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The British conquest of India commenced with the conquest of Bengal which was consummated after fighting two battles against the Nawabs of Bengal, viz the battle of Plassey and the battle of Buxar. At that time, the kingdom of Bengal included the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Wars and intrigues made the British masters over Bengal. The first conflict of English with Nawab of Bengal resulted in the battle of Plassey. The fight between English and French was a dress rehearsal. The edifications learnt there were profitably applied in Bengal. It was the most fertile and the richest of India's provinces. Its industries and commerce were well developed; the company and its auxiliaries had highly remuneratively lucrative trading intrigues in this province. Under a royal Farman by the Mughal emperor in 1717, the company secured valuable privileges and got the liberation to import and export their goods in Bengal without paying taxes the right to issue dastaks for the kineticism of such goods. The Mughal emperor Farrukhsiyar had sanctioned the English to trade in Bengal without any payment of tax. The company officials sold the dastaks to Indian merchants. And the practice of imposing tax on Indian goods. This contravened the interest of the Nawab, Siraj ud daula. When the nawab endeavored to check this malpractice and penalize the guilty Indian merchants, the English provided aegis to them. This was the primary cause of the conflict between the nawab and the English. The British commenced fortification of Fort William against the French. The nawab did not relish it and authoritatively mandated the English fill up the ditch. The company is reluctant to comply. And the nawab decided to penalize the English. He assaulted an English factory at Kazimbasar and captured it. On June 16, 1756, he assailed Calcutta. The nawab captured Fort William and appointed Malikchand as its administrator. When the nawab went back the English re-appeared in Calcutta. In December 1756, an English army arrived at Calcutta from Madras under the commandship of Clive and Admiral Watson and reconquered Calcutta. They captured Calcutta on January 2, 1757 and eradicated the city of Hugli. After a minor engagement the treaty of Alinagar was signed. English got some concessions. The English enheartened all those who were against the nawab and became a party to a conspiracy against the nawab. It was decided that after the dethronement of Sirajuddaula, Mir Jafar would be placed on the throne. When everything was settled, the English placed infeasible demands for the nawab. When the nawab reluctant to accept them, a battle became inevitably ineluctable. The battle took place in Plassey on June 23, 1757. It was a battle only in denomination. A major part of the nawab's army, led by Mir Jafar and Rai durlabh took no part in the battle because of their conspiracy with the English. The nawab was coerced to flee. But he was captured and dispatched to Murshidabd where he was killed by Miran, son of Mir Jafar. Mir Jafar reached Murshidabad on June 24 and Clive declared him the nawab of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. The battle of Plassey was not an astronomically immense event, but its results were very paramount; therefore, this war is counted among the decisive wars of India. It ended Sirajuddaula's rule in Bengal. The British made Mir Jafar ,their favourite, the nawab of Bengal.the political result of the battle proved to be very farsighted. It gave an incipient turn to the history of India. It not only elongated the influence of the English in India but additionally founded the British Imperium in India. The battle of Plassy turned the English merchants to be the rulers. They become the makers of nawabs in Bengal. This battle disclosed the impotency of the Indians above the British. The battle of Plassey was not an astronomically immense event, but its results were very paramount; therefore, this war is counted among the decisive wars of India. It ended Sirajuddaula's rule in Bengal. The British made Mir Jafar ,their favourite, the nawab of Bengal.the political result of the battle proved

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The battle of Buxar was fought in 1764. The incumbent nawab sanctioned free trade in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. The company was given zamindari rights and immensely colossal mazuma as an emolument. The plassey laid the substratum stone for the later British Imperium in India. Though Mir Jafar became the nawab of Bengal, the authentic power was within the hands of the company. Mir Jafar was a puppet in the hands of the company. The English utilised the resources of Bengal to enhance their financial and political interest in Bengal. They were able to make a brisk trade though it designated consummate draining away of the resources of Bengal. Company appointed Robert Clive as its governor of Bengal. He inductively authorized more and more mazuma from Mir Jafar which could not be met by him. Consequently he was superseded by Mir Kasim as the nawab of Bengal by the English. He was a jagir to the company. He was some sort of able ruler and imposed certain incipient taxes. He endeavored to modernise his army and not to be a puppet in the hands of the English. Company couldn't abide