**Class X**

**Civics**

**Political parties**

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| **S.no** | **Main Points** | **Discription** |
| **1** | **Political party** | A political party is a group of people who come together to contest elections and hold power in the government. They agree on some policies and programs for the society with a view to promote the collective good. |
| **2** | **Components of a political Party** | A political party has three components:  1.      The leaders  2.      The active members and  3.      The followers |
| **3** | **Functions of political parties** | Political Parties **contest elections**. In most democracies, elections are fought mainly among the candidates put up by political parties. In India, top party leaders choose candidates for contesting elections.  2.      Parties put forward different **policies and programs**and the voters choose from them. In a democracy, a large number of similar opinions have to be grouped together to provide a direction in which policies can be formulated by the governments.  3.       Parties play a decisive role in **making laws**for a country. Formally, laws are debated and passed in the legislature. But since most of the members belong to a party, they go by the direction of the party leadership.  4.      Parties **form and run governments**. Parties recruit leaders, train them and then make them ministers to run the government in the way they want.  5.      Those parties that lose in the elections play the **role of opposition**to the ruling parties, by voicing different views and criticising government for its failures or wrong policies. Opposition parties also mobilise opposition to the government.  6.      Parties **shape public opinion**. They raise and highlight issues. Parties sometimes also launch movements for the resolution of problems faced by people.  7.      Parties provide people **access to government machinery and welfare schemes** implemented by governments. For an ordinary citizen it is easy to approach a local party leader than a government officer.  ***N***  .  ***3.*** |
| **4** | National Party | A party that secures at least **six per cent of the total votes in Lok Sabha** elections or **six per cent of the total votes in**Assembly elections in four States and wins at least **four seats** in the Lok Sabha or **two seats in four states** is recognized as a national party. |
| **5** | State party | A party that secures at least **six per cent of the total votes** in an election to the Legislative Assembly of a State and wins at **least two seats** is recognised as a State party. |
| **6** | Indian national Congress(INC) | ***In*** a.       Congress Party is one of the oldest parties of the world. It was founded in 1885 and has experienced many splits.  b.      Under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru, the party sought to build a modern secular democratic republic in India.  c.       Ruling party at the centre from 1947 to 1977 and then from 1980 to 1989. After 1989, its support declined, but it continues to be present throughout the country, cutting across social divisions.  d.      A centrist party (neither rightist nor leftist) in its ideological orientation, the party espouses secularism and welfare of weaker sections and minorities.  e.       Currently leads the ruling United Progressive Alliance coalition government at the Centre. |
| **7** | **BJP** | a.       It was founded in 1980 by reviving the erstwhile Bharatiya Jana Sangh.  b.      It wants to build a strong and modern India by drawing inspiration from India’s ancient culture and values. Cultural nationalism (or ‘Hindutva’) is an important element in its conception of Indian nationhood and politics.  c.       It wants full territorial and political integration of Jammu and Kashmir with India, a uniform civil code for all people living in the country irrespective of religion and ban on religious conversions.  d.      Earlier its popularity was limited to north and west and to urban areas but the party expanded its support in the south, east and north-east and to rural areas.  e.       Came to power in 1998 as the leader of the National Democratic Alliance including several state and regional parties. |
| **8** | **BSP)** | It was formed in 1984 under the leadership of Kanshi Ram.It seeks to represent and secure power for the bahujan samaj which includes the *dalits*, *adivasis*, OBCs and religious minorities.  b.      It draws inspiration from the ideas and teachings of Sahu Maharaj, Mahatma Phule, Periyar Ramaswami Naicker and Babasaheb Ambedkar.  c.       It stands for the cause of securing the interests and welfare of the *dalits*and oppressed people.  d.      It has its main base in the state of Uttar Pradesh and substantial presence in neighbouring states like Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttarakhand, Delhi and Punjab.  e.       It formed government in Uttar Pradesh several times by taking the support of different parties at different times.  f.       In the Lok Sabha elections held in 2004, it polled about 5 per cent votes and secured 19 seats in the Lok Sabha. |
| **9** |  | CPI M  a.       It was founded in 1964. It believes in Marxism- Leninism.  b.      It supports socialism, secularism and democracy and opposes imperialism and communalism.  c.       It accepts democratic elections as a useful and helpful means for securing the objective of socioeconomic justice in India.  d.      It enjoys strong support in West Bengal, Kerala and Tripura, especially among the poor, factory workers, farmers, agricultural labourers and the intelligentsia.  e.       Has been in power in West Bengal without a break for 30 years. In 2004 elections, it won about 6 per cent of votes and 43 seats in the Lok Sabha.  ***(C***  CPI  a.       It was formed in 1925. It believes in Marxism-Leninism, secularism and democracy.  b.      It opposes to the forces of secessionism and communalism.  c.       It accepts parliamentary democracy as a means of promoting the interests of the working class, farmers and the poor.  d.      It became weak after the split in the party in 1964. Significant presence in the states of Kerala, West Bengal, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu.  e.       Its support base had gradually declined over the years. It secured about 1.4 per cent votes and 10 seats in the 2004 Lok Sabha elections. |
| **10** |  | NCP  It  was formed in 1999 following a split in the Congress party.  b.      It espouses democracy, Gandhian secularism, equity, social justice and federalism.  c.       It wants that high offices in government be confined to natural born citizens of the country.  d.      A major party in Maharashtra and has a significant presence in Meghalaya, Manipur and Assam.  e.       A coalition partner in the state of Maharashtra in alliance with the Congress. Since 2004, a member of the United Progressive Alliance. |
| **11** | **political parties be reformed** | ThThe Constitution was amended to prevent elected MLAs and MPs from changing parties. Because some elected representatives indulge in DEFECTION in order to become ministers or for cash rewards. Now the law says that if any MLA or MP changes parties, he or she will lose the seat in the legislature.  2.      The Supreme Court passed an order to reduce the influence of money and criminals. Now, it is mandatory for every candidate who contests elections to file an AFFIDAVITgiving details of his property and criminal cases pending against him.  3.      The Election Commission passed an order making it necessary for political parties to hold their organizational elections and file their income tax returns. |

**Challenges to Democracy**

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| **S.No.** | **Main Point** | **Discription** |
|  | What is a challenge? | A challenge is not just any problem. We usually call only those difficulties a ‘challenge’ which are significant and which can be overcome.  A challenge is a difficulty that carries within it an opportunity for progress. Once we overcome a challenge we go up to a higher level than before. |
|  | **Foundational challenge**- | This involves bringing down the existing non-democratic regime, keeping military away from controlling government and establishing a sovereign and functional state. |
|  | **Challenge of expansion** | This involves applying the basic principle of democratic government across all the regions, different social groups and various institutions. Ensuring greater power to local governments, extension of federal principle to all the units of the federation, inclusion of women and minority groups, etc., falls under this challenge. |
|  | **Deepening of democracy –** | Thisis faced by every democracy in one form or another. This involves strengthening of the institutions and practices of democracy by more people’s participation and control. |
|  | **Modern definition of democracy** | Democracy not only should provide political rights but also some social and economic rights that a democracy should offer to its citizens.  2.    Power sharing between governments and social groups is necessary in a democracy.  3.    Respect for minority voice is necessary for democracy.  4.    Eliminating discrimination based on caste, religion and gender is important in a democracy.  5.    Democracy must bring all positive outcomes like accountability, responsive, reducing poverty etc. |
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**Chapter VII**

