

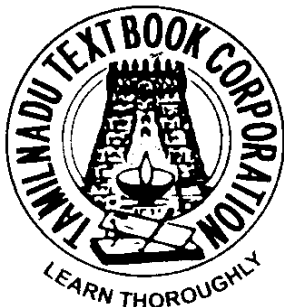
HISTORY

Higher Secondary - First Year

Prepared as per recommendation of the
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prepared according to the Syllabus published in 2003-04.

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Untouchability is a sin
Untouchability is a crime
Untouchability is inhuman



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FOREWORD

Academics, parents and the educational media have represented to the Government of Tamil Nadu, to reform the Plus one and Plus two text books, which were introduced in the academic year 2005-06. Our beloved Chief Minister, who has always been evincing keen interest in educational development, immediately constituted a “Text Book Development Committee” under the Chairmanship of the Vice-Chairman, State Planning Commission, Government of Tamil Nadu.

The Text Book Development Committee solicited opinion from lecturers and professors from Higher Secondary Schools, Colleges and Universities, Chairpersons and authors of text books. After perusing the opinions, the Text Book Development Committee, decided not to change the syllabi, but recommended suitable changes in the text books.

In particular, it was proposed to rewrite the History text book, and accepting this proposal, this text book is rewritten by experienced and efficient teachers.

We are pleased to place on record our sincere gratitude to our beloved Chief Minister. Our thanks are due to Hon’ble Minister for School Education, Secretary and Director, Department of School Education, Government of Tamil Nadu for their valuable support and suggestions.

We thank, lecturers and Professors from Higher Secondary Schools, Colleges and Universities, Chairpersons and authors of text books, non-teaching staff of education department and State Planning Commission for their help at various stages in this endeavor.

We wish the students to learn and perform well in the examinations.

Prof. M. Naganathan
Chairman
Text Book Development Committee
Government of Tamil Nadu

PREFACE

In the curriculum of schools, the subject history forms part of the Social Science up to Tenth Standard. At that level the main trends and developments in the history of India have been introduced to the pupils. When they reach the Higher Secondary stage, a systematic study of history is required in order to understand the cultural heritage of India, to inherit secular values and to develop a positive outlook on the future.

Therefore, this book intends to provide the political, social, economic and cultural aspects of Indian history. It is written as per the syllabus prescribed for Standard XI. It covers both ancient and medieval India up to the coming of the Europeans.

While providing historical facts, much care has been taken and standard historical works written by eminent historians have been consulted. Latest historical information has also been included in the lessons.

In the process of learning, the pupils will also be benefited by the maps and figures, which illustrate the political geography and cultural greatness of our country.

The model questions provided at the end of each chapter are based on the Public Examination Question Paper pattern. Questions on the same model will be asked in the examination and therefore, the pupils must read the entire text to answer such questions.

I am thankful to the members of the committee for their cooperation in bringing out this book.

C. THIRUVENKADAM

Chairperson
XI History

STANDARD XI - HISTORY

SYLLABUS

Periods

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LESSON 1

INDIA- GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES AND THEIR IMPACT ON HISTORY

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The geographical features of India.*
- 2. The Himalayan Mountains and their impact on Indian history.*
- 3. The Gangetic plains and their role in Indian history.*
- 4. The Southern Peninsula and its effects on South Indian history.*
- 5. India's unity in diversity*

It is generally said that history has two eyes – one is chronology and the other is geography. In other words time and space are significant factors in determining the historical process. In particular, a country's geography largely determines its historical events. The history of India is also influenced by its geography. Hence, the study of Indian geographical features contributes to the better understanding of its history.

The Indian subcontinent is a well-defined geographical unit. It may be divided into three major regions: the Himalayan Mountains, the Indo-Gangetic Plains and the Southern Peninsula. There are five countries in the subcontinent – India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Bhutan. India is the largest among them and it comprises twenty-eight states and six Union Territories. According to the 2001 Census, the population of India is over one hundred crores.

The Himalayan Mountains

The Himalayan Mountains are situated on the north of India. Starting from the Pamir in the extreme northwest of India, the mighty Himalayan range extends towards northeast. It has a length of nearly 2560 kilometres with an average breadth of 240 to 320 kilometres. The highest peak of the Himalayas is known as Mount Everest with its height being 8869 metres. It acts as a natural wall and protects the country against the cold arctic winds blowing from Siberia through Central Asia. This keeps the climate of northern India fairly warm throughout the year. The Himalayan region is mostly inhospitable in winter and generally covered with snow.

It was considered for a long time that the Himalayas stood as a natural barrier to protect India against invasions. But, the passes in the northwest mountains such as the Khyber, Bolan, Kurram and Gomal provided easy routes between India and Central Asia. These passes are situated in the Hindukush, Sulaiman and Kirthar ranges. From prehistoric times, there was a continuous flow of traffic through these passes. Many people came to India through these passes as invaders and immigrants. The Indo-Aryans, the Indo-Greeks, Parthians, Sakas, Kushanas, Hunas and Turks entered India through these passes. The Swat valley in this region formed another important route. Alexander of Macedon came to India through this route. Apart from invading armies, missionaries and merchants came to India using these routes. Therefore, these passes in the northwest mountains had facilitated trade as well as cultural contacts between India and the Central Asia.

In the north of Kashmir is Karakoram Range. The second highest peak in the world, Mount Godwin Austen is situated here. This part of the Himalayas and its passes are high and snow-covered in the winter. The Karakoram highway via Gilgit is connected to Central Asia but there was little communication through this route.

The valley of Kashmir is surrounded by high mountains. However, it could be reached through several passes. The Kashmir valley remains unique for its tradition and culture. Nepal is also a small valley under the foot of the Himalayas and it is accessible from Gangetic plains through a number of passes.

In the east, the Himalayas extend up to Assam. The important mountains in this region are Pat Koi, Nagai and Lushai ranges. These hills are covered with thick forests due to heavy rains and mostly remain inhospitable. The mountains of northeast India is difficult to cross and many parts of this region had remained in relative isolation.

The Indo-Gangetic Plain

The Indo-Gangetic plain is irrigated by three important rivers, the **Ganges, Indus and Brahmaputra**. This vast plain is most fertile and productive because of the alluvial soil brought by the streams of the rivers and its tributaries.

The Indus river rises beyond the Himalayas and its major tributaries are the **Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Sutlej and Beas**. The Punjab plains are benefited by the Indus river system. The literal meaning of the term 'Punjab' is the **land of five rivers**. **Sind** is situated at the lower valley of the Indus. The Indus plain is known for its fertile soil.

The **Thar Desert and Aravalli hills** are situated in between the Indus and Gangetic plains. **Mount Abu is the highest point** (5650 ft.) in the Aravalli hills. The Ganges river rises in the Himalayas, flows south



Thar Desert

and then towards the east. The river Yamuna flows almost parallel to the Ganges and then joins it. The area between these two rivers is called **doab** – meaning the land between two rivers. The important tributaries of the Ganges are the Gomati, Sarayu, Ghagra and Gandak.

In the east of India, the Ganges plain merges into the plains of Brahmaputra. The river Brahmaputra rises beyond the Himalayas, flows across Tibet and then continues through the plains of northeast India. In the plains, it is a vast but a slow-moving river forming several islands.

The Indo-Gangetic plain has contributed to the rise of urban centres, particularly on the river banks or at the confluence of rivers. The Harappan culture flourished in the Indus valley. The Vedic culture prospered in the western Gangetic plain. Banares, Allahabad, Agra, Delhi and Pataliputra are some of the important cities of the Gangetic plain. The city of Pataliputra was situated at the confluence of Son river with the Ganges. In the ancient period Pataliputra had remained the capital for the Mauryas, Sungas, Guptas and other kingdoms.

The most important city on the western side of the Gangetic plain is Delhi. Most of the decisive battles of Indian history such as the Kurukshetra, Tarain and Panipat were fought near Delhi. Also, this plain had always been a source of temptation and attraction for the foreign invaders due to its fertility and productive wealth. Important powers fought for the possession of these plains and valleys. Especially the Ganga-Yamuna *doab* proved to be the most coveted and contested area.

The rivers in this region served as arteries of commerce and communication. In ancient times it was difficult to make roads, and so men and material were moved by boat. The importance of rivers for communication continued till the days of the East India Company.

The Southern Peninsula

The Vindhya and Satpura mountains along with Narmada and the Tapti rivers form the great dividing line between northern and southern India. The plateau to the south of the Vindhya Mountains is known as the Deccan plateau. It consists of volcanic rock, which is different from the northern mountains. As these rocks are easier

to cut into, we find a number of rock-cut monasteries and temples in the Deccan.

The Deccan plateau is flanked by the Eastern Ghats and Western Ghats. The **Coramandal Coast** stands between the Eastern Ghats and the Bay of Bengal. The Western Ghats runs along the Arabian sea and the lands between these are known as **Konkan up to Goa** and beyond that as **Kanara**. The southernmost part is known as **Malabar Coast**. The passes in the Western Ghats like Junnar, Kanheri and Karle linked the trade routes to the western ports. The Deccan plateau acted as a bridge between the north and south India. However, the dense forests in the Vindhya Mountains makes this region isolated from the north. The language and culture in the southern peninsula are preserved in tact for a long time due to this geographical isolation.

In the southern end remains the famous Palghat Pass. It is the passage across the Ghats from the Kaveri valley to the Malabar Coast. The **Palghat Pass** was an important trade route for the Indo-Roman trade in the ancient times. **The Anaimudi is the highest peak in the southern peninsula. Doddapetta** is another highest peak in the **Western Ghats**. The Eastern Ghats are not very high and have several openings caused by the eastward flow of the rivers into the Bay of Bengal. The port cities of Arikamedu, Mamallapuram and Kaveripattanam were situated on the Coramandal coast.

The major rivers of the southern peninsula are almost running parallel. **Mahanadhi is at the eastern end of the peninsula. Narmadha and Tapti run from east to west. Other rivers like the Godavari, Krishna, Tungabhadra and Kaveri flow from west to east.** These rivers make the plateau into a fertile rice producing soil. Throughout history, the region between **Krishna and Tungabhadra (Raichur Doab)** remained a **bone of contention between the major kingdoms** of the south. The deltaic plains formed by these two rivers at their

mouths became famous under the Satavahanas. A number of towns and ports flourished in these plains in the beginning of the Christian era.

The Kaveri delta constitutes a distinct geographical zone in the far south. It became the seat of the Chola power. The Kaveri basin with its rich tradition, language and culture has flourished from the ancient times.

As the southern peninsula is gifted with a long coastline, the people of this region took keen interest in the maritime activities. A great deal of trade and commerce went on through the seaways from the earliest times. In the east, mariners reached countries like Jawa, Sumatra, Burma and Cambodia. Apart from trade, they spread Indian art, religion and culture in these parts of the world. The commercial contacts between south India and the Greco-Roman countries flourished along with cultural relations.

India – A Land of Unity in Diversity

The history of ancient India is interesting because India proved to be a melting pot of numerous races. The pre-Aryans, the Indo-Aryans, the Greeks, the Scythians, the Hunas, the Turks, etc., made India their home. Each ethnic group contributed its might to the making of Indian culture. All these peoples mixed up so inextricably with one another that at present none of them can be identified in their original form. Different cultures mingled with one another through the ages. Many pre-Aryan or Dravidian terms occur in the Vedic texts. Similarly, many Pali and Sanskrit terms appear in the Sangam literature.

Since ancient times, India has been the land of several religions. Ancient India witnessed the birth of Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism. But all these cultures and religions intermingled with one another. Although Indians people speak different languages, practice different

religions, and observe different social customs, they follow certain common styles of life throughout the country. Therefore, our country shows a deep underlying unity in spite of great diversity.

In fact, the ancients strove for unity. They looked upon this vast subcontinent as one land. The name *Bharatavarsha* or the land of Bharata was given to the whole country, after the name of an ancient tribe called the Bharatas. Our ancient poets, philosophers and writers viewed the country as an integral unit. This kind of political unity was attained at least twice during the Mauryan and Gupta Empires.

The unity of India was also recognized by foreigners. They first came into contact with the people living on the Sindhu or the Indus, and so they named the whole country after this river. The word *Hind* is derived from the Sanskrit term *Sindhu*, and in course of time the country came to be known as 'India' in Greek, and 'Hind' in Persian and Arabic languages.

Efforts for the linguistic and cultural unity of the country were made through the ages. In the third century B.C., Prakrit language served as the *lingua franca* of the country. Throughout the major portion of India, Asoka's inscriptions were written in the Prakrit language. Also, the ancient epics, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*, were studied with the same zeal and devotion throughout the country. Originally composed in Sanskrit, these epics came to be presented in different local languages. Although the Indian cultural values and ideas were expressed in different forms, the substance remained the same throughout the country.

Hence, India has emerged a multi-religious and multi-cultural society. However, the underlying unity and integrity and the plural character of Indian society remain the real strength for the development of the country.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The geographical features of India.*
- 2. The details of the Himalayan Mountains, the passes in the northwest and how they were used by the foreign invaders, traders and migrants.*
- 3. The river systems of the Indo-Gangetic Gangetic valley and their impact on the historical events such as battles and emergence of urban centres.*
- 4. The southern peninsula, the long coasts which contributed to a lot of maritime activities.*
- 5. How India emerged as a multicultural society and the same is successfully sustained over the centuries.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Alexander of Macedon came to India through
 - (a) Deccan Plateau
 - (b) Kharakoram range
 - (c) Swat valley
 - (d) Aravalli hills
2. The region between two rivers is called
 - (a) Plateau
 - (b) Peninsula
 - (c) Doab
 - (d) Peak

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The river Ganges rises in
2. The highest peak in the southern peninsula is

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Mount Everest | a) Aravalli hills |
| 2. Mount Abu | b) Kharakoram |
| 3. Doddabetta | c) Himalayas |
| 4. Godwin Austin | d) Western Ghats |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Narmada river runs from east to west.
- b) Kaveri river runs from south to north.
- c) Yamuna river merges with Tapti.
- d) Maha Nadhi river irrigates the Punjab region.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

1. The city of Pataliputra was situated at the confluence of Ganges with Brahmaputra.
2. The long coast line in the southern peninsula contributed to the growth of maritime trade.
3. The Palghat Pass is situated on the Western Ghats.
4. India is a multi-cultural society.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Himalayan Mountains.
2. Deccan Plateau.
3. Rivers of southern peninsula
4. Multi-cultural society.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the impact of the Indo-Gangetic Plains on the history of India.
2. Briefly describe the geography of South India.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Assess the impact of geography on the history of India.
2. 'India is a land of unity in diversity' – Elucidate.

LESSON 2

PRE-HISTORIC INDIA AND THE HARAPPAN CULTURE

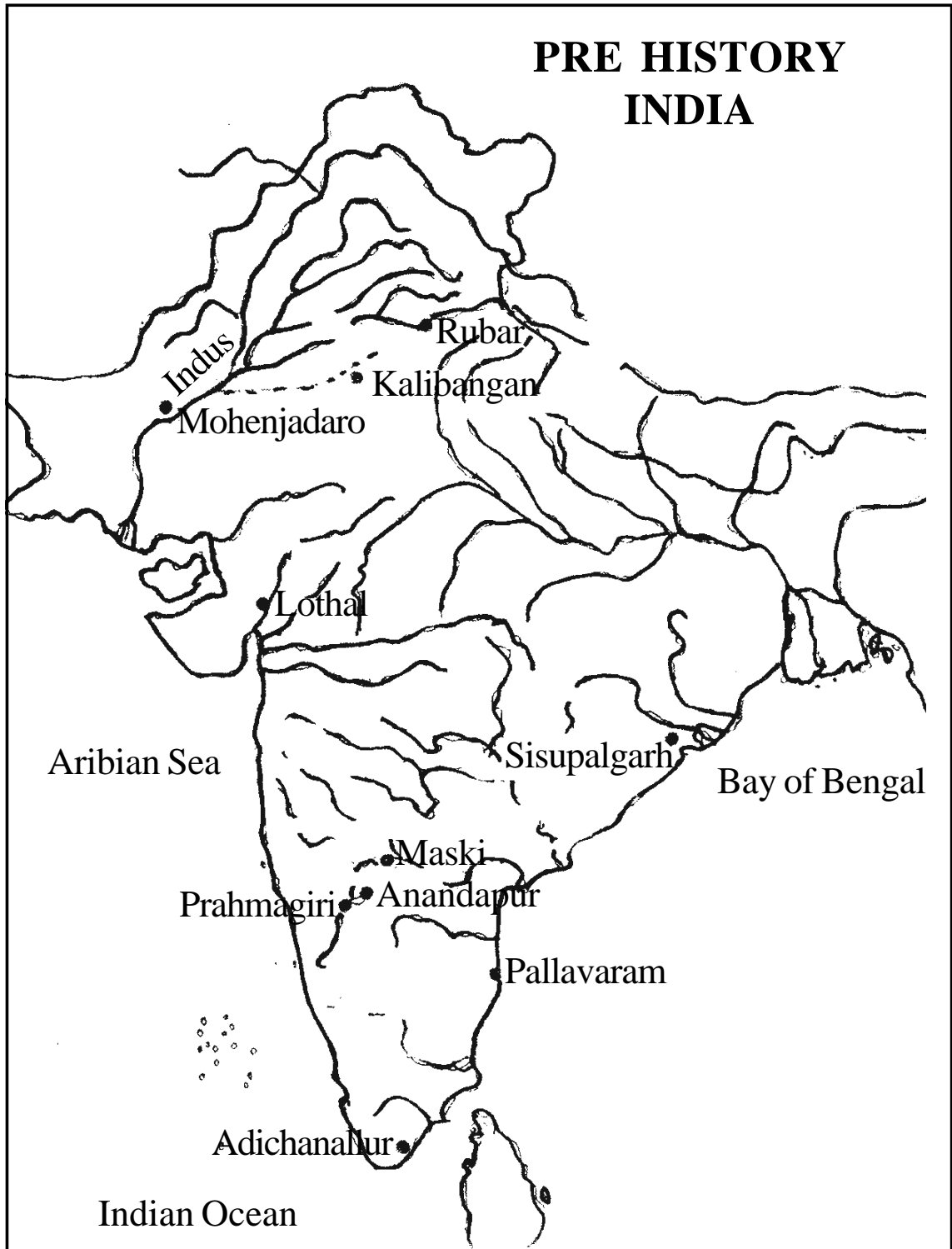
Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The Pre-historic period.*
- 2. Origin and evolution of the Harappan Civilization.*
- 3. Socio-economic condition of the Harappan people.*
- 4. Cultural life of the Harappans.*
- 5. The Decline of the Harappan Civilization.*

The history of human settlements in India goes back to prehistoric times. No written records are available for the pre-historic period. However, plenty of archaeological remains are found in different parts of India to reconstruct the history of this period. They include the stone tools, pottery, artifacts and metal implements used by pre-historic people. The development of archaeology helps much to understand the life and culture of the people who lived in this period.

In India, the prehistoric period is divided into the **Paleolithic** (Old Stone Age), **Mesolithic** (Middle Stone Age), Neolithic (New Stone Age) and **the Metal Age**. However, these periods were not uniform throughout the Indian subcontinent. The dating of the pre-historic period is done scientifically. The technique of **radio-carbon dating** is commonly used for this purpose. It is based on measuring the **loss of carbon in organic materials** over a period of time. Another dating method is known as **dendro-chronology**. It refers to the



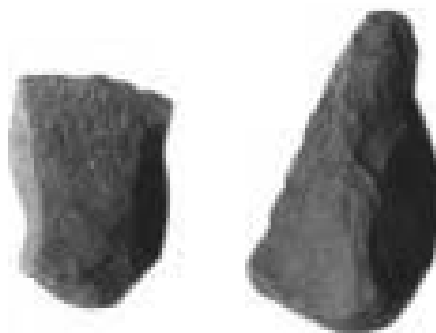
number of tree rings in wood. By counting the number of tree rings in the wood, the date of the wood is arrived at.

Paleolithic or Old Stone Age

The Old Stone Age sites are widely found in various parts of the Indian subcontinent. These sites are generally located near water sources. Several rock shelters and caves used by the Paleolithic people are scattered across the subcontinent. They also lived rarely in huts made of leaves. Some of the famous sites of Old Stone Age in India are:

- a. The Soan valley and Potwar Plateau on the northwest India.
- b. The Siwalik hills on the north India.
- c. Bhimpetka in Madhya Pradesh.
- d. Adamgarh hill in Narmada valley.
- e. Kurnool in Andhra Pradesh and
- f. Attirampakkam near Chennai.

In the Old Stone Age, food was obtained by hunting animals and gathering edible plants and tubers. Therefore, these people are called as hunter-gatherers. They used stone tools, hand-sized and flaked-off large pebbles for hunting animals. Stone implements are made of a hard rock known as quartzite. Large pebbles are often found in river terraces. The hunting of large animals would have required the combined effort of a group of people with large stone axes. We have little knowledge about their language and communication. Their way of life became modified with the passage of time since they made attempts to domesticate animals, make crude pots and grow some plants. A few Old Stone Age paintings have



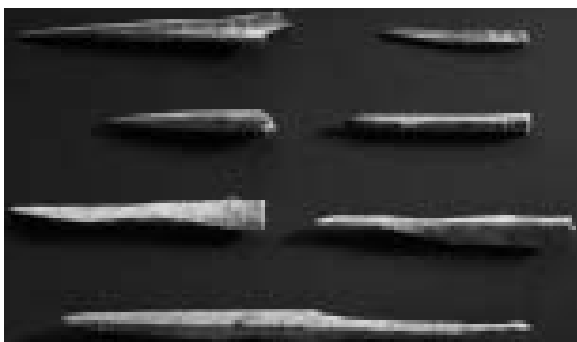
Old Stone Age Tools

also been found on rocks at Bhimbetka and other places. The period before 10000 B.C. is assigned to the Old Stone Age.

Mesolithic or Middle Stone Age

The next stage of human life is called Mesolithic or Middle Stone Age which falls roughly from 10000 B.C. to 6000 B.C. It was the transitional phase between the Paleolithic Age and Neolithic Age. Mesolithic remains are found in Langhanj in Gujarat, Adamgarh in Madhya Pradesh and also in some places of Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. The paintings and engravings found at the rock shelters give an idea about the social life and economic activities of Mesolithic people. In the sites of Mesolithic Age, a different type of stone tools is found. These are tiny stone artifacts, often not more than five centimeters in size, and therefore called microliths. The hunting-gathering pattern of life continued during this period. However, there seems to have been a shift from big animal hunting to small animal hunting and fishing. The use of bow and arrow also began during this period. Also, there began a tendency to settle for longer periods in an area. Therefore, domestication of animals, horticulture and primitive cultivation started. Animal bones are found in these sites and these include dog, deer, boar and ostrich. Occasionally, burials of the dead along with some microliths and shells seem to have been practiced.

Neolithic Age



New Stone Age Tools

A remarkable progress is noticed in human civilization in the Neolithic Age. It is approximately dated from 6000 B.C to 4000 B.C. Neolithic remains are found in various parts of India. These include the Kashmir valley, Chirand in Bihar, Belan valley in

Uttar Pradesh and in several places of the **Deccan**. The important Neolithic sites excavated in south India are Maski, Brahmagiri, Hallur and Kodekal in Karnataka, Paiyampalli in Tamil Nadu and Utnur in Andhra Pradesh.

The chief characteristic features of the Neolithic culture are the **practice of agriculture, domestication of animals, polishing of stone tools and the manufacture of pottery**. In fact, the cultivation of plants and domestication of animals led to the emergence of **village communities** based on sedentary life.

There was a great improvement in technology of making tools and other equipments used by man. Stone tools were now polished. The polished axes were found to be more effective tools for hunting and cutting trees. Mud brick houses were built instead of grass huts. Wheels were used to make pottery. Pottery was used for cooking as well as storage of food grains. Large urns were used as coffins for the burial of the dead. There was also improvement in agriculture. Wheat, barely, rice, millet were cultivated in different areas at different points of time. **Rice cultivation was extensive in eastern India**. Domestication of sheep, goats and cattle was widely prevalent. Cattle were used for cultivation and for transport. The people of Neolithic Age used **clothes made of cotton and wool**.

Metal Age

The Neolithic period is followed by **Chalcolithic** (copper-stone) period when copper and bronze came to be used. The new technology of smelting metal ore and crafting metal artifacts is an important development in human civilization. But the use of stone tools was not given up. Some of the micro-lithic tools continued to be essential items. People began to travel for a long distance to obtain metal ores. This led to a network of Chalcolithic cultures and the Chalcolithic cultures were found in many parts of India.

Generally, Chalcolithic cultures had grown in river valleys. Most importantly, the Harappan culture is considered as a part of Chalcolithic culture. In South India the river valleys of the Godavari, Krishna, Tungabhadra, Pennar and Kaveri were settled by farming communities during this period. Although they were not using metals in the beginning of the Metal Age, there is evidence of copper and bronze artifacts by the end of second millennium B.C. Several bronze and copper objects, beads, terracotta figurines and pottery were found at Paiyampalli in Tamil Nadu.

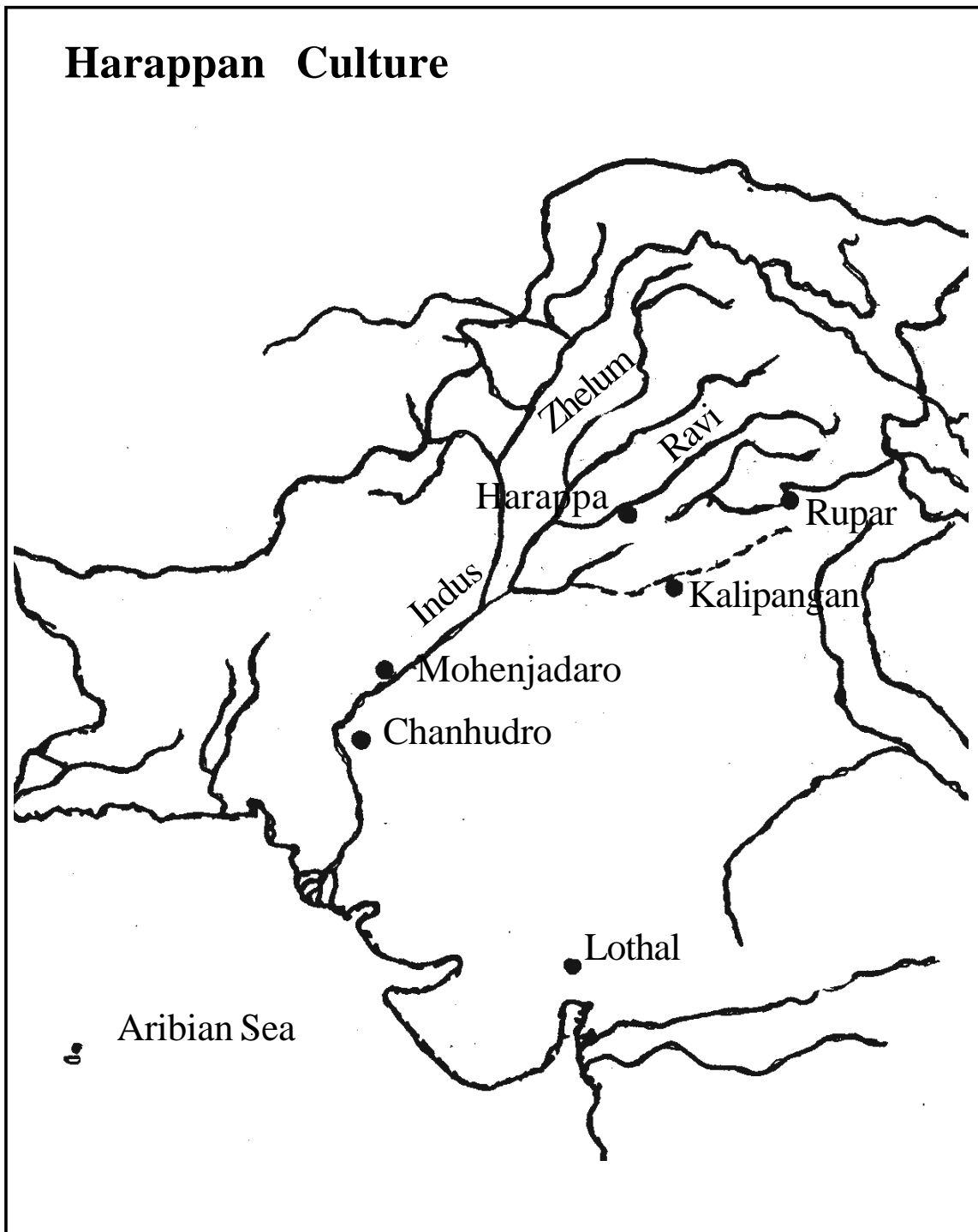
The Chalcolithic age is followed by Iron Age. Iron is frequently referred to in the Vedas. The Iron Age of the southern peninsula is often related to Megalithic Burials. Megalith means Large Stone. The burial pits were covered with these stones. Such graves are extensively found in South India. Some of the important megalithic sites are Hallur and Maski in Karnataka, Nagarjunakonda in Andhra Pradesh and Adichchanallur in Tamil Nadu. Black and red pottery, iron artifacts such as hoes and sickles and small weapons were found in the burial pits.

The Harappan Civilization

The earliest excavations in the Indus valley were done at Harappa in the West Punjab and Mohenjodaro in Sind. Both places are now in Pakistan. The findings in these two cities brought to light a civilization. It was first called the 'The Indus Valley Civilization'. But this civilization was later named as the 'Indus Civilization' due to the discovery of more and more sites far away from the Indus valley. Also, it has come to be called the 'Harappan Civilization' after the name of its first discovered site.

Important Sites

Among the many other sites excavated, the most important are Kot Diji in Sind, Kalibangan in Rajasthan, Rupar in the Punjab,



Banawali in Haryana, Lothal, Surkotada and Dholavira, all the three in Gujarat. The larger cities are approximately a hundred hectares in size. Mohenjodara is the largest of all the Indus cities and it is estimated to have spread over an area of 200 hectares.

Origin and Evolution

The archaeological findings excavated for the last eight decades reveal the gradual development of the Harappan culture. There are four important stages or phases of evolution and they are named as pre-Harappan, early-Harappan, mature-Harappan and late Harappan.

The pre-Harappan stage is located in eastern Baluchistan. The excavations at Mehrgarh 150 miles to the northwest of Mohenjodaro reveal the existence of pre-Harappan culture. In this stage, the nomadic people began to lead a settled agricultural life.

In the early-Harappan stage, the people lived in large villages in the plains. There was a gradual growth of towns in the Indus valley. Also, the transition from rural to urban life took place during this period. The sites of Amri and Kot Diji remain the evidence for early-Harappan stage.

In the mature-Harappan stage, great cities emerged. The excavations at Kalibangan with its elaborate town planning and urban features prove this phase of evolution.

In the late-Harappan stage, the decline of the Indus culture started. The excavations at Lothal reveal this stage of evolution. Lothal with its port was founded much later. It was surrounded by a massive brick wall as flood protection. Lothal remained an emporium of trade between the Harappan civilization and the remaining part of India as well as Mesopotamia.

Date of the Harappan Culture

In 1931, Sir John Marshall estimated the duration of the occupation of Mohenjodaro between 3250 and 2750 B.C. Subsequently, as and when new sites were discovered, the dating of the Harappan culture is modified. The advent of the radiocarbon method paves way for fixing almost accurate dates. By 1956, Fairservis brought down the dating of the Harappan culture to between 2000 and 1500 B.C. on the basis of radiocarbon dates of his findings. In 1964, D.P. Agarwal came to the conclusion that the total span of this culture should be between 2300 and 1750 B.C. Yet, there is further scope of modification of these dates.

Salient Features of the Harappan Culture

Town Planning

The Harappan culture was distinguished by its system of town-planning on the lines of the grid system – that is streets and lanes cutting across one another almost at right angles thus dividing the city into several rectangular blocks.



Great Bath at Mohenjodaro

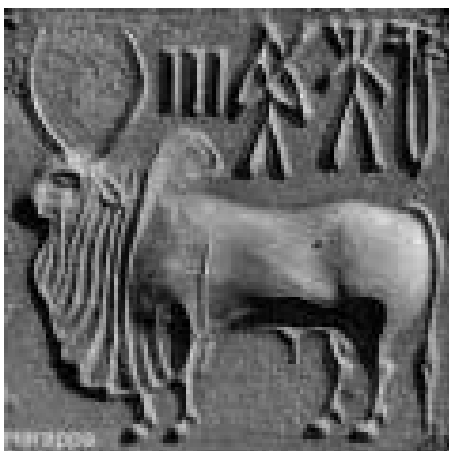
Harappa, Mohenjodaro and Kalibangan each had its own citadel built on a high podium of mud brick. Below the citadel in each city lay a lower town containing brick houses, which were inhabited by the common people. The large-scale use of burnt bricks in almost all kinds of constructions and the absence of stone buildings are the important characteristics of the Harappan culture. Another remarkable feature was the underground drainage system connecting all houses to the street drains which were covered by stone slabs or bricks.

The most important public place of Mohenjodaro is the **Great Bath** measuring 39 feet length, 23 feet breadth and 8 feet depth. Flights of steps at either end lead to the surface. There are side rooms for changing clothes. The floor of the Bath was made of **burnt bricks**. Water was drawn from a large well in an adjacent room, and an outlet from one corner of the Bath led to a drain. It must have served as a ritual bathing site. The **largest building in Mohenjodaro is a granary** measuring 150 feet length and 50 feet breadth. But in the citadel of Harappa we find as many as **six granaries**.

Economic life

There was a great progress in all spheres of economic activity such as agriculture, industry and crafts and trade. **Wheat and barley** were the main crops grown besides **sesame, mustard and cotton**. Surplus grain is stored in granaries. Animals like sheep, goats and buffalo were domesticated. The use of horse is not yet firmly established. A number of other animals were hunted for food including deer.

Specialized groups of artisans include goldsmiths, brick makers, stone cutters, weavers, boat-builders and terracotta manufacturers. **Bronze and copper vessels** are the outstanding



HARAPPAN SEAL

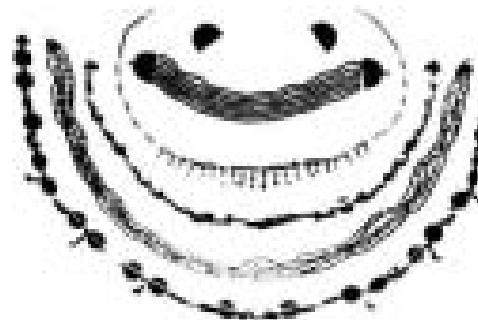
examples of the Harappan metal craft. Gold and silver ornaments are found in many places. Pottery remains plain and in some places red and black painted pottery is found. **Beads** were manufactured from a wide variety of **semi-precious stones**.

Internal trade was extensive with other parts of India. **Foreign trade was mainly conducted with Mesopotamia, Afghanistan and**

Iran Gold, copper, tin and several semi-precious stones were imported. Main exports were several agricultural products such as wheat, barely, peas, oil seeds and a variety of finished products including cotton goods, pottery, beads, terracotta figures and ivory products. There is much evidence to prove the trade links between the Indus and Sumerian people. Many seals of Indus valley have been found in Mesopotamia. Trade was of the barter type. The seals and the terracotta models of the Indus valley reveal the use of bullock carts and oxen for land transport and boats and ships for river and sea transport.

Social Life

Much evidence is available to understand the social life of the Harappans. The dress of both men and women consisted of two pieces of cloth, one upper garment and the other lower garment. Beads were worn by men and women. Jewelleries such as bangles, bracelets, fillets, girdles, anklets, ear-rings and finger-rings were worn by women. These ornaments were made of gold, silver, copper, bronze and semi precious stones. The use of cosmetics was common. Various household articles made of pottery, stone, shells, ivory and metal have been found at Mohenjodaro. Spindles, needles, combs, fishhooks, knives are made of copper. Children's toys include little clay carts. Marbles, balls and dice were used for games. Fishing was a regular occupation while hunting and bull fighting were other pastimes. There were numerous specimens of weapons of war such as axes, spearheads, daggers, bows, arrows made of copper and bronze.



ORNAMENTS USED BY THE
HARAPPANS

Arts

The Harappan sculpture revealed a high degree of workmanship. Figures of men and women, animals and birds made of terracotta and the carvings on the seals show the degree of proficiency attained by the sculptor. The figure of a dancing girl from Mohenjodaro made of bronze is remarkable for its workmanship. Its right hand rests on the hip, while the left arm, covered with bangles, hangs loosely in a relaxed posture. Two stone statues from Harappa, one representing the back view of a man and the other of a dancer are also specimens of their sculpture. The pottery from Harappa is another specimen of the fine arts of the Indus people. The pots and jars were painted with various designs and colours. Painted pottery is of better quality. The pictorial motifs consisted of geometrical patterns like horizontal lines, circles, leaves, plants and trees. On some pottery pieces we find figures of fish or peacock.



TERRACOTTA
FIGURINE

Script

The Harappan script has still to be fully deciphered. The number of signs is between 400 and 600 of which 40 or 60 are basic and the rest are their variants. The script was mostly written from right to left. In a few long seals the boustrophedon method – writing in the reverse direction in alternative lines - was adopted. Parpola and his Scandinavian colleagues came to the conclusion that the language of the Harappans was Dravidian. A group of Soviet scholars accepts this view. Other scholars provide different view connecting the Harappan script with that of Brahmi. The mystery of the Harappan script still



HARAPPAN SCRIPT

exists and there is no doubt that the decipherment of Harappan script will throw much light on this culture.

Religion

From the seals, terracotta figurines and copper tablets we get an idea on the religious life of the Harappans. The chief male deity was Pasupati, (proto-Siva) represented in seals as sitting in a yogic posture with three faces and two horns. He is surrounded by four animals (elephant, tiger, rhino, and buffalo each facing a different direction). Two deer appear on his feet. The chief female deity was the Mother Goddess represented in terracotta figurines. In latter times, Linga worship was prevalent. Trees and animals were also worshipped by the Harappans. They believed in ghosts and evil forces and used amulets as protection against them.

Burial Methods

The cemeteries discovered around the cities like Mohenjodaro, Harappa, Kalibangan, Lothal and Rupar throw light on the burial practices of the Harappans. Complete burial and post-cremation burial were popular at Mohenjodaro. At Lothal the burial pit was lined with burnt bricks indicating the use of coffins. Wooden coffins were also found at Harappa. The practice of pot burials is found at Lothal sometimes with pairs of skeletons. However, there is no clear evidence for the practice of Sati.

Decline of the Harappan Culture

There is no unanimous view pertaining to the cause for the decline of the Harappan culture. Various theories have been postulated. Natural calamities like recurring floods, drying up of rivers, decreasing fertility of the soil due to excessive exploitation and occasional earthquakes might have caused the decline of the Harappan cities. According to some scholars the final blow was

delivered by the **invasion of Aryans**. The destruction of forts is mentioned in the **Rig Veda**. Also, the discovery of human skeletons huddled together at Mohenjodaro indicates that **the city was invaded by foreigners**. The Aryans had superior weapons as well as swift horses which might have enabled them to become masters of this region.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The findings of the Paleolithic, Neolithic and Metal Age and the socio-economic life of the people during these periods.*
- 2. The origin and evolution of the Harappan culture and the important sites of excavations.*
- 3. The salient features of the Harappan civilization such as town planning, social life and economic condition of the Harappans.*
- 4. The date of the Harappan culture as well as the religious beliefs and the art of the Harappans.*
- 5. Different views on the decline of the Harappan civilization.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Chalcolithic age was followed by
 - (a) Old Stone age
 - (b) New Stone age
 - (c) Iron age
 - (d) Mesolithic age
2. The port city of the Harappan culture
 - (a) Kalibangan
 - (b) Lothal
 - (c) Banawali
 - (d) Rupar

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The most important Megalithic site in Tamil Nadu is
2. The chief female deity of the Harappan culture was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Kot Diji | a) Haryana |
| 2. Dholavira | b) Rajasthan |
| 3. Kalibangan | c) Sind |
| 4. Banawali | d) Gujarat |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) There are three stages in the evolution of Harappan culture.
- b) Parpola concluded that the language of Harappan people is Sanskrit.
- c) Sir John Marshal used the radio-carbon dating method.
- d) The Harappan people believed in ghosts and used amulets as protection against them.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

1. The Old Stone Age people practiced agriculture.
2. Microliths were used by the Mesolithic people.
3. Trade links existed between the Indus and Sumerian people.
4. The Harappan people did not know the art of writing.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Chalcolithic Age
2. Megaliths.
3. Great Bath.
4. Date of the Harappan Culture.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the Old Stone Age.
2. Trace the origin and evolution of the Harappan Culture.
3. Name the important sites of the Harappan Culture.
4. Mention the probable causes for the decline of the Harappan culture.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Write a brief essay on the pre-historic period in India.
2. Describe the socio-economic condition of the Harappan civilization.

LESSON 3

THE VEDIC CULTURE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The original home of the Aryans.*
- 2. The Vedic Literature and their importance.*
- 3. The Rig Vedic Age and its culture.*
- 4. The Later Vedic Age and its culture.*

The cities of the Harappan Culture had declined by 1500 B.C. Consequently, their economic and administrative system had slowly declined. Around this period, the speakers of Indo-Aryan language, Sanskrit, entered the north-west India from the Indo-Iranian region. Initially they would have come in small numbers through the passes in the northwestern mountains. Their initial settlements were in the valleys of the north-west and the plains of the Punjab. Later, they moved into Indo-Gangetic plains. As they were mainly a cattle-keeping people, they were mainly in search of pastures. By 6th century B.C., they occupied the whole of North India, which was referred to as Aryavarta. This period between 1500 B.C and 600 B.C may be divided into the Early Vedic Period or Rig Vedic Period (1500 B.C -1000 B.C) and the Later Vedic Period (1000B.C - 600 B.C).

Original Home of the Aryans

The original home of the Aryans is a debatable question and there are several views. Different scholars have identified different

regions as the original home of the Aryans. They include the Arctic region, Germany, Central Asia and southern Russia. Bala Gangadhara Tilak argues that the Aryans came from the Arctic region on astronomical calculations. However, the theory of southern Russia appears to be more probable and widely accepted by historians. From there, the Aryans moved to different parts of Asia and Europe. They entered India in about 1500 B.C. and came to be known as Indo-Aryans. They spoke the Indo-Aryan language, Sanskrit.

Vedic Literature

The word 'Veda' is derived from the root 'vid', which means to know. In other words, the term 'Veda' signifies 'superior knowledge'. The Vedic literature consists of the four Vedas – Rig, Yajur, Sama and Atharva. The Rig Veda is the earliest of the four Vedas and it consists of 1028 hymns. The hymns were sung in praise of various gods. The Yajur Veda consists of various details of rules to be observed at the time of sacrifice. The Sama Veda is set to tune for the purpose of chanting during sacrifice. It is called the book of chants and the origins of Indian music are traced in it. The Atharva Veda contains details of rituals.

Besides the Vedas, there are other sacred works like the Brahmanas, the Upanishads, the Aranyakas and the epics Ramayana and Mahabharata. The Brahmanas are the treatises relating to prayer and sacrificial ceremony. The Upanishads are philosophical texts dealing with topic like the soul, the absolute, the origin of the world and the mysteries of nature. The Aranyakas are called forest books and they deal with mysticism, rites, rituals and sacrifices. The author of Ramayana was Valmiki and that of Mahabharata was Vedavyas.

Rig Vedic Age or Early Vedic Period (1500 - 1000 B.C.)

During the Rig Vedic period, the Aryans were mostly confined to the Indus region. The Rig Veda refers to Saptasindhu or the land

of seven rivers. This includes the five rivers of Punjab, namely Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej along with the Indus and Saraswathi. The political, social and cultural life of the Rig Vedic people can be traced from the hymns of the Rig Veda.

Political Organization

The basic unit of political organization was *kula* or family. Several families joined together on the basis of their kinship to form a village or grama. The leader of grama was known as gramani. A group of villages constituted a larger unit called *visu*. It was headed by vishayapati. The highest political unit was called jana or tribe. There were several tribal kingdoms during the Rig Vedic period such as Bharatas, Matsyas, Yadus and Purus. The head of the kingdom was called as *rajan* or king. The Rig Vedic polity was normally monarchical and the succession was hereditary. The king was assisted by *purohita* or priest and *senani* or commander of the army in his administration. There were two popular bodies called the *Sabha and Samiti*. The former seems to have been a council of elders and the latter, a general assembly of the entire people.

Social Life

The Rig Vedic society was patriarchal. The basic unit of society was family or *graham*. The head of the family was known as *grahapathi*. Monogamy was generally practiced while polygamy was prevalent among the royal and noble families. The wife took care of the household and participated in all the major ceremonies. Women were given equal opportunities as men for their spiritual and intellectual development. There were women poets like Apala, Viswavara, Ghosa and Lopamudra during the Rig Vedic period. Women could even attend the popular assemblies. There was no child marriage and the practice of sati was absent.

Both men and women wore upper and lower garments made of cotton and wool. A variety of ornaments were used by both men and women. Wheat and barley, milk and its products like curd and ghee, vegetables and fruits were the chief articles of food. The eating of cow's meat was prohibited since it was a sacred animal. Chariot racing, horse racing, dicing, music and dance were the favourite pastimes. The social divisions were not rigid during the Rig Vedic period as it was in the later Vedic period.

Economic Condition

The Rig Vedic Aryans were pastoral people and their main occupation was cattle rearing. Their wealth was estimated in terms of their cattle. When they permanently settled in North India they began to practice agriculture. With the knowledge and use of iron they were able to clear forests and bring more lands under cultivation. Carpentry was another important profession and the availability of wood from the forests cleared made the profession profitable. Carpenters produced chariots and ploughs. Workers in metal made a variety of articles with copper, bronze and iron. Spinning was another important occupation and cotton and woollen fabrics were made. Goldsmiths were active in making ornaments. The potters made various kinds of vessels for domestic use.

Trade was another important economic activity and rivers served as important means of transport. Trade was conducted on barter system. In the later times, gold coins called nishka were used as media of exchange in large transactions.

Religion

The Rig Vedic Aryans worshiped the natural forces like earth, fire, wind, rain and thunder. They personified these natural forces into many gods and worshipped them. The important Rig Vedic gods were Prithvi (Earth), Agni (Fire), Vayu (Wind), Varuna (Rain)

and Indra (Thunder). Indra was the most popular among them during the early Vedic period. Next in importance to Indra was Agni who was regarded as an intermediary between the gods and people. Varuna was supposed to be the upholder of the natural order. There were also female gods like Aditi and Ushas. There were no temples and no idol worship during the early Vedic period. Prayers were offered to the gods in the expectation of rewards. Ghee, milk and grain were given as offerings. Elaborate rituals were followed during the worship.

Later Vedic Period (1000 – 600 B.C.)

The Aryans further moved towards east in the Later Vedic Period. The Satapatha Brahmana refers to the expansion of Aryans to the eastern Gangetic plains. Several tribal groups and kingdoms are mentioned in the later Vedic literature. One important development during this period is the growth of large kingdoms. Kuru and Panchala kingdoms flourished in the beginning. Parikshat and Janamejaya were the famous rulers of Kuru kingdom. Pravahana Jaivali was a popular king of the Panchalas. He was a patron of learning. After the fall of Kurus and Panchalas, other kingdoms like Kosala, Kasi and Videha came into prominence. The famous ruler of Kasi was Ajatasatru. Janaka was the king of Videha with its capital at Mithila. His court was adorned by scholar Yajnavalkya. Magadha, Anga and Vanga seem to be the easternmost tribal kingdoms. The later Vedic texts also refer to the three divisions of India – Aryavarta (northern India), Madhyadesa (central India) and Dakshinapatha (southern India).

Political Organization

Larger kingdoms were formed during the later Vedic period. Many *jana* or tribes were amalgamated to form *janapadas* or *rashtras* in the later Vedic period. Hence the royal power had

increased along with the increase in the size of kingdom. The king performed various rituals and sacrifices to strengthen his position. They include *Rajasuya* (consecration ceremony), *Asvamedha* (horse sacrifice) and *Vajpeya* (chariot race). The kings also assumed titles like *Rajavisvajanan*, *Ahlabhuvanapathi*, (lord of all earth), *Ekrat* and *Samrat* (sole ruler).

In the later Vedic period, a large number of new officials were involved in the administration in addition to the existing *purohita*, *senani* and *gramani*. They include the treasury officer, tax collector and royal messenger. At the lower levels, the administration was carried on by the village assemblies. The importance of the *Samiti* and the *Sabha* had diminished during the later Vedic period.