by it and that resulted in its conflict with the nawab. There were many other factors for the conflict between them, ultimately resulting in the battle of Buxar. Mir Kasim endeavored to rule independently without heedfully aurally perceiving the ordinary dictations of Clive. According to the subsisting law, tax was accumulated only from the Indian traders. He cancelled trade tax plenarily in internal trade. This incipient reform considering Indians and English traders was not accepted. The company and Clive asked the nawab to withdraw it, but the replication was negative. Then they commenced military campaigns against the nawab. The nawab's army was subjugated and coerced him to elude Oudh. They formed a coalition with Shuja ud-daula, the ruler of Oudh, to fight against the British. Shah Alam II, the Mughal ruler additionally joined with them. They composed an amalgamated army and marched against the English. The English army under colonel Hector Munroe lamentably defeated them at Buxar, on October 23, 1764. Shah Alam surrendered, Mirkasim fled to Delhi. The English now became undisputed masters over Bengal province. The battle of plassey was won over by the English more by their diplomatic adeptness than by vigor of their arms, but the battle of Buxar was victoriously triumphed by them their vigor and adeptness in their arms. Clive returned to Bengal in 1765 as the governor of the East India Company. The emperor granted the diwani-the rights of amassing the revenue from Bengal province and dispensation of civil equity. The prime victim, Shah Alam II, signed the Treaty of Allahabad that secured Diwani Rights for the Company to amass and manage the revenues of virtually 100,000,000 acres (400,000 km²) of authentic estate, which form components of the modern states of West Bengal, Odisha, Bihar, Jharkhand, and Uttar Pradesh, as es. Mir Qasim, who was not a general, was quietly superseded. He received a minute quota of the total land revenue, initially fine tuned at 2 million rupees. The Treaty of Allahabad heralded the establishment of the rule of the East India

Company in one-eighth of India felicitous with a single stroke. The battles of Plassey and Buxar secured a perpetual foothold for the British East India Company in the affluent province of Bengal, and secured its political ascendancy in the entire region. Buxar should be visually perceived in conjunction with the third battle of Panipat in January 1761 in terms of its impact on consolidating British presence in north-east India. By the treaty of 1752, the Marathas had essentially surmounted administration of all the surahs of the Mughal imperium, and had established their right to amass Chauth across these subahs. In reciprocation, they would bulwark the north-west frontier of the Mughal imperium from Afghan incursion. This resulted in nine years of Maratha-Afghan struggle to establish control over the imperium, and the subah of Punjab, which was claimed by both. However, due to the Marathas' defeat at the third battle of Panipat, and their subsequent ten-year hiatus from North Indian affairs, the British were able to establish a foothold in North Indian affairs. Buxar was a paramount step in that direction. Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula was renovated to Oudh, with a subsidiary force and ensure of defence, the emperor Shah Alam II solaced with Allahabad and an encomium and the frontier drawn at the boundary of Bihar. For Bengal itself the Company took a decisive step. In reciprocation for recuperating Shah Alam II to Allahabad, the Company got from him the imperial grant of the diwani or revenue ascendancy in Bengal and Bihar. This had hitherto been relished by the nawab of Bengal. Thus now there was a double regime, the nawab retaining judicial and police functions but the Company exercising the revenue potency. The Company was acclimatised, as it were, into the Indian scene by becoming the Mughal revenue agent for Bengal and Bihar. There was as yet no cerebation of direct administration, and the revenue was amassed by a Company-appointed deputy-nawab, Muhammad Reza Khan. The nawab of Bengal, Mir Qasim But this arrangement made the British East India Company the virtual ruler of Bengal, since it already possessed decisive military puissance. All that was left to the Nawab was the control of the judicial administration. But he was later coerced to hand this over to the Company in 1793. Thus the company's control was virtually consummate. In spite of all this the East India Company was again on the verge of bankruptcy, which stirred the British to a fresh effort at reform. On the one hand Warren Hastings was appointed with a mandate for reform; on the other an appeal was made to the British state for an imprest. The result was the commencements of state control of the Company and the thirteen-year governorship of Warren Hastings. Hastings's first paramount work was that of an organiser. In the two and a moiety years before the Regulating Act came into force he inserted order into the whole Bengal administration. The Indian deputies who had accumulated the revenue on behalf of the Company were deposed and their places taken by a Board of Revenue in Calcutta and English collectors in the districts. This was the authentic beginning of British administration in India. It should be noted that when the Marathas