**Outcomes of Democracy**

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|  | **Democracy is Accountable, responsive and legitimate government** | Democracy ensures that decision making will be based on norms and procedures. So, a citizen has the right and the means to examine the process of decision making. This is known as**transparency. Democracy follows procedures and is accountable to the people**.  2.      Democratic governments have a very good record when it comes to sharing information with citizens and much better than any non-democratic regime in this respect. Democracy is**attentive to the needs and demands of the people** and is largely free of corruption.  3.    There is one respect in which democratic government is certainly better than its alternatives: democratic government is **legitimate government**. It may be slow, less efficient, not always very responsive or clean. But a democratic government is **people’s own government.** |
|  | **Economic growth and development** | Economic development depends on several factors: **country’s population size, global situation, cooperation from other countries, economic priorities adopted by the country**, etc.  2.      However, the difference in the rates of economic development between less developed**countries with dictatorships and democracies is negligible**.  3.      Overall, we cannot say that democracy is a guarantee of economic development. But we can expect democracy **not to lag behind dictatorships in economic development**. |
|  | **Democracy reduces economic inequality and poverty** | Democracies have growing economic inequalities. A small number of ultra-rich enjoy a lion share of wealth and those at the bottom of the society have very little to depend upon and find very difficult to meet their **basic needs of life, such as food, clothing, house, education and health**.  2.      Democratically elected governments address the **question of poverty by making various welfare schemes to remove poverty.**  3.      Democracies not only making welfare schemes but also give **reservations for socially and economically backward people in jobs, election and educational institutions**. |
|  | **Democracy Accommodates of social diversity** | emocracies usually develop a procedure to **accommodate various social groups**. This reduces the possibility of social tensions becoming explosive or violent.  2.      No society can fully and permanently resolve conflicts among different groups. But democracy is best to **handle social differences, divisions and conflicts**.  3.      But the example of Sri Lanka reminds us that a democracy must fulfill two conditions in order to achieve accommodation of social divisions,  a.       **It is necessary to understand that democracy is not simply rule by majority opinion**. The majority always needs to work with the minority so that governments function to represent the general view. |
|  | **Democracy promotes Dignity and freedom of the citizens** | Democracy stands much superior to any other form of government in promoting dignity and freedom of the **individual by providing Fundamental Rights**. Every individual wants to receive respect from fellow beings.  2.      The passion for respect and **freedom are the basis of democracy**. Democracies throughout the world have recognised this, at least in principle. This has been achieved in various degrees in various democracies.  3.      Take the case of **dignity of women**. Most societies across the world were historically male dominated societies. |
|  | **Expectation from democracy never gets over**. | As people get some benefits of democracy, they ask for **more and want to make democracy even better.**  2.      That is why, when we ask people about the way democracy functions, they will always come up with **more expectations**, and many complaints.  3.      The fact that people are complaining is itself a testimony to the success of democracy: it shows that people have developed awareness and the ability to expect and to look **critically at power holders and the high and the mighty**. |

Class X

History & Geography

The Rise of Nationalism in Europe

Nationalism is a sense of identity with the nation.   
Nationalism in Europe can be traced back to the decline of feudalism and the beginning of the Renaissance. The renaissance in Europe fostered new political ideas.  
The concepts of liberty, equality, Fraternity and nationalism dominated the social and political scene of Europe in the 19th century.  
Utopian vision refers to a vision of a society that is so ideal that it is unlikely to actually exist.  
Absolutism refers to a system of rule with a lot of uncontrolled power an oppressive monarchial government.  
A plebiscite is a direct vote by which the people of a region are asked to accept or reject a proposal.  
The end result of these changes was the emergence of the nation-state in place of the multi-national dynastic empires of Europe.

French Revolution

The revolutionaries referred to France as la patrie or the fatherland, where all citizens, known as le citoyen, enjoyed equal rights under the constitution. The revolutionaries tried to establish a collective French identity for the people by adopting French flag, composing nationalistic songs and hymns, discouraging the use of regional dialects and adopting French as the common language of France.  
The French Revolution had its impact on the administration as well.

A body of active citizens, elected the Estates General and renamed it the National Assembly.

A centralised administrative system was created formulating uniform laws for all French citizens.

All internal custom duties and dues were abolished.

A uniform system of weights and measures was adopted.

The metric system was founded by France in 1791. The French revolutionaries also took it upon themselves to help other European countries to overcome autocracy and form nations. The French armies were welcomed by European countries like Holland, Belgium, Switzerland and Italy in the 1790s.  
 Napoleon Bonaparte. He introduced several effective administrative changes like the civil code of 1804 introduced by Napoleon also known as the Napoleonic code.  
  
As per this code:

The privileges enjoyed by the noblemen and clergy on the basis of birth were abolished.

Equality before law and the right to property was secured.

The feudal system was abolished and the peasants were freed from serfdom and the payment of dues to the manor owner.

The businessmen and small producers of goods felt that uniform laws, standardised weights and a common national currency could facilitate free trade across Europe.

Guild restrictions were removed and transport and communication systems were improved.

The countries under the French rule soon realised that their political freedom that had been lost.  
Higher taxes, forced enrolment of people into the French army and censorship overshadowed the positive administrative changes brought about by Napoleon, and led to his downfall.

The Making of Nationalism in Europe

The prominent empires in Europe were the autocratic Ottoman Empire that ruled over eastern and central Europe, and Greece and the Habsburg Empire that ruled over Austria-Hungary. People residing in the Habsburg Empire spoke different dialects and did not share a collective past. The difference in cultural background and the desire to use the ideas of the French Revolution led people towards a common goal –nationalism.    
  
Members of this class, in Europe, were connected to each other because of their similar way of life and inter-marriages. They owned large estates in the country side and town houses.  
  
With industrialisation in the late 18th and 19th centuries, new social groups came into existence i.e. the working class and the middle class.  
The middle class had a free-thinking liberal mindset and the ideas of nationalism led them towards bridging the gap between aristocracy and other classes. They wanted to end the autocratic rule and form a national government of the people. The word liberalism traces its roots to the Latin word ‘liber,’ meaning free. The concept of liberalism was born in the middle class.  
  
The middle class believed in the need for freedom and equality of all individuals before law.    
Liberalism implied freedom of markets, and free movement of goods and capital. The Napoleonic Code, though revolutionary for its time, was unable to address the growing needs of the industrialists.  
  
In 1834, a customs union, or ‘Zollverein,’ was formed at the initiative of Prussia and joined by most of the German states. A railway network was initiated, which enhanced mobility and communication between the economies.

Rise of Conservatism and Revolutionaries

Liberalism was used by to end aristocracy and clerical privileges. After the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte in 1815, the European government adopted the idea of conservatism.  
Conservatives firmly believed that the aristocratic monarchies of Europe could gain a lot from a modern army, an efficient bureaucracy, a dynamic economy, and the abolition of feudalism and serfdom.

