister. The chief minister is the most important member of the state executive. He/ She has many functions.

- He/She is responsible for the working of the government in the state.
- He/She is also the leader of the council of ministers.
- He/She selects other ministers of the state and allocates their portfolios.
- He/She presides over cabinet meetings.
- He/She coordinates the working of various ministries.
- He/She supervises the overall administration of the state.
- Talking point

Jyoti Basu was the longest-serving chief minister of any state. He was the chief minister of West Bengal from 1977 to 2000—23 years.



The council of ministers

The chief minister is assisted by a council of ministers which looks after the administration of a state. The different ministers are in charge of various government departments, called the ministries. So in a state, there is a finance minister, home minister, power minister, education minister, and many other ministers. Sometimes, the council of ministers also advises the governor.

The council of ministers is collectively responsible to the state legislature. If the state legislature is not confident about working of one particular minister belonging to the council of ministers, a no-confidence motion against him/her can be passed in the Vidhan Sabha. If the government loses the motion, the entire council of ministers has to resign. Similarly, if the chief minister resigns, the entire council of ministers has to resign too.

The governor

The governor is a very important person in the state executive. Every state in India has a governor, who is appointed by the president for a period of five years. Governors are appointed in the states while lieutenant governors are in charge of a union territory and the National Capital Territory of Delhi.

To become a governor, a person must be 35 years of age and a citizen of India. He/She cannot be a member of the parliament or the state legislature or hold any office of profit under the Government of India.

Functions of a governor

The administration of a state is carried out in

Do you feel collective responsibility is important? Why? In which other fields of life do you think collective responsibilities should exist?

the name of the governor. However, in reality, a governor is the **nominal** head of a state whereas the real power lies with the chief minister and the council of ministers.

- The governor appoints the chief minister and the council of ministers.
- The governor distributes portfolios to the council of ministers on the advice of the chief minister.
- He/She also appoints the advocate general, the judges of the district courts, and the chairman and members of the state public service commission. The president consults the governor in the appointment of judges of the high courts.
- The governor summons and ends the sessions of both houses of the state legislature.
- The governor inaugurates the state legislature after the assembly elections and also addresses the first session every year. The governor's speech on these occasions generally outlines the new policies of the state government.
- The governor can return a bill to the state legislature for reconsideration. A bill passed by the state legislature can become a law only after the governor gives assent.
- When the state legislature is not in session and the governor considers it necessary to pass a law, he/she can then issue an **ordinance**. An ordinance acts as a law as long as it remains in force. These ordinances have to be submitted to the state legislature for approval in its next session.
- Money bills can be introduced in the state legislative assembly only on the prior recommendations of the governor.
- The governor has the power to nominate certain members to the state legislative council, if the state is bicameral. These nominees are famous people from the fields of art, science, literature, cooperative movements and social services.
- He/She can also nominate one member in the state legislative assembly from the Anglo-Indian community if he/she feels that they do not have enough representatives.

Discretionary powers

In certain special circumstances, the governor has the authority to exercise his/her special powers, called the discretionary powers, independently, without consulting the chief minister. For example, the governor uses discretionary powers to appoint a chief minister when no party gets a clear majority after the assembly elections.

Similarly, the governor can also ask for president's rule in the state, when the state government loses the confidence of the legislative assembly and is dissolved.

The advocate general

Each state has an advocate general, appointed by the governor, to perform various legal functions. He/She advices the state executive on various legal matters. A person qualified to be a high court judge can be appointed as an advocate general. While he/she can take part in the proceedings of the state legislature, he/she does not have the right to vote on any issue regarding the bills.

Administration of union territories

A union territory is administered by a lieutenant governor or a chief commissioner, who acts on the advice of the president of India. He passes the laws of the union territory and oversees its administration.

Fact box

Puducherry is a union territory, but it has its own legislative assembly and council of ministers.

The civil services

While the state legislature and the executive make laws, the actual day-to-day administration of the state is carried out by a huge bureaucratic body called the civil services. Some of these officials are appointed from the Indian Administrative Service, while some are directly recruited at the state level, through State Public Service Commission examinations. The civil services in a state are headed by the chief secretary. Secretaries in charge of different departments work under him. They are further assisted by the deputy secretary, joint secretary,

CHAPTER IN A NUTSHELL

India has a federal form of government. The government functions at two levels—the centre and in the states and union territories.

district magistrate.

under secretaries, directors, etc. In each

district, the administration is headed by the

- Each state in India has a legislature called the legislative assembly or the Vidhan Sabha. Most states are unicameral and have only one legislature.
- Maharashtra, Karnataka, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh are bicameral. In these states, there is a Legislative Council or Vidhan Parishad also apart from the legislative assembly.
- The members of the legislative assembly are chosen through direct elections by the voters of the state. The members of the legislative council are chosen by the members of the legislative assembly and certain specific groups of people.
- The most important function of the state legislature is to make laws on certain subjects.
- A law is introduced in the legislature in the form of a bill. It becomes a law after passing through various stages. These stages are called readings.
- The chief minister is the leader of the party which gains majority in the state assembly. He is the real head of the state.
- A governor is the nominal head of a state and does not enjoy actual powers. However, he enjoys some special powers called the discretionary powers.
- The advocate general and the civil services are also a part of the state administration.