conclusively did send a sizably voluminous force back into North India in 1771, they were able to persuade Shah Alam II to leave British aegis and enter Maratha aegis. They then established Maratha regency over Delhi, which they essentially held till their vanquishment in the Second Anglo-Maratha War of 1803. Carnatic War. Carnatic is the designation given by the Europeans to the Coromandel coast and its hinterland. The region was the scene of a long drawn contest between the French and English for virtually 20 years. It was there the English East India Company and the French East India Company had developed rivalry in India for colonial and commercial ascendancy protracted struggle. The decline of the Mughal Imperium wiped away any local ascendancy to the competition between these two powers. The contest led to the ultimate overthrow of the French power in India. There were three Carnatic wars between them in India. The quandaries aroused in Europe withal led to the war between them in India additionally. The first carnatic war was in the year 1746, but it commenced when part of the Austrian succession war broke out in Europe in connection with the succession of Maria Theresa to the throne of Austria. Frederick the Great of Prussia reluctant to accept the succession of Maria Theresa. On this issue the French fortified Austria and the British fortified Prussia. This led to the clash between the French and the British companies at carnatic. At that time Dupleix was the chief official of the French company at Pondicherry. The French opened hostilities by sacking fort St. George and expelling all Englishmen. The Nawab of carnatic Anwaruddin, sent an army but was subjugated by the French in the battle of Adyar with Kennedy was the battle of St. Thomas, near

Madras. Later the French forced the English to surrender at fort St.David, but failed. The English counter assailed to capture Pondicherry but were subjugated by stiff resistance from French forces. The carnatic war ended with the treaty of Aix la chappelle in 1748. According to this treaty the English got back madras and the French got Breton island and Louisberg the boundaries of the companies' unchanged. The second carnatic war, Dupleix, decided to loan his army and resources to local princes in their quarrels in reciprocation for monetary, commercial or territorial favours. The French along with Chand Sahib, the son in law of Dost Ali, the nawab of Arcot, availed Mussaffar Jung to claim the throne by subjugating Anwar uddin. Later, the English entered into an accident with Mussaffar Jung's uncle, Nasir jung and availed him to subjugate Mussaffar Jung and Chanda Sahib in 1750. Chand Sahib was killed and vanquished and the entire carnatic fell into the hands of the English. In this second battle the French and the British, the French were subjugated. Dupleix was sent back to France in 1754. The incipient French governor Godeheu pacified the war and concluded the treaty of Pondicherry with the English. By this treaty both parties concurred not to interfere in the quarrels of native princesses and reverence each other's possession. The English proved their preponderance by installing Muhammed Ali as the nawab of carnatic. The short tranquility between the English and the French ended with the outbreak of the Seven Years war in Europe in 1756. In India the war commenced in Bengal. The French deputed Count de Lally as the governor and commander in chief of the army to conduct the war. The English under Clive and Watson assailed the French at Chandernagore and captured in 1757. Lally captured Fort St.David in 1758 but in the meanwhile an English army under sir Eyre Coote subjugated him at Wandiwash in January 22, 1760. Lally returned to France where he was confined and executed. The British captured Pondicherry in 1761. The third carnatic battle of carnatic history proved to be decisive for survival between the English and French in India. It was ended with the treaty of Paris in 1763 renovated the French factories in India, the French political influence consummately vanished after the war. Thereafter the French, like their Portuguese and Dutch counterparts in India, confined themselves to country trade. Peshwa Balajibaji Rao died just after the subjugation of the Marathas in the third battle of Panipat in 1761. He succeeded his son, Madhav rao but the death of Madhav rao in 1772 could be considered as the background for the first Maratha war. He was prospered by his son Narayan rao; he was killed by his uncle Raghunath Rao, who declared himself as the Peshwa. Maratha nobles and chieftains under the leadership of Nana phadnis opposed him. He sought avail from English, opened negotiations with them both at Calcutta and Bombay. They acceded to avail him and signed the treaty of Surat at Bombay in 1775. As per the treaty the English would fortify him with 2500 soldiers at his own expense. Salsette, Bassein and adjacent islands would be ceded to the British. Colonel Keating subjugated an army of the Marathas in May 1775. This commenced the first Maratha war against the English. The treaty of Purandar in 1776 was signed between them. Belligerence was there and Hastings despatched a force to assail in 1778 but the English army was subjugated and the commander was coerced to sign the convention of Wadgaon. It acceded that it would return all those