 In 1815, after the defeat of Napoleon, the representatives of European powers, namely Austria, Britain, Prussia and Russia, met at Vienna. This meeting is also known as the Treaty or Congress of Vienna. The chief architect and host of this treaty was the Austrian Chancellor, Duke Metternich.  
  
The purpose of this treaty was to undo all the territorial changes taken place during the Napoleonic wars and create a new conservative order in Europe.

The Bourbon dynasty was restored to power.

France lost most of the territories it had gained during Napoleon’s time.  To prevent the expansion of France in the future, certain states were set up along the boundaries of France.

The German confederation of 39 states set up by Napoleon was not touched at all during this division.

The kingdom of the Netherlands, including Belgium, was set up in the north of France.

Genoa was added to Piedmont in the south of France.

Russia was given a part of Poland, while Prussia was given a portion of Saxony.

The conservative regimes set up through the treaty of Vienna in 1815 were autocratic in nature. They tried to curb the freedom of expression and imposed censorship laws .  
After 1815, several liberals began working in secret societies all over Europe to propagate their views and train revolutionaries.   
Giuseppe Mazzini, a famous Italian revolutionary founded two underground societies called Young Italy in Marseilles, and Young Europe in Berne.  
  
In 1831, Mazzini was sent into exile for attempting a revolution in Liguria. Mazzini believed in the unification of the small kingdoms and principalities in Italy. These societies were joined by like-minded young men from Poland, France, Italy, and the German states

Age of Revolutions [1830 To 1848]

The period between 1830 and 1848 was witnessed the dramatic rise of two philosophies, liberalism and conservatism. Europe hence saw a series of revolutions in Italy, Germany, Poland, Turkey and Ireland.  
  
In 1821 in the Greek war of independence, the Greeks began a nationalist movement. Several poets (Lord Byron) and artists supported the Greek war against the Ottoman Empire. After the war, the Treaty of Constantinople was signed in 1832 and recognized Greece as an independent nation.  
  
In 1830 the Bourbon dynasty, restored in 1815 during the conservatives’ reaction, was overthrown by liberal revolutionaries. The French revolution of 1830 is also known as the July Revolution.  
  
In the 19th century, art, culture and literature helped in instilling the feeling of nationalism and also infusing the idea of a nation. After the French revolution, there was rise of a literary and cultural movement called romanticism, which sought to develop nationalist sentiment. This national sentiment was mobilised by artists by using the common language, or vernacular, and popular folk arts that people understood and identified with.  
  
In the first half of the 19th century, the population of Europe had increased a lot. This led to unemployment. Many people migrated from the rural areas to the growing slums in the cities.   
  
Small producers in towns faced stiff competition from cheap machine-made goods in England. In certain regions of Europe, aristocracy and feudalism still prevailed. In 1845 the Silesian weavers revolted against their contractors. In France, food shortage led to the peasants’ uprising in 1848

Revolutions of Liberals and Women

The history of Europe between 1830 and 1848 is lined with many revolts and uprisings.    
In Germany, many political associations from the middle and working class came together in Frankfurt to vote for an All-German National Assembly. On 18th May, 1948, the Frankfurt Parliament was convened in the Church of Saint Paul by members elected from various political associations.  
  
The members drafted a constitution based on the idea of a monarchy subject to parliament. When the members requested Friedrich Wilhelm IV, King of Prussia, to accept the crown, he declined. The middle class dominated the parliament and did not accept the demands of artisans and peasants. The aristocracy, powered by the army, got the Frankfurt Parliament disbanded.  
  
Though the conservatives managed to suppress liberal movements, they could not establish the old order. The monarchs realised that the demands of liberals could no longer be ignored. After 1848, the autocratic monarchies of central and eastern Europe began to incorporate changes that had already taken place in western Europe.  
  
Serfdom and bonded labour were abolished in the Habsburg Empire and Russia. The liberal revolutionaries exhibited narrow mindedness in their attitude towards women.   
In the Frankfurt Parliament women merely acted as spectators in the upper left gallery. Famous political activist Louise Otto-Peters wrote in the first editorial of her newspaper that liberty, without the liberty of women, benefited only one half of humanity, which were men. This awareness of women’s rights based on political and social equality of genders is also known as feminism.

Nation States - Germany, Italy and Britain

In 1848, the German middle class - professionals, businessmen, wealthy artists and artisans - joined to vote for an all-German National Assembly. They convened at the Frankfurt Parliament. The members of the parliament offered the crown to Friedrich Wilhelm the fourth, King of Prussia, who rejected.  
  
After the Frankfurt Parliament, Prussia became the leader of German unification. The man who played a crucial role in the unification was the Chief Minister of Prussia, Otto Von Bismarck. Bismarck was supported by the bureaucracy and the army.

 For German unification, three wars were fought over seven years - between 1864 and 1870 with Denmark, France and Austria.   
During the middle of the 19th century, Italy was divided into seven states.  Northern Italy was ruled by the Austrian part of the Habsburg Empire, Central Italy by the Pope, while the southern part and Parma by the Bourbon kings of Spain. Only one state, Sardinia Piedmont, was ruled by an Italian princely house.  
  
Mazzini was the leader of the Republican Party. He had formed secret societies like Young Italy to regenerate Italy by education. The rebellions staged by the revolutionaries in 1831 and 1848 failed. The responsibility of unifying Italy came to Victor Emmanuel the II, King of Sardinia Piedmont. The chief minister of Piedmont, Count Camillo di Cavour, helped the king in forming an alliance with France, and they defeated the Austrian in 1859.  
  
Giuseppe Garibaldi played an important role in the unification of Italy. He joined the war along with his armed volunteers called the ‘Red Shirts’. In 1860, Garibaldi and his troops marched into Southern Italy and the kingdom of two Sicilies. In 1861, Victor Emmanuel the second was announced King of united Italy. In 1867, Garibaldi and his volunteers attacked the French troops stationed in the Papal states.  
The concept of nation states, with England as the centre, came in 1688 after the parliament snatched power from the monarchy. In 1707, the Act of Union between England and Scotland resulted in the formation of the ‘United Kingdom of Great Britain.  
  
To ensure the growth of British identity, Scotland’s cultural and political institutions were suppressed. The British imposed control over Ireland as well. Ireland had two dominant groups, Catholics and Protestants. The English favoured the protestants, and the British helped them to dominate a largely catholic Ireland.  
  
In 1801, Ireland was forcibly incorporated into the United Kingdom after a failed Irish revolt. The symbols of new Britain were the English language, the Union Jack, and the British national anthem.

Visualising a Nation

A symbol is a visual image that represents something other than itself. It may be a representation using an object, picture, written word, sound or a particular mark.  
  
During the 18th and the 19th centuries, several symbols were used by artists and revolutionaries to depict abstract concepts. These symbols were usually popular images from everyday life that uneducated masses could easily identify with.   
  
  
The way of expressing an abstract idea like freedom or liberty through a symbol that may be person or thing is known as allegory. An allegory has a literal and a symbolic meaning. In the nineteenth century, French artists used the female allegory to represent France. She was named Marianne, She symbolises reason, liberty and the ideals of the republic.  
  
