

HISTORY

STATIC SHOTS REVISION MODULE



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Exams.



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PREFACE

Dear Students, We, Short Notes IAS compiled these notes from various sources and we tried our best to cover each and every important topic that should be covered.

As you know, these are prepared for Revision purpose only and these cannot be used as substitutes for Standard Books, but can be used as supplements.

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We wish you all the Best.

Yours

Short Notes IAS





ANCIENT HISTORY

PRE-HISTORIC PERIOD

Prehistoric period belongs to the time where Human species started using stone (**'lithos' in Greek**) tools for their survival.

Prehistoric figure, **Narmada Man** or **Narmada Human** is the earliest *Homo* species of Indian sub-continent. This fossil was found on banks of Narmada River in Hathnora Village of Madhya Pradesh in 1982.

Prehistoric period classified into three categories, 1) Stone Age, 2) Bronze Age and 3) Iron Age.

Stone Age is divided into three periods, Paleolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic. Among them, Paleolithic [longest] and Mesolithic represent hunting-gathering stage while the Neolithic represents the stage of food production, i.e., plant cultivation and animal husbandry.

Paleolithic Age:

- ✦ The term Paleolithic was coined by archaeologist **John Lubbock in 1865**.
- ✦ **Lingsugur** in Raichur district, Karnataka was the first Paleolithic site to be discovered from India.
- ✦ It is divided into three periods as Lower Paleolithic, Middle Paleolithic and Upper Paleolithic ages. The transition from each of these phases to successive phases marked by *increased fineness in the stone tools* and technology of that time.
- ✦ Lower Paleolithic age tools – **Hand axe and cleaver**.
- ✦ Middle Paleolithic age tools – **Flakes**.
- ✦ Upper Paleolithic tools – **Flakes and blades**.

Mesolithic Age:

The **Mesolithic tools smaller in size and better in finishing** as more geometric than the Paleolithic age and are called **Microliths**. These microliths are tiny tools of **one to five centimeters** length, made by blunting one or more sides with steep retouch.

- ▲ The main tool types are backed blades, obliquely truncated blades, points, crescents, triangles and trapezes.
- ▲ Some of the microliths were used as components of spearheads, arrowheads, knives, sickles, harpoons and daggers.
- ▲ They were fitted into grooves in bone, wood and reed shafts and joined together by natural adhesives like gum and resin.

Some examples of earliest cultivation of plants around 7000-6000 years back have been found near Sambhar Lake in Ajmer Rajasthan, Mehrgarh in Pakistan etc.

- ✦ The first animals to be domesticated were dog, cattle, sheep and goat and the first plants to be cultivated were wheat and barley.





- ✦ The first evidence of intentional disposal of the dead comes from Mesolithic Era. Mesolithic human burials have been found at Bagor in Rajasthan, Langhnaj in Gujarat, Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh etc.,

Neolithic Age:

Neolithic period began at 7000 BC and the earliest example is Mehrgarh Culture.

- ▲ The smelting of metals such as Copper began which was used for raw material to be used in tool production.
- ▲ Later, they mixed Tin with copper and created bronze and found bronze was stronger metal than both tin and copper.
- ▲ Use of bronze for tools led to the invention of wheel which revolutionized transport and pottery production.

Mehrgarh is located on the Bolan River, a tributary of the Indus, at the eastern edge of the Baluchistan plateau overlooking the Indus plain.

- ✦ It is supposed to be the oldest agricultural settlement in the Indian subcontinent. Here they learnt use of making stone beads, copper smelting, timber, terracotta, commercial transactions.
- ✦ The first evidence in human history for the drilling of teeth in a living person was found in Mehrgarh.

Chalcolithic Period:

Use of metals along with stones began with the Chalcolithic or Eneolithic period with abundant use of copper. The earliest settlements of the Chalcolithic period in India range from the Gangetic basin to **Chhotanagpur Plateau**.

- ▲ The use of **painted pottery is a hall mark of the Chalcolithic period**. Chalcolithic pottery ranges from red ware, deep red ware to deep brown and black, pictographic red and black and polished red.
- ▲ In Kashmir, the people of Neolithic settlements used to bury dogs with their masters.
- ▲ The largest site of the Chalcolithic period is **Diamabad** situated on the left bank of the **Pravara River**.

Chalcolithic period doesn't know about Iron and the invention of Iron gave birth to Iron Age. The decline of Chalcolithic period started with Iron Age. Iron Age is also known as **emergence of Aryans**.

INDUS VALLEY CIVILIZATION

The term "Indus Valley Civilization" was used by **John Marshall** for the first time. Indus Valley Civilization is also known as Harappan Civilization.

Harappa is the first discovered site of this civilization excavated in 1921 by a team led by **Daya Ram Sahni**. It is located in Punjab Province, Pakistan, on an old bank / bed of the River Ravi.





Northern-most site - Manda (Jammu-Kashmir), Southern-most site - Daimabad (Maharashtra), Eastern-most site - Alamgirpur (Uttar Pradesh), Western-most site - Sutkagendor (Pakistan-Iran border).

- ▲ The important findings at Harappa include pottery, chert blades, copper or bronze implements, terracotta figurines, seals and sealing, weights, etc.,
- ▲ Harappa is the only site which yields the evidence of coffin burial.
- ▲ A copper bullock cart is also one among many important findings.

Mahenjo-Daro:

Mohenjo-Daro (mound of dead) was excavated by a team led by **R.D. Banerjee** in 1922. It is located in the Larkana District of Sindh Pakistan on bank of Indus River.

Important findings at Mahenjo-Daro:

- ✦ The famous bronze dancing girl.
- ✦ Steatite statue of bearded priest.
- ✦ Seal of Pashupati.
- ✦ Numerous terracotta figurines.

The most famous and important finding at Mohenjo-Daro is **The Great Bath**. It is a 6×12 meter beautiful brick work mound on **Citadel**. **Burnt bricks, Mortar and Gypsum** are used for the construction but **no signs of stones involved**. It is constructed with well organised drainage system.

Kalibangan:

Kalibangan (black bangles) is in Hanumangarh district of Rajasthan. The site was first discovered by **Italian Luigi Pio Tessitori** and was later excavated extensively by **A Ghosh**.

Important findings at Kalibangan:

- ✦ The oldest ploughed field.
- ✦ Earliest recorded Earthquake evidences.
- ✦ Charging bull.
- ✦ Tiled floors.
- ✦ Two kinds of burials (circular and rectangular graves).

The biggest difference in this site is, the bricks in other sites were baked ones, while **Kalibangan bricks are earthen ones**. There was no drainage system in Kalibangan.

Dholavira:

- ▲ Dholavira is located in Rann of Kutch of Gujarat, excavated in 1990s by a team led by **R S Bisht**.
- ▲ One of the most important findings of Dholavira is a **signboard with Indus Script**.

Lothal:

- ▲ Discovered in 1953 by S Rao.
- ▲ Lothal is located in Ahmadabad, Gujarat which was a coastal town.





- ▲ Important findings of Lothal include an **artificial dockyard**, **bead factory** and **Double burial** (male female together).

VEDIC PERIOD

Vedic Period is the period where Vedas Emerged around 1500BC. The Vedas are liturgical texts which formed the basis of modern-day Hinduism.

The Vedas were composed and orally transmitted with precision in this period. The Vedic society was **patriarchal** and **patrilineal**.

The Vedic period saw the emergence of a hierarchy of social classes that would remain influential. Vedic religion developed into **Brahmanical orthodoxy**.

- ▲ The history of Vedic Period (1500 BC-600 BC) begins with the advent of Aryans to India.
- ▲ Vedic period is divided into Early Vedic or Rigvedic & Later Vedic periods.
- ▲ An Iranian text, **Zend Avesta**, talks about names of Aryan Gods like Indra, Varuna, etc.
- ▲ Aryans names appear in Hittite inscription (Anatolia), Kassite inscription (Iraq) & Mittani inscription (Syria).

Early Vedic Period:

Early Vedic people or Aryans settled in the land of seven rivers, called **Sapt Sindhu**. **Sindhu (Indus)** is the most mentioned and **Saraswati** is the most holy river.

According to Vedas, **Manusmriti** describes the region between the rivers Saraswati and Drishadwati as **Brahmavarta**.

- ▲ The main source of information is **Rig Veda** (10 Mandalas and 1028 Hymns).
- ▲ Mandalas from 2 to 8 are called **Saptarishi Manadals** as these are composed by the seven great sages.
- ▲ Pottery Styles used in this period are Ochre Colored Pottery and Painted Grey Ware (PGW).
- ▲ 2 to 7 Mandalas are the earliest portions of the Rigveda where **1 and 10 were added later**.
- ▲ **3rd Mandala**, composed by **Vishwamitra**, contains **Gayatri Mahamantra** addressed to Goddess Savitri.
- ▲ **10th Mandala** contains famous **Purush Sukta** that describes cosmic creation (Adi Purush) along with **4-fold Varna System**.
- ▲ Rig Vedic communities are called '**janas**' along with several non-aryan janas. Janas' were headed by a '**Rajana**' who was assisted by **Purohit, Gramani and Senani** and popular bodies like **Sabha, Samiti, Vidhata, Gana and Sardha**.
- ▲ **Ghosha, Sikta, Nivavari, and Apala** were female sages of the time and contributed to the composition of Rig Veda.
- ▲ Child Marriage and Sati were absent and a special widow-remarriage called '**Niyoga**' was prevalent.
- ▲ Two Drinks were taken namely **Soma & Sura**. Sura was disapproved by priests.
- ▲ A wealthy person was known as **gomat**.
- ▲ **Vajrapati** is the Authority over a large land was leader of **kulupa & graminis**.





MEDIEVAL HISTORY

PUSHYABHUTI DYNASTY

Pushyabhuti Dynasty was founded by **Narvardhana**. Its capital was at Thaneswar and Kanauj.

Harsha Vardhana (606 AD- 647 AD) was the successor and he was one of the greatest rulers also called **Siladitya** and started **Harsha Era in 606 AD**. He himself scholar wrote **Naganandam, Ratnavali and Priyadarsika**.

He Defeated **Gauda Sasanka** who had killed his brother-in-law, **Grihavarma**. He was **defeated by Pulikeshin** second of Chalukyas in **battle of Narmada**.

