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General Knowledge – Part 12

Crops And Leading Producers States

Crops Name	No 1 Producer	No 2 Producer	No 3 Producer
Bajra	Gujarat	Rajasthan	
Barley	Uttar Pradesh	Rajasthan	
Cardamom	Karnataka	Kerala	
Castor seed	Gujarat	Andhra Pradesh	
Chillies (dry)	Tamil Nadu	Andhra Pradesh	
Coffee	Karnataka	Kerala	
Coriander	Rajasthan	Andhra Pradesh	
Cotton	Gujarat	Maharashtra	Andhra Pradesh
Ginger (dry)	Kerala	Himachal Pradesh	
Gram	Rajasthan	Uttar Pradesh	
Groundnut	Gujarat	Andhra Pradesh	Tamil Nadu
Jowar	Maharashtra	Karnataka	
Jute	West Bengal	Bihar	Assam
Linseed	Madhya Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	
Maize	Karnataka	Andhra Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh
Mesta	Andhra Pradesh	Odisha	
Millets (small)	Madhya Pradesh	Andhra Pradesh	
Paddy	West Bengal	Tamil Nadu	
Potato	Uttar Pradesh	West Bengal	Bihar
Onion	Gujarat	Maharashtra	Karnataka
Pulses	Madhya Pradesh	Uttar Pradesh	Maharashtra

Ragi	Karnataka	Tamil Nadu	
Rape-seed & Mustard	Rajasthan	UP	Haryana
Rice	West Bengal	UP	Punjab
Safflower	Maharashtra	Karnataka	
Sannhemp	UP	Madhya Pradesh	
Soyabean	Madhya Pradesh	Maharashtra	Rajasthan
Sesamum	Uttar Pradesh	Rajasthan	
Sugarcane	UP	Tamil Nadu	Maharashtra
Sunflower	Karnataka	Andhra Pradesh	Maharashtra
Tapioca	Kerala	Tamil Nadu	
Tea	Assam	West Bengal	
Tobacco	Mahatrashttra	Tamil nadu	
Tur	Uttar Pradesh	Madhya Pradesh	
Wheat	Uttar Pradesh	Punjab	Haryana

ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE AND WINDS

The air, that is a mixture of several gases, exerts pressure through its weight. Air pressure or atmospheric pressure is defined as total weight of a mass of column of air above per unit area at sea level.

Distribution of Atmospheric Pressure

Vertical distribution . The density ,of air and the atmospheric pressure is high at the lower layer of the atmosphere. Atmospheric pressure decreases with increasing height. Though there is no direct relation between the increasing height and the rate of decrease in atmospheric pressures, yet in the troposphere the rate of decrease in air pressure is 34 mb for every 300 m of height.

Horizontal Distribution and Pressure Belts

- i. **Equatorial low pressure belt (10°N–10°S)** . This is a belt of very low atmospheric pressure. The equatorial low pressure belt is thermally induced, because the ground surface is intensely heated during the day due to almost vertical sun rays and thus the lower most layers of air, coming in contact with the heated land, also gets

warmed. In this zone, there is almost no horizontal movement of air. The air in this belt rises up. This belt represents the zone of convergence of N-E and S-E Trade winds. Because of frequent calm conditions, this belt is called a '*Belt of calm*' or '*doldrums*'.

- ii. **Sub-Tropical High Pressure Belt ($23^{1/2}^{\circ}$ - 35° in both the hemispheres)** : This belt owes its origin to the rotation of the earth and sinking and settling down of winds. It is, thus, mainly dynamically induced. The air rising at the equatorial belt starts blowing poleward. But, these winds get deflected towards east due to rotation of the earth. This phenomenon was first discovered by the French scientist **Coriolis**, hence this force exerted by the rotation of the earth is called *coriolis force*. The quantity of the force keeps increasing with increasing distances from the equatorial belt. This zone of high pressure is called 'Horse Latitude' because of prevalence of frequent calms. In ancient times, the merchants carrying horses in their ships had to throw out some of the horses while passing through this zone of calm in order to lighten their ships. This is why this zone is called '*Horse Latitude*'.
- iii. **Sub-Polar Low Pressure Belt (45° - $66^{1/2}^{\circ}$ in the hemispheres)**: This belt is also dynamically induced. In fact, the surface wind spreads outward from this zone due to rotation of the earth and low pressure is caused. In this zone, the air coming from the sub-tropical and polar high-pressure zones converge and rise up, creating a zone of low pressure. This zone is characterized cyclonic storms.
- iv. **Polar High Pressure Belt (Near the North and the South' Poles)** : High pressure persists at the poles throughout the year because of prevalence of very low temperature all the year. The air subsides in this zone due to intensive cooling and results into high density.

Wind

This horizontally moving air is called wind. Blowing winds are an effort on the part of nature to balance the pressure differences at various places. The air blowing almost vertically is called air current.

The direction of surface winds is usually controlled by the pressure gradient and rotation of the earth. Because of the rotation of the earth along its axis, the winds are deflected does not blow at right angle of the isobars. The force which deflects the direction of winds is called *Coriolis force*. Because of Coriolis force, all winds are deflected to the right clockwise in the Northern Hemisphere, while they are deflected to the left anti-clockwise in the Southern Hemisphere with respect to the rotating earth. Since this phenomenon was firstly proved by a French scientist *Ferrel*, it is called *Ferrel's Law*.

Types of Winds

Based on their characteristic, winds are classified as:

1. Prevailing or Permanent or Planetary winds
2. Seasonal winds
3. Local winds

Permanent or planetary winds

The winds blowing almost in the same direction throughout the year are called permanent or planetary winds. Trade winds, Westerlies and Polar winds are included under it.

Trade winds : These are the permanent winds blowing in both the hemispheres from the subtropical high-pressure belts to the equatorial low pressure belt. The word 'Trade' is derived from a German word which means 'a fixed path' or 'track'. Hence, trade winds are the winds having fixed paths. These winds have north-easterly direction in the Northern Hemisphere, while they have south-easterly direction in the Southern Hemisphere. Near the equator, these converge and rise causing convectional rainfall in the equatorial region.

Westerlies : These are the permanent winds blowing from the sub-tropical high pressure, belts to the sub-polar low pressure belts in both hemispheres. The general direction of Westelies is South West to North East in the N. Hemisphere and North West to South East Southern Hemisphere. These winds are developed in the 40°-65°latitudes. In this Southern Hemisphere, because of lack masses and dominance of ocean, their velocity so high that they are called Roaring Forties (40°S), Furious Fifties (50°S) and Shriekig Sixties (60°S). These names are given by the sailors who were being effected by those westerlies.