Glossary

Advocate General Person appointed by the governor of a state who looks after the legal matters | Chief Minister Actual head of a state, who is elected as leader of the party that gains majority in the state government elections and forms the government | Civil service The huge bureaucratic body that carries out actual day to day administration in a state | Council of Ministers The body of ministers assisting the chief minister | Discretionary powers Some special powers enjoyed by the governor of the state | Lieutenant Governor Person appointed by the president, who looks after the administration in a union territory | Speaker Person elected to oversee the proceedings of the Vidhan Sabha | State government Government that functions at the state level | The governor Nominal head of each state, appointed by the president of India | Vidhan Parishad (state legislative council) The other house of the state legislature, comprising members elected by the Vidhan Sabha, local bodies, and some nominated members | Vidhan Sabha (state legislative assembly) The main house of the state legislature comprising members directly elected by the people of the state

Exercises

A. Fill in the blanks.

- 1. There are ______ states and _____ Union Territories in India which also includes the National Capital Region of _____.
- 2. The two houses that comprise of the state legislative assembly are known as the ______ and the ______.

- 3. When there are two houses of legislation, then it is called a ______ legislature.
- 4. MLA stands for ______ while MLC stands for ______.
- 5. Elections to the Vidhan Sabha happen after every 5 years while the Vidhan Parishad is a ______ house and cannot be dissolved.
- 6. _____ number of members retire after every two years in Vidhan
- 7. While ______ bills can be introduced in either of the ______ houses, the ______ bill is only introduced in the _____.
- 8. The bill becomes a ______ after the ______ signs it.
- 9. The ______ is the most important member of the state executive and is assisted by a ______ of ministers.
- 10. The council of ministers is ______ responsible to the state legislature.
- 11. The ______ appoints the chief minister and the council of ministers.
- 12. One member from the ______ community can be nominated by the Governor if they are not adequately represented.
- 13. The ______ is appointed by the Governor to perform various legal functions for the state.
- 14. The Union Territories are administered by ______ or a Chief Commissioner who acts on the advice of the ______ of India.
- 15. A huge bureaucratic body called the _____ play a crucial role in the day to day administration of the state.

B. Write True or False.

- 1. There are always two houses in each state legislature.
- 2. Vidhan Sabha is also called the house of the elected as members here are elected directly by the people.
- 3. The special powers enjoyed by the Chief Minister of a state are also called discretionary powers.
- 4. A money bill can only be introduced in the Vidhan Parishad.
- 5. The Chief Minister is assisted by the Council of Ministers who all share a collective responsibility to the state legislature.

C. Find out the who behind the following.

- 1. He/She is also called the nominal head of the state.
- 2. He/She is also called the real head of the state.
- 3. They assist the state legislature and executive in day-to-day administration of the state.
- 4. A Union Territory is administered by this person.
- 5. He/She is the administrative head of a district.

D. Match the columns.

- Column A
- 1. money bill
- 2. Chief Minister
- 3. Electoral College
- 4. discretionary powers
- 5. ordinance

Column B

- a. special law
- b. election of President
- c. special powers of Governor
- d. real head
- e. Vidhan Sabha

E. Answer the following questions in brief.

- 1. List the qualifications required to contest for a seat in the state legislature.
- 2. Under what circumstances can a governor pass an ordinance?
- 3. When can the discretionary powers be used by the governor?
- 4. Who administers the Union Territories and on whose advice?
- 5. What are the functions performed by the advocate general?

F. Answer the following questions in detail.

- 1. List the various functions performed by the Chief Minister of a state.
- 2. Explain the different types of bills passed by the state legislatures. Also explain the process of getting a bill passed.
- 3. What is the meaning of the term 'collective responsibility'? What happens if the ruling party losses its majority in the house?
- 4. Though the Governor is not the real head of the state, the Constitution bestows certain powers on the Governor. What are these?
- 5. What is the composition of the state legislature?
- 6. How are the members of the state legislative council elected?

Hots

- 1. If the Governor's role is removed from the states, what kind of problems do you think we will encounter?
- 2. Why do you think that laws related to money originate in the house of the elected representatives?



VALUES

Have a group discussion around the concept of 'collective responsibility' that is shared in the legislatures across the country. Now, compare this to your class. Think of all the responsibilities