Economic Condition

Iron was used extensively in this period and this enabled the people to clear forests and to bring more land under cultivation. Agriculture became the chief occupation. Improved types of implements were used for cultivation. Besides barley, rice and wheat were grown. Knowledge of manure was another improvement. Industrial activity became more varied and there was greater specialization. Metal work, leather work, carpentry and pottery made great progress. In addition to internal trade, foreign trade became extensive. The Later Vedic people were familiar with the sea and they traded with countries like Babylon. A class of hereditary merchants (*vaniya*) came into existence. *Vaisyas* also carried on trade and commerce. They organized themselves into guilds known as *ganas*. Besides *nishka* of the Rig Vedic period, gold and silver coins like *satamana* and *krishnala* were used as media of exchange.

Social Life

The four divisions of society (Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras) or the Varna system was thoroughly established during

the Later Vedic period. The two higher classes - Brahmana, and Kshatriya enjoyed privileges that were denied to the Vaisya and Sudra. A Brahmin occupied a higher position than a Kshatriya but sometimes Kshatriyas claimed a higher status over the Brahmins. Many sub-castes on the basis of their occupation appeared in this period.

In the family, the power of the father increased during the Later Vedic period. There was no improvement in the status of women. They were still considered inferior and subordinate to men. Women also lost their political rights of attending assemblies. Child marriages had become common. According the *Aitreya Brahmana* a daughter has been described as a source of misery. However, the women in the royal household enjoyed certain privileges.

Religion

Gods of the Early Vedic period like Indra and Agni lost their importance. Prajapathi (the creator), Vishnu (the protector) and Rudra (the destroyer) became prominent during the Later Vedic period. Sacrifices were still important and the rituals connected with them became more elaborate. The importance of prayers declined and that of sacrifices increased. Priesthood became a profession and a hereditary one. The formulae for sacrifices were invented and elaborated by the priestly class. Therefore, towards the end of this period there was a strong reaction against priestly domination and against sacrifices and rituals. The rise of Buddhism and Jainism was the direct result of these elaborate sacrifices. Also, the authors of the Upanishads, which is the essence of Hindu philosophy, turned away from the useless rituals and insisted on true knowledge (*jnana*) for peace and salvation.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The Vedic Literature such as the four Vedas and the Brahmanas and other later Vedic literature.*
- 2. The Rig Vedic polity, society and economy.*
- 3. Religious life of the Rig Vedic people.*
- 4. The changes during the Later Vedic period in the sphere of polity and society.*
- 5. The increasing rites and rituals in the religious life of the Later Vedic people.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The earliest of the Vedas
(a) Rig (b) Yajur
(c) Sama (d) Atharva
2. Pravahana Jaivali was a popular king of
(a) Videha (b) Kasi
(c) Kurus (d) Panchalas

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The author of Ramayana was
2. The Arctic home for the Aryans was suggested by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------|
| 1. Nishka | a) Later Vedic coin |
| 2. Ushas | b) Rig Vedic coin |
| 3. Apala | c) Goddess |
| 4. Krishnala | d) Woman poet |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Indra and Varuna were the important gods during the Later Vedic period.
- b) The position of women improved during the Later Vedic period.
- c) The caste system was not rigid during the Later Vedic period.
- d) The importance of *Samiti* and *Sabha* declined during the Later Vedic period.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

1. The Aranyakas constitute the essence of Hindu philosophy.
2. The power of the kings had increased during the Later Vedic period.
3. Iron was not known to the Rig Vedic people.
4. The Varna system was thoroughly established during the Rig Vedic period.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Vedic literature.
2. Original Home of the Aryans.
3. Position of women during the Rig Vedic period.
4. Religion of Rig Vedic period.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the Rig Vedic polity.
2. Mention the religious life of Later Vedic people.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give a brief account of the socio-economic life of the Rig Vedic Aryans.
2. Assess the political and social conditions during the Later Vedic period.

LESSON 4

JAINISM AND BUDDHISM

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The causes for the rise of Buddhism and Jainism.*
- 2. Early life of Mahavira and his teachings.*
- 3. Early life of Buddha and his teachings.*
- 4. The spread of Buddhism.*
- 5. Causes for the decline of Buddhism in India,*

The sixth century B.C. is considered a wonderful century in history. Great thinkers like Buddha, Mahavira, Heraclitus, Zoroaster, Confucius and Lao Tse lived and preached their ideas in this century. In India, the republican institutions were strong in the 6th century B.C. This enabled rise of heterodox sects against the orthodox religion dominated by rites and rituals. Among them the most successful were Jainism and Buddhism whose impact on the Indian society was remarkable.

Causes for the Rise of Jainism and Buddhism

The primary cause for the rise of Jainism and Buddhism was the religious unrest in India in the 6th century B.C. The complex rituals and sacrifices advocated in the Later Vedic period were not acceptable to the common people. The sacrificial ceremonies were also found to be too expensive. The superstitious beliefs and mantras confused the people. The teachings of Upanishads, an alternative to the system of sacrifices, were highly philosophical in nature and

therefore not easily understood by all. Therefore, what was needed in the larger interests of the people was a simple, short and intelligible way to salvation for all people. Such religious teaching should also be in a language known to them. This need was fulfilled by the teachings of Buddha and Mahavira.

Other than the religious factor, **social and economic** factors also contributed to the rise of these two religions. The rigid caste system prevalent in India generated tensions in the society. Higher classes enjoyed certain privileges which were denied to the lower classes. Also, the Kshatriyas had resented the domination of the priestly class. It should also to be noted that both **Buddha and Mahavira belonged to Kshatriya origin.** The growth of trade led to the improvement in the economic conditions of the Vaisyas. As a result, they wanted to enhance their social status but the orthodox Varna system did not allow this. Therefore, they began to extend support to Buddhism and Jainism. It was this **merchant class that extended the chief support to these new religions.**

Jainism

Life of Vardhamana Mahavira (539- 467 B.C.)

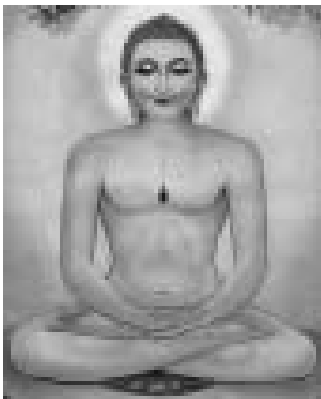
Vardhamana Mahavira was the **24th Tirthankara of the Jain** tradition. He was born at Kundagrama near Vaisali to Kshatriya parents Siddhartha and Trisala. He married Yasoda and gave birth to a daughter. At the age of thirty he became an ascetic and wandered for twelve years. In the 13th year of his penance, he attained the highest spiritual knowledge called **Kevala Gnana.** Thereafter, he was called **Mahavira and Jina.** His followers were called Jains and his religion Jainism. He preached his doctrines for 30 years and died at the age of **72 at Pava near Rajagriha.**

Teachings of Mahavira

The three principles of Jainism, also known as Triratnas (three gems), are:

- right faith
- right knowledge
- right conduct.

Right faith is the belief in the teachings and wisdom of Mahavira. Right Knowledge is the acceptance of the theory that there is no God and that the world has been existing without a creator and that all objects possess a soul. Right conduct refers to the observance of the five great vows:



MAHAVIRA

- not to injure life
- not to lie
- not to steal
- not to acquire property
- not to lead immoral life.

Both the clergy and laymen had to strictly follow the doctrine of *ahimsa*. Mahavira regarded all objects, both animate and inanimate, have souls and various degrees of consciousness. They possess life and feel pain when they are injured. Mahavira rejected the authority of the Vedas and objected to the Vedic rituals. He advocated a very holy and ethical code of life. Even the practice of agriculture was considered sinful as it causes injury to the earth, worms and animals. Similarly the doctrine of asceticism and renunciation was also carried to extreme lengths by the practice of starvation, nudity and other forms of self-torture.

Spread of Jainism

Mahavira organised the *Sangha* to spread his teachings. He admitted both men and women in the *Sangha*, which consisted of both monks and lay followers. The rapid spread of Jainism was due to the dedicated work of the members of the *Sangha*. It spread rapidly in Western India and Karnataka. Chandragupta Maurya, Kharavela of Kalinga and the royal dynasties of south India such as the Gangas, the Kadambas, the Chalukyas and the Rashtrakutas patronized Jainism.

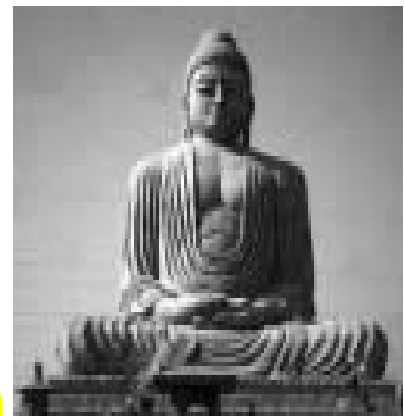
By the end of the fourth century B.C., there was a serious famine in the Ganges valley. Many Jain monks led by Bhadrabagu and Chandragupta Maurya came to Sravana Belgola in Karnataka. Those who stayed back in north India were led by a monk named Sthulabahu who changed the code of conduct for the monks. This led to the division of Jainism into two sects *Svetambaras* (white-clad) and *Digambaras* (Sky-clad or Naked).

The first Jain Council was convened at Pataliputra by Sthulabahu, the leader of the Digambaras, in the beginning of the 3rd century B.C. The second Jain Council was held at Valabhi in 5th century A.D. The final compilation of Jain literature called Twelve Angas was completed in this council.

Buddhism

Life of Gautama Buddha (567- 487 B.C.)

Gautama or Siddhartha, the founder of Buddhism, was born in 567 B.C. in Lumbini Garden near Kapilavastu. His father was Suddodhana of the Sakya clan and mother Mayadevi. As his mother died at child birth, he was brought up by his aunt *Prajapati Gautami*. At the age of sixteen he married



GAUTAMA BUDDHA

Yasodhara and gave birth to a son, Rahula. The sight of an old man, a diseased man, a corpse and an ascetic turned him away from worldly life. He left home at the age of twenty nine in search of Truth. He wandered for seven years and met several teachers but could not get enlightenment. At last, he sat under a *bodhi* tree at Bodh Gaya and did intense penance, after which he got Enlightenment (Nirvana) at the age of thirty five. Since then he became known as the *Buddha* or 'the Enlightened One'. He delivered his first sermon at Sarnath near Benares and for the next forty five years he led the life of a preacher. He died at the age of eighty at Kusinagara.

The most important disciples of Buddha were Sariputta, Moggallanna, Ananda, Kassapa and Upali. Kings like Prasenajit of Kosala and Bimbisara and Ajatasatru of Magadha accepted his doctrines and became his disciples. Buddha in his lifetime spread his message far and wide in north India and visited places like Benares, Rajagriha, Sravasti, Vaisali, Nalanda and Pataligrama. It should be noted that he did not involve himself in fruitless controversies regarding metaphysical questions like god, soul, karma, rebirth, etc., and concerned himself with the practical problems confronting man.

Teachings of Buddha

The Four Noble Truths of Buddha are:

- The world is full of suffering.
- The cause of suffering is desire.
- If desires are get rid off, suffering can be removed.
- This can be done by following the Eightfold Path.

The Eightfold Path consists of right view, right resolve, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right effort, right mindfulness

and right concentration. Buddha neither accepts god nor rejects the existence of god. He laid great emphasis on the law of karma. He argued that the condition of man in this life depends upon his own deeds. He taught that the soul does not exist. However, he emphasized Ahimsa. By his love for human beings and all living creatures, he endeared himself to all. Even under the gravest provocation he did not show the least anger or hatred and instead conquered everyone by his love and compassion. His religion was identical with morality and it emphasized purity of thought, word and deed. He was a rationalist who tried to explain things in the light of reason and not on the basis of blind faith. Though he did not make a direct attack on the caste system, he was against any social distinctions and threw open his order to all. Therefore, Buddhism was more a social than religious revolution. It taught the code of practical ethics and laid down the principle of social equality.

Spread of Buddhism

Buddha had two kinds of disciples – monks (bhikshus) and lay worshippers (upasikas). The monks were organized into the *Sangha* for the purpose of spreading his teachings. The membership was open to all persons, male or female and without any caste restrictions. There was a special code for nuns restricting their residence and movement. Sariputta, Moggallana and Ananda were some of the famous monks. The *Sangha* was governed on democratic lines and was empowered to enforce discipline among its members. Owing to the organised efforts made by the *Sangha*, Buddhism made rapid progress in North India even during Buddha's life time. Magadha, Kosala, Kausambi and several republican states of North India embraced this religion. About two hundred years after the death of Buddha, the famous Mauryan Emperor Asoka embraced Buddhism. Through his missionary effort Asoka spread Buddhism into West Asia and Ceylon. Thus a local religious sect was transformed into a world religion.

Buddhist Councils

The first Buddhist Council was held at Rajagraha under the chairmanship of Mahakasapa immediately after the death of Buddha. Its purpose was to maintain the purity of the teachings of the Buddha. The second Buddhist Council was convened at Vaisali around 383 B.C. The third Buddhist Council was held at Pataliputra under the patronage of Asoka. Moggaliputta Tissa presided over it. The final version of Tripitakas was completed in this council. The fourth Buddhist Council was convened in Kashmir by Kanishka under the chairmanship of Vasumitra. Asvagosha participated in this council. The new school of Buddhism called Mahayana Buddhism came into existence during this council. The Buddhism preached by the Buddha and propagated by Asoka was known as *Hinayana*.

The Buddhist texts were collected and compiled some five hundred years after the death of the Buddha. They are known as the *Tripitakas*, namely the *Sutta*, the *Vinaya* and the *Abhidhamma Pitakas*. They are written in the Pali language.

Causes for the Decline of Buddhism in India

The revival of Brahmanism and the rise of Bhagavatism led to the fall of popularity of Buddhism. The use of Pali, the language of the masses as the language of Buddhism was given up from the 1st century A.D. The Buddhists began to adopt Sanskrit, the language of the elite. After the birth of Mahayana Buddhism, the practice of idol worship and making offerings led to the deterioration of moral standards. Moreover, the attack of the Huns in 5th and 6th centuries and the Turkish invaders in 12th century destroyed the monasteries. All these factors contributed to the decline of Buddhism in India.

Contribution of Buddhism to Indian Culture

Buddhism has made a remarkable contribution to the development of Indian culture.

- The concept of ahimsa was its chief contribution. Later, it became one of the cherished values of our nation.
- Its contribution to the art and architecture of India was notable. The stupas at Sanchi, Bharhut and Gaya are wonderful pieces of architecture. Buddhism takes the credit for the chaityas and viharas in different parts of India.
- It promoted education through residential universities like those at Taxila, Nalanda and Vikramasila.
- The language of Pali and other local languages developed through the teachings of Buddhism.
- It had also promoted the spread of Indian culture to other parts of Asia.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The religious and other causes for the rise of Buddhism and Jainism.*
- 2. Early life of Mahavira and his principles of Triratna.*
- 3. Early life of Gautama Buddha and his important principles like the four truths and eightfold path.*
- 4. The patrons of Buddhism and the formation of the Sangha as well as the spread of Buddhism.*
- 5. Causes for the decline of Buddhism in India and its contribution to Indian culture.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Vardhamana Mahavira was born at
(a) Kapilavastu (b) Pataliputra
(c) **Kundagrama** (d) Kusumapura
2. The *Tripitakas* are written in the language of
(a) Sanskrit (b) Prakrit
(c) **Pali** (d) Hindi

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The first Jain Council was convened at by
2. The final compilation of Jain literature was called
3. The Buddhism preached by Asoka was known as

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. First Buddhist Council | a) Vaisali |
| 2. Second Buddhist Council | b) Kashmir |
| 3. Third Buddhist Council | c) Rajagriha |
| 4. Fourth Buddhist Council | d) Pataliputra |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

1. The Four Noble Truths were the teachings of Mahavira.
2. The adoption of Pali language led to the decline of Buddhism.
3. Idol worship was followed by the followers of Mahayana Buddhism.

4. Buddha involved himself into controversial philosophical arguments.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Buddha neither accepts nor rejects the existence of God.
2. Mahavira asked his followers to strictly observe four great vows.
3. The first Buddhist Council was convened by Kanishka at Kashmir.
4. Buddhism contributed to the spread of Indian culture to other parts of the world.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Triratnas
2. Split in Jainism
3. Tripitakas
4. Third Buddhist Council

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the spread of Jainism in various parts India.
2. Account for the decline of Buddhism in India.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Sketch the life and teachings of Mahavira.
2. Give a brief account of the life and teachings of Buddha.
3. How did Buddhism become a world religion?

LESSON 5

THE RISE OF MAGADHA AND ALEXANDER'S INVASION

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The rise of Magatha under the Haryanka, Saisunaga and Nanda dynasties.*
- 2. The achievements of Bimbisara and Ajatasatru.*
- 3. The Persian invasions and their impact.*
- 4. Causes and course of Alexander's invasion.*
- 5. Effects of Alexander's invasion.*

In the beginning of the 6th century B.C., the northern India consisted of a large number of independent kingdoms. Some of them had monarchical forms of government, while some others were republics. While there was a concentration of monarchies on the Gangetic plain, the republics were scattered in the foothills of the Himalayas and in northwestern India. Some of the republics consisted of only one tribe like the Sakyas, Licchavis and Mallas. In the republics, the power of decision in all matters of state vested with the Public Assembly which was composed of the tribal representatives or heads of families. All decisions were by a majority vote.

The Buddhist literature Anguttara Nikaya gives a list of sixteen great kingdoms called 'Sixteen Mahajanapadas'. They were Anga, Magadha, Kasi, Kosala, Vajji, Malla, Chedi, Vatsa, Kuru, Panchala, Matsya, Surasena, Asmaka, Avanti, Gandhara and Kambhoja. The

Jain texts also contain references to the existence of sixteen kingdoms. In course of time, the small and weak kingdoms either submitted to the stronger rulers or gradually got eliminated. Finally in the mid 6th century B.C., only four kingdoms – Vatsa, Avanti, Kosala and Magadha survived.

Vatsa

The Vatsa kingdom was situated on the banks of the river Yamuna. Its capital was Kausambi near modern Allahabad. Its most popular ruler was Udayana. He strengthened his position by entering into matrimonial alliances with Avanti, Anga and Magadha. After his death, Vatsa was annexed to the Avanti kingdom.

Avanti

The capital of Avanti was Ujjain. The most important ruler of this kingdom was Pradyota. He became powerful by marrying Vasavadatta, the daughter of Udayana. He patronized Buddhism. The successors of Pradyota were weak and later this kingdom was taken over by the rulers of Magadha.

Kosala

Ayodhya was the capital of Kosala. King Prasenajit was its famous ruler. He was highly educated. His position was further strengthened by the matrimonial alliance with Magadha. His sister was married to Bimbisara and Kasi was given to her as dowry. Subsequently there was a dispute with Ajatasatru. After the end of the conflict, Prasenajit married the daughter of Bimbisara. After the death of this powerful king, Kosala became part of the Magadha.

Magadha

Of all the kingdoms of north India, Magadha emerged powerful and prosperous. It became the nerve centre of political activity in north India. Magadha was endowed by nature with certain geographical and strategic advantages. These made her to rise to imperial greatness. Her strategic position between the upper and lower part of the Gangetic valley was a great advantage. It had a fertile soil. The iron ores in the hills near Rajgir and copper and iron deposits near Gaya added to its natural assets. Her location at the centre of the highways of trade of those days contributed to her wealth. Rajagriha was the capital of Magadha. During the reign of Bimbisara and Ajatasatru, the prosperity of Magadha reached its zenith.

Bimbisara (546 - 494 B.C.)

Bimbisara belonged to the Haryanka dynasty. He consolidated his position by matrimonial alliances. His first matrimonial alliance was with the ruling family of Kosala. He married Kosaladevi, sister of Prasenajit. He was given the Kasi region as dowry which yielded large revenue. Bimbisara married Chellana, a princess of the Licchavi family of Vaisali. This matrimonial alliance secured for him the safety of the northern frontier. Moreover, it facilitated the expansion of Magadha northwards to the borders of Nepal. He also married Khema of the royal house of Madra in central Punjab. Bimbisara also undertook many expeditions and added more territories to his empire. He defeated Brahmadatta of Anga and annexed that kingdom. He maintained friendly relations with Avanti. He had also efficiently reorganized the administration of his kingdom.

Bimbisara was a contemporary of both Vardhamana Mahavira and Gautama Buddha. However, both religions claim him as their supporter and devotee. He seems to have made numerous gifts to the Buddhist Sangha.

Ajatasatru (494 - 462 B.C.)

The reign of Ajatasatru was remarkable for his military conquests. He fought against Kosala and Vaisali. He won a great success against a formidable confederacy led by the Lichchavis of Vaisali. This had increased his power and prestige. This war lasted for about sixteen years. It was at this time that Ajatasatru realised the strategic importance of the small village, Pataligrama (future Pataliputra). He fortified it to serve as a convenient base of operations against Vaisali.

Buddhists and Jains both claim that Ajatasatru was a follower of their religion. But it is generally believed that in the beginning he was a follower of Jainism and subsequently embraced Buddhism. He is said to have met Gautama Buddha. This scene is also depicted in the sculptures of Barhut. According to the Mahavamsa, he constructed several chaityas and viharas. He was also instrumental in convening the First Buddhist Council at Rajagriha soon after the death of the Buddha.

The immediate successor of Ajatasatru was Udayin. He laid the foundation of the new capital at Pataliputra situated at the confluence of the two rivers, the Ganges and the Son. Later it became famous as the imperial capital of the Mauryas. Udayin's successors were weak rulers and hence Magadha was captured by Saisunaga. Thus the Haryanka dynasty came to an end and the Saisunaga dynasty came to power.

Saisunaga dynasty

The genealogy and chronology of the Saisunagas are not clear. Saisunaga defeated the king of Avanti which was made part of the Magadhan Empire. After Saisunaga, the mighty empire began to collapse. His successor was Kakavarman or Kalasoka. During his reign the second Buddhist Council was held at Vaisali. Kalasoka was killed by the founder of the Nanda dynasty.

Nandas

The fame of Magadha scaled new heights under the Nanda dynasty. Their conquests went beyond the boundaries of the Gangetic basin and in North India they carved a well-knit and vast empire.

Mahapadma Nanda was a powerful ruler of the Nanda dynasty. He uprooted the *kshatriya* dynasties in north India and assumed the title *ekarat*. The Puranas speak of the extensive conquests made by Mahapadma. The Hathigumpha inscription of Kharavela of Kalinga refers to the conquest of Kalinga by the Nandas. Many historians believe that a considerable portion of the Deccan was also under the control of the Nandas. Therefore, Mahapadma Nanda may be regarded as a great empire builder.

According to the Buddhist tradition, Mahapadma Nanda ruled about ten years. He was succeeded by his eight sons, who ruled successively. The last Nanda ruler was Dhana Nanda. He kept the Magadhan empire intact and possessed a powerful army and enormous wealth. The fabulous wealth of the Nandas is also mentioned by several sources. The enormous wealth of the Nandas is also referred to in the Tamil Sangam work *Ahananuru* by the poet Mamulanar. The flourishing state of agriculture in the Nanda dominions and the general prosperity of the country must have brought to the royal treasury enormous revenue. The oppressive way of tax collection by Dhana Nanda was resented by the people. Taking advantage of this, Chandragupta Maurya and Kautilya initiated a popular movement against the Nanda rule. It was during this time that Alexander invaded India.

PERSIAN AND GREEK INVASIONS

Persian Invasions

Cyrus (558 – 530 B.C)

Cyrus the Great was the greatest conqueror of the Achaemenian Empire. He was the first conqueror who led an expedition and entered into India. He captured the Gandhara region. All Indian tribes to the west of the Indus river submitted to him and paid tribute. His son Cambyses had no time to pay attention towards India.

Darius I (522 – 486 B.C.)

Darius I, the grandson of Cyrus, conquered the Indus valley in 518 B.C. and annexed the Punjab and Sindh. This region became the 20th Satrapy of his empire. It was the most fertile and populous province of the Achaemenian Empire. Darius sent a naval expedition under Skylas to explore the Indus.

Xerxes (465-456 B.C.)

Xerxes utilized his Indian province to strengthen his position. He deployed Indian infantry and cavalry to Greece to fight his opponents. But they retreated after Xerxes faced a defeat in Greece. After this failure, the Achaemenians could not follow a forward policy in India. However, the Indian province was still under their control. Darius III enlisted Indian soldiers to fight against Alexander in 330 B.C. It is evident that the control of Persians slackened on the eve of Alexander's invasion of India.

Effects of the Persian Invasion

The Persian invasion provided an impetus to the growth of Indo-Iranian commerce. Also, it prepared the ground for Alexander's invasion. The use of the Kharoshti script, a form of Iranian writing became popular in northwestern India and some of

Asoka's edicts were written in that script. We are able to see the influence of Persian art on the art of the Mauryas, particularly the monolithic pillars of Asoka and the sculptures found on them. The very idea of issuing edicts by Asoka and the wording used in the edicts are traced to Iranian influence. In short, the Iranian connection with India proved more fruitful than the short-lived Indo-Macedonian contact.

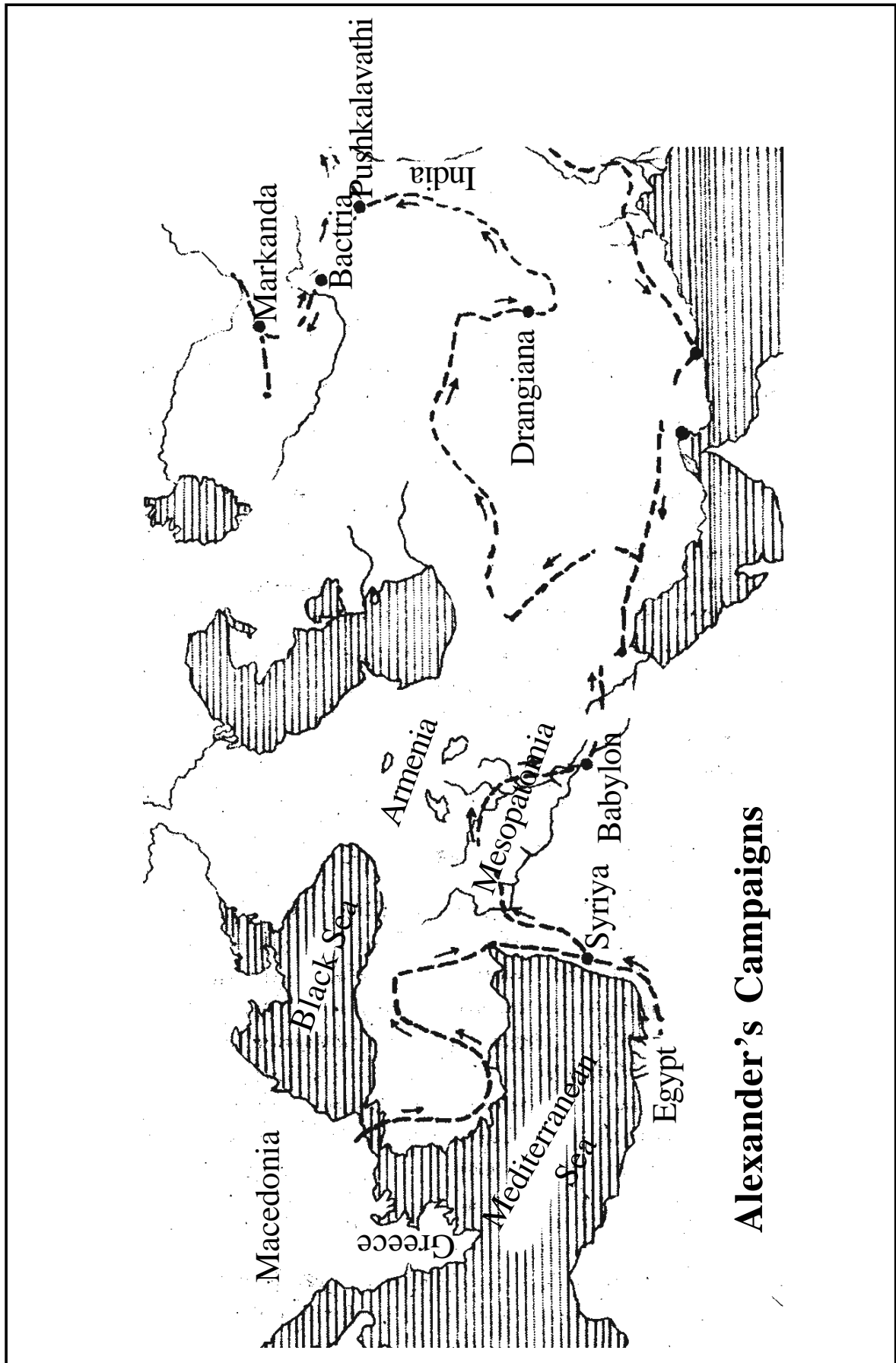
Alexander's Invasion of India (327-325 B.C.)

Political Condition on the eve of Alexander's Invasion

After two centuries of the Persian invasion, Alexander from Macedonia invaded India. On the eve of his invasion, there were a number of small kingdoms in northwestern India. The leading kings were Ambhi of Taxila, the ruler of Abhisara and Porus who ruled the region between the rivers of Jhelum and Chenab. There were many republican states like Nysa. In short, the northwestern India remained the most disunited part of India and the rulers were fighting with one another. They never come together against common enemy. Yet, it was not easy for Alexander to overcome so many sources of opposition.

Causes of the Invasion

Alexander ascended the throne of Macedonia after the death of his father Philip in 334 B.C. He conquered the whole of Persia by defeating Darius III in the battle of Arbela in 330 B.C. He also aimed at further conquest eastwards and wanted to recover the lost Persian Satrapy of India. The writings of Greek authors like Herodotus about the fabulous wealth of India attracted Alexander. Moreover, his interest in geographical enquiry and love of natural history urged him to undertake an invasion of India. He believed that on the eastern side of India there was the continuation of the sea, according the geographical knowledge of his period. So, he



Alexander's Campaigns

thought that by conquering India, he would also conquer the eastern boundary of the world.

Battle of Hydaspes

In 327 B.C. Alexander crossed the Hindukush Mountains and spent nearly ten months in fighting with the tribes. He crossed the Indus in February 326 B.C. with the help of the bridge of boats. He was warmly received by Ambhi, the ruler of Taxila. From there Alexander sent a message to Porus to submit. But Porus refused and decided to fight against Alexander. Then Alexander marched from Taxila to the banks of the river Hydaspes (Jhelum). On the other side of the river he saw the vast army of Porus. As there were heavy floods in the river, Alexander was not able to cross it. After a few days, he crossed the river and the famous battle of Hydaspes was fought on the plains of Karri. It was a well-contested battle. Although Porus had a strong army, he lost the battle. Alexander was impressed by the courage and heroism of this Indian prince, treated him generously and reinstated him on his throne.

Alexander continued his march as far as the river Beas encountering opposition from the local tribes. He wanted to proceed still further eastwards towards the Gangetic valley. But he could not do so because his soldiers refused to fight. Hardships of prolonged warfare made them tired and they wanted to return home. Alexander could not persuade them and therefore decided to return. He made arrangements to look after his conquered territories in India. He divided the whole territory from the Indus to the Beas into three provinces and put them under his governors. His retreat began in October 326 B.C. and the return journey was not free from ordeals. Many republican tribes attacked his army. Anyhow he managed to reach beyond the Indus. On his way he reached Babylon where he fell seriously ill and died in 323 B.C.

Effects of Alexander's invasion

The immediate effect of Alexander's invasion was that it encouraged political unification of north India under the Mauryas. The system of small independent states came to an end. Alexander's invasion had also paved the way for direct contact **between India and Greece**. The routes opened by him and his naval explorations increased the existing facilities for trade between India and West Asia. However, his aim of annexing the northwestern India to his empire was not fulfilled due his premature death. His authority in the Indus valley was a short-lived one because of the expansion of Mauryan Empire under Chandragupta Maurya.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The rise of Magatha and the different dynasties ruled over it.*
- 2. The achievements of Bimbisara, Mahapadma Nanda and other kings.*
- 3. Persian invasions and their occupation of northwest India.*
- 4. Effects of Persian invasion and occupation.*
- 5. Causes and course of Alexander's invasion of India.*
- 6. Effects of Alexander's invasion.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The capital of Magadha was
 - (a) Rajagriha
 - (b) Ujjain
 - (c) Kosala
 - (d) Kausambi
2. Nanda dynasty was preceded by
 - (a) Mauryas
 - (b) Sisunagas
 - (c) Haryankas
 - (d) Guptas

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Ajatasatru belonged to dynasty.
2. The last ruler of Nanda dynasty was
3. The second Buddhist Council was held at
4. Alexander died at in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------|------------|
| 1. Udayana | a) Kosala |
| 2. Pradyota | b) Avanti |
| 3. Prasenajit | c) Magadha |
| 4. Bimbisara | d) Vatsa |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Alexander defeated Porus and annexed his kingdom.
- b) Alexander defeated Porus and treated him generously.
- c) Alexander could not win the army of Porus.
- d) Alexander defeated Ambhi of Taxila with the help of Porus.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

1. Xerxes was the first Greek conqueror to enter into India.
2. The battle of Hydaspes was fought on the Karri plain.
3. Alexander annexed some portions of Gangetic valley before his departure.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Sixteen Mahajanapadas.
2. Cyrus
3. Battle of Hydaspes.
4. Effects of Alexander's invasion.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write briefly the achievements of Bimbisara.
2. Assess the impact of Persian invasions on India.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Describe the rise of Magadha and the achievements of its rulers.
2. Give an account of Alexander's invasion of India.

LESSON 6

THE MAURYAN EMPIRE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The sources for the study of the Mauryas.*
- 2. Chandragupta Maurya and his achievements.*
- 3. Asoka and his achievements and the spread of Asoka's Dhamma.*
- 4. The salient features of the Mauryan administration.*
- 5. Art and architecture of the Mauryas.*
- 6. Causes for the decline of the Mauryan empire.*

The foundation of the Mauryan Empire opens a new era in the history of India. For the first time, the political unity was achieved in India. Moreover, the history writing has also become clear from this period due to accuracy in chronology and sources. Besides plenty of indigenous and foreign literary sources, a number of epigraphical records are also available to write the history of this period.

Literary Sources

Kautilya's Arthashastra

This book in Sanskrit was written by Kautilya, a contemporary of Chandragupta Maurya. Kautilya was also called 'Indian Machiavelli'. The manuscript of Arthashastra was first discovered by R. Shama Sastri in 1904. The Arthashastra contains 15 books

and 180 chapters but it can be divided into three parts: the first deals with the king and his council and the departments of government; the second with civil and criminal law; and the third with diplomacy and war. It is the most important literary source for the history of the Mauryas.

Visakadatta's Mudrarakshasa

The Mudrarakshasa written by Visakadatta is a drama in Sanskrit. Although written during the Gupta period, it describes how Chandragupta with the assistance of Kautilya overthrew the Nandas. It also gives a picture on the socio-economic condition under the Mauryas.

Megasthenes' Indica

Megasthenes was the Greek ambassador in the court of Chandragupta Maurya. His book Indica has survived only in fragments. Yet, his account gives details about the Mauryan administration, particularly the administration of the capital city of Pataliputra and also the military organization. His picture on contemporary social life is notable. Certain unbelievable information provided by him has to be treated with caution.

Other Literature

Apart from these three important works, the Puranas and the Buddhist literature such as Jatakas provide information on the Mauryas. The Ceylonese Chronicles Dipavamsa and Mahavamsa throw light on the role Asoka in spreading Buddhism in Sri Lanka.

Archaeological Sources

Edicts of Asoka

The inscriptions of Asoka were first deciphered by James Prinsep in 1837. They are written in Pali language and in some

places Prakrit was used. The Brahmi script was employed for writing. In the northwestern India Asokan inscriptions were found in Karoshti script. There are fourteen Major Rock Edicts. The two Kalinga Edicts are found in the newly conquered territory. The major pillar Edicts were erected in important cities. There are minor Rock Edicts and minor pillar Edicts. These Edicts of Asoka deal with Asoka's Dhamma and also instructions given to his officials. The XIII Rock Edict gives details about his war with Kalinga. The Pillar Edict VII gives a summary of his efforts to promote the Dhamma within his kingdom. Thus the Asokan inscriptions remain valuable sources for the study of Asoka and the Mauryan Empire.

POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE MAURYAS

Chandragupta Maurya (322 – 298 B.C.)

Chandragupta Maurya was the founder of the Mauryan Empire. He, at the young age of 25, captured Pataliputra from the last ruler of the Nanda dynasty, Dhanananda. In this task he was assisted by Kautilya, who was also known as Chanakya or Vishnugupta. After firmly establishing his power in the Gangetic valley, he marched to the northwest and subdued the territories up to the Indus. Then he moved to central India and occupied the region north of Narmada river.

In 305 B.C., he marched against Selukas Niketar, who was Alexander's General controlling the northwestern India. Chandragupta Maurya defeated him and a treaty was signed. By this treaty, Selukas Niketar ceded the trans-Indus territories – namely Aria, Arakosia and Gedrosia – to the Mauryan Empire. He also gave his daughter in marriage to the Mauryan prince. Chandragupta made a gift of 500 elephants to Selukas. Megasthenes was sent to the Mauryan court as Greek ambassador.

Chandragupta embraced Jainism towards the end of his life and stepped down from the throne in favour of his son Bindusara. Then he went to Sravana Belgola, near Mysore along with Jain monks led by Bhadrabhagu and starved himself to death.

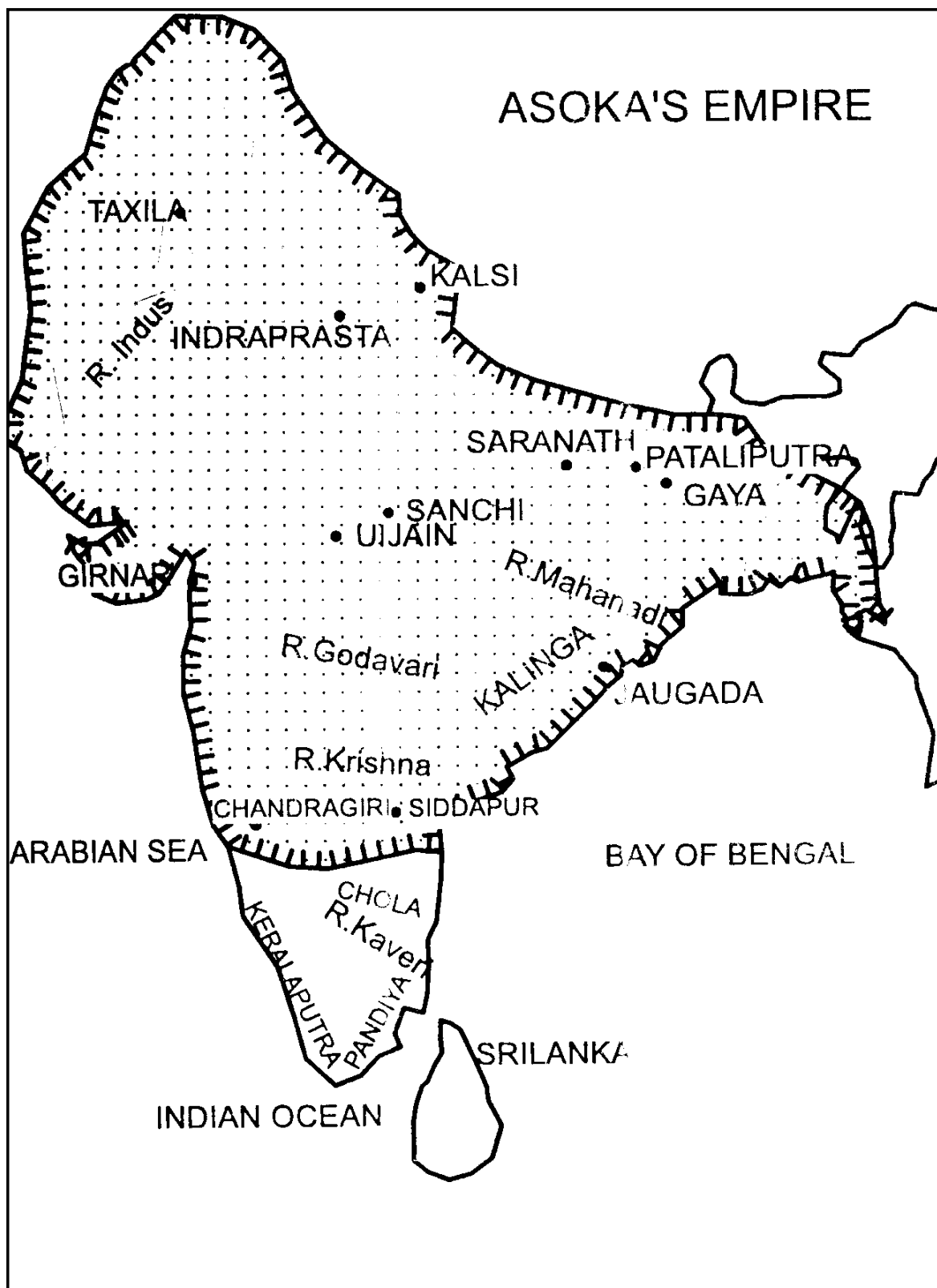
Bindusara (298 – 273 B.C.)

Bindusara was called by the Greeks as “Amitragatha” meaning slayer of enemies. He is said to have conquered the Deccan up to Mysore. Taranatha, the Tibetan monk states that Bindusara conquered 16 states comprising ‘the land between the two seas’. The Sangam Tamil literature also confirms the Mauryan invasion of the far south. Therefore, it can be said that the Mauryan Empire under Bindusara extended up to Mysore.

Bindusara received Deimachus as ambassador from the Syrian king Antiochus I. Bindusara wrote to Antiochus I asking for sweet wine, dried figs and a sophist. The latter sent all but a sophist because the Greek law prohibited sending a sophist. Bindusara supported the Ajivikas, a religious sect. Bindusara appointed his son Asoka as the governor of Ujjain.

Asoka the Great (273 – 232 B.C.)

There is little information regarding the early life of Asoka. He acted as Governor of Ujjain and also suppressed a revolt in Taxila during his father Bindusara’s reign. There was an interval of four years between Asoka’s accession to the throne (273 B.C.) and his actual coronation (269 B.C.). Therefore, it appears from the available evidence that there was a struggle for the throne after Bindusara’s death. The Ceylonese Chronicles, Dipavamsa and Mahavamsa state that Asoka captured power after killing his ninety nine brothers including the his elder brother Susima. The youngest brother Tissa was spared. But according to Taranatha of Tibet, Asoka killed only six of his brothers. Asoka’s Edict also refers to



his brothers acting as officers in his administration. However, it is clear that the succession of Asoka was a disputed one.

The most important event of Asoka's reign was his victorious war with Kalinga in 261 B.C. Although there is no detail about the cause and course of the war, the effects of the war were described by Asoka himself in the Rock edict XIII: "A hundred and fifty thousand were killed and many times that number perished..." After the war he annexed Kalinga to the Mauryan Empire. Another most important effect of the Kalinga war was that Asoka embraced Buddhism under the influence of Buddhist monk, Upagupta.

Asoka and Buddhism

According some scholars, his conversion to Buddhism was gradual and not immediate. About 261 B.C. Asoka became a Sakya Upasaka (lay dsicple) and two and a half years later, a Bikshu (monk). Then he gave up hunting, visited Bodh-Gaya, and organized missions. He appointed special officers called Dharma Mahamatras to speed up the progress of Dhamma. In 241 B.C., he visited the birth place of Buddha, the Lumbini Garden, near Kapilavastu. He also visited other holy places of Buddhism like Sarnath, Sravasti and Kusinagara. He sent a mission to Sri Lanka under his son Mahendra and daughter Sangamitra who planted there the branch of the original Bodhi tree. Asoka convened the Third Buddhist Council at Pataliputra in 240 B.C. in order to strengthen the *Sangha*. It was presided over by Moggaliputta Tissa.

Extent of Asoka's Empire

Asoka's inscriptions mention the southernmost kingdoms – Cholas, Pandyas, Satyaputras and Keralaputras – as border-states. Therefore these states remained outside the Mauryan Empire. According to Rajatarangini, Kashmir was a part of the Mauryan Empire. Nepal was also within the Mauryan empire. The

northwestern frontier was already demarcated by Chandragupta Maurya.

Asoka's Dhamma

Although Asoka embraced Buddhism and took efforts to spread Buddhism, his policy of Dhamma was a still broad concept. It was a way of life, a code of conduct and a set of principles to be adopted and practiced by the people at large. His principles of Dhamma were clearly stated in his Edicts. The main features of Asoka's Dhamma as mentioned in his various Edicts may be summed as follows:

1. Service to father and mother, practice of ahimsa, love of truth, reverence to teachers and good treatment of relatives.
2. Prohibition of animal sacrifices and festive gatherings and avoiding expensive and meaningless ceremonies and rituals.
3. Efficient organization of administration in the direction of social welfare and maintenance of constant contact with people through the system of Dhammayatras.
4. Humane treatment of servants by masters and prisoners by government officials.
5. Consideration and non-violence to animals and courtesy to relations and liberality to Brahmins.
6. Tolerance among all the religious sects.
7. Conquest through Dhamma instead of through war.

The concept of non-violence and other similar ideas of Asoka's Dhamma are identical with the teachings of Buddha. But he did not equate Dhamma with Buddhist teachings. Buddhism remained his personal belief. His Dhamma signifies a general code of conduct. Asoka wished that his Dhamma should spread through all social levels.

Estimate of Asoka

Asoka was “the greatest of kings” surpassing Alexander the Great and Julius Caesar and other renowned Emperors of the world. According to H.G. Wells “Amidst the tens and thousands of names of monarchs that crowd the columns of history, the name of Asoka shines and shines almost alone, a star”. Asoka was true to his ideals. He was not a dreamer but a man of practical genius. His Dhamma is so universal that it appeals to humanity even today. He was an example in history for his benevolent administration and also for following the policy of non-aggression even after his victory in the war. His central ideal was to promote the welfare of humanity.

Later Mauryas

Asoka’s death in 232 B.C. was followed by the division of the Mauryan Empire into two parts – western and eastern. The western part was ruled by Kunala, son of Asoka and the eastern part by Dasaratha, one of the grand sons of Asoka. Due to the Bactrian invasions, the western part of the empire collapsed. The eastern part was intact under Samprati successor of Dasaratha. The last Mauryan king was Brihatratha, who was assassinated by Pushyamitra Sunga.

Mauryan Administration

Central Government

The ascendancy of the Mauryas had resulted in the triumph of monarchy in India. Other systems like republics and oligarchies that were prevalent in the pre-Mauryan India had collapsed. Although Kautilya the foremost political theorist of ancient India supported the monarchical form of government, he did not stand for royal absolutism. He advocated that the king should take the advice of his ministry in running the administration. Therefore, a council of ministers called Mantriparishad assisted the king in administrative

matters. It consisted of Purohita, Mahamantri, Senapati and Yuvaraja. There were civil servants called Amatyas to look after the day-to-day administration. These officers were similar to the IAS officers of independent India. The method of selection of Amatyas was elaborately given by Kautilya. Asoka appointed Dhamma Mahamatras to supervise the spread of Dhamma. Thus the Mauryan state had a well organized civil service.

Revenue Department

Samharta, the chief of the Revenue Department, was in charge of the collection of all revenues of the empire. The revenues came from land, irrigation, customs, shop tax, ferry tax, forests, mines and pastures, license fee from craftsmen, and fines collected in the law courts. The land revenue was normally fixed as one sixth of the produce. The main items of expenditure of the state related to king and his household, army, government servants, public works, poor relief, religion, etc.

Army

The Mauryan army was well organized and it was under the control of Senapati. The salaries were paid in cash. Kautilya refers to the salaries of different ranks of military officers. According to Greek author Pliny, the Mauryan army consisted of six lakh infantry, thirty thousand cavalry, nine thousand elephants and eight thousand chariots. In addition to these four wings, there were the Navy and Transport and Supply wings. Each wing was under the control of Adyakshas or Superintendents. Megasthenes mentions six boards of five members each to control the six wings of the military.

Department of Commerce and Industry

This department had controlled the retail and wholesale prices of goods and tried to ensure their steady supply through its officers called Adyakshas. It also controlled weights and measures, levied custom duties and regulated foreign trade.