In Germany, the allegory for the nation was again a female figure called Germania. A Broken chain represented abolition of slavery.  
A fasces or a bundle of rods with an axe in the middle was used to symbolize strength in unity. The red Phrygian cap signified freedom of a slave. It was also known as the liberty cap.

Nationalism and Imperialism

After 1871, there was a significant change in the concept of nationalism in Europe.  
The major European powers, namely Russia, Germany, England and Austro-Hungary began taking advantage of nationalism in Europe, to materialise their aims for imperialism.  
Imperialism refers to the policy of extending the rule and the authority of an empire or nation over foreign countries, or of acquiring and holding colonies and dependencies.   
  
The European powers sighted the much-disturbed Balkan region to fulfil their imperialist goals. The Balkans region consisted of the following countries of our times - Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Greece, Macedonia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Slovenia, Serbia and Montenegro.   
  
People of different ethnicities and culture lived in the Balkans and were collectively known as Slavs. The spread of romantic nationalism and the downfall of the Ottoman Empire had made the Balkans peninsula very tense and volatile. The Ottoman Empire had not been able to strengthen itself even after having adopted reforms and modern methods.  
  
The Balkans argued that they had been dominated by foreign countries earlier so now they wanted to break away from the foreign rule and gain independence. The Balkans were jealous of each other and wanted to expand control over each other’s territories.  
Intensifying the tension further was the rivalry between the European powers over trade, colonies, and naval and military strength. To fulfil these aims, Russia, Germany, England and Austro-Hungary wanted to extend their control over the already disturbed Balkan region. The rivalry caused many wars and culminated in the First World War.  
  
Nationalism in India

The revolt or Sepoy Mutiny of 1857 was the first war of Indian independence.  
 People realised that they were experiencing a common suffering under the oppressive British colonial rule. This understanding brought the different groups together in their anti-colonial struggle.  
 The event which proved instrumental in the history of the Indian Freedom Struggle was the First World War India was forced to participate in the First World War in which the British for increasing their defence expenditure levied new taxes on Indians.  
 Common people were the forced to enrol in the army to fight in the First World War.  
 During 1918 India was hit by crop failure and shortage of food grains followed by famines and outbreak of influenza.  
   
This harsh social and political situation set the stage for the beginning of the nationalist struggle in India. The Indian freedom movement gained momentum with the coming of Mahatma Gandhi in 1915.  
 Idea of Satyagrah

Satyagraha literally means an appeal for truth and is passive resistance used powerfully to appeal to the conscience of the oppressor.  
   
Mahatma Gandhi successfully organised Satyagraha Movements in different parts of India.  Mahatma Gandhi used the concept of Satyagraha for mass mobilisation and political movements against the injustice of the government.  
   
In 1916, Mahatma Gandhi visited the poor peasants of Champaran district in Bihar. The British used to force the peasants of Champaran to cultivate indigo instead of food crops.  
   
The villages in Champaran were very unhygienic and affected by social evils like the pardah system and untouchability. Mahatma Gandhi started a drive to improve the infrastructure of villages in Champaran. He started a Satyagraha movement against the oppression of peasants.  
    
Mahatma Gandhi along with Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel, garnered mass support and organised a Satyagraha against the tax burden in Ahmedabad in 1918 to support the demands of the cotton mill workers.  
 The Rowlatt Act   
To control such movements, the British proposed the Rowlatt Act in 1919. The Rowlatt Act aimed to curb the political activities in the country and equipped the courts with the power to detain political prisoners without trial for two years.  
   
Mahatma Gandhi opposed the Rowlatt Act by starting a peaceful Satyagraha. He suggested a Civil Disobedience beginning with a hartal on 6th April 1919.  
    
On 13th April 1919 several villagers had gathered at the Jallianwalla Bagh in Amritsar to attend a cattle fair on the occasion of Baisakhi. General Dyer blocked all the entry points to the ground and without any prior warning, opened fire on the hapless crowd.  
   
The merciless firing continued for 10-15 minutes leaving hundreds of people including women and children dead and wounded.  
   
The Jallianwalla Bagh massacre triggered many protests, strikes, and clashes with policemen and attacks on Government buildings, across North India. The British Government suppressed these protests and humiliated the Satyagrahis.

Non-Cooperation Movement

In March 1919, the Ali brothers, Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali formed the Khilafat Committee in Bombay to garner support for the Turkish Khalifa. Mahatma Gandhi realised that Khilafat movement could be used to unite Muslims and Hindus for the common cause of a national movement.  
   
He hence launched the Non-cooperation Movement in support of Khilafat. To gain maximum reach and success, Mahatma Gandhi proposed a stage by stage strategy implementation for the movement:

The movement had to begin with a surrender of titles, honours and honorary posts by people.

Planned to shun or boycott Civil Services, Army, Police, British Courts and Legislative Assemblies, School and Colleges and British goods.

The British goods were to be replaced by domestic goods or Swadeshi to promote the native cottage industries.

In case of government suppression, Civil Disobedience Movement will be launched.

Mobilization of popular support.

After a lot of debates the Non-Cooperation Movement was adopted by the Congress during the Nagpur conference in December 1920. Under Mahatma Gandhi’s leadership Non- cooperation-Khilafat Movement began in full force.

Non-cooperation Movement in Towns and Countryside

The Non-cooperation-Khilafat Movement began in 1920. Many diverse regional groups joined this movement to meet their specific objectives. Many students, teachers and headmasters joined the movement. Lawyers also gave up their legal practice and joined in.People picketed the liquor shops and boycotted foreign goods and cloth.  

The Non-cooperation movement began with an active response from the people but it slowed after a while. The Non-cooperation movement spread to the rural areas as well and coincided with the protests of peasants and tribals.  
    
The Peasant movement developed a violent streak, as the peasants attacked houses of the landlords and looted markets. Leaders misused Mahatma Gandhi’s name and ideals.  
   
In the Gudem Hills of Andhra Pradesh, tribal peasants misinterpreted the meaning of Swaraj and had suffered a lot of oppression at the hands of the British. As a result they staged a rebellion under the leadership of a man called Alluri Sitaram Raju.  
Raju did not believe in the Gandhian ideals completely. He thought that freedom could be acquired by force and not non-violence. To achieve Swaraj, the rebels of Gudem hills attacked British officers and carried on Guerilla warfare. In 1924, Raju was captured and executed.

Non-Cooperation Movement in Plantations

The plantation workers in Assam worked under very strict rules and regulations. As per the Inland Immigration Act of 1859, the plantation workers were rarely allowed to leave the tea gardens without permission and were seldom allowed to go back homes.  
   
Inspired by the Non-Cooperation Movement, thousands of workers disobeyed the British authorities and left the plantations to go back to their homes.  
   
Their journey was disrupted due to railway and streamer strikes, were caught by the police and beaten up.    
On 4th February, 1922 thousands of protesters gathered to picket of the liquor shop at the local market in Chauri Chaura.  
 The sub inspector ordered fire on the crowd which 3 protestors were killed and several others got injured.  
   