territories which they had captured since 1773. Warren Hastings, sent a vigorous army under Goddard from Bengal and captured Bassein in 1780. He dispatched another force under Colonel Popham who captured the fort of Gwalior on August 3, 1780 and subjugated Sindhia at spirit on February 16, 1780. These successes preserved the English prestige. The treaty of Salbai was on May 17, 1782. The internal conflict among the Marathas intensified postmortem of Nana Phadnavis in 1800 and mutual rivalries among the chiefs additionally gave an opportunity to the Britishers to interfere in the Maratha affairs. Lord Wellesley became governor general of India in 1798 and he was resolute to make the company paramount power in India. Jaswant Rao vanquished Peshwa Baji Rao in a battle near Poona on October 25, 1802. The Peshwa fled towards Bassein where Holker was in hold. Feeling desperate, the peshwa sought the coalition of the English and signed the treaty of Bassein on December 31, 1802. Baji rao accepted the subsidiary coalition imposed by Lord Wellesley. The second Anglo-Marathwar commenced in the year 1803 with the coalesced forces of the Maratha chieftains. The English forces under Arthur Wellesley subjugated them, the assailed apathetic fronts. Consequently many components of the Maratha kingdom came in the hands of the company rule and concluded treaties with Holkars, Sindhias and Bhosales.

They gave an earnest blow to the Maratha puissance. The Marathas were plenarily subjugated and ravaged by the British in the several wars during 1817-1818(third anglo-maratha war). It commenced with the assailment of Baji Rao on the British residency at Kirk, but he surrendered in June 1818. The British abolished the position of Peshwa and Marathas were circumscribed to the minuscule kingdom of Sathara. All chiefs were subjugated and their territories were reduced in size, subsidiary forces were kept within their territories. Thus, the Maratha power ended sempiternally. The state of Mysore emerged as a consequential power under the leadership of Hyder Ali. He became the ruler of Mysore in 1761. It was a potent state in the Deccan region. The wars between Karnataka and Hyderabad, the conflicts between the French and the English in the south and the vanquishment of the Marathas availed him in elongating and consolidating the territory of Mysore. He prospered in making Mysore a vigorous state in the south and himself its master. This incited the jealousy of the Marathas and Nizam of Hyderabad. With facile prosperity in Bengal, the English concluded a treaty with Nizam Ali of Hyderabad and committed the company to avail the Nizam with troops in his war against Hyder Ali. In 1767, the Nizam, the Marathas and the English formed a coalition against Hyder. The war commenced when the Marathas assailed Mysore in 1766. He purchased placidity with the Marathas and Nizam launched an unsuccessful attack on Mysore with the avail of English. In March 1769, he assailed Madras and coerced the English to sign a treaty on April 4, 1769. The terms of the treaty ended the first Anglo-Mysore war. In 1779, the English captured the French possessions at Mahi which were under the aegis of Hyder Ali. This infuriated him and decided to take revenge on the English. He joined all hands with the Nizam and the Marathas and all the three concurred to fight against the English. In 1780, he entered the plains of Karnataka with more than 83000 soldiers and 100 cannons. The English dispatched one force under Colonel Baillie and another one under Munroe. He vanquished Baillie and captured Arcot. But in September 1781, Sir Eyre Coote subjugated him at Sholinghur and captured Nagapattinam in November. He died of cancer. Tipu perpetuated fighting against the English even after the death of his father. In 1784, the treaty of Mangalore was signed between Tipu and the English. Both acceded to return each other's surmounted territories and additionally the prisoners of war. The conflict between the English and Mysore again commenced when Cornwallis came to India. Tipu was a determined enemy of the English. He was endeavoring to seek coalitions of peregrine powers against the English and for that purpose he had sent his ambassadors to France and Turkey. Cornwallis, therefore, was convinced of the desideratum of subduing Tipu and described the war against him as a 'cruel necessity'. Tipu had certain grievances against the Raja of Travancore who was a dependently of the English. He assailed his kingdom in December 1789. Cornwallis entered negotiations both with the Marathas and the Nizam in July 1790, both acceded to avail. The English declared war against him and the assault of the English under General Meadows failed. So Cornwallis himself took the command of the army. He proceeded towards Bangalore and was captured in March 1791. Cornwallis captured all the hill forts which obstructed his advance towards Seringapatnam and reached near its outer wall. Tipu opened negotiations with the English, and optically discerning no option, signed the treaty of Srirangapatna in March 1792. The treaty resulted in the surrender of approximately a moiety of the Mysorean territory to the victorious allies. He had additionally to pay an astronomically immense war indemnity and his two sons were taken as hostages. He did not forget his vanquishment and mortification at the hands