Polar winds: Winds blowing from the high-pressure belts to the sub-polar low belts, in both the hemispheres, are called polar winds. These winds are north-easterly in the Hemisphere and south-easterly in the Hemisphere. Due to very low temperature humidity bearing capacity of polar winds is very low. When these winds meet the Westerlies sub-polar regions, polar fronts are develop, temperate cyclones are generated.

Seasonal Winds

The winds which change their direction of blowing with the changing seasons are called seasonal winds. They are also called temporary winds, Monsoon winds, sea breeze, land breeze, mountain breeze and valley breeze are included under it.

Monsoon winds : The entire surface winds, which change their directions with changing seasons are called monsoon winds. These winds blow from sea to land in summer and from land to sea in winter.

Land and Sea Breezes : Land is heated more quickly than the adjacent sea during the day time. As a result, warm air rises over the land creating low pressure area there. However, there is prevailing high pressure over the adjacent sea. As a result, the pressure gradient causes the air to blow from the high pressure to the low pressure areas i.e. from the sea to the land. This is called sea breeze.

Mountain and Valley Breezes : The slope, and valley floors in the mountainous regions are more heated through insolation during daytime. "Consequently, the warm air moves upslope. This upward moving breeze during daytime is called Valley Breeze. Valley breezes reach mountain peaks and many a time yield precipitation. In the night, the upper part of the mountain cools quickly and starts falling down along the slope of the mountain. This is called Mountain Breeze.

Local Winds

These winds blow due to local variation in the temperature and pressure, and influence a very small area. Some important local winds are :

- **Chinook** : Chinook means the 'snow-eater' (adopted from the language of Red Indians). This is the hot and dry wind blowing along the eastern slope of the Rockies and covers an area from the southern part of Colorado in the south to British Columbia in Canada in the North.
- **Foehn** : This is similar to Chinook and blows along the northern slope of the Alps. It affects the Switzerland most.
- **Sirocco** : This is a warm, dry and dusty wind which blows in northerly direction from the Sahara Desert and after crossing over the Mediterranean Sea reaches Italy, Spain etc., where it is also known as Blood rain because of its redish sand brought alongwith it from Sahara desert. There are different local names for Sirocco in Africa e.g. '*Khamsin*' in Egypt, 'Gibli' in Libya and "Chilli' in Tunisia, in Spain and Canary, and Madeira islands, it is known as '*Leveche*' and '*Leste*' respectively.
- **Black Roller** : These are the warm and dry dusty winds, blowing in the great plains of North America.
- **Yoma** : This is the warm and dry wind like '*Santa Ana*', blowing in Japan. Temporal. This is the monsoon wind blowing in the Central America.

- **Simoom** : This is the warm and dry wind blowing in the Arabian Desert. It causes storms and obstructs visibility.
- **Samoon**: This is the wind blowing in the Kurdistan region of Iran and Iraq and has the characteristics similar to Foehn.
- **Karaburan**: These are the dust laden fast blowing winds in the Tarim Basin in the Central Asia.
- **Harmattan** : This is the warm and dry wind blowing from north-east and east to the west in the Sahara desert. The weather becomes suddenly dry and pleasant in the western coast of Africa, at the arrival of Harmattan. Therefore, it is called 'Doctor' in the New Guinea.
- **Brick fielder**: This is the warm and dry wind blowing in the Victoria province of Australia.
- **Norwester** : This is the warm, and dry wind blowing in northern New Zealand.
- **Loo** : This is a hot and dry wind blowing in the northern India from the north west and west to the east. It is sometimes called 'heat wave'.
- **Santa Ana** : This is the warm and dry wind blowing in California (USA).
- **Zonda** : This is a warm wind blowing in Argentina and Uruguay, from the Andes to the plains. This is also called 'cool Foehn'.
- **Mistral** : This is the cold local wind blowing in Spain and France from north-west to south-east direction. While blowing through the narrow valley of the Rhone River.
- **Blizzard** : It is a violent stormy cold polar wind laden with dry snow and is prevalent in north and south Polar Regions. These winds affect Canada and USA.
- **Pampero** : These are the cold polar winds blowing very fast in the pampas region of South America.

ATMOSPHERE

The atmosphere is a thick gaseous envelope which surrounds the earth from all sides and is attached to the earth's surface by gravitational force. It filters the incoming solar radiation and thus prevents the ultraviolet rays from reaching the earth's surface.

Composition of the Atmosphere

The atmosphere is composed of gases, water vapour and particulates. Among the gases, Nitrogen is in the highest amount, followed by Oxygen, Argon, Carbon dioxide, Neon, Helium, Ozone, hydrogen etc. in that order. Besides these gases, water vapour, dust particles and other particulates are also present in varying amounts.

- **Nitrogen (78%)**. Among the atmospheric gases, it is the most important. It is fixed by the leguminous plants into nitrogenous nutrients.
- **Oxygen (21%)**. This is the life-giving gas to the humans and animals. Green plants produce it during the process of photosynthesis.
- **Argon (0.93%)**. This is a noble gas.
- **Carbon dioxide (0.03%)**. This is a heavy gas. It is permeable for the incoming solar radiation but opaque for the outgoing terrestrial radiations. In this way, by trapping the heat, it works as a greenhouse gas. An International consensus is made to bring down its level by the Kyoto Protocol (1997).
- **Ozone** . Though it is present in very less amount,, it is an important constituent of the atmosphere. It acts as a filter and absorbs the harmful ultraviolet rays. If Ultraviolet rays reach the earth's surface, they may cause skin cancer and other diseases. Montreal Protocol (1987) was agreed upon to save the ozone layer from depletion.
- **Water vapour** . The water vapour content in the atmosphere ranges between 0-4% by volume. The water vapour content of the atmosphere decreases from the equator towards the poles, due to decreasing temperature. Climatically, water vapour is very important constituent of the atmosphere. The atmospheric water vapour is received through the evaporation of moisture and water from the water bodies, vegetation and soil covers. The moisture content of the atmosphere creates several forms of condensation and precipitation, e.g.- clouds, fogs, dew, rainfall, frost, hailstorm, ice, snowfall, etc.
- **Particulates** . The solid particles present in the atmosphere include dust particles, salt particles, pollen, smoke-soot, volcanic ashes, etc. Dust particles are hygroscopic nuclei that help in the formation of water droplets, clouds and various forms of condensation and precipitation.