- ▲ The key objective of Chinese Traveller **Huen-Tsang** to visit India was to correct the incomplete & misinterpreted information provided by the earlier Chinese monks, particularly Fa Hien.
- ▲ In his work **Si-Yu-Ki** (Journey to the West), he first states that the name of India in China should be **Yindu**.
- ▲ The four most notable works of Banabhatta include Kadambari, Harshacharitam, Chhandakasthaka and Parvati parinayam. **Kadambari** is one of the most celebrated prose **romances in Sanskrit**. This work was not completed by Banabhatta but later finished by his son **Bhushanbhatta**.
- ▲ **Harshacharita** is the biography of Harsha and this work is considered to be first attempt of authentic biography in Indian literature.

TRIPARTITE STRUGGLE

After Harshavardhana, the **Rajputas emerged as a powerful force in North India** and dominated the Indian political scene for **about 500 years from 7th century**.

The period from 750 - 1000 CE saw the rise of three important empires: **Gurjara-Pratihara** (Western India), **Palas** (Eastern India) and **Rashtrakutas** (Deccan).

The conflict among these three powers (basically for control over Kannauj area of Ganga valley) is often describes as "**tripartite struggle**".

GURJARA-PRATIHARA

- ▲ The prominent Gurjar Pratihara Kings were Nagabhatta-I, Nagabhatta-II and Mihirbhoja.
- ▲ These kings had established **Marwar in Rajasthan** and built the temple city of Osean near Jodhpur.
- ▲ The Gurjar Pratiharas were overthrown in 10th century by Palas.
- ▲ Ajmer was established by Ajayraj Chauhan. His successor **Vigraharaj captured Dhillika** (Delhi) from **Tomars**.
- ▲ Sanskrit Poet & Dramatist Rajasekhara lived in the court of Mahendrapala I – son of Mihir bhoja





- ▲ Foreign traveller Al-Masudi had visited Pratihara empire.

PALAS

In the early medieval India, the **Palas** emerged as important empire builders in eastern India.

The founder of this dynasty **Gopala** was also the first Buddhist king of Bengal. His son **Dharmapala** (770-810 AD) became the most dominant power in the Northern and Eastern India.

The last notable Pala king was **Mahipala**, a Vassal of Palas named **Hemanta Sen** founded the **Sena dynasty** which dominated the Rarh region of Bengal for some time. His son **Ballala Sena** (1160-1178) introduced the social reforms in Bengal known as **Kulinism**.

- ▲ Pala founder Gopala built **Odantapuri** in Bihar for Buddhist monks.
- ▲ Dharmapala established the **Vikramshila University** in Bhagalpur region of modern Bihar. This university was destroyed by **Bakhtiyar Khilji** in 1200 AD.
- ▲ Dharmapala also built Buddhist Viharas at **Somapura** (now a UNESCO world heritage site in Bangladesh) and **Odantapuri**. Nalanda, Vikramshila, Somapuri, Paharpur and Odantapuri are called **Five Mahaviharas**.
- ▲ **Atisa Dipankara** was a Buddhist Scholar during the Pala dynasty and was a scholar at the Vikramshila University. He established the **Sarma lineages** of the Buddhism with **Konchog Gyalpo** and **Marpa Lotsawa**.
- ▲ Arab merchant **Sulaiman** had visited Pala kingdom.
- ▲ The Palas power were destroyed by the Sena dynasty under **Vijyasena**.

RASHTRAKUTAS

DantiDurga Founded Rashtrakutas kingdom in 753 CE. He is a feudatory of the Chalukyan king, **Kirtivarman II**.

- ▲ The rock-cut **Kailasanath** (Shiva) temple at **Ellora caves** was built during the reign of **Krishna I**
- ▲ **Rashtrakutas** meaning **the chief of a rashtra**. Their Capital was **Manyakheta** or **Malkhed near Solapur**.
- ▲ Rashtrakuta fought constantly against the eastern Chalukyas of Vengi and Pallavas of Kanchi and Pandya of Madurai.
- ▲ They were tolerant in their religious views and patronised Shaivism, Vaishnavism and Jainism.
- ▲ **Krishna III** was the last great ruler of Rashtrakutas. In 972 CE, Capital city was burnt to ashes by the united opponents. This marks the end of Rashtrakutas.
- ▲ **Amoghavarsha I** was called as "**Ashoka of the South**" and also compared to Gupta king **Vikramaditya**. He Built new capital city at **Manyakheta** (Modern Malkhed). He wrote **Kavirajamarga** (Kannada) and the **Prashnottara Ratnamalika** (Sanskrit).





CHOLAS

The founder of Chola dynasty was **Vijayalaya Chola** who was at first a feudatory of Pallavas. He captured Tanjore from **Muttaraiyars** in 815 CE and built a temple for Durga. Their capital was Tanjore.

They are also known as the **Imperial Cholas**. They established an empire comprising the major portion of South India.

- ▲ The greatest kings of Cholas were **Rajaraja Chola** & his son, **Rajendra I**.
- ▲ The use of **Agrahatta** (Persian wheel) also facilitated the already established smooth irrigation networks of tanks, canals, wells and sluices.
- ▲ **Parantaka Chola** Took title of **Madhurai Konda** Issued Uttamerur Inscription which gives information about Village administration. He assumed another title **Maduraiyum Elamum Konda Parakesarivarman**.
- ▲ **Brihadeeswarar Temple** or Peruvudaiyar Kovil at Thanjavur which was dedicated to Shiva is a **UNESCO World Heritage Site**
- ▲ They built Buddhist Temple called **Chudamani Vihara** at **Nagapattam Port** which survived till 19th century before it was destroyed and replaced by Jesuit priests with a Church in 1867.
- ▲ Officers of all ranks were usually referred to by the general titles of **Karumigal** and **panimakkal**.
- ▲ A well organised department of land revenue, known as the **Puravu varitinaikalam**, was in existence.
- ▲ **Bharatanatyam & kathakali** are two types of dances performed during the Chola period.
- ▲ **Sivakasintamani** written by **Thiruthakkadevar** and **Kundalakesi**
- ▲ The **Ramayana** composed by **Kamban** and the **Periyapuram** or Tiruttondarpuranam by **Sekkilar** are the two master-pieces of this age.
- ▲ Telugu version of **Mahabharata** was started by **Nanniah** & completed by **Tikkana**.
- ▲ The **Nalavenba** was written by **Pugalendi**.

PALLAVAS

There are no records about **Pallavas** in the history. They were forgotten until a **copper plate grant** was found in 1840. There are several theories of origin around Pallavas.

theory, Pallavas were earlier feudatories of Satavahanas. Another theory says that they were offspring of Chola and Naga rulers of **Ilam (Sri Lanka)**. Another theory links them to **Pahalavas** (Indo-Parthians).

Many sculptures in Mahabalipuram have remarkable affinity with Persian features. This includes the **lion symbol** and tall **cylindrical headdresses** wore by Iranians in those times. Further, the pillars resemble with **Perseopolis** and the roofs of **Pancharathas** and tower of **Kailasanath** temple in Kanchipuram shows affinity with the shrines of **Babylon**.





MODERN HISTORY

ADVENT OF EUROPEANS

European conquest of Asia is distinguished into 4 periods:

The Portuguese (1498), The English (1600), The Dutch (1602), and The French (1664)

The Portuguese:

- ▲ Portuguese initiated the **European era** and marked the emergence of **naval power**.
- ▲ They Introduced European art of warfare by using **cannons on ship**.
- ▲ The art of the silversmith and goldsmith flourished at Goa.
- ▲ Portuguese were **first to come in india** and **last one to leave India**.
- ▲ **Treaty of Tordesillas** (1494)- between Portugal and Spain divided non-Christian world by an imaginary line in the Atlantic east for Portugal and west for Spain.

Vasco-de-Gama:

- ▲ Vasco-de-Gama reached Calicut via cape of good hope in 1498 and was warmly welcomed by **Zamorin** (Ruler of Calicut).
- ▲ By 1502, **Vasco-de-Gama's** second visit led to the establishment of trading stations at Calicut, Cochin and Cannanore and fortification of the same.
- ▲ Portugal wanted to monopolize trade in India.

Pedro Alvarez Cabral:

- ▲ He Established first factory at Calicut, in 1500

Francis – De – Almeida:

- ▲ He is the **first Portuguese governor in India** who initiated **Blue water policy** (cartaze system). His idea was to be powerful on the sea instead of building fortresses on Indian land.
- ▲ Cartaze system is a Naval trade license or pass issued by Portuguese in the Indian ocean.

Alfonso de Albuquerque:

- ▲ He captured Goa from Bijapur, persecuted Muslims; **captured Bhatkal from Sri Krishna Deva Raya** of Vijayanagara.
- ▲ He initiated the policy of marrying with the natives of India.
- ▲ He banned the practice of sati in his area of influence.
- ▲ Albuquerque died in 1515 leaving Portuguese as strongest Naval power in India.

Nino da Cunha:

- ▲ Shifted the capital from Cochin to Goa in 1530. **Goa became capital of Portuguese** settlements in India.





- ▲ In his rule, **Diu and Bassein** came under the Portuguese occupation from Gujarat King Bahadur Shah.
- ▲ Bahadur Shah got killed in 1537 at Diu while negotiating with the Portuguese.
- ▲ Portuguese power expanded to eastern coast during his time.

The Dutch:

- ▲ United East India Company of the Netherlands, formed in March 1605 by **the Charter of Dutch Parliament**, had the powers to wage wars, make treaty and build forts.
- ▲ **Cornelis de Houtman** was the first Dutchman to reach Sumatra and Bantam in 1596.
- ▲ Dutch founded their first factory in **Masaulipatam** in Andhra in 1605.
- ▲ They won over Portuguese & emerged as most dominant European trade power.
- ▲ **Pulicat Lake** was their main center in India, later replaced by **Nagapattinam**.
- ▲ Dutch carried **indigo manufactured** in the **Yamuna valley** and Central India, textiles and silk from Bengal, Gujarat and the Coromandel, **saltpetre from Bihar** and **opium and rice from the Ganga valley**.
- ▲ In 1623, a treaty between British and Dutch where, Dutch withdrew their claim from India and British from Indonesia.
- ▲ Anglo-Dutch rivalry and the shifting of Dutch attention towards the **Malay Archipelago**. In Battle of Bedara (1759), the English defeated the Dutch.