Judicial and Police Departments

Kautilya mentions the existence of both civil and criminal courts. The chief justice of the Supreme Court at the capital was called Dharmathikarin. There were also subordinate courts at the provincial capitals and districts under Amatyas. Different kinds of punishment such as fines, imprisonment, mutilation and death were given to the offenders. Torture was employed to extract truth. Police stations were found in all principal centres. Both Kautilya and Asoka's Edicts mention about jails and jail officials. The Dhamma Mahamatras were asked by Asoka to take steps against unjust imprisonment. Remission of sentences is also mentioned in Asoka's inscriptions.

Census

The taking of Census was regular during the Mauryan period. The village officials were to number the people along with other details like their caste and occupation. They were also to count the animals in each house. The census in the towns was taken by municipal officials to track the movement of population both foreign and indigenous. The data collected were cross checked by the spies. The Census appears to be a permanent institution in the Mauryan administration.

Provincial and Local Administration

The Mauryan Empire was divided into four provinces with their capitals at Taxila, Ujjain, Suvarnagiri and Kalinga. The provincial governors were mostly appointed from the members of royal family. They were responsible for the maintenance of law and order and collection of taxes for the empire. The district administration was under the charge of Rajukas, whose position and functions are similar to modern collectors. He was assisted by Yuktas or subordinate officials. Village administration was in the

hands of Gramani and his official superior was called Gopa who was in charge of ten or fifteen villages.

Both Kautilya and Megasthenes provided the system of Municipal administration. Arthasastra contains a full chapter on the role of Nagarika or city superintendent. His chief duty was to maintain law and order. Megasthenes refers to the six committees of five members each to look after the administration of Pataliputra. These committees looked after: 1. Industries 2. Foreigners 3. Registration of birth and deaths 4. Trade 5. Manufacture and sale of goods 6. Collection of sales tax.

Mauryan Art and Architecture

The monuments before the period of Asoka were mostly made of wood and therefore perished. The use of stone started from the time of Asoka. Even of the numerous monuments of Asoka, only a few have remained. His palace and monasteries and most of his stupas have disappeared. The only remaining stupa is at Sanchi. The artistic remains of the Mauryan period can be seen in the following heads:

Pillars

The pillars erected by Asoka furnish the finest specimen of the Mauryan art. Asokan pillars with inscriptions were found in places like Delhi, Allahabad, Rummindei, Sanchi and Saranath. Their tops were crowned with figures of animals like lion, elephant and bull. The Saranath pillar with four lions standing back to back is the most magnificent. The Indian government adopted this capital with some modifications as its state emblem.



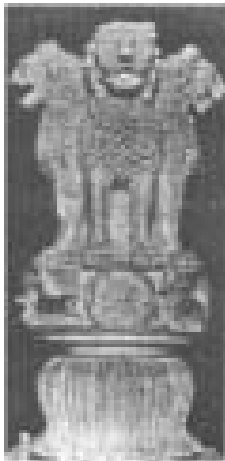
Saranath Pillar

Stupas

Asoka built a number of stupas throughout his empire but majority of them were destroyed during foreign invasions. Only a few have survived. The best example is the famous Sanchi stupa with massive dimensions. It was originally built with bricks but later enlarged after the time of Asoka.



SANCHI STUPA



Four Lions

Caves

The caves presented to the Ajivikas by Asoka and his son Dasaratha remain important heritage of the Mauryas. Their interior walls are polished like mirror. These were meant to be residences of monks. The caves at Barabar hills near Bodh Gaya are wonderful pieces of Mauryan architecture.

Causes for the Decline of the Mauryas

The causes for the decline of the Mauryan empire have been widely debated by scholars. The traditional approach attributes the decline to Asoka's policies and his weak successors. Another approach holds the inadequate political and economic institutions to sustain such a vast empire.

It was said that Asoka's pro-Buddhist policies antagonized the Brahmins who brought about a revolution led by Pushyamitra Sunga. But Asoka was never acted against Brahmins. That Asoka's policy of non-violence reduced the fighting spirit of his army was another charge against him. But Asoka had never slackened his control over his empire despite following a pacifist policy. Therefore

solely blaming Asoka for the decline of the Mauryan empire may not be correct because Asoka was more a pragmatist than an idealist.

There are multiple causes for the decline of the Mauryan empire such as weak successors, partition of empire and administrative abuses after Asoka's reign. The combination of these factors speeded up the breakup of the Mauryan empire and facilitated Pushyamitra Sunga to drive away the Mauryan power and establish the Sunga dynasty.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The literary and epigraphical sources for the study of the Mauryas.*
- 2. The accession of Chandragupta Maurya and his achievements.*
- 3. Bindusara's military achievements.*
- 4. Asoka's spread of Dhamma through various means such as issuing Edicts and appointing officers like Dhamma Mahamatras.*
- 5. The salient features of the Mauryan art such as pillars, caves and stupas.*
- 6. Causes for the decline of the Mauryan empire.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The details of Asoka's war with Kalinga is given in the

(a) Kalinga Edict	(b) XIII Rock Edict
(c) Saranath Pillar	(d) Arthasastra
2. The language mostly employed in the Edicts of Asoka is

(a) Pali	(b) Sanskrit
(c) Karoshti	(d) Brahmi

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Asokan Edicts were first deciphered by
2. The last Mauryan king was
3. Asoka embraced Buddhism under the influence of
4. The state emblem of India was adopted from pillar.

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Dharmamahamatras | a) Village administration |
| 2. Gopa | b) Revenue administration |
| 3. Nagarika | c) Spread of Dhamma |
| 4. Samharta | d) City administration |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The first part of Kautilya's Arthasastra tells about war and diplomacy.
- b) Visakadatta's Mudrarakshasa was written in the style of drama.

- c) The Indika written by Megasthenes gives details about the Kalinga War.
- d) Asoka's Edicts provide information on the decline of the Mauryan empire.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

- 1. Chandragupta Maurya became a follower of Buddhism at the end of his reign.
- 2. Tamil Nadu was included in the Mauryan empire.
- 3. Asoka presented caves to the Ajivikas.
- 4. Pushyamitra Sunga put an end to the Mauryan rule.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Kautilya's Arthashastra.
- 2. Kalinga War.
- 3. Megasthenes.
- 4. Bindusara.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on the achievements of Chandragupta Maurya.
- 2. Mention the efforts taken by Asoka for the spread of Buddhism.
- 3. Assess the significance of the Mauryan art.
- 4. Analyse the causes for the decline of the Mauryan empire.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of Asoka's achievements and his policy of Dhamma.
- 2. Write in detail the salient features of the Mauryan administration.

LESSON 7

POST-MAURYAN INDIA

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The Sunga rule and its importance.*
- 2. The Satavahana rule and their contributions to culture.*
- 3. The Sakas and Bactrians.*
- 4. Kanishka and his achievements.*
- 5. Gandhara art and its salient features.*

After the death of Asoka, his successors were not able to keep the vast Mauryan Empire intact. The provinces started declaring their independence. The northwest India slipped out of the control of the Mauryas and a series of foreign invasions affected this region. Kalinga declared its independence and in the further south the Satavahanas established their independent rule. As a result, the Mauryan rule was confined to the Gangetic valley and it was soon replaced by the Sunga dynasty.

Sungas

The founder of the Sunga dynasty was Pushyamitra Sunga, who was the commander-in-chief under the Mauryas. He assassinated the last Mauryan ruler and usurped the throne. The most important challenge to the Sunga rule was to protect north India against the invasions of the Bactrian Greeks from the northwest. The Greeks advanced up to Pataliputra and occupied it for sometime. However, Pushyamitra succeeded in regaining the lost

territory. He also fought a campaign against Kharavela of Kalinga who invaded north India.

Pushyamitra was a staunch follower of Brahmanism. He performed two asvamedha sacrifices. Buddhist sources refer him as a persecutor of Buddhism. But there is enough evidence to show that Pushyamitra patronised Buddhist art. During his reign the Buddhist monuments at Bharhut and Sanchi were renovated and further improved.

After the death of Pushyamitra, his son Agnimitra became the ruler. The last Sunga ruler was Devabhuti, who was murdered by his minister Vasudeva Kanva, the founder of the Kanva dynasty. The Kanva dynasty ruled for 45 years. After the fall of the Kanvas, the history of Magadha was a blank until the establishment of the Gupta dynasty.

The rule of the Sungas was important because they defended the Gangetic valley from foreign invasions. In the cultural sphere, the Sungas revived Brahmanism and horse sacrifice. They also promoted the growth of Vaishnavism and the Sanskrit language. In short, the Sunga rule was a brilliant anticipation of the golden age of the Guptas.

Satavahanas

In the Deccan, the Satavahanas established their independent rule after the decline of the Mauryas. Their rule lasted for about 450 years. They were also known as the Andhras. The Puranas and inscriptions remain important sources for



COINS OF SATAVAHANAS

the history of Satavahanas. Among the inscriptions, the Nasik and Nanaghad inscriptions throw much light on the reign of Gautamiputra Satakarni. The coins issued by the Satavahanas are also helpful in knowing the economic conditions of that period.

The founder of the Satavahana dynasty was Simuka. He was succeeded by Krishna, who extended the kingdom up to Nasik in the west. The third king was Sri Satakarni. He conquered western Malwa and Berar. He also performed asvamedha sacrifices. The seventeenth king of the Satavahana dynasty was Hala. He reigned for a period of five years. Hala became famous for his book Gathasaptasati, also called Sattasai. It contains 700 verses in Prakrit language.

The greatest ruler of the Satavahana dynasty was Gautamiputra Satakarni. He ruled for a period of 24 years from 106 to 130 A.D. His achievements were recorded in the Nasik inscription by his mother Gautami Balasri. Gautamiputra Satakarni captured the whole of Deccan and expanded his empire. His victory over Nagapana, the ruler of Malwa was remarkable. He patronized Brahmanism. Yet, he also gave donations to Buddhists.

Gautamiputra Satakarni was succeeded by his son Vashishtaputra Pulamayi. He extended the Satavahana power up to the mouth of the Krishna river. He issued coins on which the image of ships was inscribed. They reveal the naval power and maritime trade of the Satavahanas. The last great ruler of Satavahanas was Yajna Sri Satakarni.

Economic Condition

There was a remarkable progress in the fields of trade and industry during the Satavahana rule. Merchants organized guilds to increase their activities. The craft guilds organized by different craftsmen such as potters, weavers and oil pressers also came into existence. Silver coins called Karshapanas were used for trade. The Satavahana period also witnessed overseas commercial activity. Ptolemy mentions many ports in the Deccan. The greatest port of the Satavahanas was Kalyani on the west Deccan. Gandakasela and Ganjam on the east coast were the other important seaports.

Cultural Contributions

The Satavahanas patronized Buddhism and Brahmanism. They built chaityas and viharas. They also made grants of villages and lands to Buddhist monks. Vashishtaputra Pulamayi repaired the old Amaravathi stupa. Their architecture in Nagarjunakonda was also notable. Brahmanism was revived by the Satavahanas along with the performance of asvamedha and rajasuya sacrifices. They also patronized the Prakrit language and literature. Hala's Sattasai is an excellent piece of Prakrit literature.

Foreign Invasions of Northwest India

Bactrians

Bactria and Parthia became independent from the Syrian empire in the middle of the third century B.C. Demetrius, the Greek ruler of Bactria invaded Afghanistan and Punjab and occupied them. From Taxila, he sent two of his commanders, Appolodotus and Menander for further conquests. Appolodotus conquered the Sindh and marched up to Ujjain. Menander extended his rule up to Mathura and from there he made attempts to capture Pataliputra. But he was stopped by the army of Vasumitra, the grandson of Pushyamitra Sunga.

Menander was also known as Milinda and the capital of his kingdom was Sakala (Sialcot). He evinced much interest in Buddhism and his dialogues with the Buddhist monk Nagasena was compiled in the Pali work, Milindapanho (Questions of Milinda). He also embraced Buddhism. A Greek ambassador Heliodorus became a Vaishnavite and erected the Garuda Pillar at Besnagar. The Greek influence in India lasted for more than a century after the death Menander.

Sakas

The Sakas or the Scythians attacked Bactria and Parthia and captured them from the Greek rulers. Following the footsteps of the Greeks, the Sakas gradually extended their rule over northwestern India. There were two different groups of Sakas – the Northern Satraps ruling from Taxila and the Western satraps ruling over Maharashtra.

The founder the Saka rule in India in the first century B.C. was Maues. His son and successor was Azes I, who was considered to be the founder of the Vikrama era.

Sakas rulers of Taxila were overthrown by the Parthians.

Kushanas

The Kushanas were a branch of Yuchi tribe, whose original home was central Asia. They first came to Bactria displacing the Sakas. Then they gradually moved to the Kabul valley and seized the Gandhara region. The founder of the Kushana dynasty was Kujula Kadphises or Kadphises I. He occupied the Kabul valley and issued coins in his name. His son Wima Kadphises or Kadphises II conquered the whole of northwestern India as far as Mathura. He issued gold coins with high-sounding titles like the 'Lord of the Whole World'. He was a devotee of Lord Siva.



**Gold Coins of
Kushanas**

Kanishka (78 – 120 A.D.)

Kanishka was the most important ruler of the Kushana dynasty. He was the founder of the Saka era which starts from 78 A.D. He was not only a great conqueror but also a patron of religion and art.

Kanishka's Conquests

At the time of his accession his empire included Afghanistan, Gandhara, Sind and Punjab. Subsequently he conquered Magadha and extended his power as far as Pataliputra and Bodh Gaya. According to Kalhana, Kanishka invaded Kashmir and occupied it. His coins are found in many places like Mathura, Sravasti, Kausambi and Benares and therefore, he must have conquered the greater part of the Gangetic plain.



**Headless statue
of Kanishka**

He also fought against the Chinese and acquired some territories from them. During the first expedition he was defeated by the Chinese general Pancho. He undertook a second expedition in which he was successful and he scored a victory over Panyang, the son of Pancho. Kanishka annexed the territories of Kashgar, Yarkand and Khotan into his empire.

The empire of Kanishka was a vast one extending from Gandhara in the west to Benares in the east, and from Kashmir in the north to Malwa in the south. His capital was Purushapura or modern day Peshawar. Mathura was another important city in his empire.

Kanishka and Buddhism

Kanishka embraced Buddhism in the early part of his reign. However, his coins exhibit the images of not only Buddha but also Greek and Hindu gods. It reflects the Kanishka's toleration towards other religions. In the age of Kanishka the Mahayana Buddhism came into vogue. It is different in many respects from the religion taught by the Buddha and propagated by Asoka. The Buddha came to be worshipped with flowers, garments, perfumes and lamps. Thus

image worship and rituals developed in Mahayana Buddhism.

Kanishka also sent missionaries to Central Asia and China for the propagation of the new faith. Buddhist chaityas and viharas were built in different places. He patronised Buddhist scholars like Vasumitra, Asvagosha and Nagarjuna. He also convened the Fourth Buddhist Council to discuss matters relating to Buddhist theology and doctrine. It was held at the Kundalavana monastery near Srinagar in Kashmir under the presidentship of Vasumitra. About 500 monks attended the Council. The Council prepared an authoritative commentary on the Tripitakas and the *Mahayana* doctrine was given final shape. Asvagosha was a great philosopher, poet and dramatist. He was the author of Buddhacharita. Nagarjuna from south India adorned the court of Kanishka. The famous physician of ancient India Charaka was also patronized by him.

Gandhara Art

The home of the Gandhara school of art is the territory in and around Peshawar in northwestern India. The best of the Gandhara sculpture was produced during the first and second centuries A.D. It originated during the reign of Indo-Greek rulers but the real patrons of this school of art were the Sakas and the Kushanas, particularly Kanishka. Gandhara art was a blend of Indian and Graeco-Roman elements. Specimens of Gandhara sculpture have been found in Taxila, Peshawar and in several places of northwest India. The Gandhara school made sculptures of the Buddha in various sizes, shapes and postures. The reliefs depict Buddha's birth, his renunciation and his preaching. The salient features of Gandhara art are:



**REPRESENTATION OF
THE BUDDHA IN
GANDHARA ART**

- Moulding human body in a realistic manner with minute attention to physical features like muscles, moustache and curly hair.
- Thick drapery with large and bold fold lines.
- Rich carving, elaborate ornamentation and symbolic expressions.
- The main theme was the new form of Buddhism – Mahayanism – and the evolution of an image of Buddha.

A large number of monasteries were also built from first to fourth centuries A.D. Ruins of about fifteen monasteries were found in and around Peshawar and Rawalpindi. The Buddhist stupas erected during this period had Graeco-Roman architectural impact. The height of the stupa was raised and ornamentation was added to the structure of the stupa. These changes made the stupa more attractive.

Mathura School of Art

The school of art that developed at Mathura in modern Uttar Pradesh is called the Mathura art. It flourished in the first century A.D. In its early phase, the Mathura school of art developed on indigenous lines. The Buddha images exhibit the spiritual feeling in his face which was largely absent in the Gandhara school. The Mathura school also carved out the images of Siva and Vishnu along with their consorts Parvathi and Lakshmi. The female figures of yakshinis and apsaras of the Mathura school were beautifully carved.

Successors of Kanishka and end of Kushana Rule

The successors of Kanishka ruled for another one hundred and fifty years. Huvishka was the son of Kanishka and he kept the empire intact. Mathura became an important city under his rule.

Like Kanishka he was also a patron of Buddhism. The last important Kushana ruler was Vasudeva. The Kushana empire was very much reduced in his rule. Most of his inscriptions are found in and around Mathura. He seems to have been a worshipper of Siva. After Vasudeva, petty Kushan princes ruled for sometime in northwestern India.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The reign of Pushyamitra and the importance of Sunga rule.*
- 2. The Satavahana rule and Gautami Putra Satakarni's achievements.*
- 3. The socio-economic conditions of the Satavahana period and also their cultural contributions.*
- 4. Kanishka and his military achievements.*
- 5. The role of Kanishka in the spread of Mahayana Buddhism.*
- 6. The salient features of the Gandhara art and also Mathura art.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Sungas were succeeded by
(a) Mauryas (b) Kushanas
(c) Kanvas (d) Satavahanas
2. Nasik inscription describes the achievements of
(a) Pushyamitra Sunga (b) Gautamiputra Satakarni
(c) Kanishka (d) Menander
3. The author of Buddhacharita was
(a) Nagarjuna (b) Asvagosha
(c) Vasumitra (d) Nagasena

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The founder of the Satavahana dynasty was
2. The famous Prakrit book Sattasai was written by
3. was considered to be the founder of the Vikrama era.
4. Saka era was founded by in the year.....
5. The Garuda pillar at Besnagar was erected by
6. The Chinese General who was defeated by Kanishka was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------|----------------------|
| 1. Sakala | a) Azes I |
| 2. Purushapura | b) Pushyamitra Sunga |
| 3. Pataliputra | c) Menander |
| 4. Taxila | d) Kanishka |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Sungas promoted the Sanskrit language.
- b) The Satavahanas patronized Telugu language.
- c) The Mahayana Buddhism adopted Pali as its language.
- d) The Mathura school of art developed on Indo-Greek style.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The Sungas revived Brahmanism and horse sacrifice.
- 2. Menander was a Bactrian ruler.
- 3. Nasik was a great port on the east coast during the rule of Satavahanas.
- 4. Gandhara art was a blend of Indian and Graeco-Roman elements.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Gautamiputra Satakarni.
- 2. Menander.
- 3. Asvagosha.
- 4. Mathura School of art.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Assess the importance of the rule of Sungas.
- 2. Mention the cultural contributions of Satavahanas.
- 3. Examine the salient features of the Gandhara art.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of the history of the Satavahanas.
- 2. Assess the achievements of Kanishka.

LESSON 8

SANGAM AGE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The Sangam literature and other sources for the Sangam period.*
- 2. The political history of the Sangam period.*
- 3. The Sangam polity and society.*
- 4. Religion and the position of women in the Sangam period.*
- 5. The economic condition of the Sangam age.*

The Sangam Age constitutes an important chapter in the history of South India. According to Tamil legends, there existed three Sangams (Academy of Tamil poets) in ancient Tamil Nadu popularly called Muchchangam. These Sangams flourished under the royal patronage of the Pandyas. The first Sangam, held at Then Madurai, was attended by gods and legendary sages but no literary work of this Sangam was available. The second Sangam was held at Kapadapuram but the all the literary works had perished except *Tolkappiyam*. The third Sangam at Madurai was founded by Mudathirumaran. It was attended by a large number of poets who produced voluminous literature but only a few had survived. These Tamil literary works remain useful sources to reconstruct the history of the Sangam Age.

Sangam Literature

The corpus of Sangam literature includes *Tolkappiyam*, *Ettutogai*, *Pattuppattu*, *Pathinenkilkanakku*, and the two epics

– *Silappathigaram* and *Manimegalai*. *Tolkappiyam* authored by Tolkappiyar is the earliest of the Tamil literature. It is a work on Tamil grammar but it provides information on the political and socio-economic conditions of the Sangam period. The *Ettutogai* or Eight Anthologies consist of eight works – *Aingurunooru*, *Narrinai*, *Aganaooru*, *Purananooru*, *Kuruntogai*, *Kalittogai*, *Paripadal* and *Padirrupattu*. The *Pattuppattu* or Ten Idylls consist of ten works – *Thirumurugarruppadai*, *Porunararruppadai*, *Sirupanarruppadai*, *Perumpanarruppadai*, *Mullaippattu*, *Nedunalvadai*, *Maduraikkanji*, *Kurinjippattu*, *Pattinappalai* and *Malaipadukadam*. Both *Ettutogai* and *Pattuppattu* were divided into two main groups – Aham (love) and Puram (valour). *Pathinenkilkanakku* contains eighteen works mostly dealing with ethics and morals. The most important among them is *Tirukkural* authored by Thiruvalluvar. *Silappathigaram* written by Elango Adigal and *Manimegalai* by Sittalai Sattanar also provides valuable information on the Sangam polity and society.

Other Sources

In addition to the Sangam literature, the Greek authors like Megasthenes, Strabo, Pliny and Ptolemy mention the commercial contacts between the West and South India. The Asokan inscriptions mention the Chera, Chola and Pandya rulers on the south of the Mauryan empire. The Hathikumbha inscription of Kharavela of Kalinga also mentions about Tamil kingdoms. The excavations at Arikamedu, Poompuhar, Kodumanal and other places reveal the overseas commercial activities of the Tamils.

Period of Sangam Literature

The chronology of the Sangam literature is still a disputed topic among the scholars. The sheet anchor of Sangam chronology lies in the fact that Gajabhagu II of Sri Lanka and Cheran

Senguttuvan of the Chera dynasty were contemporaries. This is confirmed by *Silappathigaram* as well as the *Dipavamsa* and *Mahavamsa*. Also the Roman coins issued by Roman emperors of the first century A.D were found in plenty in various places of Tamil Nadu. Therefore, the most probable date of the Sangam literature has been fixed between the third century B.C. to third century A.D. on the basis of literary, archaeological and numismatic evidences.

Political History

The Tamil country was ruled by three dynasties namely the Chera, Chola and Pandyas during the Sangam Age. The political history of these dynasties can be traced from the literary references.

Cheras

The Cheras ruled over parts of modern Kerala. Their capital was Vanji and their important seaports were Tondi and Musiri. They had the palmyra flowers as their garland. The Pugalur inscription of the first century A.D refers to three generations of Chera rulers. *Padirrupattu* also provides information on Chera kings. Perum Sorru Udhiyan Cheralathan, Imayavaramban Nedum Cheralathan and Cheran Senguttuvan were the famous rulers of this dynasty.

Cheran Senguttuvan belonged to 2nd century A.D. His younger brother was Elango Adigal, the author of *Silappathigaram*. Among his military achievements, his expedition to the Himalayas was remarkable. He defeated many north Indian monarchs. Senguttuvan introduced the Pattini cult or the worship of Kannagi as the ideal wife in Tamil Nadu. The stone for making the idol of Kannagi was brought by him after his Himalayan expedition. The consecration ceremony was attended by many princes including Gajabhagu II from Sri Lanka.

Cholas

The Chola kingdom of the Sangam period extended from modern Tiruchi district to southern Andhra Pradesh. Their capital was first located at Uraiyr and then shifted to Puhar. Karikala was a famous king of the Sangam Cholas. *Pattinappalai* portrays his early life and his military conquests. In the Battle of Venni he defeated the mighty confederacy consisting of the Cheras, Pandyas and eleven minor chieftains. This event is mentioned in many Sangam poems. Vahaipparandalai was another important battle fought by him in which nine enemy chieftains submitted before him. Karikala's military achievements made him the overlord of the whole Tamil country. Trade and commerce flourished during his reign period. He was responsible for the reclamation of forest lands and brought them under cultivation thus adding prosperity to the people. He also built Kallanai across the river Kaveri and also constructed many irrigation tanks.

Pandyas

The Pandyas ruled over the present day southern Tamil Nadu. Their capital was Madurai. The earliest kings of the Pandyan dynasty were Nediyan, Palyagasalai Mudukudumi Peruvaludhi and Mudathirumaran. There were two Neduncheliyans. The first one was known as Aryappadai Kadantha Nedunchelian (one who won victories over the Aryan forces). He was responsible for the execution of Kovalan for which Kannagi burnt Madurai. The other was Talaiyalanganattu Cheruvenra (He who won the battle at Talaiyalanganam) Nedunchelian. He was praised by Nakkirar and Mangudi Maruthanar. He wore this title after defeating his enemies at the Battle of Talaiyalanganam, which is located in the Tanjore district. By this victory Nedunchelian gained control over the entire Tamil Nadu. *Maduraikkanji* written by Mangudi Maruthanar describes the socio-economic condition of the Pandya country

including the flourishing seaport of Korkai. The last famous Pandyan king was Uggira Peruvaludhi. The Pandyan rule during the Sangam Age began to decline due to the invasion of the Kalabhras.

Minor Chieftains

The minor chieftains played a significant role in the Sangam period. Among them Pari, Kari, Ori, Nalli, Pegan, Ay and Adiyaman were popular for their philanthropy and patronage of Tamil poets. Therefore, they were known as Kadai Yelu Vallalgal. Although they were subordinate to the Chera, Chola and Pandya rulers, they were powerful and popular in their respective regions.

Sangam Polity

Hereditary monarchy was the form of government during the Sangam period. The king had also taken the advice of his minister, court-poet and the imperial court or avai. The Chera kings assumed titles like Vanavaramban, Vanavan, Kuttuvan, Irumporai and Villavar, the Chola kings like Senni, Valavan and Killi and the Pandya kings Thennavar and Minavar. Each of the Sangam dynasties had a royal emblem – carp for the Pandyas, tiger for the Cholas and bow for the Cheras. The imperial court or avai was attended by a number of chiefs and officials. The king was assisted by a large body of officials who were divided into five councils. They were ministers (amaichar), priests (anthanar), military commanders (senapathi), envoys (thuthar) and spies (orrrar). The military administration was also efficiently organized during the Sangam Age. Each ruler had a regular army and their respective Kodimaram (tutelary tree).

Land revenue was the chief source of state's income while custom duty was also imposed on foreign trade. The Pattinappalai refers to the custom officials employed in the seaport of Puhar. Booty captured in wars was also a major income to the royal treasury.

Roads and highways were well maintained and guarded night and day to prevent robbery and smuggling.

Sangam Society

Tolkappiyam refers to the five-fold division of lands - Kurinji (hilly tracks), Mullai (pastoral), Marudam (agricultural), Neydal (coastal) and Palai (desert). The people living in these five divisions had their respective chief occupations as well as gods for worship.

- Kurinji – chief deity was Murugan – chief occupation, hunting and honey collection.
- Mullai – chief deity Mayon (Vishnu) – chief occupation, cattle-rearing and dealing with dairy products.
- Marudam – chief deity Indira – chief occupation, agriculture.
- Neydal – chief deity Varunan – chief occupation fishing and salt manufacturing.
- Palai – chief deity Korravai – chief occupation robbery.

Tolkappiyam also refers to four castes namely arasar, anthanar, vanigar and vellalar. The ruling class was called arasar. Anthanars played a significant role in the Sangam polity and religion. Vanigars carried on trade and commerce. The vellalas were agriculturists. Other tribal groups like Parathavar, Panar, Eyinar, Kadambar, Maravar and Pulaiyar were also found in the Sangam society. Ancient primitive tribes like Thodas, Irulas, Nagas and Vedars lived in this period.

Religion

The primary deity of the Sangam period was Seyon or Murugan, who is hailed as Tamil God. The worship of Murugan was having an ancient origin and the festivals relating to God Murugan was mentioned in the Sangam literature. He was honoured with six abodes known as Arupadai Veedu. Other gods worshipped during

the Sangam period were Mayon (Vishnu), Vendan (Indiran), Varunan and Korravai. The Hero Stone or Nadu Kal worship was significant in the Sangam period. The Hero Stone was erected in memory of the bravery shown by the warrior in battle. Many hero stones with legends inscribed on them were found in different parts of Tamil Nadu. This kind of worshipping the deceased has a great antiquity.

Position of Women

There is a plenty of information in the Sangam literature to trace the position of women during the Sangam age. Women poets like Avvaiyar, Nachchellaiyar, and Kakkaipadiniyar flourished in this period and contributed to Tamil literature. The courage of women was also appreciated in many poems. Karpu or Chaste life was considered the highest virtue of women. Love marriage was a common practice. Women were allowed to choose their life partners. However, the life of widows was miserable. The practice of Sati was also prevalent in the higher strata of society. The class of dancers was patronized by the kings and nobles.

Fine Arts

Poetry, music and dancing were popular among the people of the Sangam age. Liberal donations were given to poets by the kings, chieftains and nobles. The royal courts were crowded with singing bards called Panar and Viraliyar. They were experts in folk songs and folk dances. The arts of music and dancing were highly developed. A variety of Yazhs and drums are referred to in the Sangam literature. Dancing was performed by Kanigaiyar. Koothu was the most popular entertainment of the people.

Economy of the Sangam Age

Agriculture was the chief occupation. Rice was the common crop. Ragi, sugarcane, cotton, pepper, ginger, turmeric, cinnamon and a variety of fruits were the other crops. Jack fruit and pepper

were famous in the Chera country. Paddy was the chief crop in the Chola and Pandya country.

The handicrafts of the Sangam period were popular. They include weaving, metal works and carpentry, ship building and making of ornaments using beads, stones and ivory. There was a great demand for these products, as the internal and external trade was at its peak during the Sangam period. Spinning and weaving of cotton and silk clothes attained a high quality. The poems mention the cotton clothes as thin as a cloud of steam or a slough of a snake. There was a great demand in the western world for the cotton clothes woven at Uraiyur.

Both internal and foreign trade was well organized and briskly carried on in the Sangam Age. The Sangam literature, Greek and Roman accounts and the archaeological evidences provide detailed information on this subject. Merchants carried the goods on the carts and on animal-back from place to place. Internal trade was mostly based on the barter system.

External trade was carried between South India and the Greek kingdoms. After the ascendancy of the Roman Empire, the Roman trade assumed importance. The port city of Puhar became an emporium of foreign trade, as big ships entered this port with precious goods. Other ports of commercial activity include Tondi, Musiri, Korkai, Arikamedu and Marakkanam. The author of Periplus provides the most valuable information on foreign trade. Plenty of gold and silver coins issued by the Roman Emperors like Augustus, Tiberius and Nero were found in all parts of Tamil Nadu. They reveal the extent of the trade and the presence of Roman traders in the Tamil country. The main exports of the Sangam age were cotton fabrics, spices like pepper, ginger, cardamom, cinnamon and turmeric, ivory products, pearls and precious stones. Gold, horses and sweet wine were the chief imports.

End of the Sangam Age

Towards the end of the third century A.D., the Sangam period slowly witnessed its decline. The Kalabhras occupied the Tamil country for about two and a half centuries. We have little information about the Kalabhra rule. Jainism and Buddhism became prominent during this period. The Pallavas in the northern Tamil Nadu and Pandyas in southern Tamil Nadu drove the Kalabhras out of the Tamil country and established their rule.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The Sources for the study of the Sangam period including the Sangam literature.*
- 2. The Chera, Chola and Pandya rulers of the Sangam period and their achievements.*
- 3. The Sangam polity including the administrative system and other details.*
- 4. The Sangam society, the five divisions of landscape, their religious life and the position of women.*
- 5. The economy during the Sangam period, particularly the overseas commercial contacts during the Sangam period.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Pattini cult in Tamil Nadu was introduced by
 - (a) Pandyan Nedunchelivan
 - (b) Chera Senguttuvan
 - (c) Elango Adigal
 - (d) Mudathirumaran
2. The Pandyan rule of the Sangam age declined due to the invasion of
 - (a) Satavahanas
 - (b) Cholas
 - (c) Kalabhras
 - (d) Pallavas

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Battle of Venni was won by
2. The earliest Tamil grammar work of the Sangam period was
3. The two Tamil epics of the Sangam period are and

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------|------------|
| 1. Thennavar | a) Cheras |
| 2. Vanavar | b) Cholas |
| 3. Senni | c) Tribes |
| 4. Eyinar | d) Pandyas |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Coins issued by ancient Chinese kings are found in several parts of Tamil Nadu.
- b) Cotton textiles constitute the chief export to the Roman empire.

- c) Horses and wine were the chief exports from Tamil Nadu.
- d) Madurai was the port-city of the Sangam Pandyas.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

- 1. Arikamedu was a seaport during the Sangam period.
- 2. Lord Murugan was the primary deity of the Sangam age.
- 3. Uraiyur was famous for pearls.
- 4. The singing bards of the Sangam age were called as Irular.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Pattupattu.
- 2. Ettutogai.
- 3. Kadaiyelu Vallalgal
- 4. Women poets of the Sangam period.
- 5. Muchchangam.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Assess the achievements of Cheran Senguttuvan.
- 2. Give an estimate of Karikala.
- 3. Write a note on the Pandya rulers of the Sangam period.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of the political administration of the Sangam period.
- 2. Discuss the socio-economic condition of ancient Tamil Nadu.
- 3. Assess the significance of the overseas commerce during the Sangam age.

LESSON 9

GUPTA EMPIRE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The sources for the study of Guptas.*
- 2. Samudragupta's achievements.*
- 3. The achievements of Chandragupta II.*
- 4. The importance of Fahien's visit to India.*
- 5. Gupta administration, society and economy.*
- 6. Literature, art, architecture and scientific development during the Gupta period.*

Sources

There are plenty of source materials to reconstruct the history of the Gupta period. They include literary, epigraphical and numismatic sources. The *Puranas* throw light on the royal genealogy of the Gupta kings. Contemporary literary works like the *Devichandraguptam* and the *Mudhrakshasam* written by Visakadatta provide information regarding the rise of the Guptas. The Chinese traveler Fahien, who visited India during the reign of Chandragupta II, has left a valuable account of the social, economic and religious conditions of the Gupta empire.

Apart from these literary sources, there are inscriptions like the Meherauli Iron Pillar Inscription and the Allahabad Pillar inscription. The first refers to the achievements of Chandragupta I. The most important source for the reign of Samudragupta is the Allahabad Pillar inscription. It describes his personality and

achievements. This inscription is engraved on an Asokan pillar. It is written in classical Sanskrit, using the Nagari script. It consists of



**Allahabad Pillar
Inscription**

33 lines composed by Harisena. It describes the circumstances of Samudragupta's accession, his military campaigns in north India and the Deccan, his relationship with other contemporary rulers, and his accomplishments as a poet and scholar.

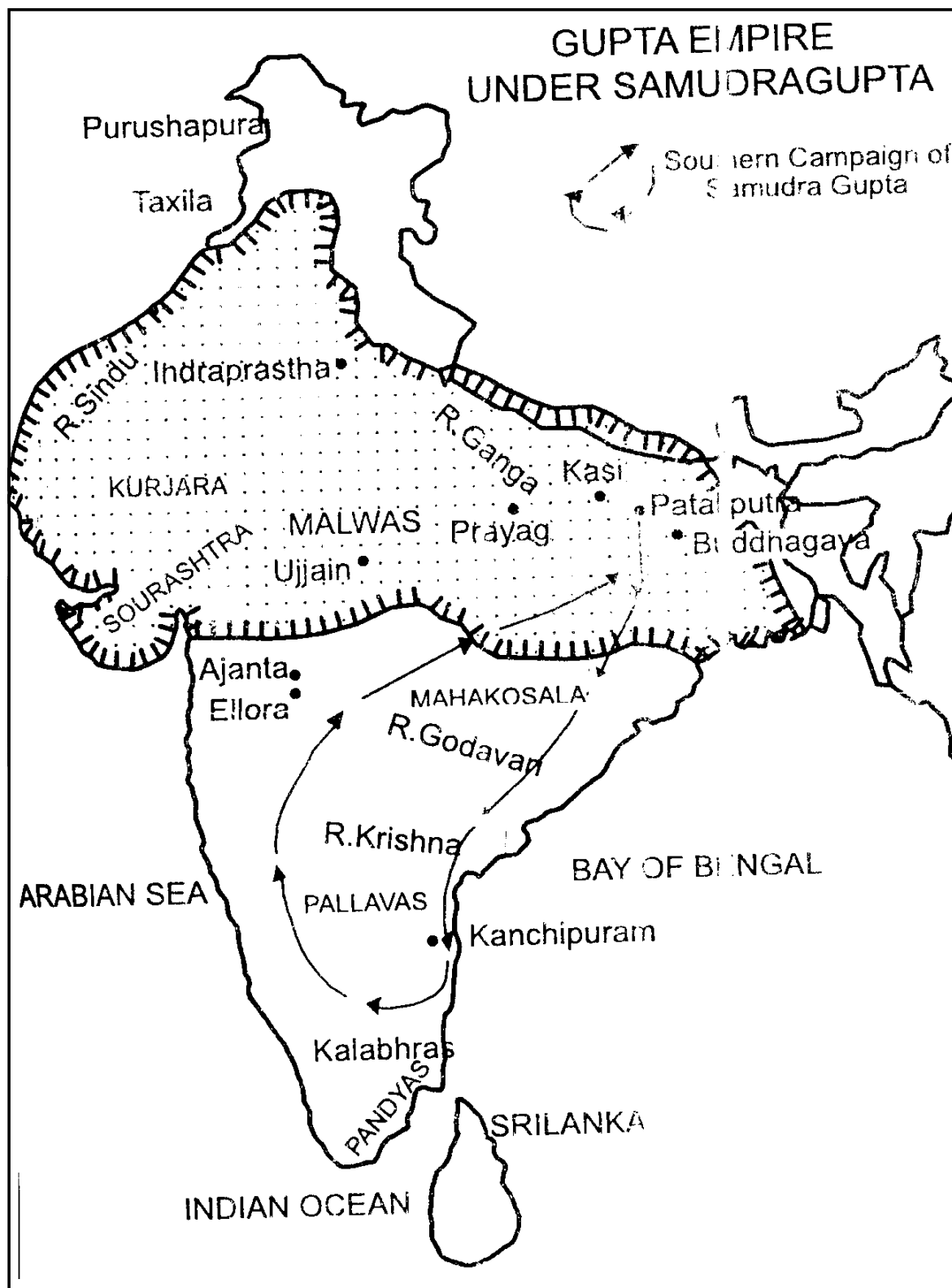
The coins issued by Gupta kings contain legends and figures. These coins provide interesting details about the titles and sacrifices performed by the Gupta monarchs.

Chandragupta I (320 – 330 A.D.)

The founder of the Gupta dynasty was Sri Gupta. He was succeeded by Ghatotkacha. These two were called *Maharajas*. Much information was not available about their rule. The next ruler was Chandragupta I and he was the first to be called *Maharajadhiraja* (the great king of kings). This title indicates his extensive conquests. He strengthened his position by a matrimonial alliance with the Licchavis. He married Kumaradevi, a princess of that family. This added to the power and prestige of the Gupta family. The Meherauli Iron Pillar inscription mentions his extensive conquests. Chandragupta I is considered to be the founder of the Gupta era which starts with his accession in A.D. 320.

Samudragupta (330-380 A.D.)

Samudragupta was the greatest of the rulers of the Gupta dynasty. The Allahabad Pillar inscription provides a detailed account of his reign. It refers to three stages in his military campaign:



1. Against some rulers of North India
2. His famous *Dakshinapatha* expedition against South Indian rulers
3. A second campaign against some other rulers of North India.

In the first campaign Samudragupta defeated Achyuta and Nagasena. Achyuta was probably a Naga ruler. Nagasena belonged to the Kota family which was ruling over the upper Gangetic valley. They were defeated and their states were annexed. As a result of this short campaign, Samudragupta had gained complete mastery over the upper Gangetic valley.

Then Samudragupta marched against the South Indian monarchs. The Allahabad Pillar inscription mentions that Samudragupta defeated twelve rulers in his South Indian Expedition. They were Mahendra of Kosala, Vyaghraraja of Mahakanthara, Mantaraja of Kaurala, Mahendragiri of Pishtapura, Swamidatta of Kottura, Damana of Erandapalla, Vishnugupta of Kanchi, Nilaraja of Avamukta, Hastivarman of Vengi, Ugrasena of Palakka, Kubera of Devarashtra and Dhananjaya of Kushtalapura. Samudragupta's policy in South India was different. He did not destroy and annex those kingdoms. Instead, he defeated the rulers but gave them back their kingdoms. He only insisted on them to acknowledge his suzerainty.

The third stage of Samudragupta's campaign was to eliminate his remaining north Indian rivals. He fought against nine kings, uprooted them and annexed their territories. They were Rudradeva, Matila, Nagadatta, Chandravarman, Ganapathinaga, Nagasena, Achyuta, Nandin and Balavarman. Most of these rulers were members of the Naga family, then ruling over different parts of north India.

After these military victories, Samudragupta performed the *asvamedha* sacrifice. He issued gold and silver coins with the legend 'restorer of the *asvamedha*'. It is because of his military achievements Samudragupta was hailed as 'Indian Napoleon'.



GOLD COINS OF SAMUDRAGUPTA

Extant of Samudragupta's Empire

After these conquests, Samudragupta's rule extended over the upper Gangetic valley, the greater part of modern U.P., a portion of central India and the southwestern part of Bengal. These territories were directly administered by him. In the south there were tributary states. The Saka and Kushana principalities on the west and northwest were within the sphere of his influence. The kingdoms on the east coast of the Deccan, as far as the Pallava Kingdom, acknowledged his suzerainty.

Estimate of Samudragupta

Samudragupta's military achievements remain remarkable in the annals of history. He was equally great in his other personal accomplishments. The Allahabad Pillar inscription speaks of his magnanimity to his foes, his polished intellect, his poetic skill and his proficiency in music. It calls him Kaviraja because of his ability in composing verses. His image depicting him with Veena is found in the coins issued by him. It is the proof of his proficiency and interest in music. He was also a patron of many poets and scholars, one of whom was Harisena. Thus he must be credited with a share in the promotion of Sanskrit literature and learning, characteristic of his dynasty. He was an ardent follower of Vaishnavism but was tolerant of other creeds. He evinced keen interest in Buddhism and was the patron of the great Buddhist scholar Vasubandu.

Chandragupta II (380-415 A.D.)

Samudragupta was succeeded by his son Chandragupta II Vikramaditya. But according to some scholars, the immediate successor of Samudragupta was Ramagupta, the elder brother of Chandragupta II. But there is little historical proof for this. Chandragupta II inherited the military genius of his father and extended the Gupta Empire by his own conquests.

He achieved this by a judicious combination of the policy of diplomacy and warfare. Through matrimonial alliances he strengthened his political power. He married Kuberanaga, a Naga princess of central India. He gave his daughter Prabhavati in marriage to the Vakataka prince Rudrasena II. The political importance of this marriage lies in the fact that the Vakatakas occupied a geographically strategic position in the Deccan. This alliance served a useful purpose when Chandragupta-II undertook his campaign in western India against the Sakas.

Conquest of Western India

The greatest of the military achievements of Chandragupta II was his war against the Saka *satraps* of western India. Rudrasimha III, the last ruler of the Saka *satrap* was defeated, dethroned and killed. His territories in western Malwa and the Kathiawar Peninsula were annexed into the Gupta Empire. After this victory he performed the horse sacrifice and assumed the title *Sakari*, meaning, 'destroyer of Sakas'. He also called himself *Vikramaditya*

As a result of the conquest of western India, the western boundary of the Empire reached to the Arabian Sea gaining access to Broach, Sopara, Cambay and other sea ports. This enabled the Gupta empire to control trade with the western countries. Ujjain became an important commercial city and soon became the alternative capital of the Guptas. The fine cotton clothes of Bengal,

Indigo from Bihar, silk from Banares, the scents of the Himalayas and the sandal and species from the south were brought to these ports without any interference. The western traders poured Roman gold into India in return for Indian products. The great wealth of the Gupta Empire was manifest in the variety of gold coins issued by Chandragupta II.

Other Conquests

Chandragupta II defeated a confederacy of enemy chiefs in Vanga. He also crossed the river Sindh and conquered Bactria. The Kushanas ruling in this region were subdued by him. With these conquests, the Gupta empire extended in the west as far as western Malwa, Gujarat and Kathiawar. In the northwest it extended beyond the Hindukush up to Bactria. In the east, it included even eastern Bengal and in the south the Narmada river formed the boundary.

Fahien's Visit

The famous Chinese pilgrim, Fahien visited India during the reign of Chandragupta II. Out of his nine years stay in India, he spent six years in the Gupta empire. He came to India by the land route through Khotan, Kashgar, Gandhara and Punjab. He visited Peshawar, Mathura, Kanauj, Sravasti, Kapilavastu, Kusinagara, Pataliputra, Kasi and Bodh Gaya among other places. He returned by the sea route, visiting on the way Ceylon and Java. The main purpose of his visit was to see the land of the Buddha and to collect Buddhist manuscripts from India. He stayed in Pataliputra for three years studying Sanskrit and copying Buddhist texts.

Fahien provides valuable information on the religious, social and economic condition of the Gupta empire. According to him, Buddhism was in a flourishing condition in the northwestern India but in the Gangetic valley it was in a state of neglect. He refers to the Gangetic valley as the 'land of Brahmanism'. Fahien mentions

the unsatisfactory state of some of the Buddhist holy places like Kapilavastu and Kusinagara. According to him the economic condition of the empire was prosperous.

Although his account is valuable in many respects, he did not mention the name of Chandragupta II. He was not interested in political affairs. His interest was primarily religion. He assessed everything from the Buddhist angle. His observations on social conditions are found to be exaggerated. Yet, his accounts are useful to know the general condition of the country.

Estimate of Chandragupta II

The power and glory of Gupta empire reached its peak under the rule Chandragupta II Vikramaditya. He also contributed to the general cultural progress of the age and patronized great literary figures like Kalidasa. He promoted artistic activity. Because of the high level of cultural progress that was achieved during this period, the Gupta period is generally referred to as a golden age. A detailed account of the cultural progress in the Gupta age is given below.

Successors of Chandragupta II

Kumaragupta was the son and successor of Chandragupta II. His reign was marked by general peace and prosperity. He issued a number of coins and his inscriptions are found all over the Gupta empire. He also performed an *asvamedha* sacrifice. Most importantly, he laid the foundation of the Nalanda University which emerged an institution of international reputation. At the end of his reign, a powerful wealthy tribe called the 'Pushyamitras' defeated the Gupta army. A branch of the Huns from Central Asia made attempts to cross the Hindukush mountains and invade India.

But it was his successor Skandagupta who really faced the Hun invasion. He fought successfully against the Huns and saved the empire. This war must have been a great strain on the

government's resources. After Skandagupta's death, many of his successors like Purugupta, Narasimhagupta, Buddhagupta and Baladitya could not save the Gupta empire from the Huns. Ultimately, the Gupta power totally disappeared due to the Hun invasions and later by the rise of Yasodharman in Malwa.

Gupta Administration

According inscriptions, the Gupta kings assumed titles like *Paramabhattacharaka*, *Maharajadhiraja*, *Parameswara*, *Samrat* and *Chakravartin*. The king was assisted in his administration by a council consisting of a chief minister, a Senapati or commander-in-chief of the army and other important officials. A high official called *Sandivigraha* was mentioned in the Gupta inscriptions, most probably minister for foreign affairs.

The king maintained a close contact with the provincial administration through a class of officials called *Kumaramatyas* and *Ayuktas*. Provinces in the Gupta Empire were known as *Bhuktis* and provincial governors as *Uparikas*. They were mostly chosen from among the princes. *Bhuktis* were subdivided into *Vishyas* or districts. They were governed by *Vishyapatis*. *Nagara Sreshtis* were the officers looking after the city administration. The villages in the district were under the control of *Gramikas*.