Five Layers of the Earth's Surface

On the basis of the characteristics of temperature and air pressure, there are five layers of the earth's surface upwards.

1. **Troposphere** . It is the lower most and the most important layer of the atmosphere, as air all the weather phenomena occur in this layer. The average height of the troposphere is about 16-18 km. over the equator and 6-8 km. Over the poles. In this layer, temperature decrease with increasing height at the rate of 1°C/165 - or 6.5°C/1000 m. This rate of decrease temperature is called Normal lapse rate.

2. **Stratosphere** : Temperature remains stable at the beginning of this layer but it suddenly starts changing after the height of 20 km. This layer of the atmosphere is almost free from the weather disturbances, hence it is preferred by the pilots to fly their aeroplanes.
3. **Mesosphere** : This layer extends between 50 km and 80 km. Temperature again decreases with increasing height and reaches upto -100°C , which is the minimum temperature of the atmosphere.
4. **Ionosphere** : It extends from 80 km to 640 km. Electrically charged or ionised particles are abundantly found in this layer and temperatures increases with increasing height. This layer reflects back the radio waves.
5. **Exosphere** : It represents the uppermost layers of the atmosphere. It extends beyond 640 km of height from the sea level. Electrically charged particles are found abundantly in this layer also and there are separate layer of N_2 , O_2 , He and H_2 . The atmosphere becomes rarefied at the height of 1000 km, and it ultimately merges with the space beyond the height of 1000 km.

DIRECTIVE PRINCIPLES OF STATE POLICY

Article 36. Definition - In this Part, unless the context otherwise requires, "the State" has the same meaning as in Part III.

Article 37. Application of the principles contained in this Part. The provisions contained in this Part shall not be enforceable by any court, but the principles therein laid down are nevertheless fundamental in the governance of the country and it shall be the duty of the State to apply these principles in making laws.

Article 38. State to secure a social order for the promotion of welfare of the people.

1. The State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall inform all the institutions of the national life.
2. The State shall, in particular, strive to minimise the inequalities in income, and endeavour to eliminate inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities, not only amongst individuals but also amongst groups of people residing in different areas or engaged in different vocations.

Article 39. Certain principles of policy to be followed by the State. The State shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing

- a. that the citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood;
- b. that the ownership and control of the material resources of the community are so distributed as best to subserve the common good;
- c. that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment;
- d. that there is equal pay for equal work for both men and women;
- e. that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength;
- f. ³that children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.

Article 39A. *Equal justice and free legal aid.* The State shall secure that the operation of the legal system promotes justice, on a basis of equal opportunity, and shall, in particular, provide free legal aid, by suitable legislation or schemes or in any other way, to ensure that opportunities for securing justice are not denied to any citizen by reason of economic or other disabilities.

Article 40. *Organisation of village panchayats.* The State shall take steps to organise village panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government.

Article 41. *Right to work, to education and to public assistance in certain cases.* The State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement, and in other cases of undeserved want.

Article 42. *Provision for just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief.* The State shall make provision for securing just and humane conditions of work and for maternity relief.

Article 43. *Living wage, etc., for workers.* The State shall endeavour to secure, by suitable legislation or economic organisation or in any other way, to all workers, agricultural, industrial or otherwise, work, a living wage, conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure and social and cultural opportunities and, in particular,

the State shall endeavour to promote cottage industries on an individual or co-operative basis in rural areas.

Article 43A. *Participation of workers in management of industries.* The State shall take steps, by suitable legislation or in any other way, to secure the participation of workers in the management of undertakings, establishments or other organisations engaged in any industry.

Article 43B. *Promotion of Co-operative Societies.* The State shall endeavour to promote voluntary formation, autonomous functioning, democratic control and professional management of co-operative societies.

Article 44. *Uniform civil code for the citizens.* The State shall endeavour to secure for the citizens a uniform civil code throughout the territory of India.

Article 45. *Provision for early childhood care and education to children below the age of six years.* The state shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.

Article 46. *Promotion of educational and economic interests of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections.* The State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.

Article 47. *Duty of the State to raise the level of nutrition and the standard of living and to improve public health.* The State shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the standard of living of its people and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties and, in particular, the State shall endeavour to bring about prohibition of the consumption except for medicinal purposes of intoxicating drinks and of drugs which are injurious to health.

Article 48. *Organisation of agriculture and animal husbandry.* The State shall endeavour to organise agriculture and animal husbandry on modern and scientific lines and shall, in particular, take steps for preserving and improving the breeds, and prohibiting the slaughter, of cows and calves and other milch and draught cattle.

Article 48A. *Protection and improvement of environment and safeguarding of forests and wild life.* The State shall endeavour to protect and improve the environment and to safeguard the forests and wild life of the country.

Article 49. *Protection of monuments and places and objects of national importance.* It shall be the obligation of the State to protect every monument or place or object of artistic or historic interest,⁸[declared by or under law made by Parliament] to be of national importance, from spoliation, disfigurement, destruction, removal, disposal or export, as the case may be.

Article 50. *Separation of judiciary from executive.* The State shall take steps to separate the judiciary from the executive in the public services of the State.

Article 51. *Promotion of international peace and security.* The State shall endeavour to:-

- a. promote international peace and security.
- b. maintain just and honorable relations between nations.
- c. foster respect for international law and treaty obligations in the dealings of organized peoples with one another.
- d. encourage settlement of international disputes by arbitration.

FUNDAMENTAL DUTIES

Article 51A. *Fundamental duties* - It shall be the duty of every citizen of India

- a. To abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem;
- b. To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom;
- c. To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India;
- d. To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so;
- e. To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women;
- f. To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;
- g. To protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wild life, and to have compassion for living creatures;
- h. To develop the scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform;
- i. To safeguard public property and to abjure violence;

- j. To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement.

Who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years.

INDIAN CONSTITUTION

The Constitution of India is the world's lengthiest written constitution with 395 articles and 8 schedules. It contains the good points taken from the constitution's of many countries in the world. It was passed on 26 Nov 1949 by the 'The Constituent Assembly' and is fully applicable since 26 Jan 1950. The Constituent Assembly had been elected for undivided India and held its first sitting on 9th Dec.1946, re-assembled on the 14th August 1947, as The Sovereign Constituent Assembly for the dominion of India. In regard to its composition the members were elected by indirect election by the members of The Provisional Legislative Assemblies (lower house only). At the time of signing 284 out of 299 members of the Assembly were present.