To avenge the death of the protestors, the frantic crowd set the Police station on fire. In this incident 22 policemen were burnt alive, including the station sub inspector. Shocked by the growing violence, Mahatma Gandhi decided to take back the Non-Cooperation Movement in February 1922.

Civil Disobedience Movement

The growth of the National Movement was influenced by two factors;

The worldwide Economic Depression and

The formulation of the Simon Commission under Sir John Simon.

The Simon Commission was a statutory commission aimed at looking into the constitutional system of India and suggest changes. It was an all-white commission without any Indian representation.  
   
In 1928, when Simon Commission came to India all parties protested against it. To pacify the leaders, Lord Irwin the Viceroy gave a vague offer of Dominion status to India and also proposed a round table conference.  
   
In the Lahore session of the Congress, in 1929 Jawaharlal Nehru declared the demand for Purna Swaraj.   
Mahatma Gandhi discovered salt was a common ingredient in the food of both rich and poor. He viewed the tax on salt and the monopoly of the Government on its production as downright oppressive.  
   
On 31st January 1930, he sent a letter to Lord Irwin stating eleven wide ranging demands of various classes of India. The launch of Civil Disobedience was also stated.  
   
On refusal to negotiate by the British, Mahatma Gandhi launched a salt March from Sabarmati Ashram to the coastal town of Dandi in Gujarat.  
   
On 6th April Mahatma Gandhi broke the salt law manufactured salt by boiling sea water. This marked the beginning of the Civil Disobedience Movement.

Gandhi-Irwin Pact and Round Table Conference

Under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, the Civil Disobedience Movement spread across the country like wildfire.   
In April 1930, Abdul Gaffar Khan, a political and spiritual leader and follower of Gandhiji was arrested. Demonstrations and protests followed to oppose Gaffar Khan’s arrest which was suppressed by the British.  
 The British government dealt with the protestors with an iron hand. Around 10,000 Satyagrahis were arrested and small children and women were thrashed by the police.  
 Mahatma Gandhi decided to call off the Civil Disobedience movement in 1931. On 5th March 1931, Mahatma Gandhi entered into a pact with Lord Irwin the viceroy of India known as the Gandhi-Irwin Pact. He agreed to participate in the Round Table Conference to be held in London.  
   
In December 1931, Mahatma Gandhi visited London but came back disheartened as the negotiations did not reach any final decision.  
 On his arrival in India, he found that several Congress leaders had been arrested the Congress was declared an illegal party. Mahatma Gandhi hence re-launched the Civil Disobedience Movement but it lost its momentum by 1934.

Attitude of Different Sections of Society

Several people from different sections of society had participated in the Civil Disobedience Movement to meet their specific objectives. The rich peasant communities of Gujarat and UP were badly affected by the economic depression and the resultant fall in agricultural prices.  
   
They demanded the revenue to be waived off but the government refused and hence they joined the Civil Disobedience Movement.  
   
In 1931 the movement was abruptly called off by Mahatma Gandhi without any revision of the revenue rates. Hence, they did not participate in the Civil Disobedience Movement when it was re- launched in 1932.  
   
The poor peasants grappled with the problem of paying rent during the time of Depression.   
To get the business class together, Indian Industrial and Commercial Congress was formed in 1920 and the Federation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industries (FICCI) in 1927. These organisations were headed by prominent business personalities like Purushottamdas Thakurdas and G.D. Birla.  
   
Business class viewed Swaraj as an ideal situation, favourable for the growth of their business, a time when all colonial restrictions would be removed. However, the failure of the Second Round table Conference and the growth of socialist ideas in Congress disappointed the business class and made them anxious about the future.  
   
The Hindustan Socialist Republican Army or HSRA was formed in 1928 with Bhagat Singh, Jatin Das and Ajoy Ghosh its prominent leaders.  
   
The industrial working class adopted a few Gandhian ideas like boycott of foreign goods as part of their own movement against low wages and poor working conditions.  The Civil Disobedience Movement witnessed mass participation of women. They were involved in protests, picketing and boycotts and also helped in manufacturing salt.  
   
Personification of Indian Nationalism  
Common folklore, song, popular pictures and symbols also helped in solidifying unity and the spirit of nationalism. The image of Bharat Mata was first created by Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyay. He also wrote our national song ‘Vande Mataram’.  
 The portrayal of Bharat Mata also underwent a lot of changes. In the 1905, painting by Abhanindranath tagore Bharat Mata is not portrayed as an ascetic. She is holding a flag and standing beside an Elephant and Lion both of which are symbols of power and authority.  
The Indian tricoloured flag with red, green and yellow colour was first designed during the Swadeshi Movement in Bengal.  
   
In 1921, Mahatma Gandhi redesigned the Indian flag with the spinning wheel or Charka at the centre. This flag was often used by nationalists during protests and marches. The growth of nationalism also happened through the process of reinterpretation of history.  
    
The glories of the past and the symbols used by nationalists such as Bharat Mata were all very Hindu in nature. Consequently, people of other religions and communities felt alienated.

GEOGRAPHY

Minerals and Energy Resources

Types and Occurrence of Minerals

Minerals are defined as naturally occurring homogeneous substances that have a definite internal structure. Some minerals are essential for our body to carry out its chemical and biological processes. A rock may contain one or several types of minerals mixed with organic material.  
  
  
Minerals are classified as metallic minerals, non-metallic minerals and energy or fuel minerals. The metallic minerals can be further classified as ferrous minerals, or the ones that contain iron, non-ferrous minerals and precious metals, like gold, silver and platinum.  
  
Minerals occur in the earth’s crust as:

Veins and lodes in igneous and metamorphic rocks

Beds or layers in sedimentary rocks

Alluvial or placer deposits on valley floors

Residual mass after weathering of surrounding rocks

Some metallic minerals, like gold, silver, platinum and tin, are found as alluvial deposits in the sand and soil in valleys. Such alluvial deposits are also called placer deposits.  India has rich mineral resources in some parts of its territory. To be an ore, a mineral should:

Be abundantly available

Offer sufficient concentration of an element

Have a commercially viable process of extraction

All the mineral reserves in India are owned by the government. In Meghalaya, families lay claim to coal deposits, and mine coal by digging long narrow tunnels in the ground. This practice is called rat hole mining.

Non-Metallic Minerals

Mica is a non-metallic mineral composed of thin leaves or sheets joined together. Mica is found in many colours, from transparent to black, green, yellow, brown and red. Mica provides excellent electrical insulation with low power-loss even at very high voltages. Mica is used extensively in the electrical and electronics industries.   
  
The main mica-producing regions in India are the northern Chhota Nagpur Plateau in Jharkhand, Ajmer in Rajasthan and Nellore in Andhra Pradesh. The Koderma, Gaya and Hazaribagh belt in Jharkhand is the largest producer of mica in India.

 Limestone is a form of sedimentary rock almost entirely composed of calcium carbonate. Limestone is mainly used in smelting iron ore and in the manufacturing of cement.             
                 
Andhra Pradesh is the main limestone-producing state in India, followed by Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu and others.  
  