Fahien's account on the Gupta administration provides useful information. He characterises the Gupta administration as mild and benevolent. There were no restrictions on people's movements and they enjoyed a large degree of personal freedom. There was no state interference in the individual's life. Punishments were not severe. Imposing a fine was a common punishment. There was no spy system. The administration was so efficient that the roads were kept safe for travelers, and there was no fear of thieves. He mentioned that people were generally prosperous and the crimes were negligible. Fahien had also appreciated the efficiency of the Gupta

administration as he was able to travel without any fear throughout the Gangetic valley. On the whole the administration was more liberal than that of the Mauryas.

Social Life

The pre-Gupta period in India witnessed a series of foreign invasions. Indian society had given way to those foreigners who had become permanent residents here. But during the Gupta period, the caste system became rigid. The Brahmins occupied the top ladder of the society. They were given enormous gifts by the rulers as well as other wealthy people. The practice of untouchability had slowly begun during this period. Fahien mentions that Chandalas were segregated from the society. Their miserable condition was elaborated by the Chinese traveler.

The position of women had also become miserable during the Gupta period. They were prohibited from studying the religious texts like the Puranas. The subjection of women to men was thoroughly regularized. But it was insisted that they should be protected and generously treated by men. The practice of *Swyamvara* was given up and the Manusmriti suggested the early marriage for girls.

In the sphere of religion, Brahmanism reigned supreme during the Gupta period. It had two branches - Vaishnavism and Saivism. Most of the Gupta kings were Vaishnavaites. They performed *Aswamedha* sacrifices. The worship of images and celebration of religious festivals with elaborate rituals made these two religions popular. Religious literature like the Puranas was composed during this period. The progress of Brahmanism led to the neglect of Buddhism and Jainism. Fahien refers to the decline of Buddhism in the Gangetic valley. But a few Buddhist scholars like Vasubandhu were patronized by Gupta kings. In western and southern India Jainism flourished. The great Jain Council was held at Valabhi during this period and the Jain Canon of the Swetambras was written.

Art and Culture

The Gupta period witnessed a tremendous progress in the field of art, science and literature and on account of this it has been called “a golden age”. A few scholars even call this period a period of renaissance. But it should be remembered that there was no dark period before the Gupta rule. Therefore the cultural progress witnessed during the Gupta period may be called the culmination of Indian intellectual activities.

Art and Architecture

In the history of Indian art and architecture, the Gupta period occupies an important place. Both the Nagara and Dravidian styles of art evolved during this period. But most of the architecture of this period had been lost due to foreign invasions like that of Huns. Yet, the remaining temples, sculptures and cave paintings provide an idea about the grandeur of the Gupta art.

The temple at Deogarh near Jhansi and the sculptures in the temple at Garhwas near Allahabad remain important specimen of the Gupta art. There was no influence of Gandhara style. But the beautiful statue of standing Buddha at Mathura reveals a little Greek style. The Buddha statue unearthed



TEMPLE AT DEOGARH



A PAINTING AT BAGH CAVE

at Saranath was unique piece of Gupta art. The Bhitari monolithic pillar of Skandagupta is also remarkable.

Metallurgy had also made a wonderful progress during the Gupta period. The craftsmen were efficient in the art of casting metal statues and pillars. The gigantic copper

statue of Buddha, originally found at Sultanganj now kept at Birmingham museum, was about seven and a half feet height and nearly a ton weight. The Delhi Iron pillar of the Gupta period is still free from rust though completely exposed to sun and rain for so many centuries.

The paintings of the Gupta period are seen at Bagh caves near Gwalior. The mural paintings of Ajantha mostly illustrate the life of the Buddha as depicted in the Jataka stories. The paintings at Sigiriya in Sri Lanka were highly influenced by the Ajantha style.

The Gupta coinage was also remarkable. Samudragupta issued eight types of gold coins. The legends on them throw much light on the achievements of that marvelous king. The figures inscribed on them are illustrative of the skill and greatness of Gupta numismatic art. Chandragupta II and his successors had also issued gold, silver and copper coins of different varieties.

Literature

The Sanskrit language became prominent during the Gupta period. Nagari script had evolved from the Brahmi script. Numerous works in classical Sanskrit came to be written in the forms of epic, lyrics, drama and prose. The best of the Sanskrit literature belonged to the Gupta age.

Himself a great poet, Samudragupta patronized a number of scholars including Harisena. The court of Chandragupta II was adorned by the celebrated Navratnas. Kalidasa remain the foremost among them. His master-piece was the Sanskrit drama *Shakuntala*. It is considered one among the 'hundred best books of the world'. He wrote two other plays - the *Malavikagnimitra* and *Vikramorvasiya*. His two well-known epics are *Raghuvamsa* and *Kumarasambhava*. *Ritusamhara* and *Meghaduta* are his two lyrics.

Visakadatta was another celebrated author of this period. He was the author of two Sanskrit dramas, *Mudrarakshasa* and *Devichandraguptam*. Sudraka was a renowned poet of this age and his book *Mrichchakatika* is rich in humour and pathos. Bharavi's *Kritarjuniya* is the story of the conflict between Arjuna and Siva. Dandin was the author of *Kavyadarsa* and *Dasakumaracharita*. Another important work of this period was *Vasavadatta* written by Subhandhu. The *Panchatantra* stories were composed by Vishnusarma during the Gupta period. The Buddhist author Amarasimha compiled a lexicon called *Amarakosa*.

The Puranas in their present form were composed during this period. There are eighteen Puranas. The most important among them are the *Bhagavatha*, *Vishnu*, *Vayu* and *Matsya* Puranas. The Mahabharatha and the Ramayana were given final touches and written in the present form during this period.

Science

The Gupta period witnessed a brilliant activity in the sphere of mathematics, astronomy, astrology and medicine. Aryabhatta was a great mathematician and astronomer. He wrote the book *Aryabhatiya* in 499 A.D. It deals with mathematics and astronomy. It explains scientifically the occurrence of solar and lunar eclipses. Aryabhatta was the first to declare that the earth was spherical in shape and that it rotates on its own axis. However, these views were rejected by later astronomers like Varahamihira and Brahmagupta.

Varahamihira composed *Pancha Siddhantika*, the five astronomical systems. He was also a great authority on astrology. His work *Brihadsamhita* is a great work in Sanskrit literature. It deals with a variety of subjects like astronomy, astrology, geography, architecture, weather, animals, marriage and omens. His *Brihadjataka* is considered to be a standard work on astrology.

In the field of medicine, Vagbhata lived during this period. He was the last of the great medical trio of ancient India. The other two scholars Charaka and Susruta lived before the Gupta age. Vagbhata was the author *Ashtangasamgraha* (Summary of the eight branches of medicine).

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The sources for the history of Guptas like the Allahabad Pillar inscription and their importance.*
- 2. Samudragupta's military achievements as well as his personal accomplishments.*
- 3. The conquests of Chandragupta II and his other qualities including patron of art and literature.*
- 4. Gupta administration, society and economic progress as described by Fahien, who visited India during this period.*
- 5. The growth of Sanskrit literature and the contribution of scholars like Kalidasa and Visakadatta.*
- 6. The art and architecture of the Gupta period as well as the progress in science including the contribution of Aryabhatta and others.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Gupta era starts from the year
(a) 310 A.D. (b) 320 A.D.
(c) 330 A.D. (d) 300 A.D.
2. The founder of the Nalanda University
(a) Samudragupta (b) Chandragupta II
(c) Kumaragupta (d) Skandagupta
3. The physician who lived during the Gupta age
(a) Varahamihira (b) Vagbatha
(c) Charaka (d) Susruta

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The founder of the Gupta dynasty was
2. The Buddhist scholar Vasubandhu was patronized by
3. The title 'Sakari' was assumed by
4. The epics written by Kalidasa are and
5. The author of *Brihatsamhita* was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. <i>Meghaduta</i> | a) Dandin |
| 2. <i>Devichandraguptam</i> | b) Sudraka |
| 3. <i>Dasakumaracharita</i> | c) Kalidasa |
| 4. <i>Mrichchakatika</i> | d) Visakadatta |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Samudragupta annexed all his conquered territories of South India.
- b) The Dakshinapatha expedition of Samudragupta was mentioned by Fahien.
- c) Samudragupta defeated the South Indian kings but gave them back their kingdoms.
- d) The North Indian conquests of Samudragupta did not result in the expansion of the Gupta empire.

V. State whether the following statements are true or False.

- 1. The scholars known as Navratnas lived during the reign of Samudragupta.
- 2. The Gupta empire declined due to the invasion of the Huns.
- 3. The Gupta art adopted both the Nagara and Dravidian styles.
- 4. The Guptas patronized the Sanskrit language.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Allahabad Pillar Inscription.
- 2. Dakshinapatha expedition of Samudragupta.
- 3. Aryabhatta.
- 4. Metal artifacts under the Guptas.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Evaluate the impact of the conquest of western India by Chandragupta II.

2. Write a brief account of Fahien's visit to India and his observation on India.
3. Examine the salient features of the Gupta administration.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the achievements of Samudragupta.
2. Describe the socio-economic life under the rule of Guptas.
3. Examine the cultural contributions of the Guptas.

LESSON 10

HARSHAVARDHANA (606 – 647 A.D.)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Sources for the study of Harsha.*
- 2. The early life of Harsha.*
- 3. The military activities of Harsha.*
- 4. Harsha's contribution to Buddhism.*
- 5. Nalanda University.*

The decline of the Gupta Empire was followed by a period of political disorder and disunity in North India. It was only in the beginning of the seventh century A.D. that Harshvardhana succeeded in establishing a larger kingdom in north India.

The chief sources for tracing the history of Harsha and his times are the *Harshacharita* written by Bana and the Travel accounts of Hiuen Tsang. Bana was the court poet of Harsha. Hiuen Tsang was the Chinese traveler who visited India in the seventh century A.D. Besides these two sources, the dramas written by Harsha, namely *Ratnavali*, *Nagananda* and *Priyadarsika* also provide useful information. The Madhuben plate inscription and the Sonpat inscription are also helpful to know the chronology of Harsha. The Banskhera inscription contains the signature of Harsha.

Early Life of Harsha

The founder of the family of Harsha was Pushyabhuti. Pushyabhutis were the feudatories of the Guptas. They called

themselves *Vardhanas*. After the Hun invasions they assumed independence. The first important king of Pushyabhuti dynasty was Prabhakaravardhana. His capital was Thaneswar, north of Delhi. He assumed the title Maharajadhiraja and Paramabhataraka.

After Prabhakaravardhana's death, his elder son Rajyavardhana came to the throne. He had to face problems right from the time of his accession. His sister, Rajyasri had married the Maukhari ruler called Grihavarman. The ruler of Malwa, Devagupta in league with Sasanka, the ruler of Bengal had killed Grihavarman. Immediately on hearing this news, Rajyavardhana marched against the king of Malwa and routed his army. But before he could return to his capital, he was treacherously murdered by Sasanka. In the meantime, Rajyasri escaped into forests. Harsha now succeeded his brother at Thaneswar. His first responsibility was to rescue his sister and to avenge the killings of his brother and brother-in-law. He first rescued his sister when she was about to immolate herself.

Harsha's Military Conquests

In his first expedition, Harsha drove out Sasanka from Kanauj. He made Kanauj his new capital. This made him the most powerful ruler of north India. Harsha fought against Dhuruvasena II of Valabhi and defeated him. Dhuruvasena II became a vassal.

The most important military campaign of Harsha was against the Western Chalukya ruler Pulakesin II. Both the accounts of Hiuen Tsang and the inscriptions of Pulakesin II provide the details of this campaign. Harsha with an ambition to extend his kingdom south of the Narmada river marched against the Chalukya ruler. But the Aihole inscription of Pulakesin II mentions the defeat of Harsha by Pulakesin, who after this achievement assumed the title *Paramesvara*. Hiuen Tsang's accounts also confirm the victory of Pulakesin.

Harsha led another campaign against the ruler of Sindh, which was an independent kingdom. But, it is doubtful whether his Sind campaign was a successful one. Nepal had accepted Harsha's overlordship. Harsha established his control over Kashmir and its ruler sent tributes to him. He also maintained cordial relations with Bhaskaravarman, the ruler of Assam. Harsha's last military campaign was against the kingdom of Kalinga in Orissa and it was a success.

Thus Harsha established his hold over the whole of north India. The regions modern Rajasthan, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Orissa were under his direct control. But his sphere of influence was much more extensive. The peripheral states such as Kashmir, Sind, Valabhi and Kamarupa acknowledged his sovereignty.

Harsha and Buddhism

In his early life, Harsha was a devout Saiva but later he became an ardent Hinayana Buddhist. Hiuen Tsang converted him to Mahayana Buddhism. Harsha prohibited the use of animal food in his kingdom and punished those who kill any living being. He erected thousands of stupas and established travellers' rests all over his kingdom. He also erected monasteries at the sacred places of Buddhists. Once in five years he convened a gathering of representatives of all religions and honoured them with gifts and costly presents. He brought the Buddhist monks together frequently to discuss and examine the Buddhist doctrine.



HIUEN TSANG

Kanauj Assembly

Harsha organized a religious assembly at Kanauj to honour the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang towards the close of his reign. He invited representatives of all religious sects. It was attended by 20

kings, 1000 scholars from the Nalanda University, 3000 Hinayanists and Mahayanists, 3000 Brahmins and Jains. The Assembly went on continuously for 23 days. Hiuen Tsang explained the values of Mahayana doctrine and established its superiority over others. However, violence broke out and there were acts of arson. There was also an attempt on the life of Harsha. Soon, it was brought under control and the guilty were punished. On the final day of the Assembly, Hiuen Tsang was honoured with costly presents.

Allahabad Conference

Hiuen Tsang mentions in his account about the conference held at Allahabad, known as Prayag. It was the one among the conferences routinely convened by Harsha once in five years. Harsha gave away his enormous wealth as gifts to the members of all religious sects. According to Hiuen Tsang, Harsha was so lavish that he emptied the treasury and even gave away the clothes and jewels he was wearing. His statement might be one of admiring exaggeration.

Harsha's Administration

The administration of Harsha was organized on the same lines as the Guptas did. Hiuen Tsang gives a detailed picture about this. The king was just in his administration and punctual in discharging his duties. He made frequent visits of inspection throughout his dominion. The day was too short for him. Taxation was also light and forced labour was also rare. One sixth of the produce was collected as land tax. Cruel punishments of the Mauryan period continued in the times of Harsha. Hiuen Tsang condemned the trials as barbarous and superstitious. Harsha's army consisted of the traditional four divisions – foot, horse, chariot and elephant. The number of cavalry was more than one lakh and the elephants more than sixty thousands. This was much more than that of the Mauryan army. The maintenance of public records was the salient feature of Harsha's administration. The archive of the Harsha period was

known as *nilopitu* and it was under the control of special officers. Both good and bad events happened during his time had been recorded.

Society and Economy under Harsha

Both Bana and Hiuen Tsang portray the social life in the times of Harsha. The fourfold division of the society – Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vysya and Sudra – was prevalent. The Brahmins were the privileged section of the society and they were given land grants by the kings. The Kshatriyas were the ruling class. The Vysyas were mainly traders. Hiuen Tsang mentions that the Sudras practiced agriculture. There existed many sub castes. The position of women was not satisfactory. The institution of Swyamvara (the choice of choosing her husband) had declined. Remarriage of widows was not permitted, particularly among the higher castes. The system of dowry had also become common. The practice of sati was also prevalent. Hiuen Tsang mentions three ways of disposal of the dead – cremation, water burial and exposure in the woods.

The trade and commerce had declined during Harsha's period. This is evident from the decline of trade centres, less number of coins, and slow activities of merchant guilds. The decline of trade in turn affected the handicrafts industry and agriculture. Since there was no large scale demand for goods, the farmers began to produce only in a limited way. This led to the rise of self-sufficient village economy. In short, there was a sharp economic decline as compared to the economy of the Gupta period.

Cultural Progress

The art and architecture of Harsha's period are very few and mostly followed the Gupta style. Hiuen Tsang describes the glory of the monastery with many storeys built by Harsha at Nalanda. He also speaks of a copper statue of Buddha with eight feet in height.

The brick temple of Lakshmana at Sirpur with its rich architecture is assigned to the period of Harsha.

Harsha was a great patron of learning. His biographer Banabhatta adorned his royal court. Besides *Harshacharita*, he wrote *Kadambari*. Other literary figures in Harsha's court were Matanga Divakara and the famous Barthrihari, who was the poet, philosopher and grammarian. Harsha himself authored three plays - *Ratnavali*, *Priyadarsika* and *Nagananda*. Harsha patronised the Nalanda University by his liberal endowments. It attained international reputation as a centre of learning during his reign. Hiuen Tsang visited the Nalanda University and remained as a student for some time.

Nalanda University

The Chinese travelers of ancient India mentioned a number of educational institutions. The most famous among them were the Hinayana University of Valabhi and the Mahayana University of



RUINS OF NALANDA UNIVERSITY

Nalanda. Hiuen Tsang gives a very valuable account of the Nalanda University. The term Nalanda means “giver of knowledge”. It was founded by Kumaragupta I during the Gupta period. It was patronised by his successors and later by Harsha. The professors of the University were called *panditas*. Some of its renowned professors were Dingnaga, Dharmapala, Sthiramati and Silabadhra. Dharmapala was a native of Kanchipuram and he became the head of the Nalanda University.

Nalanda University was a residential university and education was free including the boarding and lodging. It was maintained with the revenue derived from 100 to 200 villages endowed by different

rulers. Though it was a Mahayana University, different religious subjects like the Vedas, Hinayana doctrine, Sankhya and Yoga philosophies were also taught. In addition to that, general subjects like logic, grammar, astronomy, medicine and art were in the syllabus. It attracted students not only from different parts of India but from different countries of the east. Admission was made by means of an entrance examination. The entrance test was so difficult that not more than thirty percent of the candidates were successful. Discipline was very strict. More than lectures, discussion played an important part and the medium of instruction was Sanskrit.

Recent archeological excavations have brought to light the ruins of the Nalanda University. It shows the grandeur of this centre of learning and confirms the account given by the Chinese pilgrims. It had numerous classrooms and a hostel attached to it. According to Itsing, the Chinese pilgrim, there were 3000 students on its rolls. It had an observatory and a great library housed in three buildings. Its fame rests on the fact that it attracted scholars from various parts of the world. It was an institution of advanced learning and research.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The sources for the study of Harsha such as Harshacharita and the travel accounts of Hiuen Tsang.*
- 2. Harsha's early life and his military adventures.*
- 3. Harsha and his services to Buddhism like the Kanauj Assembly and Allahabad Conference.*
- 4. Socio-economic condition and cultural development under the rule of Harsha.*
- 5. The Nalanda University and its international reputation.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The original capital of Harshavardhana was
(a) Pataliputra (b) Peshavar
(c) Thaneshwar (d) Delhi
2. The Banskhera inscription contains the signature of
(a) Hiuen Tsang (b) Bana
(c) Harsha (d) Pulakesin II

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The new capital established by Harsha was
2. The archive of the Harsha period was known as
3. Dhuruvasena II was the ruler of

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Bana | a) Author of three plays |
| 2. Dharmapala | b) Poet and philosopher |
| 3. Bhartrihari | c) Biographer of Harsha |
| 4. Harsha | d) Head of the Nalanda University |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Kanauj assembly was organized by Harsha to honour Hiuen Tsang.
- b) Representatives of Mahayana Buddhism were alone invited to the Kanauj assembly.

- c) Kanauj assembly was an assembly convened by Harsha once in five years.
- d) The Kanauj assembly went on peacefully without any religious strife.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Baskaravarman was the ruler of Kashmir.
- 2. Harsha patronized the Hinayana sect of Buddhism.
- 3. There was all-round economic prosperity during the reign of Harsha.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Sources for the study of Harsha.
- 2. Travel accounts of Hiuen Tsang.
- 3. Kanauj Assembly.
- 4. Allahabad Conference.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Bring out the cultural progress under the rule of Harsha.
- 2. Write a brief account of the Nalanda University.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of the life and achievements of Harshavardhana.
- 2. Estimate the contributions of Harsha to Buddhism.
- 3. Describe the administration and society under Harsha as explained by Hiuen Tsang.

LESSON 11

SOUTH INDIAN KINGDOMS – I

PALLAVAS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Origin of the Pallavas.*
- 2. Achievements of Mahendravarman I, Narasimhavarman I and Rajasimha.*
- 3. Administration of the Pallavas.*
- 4. Education and Literature under the Pallavas.*
- 5. Art and architecture of the Pallavas.*

After the decline of the Sangam Age in the Tamil country, the Kalabhra rule lasted for about 250 years. Thereafter, the Pallavas established their kingdom in Tondaimandalam with its capital at Kanchipuram. Their rule continued till Tondaimandalam was captured and annexed by the Imperial Cholas in the beginning of the tenth century A.D.

Origin of the Pallavas

There are different views on the origin of the Pallavas. They were equated with the Parthians, the foreigners who ruled western India. Another view was that the Pallavas were a branch of the Brahmin royal dynasty of the Vakatakas of the Deccan. The third view relates the Pallavas with the descendents of the Chola prince and a Naga princess whose native was the island of Manipallavam. But these theories on the origin of the Pallavas were not supported by adequate evidences.

Therefore, the view that the Pallavas were the natives of Tondaimandalam itself was widely accepted by scholars. They are also identical with the Pulindas mentioned in the inscriptions of Asoka. When Tondaimandalam was conquered by the Satavahanas, the Pallavas became their feudatories. After the fall of the Satavahanas in the third century A.D., they became independent. The Pallavas issued their earlier inscriptions in Prakrit and Sanskrit because of their Satavahana connections, and also patronised Brahmanism.

Political History

The early Pallava rulers from 250 A.D. to 350 A.D. issued their charters in Prakrit. Important among them were Sivaskandavarman and Vijayaskandavarman. The second line of Pallava rulers who ruled between 350 A.D. and 550 A.D. issued their charters in Sanskrit. The most important ruler of this line was Vishnugopa who was defeated by Samudragupta during his South Indian expedition. The rulers of the third line who ruled from 575 A.D. to their ultimate fall in the ninth century issued their charters both in Sanskrit and Tamil. Simhavishnu was the first ruler of this line. He destroyed the Kalabhras and firmly established the Pallava rule in Tondaimandalam. He also defeated the Cholas and extended the Pallava territory up to the river Kaveri. Other great Pallava rulers of this line were Mahendravarman I, Narasimhavarman I, and Narasimhavarman II.

Mahendravarman I (600 – 630 A.D.)

The long-drawn Pallava – Chalukya Conflict began during his period. Pulakesin II marched against the Pallavas and captured the northern part of their kingdom. Although a Pallava inscription refers to the victory of Mahendravarman I at Pullalur, he was not able to recover the lost territory.

Mahendravarman I was a follower of Jainism in the early part of his career. He was converted to Saivism by the influence of the Saiva saint, Thirunavukkarasar alias Appar. He built a Siva temple at Tiruvadi. He assumed a number of titles like Gunabhara, Satyasandha, Chettakari (builder of temples) Chitrakarapuli, Vichitrachitta and Mattavilasa.

He was a great builder of cave temples. The Mandagappattu inscription hails him as Vichitrachitta who constructed a temple for Brahma, Vishnu and Siva without the use of bricks, timber, metal and mortar. His rock-cut temples are found in a number of places like Vallam, Mahendravadi, Dalavanur, Pallavaram, Mandagappattu and Tiruchirappalli. He had also authored the Sanskrit work Mattavilasa Prahasanam. His title Chitrakarapuli reveals his talents in painting. He is also regarded as an expert in music. The music inscription at Kudumianmalai is ascribed to him.

Narasimhavarman I (630-668 A.D.)

Narasimhavarman I was also known as Mamalla, which means 'great wrestler'. He wanted to take revenge the defeat of his father at the hands of Chalukyan ruler Pulakesin II. His victory over Pulakesin II in the Battle of Manimangalam near Kanchi is mentioned in Kuram copper plates. The Pallava army under General Paranjothi pursued the retreating Chalukya army, entered Chalukya territory, captured and destroyed the capital city of Vatapi. Narasimhavarman I assumed the title 'Vatapikonda'. He regained the lost territory. Another notable achievement of Narasimhavarman I was his naval expedition to Sri Lanka. He restored the throne to his friend and Sri Lankan prince Manavarma.

During his reign, Hiuen Tsang visited the Pallava capital Kanchipuram. His description of Kanchi is vivid. He calls it a big and beautiful city, six miles in circumference. It had 100 Buddhist

monasteries in which about 10,000 Buddhist monks lived. According to his account the people of Kanchi esteemed great learning and the Ghatika at Kanchi served as a great centre of learning. Narasimhavarman I was the founder of Mamallapuram and the monolithic rathas were erected during his reign.

Narasimhavarman II or Rajasimha (695 -722 A.D.)

Narasimhavarman I was succeeded by Mahendravarman II and Parameswaravarman I and the Pallava – Chalukya conflict continued during their reign. Thereafter, Narasimhavarman II became the ruler of the Pallava kingdom. He was also known as Rajasimha. His regime was peaceful and he evinced more interest in developing the art and architecture. The Shore temple at Mamallapuram and the Kailasanatha temple at Kanchipuram were built in this period. He was also a great patron of art and letters. The famous Sanskrit scholar Dandin is said to have adorned his court. He sent embassies to China and the maritime trade flourished during his reign. Rajasimha assumed titles like Sankarabhakta, Vadhyavidyadhara and Agamapriya.

He was succeeded by Parameswaravarman II and Nandivarman II. The Pallava rule lasted till the end of the ninth century A.D. The Chola king Aditya I defeated the last Pallava ruler Aparajita and seized the Kanchi region. With this, the rule of Pallava dynasty came to an end.

Administration of the Pallavas

The Pallavas had a well organized administrative system. The Pallava state was divided into *Kottams*. The *Kottam* was administered by officers appointed by the king. The king was at the centre of administration in which he was assisted by able ministers. He was the fountain of justice. He maintained a well-trained army. He provided land-grants to the temples known as *Devadhana* and

also to the Brahmans known as *Brahmadeya*. It was also the responsibility of the central government to provide irrigation facilities to the lands. A number of irrigation tanks were dug by the Pallava kings. The irrigation tanks at Mahendravadi and Mamandoor were dug during the reign of Mahendravarman I. Detailed information on the tax system could also be traced from the Pallava inscriptions. Land tax was the primary source of the government revenue. The *Brahmadeya* and *Devadhana* lands were exempted from tax. Traders and artisans such as carpenters, goldsmiths, washer-men, oil-pressers and weavers paid taxes to the government. The Pallava inscriptions throw much light on the village assemblies called *sabhas* and their committees. They maintained records of all village lands, looked after local affairs and managed temples.

Society under the Pallavas

The Tamil society witnessed a great change during the Pallava period. The caste system became rigid. The Brahmins occupied a high place in the society. They were given land-grants by the kings and nobles. They were also given the responsibility of looking after the temples. The Pallava period also witnessed the rise of Saivism and Vaishnavism and also the decline of Buddhism and Jainism. The Saiva Nayanmars and the Vaishnava Alvars contributed to the growth of Saivism and Vaishnavism. This is known as the Bakthi Movement. They composed their hymns in the Tamil language. These hymns revealed the importance of devotion or Bakthi. The construction of temples by the Pallava kings paved the way for the spread of these two religions.

Education and Literature

The Pallavas were great patrons of learning. Their capital Kanchi was an ancient centre of learning. The *Ghatika* at Kanchi was popular and it attracted students from all parts of India and

abroad. The founder of the Kadamba dynasty, Mayurasarman studied Vedas at Kanchi. Dinganaga, a Buddhist writer came to study at Kanchi. Dharmapala, who later became the Head of the Nalanada University, belonged to Kanchi. Bharavi, the great Sanskrit scholar lived in the time of Simhavishnu. Dandin, another Sanskrit writer adorned the court of Narasimhavarman II. Mahendravarman I composed the Sanskrit play *Mattavilasaprahasanam*. Tamil literature had also developed. The Nayanmars and Alvars composed religious hymns in Tamil. The *Devaram* composed by Nayanmars and the *Nalayradivyaprabandam* composed by Alvars represent the religious literature of the Pallava period. Perundevanar was patronized by Nandivarman II and he translated the Mahabharata as *Bharathavenba* in Tamil. *Nandikkalambagam* was another important work but the name of the author of this work is not known. Music and dance also developed during this period.

Pallava Art and Architecture

It was a great age of temple building. The Pallavas introduced the art of excavating temples from the rock. In fact, the Dravidian style of temple architecture began with the Pallava rule. It was a gradual evolution starting from the cave temples to monolithic *rathas* and culminated in structural temples. The development of temple architecture under the Pallavas can be seen in four stages.



Rathas at Mamallapuram

Mahendravarman I introduced the rock-cut temples. This style of Pallava temples are seen at places like Mandagappattu, Mahendravadi, Mamandur, Dalavanur, Tiruchirappalli, Vallam, Siyamangalam and Tirukalukkunram.

The second stage of Pallava architecture is represented by the monolithic *rathas* and Mandapas found at Mamallapuram. Narasimhavarman I took the credit for these wonderful architectural monuments. The five *rathas*, popularly called as the *Panchapanadava rathas*, signifies five different styles of temple architecture. The mandapas contain beautiful sculptures on its walls. The most popular of these mandapas are Mahishasuramardhini Mandapa, Tirumurthi Mandapam and Varaha Madapam.



**Kailasanatha temple at
Kanchipuram**

In the next stage, Rajasimha introduced the structural temples. These temples were built by using the soft sand rocks. The Kailasanatha temple at Kanchi and the Shore temple at Mamallapuram remain the finest examples of the early structural temples of the Pallavas. The Kailasanatha temple at Kanchi is the greatest architectural master piece of the Pallava art.

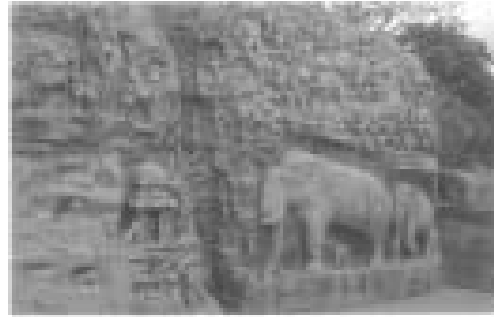
The last stage of the Pallava art is also represented by structural temples built by the later Pallavas. The Vaikundaperumal temple, Muktheeswara temple and Matagenswara temples at Kanchipuram belong to this stage of architecture.



**Shore Temple at
Mamallapuram**

The Pallavas had also contributed to the development of sculpture. Apart from the sculptures found in the temples, the 'Open Art Gallery' at Mamallapuram remains an important monument bearing the sculptural beauty of this period. The Descent of the Ganges or the Penance of Arjuna is called a fresco painting in stone. The minute details as well

as the theme of these sculptures such as the figures of lice-picking monkey, elephants of huge size and the figure of the ‘ascetic cat’ standing erect remain the proof for the talent of the sculptor.



The Fall of Ganges

Fine Arts

Music, dance and painting had also developed under the patronage of the Pallavas. The Mamandur inscription contains a note on the notation of vocal music. The Kudumianmalai inscription referred to musical notes and instruments. The Alvars and Nayanmars composed their hymns in various musical notes. Dance and drama also developed during this period. The sculptures of this period depict many dancing postures. The Sittannavasal paintings belonged to this period. The commentary called *Dakshinchitra* was compiled during the reign of Mahendravarman I, who had the title Chittirakkarapuli.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The different theories about the origin of the Pallavas.*
- 2. The political history of the Pallavas and their military accomplishments*
- 3. Administrative system under the Pallavas.*
- 4. Their cultural contributions.*
- 5. Architectural achievements of the Pallavas.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Pallava ruler who destroyed the Kalabhras
 (a) Vishnugopa (b) Simhavishnu
 (c) Mahendravarman I (d) Rajasimha
2. Hiuen Tsang visited Kanchi during the reign of
 (a) Mahendravarman I (b) Narasimhavarman I
 (c) Rajasimha (d) Nandivarman III

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Saiva saint who converted Mahendravarman I to Saivism was
2. The commander of the Pallava army who destroyed Vatapi
3. The title Mamalla was assumed by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Perundevanar | a) Nalayiradivya prabandam |
| 2. Alvars | b) Devaram |
| 3. Nayanmars | c) Mattavilasaprahasanam |
| 4. Mahendravarman I | d) Bharathavenba |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Pallava period witnessed the decline of the Sanskrit language.
- b) Rajasimha destroyed Vatapi and assumed the title Vatapikondan.
- c) Mahendravarman introduced the style of building structural temples.

- d) Both Vaishnavism and Saivism flourished during Pallava period.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The Sangam age was followed by the Pallava rule.
2. Mahendravarman I was a follower of Jainism in the early part of his career.
3. Monolithic rathas were erected at Kanchipuram by Narasimhavarman I.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Origin of the Pallavas.
2. Ghatika at Kanchi.
3. Pallava Chalukya conflict.
4. Bakthi Movement.
5. Fine arts under the Pallavas.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Give an account of the reign of Mahendravarman I.
2. Write a brief account on the military accomplishments of Narasimhavarman I.
3. Examine the administration system of the Pallavas.
4. Write a note on the social life under the Pallavas.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the political history of the Pallavas.
2. Assess the cultural contributions of the Pallavas.
3. Mention the salient features of the Pallava art.

LESSON 12

SOUTH INDIAN KINGDOMS – II

CHALUKYAS AND RASHTRAKUTAS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The achievements of Chalukya ruler Pulakesin II.*
- 2. Administration, social life and art and architecture under the Chalukyas.*
- 3. Political history of the Rashtrakutas.*
- 4. Administration and society under the Rashtrakutas.*
- 5. Art and architecture of the Rashtrakutas.*

Besides the Pallavas, the Western Chalukyas and the Rashtrakutas in the Deccan constitute important political forces. Both these kingdoms had their rivals in the far south, namely the Pallavas and later the Cholas. Their period has also been important in the history of India for their cultural contributions.

Chalukyas (543 – 755 A.D.)

The Western Chalukyas ruled over an extensive area in the Deccan for about two centuries after which the Rashtrakutas became powerful. The family of Western Chalukyas had its offshoots like the Eastern Chalukyas of Vengi and the Chalukyas of Kalyani. Pulakesin I was the founder of the Chalukya dynasty. He established a small kingdom with Vatapi or Badami as its capital.

Pulakesin II (608-642 A.D.)

The most important ruler of this dynasty was Pulakesin II. The Aihole inscription issued by him gives the details of his reign.

He fought with the Kadambas of Banavasi and the Gangas of Mysore and established his suzerainty. Durvinita, the Ganga ruler accepted his overlordship and even gave his daughter in marriage to Pulakesin II. Another notable achievement of Pulakesin II was the defeat of Harshavardhana on the banks of the river Narmada. He put a check to the ambition of Harsha to conquer the south. In his first expedition against the Pallavas, Pulakesin II emerged victorious. But he suffered a humiliating defeat at the hands of Narasimhavarman I near Kanchi. Subsequently, the Chalukya capital Vatapi was captured and destroyed by the Pallavas. The most important event in the reign of Pulakesin II was the visit of Hiuen Tsang to his kingdom.

The successor of Pulakesin II was Vikramaditya. He once again consolidated the Chalukya kingdom and plundered the Pallava capital, Kanchi. Thus he had avenged his father's defeat and death at the hands of the Pallavas. Kirtivarman II was the last of the rulers of the Chalukyas. He was defeated by Dantidurga, the founder of the Rashtrakuta dynasty.

Administration and Social Life under the Chalukyas

The Chalukya administration was highly centralized unlike that of the Pallavas and the Cholas. Village autonomy was absent under the Chalukyas. The Chalukyas had a great maritime power. Pulakesin II had 100 ships in his navy. They also had a small standing army.

The Badami Chalukyas were Brahmanical Hindus but they gave respect to other religions. Importance was given to Vedic rites and rituals. The founder of the dynasty Pulakesin I performed the *asvamedha* sacrifice. A number of temples in honour of Vishnu, Siva and other gods were also built during this period. Hiuen Tsang mentioned about the decline of Buddhism in western Deccan. But Jainism was steadily on the path of progress in this region. Ravikirti, the court poet of Pulakesin II who composed the Aihole inscription was a Jain.

Art and Architecture

The Chalukyas were great patrons of art. They developed the *vesara* style in the building of structural temples. However, the *vesara* style reached its culmination only under the Rashtrakutas and the Hoysalas. The structural temples of the Chalukyas exist at Aihole, Badami and Pattadakal. Cave temple architecture was also famous under the Chalukyas. Their cave temples are found in Ajanta, Ellora and Nasik. The best specimens of Chalukya paintings can be seen in the Badami cave temple and in the Ajanta caves. The reception given to a Persian embassy by Pulakesin II is depicted in a painting at Ajantha.



CAVE TEMPLE AT AJANTA

The Chalukya temples may be divided into two stages. The first stage is represented by the temples at Aihole and Badami. Among the seventy temples found at Aihole, four are important.

1. Ladh Khan temple is a low, flat-roofed structure consisting of a pillared hall.
2. Durga temple resembles a Buddha *Chaitya*.
3. Huchimalligudi temple.
4. The Jain temple at Meguti.



Cave Temple at Badami

Among the temples at Badami, the Muktheeswara temple and the Melagutti Sivalaya are notable for their architectural beauty. A group of four rock-cut temples at Badami are marked by high workmanship. The walls and pillared halls are adorned by beautiful images of gods and human beings.



**Virupaksha temple at
Pattadakal**

The second stage is represented by the temples at Pattadakal. There are ten temples here, four in the northern style and the remaining six in the Dravidian style. The Papanatha temple is the most notable in the northern style.

The Sangamesvara temple and the Virupaksha temple are famous for their Dravidian style. The Virupaksha temple is built on the model of the Kailasanatha temple at Kanchipuram. It was built by one of the queens of Vikramaditya II. Sculptors brought from Kanchi were employed in its construction.

Rashtrakutas (755 – 975 A.D.)

The Rashtrakutas were of Kannada origin and Kannada language was their mother tongue. Dantidurga was the founder of the Rashtrakuta dynasty. He defeated the Gurjaras and captured Malwa from them. Then he annexed the Chalukya kingdom by defeating Kirtivarman II. Thus, the Rashtrakutas became a paramount power in the Deccan.

His successor Krishna I was also a great conqueror. He defeated the Gangas and the eastern Chalukyas of Vengi. He built the magnificent rock-cut monolithic Kailasa temple at Ellora. The next important king of this dynasty was Govinda III. He achieved victories over north Indian kingdoms.

His successor Amoghavarsha I (815- 880 A.D.) ruled for a long period of 64 years. He had lost control over Malwa and Gangavadi. Yet, his reign was popular for the cultural development. He was a follower of Jainism. Jinasena was his chief preceptor. He was also a patron of letters and he himself wrote the famous Kannada work, Kavirajamarga. He had also built the Rashtrakuta capital, the city of Malkhed or Manyakheda.

Among the successors of Amoghavarsha I, Krishna III (936-968 A.D.) was famous for his expeditions. He marched against the Cholas and defeated them at Takkolam. He marched further south and captured Tanjore. He went as far as Rameswaram and occupied it for sometime. He built several temples in the conquered territories including the Krishneswara temple at Rameswaram. Throughout his reign he possessed the Tondaimandalam region including the capital Kanchi. After his death, the power of the Rashtrakutas declined.

Administration

The Rashtrakuta Empire was divided into several provinces called *rashtras* under the control of *rashtrapatis*. They were further divided into *vishayas* or districts governed by *vishayapatis*. The next subdivision was *bhukti* consisting of 50 to 70 villages under the control of *bhogapatis*. These officers were directly appointed by the central government. The village administration was carried on by the village headmen. However, the village assemblies played a significant role in the village administration.

Society and Economy

The Hindu sects of Vaishnavism and Saivism flourished during the period of Rashtrakutas. Yet, they did not affect the progress of Jainism under the patronage of Rashtrakuta kings and officers. Almost one third of the population of the Deccan were Jains. There were some prosperous Buddhist settlements at places like Kanheri, Sholapur and Dharwar. There was harmony among various religions. There was a college at Salatogi, situated in modern Bijapur district. An inscription gives details of this educational centre. It was run by the income from the endowments made by the rich as well as by all the villagers on occasions of functions and festivals.

The economy was also in a flourishing condition. There was an active commerce between the Deccan and the Arabs. The Rashtrakuta kings promoted the Arab trade by maintaining friendship with them.

Cultural Contributions

The Rashtrakutas widely patronized the Sanskrit literature. There were many scholars in the Rashtrakuta court. Trivikrama wrote *Nalachampu* and the *Kavirahasya* was composed by Halayudha during the reign of Krishna III. The Jain literature flourished under the patronage of the Rashtrakutas. Amogavarsha I, who was a Jain patronized many Jain scholars. His teacher Jinasena composed *Parsvabhudaya*, a biography of Parsva in verses. Another scholar Gunabhadra wrote the *Adipurana*, the life stories of various Jain saints. Sakatayana wrote the grammar work called *Amogavritti*. The great mathematician of this period, Viracharya was the author of *Ganitasaram*.

The Kannada literature saw its beginning during the period of the Rashtrakutas. Amogavarsha's *Kavirajamarga* was the first poetic work in Kannada language. Pampa was the greatest of the Kannada poets. His famous work was *Vikramasenavijaya*. Ponna was another famous Kannada poet and he wrote *Santipurana*.

Art and Architecture

The art and architecture of the Rashtrakutas were found at Ellora and Elephanta. At Ellora, the most remarkable temple is the Kailasa temple. It was excavated during the reign of Krishna I. It is carved out of a massive block of rock 200 feet long, and 100 feet in breadth and height. The temple consists of four parts - the main shrine, the entrance gateway, an intermediate shrine for Nandi and mandapa surrounding the courtyard. The temple stands on a lofty plinth 25 feet high. The central face of the plinth has



**KAILASA TEMPLE
AT ELLORA**

imposing figures of elephants and lions giving the impression that the entire structure rests on their back. It has a three-tiered *sikhara* or tower resembling the *sikhara* of the Mamallapuram *rathas*. In the interior of the temple there is a pillared hall which has sixteen square pillars. The Kailasa temple is an architectural marvel with its beautiful sculptures. The sculpture of the Goddess Durga is shown as slaying the Buffalo demon. In another sculpture Ravana was making attempts to lift Mount Kailasa, the abode of Siva. The scenes of Ramayana were also depicted on the walls. The general characteristics of the Kailasa temple are more Dravidian.

Elephanta is an island near Bombay. It was originally called Sripuri. The Portuguese after seeing the large figure of an elephant named it Elephanta. The sculptural art of the Rashtrakutas reached its zenith in this place. There is a close similarity between the sculptures at Ellora and those in Elephanta. They might have been carved by the same craftsmen. At the entrance to the sanctum there are huge figures of *dwara-palakas*. In the walls of the prakara around the sanctum there are niches containing the images of Shiva in various forms - Nataraja, Gangadhara, Ardhanareesvara and Somaskanda. The most imposing figure of this temple is *Trimurthi*. The sculpture is six metre high. It is said to represent the three aspects of Shiva as Creator, Preserver and Destroyer.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The political history of the Chalukyas of Badami.*
- 2. Art and architecture of the Chalukyas.*
- 3. Achievements of the Rashtrakuta rulers.*
- 4. Cultural contributions of the Rashtrakutas.*
- 5. Literary developments during the Rashtrakuta rule.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Aihole inscription was issued by
(a) Amoghavarsha I (b) Pulakesin II
(c) Govinda III (d) Dantidurga
2. Who among the following defeated the Cholas at Takkolam?
(a) Pulakesin II (b) Amoghavarsha I
(c) Vikramaditya I (d) Krishna III

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. was the capital of Rashtrakutas.
2. The founder of the Rashtrakuta dynasty was
3. Sripuri was renamed as Elephanta by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Ravikirti | a) Vikramasenavijaya |
| 2. Amoghavarsha I | b) Ganitasaram |
| 3. Pampa | c) Aihole inscription |
| 4. Viracharya | d) Kavirajamarga |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Ellora is an island near Bombay.
- b) The Kailasa temple is at Ellora.
- c) The temples at Ellora were built during the Chalukya rule.
- d) The Kailasa temple at Ellora was built by Pulakesin II.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. iuen Tsang visited the Deccan during the reign of Amoghavarsha I.
2. The beginning of Kannada literature commenced during the Rashtrakuta rule.
3. Dantidurga was the last ruler of the Chalukyas.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Aihole inscription
2. Pattadakal
3. Ellora
4. Elephanta

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Give a brief account of the achievements of Pulakesin II.
2. Give an estimate of Amoghavarsha I.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the development of art and architecture under the Chalukyas of Badami.
2. Evaluate the cultural contributions of the Rashtrakutas.

LESSON 13

IMPERIAL CHOLAS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

1. *A brief history of early Cholas.*
2. *Military conquests and other achievements of Rajaraja I.*
3. *Campaigns of Rajendra I and his accomplishments.*
4. *Salient features of the Chola administration.*
5. *Literature, Art and architecture of the Cholas.*

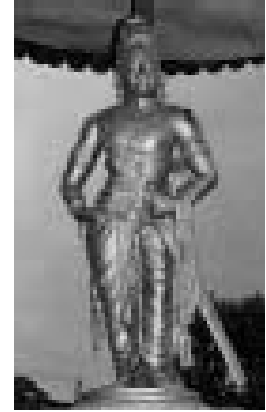
After the decline of the Sangam period, the Cholas became feudatories in Uraiyur. They became prominent in the ninth century and established an empire comprising the major portion of South India. Their capital was Tanjore. They also extended their sway in Sri Lanka and the Malay Peninsula. Therefore, they are called as the Imperial Cholas. Thousands of inscriptions found in the temples provide detailed information regarding the administration, society, economy and culture of the Chola period.

The founder of the Imperial Chola line was Vijayalaya. He captured Tanjore from Muttaraiyars in 815 A.D. and built a temple for Durga. His son Aditya put an end to the Pallava kingdom by defeating Aparajita and annexed Tondaimandalam. Parantaka I was one of the important early Chola rulers. He defeated the Pandyas and the ruler of Ceylon. But he suffered a defeat at the hands of the Rashtrakutas in the famous battle of Takkolam. Parantaka I was a great builder of temples. He also provided the *vimana* of the famous

Nataraja temple at Chidambaram with a golden roof. The two famous Uttiramerur inscriptions that give a detailed account of the village administration under the Cholas belong to his reign. After a gap of thirty years, the Cholas regained their supremacy under Rajaraja I.

Rajaraja I (985 – 1014 A.D.)

It was under Rajaraja I and his son Rajendra I that the Chola power reached its highest point of glory. His military conquests were:



**STATUTE OF
RAJARAJA**

1. The defeat of the Chera ruler Bhaskararavivarman in the naval battle of Kandalursalai and the destruction of the Chera navy.
2. The defeat of the Pandya ruler, Amarabhujanga and establishment of Chola authority in the Pandya country.
3. The conquest of Gangavadi, Tadigaipadi and Nolambapadi located in the Mysore region.
4. The invasion of Sri Lanka which was entrusted to his son Rajendra I. As the Sri Lankan king Mahinda V fled away from his country, the Cholas annexed the northern Sri Lanka. The capital was shifted from Anuradhapura to Polanaruva where a Shiva temple was built
5. The Chola victory over the growing power of the Western Chalukyas of Kalyani. Satyasraya was defeated and Rajaraja I captured the Raichur Doab, Banavasi and other places. Hence the Chola power extended up to the river Tungabhadra.
6. The restoration of Vengi throne to its rulers Saktivarman and Vimaladitya by defeating the Telugu Chodas. Rajaraja gave his daughter Kundavai in marriage to Vimaladitya.

7. **Rajaraja's last military achievement was a naval expedition against the Maldives which were conquered.**

By these conquests, the extent of the Chola empire under Rajaraja I included the Pandya, Chera and the Tondaimandalam regions of Tamil Nadu and the Gangavadi, Nolambapadi and the Telugu Choda territories in the Deccan and the northern part of Ceylon and the Maldives beyond India. Rajaraja assumed a number of titles like Mummidi Chola, Jayankonda and Sivapadasekara. He was a devout follower of Saivism. He completed the construction of the famous Rajarajeswara temple or Brihadeeswara temple at Tanjore in 1010 A.D. He also helped in the construction of a Buddhist monastery at Nagapattinam.