The constitution of India draws extensively from Western legal traditions in its outline of the principles of liberal democracy. It follows a British parliamentary pattern with a lower and upper house. It embodies some Fundamental Rights which are similar to the Bill of Rights declared by the United States constitution. It also borrows the concept of a Supreme Court from the US.

India is a federal system in which residual powers of legislation remain with the central government, similar to that in Canada. The constitution provides detailed lists dividing up powers between central and state governments as in Australia, and it elaborates a set of Directive Principles of State Policy as does the Irish constitution.

The constitution has provision for Schedules to be added to the constitution by amendment. The ten schedules in force cover the designations of the states and union territories; the emoluments for high-level officials; forms of oaths; allocation of the number of seats in the Rajya Sabha. A review of the constitution needs at least two-thirds of the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha to pass it.

The Indian constitution is one of the most frequently amended constitutions in the world. Infact the first amendment to it was passed after only a year of the adoption of the constitution and instituted numerous minor changes. Many more amendments followed, a rate of almost two amendments per year since 1950. Most of the constitution can be

amended after a quorum of more than half of the members of each house in Parliament passes an amendment with a two-thirds majority vote. Articles pertaining to the distribution of legislative authority between the central and state governments must also be approved by 50 percent of the state legislatures.

PARLIAMENT OF INDIA

Parliament

Parliament is the supreme legislative body of India. The Indian Parliament comprises of the President and the two Houses—Lok Sabha (House of the People) and Rajya Sabha (Council of States). The President has the power to summon and prorogue either House of Parliament or to dissolve Lok Sabha.

The Constitution of India came into force on January 26, 1950. The first general elections under the new Constitution were held during the year 1951–52 and the first elected Parliament came into being in April, 1952, the Second Lok Sabha in April, 1957, the Third Lok Sabha in April, 1962, the Fourth Lok Sabha in March, 1967, the Fifth Lok Sabha in March, 1971, the Sixth Lok Sabha in March, 1977, the Seventh Lok Sabha in January, 1980, the Eighth Lok Sabha in December, 1984, the Ninth Lok Sabha in December, 1989, the Tenth Lok Sabha in June, 1991, the Eleventh Lok Sabha in May, 1996, the Twelfth Lok Sabha in March, 1998, Thirteenth Lok Sabha in October, 1999, Fourteenth Lok Sabha in May, 2004 and Fifteenth Lok Sabha in April, 2009.

Rajya Sabha

The origin of Rajya Sabha can be traced back to 1919, when in pursuance to the Government of India Act, 1919, a second chamber known as the Council of States was created. This Council of States, comprising of mostly nominated members was a deformed version of second chamber without reflecting true federal features. The Council continued to function till India became independent. The Rajya Sabha, its Hindi nomenclature was adopted in 23 August, 1954.

The Rajya Sabha is to consist of not more than 250 members – 238 members representing the States and Union Territories, and 12 members nominated by the President.

Rajya Sabha is a permanent body and is not subject to dissolution. However, one third of the members retire every second year, and are replaced by newly elected members. Each member is elected for a term of six years.

The Vice President of India is the ex-officio Chairman of Rajya Sabha. The House also elects a Deputy Chairman from among its members. Besides, there is also a panel of "Vice Chairmen" in the Rajya Sabha. The senior most Minister, who is a member of Rajya Sabha, is appointed by the Prime Minister as Leader of the House.

Lok Sabha

Parliamentary institutions in India, with all their modern ramifications, owe their origin to India's British connections. Until 1853, there was no legislative body distinct from the Executive. The Charter Act of 1853, for the first time provided some sort of a legislature in the form of a 12 member Legislative Council. The Indian Independence Act, 1947 declared the Constituent Assembly of India to be a full sovereign body. Apart from being a Constitution drafting body, it also assumed full powers for the governance of the country. With the coming into force of the Constitution on 26 January, 1950, the Constituent Assembly functioned as the Provisional Parliament until the first Lok Sabha, then known as the House of People, and was constituted following General Elections in 1952. Lok Sabha, the Hindi nomenclature was adopted on 14 May, 1954.

The Lok Sabha is composed of representatives of people chosen by direct election on the basis of Universal Adult Suffrage. The Constitution provides that the maximum strength of the House be 552 members - 530 members to represent the States, 20 members to represent the Union Territories, and 2 members to be nominated by the President from the Anglo-Indian Community. At present, the strength of the House is 545 members.

The term of the Lok Sabha, unless dissolved, is five years from the date appointed for its first meeting. However, while a proclamation of emergency is in operation, this period may be extended by Parliament by law for a period not exceeding one year at a time and not extending in any case, beyond a period of six months after the proclamation has ceased to operate.

Difference between Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha

1. Members of Lok Sabha are directly elected by the eligible voters. Members of Rajya Sabha are elected by the elected members of State Legislative Assemblies in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote.
2. The normal life of every Lok Sabha is 5 years only while Rajya Sabha is a permanent body.

3. Lok Sabha is the House to which the Council of Ministers is responsible under the Constitution. Money Bills can only be introduced in Lok Sabha. Also it is Lok Sabha, which grants the money for running the administration of the country.
4. Rajya Sabha has special powers to declare that it is necessary and expedient in the national interest that Parliament may make laws with respect to a matter in the State List or to create by law one or more all-India services common to the Union and the States.

Functions and Powers

The cardinal functions of the Legislature include overseeing of administration, passing of budget, ventilation of public grievances, and discussing various subjects like development plans, international relations, and national policies. The Parliament can, under certain circumstances, assume legislative power with respect to a subject falling within the sphere, exclusively reserved for the states. The Parliament is also vested with powers to impeach the President, remove judges of Supreme and High Courts, the Chief Election Commissioner, and Comptroller and Auditor General in accordance with the procedure laid down in the Constitution. All legislation requires the consent of both Houses of Parliament. In the case of Money Bills, the will of the Lok Sabha prevails. The Parliament is also vested with the power to initiate amendments in the Constitution.

RIGHT OF CHILDREN TO FREE AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION ACT

The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act, 2009, represents the consequential legislation to Article 21A inserted in the Constitution of India through the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act, 2002. The RTE Act has become operative with effect from 1st April 2010. The GOI had notified the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Rules, 2010 in the Official Gazette on 9th April, 2010. The RTE Act provides the legislative framework for Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE). SSA has been harmonized with RTE mandate. The salient features of the RTE Act, 2009 include :

- The right of children to free and compulsory education till completion of elementary education in a neighborhood school.
- It clarifies that 'compulsory education' means obligation of the appropriate government to provide free elementary education and ensure compulsory admission, attendance and completion of elementary education to every child in the six to fourteen age group. 'Free' means that no child shall be liable to pay

any kind of fee or charges or expenses which may prevent him or her from pursuing and completing elementary education.