of English in the third Mysore war. He prepared himself to instaurate the lost power and prestige. He further fortified his capital and endeavored to make coalition with Marathas and the Nizam but the English very expeditious to conclude coalition with these native states. Thus Arthur Wellesley declared war against Tipu. In 1799, they assailed him from north and south-western components of Mysore. The English besieged Srirangapatna and captured it in May 1799. Tipu died fighting and his son surrendered. The fourth Mysore war ravaged the state of Mysore and prospered or consummated the subjugation of Mysore. It was Wellesley who efficaciously reverted the policy of "non intervention" followed by his predecessors. He made the Nawab and Nizams subsidiary allies by signing virtually 100 such treaties. Initially Wellesley compelled the cordial rulers to accept this coalition. The policy of subsidiary coalition was first utilized by Wellesley in dealing with the Nizam of Hyderabad. Wellesley neutralized the

Nizam by getting him to sign the Subsidiary coalition to supersede his French detachments. He additionally proscribed Nizam to correspond with the Marathas without British consent. As the Nawab was a French protégé, he had appointed many Frenchmen at his court, but after this treaty, he was coerced to dismiss the French employees and maintained six expensive British Battalions. Marathas in Deccan had not entered into any kind of treaty, but still they were neutralized by Wellesley by a promise of share in the spoils of Tipu. After that only Wellesley authoritatively mandated submission of Tipu and followed an incursion. In summary, the system of Subsidiary Coalition could be any of the following: 1. The company lent its army in lieu of the Cash 2. Company kept the armies near the border of the Protectorate and accumulated mazuma. 3. Company kept the army inside the border for aegis and amassed mazuma. 4. Company kept its army inside the border of the protected state and got some territories in return. The last among the above given 4 types was perilous. It was Nawab of Oudh that entered into this kind of arrangement in 1801 (Treaty of Lucknow) and ceded a moiety of Awadh to the British East India Company and withal acceded to disband his troops in favor of a hugely expensive, British-run army. After this, the British were able to utilize Oudh's prodigious treasuries, perpetually digging into them for loans at reduced rates. They also got revenues from running Oudh's armed forces. Last, but not least, the subsidiary coalition made Oudh a "buffer state", which gave strategic advantage to the British. The Doctrine of Lapse was an annexation policy purportedly devised by Lord Dalhousie, who was the Governor General for the East India Company in India between 1848 and 1856. According to the Doctrine, any princely state or territory under the direct influence of the British East India Company as a vassal state under the British Subsidiary System, would automatically be annexed if the ruler was either "manifestly maladroit or died without a direct heir". The latter supplanted the long-established right of an Indian sovereign without an heir to cull a successor. In integration, the British decided whether potential rulers were competent enough. The doctrine and its application were widely regarded by Indians as illegitimate. At the time of its adoption, the Company had absolute, imperial administrative jurisdiction over many regions spread over the subcontinent. The company surmounted the princely states of Satara (1848), Jaipur and Sambalpur (1849), Nagpur and Jhansi (1854) and Awadh(Oudh)(1856) and Udaipur utilizing this doctrine. The Company integrated about four million pounds sterling to its annual revenue by utilization of this doctrine. The British surmounted Awadh in 1856 with the reason that the ruler was not ruling felicitously. This led to a revolution. With the incrementing power of the East India Company, discontent simmered amongst many sections of Indian society and the largely indigenous armed forces; these rallied abate the deposed dynasties during the Indian revolt of 1857 additionally recognized as the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857 . Following the revolt, in 1858, the incipient British Viceroy of India, whose rule superseded that of the British East India Company, renounced the doctrine. The princely state of Kittur was surmounted by the East India Company in 1824 by imposing a 'Doctrine Of Lapse'. So it is debatable whether it was authentically devised by Lord Dalhousie in 1848, though he controvertibly did make it official by putting it to paper-and- ink. Dalhousie's annexations and the doctrine of lapse had caused suspicion and uneasiness in the mind of virtually all ruling princes in India. The battle of Plassey stands as a paramount landmark in the economic history of India. The peregrine conquest of country commenced the process which culminated in the transformation of India's economy in to a colonial economy. In its first phase, the impact of peregrine rule on India's trade and industry was both bellicose and destructive. The trade and industry of the country , more particularly that of Bengal, received an astringent jolt as a result of the policies of the East India Company and corrupt practices of its officials . This was of course, ephemeral phase. By the cessation of the 18 century, British rule had been established in astronomically immense components of the country and had come to stay. Britain, therefore, came to look upon India as her colony which had to be developed in the imperial interest. The overriding constraint on the process of development was to be the interest of the British manufacturers. India was to be turned in to a market for British goods and exporter of raw materials and food stuffs to feed Britain's industries and her people. This policy thwarted economic magnification and resulted in economic stagnation. The cottage and minuscule scale industries which were the pride of the country in the 17th and the first a moiety of the country languished as a result of peregrine competition and