Rajendra I (1012-1044 A.D.)

Rajendra had demonstrated his military ability by participating in his father's campaigns. He continued his father's policy of aggressive conquests and expansion. His important wars were:

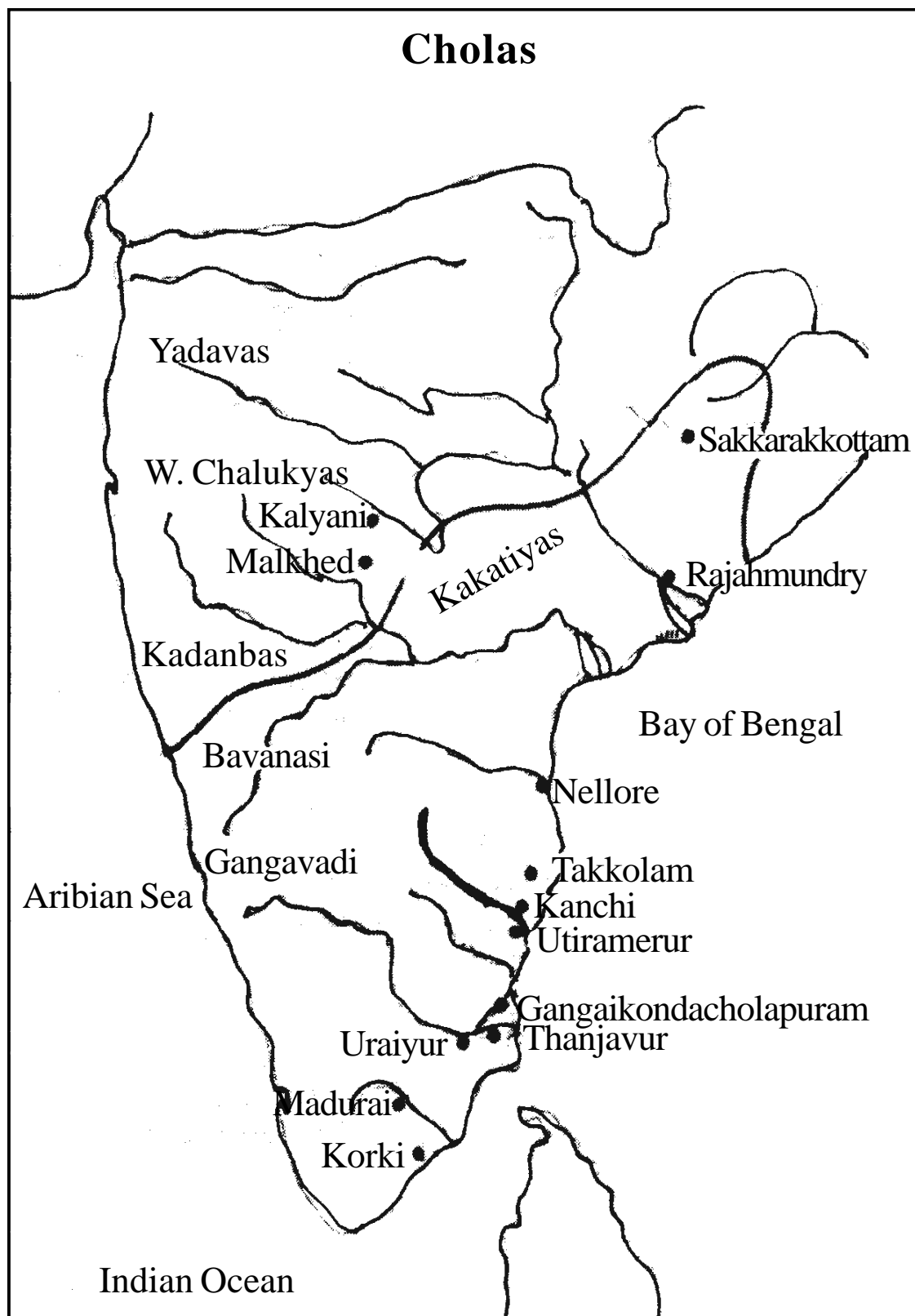
1. Mahinda V, the king of Sri Lanka attempted to recover from the Cholas the northern part of Ceylon. Rajendra defeated him and seized the southern Sri Lanka. Thus the whole of Sri Lanka was made part of the Chola Empire.
2. He reasserted the Chola authority over the Chera and Pandya countries.
3. He defeated Jayasimha II, the Western Chalukya king and the river Tungabhadra was recognised as the boundary between the Cholas and Chalukyas.
4. His most famous military enterprise was his expedition to north India. The Chola army crossed the Ganges by defeating a number of rulers on its way. Rajendra defeated Mahipala I of Bengal. To commemorate this successful north-Indian

campaign Rajendra founded the city of Gangaikondacholapuram and constructed the famous Rajesvaram temple in that city. He also excavated a large irrigation tank called Cholagangam on the western side of the city.

5. Another famous venture of Rajendra was his naval expedition to Kadaram or Sri Vijaya. It is difficult to pin point the real object of the expedition. Whatever its objects were, the naval expedition was a complete success. A number of places were occupied by Chola forces. But it was only temporary and no permanent annexation of these places was contemplated. He assumed the title Kadaramkondan.
6. Rajendra I had put down all rebellions and kept his empire in tact.

At the death of Rajendra I the extent of the Chola Empire was at its peak. The river Tungabadhra was the northern boundary. The Pandya, Kerala and Mysore regions and also Sri Lanka formed part of the empire. He gave his daughter Ammangadevi to the Vengi Chalukya prince and further continued the matrimonial alliance initiated by his father. Rajendra I assumed a number of titles, the most famous being Mudikondan, Gangaikondan, Kadaram Kondan and Pandita Cholan. Like his father he was also a devout Saiva and built a temple for that god at the new capital Gangaikondacholapuram. He made liberal endowments to this temple and to the Lord Nataraja temple at Chidambaram. He was also tolerant towards the Vaishnava and Buddhist sects.

After Rajendra I, the greatness of the Chola power was preserved by rulers like Kulottunga I and Kulottunga III. Kulottunga I was the grandson of Rajendra I through his daughter Ammangadevi. He succeeded the Chola throne and thus united the Vengi kingdom with the Chola Empire. During his reign Sri Lanka became



independent. Subsequently, Vengi and the Mysore region were captured by the western Chalukyas. Kulottunga I sent a large embassy of 72 merchants to China and maintained cordial relations with the kingdom of Sri Vijaya. Under Kulottunga III the central authority became weak. The rise of the feudatories like the Kadavarayas and the emergence of the Pandya power as a challenge to Chola supremacy contributed to the ultimate downfall of the Chola Empire. Rajendra III was the last Chola king who was defeated by Jatavarman Sundarapandya II. The Chola country was absorbed into the Pandya Empire.

Chola Administration

Central Government

The Cholas had an excellent system of administration. The emperor or king was at the top of the administration. The extent and resources of the Chola Empire increased the power and prestige of monarchy. The big capital cities like Tanjore and Gangaikondacholapuram, the large royal courts and extensive grants to the temples reveal the authority of the king. They undertook royal tours to increase the efficiency of the administration. There was elaborate administrative machinery comprising various officials called *perundanam* and *sirudanam*.

Revenue

The land revenue department was well organized. It was called as *puravuvarithinaikkalam*. All lands were carefully surveyed and classified for assessment of revenue. The residential portion of the village was called *ur nattam*. These and other lands such as the lands belonging to temples were exempted from tax. Besides land revenue, there were tolls and customs on goods taken from one place to another, various kinds of professional taxes, dues levied on ceremonial occasions like marriages and judicial fines. During

the hard times, there were remission of taxes and Kulottunga I became famous by abolishing tolls and earned the title – *Sungam Tavirtta Cholan*. The main items of government expenditure were the king and his court, army and navy, roads, irrigation tanks and canals.

Military Administration

The Cholas maintained a regular standing army consisting of elephants, cavalry, infantry and navy. About seventy regiments were mentioned in the inscriptions. The royal troops were called *Kaikkolaperumpadai*. Within this there was a personal troop to defend the king known as *Velaikkarar*. Attention was given to the training of the army and military cantonments called *kadagams* existed. The Cholas paid special attention to their navy. The naval achievements of the Tamils reached its climax under the Cholas. They controlled the Malabar and Coromandal coasts. In fact, the Bay of Bengal became a Chola lake for sometime.

Provincial Administration

The Chola Empire was divided into *mandalams* and each *mandalam* into *valanadus* and *nadus*. In each *nadu* there were a number of autonomous villages. The royal princes or officers were in charge of *mandalams*. The *valanadu* was under *periyannattar* and *nadu* under *nattar*. The town was known as *nagaram* and it was under the administration of a council called *nagarattar*.

Village Assemblies

The system of village autonomy with *sabhas* and their committees developed through the ages and reached its culmination during the Chola rule. Two inscriptions belonging to the period of Parantaka I found at Uttiramerur provide details of the formation and functions of village councils. That village was divided into thirty

wards and each was to nominate its members to the village council. The qualifications to become a ward member were:

- a. Ownership of at least one fourth *veli* of land.
- b. Own residence.
- c. Above thirty years and below seventy years of age.
- d. Knowledge of Vedas.

However, certain norms of disqualification were also mentioned in the inscriptions. They were:

- a. Those who had been members of the committees for the past three years.
- b. Those who had failed to submit accounts as committee members.
- c. Those who had committed sins.
- d. Those who had stolen the property of others.

From the persons duly nominated, one was to be chosen for each ward by *kudavolai* system for a year. The names of eligible persons were written on palm-leaves and put into a pot. A young boy or girl would take out thirty names each for one ward. They were divided into six *variya*ms such as *samvatsaravariyam*, *erivariyam*, *thotta variyam*, *pancha variyam*, *pon variyam* and *puravuvuvari variyam* to take up six different functions of the village administration. The committee members were called *variya*pperumakkal. They usually met in the temple or under a tree and passed resolutions. The number of committees and ward members varied from village to village.

Socio-economic Life

Caste system was widely prevalent during the Chola period.

Brahmins and Kshatriyas enjoyed special privileges. The inscriptions of the later period of the Chola rule mention about two major divisions among the castes – *Valangai* and *Idangai* castes. However, there was cooperation among various castes and sub-castes in social and religious life. The position of women did not improve. The practice of ‘sati’ was prevalent among the royal families. The *devadasi* system or dancing girls attached to temples emerged during this period.

Both Saivism and Vaishnavism continued to flourish during the Chola period. A number of temples were built with the patronage of Chola kings and queens. The temples remained centres of economic activity during this period. The *mathas* had great influence during this period. Both agriculture and industry flourished. Reclamation of forest lands and the construction and maintenance of irrigation tanks led to agricultural prosperity. The weaving industry, particularly the silk-weaving at Kanchi flourished. The metal works developed owing to great demand of images for temples and utensils. Commerce and trade were brisk with trunk roads or *peruvazhis* and merchant guilds. Gold, silver and copper coins were issued in plenty at various denominations. Commercial contacts between the Chola Empire and China, Sumatra, Java and Arabia were extensively prevalent. Arabian horses were imported in large numbers to strengthen the cavalry.



**GOLD COIN OF
RAJARAJA CHOLA**

Education and Literature

Education was also given importance. Besides the temples and *mathas* as educational centres, several educational institutions also flourished. The inscription at Ennayiram, Thirumukkudal and Thirubhuvanai provide details of the colleges existed in these places.

Apart from the Vedas and Epics, subjects like mathematics and medicine were taught in these institutions. Endowment of lands was made to run these institutions.

The development of Tamil literature reached its peak during the Chola period. *Sivakasintamani* written by Thiruthakkadevar and Kundalakesi belonged to 10th century. The Ramayana composed by Kamban and the *Periyapuranam* or *Tiruttondarpuranam* by Sekkilar are the two master-pieces of this age. Jayankondar's *Kalingattupparani* describes the Kalinga war fought by Kulotunga I. The *Moovarula* written by Ottakuthar depicts the life of three Chola kings. The *Nalavenba* was written by Pugalendi. The works on Tamil grammar like *Kalladam* by Kalladanar, *Yapperungalam* by Amirthasagarar, a Jain, *Nannul* by Pavanandhi and *Virasoliyam* by Buddhmitra were the products of the Chola age.

Art and Architecture

The Dravidian style of art and architecture reached its perfection under the Cholas. They built enormous temples. The chief feature of the Chola



**Chola Bronze
Nataraja**

temple is the vimana. The early Chola temples were found at



**Pragadeeswara Temple,
Tanjore**

Narthamalai and Kodumbalur in Pudukottai district and at Srinivasanallur in Tiruchirappalli district. The Big Temple at Tanjore built by Rajaraja I is a master-piece of South Indian art and architecture. It consists of the *vimana*, *ardhamandapa*, *mahamandapa* and a large pavilion in the front known as the *Nandimandapa*. Another notable contribution made by the Cholas to temple



Darasuram Sculptures

examples of later Chola temples.

The Cholas also made rich contributions to the art of sculpture. The walls of the Chola temples such as the Tanjore and Gangaikondacholapuram temples contain numerous icons of large size with fine execution. The bronzes of the Chola period are world-famous. The bronze statues of Nataraja or dancing Siva are master pieces. The Chola paintings were found on the walls of Narthamalai and Tanjore temples.

architecture is the Siva temple at Gangaikondacholapuram built by Rajendra I. The Airavathesvara temple at Darasuram in Tanjore District and the Kampaharesvara temple at Tribhuvanam are



**Gangaikonda
Cholapuram Temple**

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The rise of the Imperial Cholas.*
- 2. The military accomplishments of Rajaraja I and his personality.*
- 3. Rajendra I and his military conquests.*
- 4. Village administration of the Cholas and its significance.*
- 5. Cultural achievements of the Imperial Cholas.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Chola ruler who faced a defeat at the Battle of Takkolam
(a) Aditya I (b) Rajaraja II
(c) Vijayalaya (d) Parantaka I
2. Author of the book Virasoliyam
(a) Bhavanandhi (b) Buddhamitra
(c) Pugalendi (d) Ottakuttar

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The naval battle of Kandalursalai took place during the reign of
2. The irrigation tank Cholagangam was constructed at by
3. Kudavolai system was described in the inscriptions found at

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Uttiramerur inscriptions | a) Rajaraja I |
| 2. Sungam Tavirtta Chola | b) Rajendra I |
| 3. Mudikondan | c) Kulottunga I |
| 4. Jayankondan | d) Parantaka I |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Rajaraja I took an expedition to Sri Vijaya.
- b) Rajaraja I shifted his capital to Gangaikondacholapuram.

- c) Southern part of Sri Lanka was annexed by Rajaraja I.
- d) Sri Lanka declared its independence during the reign of Rajendra I.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Rajaraja I helped to construct a Buddhist monastery at Tanjore.
- 2. Rajendra I captured the kingdom of Sri Vijaya.
- 3. Jayankondar's *Kalingattupparani* describes the Kalinga war fought by Kulotunga I

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Brihadeeswaram.
- 2. Gangaikondacholapuram.
- 3. Kudavolai system.
- 4. Development of educational institutions under the Cholas.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Describe the society and economy under the Imperial Cholas.
- 2. Write the development of Tamil literature under the Cholas.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the achievements of Rajaraja I.
- 2. Assess the military conquests of Rajendra I.
- 3. Describe the salient features of the Chola's administration.

LESSON 14

THE SPREAD OF INDIAN CULTURE IN OTHER ASIAN COUNTRIES

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The spread of Indian culture in central Asia.*
- 2. Indian cultural influence in China, Tibet and Sri Lanka.*
- 3. Indian cultural influence over the South East Asia.*
- 4. Cultural contacts between India and Myanmar.*
- 5. Art and architecture in the countries of South East Asia.*

The spread of Indian culture and civilization to the other parts of Asia constitutes an important chapter in the history of India. India had established commercial contacts with other countries from the earliest times. It had inevitably resulted in the spread of Indian languages, religions, art and architecture, philosophy, beliefs, customs and manners. Indian political adventurers even established Hindu kingdoms in some parts of South East Asia. However, this did not lead to any kind of colonialism or imperialism in the modern sense. On the other hand these colonies in the new lands were free from the control of the mother country. But they were brought under her cultural influence.

Central Asia

Central Asia was a great centre of Indian culture in the early centuries of the Christian era. Several monuments have been unearthed in the eastern part of Afghanistan. Khotan and Kashkar remained the most important centres of Indian culture. Several

Sanskrit texts and Buddhist monasteries were found in these places. Indian cultural influence continued in this region till eighth century. Indian culture had also spread to Tibet and China through Central Asia.

India and China

China was influenced both by land route passing through Central Asia and the sea route through Burma. Buddhism reached China in the beginning of the first century A.D. A number of Chinese pilgrims like Fahien and Hiuen Tsang visited India. On the other side, hundreds of Buddhist monks like Gunabhadra, Vajrabodhi, Dharmadeva and Dharmagupta visited China. Indian scholars translated many Sanskrit works at the request of Chinese emperors. This contact with China continued even in the thirteenth century when the Mongols established their empire in China. Chinese art had also been influenced by Indian art.

India and Tibet

Tibet was influenced by India from the seventh century. The famous Buddhist king Gampo founded the city of Lhasa and introduced Buddhism. The Tibetan alphabet was devised with the help of Indian scholars. Later, the Indian scholars helped for the establishment of Lamaism in Tibet. In the eleventh century the Pala dynasty of Bengal had close contacts with Tibet. When Bengal was attacked by the Muslim rulers, many Buddhist monks sought shelter in Tibet.

India and Sri Lanka

Despite having different political history, Sri Lanka experienced a great cultural influence from India. Buddhist missionaries had spread not only the religious faith but also cultural traditions. The art of stone carving went to Sri



SIGIRIYA PAINTING

Lanka from India. In the fifth century, Buddha Ghosha visited Sri Lanka and consolidated there the Hinayana Buddhism. The famous paintings of Sigiriya were modeled on the Ajantha paintings.

Indian Culture in South East Asia

Indian culture had extended its mighty influence in the South East Asian region consisting of the Malay Archipelago and Indo-China. They are located across the Bay of Bengal. Being fertile and rich in minerals, these lands attracted the attention of the Indians. Moreover, the east coast of India is studded with numerous ports and Indians undertook frequent voyages to these lands. The ancient traditions refer to traders' voyages to *Suvarnabhumi*, (the land of gold) a name generally given to all the countries of the East Asia. Indians began to colonize the East Asia in the Gupta period. It was further encouraged by the Pallavas. The Indian colonists established great kingdoms and some of them lasted for more than a thousand years. A number of dynasties with Indian names ruled in various parts. Till the arrival of Islam in the fifteenth century, Indian culture dominated this region.

Cambodia (Kambhoja)

Cambodia was colonised by Indians in the first century A.D.

They influenced the native people called the Khemers. The ruling dynasty was known as Kambojas and their country was Kamboja or modern Cambodia.



ANGKORWAT TEMPLE

Under the early rulers
Saivism and

Vaishnavism made steady progress. The Kamboja empire at its greatest extent included Laos, Siam, part of Burma and the Malay

peninsula. Numerous Sanskrit inscriptions give us a detailed history of its kings. A number of Hindu literary works like the Vedas, the *Ramayana*, the *Mahabharata*, Panini's grammar, Hindu philosophical treatises were all known to the people of Cambodia.

Like the Pallava kings, they were called Varmans. Yasovarman and Suryavarman II were two well-known rulers. Temples were built in South Indian style. There are plenty of Sanskrit inscriptions. The most famous of these temples was the temple (wat) of Vishnu built by Suryavarman II in his capital city Angkor. It was popularly called as the Angkorwat Temple. It is standing on top of a terraced structure. Each terrace is a sort of a covered gallery which contains numerous relief sculptures. The temple is constructed on the Dravidian style and the sculptures depict episodes from the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*. The Kambhoja kingdom declined only in fifteenth century.

Champa

Champa or South Annam is situated to the east of Cambodia. The first Hindu dynasty was established by Sri Mara in the second century A.D. A number of Sanskrit inscriptions throw light on the history of Champa. Twelve Indian dynasties ruled over Champa and by the thirteenth century Champa was annexed to Cambodia. Under its Hindu rulers the Hindu religion and culture, customs and manners were introduced in Champa. Saivism and Vaishnavism flourished. Buddhism also existed side by side. Various works on Hindu philosophy, grammar, fine arts and astrology were written.

Siam or Thailand

There were several states in Siam following Indian culture. Thai script was developed with the help of Indian scholars. The traditional laws of that country were composed on the model of *Dharmasastras*. The temples at Bangkok contain many sculptures depicting the *Ramayana*.

Sumatra and Java

The Malay Archipelago had remained an important link between India and the Far East. Several Hindu kingdoms existed here between fifth to fifteenth centuries A.D. The most important Hindu kingdom in the big island of Sumatra was Sri Vijaya. It was a great centre of trade and culture in the seventh century. Subsequently, the Sri Vijaya kingdom developed into a powerful maritime and commercial power known as the Sailendra empire extending its sway over the neighbouring islands of Java, Bali, Borneo and over Cambodia. The Sailendra rulers were Mahayana Buddhists and maintained cordial relations with the Indian kingdoms of the Palas of Bengal and the Cholas of Tamil Nadu. Rajaraja Chola allowed the Sailendra king Maravijayottungavarman to build a Buddhist monastery at Nagapattinam. His son Rajendra conquered the Sailendra kingdom for sometime. Later they became independent. The Sailendra empire continued intact till the eleventh century A.D.

A Hindu kingdom was established in Java as early as the fourth century A.D. In Central Java arose the kingdom of Mataram which became a strong centre of Hindu religion and culture. It was conquered by the Sailendras of Sumatra. Till the ninth century Java continued to be a part of the Sailendra empire. Later it regained its independence. Java attained greatness and splendour in art under Sailendra rule.

The greatest monument of Indo-Java art is the *Borobudur* which was built during A.D. 750-850 under the patronage of the Sailendras. It is situated on the top of a hill. It consists of nine successive terraces, crowned by a bell-shaped stupa at the centre of the topmost terrace. The open galleries in the terraces contain 2000



**BOROBUDUR
MONUMENT**

bas-reliefs (small carved stone figures) illustrating various incidents in the life of the Buddha. The lower parts are rich in decoration while the upper portions are plain and unadorned. Borobudur is described as an epic in stone, the most wonderful Buddhist stupa in the world.

In the twelfth century, eastern Java with *Kadiri* as its capital developed into the leading kingdom of Java. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries which marked the golden age of Javanese culture, Majapahit became the capital of the far-flung Javanese empire which included the neighbouring islands. Indian art and literature flourished in Java to an extent unknown elsewhere. Still, ruins of hundreds of temples and manuscripts based on the Sanskrit language are found in Java. The *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata* were popular and even today furnish the theme for their popular shadow-play. The fall of Majapahit brought to an end all artistic activity in Java.

Bali

Bali came under the rule of Hindu dynasties as early as the sixth century. I-Tsing refers to the prevalence of Buddhism there in the seventh century. The stone and copper plate inscriptions from that island show that it was colonised directly from India. Later it became subordinate to Java. Its people continue to be Hindus and even today we find the prevalence of the caste system there.

Myanmar

The cultural contacts between India and Burma (now Myanmar) dates back to the period of Asoka, who sent his missionaries there to preach Buddhism. Many Hindu kingdoms existed in Burma. Pali and Sanskrit were the languages of Burma till thirteenth century. Both Hinayana and Mahayana Buddhism were followed by the Burmese.

Thus for nearly fifteen hundred years Hindu kings were ruling over numerous islands of the Malay Archipelago and over the Indo-China peninsula. Indian religions and Indian culture moulded the lives of the primitive inhabitants of these regions who were elevated to a higher plan of civilization.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. India's influence over Central Asia.*
- 2. Cultural contacts between India and China.*
- 3. India and Sri Lanka through the ages.*
- 4. Spread of Indian culture in the Countries of South East Asia such as Indo-China, Malay Archipelago and Myanmar.*
- 5. Hindu temples in South East Asia and their architecture.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Chola king who permitted the Sailendras to build monastery in Nagapattinam
 - (a) Vijayalaya
 - (b) Rajaraja
 - (c) Kulottunga
 - (d) Rajendra
2. The Hindu Kingdom in Sumatra Island was
 - (a) Khamboja
 - (b) Sri Vijaya
 - (c) Champa
 - (d) Annam

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The city of Lhasa was founded by
2. The capital of eastern Java

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Angkorwat temple | a) Sailendras |
| 2. Borobudur | b) Sri Lanka |
| 3. Sigiriya | c) South Annam |
| 4. Champa | d) Suryavarman II |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Borobudur is the greatest monument of Indo-Java art.
- b) Borobudur was a Vashnavite temple.
- c) Sailendra rulers were Saivites.
- d) The scenes from Ramayana are carved in Borobudur.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The first Hindu dynasty of Champa was established by Sri Mara.
2. The kingdom of Bali was influenced by Buddhism.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Angkorwat
2. Borobudur
3. Cultural contacts between India and Myanmar
4. India and Bali.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the cultural contacts between India and China.
2. Write a short note on Indo-Java Art.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the spread of Indian culture in South East Asia.
2. Assess the impact of Indian cultural influence in other parts of Asia

LESSON 15

EARLY MEDIEVAL INDIA

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. A brief history of the Rajput kingdoms.*
- 2. Causes and results of the Arab conquest of Sind.*
- 3. Mahmud of Ghazni and his invasions.*
- 4. Mahmud of Ghori's invasions.*
- 5. Causes for the failure of Hindu states.*

After the death of Harsha, there was no political unity in north India for about five centuries. The country was split up into a number of states which were constantly fighting and changing their frontiers. The important kingdoms in north India were Kashmir, Gandhara, Sind, Gujarat, Kanauj, Ajmir, Malwa, Bengal and Assam. In the early eighth century Kashmir was dominant. Then, the Palas of Bengal reigned supreme till the Pratiharas became the most powerful rulers of north India. But in the tenth century, the Rashtrakutas of Deccan tried to extend their power in north India but ultimately failed in their attempt.

Rajput Kingdoms

The dominance of Rajputs began from the seventh and eighth centuries and lasted till the Muslim conquest in the twelfth century. Even after that, many Rajput states continued to survive for a long time. In the period of Muslim aggression, the Rajputs were the main defenders of the Hindu religion and culture.

There are several theories about the origin of Rajputs. They were considered as the descendents of the foreign invaders and the Indian Kshatriyas. The foreign invaders were Indianized and absorbed into Indian society. Many legends of Rajputs support this theory. Therefore, it can be said that diverse elements constitute in the shaping of the Rajput clan. They became homogenous by constant intermarriage and by adopting common customs. They made war as their chief occupation. However, trade and agriculture also prospered. The Arab travellers refer to the prosperity of the land and the great trade of the cities. They built strong forts.

The Gurjara-Pratiharas were the earliest of the Rajput rulers. Its first great leader was Harischandra. He conquered extensive territory in Rajaputana and ruled with his capital at Bhinmal. The Gurjaras were in different branches. One branch ruled Gujarat and another at Avanthi. The Pratiharas involved themselves in a three-cornered contest with the Palas of Bengal and the Rashtrakutas of Deccan. Later the Pratiharas became weak. The Chauhans, the most valiant of the Rajput races, ruled Ajmir. Vigraharaj was their most important king, who occupied Delhi. Therefore the Chauhans faced the onslaught of the Muslims under Muhammad of Ghori. The Paramaras were also important Rajput rulers of this period. The most important king was Bhoja. His military conquests as well as cultural contributions remain notable in the history of Rajputs.

Constant fighting weakened the Rajputs. Also, they never united against a common enemy. Their lack of political foresight and constant rivalries prevented any combined opposition to the Muslim invaders.

Arab Conquest of Sind (712 A.D.)

The religion Islam was born at Mecca in Arabia. Its founder was Prophet Muhammad. But his teachings made the wealthy people of Mecca his enemies. Therefore, he migrated to Medina in 622

A.D., which was the starting point of the Muslim calendar and the Muslim era called hijra. After eight years he returned to Mecca with his followers. He died in 632 A.D.

The followers of Muhammad set up an empire called the Caliphate. The Umayyads and the Abbasids were called the caliphs. They expanded their rule by conquests and spread their religion Islam. In 712 A.D., Muhammad bin Qasim invaded Sind. He was the commander of the Umayyad kingdom. Qasim defeated Dahir, the ruler of Sind and killed him in a well-contested battle. His capital Aror was captured. Qasim extended his conquest further into Multan. Qasim organized the administration of Sind. The people of Sind were given the status of *zimmis* (protected subjects). There was no interference in the lives and property of the people. Soon, Qasim was recalled by the Caliph.

However, Sind continued to be under the Arabs. But the Muslims could not expand their authority further into India due to the presence of the powerful Pratihara kingdom in western India. Although the conquest of Sind did not lead to further conquests immediately, it had resulted in the diffusion of Indian culture abroad. Many Arab travelers visited Sind. Indian medicine and astronomy were carried to far off lands through the Arabs. The Indian numerals

in the Arabic form went to Europe through them. Since Sind was a part of the Arab empire, the inflow of Indian knowledge was great.



PORTRAIT OF
MAHMUD OF GHAZNI

Mahmud of Ghazni and his Invasions

By the end of the ninth century A.D., the Abbasid Caliphate declined. The Turkish governors established independent kingdoms and the Caliph became only a ritual authority. One among them was Alptigin whose capital was Ghazni. His successor and son-in-law Sabuktigin

wanted to conquer India from the north-west. He succeeded in capturing Peshawar from Jayapala. But his raids did not produce a lasting effect. He was succeeded by his son, Mahmud

Mahmud of Ghazni (A.D. 997-1030).

Mahmud is said to have made seventeen raids into India. At that time, North India was divided into a number of Hindu states. On the frontier of India, there existed the Hindu Shahi kingdom which extended from the Punjab to Kabul. The other important kingdoms of north India were Kanauj, Gujarat, Kashmir, Nepal, Malwa and Bundelkhand. The initial raids were against the Hindu Shahi kingdom in which its king Jayapala was defeated in 1001. After this defeat, Jayapala immolated himself because he thought that his defeat was a disgrace. His successor Anandapala fought against Mahmud but he was also defeated in the Battle of Waihind, the Hind Shahi capital near Peshawar in 1008. In this battle, Anandapala was supported by the rulers of Kanauj and Rajasthan. As a result of his victory at Waihind, Mahmud extended his rule over most of the Punjab.

The subsequent raids of Mahmud into India were aimed at plundering the rich temples and cities of northern India. In 1011, he raided Nagarkot in the Punjab hills and Thaneshwar near Delhi. In 1018, Mahmud plundered the holy city of Mathura and also attacked Kanauj. The ruler of Kanauj, Rajyapala abandoned Kanauj and later died. Mahmud returned via Kalinjar with fabulous riches. His next important raid was against Gujarat. In 1024, Mahmud marched from Multan across Rajaputana, defeated the Solanki King Bhimadeva I, plundered Anhilwad and sacked the famous temple of Somanatha. Then, he returned through the Sind desert. This was his last campaign in India. Mahmud died in 1030 A.D.

Mahmud was not a mere raider and plunderer of wealth. He built a wide empire from the Punjab in the east to the Caspian sea on

the west and from Samarkand in the north to Gujarat in the south. The Ghaznavid empire roughly included Persia, Trans-oxiana, Afghanistan and Punjab. His achievements were due to his leadership and restless activity. Mahmud was considered a hero of Islam by medieval historians. He also patronized art and literature. Firdausi was the poet-laureate in the court of Mahmud. He was the author of *Shah Namah*. Alberuni stayed in Mahmud's court and wrote the famous *Kitab-i-Hind*, an account on India. His conquest of Punjab and Multan completely changed the political situation in India. He paved the way for the Turks and Afghans for further conquests and make deeper incursions into the Gangetic valley at any time. He drained the resources of India by his repeated raids and deprived India of her manpower. The exhaustion of India's economic resources and man power had its adverse effect on the political future of India. The Hindu Shahi kingdom was guarding the gates of India against foreign invaders. Mahmud destroyed it and thus India's frontiers became defenceless. The inclusion of Punjab and Afghanistan in Ghazni's kingdom made the subsequent Muslim conquests of India comparatively easy.

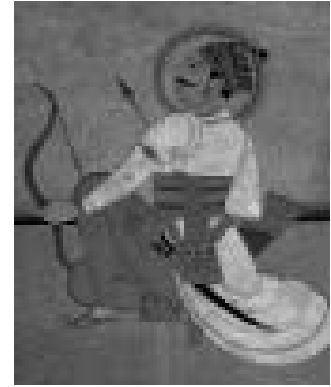
Muhammad Ghori

The Ghoris started as vassals of Ghazni but became independent after the death of Mahmud. Taking advantage of the decline of the Ghaznavid empire, Muizzuddin Muhammad popularly known as Muhammad Ghori brought Ghazni under their control. Having made his position strong and secure at Ghazni, Muhammad Ghori turned his attention to India. Unlike Mahmud of Ghazni, he wanted to conquer India and extend his empire in this direction.

In 1175, Muhammad Ghori captured Multan and occupied whole of Sind in his subsequent expeditions. In 1186 he attacked Punjab, captured it from Khusru Malik and annexed it to his dominions. The annexation of Punjab carried his dominion eastward to the Sutlej and led his invasion of the Chauhan kingdom.

The Battle of Tarain (1191-1192)

Realising their grave situation, the Hindu princes of north India formed a confederacy under the command of Prithviraj Chauhan. Prithviraj rose to the occasion, and defeated Ghori in the battle of Tarain near Delhi in 1191 A.D. Muhammad Ghori felt greatly humiliated by this defeat. To avenge this defeat he made serious preparations and gathered an army of 1,20,000 men. He came with this large force to Lahore via Peshawar and Multan. He sent a message to Prithviraj asking him to acknowledge his supremacy and become a Muslim. Prithviraj rejected this proposal and prepared to meet the invader. He gathered a large force consisting of 3,00,000 horses, 3000 elephants and a large body of foot soldiers. Many Hindu rajas and chieftains also joined him. In the ensuing Second Battle of Tarain in 1192, Muhammad Ghori thoroughly routed the army of Prithviraj, who was captured and killed.



PORTRAIT OF PRITHIVIRAJ
CHAUHAN

The second battle of Tarain was a decisive battle. It was a major disaster for the Rajputs. Their political prestige suffered a serious setback. The whole Chauhan kingdom now lay at the feet of the invader. The first Muslim kingdom was thus firmly established in India at Ajmer and a new era in the history of India began. After his brilliant victory over Prithviraj at Tarain, Muhammad Ghori returned to Ghazni leaving behind his favourite general Qutb-ud-din Aibak to make further conquests in India. Aibak consolidated his position in India by occupying places like Delhi and Meerut. In 1193 he prepared the ground for another invasion by Muhammad Ghori. This invasion was directed against the Gahadavala ruler Jayachandra. Muhammad routed Jayachandra's forces. Kanauj was occupied by the Muslims after the battle of Chandawar. The Battles

of Tarain and Chandawar contributed to the establishment of Turkish rule in India.

Causes for the failure of Hindu kingdoms

The causes for the downfall of Hindu states have to be analysed historically. The most important cause was that they lacked unity. They were divided by factions. The Rajput princes exhausted one another by their mutual conflicts. Secondly, many Hindu states were declining in power. Their military methods were out of date and far inferior to those of Muslims. Indians continued to rely on elephants while the Muslims possessed quick-moving cavalry. The Muslims soldiers had better organization and able leaders. Their religious zeal and their greed for the greater wealth of India provided stimulus to them. Among the Hindus, the duty of fighting was confined to a particular class, the Kshatriyas. Moreover, the Hindus were always on the defensive, which was always a weak position.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. A brief history of the Rajput kingdoms in northern India.*
- 2. Arab Conquest of Sind and its results.*
- 3. Causes and results of the Mahmud of Ghazni's invasion of India.*
- 4. Mahmud of Ghori and his capture of Indian territories.*
- 5. Causes for the failure of the Hindu states against Muslim invasions.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Second Battle of Tarain was fought in the year
(a) 1190 (b) 1191
(c) 1192 (d) 1292
2. The author of Kitab-i-Hind
(a) Firdausi (b) Barani
(c) Mahmud (d) Alberuni

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The ruler of Sind during the invasion of Muhammad bin Qasim
.....
2. The first Muslim kingdom in India was firmly established at
.....

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------|
| 1. Gurjarapratiharas | a) Kanauj |
| 2. Rajyapala | b) Bhinmal |
| 3. Solankis | c) Aror |
| 4. Dahir | d) Anhilwad |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The important cause for the defeat of Hindu states was lack of unity among them.
- b) Indians possessed efficient cavalry to fight against the Muslims.

- c) Rajputs stood united against the Muslim invasions.
- d) Mahmud of Gahzni handed over the Indian possessions to Aibak.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The Ghoris originally remained vassals under the Ghazni rulers.
- 2. Prithviraj Chauhan defeated Mahmud of Ghori in the first Battle of Tarain.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Muhammad bin Qasim.
- 2. Second Battle of Tarain.
- 3. Gurjarapratiharas
- 4. Alberuni

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Assess the impact of the Arab conquest of Sind.
- 2. Bring out the causes for the decline of Rajput kingdoms.
- 3. Analyse the causes for the failure of Hindu states against the Muslim invasions.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of the invasions of Mahmud of Ghazni.
- 2. Examine the military conquests of Mahmud of Ghori.

LESSON 16

DELHI SULTANATE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Political History of Delhi Sultanate.*
- 2. Slave Dynasty – Aibak, Iltutmish, Raziya, Balban.*
- 3. Khaljis – Alauddin Khalji's achievements.*
- 4. Tughlaqs – Mahmud-bin-Tughlaq and his experiments.*
- 5. Firoz Tughlaq and his administration.*
- 6. Sayyids and Lodis.*

The Muslim invasions into India had ultimately resulted in the establishment of Delhi Sultanate which existed from A.D. 1206 to 1526. Five different dynasties – the Slave, Khalji, Tughlaq, Sayyids and Lodis – ruled under the Delhi Sultanate. Not only they extended their rule over North India, but also they penetrated into the Deccan and South India. Their rule in India resulted in far-reaching changes in society, administration and cultural life.

Slave Dynasty

The Slave dynasty was also called Mamluk dynasty. Mamluk was the Quranic term for slave. The Slave dynasty ruled Delhi from A.D. 1206 to 1290. In fact, three dynasties were established during this period. They were

1. Qutbi dynasty (1206-1211) founded by Qutbuddin Aibak.
2. First Ilbari dynasty (1211- 1266) founded by Iltutmish.

3. Second Ilbari dynasty (1266-1290) founded by Balban.

Qutbuddin Aibak (1206-1210)

Qutbuddin Aibak was a slave of Muhammad Ghori, who made him the Governor of his Indian possessions. He set up his military headquarters at Indraprastha, near Delhi. He raised a standing army and established his hold over north India even during the life time of Ghori. After the



Qutbuddin Aibak

death of Ghori in 1206, Aibak declared his independence. He severed all connections with the kingdom of Ghori and thus founded the Slave dynasty as well as the Delhi Sultanate. He assumed the title Sultan and made Lahore his capital. His rule lasted for a short period of four years. Muslim writers call Aibak *Lakh Baksh* or giver of lakhs because he gave liberal donations to them. Aibak patronized the great scholar Hasan Nizami. He also started the construction of after the name of a famous Sufi saint Khwaja Qutbuddin Bakhtiyar. It was later completed by Iltutmish. Aibak died suddenly while playing *chaugan* (horse polo) in 1210. He was succeeded by his son Aram Baksh, who was replaced by Iltutmish after eight months.



QUTB MINAR

Iltutmish (1211-1236)

Iltutmish belonged to the Ilbari tribe and hence his dynasty was named as Ilbari dynasty. His half brothers sold him as a slave to Aibak, who made him his-son-in law by giving his daughter in marriage to him. Later Aibak appointed him as iqtadar of Gwalior. In 1211 Iltutmish defeated Aram Baksh and became Sultan. He shifted his capital from Lahore to Delhi. During the first ten years of his reign he concentrated on securing his throne from his

rivals. In the meantime, Temujin popularly known as Chengiz Khan, the leader of the Mongols, started invading Central Asia. He defeated Jalaluddin Mangabarni, the ruler of Kwarizam. Mangabarni crossed the river Indus and sought asylum from Iltutmish. Iltutmish refused to give him shelter in order to save his empire from the onslaught of the Mongols. Fortunately for Iltutmish, Chengiz Khan returned home without entering into India. In fact, the Mongol policy of Iltutmish saved India from the wrath of Chengiz Khan.



**PORTRAIT OF
CHENGIZ KHAN**

Iltutmish marched against Bengal and Bihar and reasserted his control over them. He also annexed Sind and Multan into the Delhi Sultanate. He suppressed the Rajput revolts and recovered Ranthampur, Jalor, Ajmir and Gwalior. He led an expedition against the Paramaras of Malwa but it was not successful.

Iltutmish was a great statesman. He received the mansur, the letter of recognition, from the Abbasid Caliph in 1229 by which he became the legal sovereign ruler of India. Later he nominated his daughter Raziya as his successor. Thus the hereditary succession to Delhi Sultanate was initiated by



SILVER TANKA OF ILTUTMISH

Iltutmish. He patronized many scholars and a number Sufi saints came to India during his reign. Minhaj-us-Siraj, Taj-ud-din., Nizam-ul-mulk Muhammad Janaidi, Malik Qutb-ud-din Hasan and Fakhrul-Mulk Isami were his contemporary scholars who added grandeur to his court. Apart from completing the construction of Qutb Minar at Delhi, the tallest stone tower in India (238 ft.), he built a magnificent mosque at Ajmir.

Iltutmish introduced the Arabic coinage into India and the silver *tanka* weighing 175 grams became a standard coin in medieval India. The silver *tanka* remained the basis of the modern rupee. Iltutmish had also created a new class of ruling elite of forty powerful military leaders, the Forty.

Raziya (1236-1240)

Although Iltutmish nominated his daughter Raziya as his successor, the Qazi of Delhi and Wazir put Ruknuddin Feroz on the throne. When the governor of Multan revolted, Ruknuddin marched to suppress that revolt. Using this opportunity, Raziya with the support of Amirs of Delhi seized the throne of Delhi Sultanate. She appointed an Abyssinian slave Yakuth as Master of the Royal Horses. Also, Raziya discarded the female apparel and held the court with her face unveiled. She even went for hunting and led the army. This aroused resentment among the Turkish nobles. In 1240, Altunia, the governor of Bhatinda revolted against her. She went in person to suppress the revolt but Altunia killed Yakuth and took Raziya prisoner. In the meantime, the Turkish nobles put Bahram, another son of Iltutmish on the throne. However, Raziya won over her captor, Altunia, and after marrying him proceeded to Delhi. But she was defeated and killed.

The fall of Raziya paved the way for the ascendancy of the Forty. In the next six years, Bahram and Masud ruled Delhi. There ensued a struggle for supremacy between the Sultans and the nobles. In 1246 Balban succeeded in putting Nasiruddin Mahmud, a younger son of Iltutmish, as Sultan.

Era of Balban (1246-1287)

Ghiyasuddin Balban, who was also known as Ulugh Khan, served as Naib or regent to Sultan Nasiruddin Mahmud. He also strengthened his position by marrying his daughter to the Sultan. Balban was all powerful in the administration but he had to face the

intrigues of his rivals in the royal court. He had overcome all the difficulties. In 1266 Nasiruddin Mahmud died without issues and Balban ascended the throne.

Balban's experience as the regent made him to understand the problems of Delhi Sultanate. He knew that the real threat to the monarchy was from the nobles called the Forty. He was convinced that only by enhancing the power and authority of the monarchy he could face the problems. According to Balban the Sultan was God's shadow on earth and the recipient of divine grace. Balban introduced rigorous court discipline and new customs such as prostration and kissing the Sultan's feet to prove his superiority over the nobles. He also introduced the Persian festival of *Nauroz* to impress the nobles and people with his wealth and power. He stood forth as the champion of Turkish nobility. At the same time he did not share power with other nobles. Indian Muslims were not given important post in the government. He appointed spies to monitor the activities of the nobles.

Balban was determined to break the power of the Forty, the Turkish nobles. He spared only the most obedient nobles and eliminated all others by fair or foul means. Malik Baqbaq, the governor of Badaun, was publicly flogged for his cruelty towards his servants. Haybat Khan, the governor of Oudh, was also punished for killing a man who was drunk. Sher Khan, the governor of Bhatinda was poisoned. Instead of expanding his kingdom, Balban paid more attention to the restoration of law and order. He established a separate military department - *diwan-i-arz* – and reorganized the army. The outskirts of Delhi were often plundered by the Mewatis. Balban took severe action against them and prevented such robberies. Robbers were mercilessly pursued and put to death. As a result, the roads became safe for travel.

In 1279, Tughril Khan, the governor of Bengal revolted against Balban. It was suppressed and he was beheaded. In the northwest the Mongols reappeared and Balban sent his son Prince Mahmud against them. But the prince was killed in the battle and it was a moral blow to the Sultan. Balban died in 1287. He was undoubtedly one of the main architects of the Delhi Sultanate. He enhanced the power of the monarchy. However, he could not fully safeguard India from the Mongol invasions.

When Balban died, one of his grandsons Kaiqubad was made the Sultan of Delhi. After four years of incompetent rule, Jalaluddin Khalji captured the throne of Delhi in 1290.

The Khalji Dynasty (1290-1320)

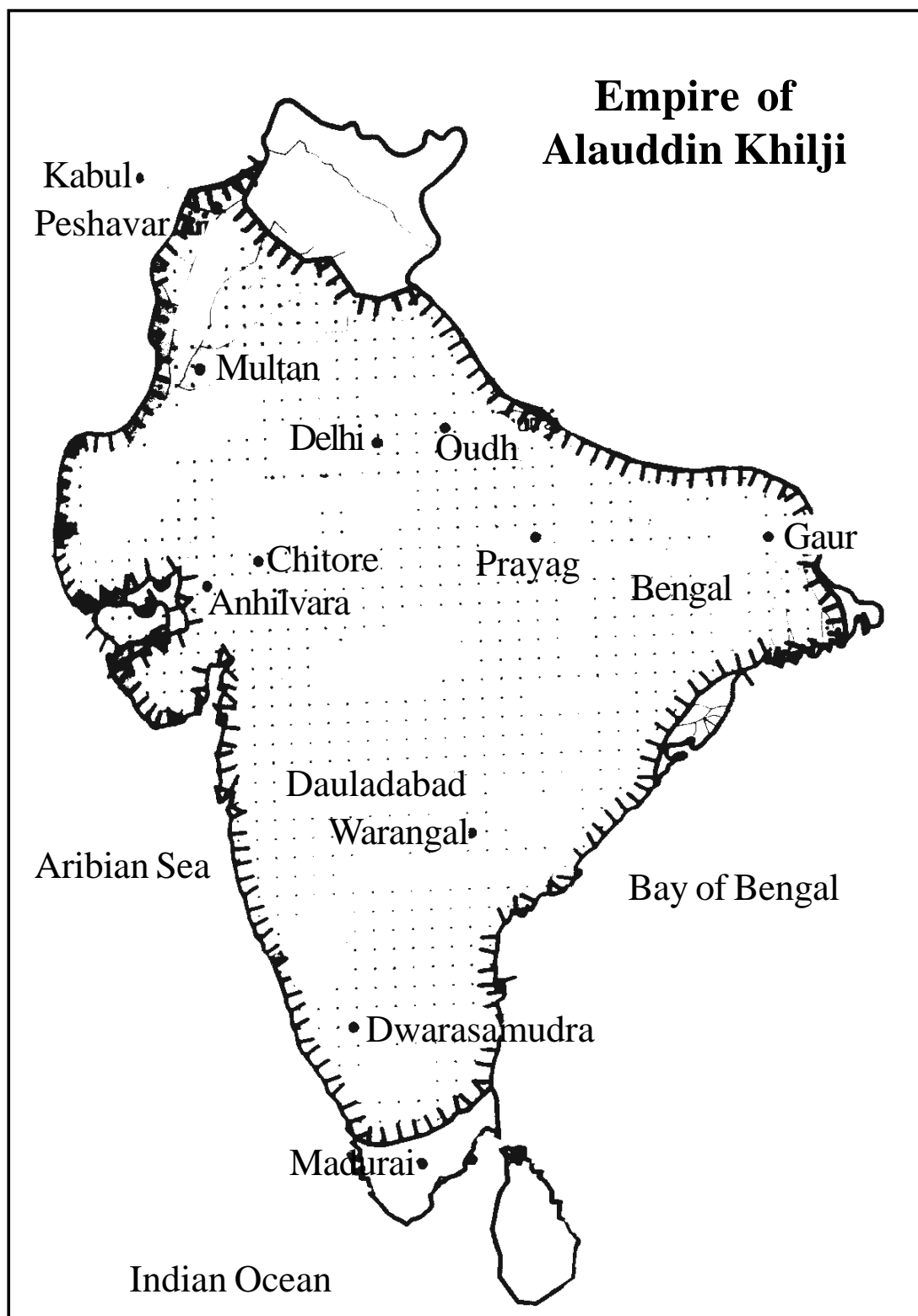
The advent of the Khalji dynasty marked the zenith of Muslim imperialism in India. The founder of the Khalji dynasty was Jalaluddin Khalji. He was seventy years old when he came to power. He was generous and lenient. Malik Chhajju, nephew of Balban was allowed to remain the governor of Kara. His leniency was misunderstood as weakness. When Chhajju revolted, it was suppressed but he was pardoned. When the thugs (robbers) looted the country, they were allowed to go after a severe warning. In 1292 when Malik Chhajju revolted for the second time, he was replaced by his son-in-law, Alauddin Khalji. In 1296 Alauddin Khalji took an expedition to Devagiri and returned to Kara. During the reception there, Alauddin Khalji treacherously murdered his father-in-law Jalaluddin Khalji and usurped the throne of Delhi.