- It makes provisions for a non-admitted child to be admitted to an age appropriate class.
- It specifies the duties and responsibilities of appropriate Governments, local authority and parents in providing free and compulsory education, and sharing of financial and other responsibilities between the Central and State Governments.
- It lays down the norms and standards relating inter alia to Pupil Teacher Ratios (PTRs), buildings and infrastructure, school working days, teacher working hours.
- It provides for rational deployment of teachers by ensuring that the specified pupil teacher ratio is maintained for each school, rather than just as an average for the State or District or Block, thus ensuring that there is no urban-rural imbalance in teacher postings. It also provides for prohibition of deployment of teachers for non-educational work, other than decennial census, elections to local authority, state legislatures and parliament, and disaster relief.
- It provides for appointment of appropriately trained teachers, i.e. teachers with the requisite entry and academic qualifications.
- It prohibits :
 1. physical punishment and mental harassment,
 2. Screening procedures for admission of children, capitation fees,
 3. private tuition by teachers,
 4. running of schools without recognition.
- It provides for development of curriculum in consonance with the values enshrined in the Constitution, and which would ensure the all-round development of the child, building on the child's knowledge, potentiality and talent and making the child free of fear, trauma and anxiety through a system of child friendly and child centered learning.
- It provides for protection and monitoring of the child's right to free and compulsory education and redressal of grievances by the National and State Commissions for protection of Child Rights, which shall have the powers of a civil court.

THE RIGHT TO INFORMATION ACT

- An Act to provide for setting out the practical regime of right to information for citizens to secure access to information under the control of public authorities, in order to promote transparency and accountability in the working of every public authority, the constitution of a Central Information Commission and State Information Commissions and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto.

- WHEREAS the Constitution of India has established democratic Republic; AND WHEREAS democracy requires an informed citizenry and transparency of information which are vital to its functioning and also to contain corruption and to hold Governments and their instrumentalities accountable to the governed; AND WHEREAS revelation of information in actual practice is likely to conflict with other public interests including efficient operations of the Governments, optimum use of limited fiscal resources and the preservation of confidentiality of sensitive information;
AND WHEREAS it is necessary to harmonise these conflicting interests while preserving the paramountcy of the democratic ideal;
NOW, THEREFORE, it is expedient to provide for furnishing certain information to citizens who desire to have it.

BE it enacted by Parliament in the Fifty-sixth Year of the Republic of India.

VITAMINS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE TO A HUMAN BODY

What are vitamins?

A vitamin is one of a group of organic substances, present in minute amounts in natural foodstuffs, that are essential to normal metabolism; insufficient amounts in the diet may cause deficiency diseases.

Vitamins are divided into two groups: (i) **Fat-soluble Vitamins** - Vitamins A, D, E and K are fat-soluble (ii) **Water-soluble Vitamins** - Vitamins C and all the B vitamins are water-soluble.

Vitamin A (Chemical Name: Retinol)

Vitamin A plays an important role in bone growth, tooth development, reproduction, cell division, gene expression, and regulation of the immune system. The skin, eyes, and mucous membranes of the mouth, nose, throat and lungs depend on vitamin A to remain moist. Vitamin A is also an important antioxidant that may play a role in the prevention of certain cancers.

Source: liver, cod liver oil, carrot, broccoli, sweet potato, butter, kale, spinach, pumpkin, collard greens, some cheeses, egg, apricot, cantaloupe melon, milk.
Deficiency Disease: Night blindness and keratomalacia (eye disorder that results in a dry cornea)

Vitamin B1 (Chemical Name: Thiamine)

Source. Sources include peas, pork, liver, and legumes. Most commonly, thiamin is found in whole grains and fortified grain products such as cereal, and enriched products like bread, pasta, rice, and tortillas.

Deficiency Disease. Beri-Beri, Wernicke-Korsakoffsyndrome

Vitamin B2 (Chemical Name: Riboflavin)

Source. Sources include liver, eggs, dark green vegetables, legumes, whole and enriched grain products, and milk. Ultraviolet light is known to destroy riboflavin, which is why most milk is packaged in opaque containers instead of clear.

Deficiency Disease. Cheilosis, ariboflavinosis

Vitamin B3 (Chemical Name: Niacin)

Source. Sources include liver, fish, poultry, meat, peanuts, whole and enriched grain products.

Deficiency Disease. Pellagra

Vitamin B5 (Chemical Name: Pantothenic Acid)

Source. meats, whole grains (milling may remove it), broccoli, avocados, royal jelly, fish ovaries.

Deficiency Disease. Paresthesia

Vitamin B6 (Chemical Name: Pyridoxine)

Source. meats, bananas, whole grains, vegetables, and nuts. When milk is dried it loses about half of its B6. Freezing and canning can also reduce content.

Deficiency Disease. anemia, peripheral neuropathy

Vitamin B7 (Chemical Name: Biotin)

Source. egg yolk, liver, some vegetables

Deficiency Disease. dermatitis, enteritis

Vitamin B9 (Chemical Name: Folic Acid)

Source. Sources of folate include liver, kidney, dark green leafy vegetables, meats, fish, whole grains, fortified grains and cereals, legumes, and citrus fruits. Not all whole grain products are fortified with folate.

Deficiency Disease. pregnancy deficiency linked to birth defects

Vitamin B12 (Chemical Name: Cynacobalamin)

Vitamin B12, also known as cobalamin, aids in the building of genetic material, production of normal red blood cells, and maintenance of the nervous system.

Source. Vitamin B12 can only be found only in foods of animal origin such as meats, liver, kidney, fish, eggs, milk and milk products, oysters, shellfish. Some fortified foods may contain vitamin B12.

Deficiency Disease: megaloblastic anemia

Vitamin C (Chemical Name: Ascorbic Acid)

Vitamin C benefits the body by holding cells together through collagen synthesis; collagen is a connective tissue that holds muscles, bones, and other tissues together. Vitamin C also aids in wound healing, bone and tooth formation, strengthening blood vessel walls, improving immune system function, increasing absorption and utilization of iron, and acting as an antioxidant

Source. Consuming vitamin C-rich foods is the best method to ensure an adequate intake of this vitamin. While many common plant foods contain vitamin C, the best sources are citrus fruits.