The English:

On **December 31, 1600** Queen **Elizabeth I** issued the charter to company named as Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies which gave the company monopoly to trade in the East Indies for 15 years.

Timeline	Activities
1600	The East India Company was established.
1609	William Hawkins arrived at Jahangir's court but failed to secure permission due to opposition by Portuguese.
1611	Captain Middleton obtained the permission of the Mughal governor of Surat to trade there, also started trade in Masulipatnam .
1613	A factory of East India Company was established at Surat .
1615	Sir Thomas Roe , the ambassador of King James I, arrived at Jahangir's court.
1616	The Company established its first factory in the south in Masulipatnam .
1618	Thomas Roe succeeded in obtaining two Farman confirming free trade with exemption from inland tolls and permission to establish factories at Agra, Ahmedabad and Broach.
1632	The Company got the golden Farman from the Sultan of Golconda, which ensured safety and prosperity of their trade.
1633	The Company established its first factory in east India in Hariharpur, Balasore, Odisha
1639	Madras was given by the Chandragiri chief to the English and soon Madras with the Fort St. Georgere placed Masulipatnam as the English headquarters on the east coast.





1651	The Company was given permission to trade at Hooghly (Bengal), Kasimbazar , Patna and Rajmahal .
1662	The British King, Charles II , was given Bombay as dowry for marrying a Portuguese princess (Catherine of Braganza)
1667	Aurangzeb gave the English a Farman for trade in Bengal
1687	Bombay was made the headquarters by shifting the seat of the Western Presidency from Surat to Bombay.
1691	Due to some conflict, Mughals raided Hoogly. Then Job Charnock, negotiated with Mughals for return to Sutanuti in 1691. The Company got the imperial order to continue their trade in Bengal in lieu of payment of Rs 3,000 a year.
1700	The city of Calcutta grew from the development of three villages Sutanuti, Gobindapur and Kalikata secured from the Mughal governor of Bengal. The fortified settlement was named Fort William (1700) and it became the seat of British power in India till 1911.
1717	The Mughal emperor Farrukhsiyar issued a Farman, called Magna Carta of the Company, giving the Company a large number of trade concessions in Bengal, Gujarat and Hyderabad. It included: 1. Company's import and export were exempted from duties. 2. Permission to issue dastaks for transportation of goods 3. Duty free trade in Hyderabad. Company minted coins to act as currency throughout Mughal Empire.

The French:

- ▲ French east India Company was formed in 1664 establishing their 1st factory at Surat by **Francis Caron**.
- ▲ **Francis Martin** founded **Pondicherry** in 1673 & became 1st governor of Pondicherry. Henceforth Pondicherry became headquarter of French possessions in India.
- ▲ At beginning of 18th century, English & French were competing for their supremacy in India, mainly in Carnatic & Bengal region.
- ▲ After 3 Carnatic wars, finally French were crushed & limited to Pondicherry.
- ▲ **First Carnatic war** (1740-48) --- extension of rivalry, ended in 1748 by **treaty of Aix-La Chapelle**.
- ▲ **Second Carnatic War** (1749-54) --- inconclusive, undermined the French and English power in south India.
- ▲ **Third Carnatic War** (1758-63) --- decisive war, **treaty of Paris** (1763).

Danes in India:

- ▲ Danish East India company was founded in 1616 AD.
- ▲ Settlements in India: **Trancuber near Chennai** and **Serampur in Bengal**.
- ▲ They were the **foremost promoters of Christianity in India**.
- ▲ They eventually dispensed of their settlement to the English.





DECLINE OF MUGHALS

Two causes of Decline of the Mughals, Weak rulers and Empire politics and Instability in different parts of the empire.

- ▲ End of Mughals began with the reign of **Aurangzeb (1658-1707)**.
- ▲ New states of **Hyderabad, Bengal, Awadh** and **Punjab** established and the Marathas began to make their bid to inherit the imperial mantle.
- ▲ 1738-39 - Nadir Shah, Persian emperor invaded India (Lahore, Kabul, Karnal). Took away Kohinoor diamond, Peacock throne, 70 crore rupees.
- ▲ 1748-67 - Ahmad Shah Abdali, **the Durrani empire**, invaded India. Took over the Mughal kings, appointed officers and left in 1759. Marathas attacked him and took control.
- ▲ 1761- Abdali came back and took revenge on the Marathas. This was the Third Battle of Panipat, where the **Marathas were defeated**.

Mughals Downfall:

- ▲ Too vast to be ruled by a Central authority.
- ▲ Aurangzeb's Deccan and religious policy.
- ▲ Invasion of **Irani** and **Durrani Kingdoms**.
- ▲ Rise in power and influence of the Zamindars (hereditary landowners).
- ▲ Issue of **Jagirdari** (Lands assigned to the Nobles, yielding low income).
- ▲ Economic and Administrative Issues (war expenses, reduced **Khalisa land**, luxurious lifestyles of rulers, lack of technological advancement).
- ▲ Rise of regional aspirations and states.

Rise of Regional States:

- ▲ Regional and independent political system which lead constantly at war with each other.
- ▲ Functioned with the support of the local zamindars, merchants, local nobles, and chieftains.
- ▲ Maintained ties and acknowledged supremacy of the Mughal Emperor.
- ▲ Lacked advanced and sound military, financial and administrative system. Lacked scientific and technological advancement.

BRITISH ENTRY IN INDIA

Events helped in Rise of British:

- ▲ Post conquest of Asia by **Ottoman Empire** and capturing of **Constantinople** in 1453, trade routes came under control of Turkish Empire rule.
- ▲ **Venice** and **Genoa** also monopolized the trade routes. Hence the European traders had to search for new sea routes to **Asia** and **the Spice Island of Indonesia**; the East Indies Discovered **Cape of Good Hope**.
- ▲ Post Renaissance, **Columbus of Spain** in **1492 discovered America**.
- ▲ **Vasco Da Gama of Portugal** in 1498 discovered all new sea routes to India.



POLITY

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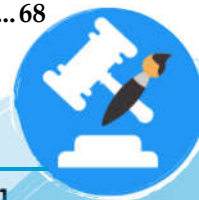


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PREFACE

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INDIAN POLITY

PRE-INDEPENDENCE POLITY OF INDIA

The political history before Independence, especially before the promulgation of the Constitution on 26th January, 1950, can broadly be divided into two parts: **The rule of the British East India Company** and **direct British rule**.

The rule of the East India Company

Regulating Act, 1773:

- ▲ This act was the first step taken by the British Government to control the **Company rule in India**.
- ▲ The Act designated the Governor of Bengal as the '**Governor-General of Bengal**' and created an **Executive Council of four members** to assist him.
- ▲ The governors of Bombay and Madras presidencies were made subordinate to the Governor-General of Bengal.
- ▲ It provided for the **establishment of a Supreme Court at Calcutta**.

Pitt's India Act, 1784:

- ▲ The Act established **dual system in India** by distinguishing between commercial and political functions of the Company.
- ▲ It allowed the **Court of Directors** to manage the commercial affairs but created a new body called **Board of Control** to manage the political affairs.
- ▲ The Act gave the British Government supreme control over Company's affairs and its administration in India.

Charter Act, 1833:

- ▲ It made the **Governor-General of Bengal as the Governor-General of India**.
- ▲ It ended the activities of the East India Company as a commercial body; it became a purely administrative body.

Charter Act, 1853:

- ▲ The legislative and executive functions of the Governor-General's council were separated.
- ▲ It established a **six-member Governor-General's legislative council** which came to be known as the **Central Legislative Council**.
- ▲ It introduced an open competition system of selection for civil servants on the recommendations of the Macaulay Committee and threw open the competition for Indians also.
- ▲ It introduced local representation in the Central Legislative Council.





Direct British rule

After the '**sepoy mutiny**' of 1857, the British Government assumed direct charge of the administration of India and India started to be ruled in the name of Her Majesty, **the Queen of England**.

Government of India Act, 1858:

- ▲ This landmark Act abolished the rule of the East India Company, and transferred the powers of government to the British Crown.
- ▲ It changed the designation of Governor-General of India to Viceroy of India as the direct representative of the British Crown in India.
- ▲ It ended the system of double government by abolishing the Board of Control and Court of Directors.
- ▲ It created a new office, Secretary of State for India, vested with complete control over Indian administration. The secretary of state was a member of the British cabinet and was responsible ultimately to the British Parliament.

Indian Councils Act, 1861:

- ▲ It provided for the nomination of some Indians as non-official members of his expanded council by the Viceroy.
- ▲ It empowered the Viceroy to issue ordinances, without the concurrence of the legislative council, during an emergency. The life of such an ordinance was six months.

Indian Council Act, 1892:

- ▲ It increased the number of additional (non-official) members in the Central and provincial legislative councils, but maintained the official majority in them.
- ▲ It increased the functions of legislative councils and gave them the powers of discussing the budget and addressing questions to the executive.
- ▲ It provided for the nomination of some non-official members of the (a) Central Legislative Council by the viceroy on the recommendation of the provincial legislative councils and the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, and (b) Provincial legislative councils by the Governors on the recommendation of the district boards, municipalities, universities, trade associations, zamindars and chambers.

Indian Council Act, 1909:

- ▲ The Act is also known as **Morley-Minto Reforms**.
- ▲ It considerably increased the size of the legislative councils, both Central and provincial. The number of members in the Central Legislative Council was raised from 16 to 60.
- ▲ It provided for the first time for the association of Indians with the Executive Councils of the Viceroy and Governors. Satyendra Prasad Sinha became the first Indian to join the Viceroy's Executive Council.
- ▲ It introduced a system of **communal representation for Muslims** by accepting the concept of '**separate electorate**'. Under this, the Muslim members were to be elected only by Muslim voters.