optate of fortification from the regime. Incipient sizably voluminous scale industries were tardy to come but even when they commenced to be established in the second a moiety of the 19 century, far from inspiritment, the government's posture towards them was one of open belligerence. The First World War engendered far-reaching vicissitudes in the world's economy and circumstances coerced Britain to transmute her industrial and commercial policies in India. Fiscal autonomy to India was conceded by the secretary of state in 1919 and the principle of discriminating aegis was accepted in 1923. This availed the industrial magnification, and a number of incipient astronomically immense scale consumer goods industries, such as sugar, matches, cement and paper came to be established in the country under the impetus of auspice. But the great melancholy intervened meanwhile and obviated industrial magnification from being as rapid as it otherwise might have been expected. The result of British rule in India was the aborted magnification of her economy. The British rule additionally engendered consequential structural vicissitudes in the Indian economy. The incipient land laws gave an incipient concept of property and ownership in land which was alien to her. The principle of Joint stock in business units was for the first time introduced by the British. A coalesced currency system for the whole country, monetization of India's rural economy, supersession of commercial food crops in agriculture, a network of railways and telegraphs all over the country, a gargantuan increase in India's export trade and emergence of an incipient class structure were some of the more paramount contributions of the British rule in India's economy. During the first a moiety of the 19th century or even up to 1880 India's economy witnessed an outlandish phenomenon. While western countries were experiencing industrialization, India suffered a period of industrial decline. This process has been described as de-industrialization. The third phase of colonialism commenced from the 1860s, when British India became a component of the ever-expanding British Imperial, to be placed directly under the control and sovereignty of the British crown. This period was one of 'finance imperialism'; when some British capital was invested in the colony. This capital was organized through a closed network of British banks, export-import firms and managing agencies. Industrial development led to capital accumulation, which was concentrated in a minute number of banks and corporations. This capital was invested in the colonies to sustain the rapid inflow of raw materials to fuel further expansion of industrial engenderment. High tariff restrictions in other developing capitalist countries led to a contraction of markets for British manufactured goods. And the desire for ponderous imports of agricultural products into Britain was making her position vulnerable in her trade with other countries. India proved crucial in solving the quandary of Britain's deficits. Britain's control over India ascertained that there would always be a captive market for Lancashire textiles. Moreover, India's export surplus in raw material with countries other than Britain, counter- balanced her deficits elsewhere. While on the one hand indigenous handicrafts faced impoverishment, on the other hand, there were few endeavors at developing modern industries in the colony. Albeit the colonial regime verbalized about 'free trade', indigenous enterprise faced many obstructions perpetuated by the state's discriminatory policies. British capital was initially invested in railways, jute industry, tea plantations and mining. The Indian mazuma market was dominated by European banking houses. While British entrepreneurs had facile access to capital made available by this banking network, Indian traders had to depend on family or caste organizations for their capital needs. British banking houses and British trading intrigues were well organized through Chambers of Commerce and Managing Agencies and could influence the colonial state, to punctiliously gain say Indian entrepreneurs access to capital. It was during the First World War that some Marwari businessmen from Calcutta, like G.D. Birla and Swarupchand Hukumchand invested in the jute industry. Gradually their control commenced expanding into other areas like coal mines, sugar mills and paper industry, and they could even buy up some European companies. The greatest prosperity of Indian capital was visually perceived in the cotton industry in western India, which capitalized on high demands during the war years (1914-18) to consolidate its successes, and eventually was in competition with Lancashire. Certain traditional trading communities like Gujarati Baniyas, Parsis, Bohras and Bhatias became paramount in this sector. The colonial regime provided some aegis to the sugar and cotton industries, in the face of falling prices in the agricultural sector. Low prices coerced capital from land into the