Deficiency Disease. Scurvy, causing a loss of collagen strength throughout the body. Loss of collagen results in loose teeth, bleeding and swollen gums, and improper wound healing.

Vitamin D (Chemical Name: Calciferol)

Vitamin D plays a critical role in the body's use of calcium and phosphorous. It works by increasing the amount of calcium absorbed from the small intestine, helping to form and maintain bones. Vitamin D benefits the body by playing a role in immunity and controlling cell growth. Children especially need adequate amounts of vitamin D to develop strong bones and healthy teeth.

Source. produced in the skin after exposure to ultraviolet B light from the sun or artificial sources. Also found in fatty fish, eggs, beef liver, and mushrooms.

Deficiency Disease: Rickets

Vitamin E (Chemical Name: Tocopherol)

Vitamin E benefits the body by acting as an antioxidant, and protecting vitamins A and C, red blood cells, and essential fatty acids from destruction. Research from decades ago suggested that taking antioxidant supplements, vitamin E in particular, might help prevent heart disease and cancer.

Source. kiwi fruit, almonds, avocado, eggs, milk, nuts, leafy green vegetables, unheated vegetable oils, wheat germ, and wholegrains.

Deficiency Disease: May cause mild hemolytic anemia in newborns.

Vitamin K (Chemical Name: Phylloquinone)

Vitamin K is naturally produced by the bacteria in the intestines, and plays an essential role in normal blood clotting, promoting bone health, and helping to produce proteins for blood, bones, and kidneys.

Source: leafy green vegetables, avocado, kiwi fruit. Parsley contain a lot of vitamin K.

Deficiency Disease: Haemophilia

MINERALS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE TO A HUMAN BODY

Macro Elements

Calcium(Ca)

Sources: Milk, Cereals, Cheese, Green, Vegetables, Fish, Egg, Meat etc

Significance: Main component for formation of teeth and bones, blood clotting, function of nerves and muscles.

Effects of deficiency : Weak teeth and bones, retarded body growth, children suffered by Rickets.

Phosphorus(P)

Sources: Vegetables, Soybean, Milk, Egg, Fish, Meat etc.

Significance: Required for formation of teeth and bones, Synthesis of Nucleic acids.

Effects of deficiency : Weak teeth and bones; retarded body growth and physiology, children suffered by Rickets.

Sulphur(S)

Sources: Many proteins of food.

Significance: Component of many amino acids.

Effects of deficiency : Distributed protein metabolism.

Potassium(K)

Sources: Meat, milk, cereals, fruits and vegetables

Significance: Required for acid-base balance, water regulation and function of nerves.

Effects of deficiency : Low blood pressure, weak muscles; risk of paralysis.

Chlorine(Cl)

Sources: Table salt

Significance: Required for acid base balance; component of gastric juice.

Effects of deficiency : Loss of appetite; muscles cramps.

Magnesium(Mg)

Sources: Cereals, green vegetables

Significance: Co-factor of many enzymes of glycolysis and a number of another metabolic reactions dependent upon ATP.

Effects of deficiency : Irregular heart beat, muscles pain, hysteria.

Iron(Fe)

Sources: Meat, Eggs, Cereals, Green Vegetables, Pulses, Fruits, Fish etc.

Significance: Main component of hemoglobin.

Effects of deficiency : Anemia, weakness and weak immunity.

Iodine(I)

Sources: Milk, Cheese, Sea Food, Beat, Salgam

Significance: Important component of Thyroxine hormone and Thyroid Gland.

Effects of deficiency : Goiter, Cretinism.

Sodium(Na)

Sources: Salt, Vegetables, Fish, Eggs, Meat etc.

Significance: Control function of Heart, Muscles and Nerves.

Effects of deficiency : Destroy Muscles, Weight Loss, Tiredness.

Micro Elements*Fluorine(F)*

Sources: Drinking water, tea, sea food

Significance: Maintenance of bones and teeth.

Effects of deficiency : Weak teeth, larger amount causes mottling of teeth.

Zinc(Zn)

Sources: Cereals, Milk, eggs, meat, sea food

Significance: Co-factor of digestive and many other enzymes.

Effects of deficiency : Retarded growth, anaemia, rough skin, weak immunity and fertility.

Copper(Cu)

Sources: Meat, dry fruits, pods, green vegetables, sea food.

Significance: Co-factor of cytochrome oxidase enzyme. Necessary for iron metabolism and development of blood vessels and connective tissues.

Effects of deficiency : Anaemia, weak blood vessels and connective tissues.

Manganese(MN)

Sources: Dry fruits, cereals, tea fruits and green vegetables.

Significance: Co-factor of some enzymes of urea synthesis and transfer of phosphate group.

Effects of deficiency : Irregular growth of bones, cartilages and connective tissues.

Cobalt(Co)

Sources: Milk, cheese, meat.

Significance: Important component of Vitamin B12.

Effects of deficiency : Anaemia

Selenium(SE)

Sources: Meat, cereals, sea food

Significance: Co-factor of many enzymes;assists Vitamin E.

Effects of deficiency : Muscular pain;weakness of cardiac muscles.

Chromium(CR)

Sources:Yeast, sea food, meat, some vegetables

Significance: Important for catabolic metabolism.

Effects of deficiency : Irregularities of catabolic metabolism and ATP production.

Molybdenum(MO)

Sources: Cereals, pods, some vegetables

Significance: Co-factor of some enzymes.

Effects of deficiency : Irregular excretion of nitrogenous waste products.

ATOMIC TEST IN THE WORLD

Types of Atomic tests – Atmospheric, Underwater, Underground. Science behind Atomic Weapons Testing – Atomic weapons are weapons of mass destruction based on two types of reactions – nuclear fission and fusions reaction.

Nuclear Fission based atomic weapon

In nuclear fission reaction a critical mass is created by combining two sub-critical mass capable to support a chain reaction. There are two ways in which a critical mass can be created. In the gun-type method, sub-critical masses of fissionable material are placed a little apart from one another in a device similar to a gun barrel. A powerful conventional explosive is packed behind one piece, the fuse is triggered and the explosive goes off propelling one of the sub-critical masses into the other at high speed. A combined mass become super-critical and initiates the self-sustaining chain reaction. For example, the bomb dropped on Hiroshima used the gun-type method.

The other method is the implosion method. A spherical sub-critical mass is surrounded by conventional explosives. The explosive goes off on detonation, compressing the sub-critical mass into high density supercritical mass resulting into a high density supercritical mass resulting into chain reaction. For example the atom bomb dropped on Nagasaki was of the implosion type.