Government of India Act of 1919:

- ▲ This Act is also known as **Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms**. It relaxed the central control over the provinces by demarcating and separating the central and provincial subjects.
- ▲ It further divided the provincial subjects into two parts— **transferred and reserved**. The transferred subjects were to be administered by the governor with the aid of ministers responsible to the legislative Council. The reserved subjects, on the other hand, were to be administered by the governor and his executive council without being responsible to the legislative Council. This dual scheme of governance was known as dyarchy.
- ▲ It introduced, for the first time, **bicameralism** and **direct elections in the country**.
- ▲ It extended the principle of communal representation by providing separate electorates for Sikhs, Indian Christians, Anglo-Indians and Europeans.
- ▲ It provided for the establishment of a public service commission. Hence, a **Central Public Service Commission** was set up in 1926 for recruiting civil servants.
- ▲ It separated, for the first time, provincial budgets from the Central budget and authorised the provincial legislatures to enact their budgets.

Simon Commission:

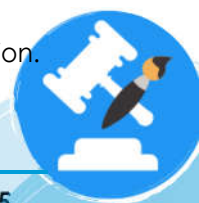
- ▲ In the spirit of the stipulation in the Act of 1919 that every 10 years the constitutional provisions will be reviewed, the British Government announced the appointment a **seven-member statutory commission under the chairmanship of Sir John Simon**.
- ▲ To consider the proposals of the commission, the British Government convened three Round Table Conferences of the representatives of the British Government, British India and Indian princely states.
- ▲ The recommendations of this committee were incorporated in the next Government of India Act of 1935.

Government of India Act of 1935

- ▲ It provided for the establishment of an All-India Federation consisting of provinces and princely states as units.
- ▲ The Act divided the powers between the Centre and units in terms of three lists—**Federal List** (59 items), **Provincial List** (54 items) and the **Concurrent List** (36 items).
- ▲ **Residuary powers were vested with the Viceroy**.
- ▲ It abolished dyarchy in the provinces and they were allowed to act as autonomous units of administration in their defined spheres.
- ▲ It provided for the **adoption of dyarchy at the Centre**. It provided for the establishment of a Federal Court which was set up in 1937.

August Offer, 1940:

- ▲ During the Second World War, to get Indian support, the Viceroy announced some proposals in August, 1940. Therefore, it is known as August offer. It proposed:
 - Dominion status would be the objective for India.
 - A constituent assembly would be set up where mainly Indians would decide the constitution.





Cripps Mission, 1942:

- ▲ Cripps mission was sent to India in March 1942 **headed by Stafford Cripps** with constitutional proposals to seek Indian support for the war. It proposed that:
 - ☛ An Indian union of the British province, princely states and chief commissioner areas would be set up with a dominion status.
 - ☛ After the war a constituent assembly would be convened to frame a new constitution but the provinces will have right to accept or reject the constitution.
 - ☛ Any province not willing to join the union could have a separate constitution and form a separate union.
 - ☛ In the meantime, defence of India would remain in British hands and the governor-general's powers remain intact.
 - ☛ All political parties rejected it and Mahatma Gandhi called it a '**postdated cheque**'.

The Cabinet Mission, 1946:

- ▲ In February, 1946 the British government decided to send a **high-powered mission to India** to find out ways and means for a negotiated, peaceful transfer of power to India. It is known as the **Cabinet Mission**. The mission came to Delhi on March 24, 1946.
- ▲ Important points regarding the Cabinet Mission:
 - ▲ It rejected the demand for a full-fledged Pakistan.
 - ▲ A constituent assembly to be elected by provincial assemblies through proportional representation.
 - ▲ This constituent assembly to be a 389-member body with provincial assemblies sending 292, chief commissioner's province sending 4, and princely states sending 93 members.
 - ▲ Grouping of existing provincial assemblies into three sections: Section A, Section B and Section C.
 - ▲ In the constituent assembly, members from groups A, B and C were to sit separately to decide the constitution for the province.
 - ▲ Then the whole constituent assembly would sit together to formulate the Union Constitution.
 - ▲ Meanwhile, an interim government to be formed from the constituent assembly.

Indian Independence Act, 1947:

- ▲ On February 20, 1947, the British Prime Minister Clement Attlee declared that the British rule in India would end by June 30, 1948. The Muslim League demanded partition of the country. Ultimately, on June 3, 1947, Lord Mountbatten, the Viceroy of India, put forth **the partition plan, known as the Mountbatten Plan**.
- ▲ The plan was accepted by the **Congress and the Muslim League**.
- ▲ It ended the British rule in India and declared India as an independent and sovereign state.
- ▲ It provided for the partition of India and creation of two independent dominions of India and Pakistan.
- ▲ It provided for the governance of each of the dominions and the provinces by the Government of India Act of 1935, till the new Constitutions were framed.





EVOLUTION OF INDIAN CONSTITUTION

The idea of a Constituent Assembly to frame the Constitution of India was first mooted by the **Communist leader MN Roy**. The **Indian National Congress (INC)** demanded a Constituent Assembly for the first time in 1935. The British Government accepted the demand in its "**August Offer**" in 1940. The Cripps Mission in 1942 came to India with a draft proposal but the Muslim League didn't accept it as it wanted the division of India. Finally, the Cabinet Mission came out with a compromise formula which **constituted the Constituent Assembly in November, 1946**.

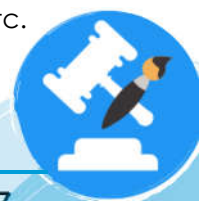
The Constituent Assembly:

- ▲ The Constituent Assembly was set up in November 1946 as per the plan of Cabinet Mission.
- ▲ Total members in the constituent assembly: 389 (292 from British Province, 4 from Chief Commissioner Areas and 93 from Princely States).
- ▲ Seats were allocated in proportion to the population: one seat was to be allotted for every million population. INC won 208 seats, the Muslim League 73 seats, and the small groups and independents got the remaining 15 seats. 93 representatives allotted to the princely states stayed away from the Constituent Assembly.
- ▲ The **first meeting of the Constituent Assembly** was convened **on December 9, 1946** with **Sachchidanand Sinha as the Interim President**. He was the oldest member of the assembly.
- ▲ On December 11, 1946, **Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected as Permanent President of the Constituion Assembly**. The Muslim League boycotted the meeting and insisted on a separate state of Pakistan.
- ▲ On December 13, 1946, **Jawaharlal Nehru** moved the historic '**Objectives Resolution**' in the Assembly. It pledged to make India an independent sovereign union of states.
- ▲ **Sir B.N. Rao was appointed as the Constitutional Advisor to the Assembly**.
- ▲ The Constitution Assembly formed different types of committees for framing the Constitution.

Some important committees and their chairman were as follows:

	Committee	Chairman
1.	Drafting Committee	Dr. B.R. Ambedkar
2.	Rules and Procedure Committee	Dr. Rajendra Prasad
3.	Committee on National Flag	J.B. Kripalani
4.	Provincial Constitution Committee	Sardar Patel
5.	Union Constitution Committee	J.L. Nehru
6.	Committee on Fundamental Rights and Minorities	Sardar Patel

The final reading of the draft was completed on November 26, 1949 and the Constitution was declared as passed. The Provisions relating to citizenship, elections and provisional parliament etc.



ECONOMY

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INDIAN ECONOMY

BASICS OF ECONOMY

The term economics is derived from the ancient Greek word **Oikonomia**, which means "management of a household".

Adam Smith defined economics "as the study of the nature and causes of the generation of wealth of a nation". The subject matter of economics has been divided into two parts: Microeconomics and Macroeconomics. These terms were first coined and used by Ragnar Frisch and have now been adopted by economists all over the world.

Microeconomics:

Microeconomics occupies a vital place in economics and it has theoretical and practical importance.

It is microeconomics that tells us how a free-market economy with its millions of consumers and producers works to decide about the allocation of productive resources among thousands of goods and services.

Microeconomics analysis is also usefully applied to the various applied branches of economics such as Public Finance and International Economics.

Macroeconomics:

Macroeconomics analyses the behaviour of the whole economic system in totality or entirety, such as total employment, national product or income, the general price level in the economy. Therefore, macroeconomics is also known as "aggregative economics".

Microeconomics vs Macroeconomics:

- ▲ In short, macroeconomics studies the functioning of the economy as a whole and microeconomics analyses the behaviour of individual components like industries, firms and households.
- ▲ Thus, microeconomics deals with the theory of the firm and the behaviour and problems of individuals and firms.
- ▲ It is concerned with pricing theory, demand concepts and theories of market structure.
- ▲ Macroeconomics is concerned with such economic variables as the aggregate output of an economy, the extent to which the resources are employed, the level and determination of national income, balance of payments, etc.

Central problems of an economy:





To put it simply, choice problem is the central problem of an economy. Scarcity of resources having alternative uses in relation to demand for them gives rise to choice problem. Every society has to decide how much each of the resources is to be used in the production of different goods and services. Thus, allocation of resources is the fundamental problem. Related to it are the following three central problems faced by every economy:

- 1) What to produce
- 2) How to produce
- 3) For whom to produce

What to produce and in what quantity

- ▲ It is the problem of choosing which commodities should be produced and in what quantities. Food or clothes? More food and less clothes or vice versa? Wheat or sugarcane? More butter or more tanks? In case of more tanks, some resources will have to be diverted from butter, but the economy cannot have more tanks and more butter at the same time. Society has to choose between consumer goods (e.g., clothes, shoes, sugar, wheat) and producer goods (e.g., tools, machines, trucks); between necessity goods and luxury goods. Besides, all goods cannot be produced as the resources are limited. Here, the guiding principle is to allocate resources in a way that generates maximum aggregate utility.

How to produce:

- ▲ It is the problem of choosing the method or technique of production. This arises because a commodity can be produced in more than one method: more labour and less capital or vice versa (i.e., labour-intensive technique or capital-intensive technique); large-scale production or small-scale production. For instance, a given amount of wheat can be produced either by using more land and less capital (manure, seeds, tube well, etc.) or less land and more capital. Similarly, a given quantity of clothes can be manufactured by combining factors of production in different proportions, making it capital-intensive or labour-intensive. The guiding principle in such cases is to adopt those techniques which involve the least possible cost to produce per unit of commodity. At macro level the most efficient technical method is the one which uses the least number of scarce resources.

For whom to produce:

- ▲ It is the problem of distribution of income among factors of production which help in production. Who will consume the goods and services produced? A few rich and many poor or vice versa. Goods and services are produced especially for the people who can purchase them. And purchasing power depends upon their income, which, in turn, depends mainly on the distribution of income from output among factors of production which help to produce it.
- ▲ It may be noted that the above problems are not separate or independent of each other, but are the different forms of the same basic problem, namely, to make a choice among alternative uses of scarce resources to obtain maximum satisfaction.