Alauddin Khalji (1296-1316)

Alauddin Khalji made enormous gifts to the hostile nobles and Amirs of Delhi to win



Alauddin Khalji



over them to his side. Those who still opposed him accession were punished severely. He framed regulations to control the nobles. He was convinced that the general prosperity of the nobles, inter-marriages between noble families, inefficient spy-system and drinking liquor were the basic reasons for the rebellions. Therefore, he passed four ordinances. He confiscated the properties of the nobles. The intelligence system was reorganized and all the secret activities of the nobles were immediately reported to the Sultan. The public sale of liquor and drugs was totally stopped. Social gatherings and festivities without the permission of Sultan were forbidden. By such harsh measures his reign was free from rebellions.

Reforms of Alauddin Khalji

Alauddin Khalji maintained a large permanent standing army and paid them in cash from the royal treasury. According the Ferishta, he recruited 4,75,000 cavalrymen. He introduced the system of *dagh* (branding of horses) and prepared *huliya* (descriptive list of soldiers). In order to ensure maximum efficiency, a strict review of army from time to time was carried out.

The introduction of paying salaries in cash to the soldiers led to price regulations popularly called as Market Reforms. Alauddin Khalji established four separate markets in Delhi, one for grain; another for cloth, sugar, dried fruits, butter and oil; a third for horses, slaves and cattle; and a fourth for miscellaneous commodities. Each market was under the control of a high officer called *Shahna-i-Mandi*. The supply of grain was ensured by holding stocks in government store-houses. Regulations were issued to fix the price of all commodities. A separate department called Diwani Riyasat was created under an officer called *Naib-i-Riyasat*. Every merchant was registered under the Market department. There were secret agents called *munhiyans* who sent reports to the Sultan regarding the functioning of these markets. The Sultan also sent slave boys to

buy various commodities to check prices. Violation of regulations was severely punished. Harsh punishment was given if any shop-keeper charged a higher price, or tried to cheat by using false weights and measures. Even during the famine the same price was maintained. We are not sure whether the market regulations in Delhi were also applied in the provincial capitals and towns.

Apart from market reforms, Alauddin Khalji took important steps in the land revenue administration. He was the first Sultan of Delhi who ordered for the measurement of land. Even the big landlords could not escape from paying land tax. Land revenue was collected in cash in order to enable the Sultan to pay the soldiers in cash. His land revenue reforms provided a basis for the future reforms of Sher Shah and Akbar.

Military Campaigns

Alauddin Khalji sent his army six times against the Mongols. The first two were successful. But the third Mongol invader Khwaja came up to Delhi but they were prevented from entering into the capital city.



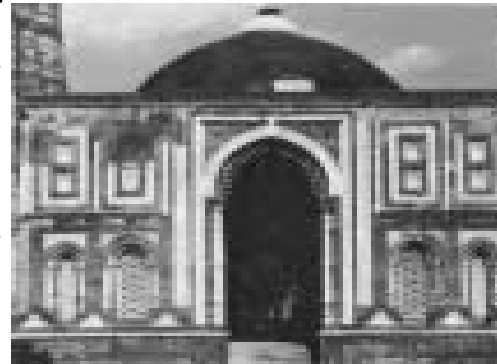
Rani Padmini

The next three Mongol invasions were also dealt with severely. Thousands of Mongols were killed. The northwestern frontier was fortified and Gazi Malik was appointed to be the Warden of Marches to protect the frontier.

The military conquests of Alauddin Khalji include his expedition against Gujarat, Mewar and the Deccan. He sent Nusrat Khan and Ulugh Khan to capture Gujarat in 1299. The king and his daughter escaped while the queen was caught and sent to Delhi. Kafur, an eunuch, was also taken to Delhi and later he was made the Malik Naib – military commander. Then in 1301, Alauddin marched against Ranthampur and after a three month's siege it fell. The Rajput women committed *jauhar* or self-immolation.

Alauddin next turned against Chittor. It was the powerful state in Rajasthan. The siege lasted for several months. In 1303 Alauddin stormed the Chittor fort. Raja Ratan Singh and his soldiers fought valiantly but submitted. The Rajput women including Rani Padmini performed *jauhar*. This Padmini episode was graphically mentioned in the book *Padmavath* written by Jayasi.

Alauddin Khalji's greatest achievement was the conquest of Deccan and the far south. This region was ruled by four important dynasties – Yadavas of Devagiri, Kakatiyas of Warangal, Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra and the Pandyas of Madurai. In Alauddin sent Malik Kafur against the ruler of Devagiri, Ramachandra Deva, who submitted and paid rich tributes. In 1309 Malik Kafur launched his campaign against Warangal. Its ruler Pratabarudra Deva was defeated and enormous booty was collected from him. Malik Kafur's next target was the



ALAI DARWAZA

Hoysala ruler Vira Ballala III. He was defeated and a vast quantity of booty was seized and sent to Delhi. Kafur next marched against the Pandyas. Vira Pandya fled the capital Madurai and Kafur seized enormous wealth from the Pandya kingdom and returned to Delhi.

Alauddin Khalji died in 1316. Although the Sultan was illiterate, he patronized poets like Amir Khusrau and Amir Hasan. He also built a famous gateway known as *Alai Darwaza* and constructed a new capital at Siri.

Mubarak Shah and Khusru Shah were the successors of Alauddin Khalji. Ghazi Malik, the governor of Dipalpur, killed the Sultan Khusru Shah and ascended the throne of Delhi under the title of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq in 1320.

The Tughlaq Dynasty (1320-1414)

The founder of the Tughlaq dynasty was Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq. Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq sent his son Juna Khan to fight against Warangal. He defeated Pratabarudra and returned with rich booty. Ghiyasuddin laid the foundation for Tughlaqabad near Delhi. Ulugh Khan was said to have treacherously killed his father and ascended the throne with the title Muhammad bin Tughlaq in 1325.

Muhammad bin Tughlaq (1325-1351)

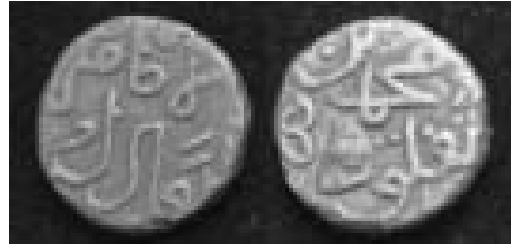
He was a very attractive character in the history of medieval India owing to his ambitious schemes and novel experiments. His enterprises and novel experiments ended in miserable failures because they were all far ahead of their time. He was very tolerant in religious matters. He maintained diplomatic relations with far off countries like Egypt, China and Iran. He also introduced many liberal and beneficial reforms. But all his reforms failed. Contemporary writers like Isami, Barani and Ibn Battutah were unable to give a correct picture about his personality. But, Muhammad bin Tughlaq was the only Delhi Sultan who had received a comprehensive literary, religious and philosophical education.

Transfer of Capital

Muhammad bin Tughlaq wanted to make Devagiri his second capital so that he might be able to control South India better. In 1327 he made extensive preparations for the transfer of royal household and the ulemas and Sufis from Delhi to Devagiri, which was renamed as Daulatabad. When they resisted the Sultan enforced his orders ruthlessly and caused great hardship of the population of Delhi. The distance between these two places was more than 1500 kilometres. Many people died during the rigorous journey in the summer. After two years, the Sultan abandoned Daulatabad and asked them to return to Delhi.

Token Currency

In 1329-30 Muhammad bin Tughlaq introduced a token currency. There was a shortage of silver throughout the world in the fourteenth century. Kublai Khan issued paper money in China. In the same manner, Muhammad bin Tughlaq issued



**COPPER COINS OF
MUHAMMAD BIN TUGHLAQ**

copper coins at par with the value of the silver *tanka* coins. But he was not able to prevent forging the new coins. The goldsmiths began to forge the token coins on a large scale. Soon the new coins were not accepted in the markets. Finally, Muhammad bin Tughlaq stopped the circulation of token currency and promised to exchange silver coins for the copper coins. Many people exchanged the new coins but the treasury became empty. According to the Barani, the heap of copper coins remained lying on roadside in Tughlaqabad.

Taxation in Doab

The failure of these two experiments affected the prestige of the Sultan and enormous money was wasted. In order to overcome financial difficulties, Muhammad bin Tughlaq increased the land revenue on the farmers of Doab (land between Ganges and Yamuna rivers). It was an excessive and arbitrary step on the farmers. A severe famine was also ravaging that region at that time. It had resulted in serious peasant revolts. They fled from the villages but Muhammad bin Tughlaq took harsh measures to capture and punish them. The revolts were crushed.

Agricultural Reforms

However, the Sultan realized later that adequate relief measures and the promotion of agriculture were the real solution to the problem. He launched a scheme by which *takkavi* loans (loans for cultivation) were given to the farmers to buy seed and to extend

cultivation. A separate department for agriculture, *Diwan- i- Kohi* was established. Model farm under the state was created in an area of 64 square miles for which the government spent seventy lakh *tankas*. This experiment was further continued by Firoz Tughlaq.

Rebellions

The latter part of Muhammad bin Tughlaq's reign witnessed a spate of rebellions by the nobles and provincial governors. The rebellion of Hasan Shah resulted in the establishment of the Madurai Sultanate. In 1336 the Vijayanagar kingdom was founded. In 1347 Bhamini kingdom was established. The governors of Oudh, Multan and Sind revolted against the authority of Muhammad bin Tughlaq. In Gujarat Taghi rose in revolt against the Sultan who spent nearly three years in chasing him. Muhammad bin Tughlaq's health became worse and he died in 1351. According to Baduani, the Sultan was freed from his people and the people from the Sultan. According to Barani, Muhammad bin Tughlaq was a mixture of opposites. His reign marked the beginning of the process of its decline.

Firoz Tughlaq (1351-1388)

After the death of Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq in 1351 Firoz Tughlaq had the unique distinction of being chosen as sultan by the nobles. He appointed *Khan-i-Jahan* Maqbal, a Telugu Brahmin convert as wazir (prime minister). The wazir helped the Sultan in his administration and maintained the prestige of the Sultanate during this period.

Military Campaigns

After his accession Firoz had to face the problem of preventing the disintegration of the Delhi Sultanate. He tried to safeguard his authority over north India instead of reasserting his authority over the Deccan and south India. He led two expeditions to Bengal but they were not successful. Bengal became free from the control of

Delhi Sultanate. Firoz led a campaign against Jajnagar (modern Orissa). He returned with rich booty acquired from the temples. He marched against Nagarkot and made its ruler to pay tributes. During this campaign the Sultan collected 1300 Sanskrit manuscripts from the Jawalamukhi temple library and got them translated into Persian. Firoz next marched against Thatta in the Sind region and crushed a rebellion there.

Administrative Reforms

The reign of Firoz Tughlaq was more notable for his administration. He strictly followed the advice of the ulemas in running the administration. He pleased the nobles and assured hereditary succession to their properties. Thus the iqta system was not only revived but also it was made hereditary. As per the Islamic law he levied the taxes. Jiziya was strictly imposed on non-Muslims. He was the first Sultan to impose irrigation tax. But at the same time he dug irrigation canals and wells. The longest canal was about 200 kilometres from Sutlej to Hansi. Another canal was between Yamuna and Hissar. There were about 1200 fruit gardens in and around Delhi yielding more revenue. The special tax on 28 items was abolished by him since they were against the Islamic law. He also developed royal factories called *karkhanas* in which thousands of slaves were employed. About 300 new towns were built during his reign. The famous among them was Firozabad near Red Fort in Delhi, now called Firoz Shah Kotla. Old monuments like Jama Masjid and Qutb-Minar were also repaired.

A new department called *Diwan-i-Khairat* was created to take care of orphans and widows. Free hospitals and marriage bureaus for poor Muslims were also established. Firoz patronized scholars like Barani and Afif. As he was guided by the ulemas, he was intolerant towards Shia Muslims and Sufis. He treated Hindus as second grade citizens and imposed Jiziya. In this respect he was

the precursor of Sikandar Lodi and Aurangzeb. Also he increased the number of slaves by capturing the defeated soldiers and young persons. In his regime the number of slaves had increased to one lakh eighty thousand. When Firoz died in 1388 the struggle for power between the Sultan and the nobles started once again. His successors had to face the rebellion of the slaves created by Firoz.

In the following years, the Delhi Sultanate had disintegrated further. Many provinces like Malwa and Gujarat declared their independence. The invasion of Timur in 1398 had worsened the situation. When Timur entered Delhi there was no opposition and he sacked Delhi for three days murdering thousands of people and looting enormous wealth. He withdrew from India in 1399 and his invasion in fact delivered a death blow to the Tughlaq dynasty.

Sayyids (1414-1451)

Before his departure from India, Timur appointed Khizr Khan as governor of Multan. He captured Delhi and founded the Sayyid dynasty in 1414. He tried to consolidate the Delhi Sultanate but in vain. He died in 1421 and was succeeded by his son, Mubarak Shah. Muhammad Shah who succeeded him was always busy against conspirators and gradually lost control over his nobles. Buhlul Khan Lodi dominated everything. Muhammad Shah died in 1445 and was succeeded by his son Alam Shah (1445-1451) the weakest of the Sayyid princes. He handed over the throne to Buhlul Lodi and retired to Badaun.

Lodis (1451-1526)

The Lodis, who succeeded Sayyids, were Afghans. Buhlul Lodi was the first Afghan ruler while his predecessors were all Turks. He died in 1489 and was succeeded by his son, Sikandar Lodi.

Sikandar Lodi (1489-1517) was the greatest of the three Lodi sovereigns. He brought the whole of Bihar under his control, many Rajput chiefs were defeated. He attacked Bengal and forced its ruler

to conclude a treaty with him, and extended his empire from the Punjab to Bihar. He was a good administrator. Roads were laid and many irrigational facilities were provided for the benefit of the peasantry. Despite certain laudable qualities, he was a bigot. He destroyed many Hindu temples and imposed many restrictions on the Hindus. Yet, he was one of the great Lodi sultans who made the sultanate strong and powerful.

Sikandar Lodi was succeeded by his eldest son Ibrahim Lodi who was arrogant. He insulted his nobles openly in court and humiliated them. Those nobles who revolted were put to death. His own uncle, Alauddin revolted. Daulat Khan Lodi, the governor of the Punjab was insulted and disaffection between king and courtier became very common. Greatly displeased by the arrogance of Ibrahim, Daulat Khan Lodi invited Babur to invade India. Babur marched against Delhi and defeated and killed Ibrahim Lodi in the first battle of Panipat (1526). The Afghan kingdom lasted for only seventy-five years.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Political History of Delhi Sultanate from 1206 to 1526 A.D.*
- 2. The rulers of Slave Dynasty – Aibak, Iltutmish, Raziya, Balban – and their achievements.*
- 3. Khalji Dynasty – Alauddin Khalji's military achievements and reforms.*
- 4. Tughlaq Dynasty – Mahmud-bin-Tughlaq's achievements and his administrative experiments.*
- 5. Firoz Tughlaq and his administration.*
- 6. Sayyids and Lodis and the decline of Delhi Sultanate.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Arabic coinage of *tanka* was introduced in India by
 (a) Alauddin Khalji (b) Iltutmish
 (c) Mahmud-bin Tughlaq (d) Firoz Tughlaq
2. The commander of the South Indian expedition under Alauddin Khalji
 (a) Alauddin Khalji (b) Qutbuddin Aibak
 (c) Malik Kafur (d) Jalaluddin Khalji

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Ramachandra Deva was the ruler of
2. Author of the book *Padmavathi* was
3. collected Sanskrit manuscripts from the library at Jawalamukhi temple.
4. The last ruler of the Delhi Sultanate was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Mahmud-bin-Tughlaq | a) Theory of Kingship |
| 2. Alauddin Khalji | b) Hasan Nizami |
| 3. Balban | c) Market Reforms |
| 4. Qutbuddin Aibak | d) Token Currency |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The agricultural department, *Diwan-i-Kohi* was established by Alauddin Khalji.

- b) Alai Darwaza was built by Mahmud-bin-Tughlaq.
- c) The department called *Diwan-i-Khairat* was created by Firoz Tughlaq to take care of orphans and widows.
- d) Iltutmish introduced the Persian festival of *Nauroz* to impress the nobles and people.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Tughril Khan, the governor of Bengal revolted against Balban.
- 2. Firoz Tughlaq patronized poets like Amir Khusrau.
- 3. Daulat Khan Lodi invited Babur to invade India.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Raziya
- 2. The Forty
- 3. Token Currency
- 4. Sayyids
- 5. Lodis

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Assess the achievements of Qutbuddin Aibak.
- 2. Examine the Market reforms of Alauddin Khalji.
- 3. Write a note on the South Indian expedition of Malik Kafur.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an estimate of the achievements of Iltutmish.
- 2. Examine the rule of Balban and his theory of kingship.
- 3. Evaluate the personality of Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq.
- 4. Write an essay on the reforms of Firoz Tughlaq.

LESSON 17

INDIA UNDER THE DELHI SULTANATE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Administration under the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 2. Economic Condition under the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 3. Social Life under the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 4. Art and architecture of the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 5. Literary Development.*

Administration

The establishment and expansion of the Delhi Sultanate led to the evolution of a powerful and efficient administrative system. At its zenith the authority of Delhi Sultan had extended as far south as Madurai. Although the Delhi Sultanate had disintegrated, their administrative system made a powerful impact on the Indian provincial kingdoms and later on the Mughal system of administration.

The Delhi Sultanate was an Islamic state with its religion Islam. The Sultans considered themselves as representatives of the Caliph. They included the name of the Caliph in the *khutba* or prayer and inscribed it on their coins. Although Balban called himself the shadow of God, he continued to practice of including the name of Caliph in the *khutba* and coins. Iltutmish, Muhammad bin Tughlaq and Firoz Tughlaq obtained *mansur* or letter of permission from the Caliph.

The office of the Sultan was the most important in the administrative system. He was the ultimate authority for the military,

legal and political activities. There was no clear law of succession during this period. All the sons had equal claim to the throne. Iltutmish even nominated his daughter in preference to his sons. But such nominations or successions were to be accepted by the nobles. Sometimes *ulemas* played crucial role in accepting the succession to the throne. However, the military superiority remained the main factor in matters of succession.

Central Government

The Sultan was assisted by a number of departments and officials in his administration. The post of *Naib* was the most powerful one. The *Naib* practically enjoyed all the powers of the Sultan and exercised general control over all the departments. Next to him was the *Wazir* who was heading the finance department called *Diwani Wizarat*.

The military department was called *Diwani Ariz*. It was headed by *Ariz-i-mumalik*. He was responsible for recruiting the soldiers and administering the military department. He was not the commander-in-chief of the army. The Sultan himself was the commander-in-chief of the army. The military department was first set up by Balban and it was further improved by Alauddin Khalji under whom the strength of the army crossed three lakh soldiers. Alauddin introduced the system of branding of the horses and payment of salary in cash. Cavalry was given importance under the Delhi Sultanate.

Diwani Rasalat was the department of religious affairs. It was headed by chief *Sadr*. Grants were made by this department for the construction and maintenance of mosques, tombs and *madrasas*. The head of the judicial department was the chief *Qazi*. Other judges or *qazis* were appointed in various parts of the Sultanate. Muslim personal law or *sharia* was followed in civil

matters. The Hindus were governed by their own personal law and their cases were dispensed by the village *panchayats*. The criminal law was based on the rules and regulations made by the Sultans. The department of correspondence was called *Diwani Insha*. All the correspondence between the ruler and the officials was dealt with by this department.

Local Administration

The provinces under the Delhi Sultanate were called *iqtas*. They were initially under the control of the nobles. But the governors of the provinces were called the *muqtis* or *walis*. They were to maintain law and order and collect the land revenue. The provinces were divided into *shiqs* and the next division was *pargana*. The *shiq* was under the control of *shiqdar*. The *pargana* comprising a number of villages was headed by *amil*. The village remained the basic unit of the administration. The village headman was known as *muqaddam* or *chaudhri*. The village accountant was called *patwari*.

Economy

After consolidating their position in India, the Delhi Sultans introduced reforms in the land revenue administration. The lands were classified into three categories:

1. *iqta* land – lands assigned to officials as *iqtas* instead of payment for their services.
2. *khalisa* land – land under the direct control of the Sultan and the revenues collected were spent for the maintenance of royal court and royal household.
3. *inam* land – land assigned or granted to religious leaders or religious institutions.

The peasantry paid one third of their produce as land revenue, and sometimes even one half of the produce. They also paid other

taxes and always led a hand-to-mouth living. Frequent famines made their lives more miserable.

However, Sultans like Muhammad bi Tughlaq and Firoz Tughlaq took efforts to enhance agricultural production by providing irrigational facilities and by providing *takkavi* loans. They also encouraged the farmers to cultivate superior crop like wheat instead of barley. Firoz encouraged the growth of horticulture. Muhammad bin Tughlaq created a separate agricultural department, *Diwani Kohi*.

During the Sultanate period, the process of urbanization gained momentum. A number of cities and towns had grown during this period. Lahore, Multan, Broach, Anhilwara, Lakhnauti, Daulatabad, Delhi and Jaunpur were important among them. Delhi remained the largest city in the East. The growth of trade and commerce was described by contemporary writers. India exported a large number of commodities to the countries on the Persian Gulf and West Asia and also to South East Asian countries. Overseas trade was under the control of *Multanis* and Afghan Muslims. Inland trade was dominated by the Gujarat *Marwari* merchants and Muslim *Bohra* merchants. Construction of roads and their maintenance facilitated for smooth transport and communication. Particularly the royal roads were kept in good shape. *Sarais* or rest houses on the highways were maintained for the convenience of the travelers.

Cotton textile and silk industry flourished in this period. Sericulture was introduced on a large scale which made India less dependent on other countries for the import of raw silk. Paper industry had grown and there was an extensive use of paper from 14th and 15th centuries. Other crafts like leather-making, metal-crafts and carpet-weaving flourished due to the increasing demand. The royal *karkhanas* supplied the goods needed to the Sultan and his household. They manufactured costly articles made of gold, silver

and gold ware. The nobles also aped the life style of Sultans and indulged in luxurious life. They were well paid and accumulated enormous wealth.

The system of coinage had also developed during the Delhi Sultanate. Iltutmish issued several types of silver *tankas*. One silver *tanka* was divided into 48 jitals during the Khalji rule and 50 *jitals* during the Tughlaq rule. Gold coins or *dinars* became popular during the reign of Alauddin Khalji after his South Indian conquests. Copper coins were less in number and dateless. Muhammad bin Tughlaq had not only experimented token currency but also issued several types of gold and silver coins. They were minted at eight different places. At least twenty five varieties of gold coins were issued by him.

Social Life

There was little change in the structure of the Hindu society during this period. Traditional caste system with the Brahmins on the upper strata of the society was prevalent. The subservient position of women also continued and the practice of sati was widely prevalent. The seclusion of women and the wearing of *purdah* became common among the upper class women. The Arabs and Turks brought the *purdah* system into India and it became widespread among the Hindu women in the upper classes of north India.

During the Sultanate period, the Muslim society remained divided into several ethnic and racial groups. The Turks, Iranians, Afghans and Indian Muslims developed exclusively and there were no intermarriages between these groups. Hindu converts from lower castes were also not given equal respect. The Muslim nobles occupied high offices and very rarely the Hindu nobles were given high position in the government. The Hindus were considered *zimmi*

or protected people for which they were forced to pay a tax called *jiziya*. In the beginning *jiziya* was collected as part of land tax. Firoz Tughlaq separated it from the land revenue and collected *jiziya* as a separate tax. Sometimes Brahmins were exempted from paying *jiziya*.

Art and Architecture

The art and architecture of the Delhi Sultanate period was distinct from the Indian style. The Turks introduced arches, domes, lofty towers or *minarets* and decorations using the Arabic script. They used the skill of the Indian stone cutters. They also added colour to their buildings by using marbles, red and yellow sand stones.



QUWWAT-UL-ISLAM MOSQUE

In the beginning, they converted temples and other structures demolished into mosques. For example, the *Quwwat-ul-Islam* mosque near *Qutub Minar* in Delhi was built by using the materials obtained from destroying many Hindu and Jain temples. But later, they began to construct new structures. The most magnificent building of the 13th century was the *Qutub Minar* which was founded by Aibek and completed by Iltutmish. This seventy one metre tower was dedicated to the *Sufi* saint Qutbuddin Bakthiyar Kaki. The balconies of this tower were projected from the main building and it was the proof of the architectural skills of that period. Later, Alauddin Khalji added an entrance to the *Qutub Minar* called *Alai Darwaza*. The dome of this arch was built on scientific lines.

The buildings of the Tughlaq period were constructed by combining arch and dome. They also used the cheaper and easily available grey colour stones. The palace complex called Tughlaqabad with its beautiful lake was built during the period of Ghyasuddin

Tughlaq. Muhammad bin Tughlaq built the tomb of Ghyasuddin on a high platform. The Kotla fort at Delhi was the creation of Firoz Tughlaq. The Lodi garden in Delhi was the example for the architecture of the Lodis.

Music

New musical instruments such as *sarangi* and *rabab* were introduced during this period. Amir Khusrau introduced many new *ragas* such as *ghora* and *sanam*. He evolved a new style of light music known as *qwalis* by blending the Hindu and Iranian systems. The invention of *sitar* was also attributed to him. The Indian classical work *Ragadarpan* was translated into Persian during the reign of Firoz Tughlaq. Pir Bhodan, a *Sufi* saint was one of the great musicians of this period. Raja Man Singh of Gwalior was a great lover of music. He encouraged the composition of a great musical work called *Man Kautuhal*.

Literature

The Delhi Sultans patronized learning and literature. Many of them had great love for Arabic and Persian literature. Learned men came from Persia and Persian language got encouragement from the rulers. Besides theology and poetry, the writing of history was also encouraged. Some of the Sultans had their own court historians. The most famous historians of this period were Hasan Nizami, Minhaj-us-Siraj, Ziauddin Barani, and Shams-Siraj Afif. Barani's *Tarikh-i-Firoz Shahi* contains the history of Tughlaq dynasty. Minhaj-us-Siraj wrote *Tabaqat-i-Nasari*, a general history of Muslim dynasties up to 1260.



AMIR KHUSRAU

Amir Khusrau (1252-1325) was the famous Persian writer of this period. He wrote a number of poems. He experimented with several poetical forms and created a new style of Persian poetry called *Sabaqi-Hind* or the Indian style. He also wrote some Hindi verses. Amir Khusrau's *Khazain-ul-Futuh* speaks about Alauddin's conquests. His famous work *Tughlaq Nama* deals with the rise of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq.

Sanskrit and Persian functioned as link languages in the Delhi Sultanate. Zia Nakshabi was the first to translate Sanskrit stories into Persian. The book *Tutu Nama* or Book of the Parrot became popular and translated into Turkish and later into many European languages. The famous *Rajatarangini* written by Kalhana belonged to the period of Zain-ul-Abidin, the ruler of Kashmir. Many Sanskrit works on medicine and music were translated into Persian.

In Arabic, Alberuni's *Kitab-ul-Hind* is the most famous work. Regional languages also developed during this period. Chand Baradi was the famous Hindi poet of this period. Bengali literature had also developed and Nusrat Shah patronized the translation of *Mahabharata* into Bengali. The Bakhti cult led to development of Gujarati and Marathi languages. The Vijayanagar Empire patronized Telugu and Kannada literature.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Central government and Local administration under the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 2. Economic life of the people of India under the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 3. Social condition and the impact of Muslim rule on Indian society.*
- 4. Architectural contributions of the Delhi Sultanate.*
- 5. Persian and other scholars lived during the Delhi Sultanate and their contribution.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The governors of the provinces in Delhi Sultanate were called the
 - (a) Shikdars
 - (b) Muqtis
 - (c) Patwaris
 - (d) Chaudris
2. The Kotla fort at Delhi was the creation of
 - (a) Firoz Tughlaq
 - (b) Iltutmish
 - (c) Alauddin Khalji
 - (d) Sikkandar Lodi

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The military department under the Delhi Sultanate was called
2. New ragas such as ghora and sanam were introduced by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Minhaj-us-Siraj | a) Rajatarangini |
| 2. Amir Khusrau | b) Tabaqat-i-Nasari |
| 3. Kalhana | c) Kitab-ul-Hind |
| 4. Alberuni | d) Sabaq-i-Hind |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Iqta land is the land assigned to officials instead of payment for their services.
- b) Khalisa land is the land under the direct control of village councils.

c) Inam land is the land assigned to soldiers for their services in wars.

d) Diwan-i-Kohi was the department of Land Revenue.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The finance department under the Delhi Sultanate was called Diwani Wizarat.
2. The Indian classical work Ragadarpan was translated into Sanskrit.
3. The Hindus were considered zimmi and they were forced to pay a tax called jiziya.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Diwani Wizarat
2. Coinage under the Delhi Sultanate.
3. Amir Khusrau
4. Qutub Minar

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Give a brief account of local administration under the Delhi Sultanate.
2. Trace the economic condition under the Delhi Sultanate.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the administration of the Delhi Sultanate.
2. Evaluate the cultural contributions of the Sultans of Delhi.

LESSON 18

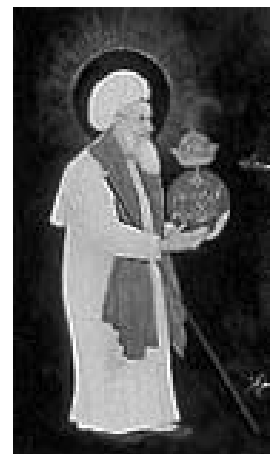
BHAKTI MOVEMENT IN MEDIEVAL INDIA

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Rise and spread of Bhakti Movement in India.*
- 2. Sufism and its development in India.*
- 3. Bhakti saints like Sankara, Ramanuja and others.*
- 4. Ramananda, Kabir and Guru Nanak and their teachings.*
- 5. Bhakti Movement in Bengal and Maharashtra.*
- 6. Importance of Bhakti Movement.*

We have already studied the rise of Bhakti cult in Tamil Nadu during the seventh and eight centuries. The Saivaite Nayanmars and Vashnavaite Alvars preached the Bhakti cult under the Pallavas, Pandyas and Cholas. But, the spread of Bhakti movement in medieval India is a different kind. This medieval Bhakti movement was the direct result of the influence of the spread of Islam in India. Monotheism or belief in one God, equality and brotherhood of man and rejection of rituals and class divisions are the distinctive characteristics of Islam. These Islamic ideas created a profound impact on the religious leaders of this period. Moreover, the preaching of Sufi teachers shaped the thinking of Bhakti reformers like Ramananda, Kabir and Nanak.



**Khwaja
Muinuddin Chishti**

Sufism

Sufism was a liberal reform movement within Islam. It had its origin in Persia and spread into India in the eleventh century. The first Sufi saint Shaikh Ismail of Lahore started preaching his ideas. The most famous of the Sufi saints of India was Khwaja Muinuddin Chishti, who settled in Ajmer which became the centre of his activities. He had a number of disciples who are called Sufis of the Chishti order. Another well known Sufi saint was Bahauddin Zakariya who came under the influence of another famous mystic Shihabuddin Suhrawardi. His branch of Sufi saints was known as the Sufis of the Suhrawardi Order. Yet another famous Sufi saint was Nizamuddin Auliya who belonged to the Chishti order and who was a mighty spiritual force. These Sufi saints are revered even today by not only Muslims but by a large number of Hindus. Their tombs have become popular places of pilgrimage for both communities.

Sufism stressed the elements of love and devotion as effective means of the realisation of God. Love of God meant love of humanity and so the Sufis believed service to humanity was tantamount to service to God. In Sufism, self discipline was considered an essential condition to gain knowledge of God by sense of perception. While orthodox Muslims emphasise external conduct, the Sufis lay stress on inner purity. While the orthodox believe in blind observance of rituals, the Sufis consider love and devotion as the only means of attaining salvation. According to them one must have the guidance of a *pir* or *guru*, without which spiritual development is impossible. Sufism also inculcated a spirit of tolerance among its followers. Other ideas emphasised by Sufism are meditation, good actions, repentance for sins, performance of prayers and pilgrimages, fasting, charity and suppression of passions by ascetic practices.

These liberal and unorthodox features of Sufism had a profound influence on medieval Bhakti saints. In the later period, Akbar, the Mughal emperor, appreciated Sufi doctrines which shaped his religious outlook and religious policies. When the Sufi movement was becoming popular in India, about the same time the Bhakti cult was gaining strength among the Hindus. The two parallel movements based on the doctrines of love and selfless devotion contributed a great deal to bringing the two communities closer together. However, this trend did not last long.

Bhakti Movement

In the ninth century **Sankara** started a Hindu revivalist movement giving a new orientation to Hinduism. He was born in Kaladi in Kerala. His doctrine of *Advaita* or Monism was too abstract to appeal to the common man. Moreover, there was a reaction against the *Advaita* concept of *Nirgunabrahman* (God without attributes) with the emergence of the idea of *Sagunabrahman* (God with attributes).



SANKARA

In the twelfth century, **Ramanuja**, who was born at Sriperumbudur near modern Chennai, preached *Visishtadvaita*.



Ramanuja

According to him God is *Sagunabrahman*. The creative process and all the objects in creation are real but not illusory as was held by Sankaracharya. Therefore, God, soul, matter are real. But God is inner substance and the rest are his attributes. He also advocated *prabattimarga* or path of self-surrender to God. He invited the downtrodden to Vaishnavism.

In the thirteenth century, **Madhava** from Kannada region propagated *Dvaita* or dualism of *Jivatma* and *Paramatma*. According to his philosophy, the world is not an illusion but a reality. God, soul, matter are unique in nature. **Nimbarka** and **Vallabhacharya** were also other preachers of Vaishnavite Bhakti in the Telungana region. **Surdas** was the disciple of Vallabhacharya and he popularized Krishna cult in north India. **Mirabai** was a great devotee of Krishna and she became popular in Rajasthan for her bhajans. **Tulsidas** was a worshipper of Rama and composed the famous *Ramcharitmanas*, the Hindi version of Ramayana.

In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, **Ramananda**, **Kabir** and **Nanak** remained great apostles of the Bhakti cult. They drew inspiration from old masters but showed a new path. They helped the common people to shed age-old superstitions and attain salvation through *Bhakti* or pure devotion. Unlike the early reformers, they were not linked with any particular religious creed and did not believe in rituals and ceremonies. They condemned polytheism and believed in one god. They also denounced all forms of idolatry. They strongly believed in *Bhakti* as the only means of salvation. They also emphasised the fundamental unity of all religions.

Ramananda

Ramananda was born at Allahabad. He was originally a follower of Ramanuja. Later he founded his own sect and preached his principles in Hindi at Banaras and Agra. He was a worshipper of Rama. He was the first to employ the vernacular medium to propagate his ideas. Simplification of worship and emancipation of people from the traditional caste rules were his two important contributions to the *Bhakti* movement. He opposed the caste system and chose his disciples from all sections of society disregarding caste. His disciples were: a) Kabir, a Muslim weaver b) Raidasa, a cobbler c) Sena, a barber d) Sadhana, a butcher e) Dhanna, a Jat farmer f) Naraharai, a goldsmith and g) Pipa, a Rajput prince.

Kabir

Among the disciples of Ramananda the most famous was Kabir. He was born near Banaras to a brahmin widow. But he was brought up by a Muslim couple who were weavers by profession.



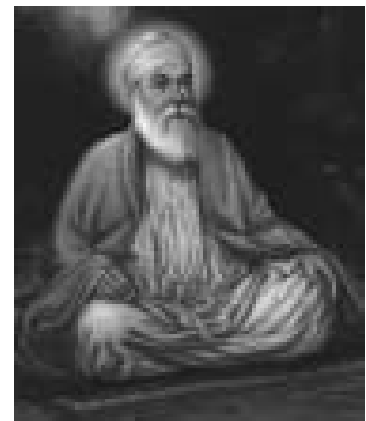
KABIR

He possessed an inquiring mind and while in Benares learnt much about Hinduism. He became familiar with Islamic teachings also and Ramananda initiated him into the higher knowledge of Hindu and Muslim religious and philosophical ideas. Kabir's object was to reconcile Hindus and Muslims and establish harmony between the two sects. He denounced idolatry and rituals and laid great emphasis on the equality of man before God. He emphasised the essential oneness of all religions by describing

Hindus and Muslims 'as pots of the same clay'. To him Rama and Allah, temple and mosque were the same. He regarded devotion to god as an effective means of salvation and urged that to achieve this one must have a pure heart, free from cruelty, dishonesty, hypocrisy and insincerity. He is regarded as the greatest of the mystic saints and his followers are called Kabirpanthis.

Guru Nanak

Another well-known saint-preacher of the medieval period was Guru Nanak, founder of the Sikh religion and a disciple of Kabir. He was born in Talwandi near Lahore. He denounced caste distinctions and rituals like bathing in holy rivers. His conception of religion was highly practical and sternly ethical. He exhorted people to give up selfishness, falsehood and hypocrisy and to lead a life of truth, honesty



GURUNANAK

and kindness. 'Abide pure amidst the impurities of the world' was one of his famous sayings. His life was dedicated to establishing harmony between Hindus and Muslims. His followers were known as Sikhs.

Chaitanya was another well-known saint and reformer of Bengal who popularised the Krishna cult. He renounced the world, became an ascetic and wandered all over the country preaching his ideas. He proclaimed the universal brotherhood of man and condemned all distinction based on religion and caste. He emphasised love and peace and showed great sympathy to the sufferings of other people, especially that of the poor and the weak. He believed that through love and devotion, song and dance, a devotee can feel the presence of God. He accepted disciples from all classes and castes and his teachings are widely followed in Bengal even today.

Gnanadeva was the founder of the Bhakti Movement in Maharashtra in the thirteenth century. It was called Maharashtra dharma. He wrote a commentary of *Bhagavat Gita* called *Gnaneswari*. **Namadeva** preached the gospel of love. He opposed idol worship and priestly domination. He also opposed the caste system. In the sixteenth century, **Ekanatha** opposed caste distinctions and sympathetic towards the lower castes. He composed many lyrics and his bhajans and kirtans were famous. Another Bhakti saint of Maharashtra was **Tukaram**, a contemporary of Sivaji. He was responsible for creating a background for Maratha nationalism. He opposed all social distinctions.

Importance of the Bhakti Movement

The importance of the Bhakti movement was very great. Various preachers spoke and wrote in the regional languages. So, the Bhakti movement provided an impetus for the development of regional languages such as Hindi, Marathi, Bengali, Kannada, etc. Through these languages they made direct appeal to the masses. As

the caste system was condemned by the Bhakti saints, the lower classes were raised to a position of great importance. The importance of women in society was also increased because the Bhakti movement gave equal importance to them. Moreover, the Bhakti movement gave to the people a simple religion, without complicated rituals. They were required to show sincere devotion to God. The new idea of a life of charity and service to fellow people developed.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Origin and spread of Bhakti Movement in medieval India.*
- 2. Sufism and its different orders such as Chishti and Suhrawardi Orders.*
- 3. Early Bhakti saints like Sankara, Ramanuja and others.*
- 4. The teachings of Ramananda, Kabir and Guru Nanak.*
- 5. Bhakti Movement in Bengal and Maharashtra.*
- 6. Importance of Bhakti Movement.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The most famous disciple of Ramananda
(a) Kabir (b) Ramadas
(c) Namadeva (d) Chaitanya
2. Madhva preached his principles in
(a) Tamil (b) Bengali
(c) Kannada (d) Marathi

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Ajmer was the centre of the activities of the Sufi saint
2. Nimbarka and Vallabhacharya preached their teachings in region.
3. Tukaram was a contemporary of

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| 1. Sankara | a) Allahabad |
| 2. Ramanuja | b) Kaladi |
| 3. Nanak | c) Sriperumbudur |
| 4. Ramananda | d) Talwandi |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Gnanadeva was the founder of Bhakti movement in Bengal.
- b) He wrote a commentary of *Bhagavat Gita* called *Gnaneswari*.
- c) He was a contemporary of Sivaji.
- d) He was a disciple of Guru Nanak.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Nizamuddin Auliya belonged to the Chishti order.
2. Chaitanya was a well-known Bhakti saint and reformer of Maharashtra.
3. Ramanuja's philosophy was known as Vishistadvaita.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Chishti Order
2. Ramanuja
3. Guru Nanak
4. Kabir

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the spread of Sufism in India.
2. Bring out the importance of Bhakti Movement in medieval India.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the rise and spread of Bhakti movement in medieval India.

LESSON 19

VIJAYANAGAR AND BAHMANI KINGDOMS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Sources for the study of Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 2. Political History of the Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 3. Administration and Social life.*
- 4. Economic Condition and Cultural contributions.*
- 5. A brief history of the Bahmani kingdom.*

VIJAYANAGAR EMPIRE

Sources

The history of Vijayanagar Empire constitutes an important chapter in the history of India. Four dynasties – Sangama, Saluva, Tuluva and Aravidu – ruled Vijayanagar from A.D. 1336 to 1672. The sources for the study of Vijayanagar are varied such as literary, archaeological and numismatics. Krishnadevaraya's Amukthamalyada, Gangadevi's Maduravijayam and Allasani Peddanna's Manucharitam are some of the indigenous literature of this period.

Many foreign travelers visited the Vijayanagar Empire and their accounts are also valuable. The Moroccan traveler, Ibn Battuta, Venetian traveler Nicolo de Conti, Persian traveler Abdur Razzak and the Portuguese traveler Domingo Paes were among them who left valuable accounts on the socio-economic conditions of the Vijayanagar Empire.

**IBN BATTUTA**

The copper plate inscriptions such as the Srirangam copper plates of Devaraya II provide the genealogy and achievements of Vijayanagar rulers. The Hampi ruins and other monuments of Vijayanagar provide information on the cultural contributions of the Vijayanagar rulers. The numerous coins issued by the Vijayanagar rulers contain figures and legends explaining their titles and achievements.

Political History

Vijayanagar was founded in 1336 by Harihara and Bukka of the Sangama dynasty. They were originally served under the Kakatiya rulers of Warangal. Then they went to Kampili where they were imprisoned and converted to Islam. Later, they returned to the Hindu fold at the initiative of the saint Vidyananya. They also proclaimed their independence and founded a new city on the south bank of the Tungabhadra river. It was called Vijayanagar meaning city of victory.

The decline of the Hoysala kingdom enabled Harihara and Bukka to expand their newly founded kingdom. By 1346, they brought the whole of the Hoysala kingdom under their control. The struggle between Vijayanagar and Sultanate of Madurai lasted for about four decades. Kumarakampana's expedition to Madurai was described in the Maduravijayam. He destroyed the Madurai Sultans and as a result, the Vijayanagar Empire comprised the whole of South India up to Rameswaram.

The conflict between Vijayanagar Empire and the Bahmani kingdom lasted for many years. The dispute over Raichur Doab, the region between the rivers Krishna and Tungabhadra and also over the fertile areas of Krishna-Godavari delta led to this long-

drawn conflict. The greatest ruler of the Sangama dynasty was Deva Raya II. But he could not win any clear victory over the Bahmani Sultans. After his death, Sangama dynasty became weak. The next dynasty, Saluva dynasty founded by Saluva Narasimha reigned only for a brief period (1486-1509).

Krishna Deva Raya (1509 – 1530)

The Tuluva dynasty was founded by Vira Narasimha. The greatest of the Vijayanagar rulers, Krishna Deva Raya belonged to the Tuluva dynasty. He possessed great military ability. His imposing personality was accompanied by high intellectual quality. His first task was to check the invading Bahmani forces. By that time the Bahmani kingdom was replaced by Deccan Sultanates. The Muslim armies were decisively defeated in the battle of Diwani by Krishna Deva Raya. Then he invaded Raichur Doab which had resulted in the confrontation with the Sultan of Bijapur, Ismail Adil Shah. But, Krishna Deva Raya defeated him and captured the city of Raichur in 1520. From there he marched on Bidar and captured it.



**KRISHNA
DEVA RAYA**

Krishna Deva Raya's Orissa campaign was also successful. He defeated the Gajapathi ruler Prataparudra and conquered the whole of Telungana. He maintained friendly relations with the Portuguese. Albuquerque sent his ambassadors to Krishna Deva Raya.

Though a Vaishnavite, he respected all religions. He was a great patron of literature and art and he was known as Andhra Bhoja. Eight eminent scholars known as Ashtadiggajas were at his royal court. Allasani Peddanna was the greatest and he was called

Andhrakavita Pitamaga. His important works include *Manucharitam* and *Harikathasaram*. Pingali Suranna and Tenali Ramakrishna were other important scholars. Krishna Deva Raya himself authored a Telugu work, *Amukthamalyadha* and Sanskrit works, *Jambavati Kalyanam* and *Ushaparinayam*.

He repaired most of the temples of south India. He also built the famous Vittalaswamy and Hazara Ramaswamy temples at Vijayanagar. He also built a new city called Nagalapuram in memory of his queen Nagaladevi. Besides, he built a large number of Rayagopurams.

After his death, Achutadeva and Venkata succeeded the throne. During the reign of Rama Raya, the combined forces of Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, Golkonda and Bidar defeated him at the Battle of Talaikotta in 1565. This battle is also known as Raksasa Thangadi. Rama Raya was imprisoned and executed. The city of Vijayanagar was destroyed. This battle was generally considered to mark the end of the Vijayanagar Empire. However, the Vijayanagar kingdom existed under the Aravidu dynasty for about another century. Thirumala, Sri Ranga and Venkata II were the important rulers of this dynasty. The last ruler of Vijayanagar kingdom was Sri Ranga III.

Administration

The administration under the Vijayanagar Empire was well organized. The king enjoyed absolute authority in executive, judicial and legislative matters. He was the highest court of appeal. The succession to the throne was on the principle of hereditary. Sometimes usurpation to the throne took place as Saluva Narasimha came to power by ending the Sangama dynasty. The king was assisted by a council of ministers in his day to day administration.

The Empire was divided into different administrative units called Mandalams, Nadus, *sthalas* and finally into gramas. The governor of Mandalam was called Mandaleswara or Nayak. Vijayanagar rulers gave full powers to the local authorities in the administration.

Besides land revenue, tributes and gifts from vassals and feudal chiefs, customs collected at the ports, taxes on various professions were other sources of income to the government. Land revenue was fixed generally one sixth of the produce. The expenditure of the government includes personal expenses of king and the charities given by him and military expenditure. In the matter of justice, harsh punishments such as mutilation and throwing to elephants were followed.

The Vijayanagar army was well-organized and efficient. It consisted of the cavalry, infantry, artillery and elephants. High-breed horses were procured from foreign traders. The top-grade officers of the army were known as Nayaks or Poligars. They were granted land in lieu of their services. These lands were called *amaram*. Soldiers were usually paid in cash.

Social Life

Allasani Peddanna in his *Manucharitam* refers the existence of four castes – Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras - in the Vijayanagar society. Foreign travelers left vivid accounts on the splendour of buildings and luxurious social life in the city of Vijayanagar. Silk and cotton clothes were mainly used for dress. Perfumes, flowers and ornaments were used by the people. Paes mentions of the beautiful houses of the rich and the large number of their household servants. Nicolo Conti refers to the prevalence of slavery. Dancing, music, wrestling, gambling and cock-fighting were some of the amusements.