Mine workers face serious risks to their health and life. Indiscriminate mining leads to extensive deforestation. Dumping of mining waste results in soil and land degradation and pollution of air and fresh water bodies.  
  
We need stricter laws and implementation of personal and environmental safety regulations to keep mining a safe activity. Usable minerals are only about 1% of the earth’s crust. Minerals are limited and non-renewable resources. Continuous mining starts yielding poor quality ores at much higher cost. We need to conserve our mineral resources. Recycling and reusing material finding suitable substitutes of minerals can help us conserve our mineral resources.

Energy Resources

The conventional sources of energy include firewood, cattle dung cakes, minerals like coal, petroleum and natural gas, and electricity generated by flowing water or burning fuel.  
  
The non-conventional sources of energy include solar  energy, wind energy, tidal energy, geothermal energy, atomic energy and biogas. Firewood and cattle dung cakes are the primary sources of energy, meeting around 70% of the total energy requirement in our villages.  
Coal  
The intense heat and pressure over millions of years has turned prehistoric plant material buried under the earth into coal. The variety of coal depends on how long the plant material has been buried, at what depth and under how much pressure. Peat is a low carbon variety that has high moisture and provides low heat output. Lignite is a soft, low-grade variety of coal that has high moisture content and appears brownish in colour.  
  
Bituminous coal is formed from plant material buried deep in the earth and subjected to very high temperature. Bituminous coal is the most important commercial variety of coal used in metallurgical applications like smelting of iron. The best and the most expensive variety of coal is called anthracite.  
  
In India, coal is found as Gondwana deposits that are over 200 million years old, and tertiary deposits that are just about 55 million years old. The Gondwana deposits in India are found in the Damodar valley in West Bengal and Jharkhand and the Mahanadi, Godavari, Son and Wardha valleys. Tertiary deposits of coal are found in the north-eastern states of Assam, Meghalaya, Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland.  
Petroleum provides fuels like petrol and diesel, industrial lubricants and raw material for a number of industries including textiles, fertilisers and cosmetics.  
  
Petroleum deposits are found in anticlines and fault traps in rock formations. Off-shore oil fields in Mumbai High account for 63% of the total petroleum production in India. This is followed by 18% of the production coming from Gujarat and 16% from Assam. Ankaleshwar in Gujarat, and Digboi, Naharkatiya and Moran-Hugrijan in Assam are other major oil fields in India. Assam is the oldest oil-producing state in India.  
  
Natural gas is a mixture of gases, primarily methane, which is found trapped in rocks. Natural gas is used as auto fuel (CNG), to generate electricity and in the fertiliser industry. Large deposits of natural gas have been found in the Krishna-Godavari basin, Mumbai High, the Gulf of Cambay and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.  
  
The natural gas fields in Mumbai High and Bassein are linked to the power and fertiliser plants in western and northern India by the 1700-kilometre long Hazira-Vijaipur-Jagdishpur or HVJ Natural Gas Pipeline.

Electricity and Non-Conventional Sources of Energy

The electricity generated by the energy of flowing water is called hydroelectricity which is a renewable resource of energy. Large hydropower plants like Bhakra Nangal, Damodar Valley Corporation and Kopili are called multi-purpose river projects.  
  
Electricity generated from the heat of burning fuel minerals like coal, petroleum and natural gas is called thermal electricity and hence is produced using non-renewable fossil fuels. India has over 310 thermal power plants. Nuclear or atomic energy is also used to generate electricity.  
India currently has 6 operational nuclear power plants in Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat

non-conventional sources of energy are solar energy, wind energy, biogas, tidal energy and geothermal energy. The secret of using solar power  lies in photovoltaic technology  
Wind turbines convert the energy of the blowing wind into electricity. The largest wind farm in India is in Tamil Nadu, spread from Nagercoil to Madurai.

 Animal, human and farm waste produce biogas on decomposition, which is a better fuel than kerosene, cattle dung cakes, firewood and coal. Biogas plants that operate on animal waste are called gobar gas plants in India.  
  
Oceanic tides are used to generate electricity called tidal energy. The National Hydropower Corporation has set up a 900 megawatt tidal energy plant in the Gulf of Kutch that provides excellent conditions for harnessing tidal energy.  Conservation of Energy

Minerals are non-renewable resources. Thus, the supply of coal, petroleum and natural gas is limited. Heavy dependence on fuel minerals for energy is not a sustainable plan to meet our future energy requirements.  
  
A sustainable path of energy development involves:

Finding renewable, non-conventional sources of energy

Conservation of the energy available today

. We can conserve fuel minerals like petroleum and natural gas by forming car pools and using public transport instead of private vehicles. And also, by using better, renewable fuels like biogas in place of coal for cooking. We can conserve energy by switching off all lights, fans and electrical devices when not required and using power saving devices.

Manufacturing Industries

The process of using raw material to produce more valuable goods in large quantities is called manufacturing. Industries that manufactured finished products from primary material are called manufacturing industries in the secondary sector.

Location and Classification of Industries

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The ideal location for a factory will be a place that has easy and low-cost availability of raw material, capital, land, labour, power, transport, and market.  
  
Based on their source of raw material, manufacturing industries are classified as agro-based industries and mineral-based industries.

Based on the weight or bulk of the raw material used and the finished products, manufacturing industries can be classified as heavy and light industries.

Based on their role, manufacturing industries can be classified as basic or key industries, and consumer industries. Based on the capital investment, manufacturing industries can be classified as small-scale and large scale-industries.

Based on ownership, manufacturing industries can be classified as public sector, private sector, joint sector and cooperative industries.  
  
The National Manufacturing Competitiveness Council or NMCC has been set up to achieve a growth of 12% in the manufacturing industry by adopting appropriate policies and improving productivity

Agro-Based Industries

Agro Based industries obtain raw metarial from agriculture like cotton, jute silk, woolen textiles, sugar and edible oil. Such as Textile Industries, Cotton Textile, Jute Textile, Sugar Industries. Textile industries contribute 4% in GDP and Cotton textile is the tradition of india about 1600 cotton and human made fiber textile mills in india in which 80 % are in private sector and rest in public co-operative sector. Cotton textile belt is Maharashtra and Gujrat.

Jute Textile –there are about 70 jute mills in India mostly located in West Bengal, with the Bank of Hugli Riverin a narrow belt (98 km long and 3km wide). In sugar industries India Stand in Second position in world for sugar production and First in Gur & Khandsari production about 460 mills are in country spread over in UP, Bihar, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu andra Pradesh , Gujrat, Punjab , MP . 60 % mills are in UP & Bihar.

Mineral Based Industries

The iron and steel industry is the basic industry on which all other industries depend. The production and per capita consumption of steel is a measure of a country’s economic development.  
  
The main raw materials used in the iron and steel industry are iron ore, coal and limestone. The raw materials and finished products of iron and steel industries are quite bulky, these industries must be located near the mining areas of the required minerals and must be connected by a good transport network.  
  
India is the ninth largest producer of crude steel and the largest producer of sponge iron in the world. India is also a leading exporter of steel in the world.  
  
The per capita consumption of steel in India is only 32 kilograms. There are 10 primary integrated steel plants in India.   
  