ECONOMIC SYSTEMS

An economy refers to an organisation through which people earn their living. An economic system refers to those norms and rules or institutions which direct an economy.

Invisible Hand in Capitalism or Market Economy:

Capitalism is a system in which economic relations are directed through the principle of free play of market forces. Which is why capitalism is often characterised as 'market economy'. Producers and consumers are free to exercise their choices. There is no central authority to direct the economy. Instead, the economy is self-driven through an invisible hand or through the free play of the forces of market demand and market supply.

Characteristic Features of Capitalism:

- ▲ **Private Property:** In market economies people have the right to hold and use private property in any manner they like. This right of the people is protected by the government. All means of production, namely, machines, tool, land, mines, etc., are owned privately. Capitalists are free to hold and expand their capital to any extent. They also enjoy the freedom to buy or sell any property. They can enter into any contract in respect of their property. On the death of a person, his property passes on to his successors. Freedom of the people to use their private property is subject to the law of the land.
- ▲ **Price Mechanism:** Price mechanism is the principal guiding mechanism that guides the producers and consumers in their decision-making. Price mechanism refers to relative price structure determined by the interaction of the forces of demand and supply without any external interference. Price mechanism helps producers to decide what to produce and how much to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce.
- ▲ **Freedom of Enterprise:** Every individual is free to use his means of production in any manner he likes. He may set up any business or industry of any size at any time and place. In other words, an entrepreneur can take independent decisions with regard to what, where and how much to produce.
- ▲ **Competition and Cooperation:** Because of freedom of enterprise there are a large number of producers of almost every commodity. These producers compete with one another. Buyers compete with one another in order to buy a given product. In the factor market, workers compete for jobs. On the other hand, there is cooperation. It is through the cooperation of workers (or through their cooperative efforts) that inputs are converted into outputs, resulting in value addition.
- ▲ **Profit Motive:** The desire to earn profit is the chief motive of undertaking production activity. Every value-addition activity is prompted by profit. Entrepreneurs engage themselves in those enterprises which are likely to yield maximum profits.
- ▲ **Sovereignty of the Consumer:** Under market economies, consumer is a sovereign. The entire production structure is oriented to fulfil consumers' demands.
- ▲ **Labour as a Commodity:** Like any other commodity, labour is bought and sold in the factor market. Labour becomes a commodity because people, deprived of the means of production,





are unable to make use of their own labour; they are compelled to sell their labour to earn their livelihood.

- ▲ **Self-interest:** In market economies, self-interest is the principal guiding force. By self-interest we mean the urge to maximise personal welfare.

Central Planning in Socialism or Command Economies:

These are economies in which resources (or means of production) are collectively owned by the society as a whole, and there is a central authority to decide about the allocation of resources with a view to achieving maximum social welfare along with equitable distribution of income. In such economies, the state plays the central role in directing all economic activities in a manner such that all members of the community get equal opportunities of participating in the process of growth and enjoying the fruits thereof.

Characteristic Features of Command Economies:

- ▲ **Social or Collective Ownership:** All means of production are socially owned. No individual can keep capital at will in the form of machines, factory premises, etc. Government represents the society under this system and uses the means of production as it deems fit.
- ▲ **Central Planning Authority:** Under this economic system, government appoints a central planning authority to decide about what to produce, how much to produce, how to produce and for whom to produce. It undertakes detailed survey of the country's available physical and human resources and formulates an exhaustive plan for achieving the set objectives.
- ▲ **Set Objectives:** It is not a purposeless economy; rather it has set objectives before it. These objectives are fully endorsed by the society and efforts are made to achieve them according to plans. The social and economic objectives relate to rapid industrialisation, high standard of living, full employment and social equity.
- ▲ **Economic Planning:** Economic planning is of central significance in command economies. Objectives are comprehensively considered and specified in the light of the given resource power of the nation. Efficient allocation of the scarce means to alternative uses is taken as the supreme goal, and efficiency is defined not in terms of maximisation of profits but in terms of maximisation of social welfare.
- ▲ **Government Control:** Plans are formulated and enforced strictly under government control. The central planning authority formulates the plan and forwards it to the government for implementation. Every economic activity, i.e., exchange, distribution, consumption, investment, prices, and foreign trade is fully controlled by the government.
- ▲ **Lack of Competition:** State being the chief entrepreneur, there is lack of competition. In this respect, command economies are just opposite of the free economies. State assumes the role of a monopolist. Prices of goods and services are determined through government's discretion.
- ▲ **Limited Private Sector:** Public sector dominates the economy. Private sector has a very limited role to play. Large industries and public utility services like railways, post and telegraph, etc. are directly controlled by the government. Very few opportunities are available to the people in general to produce goods and services for private profit.





A Critical Mix in Mixed Economies:

These are economies where market forces (or the forces of supply and demand) are free to operate but not without '**watch and ward**' by the state or some central authorities. Unlike communism, it is not a consciously created system focusing on equality and social justice. Also, unlike free economies, it is not a spontaneous economic order where all economic decisions are taken in pursuit of self-interest. Instead, a mixed economy is a midway between **command economies** and **free economies**. It is an economy in which the choice is not between self-interest or social interest but between '**how much of self-interest**' and '**how much of social interest**'. Both self-interest and social interest are simultaneously pursued.

Characteristic Features of Mixed Economies:

- ▲ **Co-existence of the Private and the Public Sectors:** The most important feature of a mixed economy is that under it both public and private sectors work hand in hand. Industries of national importance like basic industries, arms and ammunition industries, power generation, etc. are set up in the public sector. Consumer goods industries, small industries, agriculture, etc., are left in the domain of the private sector. It is like a PPC model (Private Public Co-operation model) which serves as the undercurrent of growth and development.
- ▲ **Directive Planning and Government Control:** It is the endeavour of the government to launch democratic plans with a view to giving the desired direction to the process of growth and development. These plans aim at progressive development of both public and private sectors.
- ▲ **Private Property and Economic Equality:** Under mixed economy, people are free to acquire private property. But, in the interest of equitable distribution of wealth and income in the country, the government adopts suitable measures to combat concentration of wealth in the hands of a few people. Government imposes various taxes on richer sections of the society (of course, on progressive basis) and offers subsidy to poorer sections of the society with a view to promoting equity and social justice.
- ▲ **Regulated Price Mechanism:** Under mixed economy, one finds free-play price mechanism but not without government intervention. Prices of goods are by and large determined by market forces, but prices of social goods are fixed by the government. It is a situation of regulated price mechanism.
- ▲ **Profit Motive and Social Welfare:** Production is undertaken not exclusively to maximise profits or to maximise social welfare. Rather, it is a critical mix of both profit maximisation and welfare maximisation, which govern production decisions. Competition is promoted, but concentration (of economic power) is not allowed.

Positive and Normative Economic Analyses:

Positive economic analysis: Positive economic analysis deals with the things 'as they are'. It 'studies the actuals' as they are and not what is desirable. It analyses the cause-and-effect relationship involved in the actuals and remains strictly neutral and silent with regard to ends. The ethics of economic decisions are not touched. Examples are: 'India is over-populated' or 'Prices have been rising in India' or 'Increase in real per capita income raises the standard of living of the people'. It may be mentioned that Prof. Robbins considered economics as purely a positive science.



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GEOGRAPHY

OUR UNIVERSE

The Big Bang Theory:

The **Big Bang theory** is the prevailing **cosmological model** explaining the existence of the observable universe from the earliest known periods through its subsequent large-scale evolution. The model describes how the universe expanded from an initial state of high density and temperature, and offers a comprehensive explanation for a broad range of observed phenomena, including the abundance of light elements, the **cosmic microwave background (CMB)** radiation, and large-scale structure.

The theory is compatible with **Hubble–Lemaître law**—the observation that the farther away a galaxy is, the faster it is moving away from Earth. Detailed measurements of the expansion rate of the universe place the Big Bang singularity at around **13.8 billion years ago**, which is thus considered the age of the universe.

After its initial expansion, an event that is by itself often called "**The Big Bang**", the universe cooled sufficiently to allow the formation of subatomic particles, and later atoms. Giant clouds of these primordial elements—mostly hydrogen, with some helium and lithium—later coalesced through gravity, forming early stars and galaxies, the descendants of which are visible today. Measurements of the **redshifts of supernovae** indicate that the **expansion of the universe is accelerating**, an observation attributed to dark energy's existence.

- ▲ This theory was propounded by **Georges Lemaître** in late 1920s.
- ▲ Big Bang Theory is also called as **Expanding Universe Hypothesis**.
- ▲ **Edwin Hubble** in 1920 provided evidence that the universe is expanding.
- ▲ The expansion of universe means increase in space between the galaxies.

The Stars:

The distribution of matter and energy was not even in the early universe. These initial density differences in gravitational forces caused the matter to get drawn together. These formed the bases for **development of galaxies**. A galaxy contains a large number of stars. A star is an **astronomical object** comprising a **luminous spheroid of plasma** held together by its gravity. The nearest star to Earth is the Sun. A star's life begins with the **gravitational collapse of a gaseous nebula** of material composed primarily of hydrogen, along with helium and trace amounts of heavier elements. Its total mass is the main factor determining its evolution and eventual fate. A star shines for most of its active life due to the **thermonuclear fusion of hydrogen into helium in its core**. This process releases energy that traverses the star's interior and radiates into outer space. At the end of a star's lifetime, its core becomes a stellar remnant which becomes **a white dwarf, a neutron star**, or if it is sufficiently massive then it becomes **a black hole**.





The Planets:

According to the best available theory, planets form when a nebula collapses to create a **protostar** and a **surrounding protoplanetary disk**, in which planets grow by the process of **accretion**.