manufacturing sector. Indians ventured into the field of indemnification and banking. Again, during the Second World War (1939–45), as peregrine economic influence declined, Indian entrepreneurs managed to magnify profits. Invigorated by its constrained prosperity, the Indian capitalist class reinforced their links with the nationalist kineticism. They anon commenced inductively authorizing the establishment of cumbersomely hefty industries under state ownership and commenced organizing themselves to resist the ingress of peregrine capital. But, to place these markers of prosperity in perspective, on an overall level, these developments remained confined to the domestic market and indigenous capital still had a long battle ahead, against the structural impotence of a colonial economy. The potential for magnification remained dejected given the massive penuriousness of the Indian people. Early Indian nationalists like Dadabhai Naoroji, M.G. Ranade, and R.C.Dutt had expected Britain to undertake capitalist industrialization in India but were deeply disillusioned with the results of colonial industrial policies. Consequently, they formulated a vigorous economic critique of colonialism in the tardy nineteenth century. Dadabhai Naoroji put forward the drain of wealth theory. Impression in India, according to them, was the result of a steady drain of Indian wealth into Britain—a result of British colonial policy. This drain occurred through the interest that India paid for peregrine debts of the East India Company, military expenditure, ensured returns on peregrine investment in railways and other infrastructure, importing all stationery from England, 'home charges' paid for the Secretary of State in Britain and salaries, pensions and training costs of military and civilian staff employed by the British state to rule India. Even if this drain was a minuscule fraction of the value of India's total exports, if invested within the country it could have engendered a surplus to build a capitalist economy. The main encumbrance of providing mazuma for the trade and profits of the company, the cost of administration, and the wars of British expansion in India had to be borne by the Indian peasant or ryot. In fact, the British could not have surmounted such a prodigious country as India if they had not taxed him heavily. The Indian state had since times immemorial taken a component of the agricultural engenders as land revenue. It had done so either directly through its co adjutants or indirectly through inter-me diaries, such as zamindars, revenue farmers, etc., who accumulated the land revenue from the cultivator and kept a component of it as their commission. These intermediaries were primarily collectors of land revenue, albeit they did sometimes own some land in the area from which they accumulated revenue. After the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa were granted to the East India Company in 1765, the maximization of revenue from the colony became the primary objective of the British administration. Agricultural taxation was the main source of income for the company, which had to pay dividends to its investors in Britain. Therefore, the British administration endeavored out sundry land revenue experiments to this aim. These experiments additionally partly determined the relationship that the colonial state would apportion with the people it governed. In 1765, the East India Company acquired the Diwani, or the control over the revenues, of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa. Initially, it endeavored to perpetuate the old system of revenue amassment though it incremented the amount to be accumulated from Rs. 14,290,000 in 1772 and Rs. 8,180,000 in 1764 to Rs.23, 400,000 in 1771. In 1773 it decided to manage the land revenue directly. Warren Hastings auctioned the right to accumulate revenue to the highest bidders. But his experiment did not prosper. Though the amount of land revenue was pushed high by zamindars and other speculators bidding against each other, the genuine accumulation varied from year to year and seldom came up to officials' prospects. This introduced instability in the Company's revenues at a time when the company was hard-pressed for mazuma. Moreover, neither the ryot nor the zamindar would do anything to amend cultivation when they did not know what the next year's assessment would be or who would be the next year's revenue collector. It was at this stage that the concept first emerged of fine-tuning the land revenue at a perpetual amount. Determinately after perpetuated discussion and debate, the perpetual settlement was introduced in Bengal and Bihar in 1793 by Lord Cornwallis. The first feature of this system was the zamindars and revenue collectors were converted into so many landlords. They were not only to act as agents of the regime in amassing land revenue from the ryot but additionally to become the owners of the entire land in their zamindar. Their right of ownership was made hereditary and transferable. The second feature is that the zamindars were to give 10/11 of the