China has become the world’s largest producer and consumer of steel, leaving India far behind. Most steel manufacturing industries are located in the Chhota Nagpur Plateau   
Aluminium is a lightweight, corrosion-resistant metal with excellent malleability and ductility. Aluminium is a good conductor of heat and electricity, and can be alloyed with other metals to make it stronger. Aluminium is increasingly being used as a substitute for steel, copper, zinc and lead in several industries.  The process of deriving metallic aluminium from its ore is called aluminium smelting. Aluminium smelting is the second most important metallurgical industry in India.  
  
Bauxite is the chief ore of aluminium. Bauxite is refined to produce alumina, which is smelted to derive metallic aluminium.  
  
India has 8 aluminium smelting plants located in Orissa, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Chhattisgarh and Maharashtra.

The Indian chemical industry is the third largest in Asia and the 12th largest in the world. The Indian chemical industry contributes 3% to our national GDP.  
  
The main inorganic chemicals produced in India include sulphuric acid, nitric acid, alkalis, soda ash and caustic soda. Sulphuric acid is used in the production of fertilisers, plastics, synthetic fibres, adhesives, paints and dyes. Soda ash is used in manufacturing soap, glass, detergents and paper. Petrochemicals are materials derived as the by-products of petroleum refining. Petrochemicals are used to manufacture synthetic fibre, synthetic rubber, dyes and paints, fertilisers, adhesives and medicinal drugs.

Fertiliser, Cement, Automobile and IT Industries

The first Fertiliser plant was established at Ranipet in Tamil nadu in 1906.

Mainly Fertilizer Industry is the production of nitogeneous fertilizers (Urea) , phosphatic fertilizers and ammonium phosphate (DAP) and complex fertilizers which have combination of nitrogen (N), phosphate (P), and potash(K).

Cement -Lime stone, silica, alumina and gypsum and the bulky and heavey raw metarial used in this industry. The first cement plant was set up in Chennai in 1904. Cement industries expended maily after independence. There are 128 large and 332 mini cement plants in country.

Automobiles industry has enabled people to travel and transport goods father and faster. Truck, buses, cars, motor cycles, scooters, three wheelers and multi-utility vehicles are manufactured in India at various centers.

IT & ElectronicsIndustries are growing very fast in Indian Economy. Electronic Industry covers a wide range of productsfrom transistor sets to television, telephones, cellular telecom, radars, computer , laptops, Tabs and many other equipment required by the telecommunication industry

Industrial Pollution and Environment Degradation

Air Pollution-Smoke contains undesirable gases like carbon dioxide, sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide, besides solid and liquid particulate matter, in the form of dust and spray mist, which cause air pollution. Air pollution affects the health of humans, animals and plants alike and also causes damage to buildings.  
  
Water pollution is caused by the discharge of untreated chemical waste like dyes, detergents, acids, heavy metals like lead and mercury, pesticides, fertilisers, and plastics from industries, into fresh water bodies like rivers and lakes. Solid wastes like fly ash, phospo gypsum, and iron and steel slag also cause water pollution.

Noise Pollution-Loud noise can lead to irritation, loss of hearing, and an increase in blood pressure and heart rate. Industrial machinery, construction activities, generators, and equipment like saws and pneumatic drills are mainly responsible for noise pollution.

One of the most important steps for the control of environmental degradation is treating hot and polluted wastewater from industries before releasing it into our rivers and lakes.  
  
Wastewater treatment involves:

Primary treatment through screening, grinding, flocculation and sedimentation.

Secondary treatment through bacterial action to digest harmful chemicals.

Tertiary stage of stirring with chemicals to neutralise remaining harmful waste.

Treated wastewater can be recycled for reuse in industrial processes. Rainwater harvesting can be used to meet the requirements of water for industrial processes.  
  
Legal provisions must be made to regulate the use of groundwater for industrial use. Smoke stacks, filters, scrubbers, and electrostatic and inertial separators remove a large amount of harmful particles from industrial smoke. The emission of smoke itself from industries can be reduced by using more efficient fuels like oil and natural gas in place of coal.  
  
Industrial and generator silencers, and sound-absorbing material are available to reduce the noise level in industries. Industrial workers can use earphones and earplugs for individual protection of health and hearing.

Life Lines of National Economy

[Means of Transport and Communication](http://www.learnnext.com/nextgurukul/wiki/concept/CBSE/X/Geography/Means-of-Transport-and-Communication.htm)

Transport is a key factor that influences India’s rapid economic development. Based on the medium it uses, the means of transport can be divided into land transport, water transport and air transport.

Land transport includes roadways and railways and pipelines used to transport liquid and gaseous material over long distances.

Water transport can be classified as inland transport and overseas transport. Inland transport happens along coastline between two domestic ports or through inland waterways. Overseas transport involves sending goods from one country to another.

Air transport can be classified as domestic and international. Private and government-run domestic airways connect different cities of India. International airways connect India with destinations in all parts of the world.

Roadways have some practical advantages over railways:

Road is easier to construct at a lower cost.

Roads are easier to lay on undulating land and steep slopes, like in a mountainous region.

Is cheaper and transports a small number of people or goods over short distances.

Roads door-to-door connectivity.

Provides direct feeder links to other places of goods transport, like seaports, airports and railway stations.

 Based on their capacity to sustain traffic, roads are classified into the following six types: The Golden Quadrilateral Super Highways, National Highways, State Highways, District Roads, Border Roads and Other Roads.  
  
The Golden Quadrilateral reduces travelling time between the major cities of India. The National Highways Authority of India, NHAI, will construct six-lane super highway connecting Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkata. These roads will form four sides of a quadrilateral, and hence the name.  
The east-west corridor connects Silchar in Assam to Porbandar in Gujarat. The north-south corridor connects Srinagar in Jammu and Kashmir to Kanyakumari in Tamil Nadu. [Indian](http://www.learnnext.com/nextgurukul/wiki/concept/CBSE/X/Geography/Roadways.htm) national highways are constructed and maintained by the Central Public Works Department, or CPWD.

State roads linking the state capital with different district headquarters are called state highways. State highways are constructed and maintained by the Public Works Department, or PWD, of the state concerned.  
  
The roads connecting a district headquarter to other destinations in the district are called district roads. These roads are constructed and maintained by the Zila Parishad concerned.

Border Roads-The roads that run close to India’s international border in the north and north-eastern parts of the country are called. Border Roads are constructed and maintained by the Border Roads Organisation that was set up in 1960.  
  
Other roads are mostly rural roads that connect villages with nearby towns. The Government of India has launched a special programme called the Pradhan Mantri Grameen Sadak Yojna to develop such rural roads and connect each village to a town by a motorable road.  
  
The length of roads per hundred square kilometres of area is called road density. Jammu and Kashmir has the lowest road density at 10 kilometres, while Kerala has the highest at 375 kilometres. The average road density of Indian states is 75 kilometres.  
  
India roadways are facing many challenges like:

The roads and national highways in India are not enough to accommodate the large volume of road traffic. This leads to frequent traffic jams.

50% of the roads in India are unmetalled and become difficult during the monsoons.