A planet is a large astronomical body that is **neither a star nor a stellar remnant**. We have a total of 8 planets in our **Solar System**. The terrestrial planets Mercury, Venus, Earth and Mars, and the giant planets Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune are part of it. The word Planet comes from the **Greek planetai**, meaning "**wanderers**", which in antiquity referred to the Sun, Moon, and five bodies visible as points of light that moved across the background of the stars. These five planets were Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn. Earth was recognized to be a planet when **Heliocentrism** supplanted **Geocentrism** [earth at centre and all planets including Sun revolves around it] during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The ice giants Uranus and Neptune; Ceres and other bodies later recognized to be part of the asteroid belt; and **Pluto**, later found to be the largest member of the collection of icy bodies known as the **Kuiper belt**. Later Ceres, Pluto and Eris were placed in the category of **dwarf planet**. Further advances in astronomy led to the discovery of over five thousand planets outside the Solar System, or **Exoplanets**. But Earth remains the only planet known to support life.

The planets of the Solar System, including Earth, each rotate around an axis tilted with respect to its orbital pole, and some share such features as ice caps and seasons. Since the dawn of the Space Age, close observations by space probes have found that Earth and other planets share additional characteristics such as volcanism, hurricanes, tectonics and even hydrology. Apart from Venus and Mars, the Solar System planets generate magnetic fields, and all of them save Venus and Mercury possess natural satellites. In addition, the giant planets bear planetary rings, the most prominent being those of Saturn.

These planets are divided into:

- ▲ **Inner or Terrestrial planets** which have higher densities and a solid rocky surface. These are Mercury, Venus, Earth and Mars. The terrestrial planets were formed in the close vicinity of the Sun where it was too warm for gases on the surface to condense to solid particles. The intense solar wind near the sun blew off lots of these gases and dust from the surface of the terrestrial planets. That's why the **terrestrial planets have a rocky surface**.
- ▲ **Outer or Jovian planets** which have lower densities. These are Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune. The solar winds were not all that intense to cause similar removal of gases from the Jovian planets. That's why the **Jovian planets have gaseous surface**.

OUR EARTH

Planet Earth:

- ▲ **Distance from Sun:** 149 million Km (Average). 147.5 million km at **Perihelion**- closest to the Sun. 152.2 million km at **Aphelion**- farthest from Sun.
- ▲ **Shape:** Geoid (oblate spheroid): slightly flattened at the Poles and bulging at the Equator.





- ▲ **Ratio of land to water:** 3:7; Northern Hemisphere – 2:3; Southern Hemisphere – 1:4 (southern hemisphere has larger surface area under water)
- ▲ Speed of rotation around axis is maximum at equator and decreases poleward.
- ▲ Earth lies in **Goldilocks Zone** - water can exist in liquid state.
- ▲ It is the densest planet in the solar system.

Rotation of Earth:

- ▲ Earth rotates along its axis from **west to east**.
- ▲ It takes approximately 24 hrs to complete one rotation.
- ▲ **Days and nights occur due to rotation of the earth.**
- ▲ The circle that divides the day from night on the globe is called the **circle of illumination**.
- ▲ Earth rotates on a tilted axis. Earth's rotational axis makes an angle of 23.5° with the normal i.e., it makes an angle of 66.5° with the orbital plane. Orbital plane is the plane of earth's orbit around the Sun.
- ▲ Rotation Movement of earth on its axis takes 24 hours and it is known as an **Earth Day**.

Revolution of Earth:

- ▲ The motion of the **earth around the sun** which spins in an elliptical orbit is called revolution.
- ▲ It takes $365\frac{1}{4}$ days (one year) to revolve around the sun.
- ▲ Six hours saved every year are added to make one day (24 hours) over a span of four years. This surplus day is added to the month of February. Thus, every fourth year, February is of 29 days instead of 28 days. Such a year with 366 days is called a **leap year**.
- ▲ Revolution leads to change in **Seasons**.

The Moon:

- ▲ Generally, it is believed that the formation of moon, as a satellite of the earth, is an outcome of '**giant impact**' or what is described as "**the big splat**".
- ▲ About 4.44 billion years ago, A body of the size of one to three times that of mars collided into the earth sometime shortly after the earth was formed and It blasted a large part of the earth into space where the portion of blasted material then continued to orbit the earth and eventually formed into the present moon.
- ▲ The moon is the only natural satellite of the earth.
- ▲ Its diameter is only **one-quarter that of the earth** and it is about 3,84,400 km away from us.
- ▲ The moon is tidally locked to the earth, meaning that the moon revolves around the earth in about 27 days which is the same time it takes to complete one rotation. As a result of tidal locking, only one side of the moon is visible to us on the earth.

Seasons

Summer Solstice:

- ▲ **On 21st June**, the Northern hemisphere is tilted towards the sun. The rays of the sun fall directly on the Tropic of Cancer. As a result, these areas receive more heat.
- ▲ The areas near the poles receive less heat as the rays of the sun are slanting.





- ▲ The north pole is inclined towards the sun and the places beyond the Arctic Circle experience continuous daylight for about six months.
- ▲ Since a large portion of the northern hemisphere is getting light from the sun, it is summer in the regions north of the equator. The longest day and the shortest night at these places occur on 21st June.
- ▲ At this time in the southern hemisphere all these conditions are reversed. It is winter season there. The nights are longer than the days. This position of the earth is called the summer solstice.

Winter Solstice:

- ▲ **On 22nd December**, the Tropic of Capricorn receives direct rays of the sun as the South Pole tilts towards it. As the sun's rays fall vertically at the Tropic of Capricorn ($23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S), a larger portion of the southern hemisphere gets light.
- ▲ Therefore, it is summer in the southern hemisphere with longer days and shorter nights. The reverse happens in the northern hemisphere and it experiences winter. This position of the earth is called the winter solstice.

Equinox:

- ▲ **On 21st March and September 23rd**, direct rays of the sun fall on the equator. At this position, neither of the poles are tilted towards the sun; so, the whole earth experiences equal days and equal nights. This is called an equinox.
- ▲ On 23rd September, it is autumn season [season after summer and before the beginning of winter] in the northern hemisphere and spring season [season after winter and before the beginning of summer] in the southern hemisphere.
- ▲ The opposite is the case on 21st March, when it is spring in the northern hemisphere and autumn in the southern hemisphere.

Greenwich Meridian Time:

- ▲ **Equator** is centrally placed between the poles. So, any meridian could be taken to begin the numbering of longitude.
- ▲ In 1884 it was finally decided by international agreement, to choose as the zero meridian the one which passes
- ▲ through the **Royal Astronomical Observatory at Greenwich, near London**. This is the **Prime Meridian (0°)** from which all other meridians radiate eastwards and westwards up to 180° . They help to determine local time.
- ▲ One revolution of 360° earth takes 24 hours, therefore in 1 hour it traverses 15° or in 4 mins 1° .
- ▲ Places east of Greenwich get sun earlier and gain time.

Interior of the Earth:

The interior structure of the Earth is made up of three main shells, The **Crust**, The **Mantle**, and The **Core**.

The core of the earth only occupies 15 percent of Earth's volume whereas the mantle occupies 84 percent and the crust occupies the remaining 1 percent.





Seismic discontinuities aid in distinguishing divisions of the Earth into the inner core, outer core, lower mantle, upper mantle, and the crust.

Sources about Interior of the Earth:

The earth's radius is 6,370 km. Most of our understanding about the interior of the earth is based on estimates and inferences.

Direct Sources of Information:

- ▲ **Surface rock:** Surface rocks are the most readily available solid earth material to make direct observations. Laboratory experiments on surface rocks and minerals provide important information about the interior of the earth.
- ▲ **Mining:** Rocks that we get from mining areas are another source that gives us information about Earth's interior. World's deepest mining is limited only to the depth of fewer than 5 kilometres. Going beyond this depth is not possible due to excessive heat at this depth.
- ▲ **Deep Ocean Drilling Projects:** The deepest drill at Kola, in the Arctic Ocean, has so far reached a depth of 12 km. This and many deep drilling projects have provided a large volume of information through the analysis of materials collected at different depths.
- ▲ **Volcanic Eruptions:** Volcanic eruption forms an important source of obtaining direct information through laboratory analysis of the molten material (magma) that is thrown onto the surface of the earth, during a volcanic eruption. However, it is difficult to find out about the depth of the source of such magma.

Indirect Sources of Information:

- ▲ **Meteors:** Meteors are bits of interplanetary material falling through Earth's atmosphere and heated to incandescence by friction. Meteors that at times reach the earth are an important source of information about the interior structure of the Earth.
- ▲ **Gravitation:** The reading of the gravity at different places is influenced by many factors viz. distribution of mass, distance from the centre of the Earth. Such a difference is called gravity anomaly. Gravity anomaly gives us information about the distribution of mass of the material in the crust of the earth.
- ▲ **Magnetic Field:** Magnetic surveys provide information about the distribution of magnetic materials in the crustal portion, and thus, provide information about the distribution of materials in this part.
- ▲ **Seismic Activity:** Seismic activity is one of the most important sources of information about the interior of the earth. Body waves, generated by an earthquake, especially S-waves, which travel only through solid material, have helped in understanding the interior structure of the Earth.

The Crust:

The crust is the outermost layer of the earth and is brittle in nature.

- ▲ The crust makes up about **1% of Earth's volume**.
- ▲ The thickness and density of the crust vary under the oceanic and continental areas.
- ▲ The mean thickness of the oceanic crust is 5 km.



ART&CULTURE

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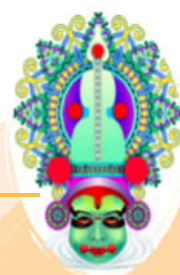


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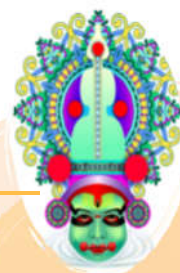
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Short Notes IAS





ART AND CULTURE

ARCHITECTURE

- ▲ Architecture is the art of building. Over the millennia, the art of building has evolved from simple shelters to complex skyscrapers.
- ▲ Architecture not only provides worldly needs of shelter, workspace and storage but also represents human ideals in buildings like courthouses, government buildings and manifestations of the spirit in churches and temples.
- ▲ Traditional architecture has survived over thousands of years in one form or another, while contemporary design offers new approaches in how we use materials and technology to shape the look of our environment.
- ▲ The origin of Indian architecture can easily be traced back 5000 years to the **Indus Valley Civilization**.