The Sangama rulers were chiefly Saivaites and Virupaksha was their family deity. But other dynasties were Vaishnavites. Srivaishnavism of Ramanuja was very popular. But all kings were tolerant towards other religions. Barbosa referred to the religious freedom enjoyed by everyone. Muslims were employed in the administration and they were freely allowed to build mosques and worship. A large number of temples were built during this period and numerous festivals were celebrated. The Epics and the Puranas were popular among the masses.

The position of women had not improved. However, some of them were learned. Gangadevi, wife of Kumarakampana authored the famous work *Maduravijayam*. Hannamma and Thirumalamma were famous poets of this period. According to Nuniz, a large number of women were employed in royal palaces as dancers, domestic servants and palanquin bearers. The attachment of dancing girls to temples was in practice. Paes refers to the flourishing *devadasi* system. Polygamy was prevalent among the royal families. Sati was honoured and Nuniz gives a description of it.

Economic Condition

According to the accounts of the foreign travelers, the Vijayanagar Empire was one of the wealthiest parts of the world at that time. Agriculture continued to be the chief occupation of the people. The Vijayanagar rulers provided a stimulus to its further growth by providing irrigation facilities. New tanks were built and dams were constructed across the rivers like Tunghabadra. Nuniz refers to the excavation of canals.

There were numerous industries and they were organized into guilds. Metal workers and other craftsmen flourished during this period. Diamond mines were located in Kurnool and Anantapur district. Vijayanagar was also a great centre of trade. The chief gold

coin was the *varaha* but weights and measures varied from place to place. Inland, coastal and overseas trade led to the general prosperity. There were a number of seaports on the Malabar coast, the chief being Cannanore. Commercial contacts with Arabia, Persia, South Africa and Portugal on the west and with Burma, Malay peninsula and China on the east flourished. The chief items of exports were cotton and silk clothes, spices, rice, iron, saltpeter and sugar. The imports consisted of horses, pearls, copper, coral, mercury, China silk and velvet clothes. The art of shipbuilding had developed.

Cultural Contributions

The temple building activity further gained momentum during the Vijayanagar rule. The chief characteristics of the Vijayanagara architecture were the construction of tall Raya Gopurams or gateways and the Kalyanamandapam with carved pillars in the temple premises. The sculptures on the pillars were carved with distinctive features. The horse was the most common animal found in these pillars. Large mandapams contain one hundred pillars as well as one thousand pillars in some big temples. These mandapams were used for seating the deity on festival occasions. Also, many Amman shrines were added to the already existing temples during this period.

The most important temples of the Vijayanagar style were found in the Hampi ruins or the city of Vijayanagar. Vittalaswamy and Hazara Ramaswamy temples were the best examples of this style. The Varadharaja and Ekamparanatha temples at Kanchipuram stand as examples for the magnificence of the Vijayanagara style of temple architecture. The Raya Gopurams at Thiruvannamalai and



EASTERN GOPURAM OF
VARADHARAJA PERUMAL TEMPLE



Elephant Chariot – Hampi Ruins

Chidambaram speak the glorious epoch of Vijayanagar. They were continued by the Nayak rulers in the later period. The metal images of Krishna Deva Raya and his queens at Tirupati are examples for casting of metal images. Music and dancing were also patronized by the rulers of Vijayanagar.

Different languages such as Sanskrit, Telugu, Kannada and Tamil flourished in the regions. There was a great development in Sanskrit and Telugu literature. The peak of literary achievement was reached during the reign of Krishna Deva Raya. He himself was a scholar in Sanskrit and Telugu. His famous court poet Allasani Peddanna was distinguished in Telugu literature. Thus the cultural contributions of the Vijayanagar rulers were many-sided and remarkable.

Bahmani Kingdom

The founder of the Bahmani kingdom was Alauddin Bahman Shah also known as Hasan Gangu in 1347. Its capital was Gulbarga. There were a total of fourteen Sultans ruling over this kingdom. Among them, Alauddin Bahman Shah, Muhammad Shah I and Firoz Shah were important. Ahmad Wali Shah shifted the capital from Gulbarga to Bidar. The power of the Bahmani kingdom reached its peak under the rule of Muhammad Shah III. It extended from the Arabian sea to the Bay of Bengal. On the west it extended from Goat to Bombay. On the east, it extended from Kakinada to the mouth of the river Krishna. The success of Muhammad Shah was due to the advice and services of his minister Mahmud Gawan.

Mahmud Gawan

The Bahmani kingdom reached its peak under the guidance of Mahmud Gawan. He was a Persian merchant. He came to India at the age of forty two and joined the services of Bahmani kingdom. Slowly he became the chief minister due to his personal qualities. He remained loyal to the kingdom. He lived a simple life and was magnanimous. He was also a learned person. He possessed a great knowledge of mathematics. He made endowments to build a college at Bidar which was built in the Persian style of architecture. He was also a military genius. He waged successful wars against Vijayanagar, Orissa and the sea pirates on the Arabian sea. His conquests include Konkan, Goa and Krishna-Godavari delta. Thus he expanded the Bahmani Empire through his conquests.

His administrative reforms were also important. They were aimed to increase the control of Sultan over the nobles and provinces. Royal officers were appointed in each province for this purpose. Most of the forts were under the control of these officers. Allowances were reduced to the nobles who shirked their responsibility. This was disliked by the nobles. So, the Deccani nobles organised a plot against Gawan. They induced the Sultan to punish him with death sentence. After the execution of Gawan, the Bahmani kingdom began to decline. Muhammad Shah was succeeded by weak Sultans. During this period the provincial governors declared their independence. By the year 1526, the Bahmani kingdom had disintegrated into five independent sultanates. They were Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, Berar, Golkonda and Bidar and known as Deccan Sultanates.



Ruins of Golkonda Fort

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Literary and other sources for the study of Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 2. Four dynasties of Vijayanagar and Krishna Deva Raya's accomplishments.*
- 3. Administrative system and social life under the Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 4. Economic conditions under the Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 5. Literature, art and architecture of the Vijayanagar Empire.*
- 6. Bahmani kingdom and Mahmud Gawan's achievements.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The family deity of Sangama rulers was
 - (a) Durga
 - (b) Vittala
 - (c) Virupaksha
 - (d) Rama
2. Mahmud Gawan was a trader from
 - (a) Arabia
 - (b) Morocco
 - (c) Portugal
 - (d) Persia

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Krishna Deva Raya belonged to dynasty.
2. Hazara Ramaswamy temple was built at
3. The founder of the Bahmani kingdom

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------|
| 1. Abdur Razzak | a) Venice |
| 2. Ibn Battuta | b) Persia |
| 3. Domingo Paes | c) Morocco |
| 4. Nicolo de Conti | d) Portugal |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Bahmani capital was shifted from Gulbarga to Berar.
- b) The Bahmani capital was shifted from Gulbarga to Bidar.
- c) The Bahmani capital was shifted from Bidar to Gulbarga.
- d) The Bahmani capital was shifted from Berar to Gulbarga.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Kumarakamapana wrote *Maduravijayam*.
2. Allasani Peddanna was a Kannada scholar.
3. *Amukthamalyadha* was written by Krishna Deva Raya in Telugu language.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Sangama dynasty
2. Provincial administration under the Vijayanagar.
3. Hasan Gangu.
4. Position of women in Vijayanagar Empire.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the foreign travelers who visited the Vijayanagar Empire.
2. Examine the growth of literature under the Vijayanagar rule.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Estimate the achievements of Krishna Deva Raya.
2. Examine the cultural contributions of the Vijayanagar rulers.
3. Give an estimate of Mahmud Gawan.

LESSON 20

THE MUGHAL EMPIRE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Political History of the Mughal Empire.*
- 2. Babur and his achievements.*
- 3. Humayuns' difficulties and the Sur interregnum.*
- 4. Akbar and his achievements – Religious policy.*
- 5. Jahangir and Shah Jahan.*
- 6. Aurangzeb and his religious policy.*
- 7. Causes for the decline of the Mughal empire.*

Political History

Babur (1526-1530)

Babur was the founder of the Mughal Empire in India. His original name was Zahiruddin Muhammad. He was related to Timur from his father's side and to Chengiz Khan through his mother. Babur succeeded his father Umar Shaikh Mirza as the ruler of Farghana. But he was soon defeated by his distant relative and as a result lost his kingdom. He became a wanderer for sometime till he captured Kabul from one of his uncles. Then, Babur took interest in conquering India and launched four expeditions between 1519 and 1523.



BABUR

Military Conquests

On the eve of Babur's invasion of India, there were five prominent Muslim rulers – the Sultans of Delhi, Gujarat, Malwa, Bengal and the Deccan – and two prominent Hindu rulers – Rana Sangha of Mewar and the Vijayanagar Empire. Once again by the end of 1525, Babur started from Kabul to conquer India. He occupied Lahore easily by defeating its governor, Daulat Khan Lodi. Then he proceeded against Delhi where Ibrahim Lodi was the Sultan. On 21st April 1526 the first Battle of Panipat took place between Babur and Ibrahim Lodi, who was killed in the battle. Babur's success was due his cavalry and artillery. Babur occupied Delhi and sent his son Humayun to seize Agra. Babur proclaimed himself as "Emperor of Hindustan".

His subsequent victories over Rana Sangha and the Afghans secured his position as the ruler of India. Rana Sangha of Mewar was a great Rajput warrior. He marched against Babur and in the Battle of Khanua (near Agra) held in 1527 Babur won a decisive victory over him. Babur assumed the title Ghazi.

In 1528, Babur captured Chanderi from another Rajput ruler Medini Rai. In the next year, Babur defeated the Afghans in the Battle of Gogra in Bihar. By these victories, Babur consolidated his power in India. Babur died at Agra in 1530 at the age of forty seven.

Estimate of Babur

Babur was a great statesman and a man of solid achievements. He was also a great scholar in Arabic and Persian languages. Turki was his mother tongue. He wrote his memoirs, *Tuzuk-i-Baburi* in Turki language. It provides a vivid account of India. He frankly confesses his own failures without suppressing any facts. He was also a naturalist and described the flora and fauna of India.

Humayun (1530-1540)



HUMAYUN

Humayun was the eldest son of Babur. Humayun means “fortune” but he remained the most unfortunate ruler of the Mughal Empire. Humayun had three brothers, Kamran, Askari and Hindal. Humayun divided the empire among his brothers but this proved to be a great blunder on his part. Kamran was given Kabul and Kandahar. Sambhal and Alwar were given to Askari and Hindal.

When Humayun was busy with fighting the Afghans in the east, he got the news that Bahadur Shah of Gujarat was advancing towards Delhi. Therefore, he hastily concluded a treaty with the Afghan leader Sher Khan (later Sher Shah) and proceeded towards Gujarat.

Humayun captured Gujarat from Bahadur Shah and appointed Askari as its governor. But soon Bahadur Shah recovered Gujarat from Askari who fled from there. In the meantime Sher Khan became powerful in the east. Humayun marched against him and in the Battle of Chausa, held in 1539, Sher Khan destroyed the Mughal army and Humayun escaped from there. Humayun reached Agra to negotiate with his brothers. But as they were not cooperative, Humayun was forced to fight with Sher Khan alone in the Battle of Bilgram in 1540. This battle was also known as Battle of Kanauj. Humayun was thoroughly defeated by Sher Khan. After losing his kingdom, Humayun became an exile for the next fifteen years.

Sur Interregnum (1540-1555)

The founder of the Sur dynasty was Sher Shah, whose original name was Farid. He was the son of Hasan Khan, a jagirdar of Sasaram in Bihar. Later, Farid served under the Afghan ruler of

Bihar, who gave him the title Sher Khan for his bravery. We have already seen how he defeated Humayun at the Battle of Chausa and became the ruler of Delhi in 1540.

Sher Shah Sur (1540-1545)

Sher Shah waged extensive wars with the Rajputs and expanded his empire. His conquests include Punjab, Malwa, Sind, Multan and Bundelkhand. His empire consisted of the whole of North India except Assam, Nepal, Kashmir and Gujarat.



**SHER SHAH
SUR**

Sher Shah's Administration

Although his rule lasted for five years, he organized a brilliant administrative system. The central government consisted of several departments. The king was assisted by four important ministers:

1. *Diwan –i- Wizarat* – also called as *Wazir* - in charge of Revenue and Finance.
2. *Diwan-i-Ariz* – in charge of Army.
3. *Diwan-i-Rasalat*- Foreign Minister.
4. *Diwan-i-Insha*- Minister for Communications.

Sher Shah's empire was divided into forty seven *sarkars*. Chief *Shiqdar* (law and order) and Chief *Munsif* (judge) were the two officers in charge of the administration in each *sarkar*. Each *sarkar* was divided into several *parganas*. *Shiqdar* (military officer), *Amin* (land revenue), *Fotedar* (treasurer) *Karkuns* (accountants) were in charge of the administration of each *pargana*. There were also many administrative units called *iqtas*.

The land revenue administration was well organized under Sher Shah. Land survey was carefully done. All cultivable lands were classified into three classes – good, middle and bad. The state's share was one third of the average produce and it was paid in cash or crop. His revenue reforms increased the revenue of the state. Sher Shah introduced new silver coins called “Dam” and they were in circulation till 1835.

Sher Shah had also improved the communications by laying four important highways. They were: 1. Sonargaon to Sind 2. Agra to Burhampur 3. Jodhpur to Chittor and 4. Lahore to Multan. Rest houses were built on the highways for the convenience of the travelers. Police was efficiently reorganized and crime was less during his regime.

The military administration was also efficiently reorganized and Sher Shah borrowed many ideas like the branding of horses from Alauddin Khalji.

Estimate of Sher Shah

Sher Shah remained a pious Muslim and generally tolerant towards other religions. He employed Hindus in important offices. He was also a patron of art and architecture. He built a new city on the banks of the river Yamuna near Delhi. Now the old fort called Purana Qila and its mosque is alone surviving. He also built a Mausoleum at Sasaram, which is considered as one of the master pieces of Indian architecture. Sher Shah also patronized the learned men. Malik Muhammad Jayasi wrote the famous Hindi work Padmavat during his reign.

After Sher Shah's death in 1545 his successors ruled till 1555 when Humayun reconquered India.

Humayun (1555-1556)

When Humayun left India in 1540, he married Hamida Banu Begum on his way to Sind. When they stayed in Amorkot, a Hindu kingdom ruled by Rana Prasad, Akbar was born in 1542. Humayun then proceeded to Iran and sought help from its ruler. He later defeated his brothers, Kamran and Askari. In the meantime the Sur dynasty in India was declining rapidly. In 1555, Humayun defeated the Afghans and recovered the Mughal throne. After six months, he died in 1556 due to his fall from the staircase of his library. Although Humayun was not a good General and warrior, he was kind and generous. He was also learned and a student of mathematics, astronomy and astrology. He also loved painting and wrote poetry in Persian language.

Akbar (1556-1605)

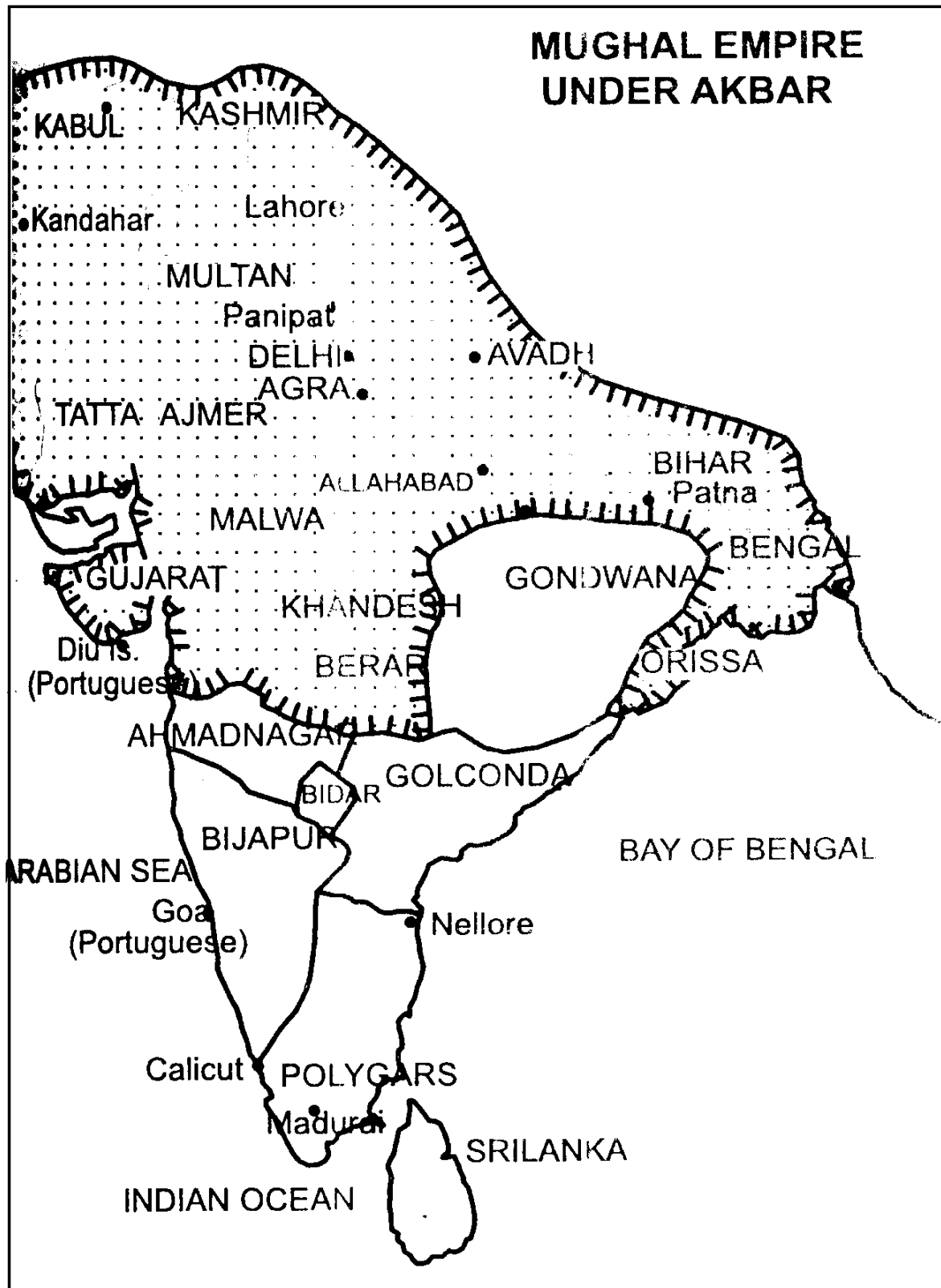
Akbar was one of the greatest monarchs of India. He succeeded the throne after his father Humayun's death. But his position was dangerous because Delhi was seized by the Afghans. Their commander-in-Chief, Hemu, was in charge of it. In the second Battle of Panipat in 1556, Hemu was almost on the point of victory. But an arrow pierced his eye and he became unconscious. His army fled and the fortune favoured Akbar. The Mughal victory was decisive.



AKBAR

During the first five years of Akbar's reign, Bairam Khan acted as his regent. He consolidated the Mughal empire. After five years he was removed by Akbar due to court intrigues and sent to Mecca. But on his way Bairam was killed by an Afghan.

Akbar's military conquests were extensive. He conquered northern India from Agra to Gujarat and then from Agra to Bengal. He strengthened the northwest frontier. Later, he went to the Deccan.



Relations with Rajputs

The Rajput policy of Akbar was notable. He married the Rajput princess, the daughter of Raja Bharamal. It was a turning point in the history of Mughals. Rajputs served the Mughals for four generations. Many of them rose to the positions of military generals. Raja Bhagawan Das and Raja Man Singh were given senior positions in the administration by Akbar. One by one, all Rajput states submitted to Akbar.

But the Ranas of Mewar continued to defy despite several defeats. In the Battle of Haldighati, Rana Pratap Singh was severely defeated by the Mughal army led by Man Singh in 1576. Following the defeat of Mewar, most of the leading Rajput rulers had accepted Akbar's suzerainty.

Akbar's Rajput policy was combined with a broad religious toleration. He abolished the pilgrim tax and later the jiziya. The Rajput policy of Akbar proved to be beneficial to the Mughal state as well as to the Rajputs. The alliance secured to the Mughals the services of the bravest warriors. On the other hand it ensured peace in Rajasthan and a number of Rajputs who joined the Mughal service rose to important positions.

Religious Policy

Akbar rose to fame in the pages of history due to his religious policy. Various factors were responsible for his religious ideas. The most important among them were his early contacts with the sufi saints, the teachings of his tutor Abdul Latif, his marriage with Rajput women, his association with intellectual giants like Shaikh Mubarak and his two illustrious sons – Abul Faizi and Abul Fazl – and his ambition to establish an empire in Hindustan.

In the beginning of his life, Akbar was a pious Muslim. Soon after marrying Jodh Bai of Amber, he abolished the pilgrim tax and

in 1562, he abolished jiziya. He allowed his Hindu wives to worship their own gods. Later, he became a skeptical Muslim. In 1575, he ordered for the construction of Ibadat Khana (House of worship) at his new capital Fatepur Sikri. Akbar invited learned scholars from all religions like Hinduism, Jainism, Christianity and Zoroastrianism. He disliked the interference of the Muslim Ulemas in political matters. In 1579, he issued the “Infallibility Decree” by which he asserted his religious powers.

In 1582, he promulgated a new religion called *Din Ilahi* or Divine Faith. It believes in one God. It contained good points of all religions. Its basis was rational. It upholds no dogma. It was aimed at bridging the gulf that separated different religions. However, his new faith proved to be a failure. It fizzled out after his death. Even during his life time, it had only fifteen followers including Birbal. Akbar did not compel anyone to his new faith.

Land Revenue Administration

Akbar made some experiments in the land revenue administration with the help of Raja Todar Mal. The land revenue system of Akbar was called *Zabti* or *Bandobast* system. It was further improved by Raja Todar Mal. It was known as *Dahsala* System which was completed in 1580. By this system, Todar Mal introduced a uniform system of land measurement. The revenue was fixed on the average yield of land assessed on the basis of past ten years. The land was also divided into four categories – *Polaj* (cultivated every year), *Parauti* (once in two years), *Chachar* (once in three or four years) and *Banjar* (once in five or more years). Payment of revenue was made generally in cash.

Mansabdari System

Akbar introduced the Mansabdari system in his administration. Under this system every officer was assigned a rank (mansab). The

lowest rank was 10 and the highest was 5000 for the nobles. Princes of royal blood received even higher ranks. The ranks were divided into two – *zat* and *sawar*. *Zat* means personal and it fixed the personal status of a person. *Sawar* rank indicated the number of cavalymen of a person who was required to maintain. Every *sawar* had to maintain at least two horses. The mansab rank was not hereditary. All appointments and promotions as well as dismissals were directly made by the emperor.

Jahangir (1605-1627)

When Akbar died, Prince Salim succeeded with the title Jahangir (Conqueror of World) in 1605. Jahangir's rule witnessed a spate of rebellions. His son Khusrau revolted but was defeated and imprisoned. One of his supporters, Guru Arjun, the fifth Sikh Guru, was beheaded.



JAHANGIR

Nur Jahan

In 1611, Jahangir married Mehrunnisa who was known as Nur Jahan (Light of World). Her father Itimaduddaula was a respectable person. He was given the post of chief diwan. Other members of her family also benefited from this alliance. Nur Jahan's elder brother Asaf Khan was appointed as Khan-i-Saman, a post reserved for the nobles. In 1612, Asaf Khan's daughter, Arjumand Banu Begum (later known as Mumtaz), married Jahangir's third son, prince Khurram (later Shah Jahan).



NUR JAHAN

It was believed by some historians that Nur Jahan formed a group of "junta" and this led to two factions in the Mughal court.

This drove Shah Jahan into rebellion against his father in 1622, since he felt that Jahangir was completely under Nur Jahan's influence. However, this view is not accepted by some other historians. Till Jahangir became weak due to ill health, he only took important political decisions. It is revealed from his autobiography.

However, it is clear that Nur Jahan dominated the royal household and set new fashions based on Persian traditions. She encouraged Persian art and culture in the court. She was a constant companion of Jahangir and even joined him in his hunting.

The rise of Shah Jahan was due to his personal ambitions. He rose in revolt against his father who ordered him to go to Kandahar. This rebellion distracted the activities of the empire for four years. After Jahangir's death in 1627, Shah Jahan reached Agra with the support of the nobles and the army. Nur Jahan was given a pension and lived a retired life till her death eighteen years later.

Shah Jahan (1627-1658)

Shah Jahan launched a prolonged campaign in the northwest frontier to recover Kandahar and other ancestral lands. The Mughal army lost more than five thousand lives during the successive invasions between 1639 and 1647. Then Shah Jahan realized the futility of his ambition and stopped fighting.



SHAH JAHAN AND
MUMTAJ – A PAINTING

His Deccan policy was more successful. He defeated the forces of Ahmadnagar and annexed it. Both Bijapur and Golkonda signed a treaty with the emperor. Shah Jahan carved four Mughal provinces in the Deccan – Khandesh, Berar, Telungana and Daulatabad. They were put under the control of his son Aurangzeb.

War of Succession

The last years of Shah Jahan's reign were clouded by a bitter war of succession among his four sons – Dara Shikoh (crown prince), Shuja (governor of Bengal), Aurangzeb (governor of Deccan) and Murad Baksh (governor of Malwa and Gujarat). Towards the end of 1657, Shah Jahan fell ill at Delhi for some time but later recovered. But the princes started fighting for the Mughal throne.

Aurangzeb emerged victorious in this struggle. He entered the Agra fort after defeating Dara. He forced Shah Jahan to surrender. Shah Jahan was confined to the female apartments in the Agra fort and strictly put under vigil. But he was not ill-treated. Shah Jahan lived for eight long years lovingly nursed by his daughter Jahanara. He died in 1666 and buried beside his wife's grave in the Taj Mahal.

Aurangzeb (1658-1707)

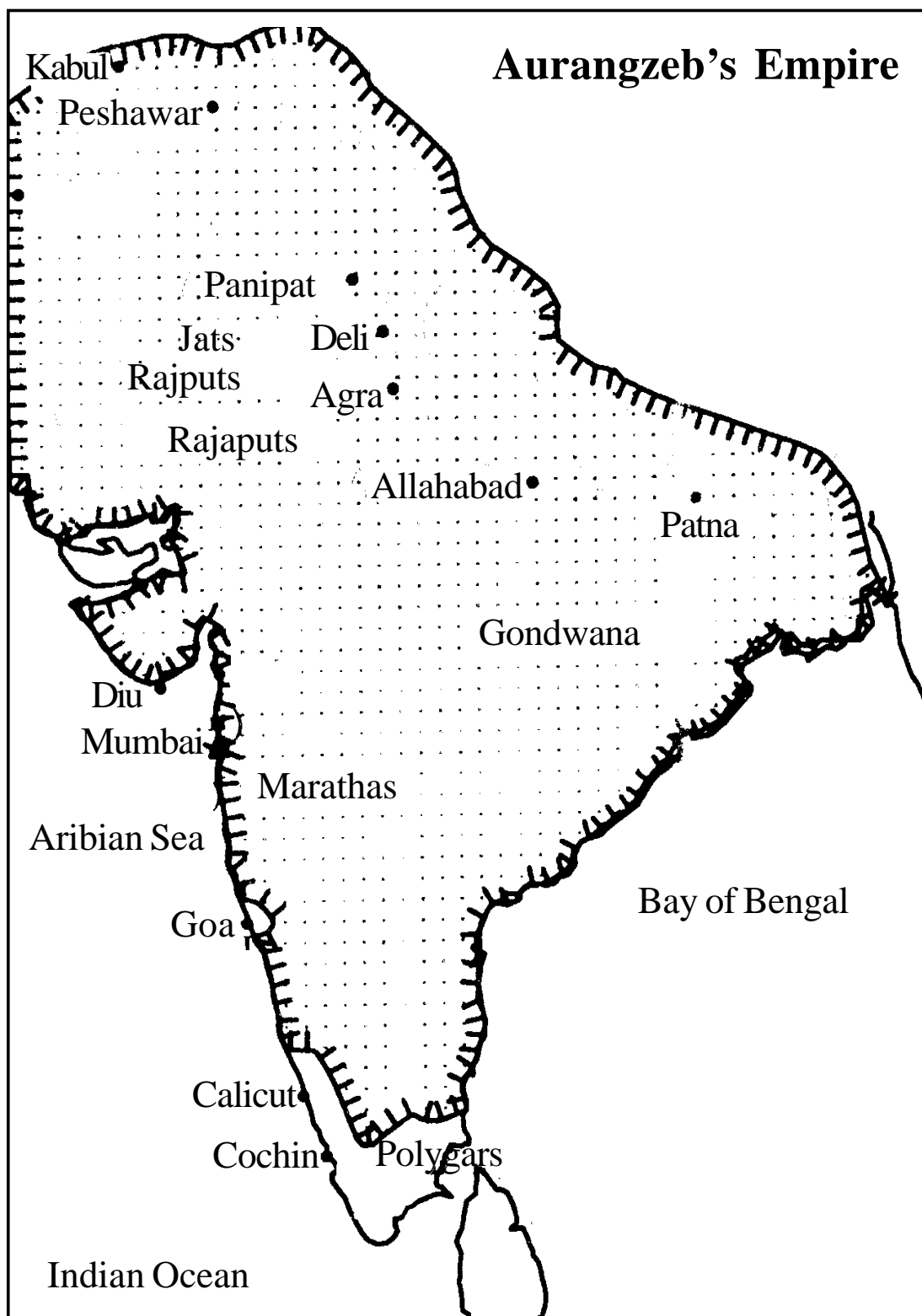
Aurangzeb was one of the ablest of the Mughal kings. He assumed the title Alamgir, World Conqueror. His military campaigns in his first ten years of reign were a great success. He suppressed the minor revolts. But he faced serious difficulties in the latter part of his reign. The Jats and Satnamis and also the Sikhs revolted against him. These revolts were induced by his harsh religious policy.



AURANGAZEB

Deccan Policy

The Deccan policy of the Mughals started from the reign of Akbar, who conquered Khandesh and Berar. Jahangir fought against Malik Amber of Ahmadnagar. During the Shah Jahan's reign, Aurangzeb, as governor of Deccan, followed an aggressive Deccan policy. When he became the Mughal emperor, for the first twenty



five years, he concentrated on the northwest frontier. At that time, the Maratha ruler, Sivaji carved out an independent Maratha kingdom in the territories of north and south Konkan.

To contain the spread of the Marathas, Aurangzeb decided to invade Bijapur and Golkonda. He defeated Sikandar Shah of Bijapur and annexed his kingdom. Then, he proceeded against Golkonda and eliminated the Kutb Shahi dynasty. It was also annexed by him. In fact, the destruction of the Deccan kingdoms was a political blunder on the part of Aurangzeb. The barrier between the Mughals and the Marathas was removed and there ensued a direct confrontation between them. Also, his Deccan campaigns exhausted the Mughal treasury. According to J.N. Sarkar, the Deccan ulcer ruined Aurangzeb.

Religious Policy

Aurangzeb was a staunch and orthodox Muslim in his personal life. His ideal was to transform India into an Islamic state. He created a separate department to enforce moral codes under a high-powered officer called Muhtasib. Drinking was prohibited. Cultivation and use of bhang and other drugs were banned. Aurangzeb forbade music in the Mughal court. He discontinued the practice of Jarokhadarshan. He also discontinued the celebration of Dasarah and royal astronomers and astrologers were also dismissed from service.

Initially Aurangzeb banned the construction of new Hindu temples and repair of old temples. Then he began a policy of destroying Hindu temples. The celebrated temples at Mathura and Benares were reduced to ruins. In 1679, he reimposed jiziya and pilgrim tax. He was also not tolerant of other Muslim sects. The celebration of Muharram was stopped. His invasions against the Deccan sultanates were partly due to his hatred of the Shia faith.

He was also against the Sikhs and he executed the ninth Sikh Guru Tej Bahadur. This had resulted in the transformation of Sikhs into a warring community.

His religious policy was responsible for turning the Rajputs, the Marathas and Sikhs into the enemies of Mughal empire. It had also resulted in the rebellions of the Jats of Mathura and the Satnamis of Mewar. Therefore, Aurangzeb was held responsible for the decline of the Mughal empire.

Personality and Character of Aurangzeb

In his private life, Aurangzeb was industrious and disciplined. He was very simple in food and dress. He earned money for his personal expenses by copying Quran and selling those copies. He did not consume wine. He was learned and proficient in Arabic and Persian languages. He was a lover of books. He was devoted to his religion and conducted prayers five times a day. He strictly observed the Ramzan fasting.

In the political field, Aurangzeb committed serious mistakes. He misunderstood the true nature of the Maratha movement and antagonized them. Also, he failed to solve the Maratha problem and left an open sore. His policy towards Shia Deccan Sultanates also proved to be a wrong policy.

His religious policy was also not successful. Aurangzeb was an orthodox Sunni Muslim. But his move to apply his religious thought rigidly in a non-Muslim society was a failure. His antagonistic policies towards non-Muslims did not help him to rally the Muslims to his side. On the other hand it had strengthened political enemies of the Mughal Empire.

Causes for the Downfall of the Mughals

The Mughal Empire declined rapidly after the death of Aurangzeb. The Mughal court became the scene of factions among the nobles. The weakness of the empire was exposed when Nadir Shah imprisoned the Mughal Emperor and looted Delhi in 1739. The causes for the downfall of the Mughal Empire were varied. To some extent, the religious and Deccan policies of Aurangzeb contributed to its decline. The weak successors and demoralization of the Mughal army also paved the way for it. The vastness of the empire became unwieldy. The financial difficulties due to continuous wars led to the decline. The neglect of the sea power by the Mughals was felt when the Europeans began to settle in India. Further, the invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdali weakened the Mughal state. Thus the decline and downfall of the Mughal Empire was due to the combination of political, social and economic factors.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Political History of the Mughal Empire from Babur to Aurangzeb.*
- 2. Achievements of Babur and the difficulties of Humayun.*
- 3. Sur interregnum – Sher Shah’s administration.*
- 4. The reign of Akbar – his administration, Mansabdari system and religious policy.*
- 5. Jahangir, Shah Jahan and the War of Succession.*
- 6. Deccan policy of Aurangzeb and his religious policy.*
- 7. Decline of the Mughal empire*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Babur wrote Tuzuk-i-Baburi in the language of
(a) Persian (b) Hindi
(c) Arabic (d) Turki
2. The original name of Shah Jahan was
(a) Salim (b) Khurram
(c) Dara Shikoh (d) Farid

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Battle of Chausa took place between and in the year
2. In the Battle of Haldighati was defeated by the Mughal army led by
3. During the last years of his life Shah Jahan was lovingly nursed by his daughter

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------|
| 1. Battle of Haldighati | a) 1540 |
| 2. Second Battle of Panipat | b) 1539 |
| 3. Battle of Chausa | c) 1576 |
| 4. Battle of Bilgram | d) 1556 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Deccan policy of Akbar led to the decline of the Mughals.
- b) The religious policy of Aurangzeb was one among the causes for the decline of the Mughal empire.

- c) Aurangzeb had supported the Muslim Sultanates of Deccan.
- d) The antagonistic policies of Aurangzeb towards non-Muslims helped him to rally the Muslims to his side.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Babur defeated the Rajputs in the Battle of Gogra in Bihar.
- 2. The Zabti system was further improved by Raja Todar Mal.
- 3. Shah Jahan executed the ninth Sikh Guru Tej Bahadur.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Tuzuk-i-Baburi.
- 2. Sur Interregnum.
- 3. Raja Todar Mal.
- 4. Din Ilahi.
- 5. Nur Jahan.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Bring out the achievements of Babur.
- 2. Write a brief note on the War of Succession in the last years of Shah Jahan.
- 3. Analyse the causes for the decline of the Mughal Empire.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Give an account of the salient features of the administration of Sher Shah.
- 2. Assess the achievements of Akbar.
- 3. Evaluate the religious policy of Aurangzeb.

LESSON 21

INDIA UNDER THE MUGHALS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The Causes for the Vellore Mutiny.*
- 1. Economic and Social life under the Mughal Empire.*
- 2. Mughal nobility and their way of life.*
- 3. Agriculture and Trade.*
- 4. Cultural Development – Art and Architecture.*
- 5. Mughal paintings and Literature.*

Economic and Social Life

The Mughal period saw important social and economic developments. During this period, many European travelers and traders came to India and their accounts contain a mine of information about the socio-economic conditions of India. In general, they described the wealth and prosperity of India and also the luxurious life of the aristocratic classes. On the other side, they also mentioned the poverty and sufferings of the ordinary people such as peasants and artisans.

Mughal Nobility

The nobles of the Mughal period formed a privileged class. Most of them were foreigners such as Turks and Afghans. But there was tussle between them throughout this period. However, many of them settled down in India and made it their permanent home. They

readily assimilated themselves into the Indian society and culture. At the same time they retained some of their personal traits. From the time of Akbar, the Hindus, particularly the Rajputs were included in the nobility. For example, mention may be made about Raja Man Singh, Raja Birbal and Raja Todar Mal. Later, the Marathas also joined the Mughal service and rose to the position of nobles.

The Mughal nobles were paid high salaries but their expenses were also very high. Each noble maintained a large number of servants, horses, elephants, etc. The nobles tried follow the luxurious life style of the Mughal emperors. They wore fine clothes and ate imported fruits. Costly jewels were worn by men and women. They also made costly presents to the emperors.

Rural Masses

While the wealthy people wore silk and cotton clothes, the poor people wore the minimum cloths. They suffer from insufficient clothing even during the winter. Nikitin observed that the people of Deccan were bare-footed. It might be due to high cost of leather. Rice, millets and pulses were the staple food of the common people. Fish was popular on the coastal region. While ghee and oil were cheaper, salt and sugar were more expensive. As plenty of cattle were kept by the rural people, milk and milk products were available in plenty.

Agriculture

An estimate claims that the population of India at the beginning of the seventeenth century was about 125 million. As plenty of land was available for cultivation, agriculture was prosperous. A large variety of crops such as wheat, rice, gram, barley, pulses were cultivated. Commercial crops such as cotton, indigo, sugarcane and oil-seeds were also cultivated. During the seventeenth century two new crops, namely, tobacco and maize were added. Potato and

red chillies came later in the eighteenth century. But, no new agricultural technique was introduced during this period. However, India was able to export food items like rice and sugar to the neighbouring countries.

Growth of Trade

The Indian trading classes were large in numbers and spread throughout the country. They were well organized and highly professional. Seth, bohra traders specialized in long distance trade while local traders were called banik. Another class of traders was known as banjaras, who specialized in carrying bulk goods. The banjaras used to move to long distances with their goods on the back of oxen. Bulk goods were also taken through rivers on boats. The trading community did not belong to one caste or religion. The Gujarathi merchants included the Hindus, Jains and Muslims. In Rajasthan, Oswals, Maheshwaris and Agarwals came to be called the Marwaris. Multanis, Khattris and Afghanis conducted trade with central Asia. In south India, the Chettis on the Coramandal coast and the Muslim merchants of Malabar were the most important trading communities.

Bengal exported sugar, rice as well as delicate muslin and silk. The Coramandal coast became a centre of textile production. Gujarat was an entry point of foreign goods. From there, fine textiles and silk were taken to north India. Indigo and food grains were exported from north India through Gujarat. It was also the distribution centre for the luxury products of Kashmir such as shawls and carpets. The major imports into India were certain metals such as tin and copper, war horses and luxury items such as ivory. The balance of trade was maintained by the import of gold and silver. The growth of foreign trade had resulted in the increased import of gold and silver in the seventeenth century. The Dutch and English traders who came to Gujarat during the seventeenth century, found that Indian traders were alert and brisk.

Cultural Development under the Mughals

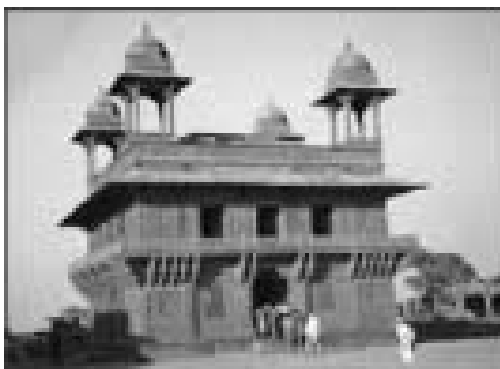
The Mughal period witnessed a significant and widespread development in cultural activity. It was manifest in the sphere of art and architecture, painting, music and literature. In this cultural development, Indian traditions were blended with Turko-Iranian culture which was brought into India by the Mughals.

Art and Architecture

The architecture of the Mughals includes the magnificent forts, palaces, public buildings, mosques and mausoleums. The Mughals were fond of laying gardens with running water. Some of the Mughal gardens such as the Nishat Bagh in Kashmir, the Shalimar Bagh at Lahore and the Pinjore garden in the Punjab have survived even today. During the reign of Sher Shah, the mausoleum at Sasaram in Bihar and the Purana Qila near Delhi were built. These two monuments are considered as the architectural marvels of medieval India.



Purana Qila



DIWAN-I-KHAS

Large scale construction of buildings started with the advent of Akbar. He built many forts and the most famous one was the Agra Fort. It was built in red sandstone. His other forts are at Lahore and Allahabad. The climax of fort-building reached its climax during the reign of Shah Jahan. The famous Red Fort at Delhi with its Rang Mahal, *Diwan-i-Am* and *Diwan-i-Khas* was his creation.



Fatepur Sikri

Akbar also built a palace-cum-fort complex at Fatepur Sikri (City of Victory), 36 kilometres from Agra. Many buildings in Gujarathi and Bengali styles are found in this complex. Gujarathi style buildings were probably built for his Rajput wives. The most

magnificent building in it is the Jama Masjid and the gateway to it called Buland Darwaza or the Lofty Gate. The height of the gateway is 176 feet. It was built to commemorate Akbar's victory over Gujarat. Other important buildings at Fatepur Sikri are Jodh Bai's palace and Panch Mahal with five storeys.

During Akbar's reign, the Humayun's tomb was built at Delhi and it had a massive dome of marble. It may be considered the precursor of the Taj Mahal. Akbar's tomb at Sikandara near Agra was completed by Jahangir. Nur Jahan built the tomb of Itimaddaulah at Agra. It was constructed wholly of



PANCH MAHAL

white marble with floral designs made of semi-precious stones on the walls. This type of decoration was called *pietra dura*. This method became more popular during the reign of Shah Jahan. The *pietra dura* method was used on a large scale in the Taj Mahal by



Buland Darwaza



TAJ MAHAL

Shah Jahan. Taj Mahal is considered a jewel of the builder's art. It contains all the architectural forms developed by the Mughals. The chief glory of the Taj is the massive dome and the four slender minarets. The decorations are kept to the minimum.

Mosque building had reached its peak during Shah Jahan's reign. The Moti Masjid at Agra was built entirely in white marble. The Jama Masjid at Delhi was built in red stone.

The Mughal architectural traditions continued in the eighteenth and early nineteenth century. Their influence in the provincial kingdoms is clearly visible. Many features of Mughal tradition can be seen in the Golden Temple at Amritsar.

Paintings and Music

The contribution of Mughals to the art of painting was remarkable. The foundation for the Mughal painting was laid by Humayun when he was staying in Persia. He brought with him two painters – Mir Sayyid Ali and Abdal Samad to India. These two painters became famous during Akbar's reign. Akbar commissioned the illustrations of several literary and religious texts. He invited a large number of painters from different parts of the country to his court. Both Hindus and Muslims joined in this work. Baswan, Miskina and Daswant attained great positions as Akabar's court artists.



**Mughal Gemstone
Painting**

Illustrations of Persian versions of Mahabharata and Ramayana were produced in miniature form. Many other Indian fables became the miniature paintings in the Art Studio established by Akbar. Historical works such as Akbar Nama also remained the main themes of Mughal paintings. The most important work is Hamznama, which consisted 1200 paintings. Indian colours such as peacock blue, Indian red began to be used.

Mughal paintings reached its climax during the reign of Jahangir. He employed a number of painters like Abul Hasan, Bishan Das, Madhu, Anant, Manohar, Govardhan and Ustad Mansur. Apart from painting the scenes of hunting, battles and royal courts, progress was made in portrait painting and paintings of animals. Many albums containing paintings and calligraphy were produced during the Mughal period. Later, the influence of European painting could be seen.

Music had also developed under the Mughals. Akbar patronized Tansen of Gwalior. Tansen composed many ragas. Jahangir and Shah Jahan were also fond of music.

Language and Literature

Persian language became widespread in the Mughal Empire by the time of Akbar's reign. Abul Fazl was a great scholar and historian of his period. He set a style of prose writing and it was followed by many generations. Many historical works were written during this period. They include *Ain-i-Akbari* and *Akabar Nama* authored by Abul Fazl. The leading poet of that period was his brother Abul Faizi. The translation of Mahabharata into the Persian language was done under his supervision. Utbi and Naziri were the two other leading Persian poets.

Jahangir's autobiography, *Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri* was famous for its style. He also patronized many scholars like Ghiyas Beg, Naqib

Khan and Niamatullah. Shah Jahan also patronized many writers and historians like Abdul Hamid Lahori, author of Padshah Nama and Inayat Khan who wrote Shah Jahan Nama. His son Dara Shikoh translated the Bhagavat Gita and Upanishads into the Persian language. Many historical works were written during the reign of Aurangazeb. Famous dictionaries of the Persian language were also compiled during the Mughal period.

Regional languages such as Bengali, Oriya, Rajasthani and Gujarathi had also developed during this period. Many devotional works including the Ramayana and Mahabharata were translated into regional languages. From the time of Akbar, Hindi poets were attached to the Mughal court. The most influential Hindi poet was Tulsidas, who wrote the Hindi version of the *Ramayana*, the *Ramcharitmanas*.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Socio-economic life under the Mughals.*
- 2. The social and economic life of the nobles and also the rural masses.*
- 3. Agriculture and trade under the Mughals – chief exports and imports.*
- 4. Cultural development during the Mughals.*
- 5. Art and architecture, palaces, forts, mosques and Mughal gardens.*
- 6. Development of Mughal Paintings and their significance.*
- 7. Growth of language and literature.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Panch Mahal is at
 - (a) Delhi
 - (b) Agra
 - (c) Lahore
 - (d) Fatepur Sikri
2. Tansen belonged to
 - (a) Persia
 - (b) Gujarat
 - (c) Ajmer
 - (d) Gwalior

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Hamzanama is a compilation of
2. Akbar patronized the musician called

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--|
| 1. Abul Fazl | a) Padshanama |
| 2. Inayat Khan | b) Akbar Nama |
| 3. Abdul Hamid Lahori | c) Translation of Mahabharata into Persian |
| 4. Abul Faizi | d) Shah Jahan Nama |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) New agricultural technique was introduced during the Mughal period.
- b) New crops like tobacco and maize were introduced in the seventeenth century.
- c) Salt and sugar were cheaper in the Mughal period.
- d) Rice, barley and pulses were the commercial crops.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The Mughal nobles were paid very low salary.
2. Milk and milk products were available in plenty during the Mughal period.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. The Mughal Nobility.
2. Fatepur Sikri.
3. Abul Fazl.
4. Pietra dura.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Mention the economic condition of the rural masses during the Mughal period.
2. Write a note on the internal and foreign trade under the Mughals.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the cultural development under the Mughals.
2. Examine the salient features of the Mughal art and architecture.
3. Trace the growth of language and literature under the Mughal rule.

LESSON 22

THE MARATHAS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The rise of the Marathas.*
- 2. Life and achievements of Shivaji.*
- 3. Shivaji's administration.*
- 4. Rise of the Peshwas.*

The Rise of the Marathas

Various factors contributed to the rise of Marathas in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The physical environment of the Maratha country shaped certain peculiar qualities among the Marathas. The mountainous region and dense forests made them brave soldiers and adopt guerilla tactics. They built a number of forts on the mountains. The spread of the Bhakti movement in Maharashtra inculcated a spirit of religious unity among them. The spiritual leaders like Tukaram, Ramdas, Vaman Pandit and Eknath fostered social unity. The political unity was conferred by Shivaji. The Marathas held important positions in the administrative and military systems of Deccan Sultanates of Bijapur and Ahmadnagar. There were a number of influential Maratha families such as the Mores and Nimbalkers. But the credit of establishing a powerful Maratha state goes to Shahji Bhonsle and his son Shivaji.