Nuclear Fusion based atomic weapons

In fusion weapons, the power comes from the fusion or combination of lightweight nuclei under intense heat, the reason why they are also called thermonuclear weapons. The nuclei of the isotopes of hydrogen, deuterium and tritium, are fused. The product of fusion weight less than the combined original nuclei and the lost matter turns into energy. The very high temperature required for fusion is achieved by means of fusion explosion. The explosion of the fission device also release neutrons which strike against a compound of lithium-6 deuteride inside the weapon. On being struck by neutrons the compound gives rise to helium and tritium. Now pairs of one tritium nuclei, pair of deuterium nuclei and pair of one tritium-one deuterium nuclei combine to form helium nuclei. As some amount of matter from the deuterium and tritium nuclei is converted into a large amount of energy a thermonuclear explosion takes place. The explosive power of the weapon is increased by surrounding lithium-6 deuteride with U-238 because the thermonuclear explosion fissions

the uranium-238. The device is also known as hydrogen bomb as isotopes of hydrogen are responsible for its explosive power.

Nuclear Reactor Technology

A nuclear reactor is a device in which nuclear chain reactions are initiated, controlled, and sustained at a steady rate. The most significant use of nuclear reactors is as an energy source for the generation of electrical power and for the power of propulsion in nuclear submarines.

The physics of operating a nuclear reactor is explained by Nuclear reactor physics. The natural uranium is the fuel used in the reactor and consists of two types of isotopes - U 238 and U-235 in the ratio of 139:1. The U-235 isotope undergoes fission and release energy. When a slow neutron strikes U-235 atom, it splits into two or more fragments and two or three fast neutrons. Tremendous amount of energy is produced in this process. The fast neutrons re made to slow down before they strike other U-235 atoms, thus releasing chain reaction is attained in due course of time.

Classifications

Nuclear Reactor are classified by several methods such as based on nuclear reaction, moderator material, coolant, phase of fuel, use etc. A brief outline of these classification schemes is provided below:

Nuclear fission - Most reactors, and all commercial ones, are based on nuclear fission. They generally use uranium and its product plutonium as nuclear fuel cycle is also possible. Fission reactors can be divided roughly into two classes, depending on the energy of the neutrons that sustain the fission chain reaction. Thermal reactors use slowed or thermal neutrons and fast neutron reactors use fast neutrons to cause fission in their fuel. they do not have a neutron moderator and use less moderating coolants.

Light water moderated reactors (LWRs) - Light water reactors use ordinary water to moderate and cool the reactors. At operating temperature, the density of water drops because of increase in it's temperature, and fewer neutrons passing through it are slowed enough to trigger further reactions. Due to the extra thermalization, these types can use natural uranium/unreached fuel.

Name of Nuclear Explosions	Country	Yield (Kt)	Year
Trinity	USA	19	1945
Little Boy	USA	15	1945
Fat Man	USA	21	1945
RDS-1	USSR	22	1949
Hurricane	UK	25	1952
Ivy Mike	USA	10,400	1952
Joe 4	USSR	400	1953
Castle Bravo	USA	15,000	1954
RDS-37	USSR	1,600	1955
Grapple X	UK	1800	1957
Gerboise Bleue	France	70	1960
Tsar Bomba	USSR	57000	1961
596	China	22	1964
Test No. 6	China	3300	1967
Canopus	France	2600	1968
Smiling Buddha	India	12	1974
Pokhran-II	India	60	1998
Chagai-I	Pakistan	36-40	1998
2006 North Korea Nuclear Test	North Korea	less than 1 Kt	2006
2009 North Korea Nuclear Test	North Korea	5-15	2009

PRE HISTORIC PERIOD INDIA

Who discovered a Paleolithic stone tool in India in 1863	Robert Bruce
The Paleolithic man in India is also called	Quartzite man
The two prime occupations of Paleolithic age man were _____.	Hunting, Gathering
Microliths (tools made of stone) were first discovered by _____ in _____.	Carlyle, 1867
10,000 – 4000 B.C. in pre-historic period of India is called	Mesolithic Age
Rock painting was a distinctive feature of which pre-historic period?	Mesolithic
Name the major sites in India where the Mesolithic discoveries are seen.	Bagor, Tilwara, Langhnaj, Birbhampur, Sarai Nahar (Rajasthan)
The term Neolithic was first coined by _____ in _____.	Sir John Lubbock, 1865
The discovery of Neolithic age tools was made by _____.	Le Mesurier
An important Neolithic site of northwestern region is	Mehrgarh

_____.	
What were the main characteristics of Neolithic age?	(a) Begin of agricultural (b) Domestication of animals (c) Grinding and polishing of stone tools (d) Use of pottery
The cereals that were first grown by the earliest man were _____.	Wheat and Ragi
Which of the following animals was tamed by Neolithic people. (a) Dog (b) Sheep	(a) Dog
The first metal to be used by man was (a) Copper (b) Bronze	(a) Copper
The first thing that primitive man learnt was (a) to make fire (b) to make wheel	(a) to make fire
Pottery first appeared in. (a) Neolithic Age (b) Mesolithic Age	(a) Neolithic Age
In India the two important religions that originated in the middle Gangetic plains.	(a) Jainism (b) Buddhism
In ancient times several foreign tribes reached India through north-western mountain pass. Name any of the two such tribes.	Kushanas and Huns
Pataliputra, modern Patna was provided natural defence by which rivers?	The Ganges, Son and Gandak
In Madhya Pradesh maximum number of Prehistoric Rock Shelters are found at	Bhimbetka
Indus Valley Civilization prospered on the bank of river	Indus
The main sites of India that have been discovered in the excavation of Indus Valley Civilization are:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manda on the Beas River near Jammu • Alamgirpur on the Hindon River, near Delhi • Kalibangan in Rajasthan • Coastal city of Lothal in western India (Gujarat state) • Banwali in Haryana and • Ropar in Punjab.

The major cities associated with Indus Valley Civilization are:	Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro and Lothal.
The main two features of Indus Valley Civilizations were.	Town Planning, streets and Drainage systems
The main sources of livelihood for the people of Indus Valley Civilization were	Agriculture and Trade
In India entry of Aryans is marked as _____ period	Vedic
Aryans were originally inhabitants of	Central Asia around the Caspian Sea
What are Vedas?	The most sacred books of Aryans
What are the four Vedas?	Rig Veda, Sam Veda, Yajur Veda and Atharva Veda
What are the Upanishads?	They are ancient Indian philosophical texts and are early source of Hindu religion. These are dialogues between teachers and pupils, or discussions amongst sages at king's courts, or in the jungle.
What does "Sutras" mean in Ancient Sanskrit Literature?	The Sutras are short aphorisms, compiled to serve as aids to memorize teacher's explanations. Each of the Veda has a Sutra literature of its own.
What were the two prime religions that came into existence after the Vedic period?	Jainism and Buddhism
Buddha was the son of king	Shuddhodhana
Siddhartha was born in _____ BC	567
Where was Siddharth born?	at Lumbini in Kapilavastu (present day Nepal).