Indus Valley Architecture

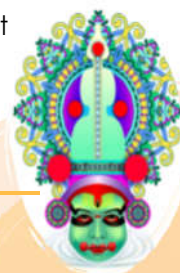
- ▲ The Indus Valley Civilization was an urban civilization that prospered during the Bronze Age (2500-1500). It was one of the contemporaries of the Mesopotamian and Egyptian civilizations.
- ▲ The remnants of this civilization have been extensively excavated. There are major sites like Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro, and there are minor sites like **Banawali and Kalibangan**.

Buildings:

- ▲ The settlement was divided into two sections, one smaller but higher and the other much larger but lower. Archaeologists designate these as the Citadel and the Lower Town respectively.
- ▲ The Citadel owes its height to the fact that buildings were constructed on mud-brick platforms. It was walled, which meant that it was physically separated from the Lower Town,
- ▲ The Lower Town was also walled. Several buildings were built on platforms, which served as foundations.
- ▲ The **"Great Granary"** in Mohenjo-Daro was built on a raised platform. It also had air ducts in its design. These were measures to protect grain from flood, pests and from rotting.
- ▲ Bricks, sun-dried or baked, used in buildings were of a standardized ratio. Such bricks were used at all Harappan settlements.

Drainage system:

- ▲ Roads and streets were laid out along an approximate **grid pattern**, intersecting at right angles. It seems that streets with drains were laid out first and then houses were built along with them.
- ▲ If domestic wastewater had to flow into the street drains, every house needed to have at least one wall along a street.





- ▲ They also used arches in their buildings but only as underground foundations or when building drains and not as structural designs for the standing buildings.

Public bath:

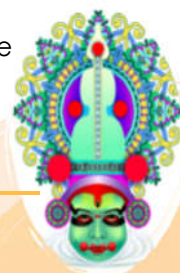
- ▲ A watertight pool called the **Great Bath**, perched on top of a mound of dirt, was a large rectangular tank in a courtyard surrounded by a corridor on all four sides.
- ▲ There were two flights of steps on the north and south leading into the tank, which was made watertight by setting bricks on edge and using a mortar of gypsum.
- ▲ There were rooms on three sides, in one of which was a large well. Water from the tank flowed into a huge drain.
- ▲ It is believed that this tank would have been used for special religious functions where water was used to purify and renew the wellbeing of the bathers.
- ▲ The '**college of priests**' is the name given to the large building that stood adjacent to the Great Bath.
- ▲ Generally, rooms were built around a central courtyard and front doors rarely faced the main street. Some two-storied houses were also found suggesting the presence of a middle or elite class.
- ▲ These types of houses had wells, bathrooms and were mostly ventilated suggesting a high degree of urban opulence.

Seals:

- ▲ Seals were primarily made **Steatite** (terracotta, copper, gold, ivory, agate, chert and faience were also used) in a mostly square shape (other shapes like circular, rectangular or triangular).
- ▲ It has been said that the most common use of these seals was commercial, though the seals could have been used as amulets (dead bodies with seals on top of them were found; these seals also had holes in them for inserting string) or as identification signs.
- ▲ Some seals had mathematical impressions on them suggesting that these might have been used for educational purposes as well.
- ▲ Generally, the seals depicted pictures of animals like bull, goat, buffalo, tiger and elephant, while the inscriptions contained not more than ten to twenty symbols.
- ▲ **Chanhudaro** is a tiny settlement as compared to **Mohenjodaro**, almost exclusively devoted to craft production, including bead-making, shell-cutting, metal-working, seal-making and weight-making.
- ▲ **Un-inscribed seals** were found in **Rakhigarhi**.

Scripts:

- ▲ The script is sometimes written in the **boustrophedon style**; to write the first line from right to left and the next line from left to right and so on, probably containing the name and title of the owner,
- ▲ Interestingly, the Harappan script does not demonstrate an evolution over time but instead it seems that the script came to be in use in a fully developed state.
- ▲ The finding of a common script in many sites of the Harappan cultural zone indicates a degree of high cultural integration.





- ▲ The complete disappearance of the Harappan script after 1700 BC indicates a strong connection between urbanization and writing. As the urbanization declined the writing declined along with it.
- ▲ The inscriptions found on most sources are typically very short, with an average of about 5 signs per source. These signs are '**logo-syllabic**' meaning that each sign represents a syllable (or a word).
- ▲ The **Dholavira signboard** is an inscription that contains 10 pictographs. It indicates a 'civic use of writing' but it cannot indicate that urban literacy among Harappans was very high.
- ▲ Bronze figurines
- ▲ The casting of bronze using lost wax technique was known and many figurines built in this fashion were found. The **dancing girl** of Mohenjo-Daro and the **bronze bull** found in Kalibangan are famous examples.
- ▲ The 'dancing girl' of Mohenjo-Daro is also known as the world's oldest bronze sculpture. It is a small four-inch statue depicting a girl wearing only ornaments and an amulet across her neck.
- ▲ Her body stance, where one leg is slightly bent and the body is curved in the opposite direction, is called the **tribhanga posture**.

Harappan Pottery:

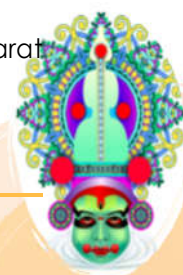
- ▲ Two types of pottery were found in the ruins- **plain pottery** and **painted pottery**.
- ▲ The plain pottery was probably a household item whereas the painted pottery (termed as Red and Black pottery) was probably used for decorative or aesthetic purposes.
- ▲ The painted pottery had figures of animals, birds, trees and geometrical designs drawn on them. The pottery was mostly wheel-made even though there is the rare finding of polychrome pottery and some crude homemade pottery.
- ▲ **Kot Dijian pottery** is the name given to early Harappan pottery. This type of pottery was mostly wheel made, short-necked with an ovoid shape and painted with designs of 'fish scales', 'pipal leaves' and the 'horned deity'.
- ▲ Harappan pottery shows evidence of mass- production. Pottery kilns were found in multiple sites like Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa, Chanhudaro and Nausharo.

Terracotta Figures:

- ▲ These were sculptures made using fire-baked clay. These are found mostly in Dholavira in Gujarat and Kalibangan areas and are numerically lesser than bronze figurines.
- ▲ Terracotta figurines were generally in the form of miniature wheel-carts, toys, animal figurines etc. The best-known terracotta figurines are of the Mother Goddess and the mask of the horned deity.
- ▲ The **mother goddess** figurines are popular and found in many Indus Valley sites. It depicts a woman adorned with necklaces and headgear. However, these were very crudely built and facial expressions were poorly recreated.

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Ornaments and Textile:

- ▲ This figure of a man wearing a shawl has often been called 'the Priest'. It is suggested that the figure resembles a priest because his eyes are half-closed in meditation. This sculpture provides information on the costume, textile designing and hair style of that period.
- ▲ The main ornaments made and worn were necklaces, earrings, anklets, armlets, rings and fillets. Some jewelry like girdles, anklets and earrings were made mostly and specifically for women.
- ▲ There is evidence of large-scale production of beads made using precious stones such as amethyst, quartz, cornelian or even steatite; Bead-making factories were uncovered in the sites of Lothal and Chanhudaro.
- ▲ Cotton was the primary fabric used by the people in the summers and during winters; clothes made of wool were used.
- ▲ Spindles made of both faience (glazed earthenware) and ordinary clay were found suggesting that fabric spinning was undertaken by everyone irrespective of them being rich or poor.

Daimabad Culture:

- ▲ The culture of this settlement begins with Harappan and ends with the **Malwa** and **Jorwe cultures**. The culture in the period that follows immediately after the Harappan Culture is called the Daimabad culture.
- ▲ Daimabad is a Harappan site located in Maharashtra on the banks of Pravara River which is a tributary of Godavari
- ▲ Pottery found here is fine red ware with geometric designs painted in black. Types of pottery found are dishes, dishes on stands, bowls on stands and vases. An elephant tusk was found which was abandoned halfway in the process of getting engraved.
- ▲ The Daimabad Bronzes are a set of metal artefacts made of bronze alloyed with a small amount of tin.
- ▲ The Daimabad Bronzes are a unique mystery in the culture of the Harappan and post- Harappan phases as no other similar metal artefacts have been found elsewhere in India.
- ▲ The artefacts found are not utilitarian objects but are rather religious, ritualistic or decorative objects.

Artefacts found:

- ▲ A 16 cm high statue of a man riding a chariot driven by a pair of oxen. The man is accompanied by a dog while his genitals are covered by four hoods of a cobra.
- ▲ A one foot tall water buffalo standing on a four wheeled platform.
- ▲ An elephant and a rhinoceros, both on wheeled platforms where the wheels are missing from the axles.





Mauryan Architecture

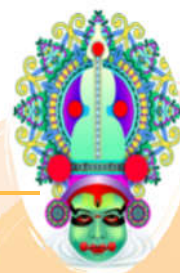
- ▲ Major changes occurred during the 4th century BC in the social and political atmosphere of ancient India due to the advent of Buddhism and Jainism. At this time, the Mauryan Empire was at the helm and under its patronage, a lot of architectural wonders were designed and built for both political as well as religious reasons.
- ▲ Mauryan art was typically **dignified and aristocratic court art** where great emphasis was laid on the of animals.
- ▲ Post-Mauryan art on the other hand, **reflected popular tastes and patronage**. This type of art was generally relief art and themed around a narration of stories or tales.
- ▲ Two important changes employed by builders were the adoption of stone as a primary raw material for major buildings and the heavy usage of wood to build houses and palaces.
- ▲ Economically, the architecture of the period can be differentiated as either with or without royal patronage. For example, royal patronage was extended to palaces, pillars and stupas but was not extended to the rock-cut caves and ordinary homes.