Roads and bridges in most Indian cities are quite narrow.

Railways and Pipelines

. The first train service began from Boribunder, now known as Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus in Mumbai, to Thane, 60 kilometres away in 1853.  
  
The [Indian](http://www.learnnext.com/nextgurukul/wiki/concept/CBSE/X/Geography/Railways-and-Pipelines.htm) railway network is spread over 63,221 route kilometres, connecting 7,031 railway stations all over the country, divided into 16 railway zones.  
  
The vast Indian railways network is serviced by 7,739 locomotives, 29,236 coaches and 2,16,717 wagons. The distance between the two rails forming a railway track determines the gauge of the railway line. Indian railways operate on narrow gauge, meter gauge and broad gauge lines.  
  
Broad gauge forms the biggest part of the Indian railway network. The Indian Railways have undertaken a programme, called Project Unigauge, to convert all metre gauge and narrow gauge railway lines into broad gauge lines.  
  
The construction of railways depends largely on local terrain, and economic and administrative factors.

The sandy deserts of Rajasthan, the swamps of Gujarat, and the heavily forested regions of Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand are some of the challenges railways have overcome for expansion in these regions. The Konkan railway route is prone to landslides and sinking of railway lines. Considering the volume of passengers and goods transported, Indian Railways is more important to India’s economy than all other means of transport.  
  
Our railways are facing certain challenges like:

Many passengers travel on trains without a proper ticket leading to a huge revenue loss to the railways

Misuse of the safety feature to stop the train

People disrupt railway traffic and damage railway property in the name of demonstrations.

Pipelines are networks of pipes that bring water into our house and take wastes away. Now pipelines are being used to transport several industrial materials.  
  
There are three important gas and oil pipeline networks in India. An oil pipeline runs from the oil fields in Digboi in Assam to Kanpur in Uttar Pradesh via Guwahati, Barauni and Allahabad. The main branches of this oil pipeline are Guwahati to Siliguri, Barauni to Haldia via Rajbandh, and Rajbandh to Maurigram.    
  
Another oil pipeline runs from oil fields in Salaya in Gujarat to Jalandhar in Punjab. This oil pipeline passes through Viramgam, Mathura, Delhi and Sonipat. It has several branches leading to Koyali and Chakshu, etc.  
  
A natural gas pipeline runs from the Hazira gas fields in Gujarat to Jagdishpur in Uttar Pradesh, while passing through Vijaipur in Madhya Pradesh. Its branches supply gas to Kota in Rajasthan and several places like Barbala and Shahjahanpur in Uttar Pradesh. Pipelines are difficult and expensive to construct. But once constructed, they require very little maintenance and save a lot of money by eliminating transport losses and delays.

Waterways and Airways

Large rivers and backwaters provide around 14,500 kilometres of inland waterways in India where, only 3,700 kilometres of these are accessible to mechanised boats.  
  
Inland waterways in India are provided by the rivers Ganga, Brahmputra, Godavari, Krishna, Brahmani, Barak, canals like the East-West canal, West Coast canal, Buckingham canal, Damodar Valley Corporation canal and the Sunderbans area.  
  
National waterway number 1 on the Ganga connects Allahabad in Uttar Pradesh to Haldia in West Bengal covering a distance of 1,620 kilometres.

National waterway number 2 on the Brahmaputra connects Sadiya in Arunachal Pradesh to Dhubri in Assam covering a distance of 891 kilometres.

 National waterway number 3 on the West Coast canal in Kerala connects Kottapurma in the north to Ashtamudi Kayal in the south, covering a distance of 205 kilometres.  
Around 95% of India’s international trade is carried out from these 12 major ports which are:

The Kandla Port in the Gulf of Kutch handles exports and imports for the fertile plains and industrial belts spread over Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Rajasthan and Gujarat.

The Mumbai Port is the largest port in India.

The Jawaharlal Nehru Port at Navi Mumbai was constructed to decongest traffic at the old Mumbai port.

The Mormugao Port in Goa handles around 50% of the total iron ore exports from India.

The New Mangalore Port in Karnataka handles excellent quality iron ore from the Kudermukh mines.

The Kochi Port is a natural harbor and the last port on the south-west coast.

The Tuticorin Port in Tamil Nadu handles cargo bound for India as well as our neighbouring countries like Sri Lanka and the Maldives.

The Chennai Port which is one of the oldest artificial ports in India, and second only to Mumbai in terms of volume of trade and cargo handled.

The Vishakhapatnam Port is the country’s deepest, most protected landlocked port.

The Paradip Port in Orissa is the main centre for the export of iron ore.

The Haldia Port was developed to decongest the Kolkata Port.

The tidal port of Kolkata has a rich Ganga-Brahmaputra hinterland and is an inland port services by the river Hooghly.

AirWays-The main advantage of using airways is that it can easily cross all kinds of terrain - from mountains, deserts, rainforests and wetlands to oceans. Nationalised air transport in India began in 1953 with the launch of Air India and [Indian](http://www.learnnext.com/nextgurukul/wiki/concept/CBSE/X/Geography/Waterways-and-Airways.htm) Airlines. Air India operates international flights from India.  
  
Indian Airlines and its fully owned subsidiary Alliance Air operate domestic flights in India. Indian Airlines operates international flights to some countries in south-east Asia, south Asia and the Middle East. A lot of private airlines operate domestic flights in India.  
  
Helicopter is another means of air travel that does not require long runways to take off or land, unlike airplanes. This form of air transport is especially useful in the north-eastern parts of India where densely forested mountains crisscrossed by rivers make it difficult to construct roads and railways. Pawan Hans Helicopter Company Limited provides helicopter services to government enterprises like ONGC and passenger services in mountainous area that are difficult to access.  
  
Air travel is still very expensive in India and out of the reach of a large part of the population

Means of Communication

Trade requires some means of exchanging ideas and connecting with people. This is where communication comes in.

Some common means of communication are radio, television, cinema, newspapers, the Internet, fax and phone services. A dense, efficient network of transport, and extensive, reliable means of communication are the true lifelines of trade and economic development for India and the rest of the world.

International Trade & Tourism

The exchange of goods between people, companies, states or countries is called trade. The trade within a locality or between towns or villages of a state is called local trade. The trade between two states is called state-level trade. The trade between two countries is called international trade.  
When the value of the exports of a country is more than the value of its imports, the country is said to have a favourable balance of trade. When the value of the imports of a country is more than the value of its exports, the country is said to have an unfavourable balance of trade.  
  
The main categories of products imported into India are petroleum and petroleum products, pearls and gemstones, inorganic chemicals, coal, coke and briquettes and machinery. The bulk imports group accounts for around 39% of the total imports by India and includes fertilisers, cereals, edible oils and newsprint

Tourism is an important form of international trade. The Indian tourism industry employs around 15 million people to take care of around 2.6 million foreign tourists who visit India every year. Foreign tourists visit India for heritage tourism, eco-tourism, adventure tourism, cultural tourism, medical tourism and business tourism.  
  
Tourism not only promotes national integration, it also gives tremendous boost to local handicraft industries and helps foreign tourists to understand and appreciate our cultural heritage.