While in search of truth Buddha attained enlightenment under a Pipal tree at	Bodh Gaya
Buddha delivered his first sermons at	Sarnath in U.P.
Buddha died at	Kushinagar in U.P.
The main Buddhist teaching is known as:	eight-fold path
Mahavira was born at	Kundagrama in Bihar
Vardhamana Mahavira died at	Pavapuri (present day Bihar)
Tri-ratna, the major teachings concept of Jainism was based on	(a) Right knowledge (b) Right faith and (c) Right conduct
In 684 B.C. The foundation of Haryanka Dynasty was laid by	Bimbisara and Ajata Shatru
Shishunaga Dynasty, a major dynasties of Magadha Empire was founded by Shishunag in _____ B.C.	413
Nanda Dynasty was founded in _____ BC by _____.	382, Mahapadma Nanda
Battle of Hydaspes was fought between _____ and _____ in _____ BC	Alexander, Porus, 326
Who was the founder of Maurya Empire?	Chandragupta Maurya
Which book was written by Kautilya who happened to be in the court of Chandragupta Maurya?	Arthashastra
Who had written the book titled 'INDICA' during the rule of Chandragupta Maurya?	Megasthenese, the Greek ambassador
Kalinga War was fought in	261 BC
The last rules of Mauryan dynasty was	Brihadratha Maurya
Kalinga War was fought in the year	261 BC
The Kalinga War was a fought between	Ashoka, the Mauryan Emperor and the state of Kalinga
The most influenced king of Kushan Empire was	Kanishka
Which emperor of Kushan empire introduced the FIRST gold coins of India?	Vima Kadaphises

In 78 AD the Saka Era was started by which ruler of Kushan Empire	Kanishka
The capital of Kanishka, king of Kushan Empire was	Pursushpura, now in Peshwar
What were the major two contribution of King Kanishka	4th Buddhist council in Kashmir, development of Gandhar and Mathura art forms
Who was the founder of Gupta Empire in India?	Chandragupta I
Which ruler of Gupta Empire is also known as “Napoleon of India”	Samudra Gupta
Chandragupta II of Gupta Empire was also known as	Vikramaditya
Which Chinese Pilgrim came to the court of Chandragupta II	Fa-hien
Aryabhatta and Kalidas were in the court of which Gupta Emperor?	Chandragupta II
Nalanda University, in present day of Bihar was constructed by which Gupta Emperor?	Kumaragupta I
What was the capital of Harshvardhana?	Kannauj.
Which Chinese pilgrim had visited to the court of Harshvardhana?	Hiuen-Tsang
The two important books written by Banabhata were	Harshcharita and Kadambari.
Harshvardhana was defeated by _____ of the Chalukya dynasty.	Pulshekin II
Satavahana dynasty also known as Andhra Empire was founded by	Simuka
What is Tolkkapiyam?	oldest book on the grammar of the Tamil language and the earliest extant work of Tamil literature
Who established the Chalukya dynasty?	Pulakesi I
The temple town of the Chalukya Period was	Aihole, in modern Karnataka state
The Pallava dynasty was founded by	Simhavishnu
The capital of Pallavas was at	Kanchipuram
The shore temple of Mahabalipuram and the Kailasanatha temple in Kanchipuram were constructed by which	Narasimha Varman I

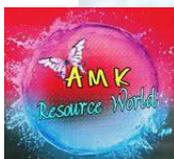
Pallava Ruler?	
The last ruler of Pallava dynasty was	Aparajitha Varman
The Rashtrakuta Dynasty was founded by	Dantidurga
Which Rashtrakuta Ruler had written the earliest Kannada book – ‘Kavirajamarga’ on rhetoric, poetics and grammar?	Amoghavarsha I
Kailasanath Temple also spelt Kailash Temple or Kailasa Temple at Ellora was built by	Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I.
The Chola dynasty was founded by	Vijayalaya
The early capital of Chola dynasty was at	Poompuhar, Uraiyur
The famous Siva temple, Brihadeeswarar Temple, also known as Rajarajeswaram was constructed by which Chola Ruler?	Raja Raj

FREEDOM MOVEMENT IN INDIA (IMPORTANT DATES)

1915	Mahatma Gandhi returned from South Africa to India
1916–1918	Local struggles in the form of Peasant movements in Kheda (Gujarat), and workers’ movement in Ahmedabad occurred
1919	Rowlatt Satyagraha (March–April) – A significant movement under Gandhi’s leadership
1919	Jallianwala Bagh massacre (April) – The tragic side of British Power in India
1919	Rowlatt Satyagraha – Gandhiji called for a countrywide campaign against the Rowlatt Act.
1919–1924	The Khilafat Movement – The movement of Indian Muslims, led by Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali
1921	Non-cooperation Movement – Gandhi contemplated this non-violent movement against oppressive British rule in India
1922	Chauri Chaura (Gorakhpur district) killing; Mahatma Gandhi called off non-cooperation.
1925	Rashtriya Swayamsevak Sangh (RSS) was founded
1927	Simon Commission – The British government appointed a commission to formulate further constitutional reforms for India under Sir John Simon

December, 1928	Bhagat Singh killed a senior British police officer in Lahore
March–April, 1930	Beginning of Civil Disobedience Movement with Gandhi’s salt march to the sea at Dandi to oppose British taxes of salt (Also known as Dandi March)
November, 1930	The First Round Table Conference was held in London
December, 1931	Second Round Table Conference was held
1931	On 5th March 1931 the Gandhi–Irwin Pact was signed.
1932	Poona Pact between Gandhi and Ambedkar
1935	Government of India Act was passed
1939	All congress ministries resigned
1942	Quit India Movement (August) – Gandhi launched his third major movement against British rule.
1942	Cripps Mission was attempted by British government headed by Sir Stafford Cripps
1943	The great Bengal Famine was witnessed, which hit the Bengal province of pre-partition India causing the death of millions of people of starvation, malnutrition and disease
August, 1947	India achieved its freedom from British rule.

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