Important Styles:

- ▲ The Mauryan capital, Pataliputra, had a palace built of polished wood as had been noted by **Megasthenes**.
- ▲ Another palace at **Kumrahar** was mentioned by Megasthenes in his book **Indika** as more splendid than the palaces of Iran.
- ▲ Mauryan pillars built of mostly sandstone were used as symbols of the bearing state, of victories in war and as communication tools for sermons of the emperor addressed to the public.
- ▲ They are composed of four segments - a base in the form of the long shaft (often a monolith), on it a Capital (usually bell-shaped and inspired from Iran), above it the abacus (either circular or rectangular) and finally on top the figurines of animals.
- ▲ For example, Bull Capital at Rampurva, Lion pillar at Vaishali and the Allahabad pillar without a capital.
- ▲ An elephant capital was found at **Sankisa (UP)** which symbolises the birth of Buddha.
- ▲ Mauryan stupas are burial mounds. Originally, burial mounds were used in the Vedic age but it gained popularity only after Buddhists started using the practice.
- ▲ After Buddha's death, nine such stupas were erected (Vaishali, Kapilavastu, Rajagriha, Kushinagar, Pava, Ramagrama, Pippalivana, Allakappa and Vethapida) where the first eight contained the relics of Buddha and the last one contained the pot, which was used to keep Buddha's relics.
- ▲ A stupa is made using unburnt brick inside and burnt bricks outside. The surface is covered with plaster.
- ▲ The important architectural parts of a stupa are -chatras (cone at the top), toran (gateway), medhi (circular terrace), vedikas (stone railings), sopanas (staircases) and pradakshina patho (passageway around the stupa).

Stupas:

- ▲ Stupa, Buddhist commemorative monument, usually houses sacred relics associated with the Buddha or other saintly persons.



ENVIRONMENT

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ENVIRONMENT

The environment is defined as 'the sum total of living, nonliving components; influences and events, surrounding an organism'. Everything that surrounds or affects an organism during its life time is collectively known as its environment which comprises both living (biotic) and nonliving (abiotic) components.

Biosphere:

- ▲ Biosphere is the life supporting layer which surrounds the earth and makes existence of life possible without any protective layer.
- ▲ The biosphere consists of living organisms, physical environment and energy. It is the zone of assemblage of lithosphere, atmosphere, hydrosphere and living organisms together.

There are three components of biosphere:

- ▲ **Biotic or organic components:** It includes micro- organisms, plants and animals including man.
- ▲ **Inorganic or abiotic component:** It includes physical environment of soil, water, air, temperature and sunlight.
- ▲ **Energy component:** Solar and geothermal energy etc.
- ▲ Biosphere is termed as an open system as there is continuous inward and outward flow of energy and matter.
- ▲ Biosphere always tends to maintain equilibrium between flow of energy and output of the matter. If this equilibrium is maintained environmental and ecological balances are also maintained.
- ▲ Disturbances in the biosphere equilibrium bring ecological and environmental disturbances which have long term or short-term effects on the very existence of living beings.

ECOLOGY

- ▲ Ecology deals with the inter-relationships amongst organisms and interactions between organisms and their environment. In other words, Ecology is the study of organism in relation with the surrounding in which they live. The surrounding is the environment of the living organisms and non-living things in the vicinity.
- ▲ The term Ecology is being derived from two Greek words namely, **Oikos** meaning home or place to live in and '**logos**' means study. It means the study of the home of nature.

Levels of organization in ecology:

- ▲ The various ecological levels of organisation are described below:
- ▲ **Individual:** An individual organism is a distinct unit of life in nature. It is the basic unit of ecological hierarchy. Ex: Plant, Animal, Bacteria.
- ▲ **Population:** It is a group of individuals of a plant or animal species inhabiting a given area at a particular time. Ex: All the frogs living in a pond constitute a population.





- ▲ **Community:** It is an assemblage of populations of plants, animals, bacteria, and fungi that live in an area that show interaction and interdependence.
- ▲ Ex: A grassland community dominated by grasses, it may contain herbs, shrubs, and trees along with associated animals of different species.

ECOSYSTEM

- ▲ An ecosystem is defined as a structural and functional unit of biosphere consisting of community of living beings and physical environment, both interacting and exchanging materials between them. Ecosystem is a self-contained, dynamic system composed of a natural community along with its physical environment.

Components of ecosystem:

- ▲ **Abiotic Components:** Abiotic components or abiotic factors are non-living chemical and physical parts of the ecosystem that affect living organisms and the functioning of ecosystems. Ex: Soil, Topography, Water, Atmosphere etc.
- ▲ **Biotic Components:** Biotic components, or biotic factors, can be described as any living component that affects another organism that shapes the ecosystem. Ex: Green Plants, Non-Green Plants, Animals, Parasites, Decomposers etc.
- ▲ The environment is not static. Both biotic and abiotic factors are in a flux and keep changing.

ECOTONE

- ▲ An ecotone is a **zone of junction** or a transition area between two biomes (diverse ecosystems). Ecotone is the zone where two communities meet and integrate.
- ▲ For e.g., the mangrove forests represent an ecotone between marine and terrestrial ecosystem. Other examples are grassland (between forest and desert), estuary (between fresh water and salt water) and riverbank or marshland (between dry and wet).

Characteristics of Ecotone:

- ▲ It may be narrow (between grassland and forest) or wide (between forest and desert).
- ▲ It has conditions intermediate to the adjacent ecosystems. Hence it is a zone of tension.
- ▲ Usually, the number and the population density of the species of an outgoing community decreases as we move away from the community or ecosystem.
- ▲ A well-developed ecotone contains some organisms which are entirely different from that of the adjoining communities.

Ecocline:

- ▲ Ecocline is a zone of gradual but continuous change from one ecosystem to another when there is no sharp boundary between the two in terms of species composition.





- ▲ Ecocline occurs across the environmental gradient (gradual change in abiotic factors such as altitude, temperature (thermocline), salinity (halocline), depth, etc.).

Edge Effect – Edge Species:

- ▲ Edge effect refers to the changes in population or community structures that occur at the boundary of two habitats (ecotone).
- ▲ Sometimes the number of species and the population density of some of the species in the ecotone is much greater than either community. This is called edge effect.
- ▲ The organisms which occur primarily or most abundantly in this zone are known as edge species.
- ▲ In the terrestrial ecosystems edge effect is especially applicable to birds.
- ▲ For example, the density of birds is greater in the ecotone between the forest and the desert.

ECOLOGICAL NICHE

- ▲ Niche refers to the unique functional role and position of a species in its **habitat or ecosystem**.
- ▲ The functional characteristics of a species in its habitat is referred to as “**niche**” in that common habitat.
- ▲ In nature, many species occupy the same habitat, but they perform different functions:
- ▲ habitat niche – where it lives, food niche – what it eats or decomposes & what species it competes with,
 - **reproductive niche** – how and when it reproduces,
 - **physical & chemical niche** – temperature, land shape, land slope, humidity & another requirement.
- ▲ Niche plays an important role in the conservation of organisms. If we have to conserve species in its native habitat, we should have knowledge about the niche requirements of the species.

Difference between niche and habitat:

- ▲ The habitat of a species is like its ‘address’ (i.e., where it lives) whereas niche can be thought of as its “profession” (i.e., activities and responses specific to the species).
- ▲ A niche is unique for a species while many species share the habitat.
- ▲ No two species in a habitat can have the same niche. This is because of the competition with one another until one is displaced.
- ▲ For example, a large number of different species of insects may be pests of the same plant, but they can co-exist as they feed on different parts of the same plant.

Functions of Ecosystem:

- ▲ Ecological succession or ecosystem development.
- ▲ Homeostasis (or cybernetic) or feedback control mechanisms.
- ▲ Energy flow through the food chain.
- ▲ Nutrient cycling (biogeochemical cycles).





ECOLOGICAL SUCCESSION

- ▲ **Ecological Succession** is the process by which a natural community moves, through a sequential change in the structure and composition, from a simpler level of organization to a more complex community.
- ▲ Succession is a long-term cumulative, directional and largely predictable process of natural development of different communities at the same site in a definite sequence over a period of time. Such changes occur either in response to an environmental change or induced by the intrinsic properties of the community itself.
- ▲ Succession continues till a community develops maximum equilibrium to the environment. It is called **Climax Community**.

Types of Succession:

- ▲ Ecological Successions have been described using several criteria. Accordingly, there are several types of succession.

Autogenic and Allogenic Succession:

- ▲ When succession is brought by living inhabitants of that community is called Autogenic Succession, while changes brought by outside forces is known as Allogenic Succession.

Induced Succession:

- ▲ Man has controlled succession in such a way as to obtain a managed steady state in which good amount of organic matter can be harvested. It is called induced succession. In induced succession, like agriculture, a young state is maintained by various types of inputs and protective measures.

Primary Succession:

- ▲ It is the succession that takes on a primary bare area or an area which was not previously inhabited by plants. Such an area is biologically sterile and is, therefore, quite hostile in starting. Succession is also slow.

Secondary Succession:

- ▲ It occurs on a site which has become bare secondarily due to destruction of previous vegetation. The area is biologically fertile and hence favourable for reappearance of plant life. Succession is quite rapid

Homeostasis in Ecosystem:

- ▲ Homeostasis is the maintenance of stable equilibrium, especially through physiological (through bodily part functions. E.g., Cooling your body through sweating processes.





- ▲ Organisms try to maintain the constancy of its internal environment despite varying external environmental conditions that tend to upset their homeostasis.

Energy Flow Through an Ecosystem – Trophic Levels:

- ▲ A trophic level is the representation of energy flow in an ecosystem.
- ▲ The trophic level of an organism is the position it occupies in a food chain.
- ▲ Trophic level interaction deals with how the members of an ecosystem are connected based on nutritional needs.
- ▲ Energy flows through the trophic levels from producers to subsequent trophic levels is unidirectional.
- ▲ Energy level decreases from the first trophic level upwards due to loss of energy in the form of heat at each trophic level.
- ▲ This energy loss at each trophic level is quite significant. Hence there are usually not more than four-five trophic levels (beyond this the energy available is negligible to support an organism).
- ▲ The trophic level interaction involves three concepts namely:
 - Food Chain
 - Food Web
 - Ecological Pyramids

FOOD CHAIN

- ▲ Transfer of food energy from green plants (producers) through a series of organisms with repeated eating and being eaten link is called a food chain. E.g., Grasses → Grasshopper → Frog → Snake → Hawk/Eagle.
- ▲ Each step in the food chain is called trophic level.
- ▲ A food chain starts with producers and ends with top carnivores.
- ▲ The trophic level of an organism is the position it occupies in a food chain.

Types of Food Chains:

1. Grazing food chain.
2. Detritus food chain.

Grazing food chain:

- ▲ The consumers which start the food chain, utilising the plant or plant part as their food, constitute the grazing food chain.

Detritus food chain:

- ▲ This type of food chain starts from organic matter of dead and decaying animals and plant bodies from the grazing food chain.