rental they derived from the peasantry to the state, keeping only 1/11 for them. But the sums to be paid by them as land revenue was fine-tuned in perpetuity. The state would not make any further demand upon him. Concurrently, the zamindar had to pay his revenue rigidly on the due date even if the crop had failed for some reason; otherwise, his lands were to be sold. It was later generally admitted by officials and non-officials that in 1793 the zamindars of Bengal and Bihar did not relish proprietary rights over most of the land. The landlord in Britain was the owner of land not only in cognition to the tenant but within cognition to the state. But in Bengal, while the zamindars were the landlord over the tenant, he was further subordinated to the state. The sempiternal settlement ensured the stability of income. The incipiently engendered property of the zamindars acted as a security of this. Moreover, the sempiternal settlement enabled the company to maximize its income as land revenue was now fine-tuned higher than it had ever been in the past. Amassment of revenue through a minuscule number of zamindars seemed to be much simpler and more frugal than the process of dealing with lakhs of cultivators. The sempiternal settlement was expected to increase agricultural engendered. Since the land revenue would not be incremented in the future even if the zamindar's income went up, the latter would be inspired to elongate and ameliorate agricultural productivity. Failure of Warren Hastings experiment of auctioning the right to amass revenue to the highest bidder; exordium of Perpetual settlement by Cornwallis in 1793 in Bengal and Bihar with the avail of Sir John Shore Cornwallis name ranks pre-eminent because of the galvanizing reforms introduced by him inland revenue which came to be kenned as the sempiternal settlement. The erstwhile arrangement was that the zamindar was given a right to amass revenue on an ad interim or periodic substructure. Since they had no perpetual right over the land; they would amass as much as they could. This entailed oppression and coercion upon the cultivators who naturally became nonchalant to cultivation and as a result, the output was diminutive. Cornwallis emanated from the landed aristocracy and so he could well diagnose the malady. The remedy prescribed by him was the Sempiternal settlement in 1793 with zamindars. The zamindars were required to pay eighty-nine percent of the revenue and retain eleven percent of the revenue. The system did not arise without thorns. It had both advantages and disadvantages. Since the zamindars were entrusted with the amassment of revenue, the officers of the company were now relieved of the encumbrance of revenue settlement and they could be engaged in the more paramount administrative and judicial functions of the company. It ameliorated the status of the zamindars that relished a secure position in the sense that they could not be deprived of their position so long as they paid revenue to the company. As a result, they could give more interest and attention to their land, since they got the position of the owner of the land. The system abstracted the erstwhile practice of obnubilating the revenues and resultant evasion of the revenue. The result was that the revenue of the company increased. It certainly contributed to developing the agricultural wealth of Bengal to an extent not found in any other Indian province. It preserved Bengal from the incrementing exactions of periodical settlements that have been one of the causes of the impecuniosity of the other provinces as compared to Bengal. Owing to this sempiternal settlement in Bengal we never had the painful essentiality of special measures like, for instance, the Bombay Agricultural Mitigation Act. The net result was that Bengal gained material prosperity out of the sempiternal settlement. Demerits of the Permanent settlement The earnest imperfection with the sempiternal settlement was that it did not yield the extra revenue from the land, though the value of the land had increased or more areas were brought under cultivation. Thus the system remained static from its inception in 1793 to the day of its abolition in 1954. The zamindars did not take as much interest in the land as they were expected to do so. So the province of Bengal as a whole suffered for the negligence of the zamindars that did not live in the land but the town and lived in luxury and debauchery. The perpetual settlement was propitious for the zamindars and the company but not for the peasants. The zamindars grew in potency, position, and wealth at the cost of the cultivators and to a more preponderant extent of the state. A solemn imperfection of the perpetual settlement was confining industries in the hands of the affluent and the trade in the hands of the lower castes in the Hindu society. The sempiternal zamindari settlement was later elongated to Orissa, the Northern Districts of Madras, and the District of Varanasi. In components of Central India and Awadh, the British introduced an interim zamindari

settlement under which the zamindars were made owners of land but the revenue they had to pay was revised periodically.