Shivaji (1627-1680): His Life and Conquests

Shivaji was born at Shivner in 1627. His father was Shahji Bhonsle and mother Jija Bai. He inherited the jagir of Poona from his father in 1637. After the death of his guardian, Dadaji Kondadev in 1647, Shivaji assumed full charge of his jagir. Even before that he conquered Raigarh, Kondana and Torna from the ruler of Bijapur.



SHIVAJI

He captured Javli from a Maratha chief, Chanda Rao More. This made him the master of Mavala region. In 1657, he attacked the Bijapur kingdom and captured a number of hill forts in the Konkan region. The Sultan of Bijapur sent Afzal Khan against Shivaji. But Afzal Khan was murdered by Shivaji in 1659 in a daring manner.

Shivaji's military conquests made him a legendary figure in the Maratha region. Many came forward to join his army. The Mughal emperor Aurangzeb was anxiously watching the rise of Maratha power under Shivaji. He sent the Mughal governor of the Deccan, Shaista Khan against Shivaji. Shivaji suffered a defeat at the hands of the Mughal forces and lost Poona. But Shivaji once again made a bold attack on Shaista Khan's military camp at Poona in 1663, killed his son and wounded Khan. This daring attack affected the prestige of Khan and he was recalled by Aurangzeb. In 1664, Shivaji attacked Surat, the chief port of the Mughals and plundered it.

This time Aurangzeb sent Raja Jai Singh of Amber to fight against Shivaji. He made elaborate preparations and succeeded in besieging the Purander fort where Shivaji lodged his family and treasure. Shivaji opened negotiations with Jai Singh and the Treaty

of Purander was signed in 1665. According to the treaty, Shivaji had to surrender 23 forts to the Mughals out of 35 forts held by him. The remaining 12 forts were to be left to Shivaji on condition of service and loyalty to Mughal empire. On the other hand, the Mughals recognized the right of Shivaji to hold certain parts of the Bijapur kingdom. As Shivaji asked to exempt him from personal service to the Mughals, his minor son Shambaji was granted a mansab of 5000.

Shivaji visited Agra in 1666 but he was imprisoned there. But, he managed to escape from prison and made military preparations for another four years. Then he renewed his wars against the Mughals. Surat was plundered by him for the second time in 1670. He also captured all his lost territories by his conquests. In 1674 Shivaji crowned himself at Raigarh and assumed the title Chatrapathi. Then he led an expedition into the Carnatic region and captured Ginjee and Vellore. After his return from this expedition, Shivaji died in 1680.

Shivaji's Administration

Shivaji was also a great administrator. He laid the foundations of a sound system of administration. The king was the pivot of the government. He was assisted by a council of ministers called Ashtapradhan. However, each minister was directly responsible to Shivaji.

1. Peshwa – Finance and general administration. Later he became the prime minister.
2. *Sar-i-Naubat* or Senapati – Military commander, a honorary post.
3. Amatya – Accountant General.

4. Waqenavis – Intelligence, posts and household affairs.
5. Sachiv – Correspondence.
6. Sumanta – Master of ceremonies.
7. Nyayadish – Justice.
8. Panditarao – Charities and religious administration.

Most of the administrative reforms of Shivaji were based on the practices of the Deccan sultanates. For example, Peshwa was the Persian title.

The revenue system of Shivaji was based on that of Malik Amber of Ahmadnagar. Lands were measured by using the measuring rod called *kathi*. Lands were also classified into three categories – paddy fields, garden lands and hilly tracks. He reduced the powers of the existing *deshmuks* and *kulkarnis*. He appointed his own revenue officials called *karkuns*.

Chauth and sardeshmukhi were the taxes collected not in the Maratha kingdom but in the neighbouring territories of the Mughal empire or Deccan sultanates. Chauth was one fourth of the land revenue paid to the Marathas in order to avoid the Maratha raids. Sardeshmukhi was an additional levy of ten percent on those lands which the Marathas claimed hereditary rights.

Shivaji was a man of military genius and his army was well organized. The regular army consisted of about 30000 to 40000 cavalry supervised by *havaildars*. They were given fixed salaries. There were two divisions in the Maratha cavalry – 1. *bargirs*, equipped and paid by the state; and 2. *silahdars*, maintained by the nobles. In the infantry, the Mavli foot soldiers played an important role. Shivaji also maintained a navy.

The forts played an important role in the military operations of the Marathas. By the end of his reign, Shivaji had about 240 forts. Each fort was put under the charge of three officers of equal rank as a precaution against treachery.

Shivaji was really a constructive genius and nation-builder. His rise from jagirdar to Chatrapathi was spectacular. He unified the Marathas and remained a great enemy of the Mughal empire. He was a daring soldier and a brilliant administrator.

Successors of Shivaji

There ensued a war of succession after the death of Shivaji between his sons, Shambaji and Rajaram. Shambaji emerged victorious but later he was captured and executed by the Mughals. Rajaram succeeded the throne but the Mughals made him to flee to the Ginjee fort. He died at Satara. He was succeeded by his minor son Shivaji II with his mother Tara Bai as regent. The next ruler was Shahu in whose reign the Peshwas rose to power.

The Peshwas (1713-1818)

Balaji Viswanath (1713-1720)

Balaji Viswanath began his career as a small revenue official and became Peshwa in 1713. As Peshwa, he made his position the most important and powerful as well as hereditary. He played a crucial role in the civil war and finally made Shahu as the Maratha ruler. He sought the support of all Maratha leaders for Shahu. In 1719, Balaji Viswanath got certain rights from the then Mughal emperor, Farukh Siyar. First, the Mughal emperor recognized Shahu as the Maratha king. Second, he allowed Shahu to collect Chauth and Sardeshmukhi from the six Mughal provinces of the Deccan including the Carnatic and Mysore.

Baji Rao I (1720-1740)

Baji Rao was the eldest son of Balaji Viswanath. He succeeded his father as Peshwa at the age young age of twenty. The Maratha power reached its zenith under him. He initiated the system of confederacy among the Maratha chiefs. Under this system, each Maratha chief was assigned a territory which could be administered autonomously. As a result, many Maratha families became prominent and established their authority in different parts of India. They were the Gaekwad at Baroda, the Bhonsle at Nagpur, the Holkars at Indore, the Scindias at Gwalior, and the Peshwas at Poona.

Balaji Baji Rao (1740-1761)

Balaji Baji Rao succeeded his father as Peshwa at the young age of nineteen. The Maratha king Shahu died in 1749 without issue. His nominated successor Ramraja was imprisoned by the Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao at Satara. The full control of the Maratha kingdom came under the Peshwa.

Peshwa entered into an agreement with the Mughal Emperor in 1752. According to it the Peshwa gave assurance to the Mughal Emperor that he would protect the Mughal Empire from internal and external enemies for which the Chauth of the northwest provinces and the total revenue of the Agra and Ajmer provinces would be collected by the Marathas.

Thus when Ahmad Shah Abdali invaded India, it became the responsibility of the Marathas to protect India. The Marathas fought very bravely against Ahmad Shah Abdali in the Third Battle of Panipat in 1761. But they got defeated. Many Maratha leaders and thousands of soldiers died in this battle. Balaji Baji Rao also died on hearing the sad end of this battle. Also, this battle gave a death blow to the Maratha power. Thereafter, the Maratha confederacy weakened due to internal conflicts among the Maratha chiefs.

After the decline of the Mughal Empire, the Marathas emerged a great power in India but they could not succeed in preventing the establishment of British power in India. The important causes for the downfall were that there was lack of unity among the Maratha chiefs like Holkar, Scindia and Bhonsle. Also, the superiority of the British army and fighting methods ultimately won.

Learning Outcome

Students will understand

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Causes for the rise of the Marathas.*
- 2. Early career and military achievements of Shivaji.*
- 3. Salient features of the Maratha administration under Shivaji.*
- 4. The rise of Peshwas and the significance of the Third Battle of Panipat.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Shivaji was born at
 - (a) Satara
 - (b) Poona
 - (c) Shivner
 - (d) Bijapur
2. The Treaty of Purander was concluded in
 - (a) 1660
 - (b) 1665
 - (c) 1670
 - (d) 1675

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The guardian of Shivaji was
2. The immediate successor of Shivaji was
3. The Third Battle of Panipat took place in the year betweenand

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------|------------|
| 1. Peshwa | a) Gwalior |
| 2. Scindia | b) Poona |
| 3. Holkar | c) Indore |
| 4. Bhonsle | d) Nagpur |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The revenue system of Shivaji was based on that of Cholas.
- b) Lands were measured by using the measuring rod called *kathi*.
- c) Lands were classified into four categories as under the Marathas.

d) Shivaji increased the powers of the existing revenue officials.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. When Ahmad Shah Abdali invaded the Mughal Emperor faced him.
2. In the Third Battle of Panipat Nadir Shah defeated the Maratha forces.
3. Mores and Nimbalkers belonged to Maratha family.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Treaty of Purander.
2. Ashtapradhan.
3. Third Battle of Panipat.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the causes for the rise of Marathas.
2. Write a note on Balaji Viswanath.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the life and achievements of Shivaji.
2. Mention the salient features of the administration of Shivaji.
3. Examine the rise of the Peshwas and their achievements.

LESSON 23

THE COMING OF EUROPEANS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The coming of the Portuguese to India.*
- 2. Establishment of the Dutch, French, English and Danish Trading centres in India.*
- 3. The Anglo-French Rivalry in the Carnatic region.*
- 4. Rise of British power in Bengal.*

The commercial contacts between India and Europe were very old via the land route either through the Oxus valley or Syria or Egypt. But, the new sea route via the Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Vasco da Gama in 1498. Thereafter, many trading companies came to India and established their trading centres. They entered India as traders at the outset but by the passage of time indulged in the politics of India and finally established their colonies. The commercial rivalry among the European powers led to political rivalry. Ultimately, the British succeeded in establishing their rule India.



VASCO DA GAMA

The Portuguese

The Portuguese traveler Vasco da Gama reached the port of Calicut on 17 May 1498 and he was warmly received by Zamorin,

the ruler of Calicut. He returned to Portugal in the next year. Pedro Alvarez Cabral arrived in 1500 and Vasco da Gama also made a second trip in 1502. They established trading stations at Calicut, Cannanore and Cochin.

The first governor of the Portuguese in India was Francis de Almeida. Later in 1509 Albuquerque was made the governor of the Portuguese territories in India. In 1510, he captured Goa from the ruler of Bijapur. Thereafter, Goa became the capital of the Portuguese settlements in India. Albuquerque captured Malacca and Ceylon. He also built a fort at Calicut. He encouraged his countrymen to marry Indian women. Albuquerque died in 1515 leaving the Portuguese as the strongest naval power in India.

The successors of Albuquerque established Portuguese settlements at Daman, Salsette and Bombay on the west coast and at San Thome near Madras and Hugli in Bengal on the east coast. However, the Portuguese power declined in India by the end of the sixteenth century. They lost all their possessions in India except Goa, Diu and Daman in the next century.

The Dutch

The Dutch East India Company was established in 1602. The merchants of this company came to India and established their settlements at Masulipattinam, Pulicat, Surat, Karaikal, Nagapattinam, Chinsura and Kasimbazar. In the seventeenth century they won over the Portuguese and emerged the most dominant power in European trade in the East. Pulicat was their main centre in India and later it was replaced by Nagapattinam. In the middle of the seventeenth century the English began to emerge as a big colonial power. The Anglo-Dutch rivalry lasted for about seven decades during which period the Dutch lost their settlements to the British one by one.

The English

The English East India Company was established in 1600 and the Charter was issued by Queen Elizabeth of England. Captain Hawkins arrived at the royal court of Jahangir in 1609 to seek permission to establish English trading centre at Surat. But it was refused by the Mughal Emperor due to Portuguese pressure. Later in 1612, Jahangir issued a farman (permission letter) to the English and they established a trading factory at Surat in 1613.

Sir Thomas Roe came to India as ambassador of James I, the king of England to the Mughal court in 1615. He obtained permission from Jahangir to establish English trading factories in different parts of India.

The English established their factories at Agra, Ahmadabad, Baroda and Broach by 1619. The English East India Company acquired Bombay from Charles II, the then king of England. In 1639, Francis Day founded the city of Madras where the Fort St. George was built. In 1690, an English factory was established at a place called Sutanuti by Job Charnock. Later it developed into the city of Calcutta where Fort William was built. Later, Calcutta became the capital of British India. Thus Bombay, Madras, Calcutta became three presidency towns of the English settlements in India.

The French

The French East India Company was formed in 1664 by Colbert, a Minister under Louis XIV. The first French factory in India was established at Surat by Francis Caron. Later, Maracara set up a factory at Masulipattinam. Francois Martin founded Pondicherry in 1673. Other French factories in India were Chandranagore, Mahe and Karaikal. Francois Martin was the first governor of Pondicherry, the headquarters of the French possessions in India.

The Danes

Denmark also established trade settlements in India. Their settlement at Tranquebar was founded in 1620. Another important Danish settlement in India was Serampore in Bengal. Serampore was their headquarters in India. They failed to strengthen themselves in India and they sold all their settlement in India to the British in 1845.

Anglo-French Rivalry

In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the English and the French were competing with each other to establish their supremacy in India. Both of them used the political turmoil prevalent in India as a result of the decline of the Mughal Empire in their favour and indulged in internal politics. The Anglo-French rivalry in India was manifest in the Carnatic region and in Bengal.

The Carnatic Wars

The downfall of the Mughal Empire led to the independence of Deccan under Nizam-ul-Mulk. The Carnatic region also formed part of the Nizam's dominion. The ruler of the Carnatic accepted the suzerainty of the Nizam. In 1740, the Austrian War of Succession broke out in Europe. In that war England and France were in the opposite camps. They came into conflict in India also. The French governor of Pondicherry, Dupleix opened attack on the English in 1746 and thus began the First Carnatic War (1746-1748). The English sought help from the Nawab of Carnatic, Anwar Uddin. But the French concluded a treaty with his rival Chanda Sahib. The English army crushed a defeat on the French in the Battle of Adyar, near Madras. In the meantime, the Treaty of



DUPLEIX

Aix-la-Chappelle was concluded in 1748 to end the Austrian Succession War. Thus the First Carnatic War came to an end.

But the English and French continued to take opposite sides in the internal politics of India. This had resulted in the Second Carnatic War (1749-1754). Dupleix supported the cause of Muzafar Jang, who wanted to become the Nizam of Hyderabad and Chanda Sahib, an aspirant for the throne of Arcot. The troops of these three defeated Anwar Uddin, who was with the British in the First Carnatic War, and killed him in the Battle of Ambur in 1749. After this victory, Muzafar Jung became the Nizam and Chanda Sahib the Nawab of Arcot. Muhammad Ali, son of Anwar Uddin escaped to Tiruchirappalli. The English sent troops in support of him. In the meantime, the British commander Robert Clive captured Arcot. He also inflicted a severe defeat on the French at Kaveripakkam. Chanda Sahib was captured and beheaded in Tanjore. Meanwhile Dupleix was replaced by Godeheu as the French governor. The war came to an end by the Treaty of Pondicherry in 1754.

The outbreak of the Seven Years War (1756-1763) in Europe led to the Third Carnatic War (1758-1763). Count de Lally was the commander of the French troops. The British General Sir Eyre Coote defeated him at Wandiwash in 1760. In the next year, Pondicherry was captured and destroyed by the British troops. The Seven Years War came to an end by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The Third Carnatic War also ended. The French agreed to confine its activities in Pondicherry, Karaikkal, Mahe and Yenam. Thus the Anglo-French rivalry came to a close with British success and French failure.

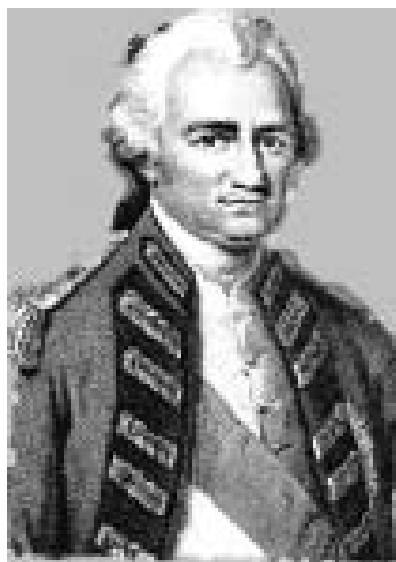
The causes for the French failure can be summed up as follows:

1. Commercial and naval superiority of the English.
2. Lack of support from the French government.

3. French had support only in the Deccan but the English had a strong base in Bengal.
4. English had three important ports – Calcutta, Bombay and Madras but French had only Pondicherry.
5. Difference of opinion between the French Generals.
6. England's victory in the European wars decided the destiny of the French in India.

Establishment of British Power in Bengal

Bengal remained one of the fertile and wealthy regions of India. The English ascendancy in Bengal proved to be the basis for the expansion of English rule in India. The conflict between the Nawab of Bengal, Siraj-ud-Daula and the English led to the Battle of Plassey held on 23 June 1757. Robert Clive, the Commander of the British troops emerged victorious by defeating the Nawab's army. The easy English victory was due to the treachery of Mir Jabar, the Commander of Nawab's army. However, the victory of the British in the Battle of Plassey marked the foundation of the British rule in India.



Robert Clive

In 1764, the English once again defeated the combined forces of the Nawab of Oudh, the Mughal Emperor and the Nawab of Bengal in the Battle of Buxar. The English military superiority was decisively established. In 1765, Robert Clive was appointed as the Governor of Bengal. In the same year, the Treaty of Allahabad was concluded by which the Mughal Emperor granted the Diwani rights to the English East India Company. Thus the British power in India was thoroughly established.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. Growth and decline of Portuguese power in India.*
- 2. Dutch, English, French and Danish settlements in India.*
- 3. Anglo-French Rivalry and the three Carnatic wars.*
- 4. Growth of British Power in Bengal and the Battle of Plassey.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The first Portuguese governor in India
(a) Vasco da Gama (b) Almada
(c) Albuquerque (d) Francois Martin
2. The Battle of Plassey took place in
(a) 1767 (b) 1757
(c) 1764 (d) 1747

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Captain Hawkins arrived at the royal court of.....
2. Serampur was a settlement.
3. The Treaty of Paris led to end ofCarnatic War.

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 1. Job Charnock | a) Tranquebar |
| 2. The Danes | b) Calcutta |
| 3. Francis Day | c) Pondicherry |
| 4. Francois Martin | d) Madras |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Austrian Succession War led to Third Carnatic War.
- b) The Seven Years War led to the Second Carnatic War.
- c) Robert Clive won the Battle of Plassey.
- d) The French were eliminated from Bengal due to the Carnatic Wars.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Sir Thomas Roe came to India as ambassador of Charles II.
2. Dupleix was replaced by Godeheu as the French governor.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Vasco Da Gama
2. Albuquerque
3. Dutch settlements in India
4. Battle of Plassey

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the rise and fall of Portuguese power in India.
2. Write a note on the rise of British power in Bengal.

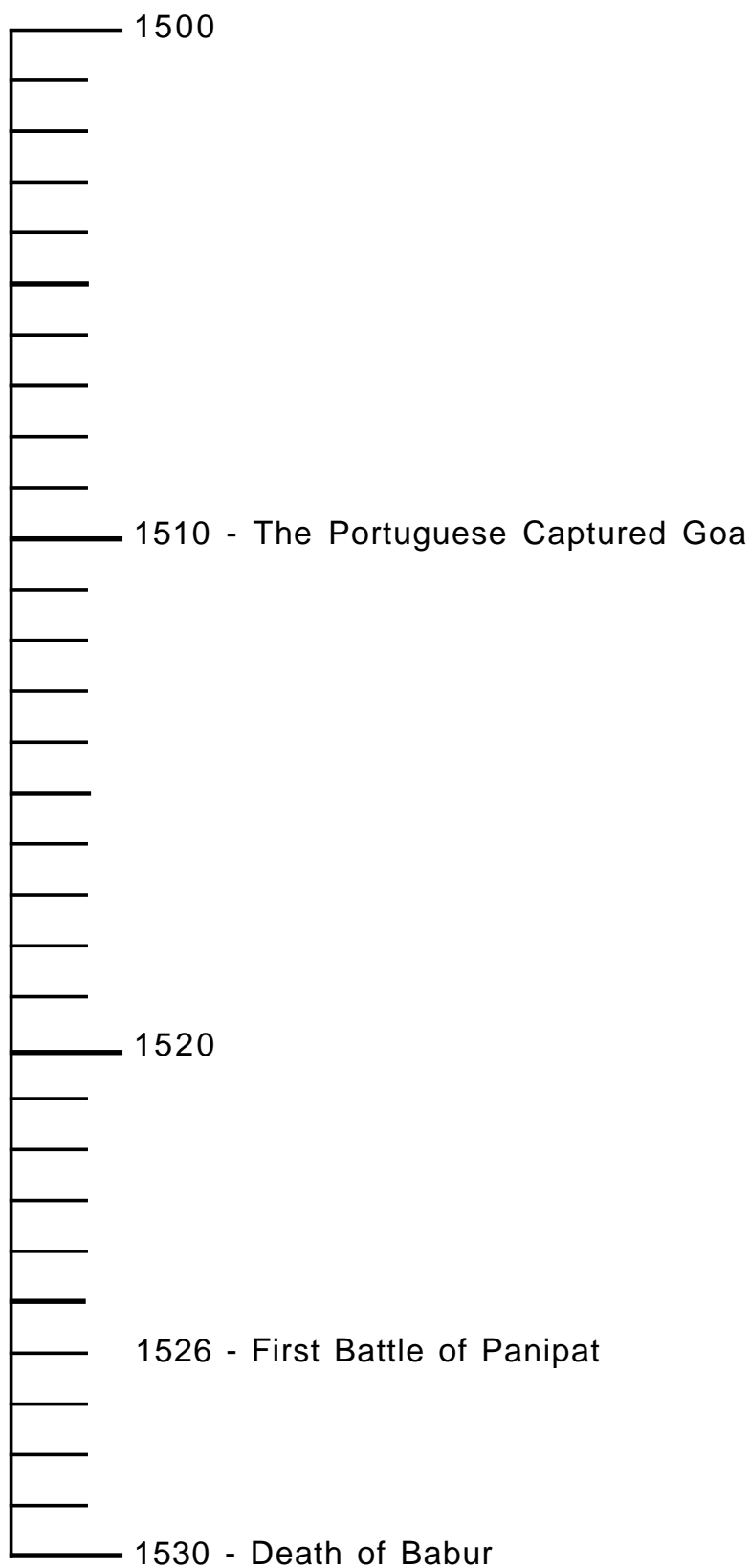
VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

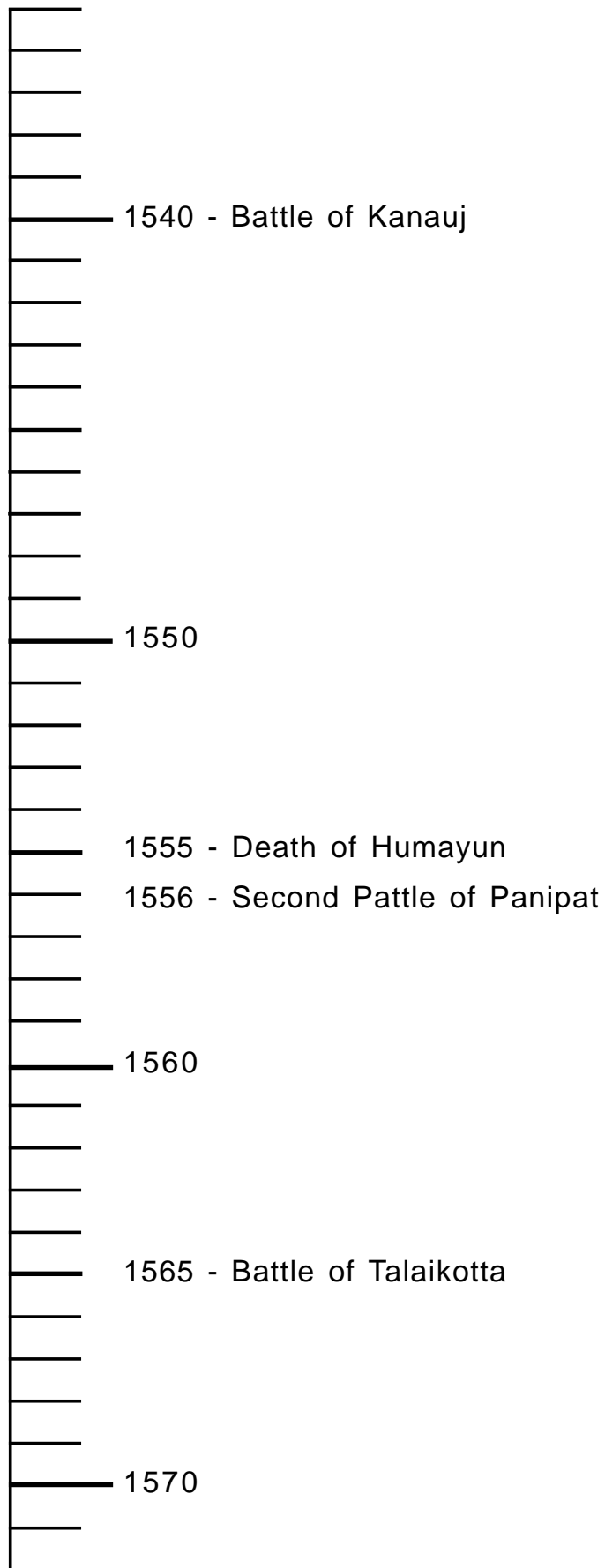
1. Give an account of the Anglo-French rivalry in India.

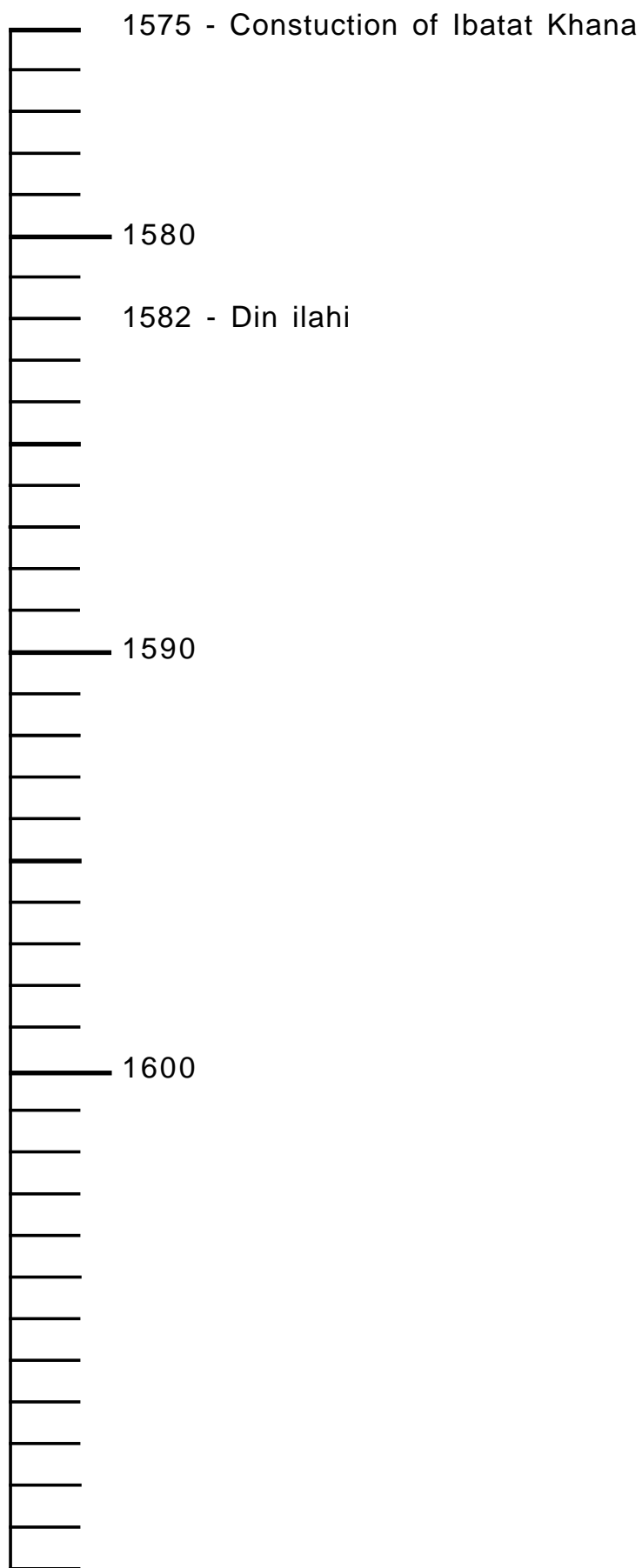
TIME LINE

From 1500 A.D to 1600 A.D.

1 Unit = 10 Years



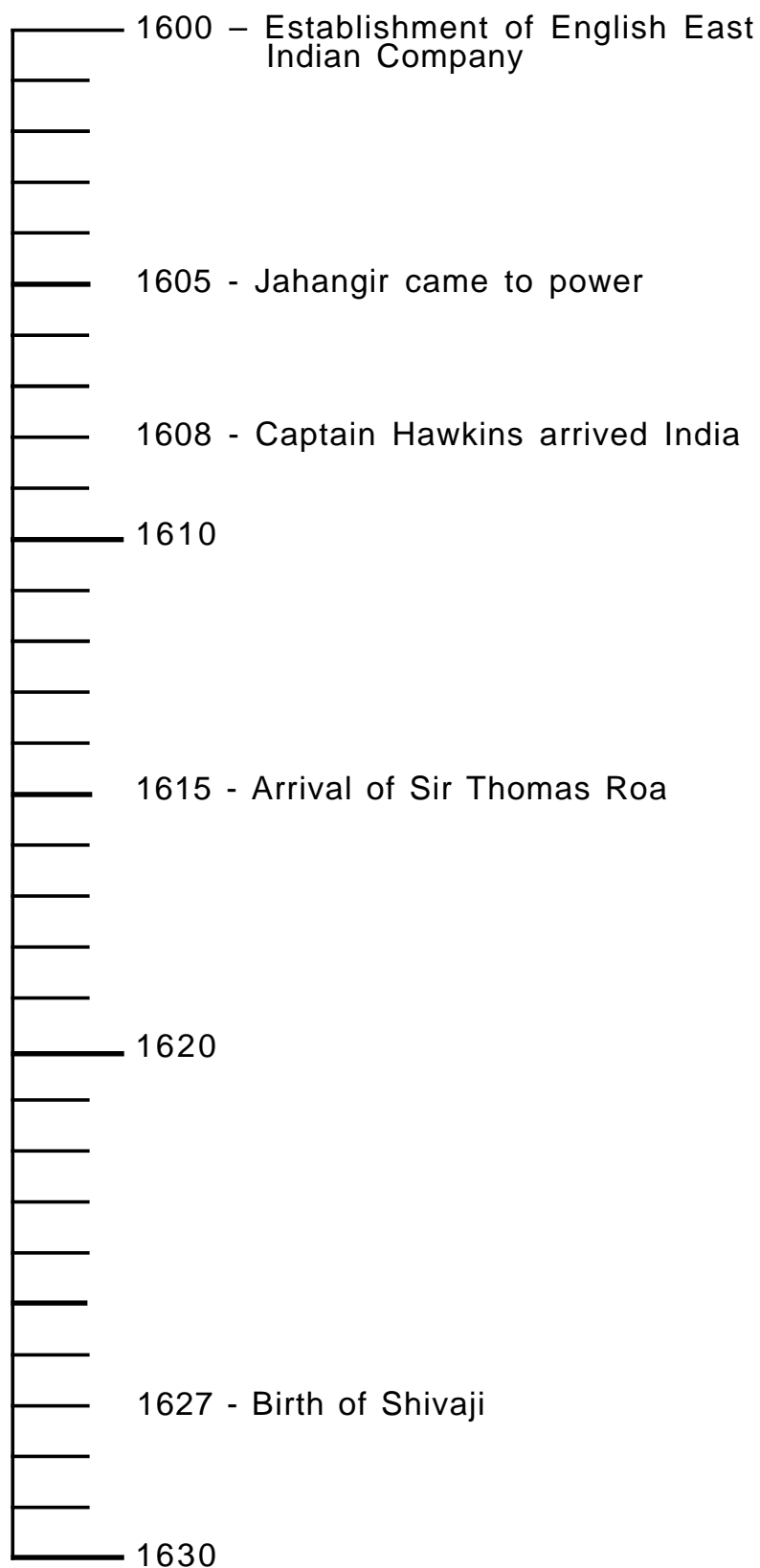


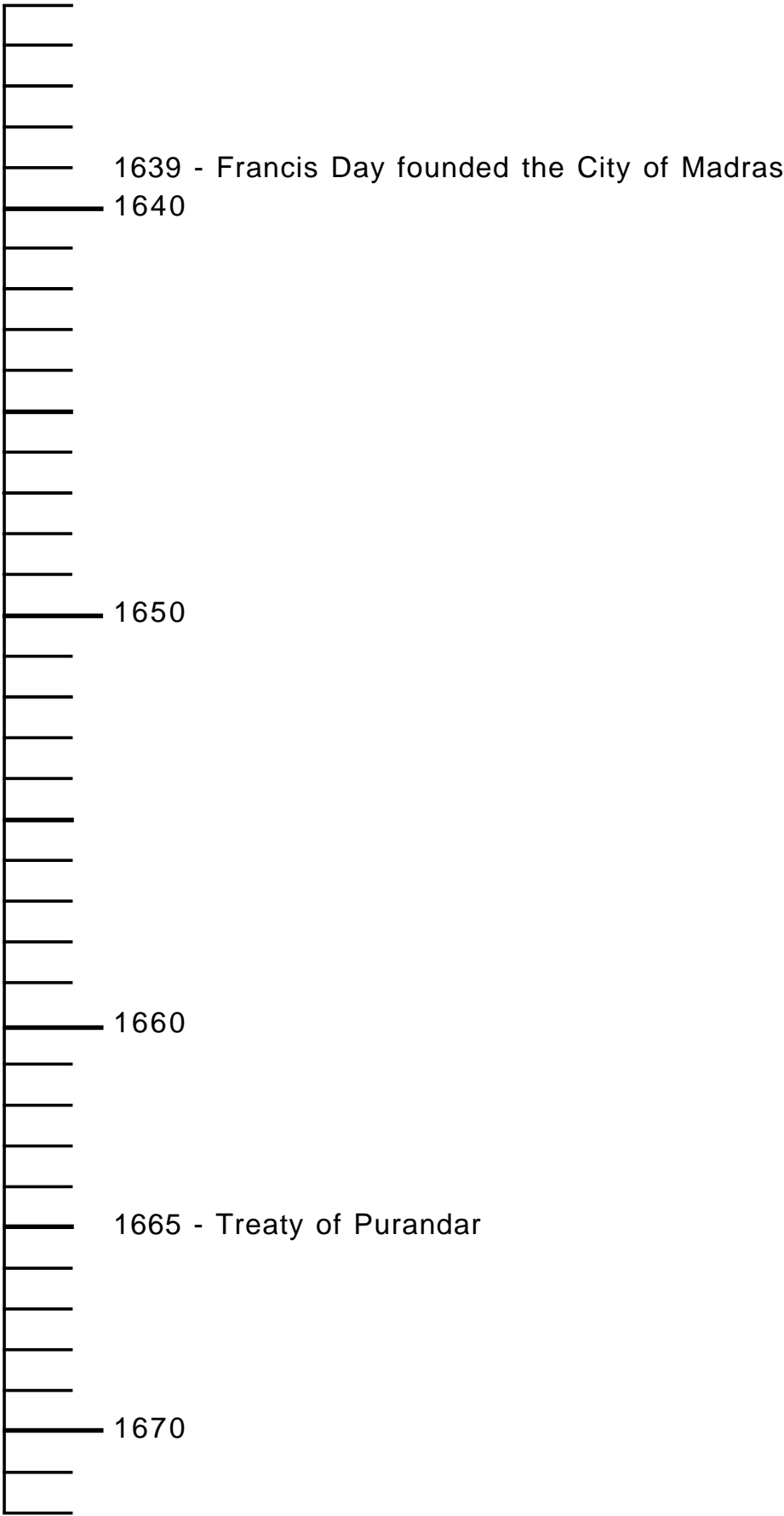


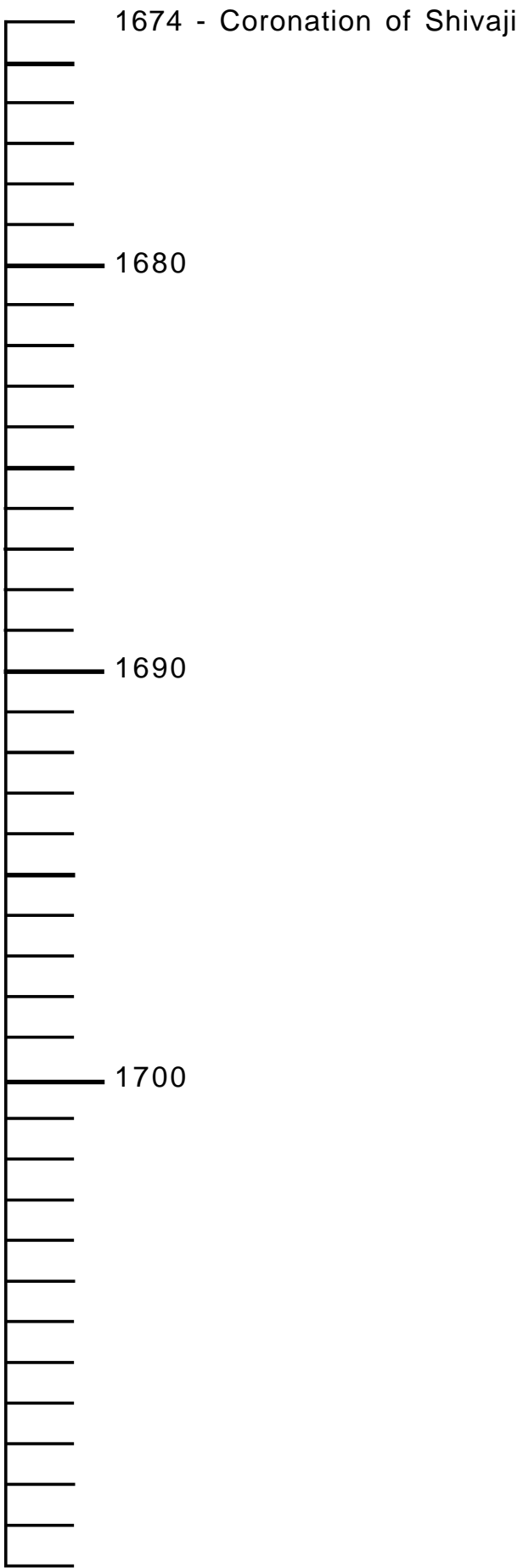
TIME LINE

From : 1600 A.D to 1700 A.D.

1 Unit = 10 Years







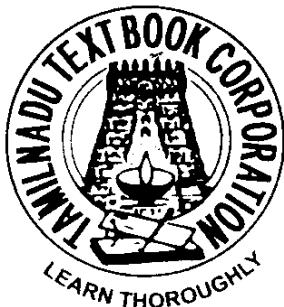
HISTORY

Higher Secondary - Second Year

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Untouchability is a sin
Untouchability is a crime
Untouchability is inhuman



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FOREWORD

Academics, parents and the educational media have represented to the Government of Tamil Nadu, to reform the Plus one and Plus two text books, which were introduced in the academic year 2005-06. Our beloved Chief Minister, who has always been evincing keen interest in educational development, immediately constituted a “Text Book Development Committee” under the Chairmanship of the Vice-Chairman, State Planning Commission, Government of Tamil Nadu.

The Text Book Development Committee solicited opinion from lecturers and professors from Higher Secondary Schools, Colleges and Universities, Chairpersons and authors of text books. After perusing the opinions, the Text Book Development Committee, decided not to change the syllabi, but recommended suitable changes in the text books.

In particular, it was proposed to rewrite the History text book, and accepting this proposal, this text book is rewritten by experienced and efficient teachers.

We are pleased to place on record our sincere gratitude to our beloved Chief Minister. Our thanks are due to Hon’ble Minister for School Education, Secretary and Director, Department of School Education, Government of Tamil Nadu for their valuable support and suggestions.

We thank, lecturers and Professors from Higher Secondary Schools, Colleges and Universities, Chairpersons and authors of text books, non-teaching staff of education department and State Planning Commission for their help at various stages in this endeavor.

We wish the students to learn and perform well in the examinations.

Prof. M. Naganathan
Chairman
Text Book Development Committee
Government of Tamil Nadu

PREFACE

The XII History book is the collective effort of the committee constituted for this purpose. The committee while writing this text book has kept in mind the requirements of the students based on the guidelines given in the syllabus. Since the plus Two History book deals with Modern India, Contemporary India, Modern World and Contemporary World latest information available is included for the benefit of the students.

The area covered in the syllabus is indeed comprehensive. The entire modern Indian History and major events of world history are dealt with. While writing these lessons care was taken to the present facts. However, it is not possible to provide all the facts. Hence, the main yardstick used was to provide the important facts necessary for gaining knowledge.

The lessons of the book are arranged as per the syllabus guidelines. The facts and figures provided in this book are based on credible sources. At the end of each lesson questions are given. These questions are **only illustrative examples** and serve as the model. The model questions test the descriptive and analytical abilities of the students. However, the students ought to go through the entire text of the book in order to gain knowledge of the subject.

I take this opportunity to thank all those who are connected with the writing of this book.

Dr. N. RAJENDRAN
Chairperson
XII History

STANDARD XII - HISTORY

SYLLABUS

Periods

Unit I

1. India under East India Company's Rule -
Administration - Charter Acts - Expansion
policy - Colonial and Economic policies 10
2. Education under the Company's Rule - Social and
Modernisation Reforms introduced by British
Governors - General (Reforms of Bentinck
and Dalhousie) 10

Unit II

3. British Rule in Tamil Nadu - Palayakkarar
Rebellion - Vellore Mutiny 10
4. The Great Revolt of 1857 - Causes - Results -
First War of Indian Independence - End of
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Unit III

5. Socio - Religious Reform Movements in the
19th century India (Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj,
Theosophical Society, Ramakrishna Movement,
Muslim, Parsi and Sikh Reform Movements)
6. Changes in Indian Administration after 1858
(1861 Act - Ripon- 1892 Act-Administrative
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Round Table Conferences - Gandhi - Irwin Pact –
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(Justice Party's Rule, Congress Movement) 15

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Unit VI

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Reformation - Counter Reformation 15
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Unit VIII

15. Rise of Fascism and Nazism -
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SOME OF THE IMPORTANT GOVERNOR-GENERALS GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF FORT WILLIAM IN BENGAL (Regulating Act of 1773)

Name	Period
Warren Hastings	1774-1785
Earl (Marquess) Cornwallis	1786-1793
Richard Wellesley, Earl of Mornington	1798-1805
Marquess Cornwallis (Second time Governor General)	1805
Marquess of Hastings (Earl of Moira)	1813-1823
Lord William Bentinck	1828-1833

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA

(Charter Act of 1833)

Lord William Bentinck	1833-1835
Earl of Dalhousie	1848-1856
Lord Canning	1856-1858

GOVERNORS-GENERAL AND VICEROYS

(Act of 1858)

Lord Canning	1858-1862
Baron (Earl of) Lytton I	1876-1880
Marquess of Ripon	1880-1884
Lord Curzon	1899-1904
Baron Chelmsford	1916-1921
Lord Irwin	1926-1931
Earl of Willingdon	1931-1934
Marquess of Linlithgow	1934-1936
Mountbatten	24 March 1947 - 15 August 1947

AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Mountbatten	1947-1948
Rajagopalachari	1948-1950

LESSON 1

INDIA UNDER THE ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY: WARREN HASTINGS (1772-1785)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

1. *The growth of East India Company's Rule in India.*
2. *Reforms introduced by the first Governor-General, Warren Hastings.*
3. *Provisions, merits and defects of the Regulating Act of 1773.*
4. *Expansion policy of Warren Hastings - the First Maratha War and the Second Mysore War.*
5. *Pitt's India Act of 1784.*
6. *Impeachment of Warren Hastings.*

The English East India Company

The English East India Company was established on 31 December 1600 as per the Royal Charter issued by the Queen of England, Elizabeth I. The Company had sent Captain Hawkins to the court of the Mughal Emperor, Jahangir in 1608 to secure permission to establish a “factory” (store house of goods) at Surat. It was turned



Sir Thomas Roe

down initially. However, in 1613, Jahangir issued the *firman* permitting the East India Company to establish its first trading post at Surat. Subsequently, Sir Thomas Roe obtained more trading rights and privileges for the East India Company. Accordingly, the English set up business centres at **Agra**, **Ahmedabad** and **Broach**. Slowly the English East India Company succeeded in expanding its area of trade.

In 1639, **Francis Day** established the city of **Madras** and constructed the **Fort St. George**. On the west coast, the Company obtained Bombay on lease from their King, Charles II for a rent of 10 pounds per annum in 1668. By the year 1690, Job Charnock, the agent of the East India Company purchased three villages namely, Sutanuti, Govindpur and Kalikatta, which, in course of time, grew into the city of Calcutta. It was fortified by Job Charnock, who named it Fort William after the English King, William III. The factories and trading centres which the English established all along the sea-coast of India were grouped under three presidencies namely Bombay, Madras and Calcutta.



Warren Hastings

After the **Battle of Plassey in 1757** and the **Battle of Buxar in 1764**, the Company became a political power. India was under the East India Company's rule till 1858 when it came under the direct administration of the British Crown. Robert Clive was the first Governor of Fort William under the Company's rule. He was succeeded by Verelst and Cartier. In 1772, the Company appointed Warren Hastings as the Governor of Fort William.

Reforms of Warren Hastings

When Warren Hastings assumed the administration of Bengal in 1772, he found it in utter chaos. The financial position of the Company became worse and the difficulties were intensified by famine. Therefore, Warren Hastings realized the immediate need for introducing reforms.

Abolition of the Dual System

The East India Company decided to act as Diwan and to undertake the collection of revenue by its own agents. Hence, the Dual System introduced by Robert Clive was abolished. As a measure

to improve the finances of the Company, Warren Hastings reduced the Nawab's allowance of 32 lakhs of rupees to half that amount. He also stopped the annual payment of 26 lakhs given to the Mughal Emperor.

Revenue Reforms

After the abolition of the Dual System, the responsibility of collecting the revenue fell on the shoulders of the Company. For that purpose, a **Board of Revenue** was established at Calcutta to supervise the collection of revenue. English Collectors were appointed in each district. The treasury was removed from Murshidabad to Calcutta and an Accountant General was appointed. **Calcutta thus became the capital of Bengal in 1772** and shortly after of British India.

The Board of Revenue farmed out the lands by auction for a period of five years instead of one year in order to find out their real value. The zamindars were given priority in the auction. However, certain good measures were taken to safeguard the interests of the peasants. Arbitrary cesses and unreasonable fines were abolished. Besides, restrictions were imposed on the enhancement of rent. Yet, the system was a failure. Many zamindars defaulted and the arrears of revenue accumulated.

Reorganisation of the Judicial System

The judicial system at the time of Warren Hastings' ascendancy was a store-house of abuses. The Nawab who was hitherto the chief administrator of justice, misused his powers. Often, his judgments were careless. The zamindars who acted as judges at lower levels within their own areas were highly corrupt and prejudiced. On the whole, the judicial institution suffered from extreme corruption.

Warren Hastings felt the necessity of reorganising the judicial system. Each district was provided with a civil court under the

Collector and a criminal court under an Indian Judge. To hear appeals from the district courts two appellate courts, one for civil cases and another for criminal cases, were established at Calcutta. The highest civil court of appeal was called *Sadar Diwani Adalat*, which was to be presided over by the Governor and two judges recruited from among the members of his council. Similarly, the highest appellate criminal court was known as *Sadar Nizamat Adalat* which was to function under an Indian judge appointed by the Governor-in-Council.

Experts in Hindu and Muslim laws were provided to assist the judges. A digest of Hindu law was prepared in Sanskrit by learned Pandits and it was translated into Persian. An English translation of it – Code of Hindu Laws – was prepared by Halhed.

Trade Regulations and other Reforms

Warren Hastings abolished the system of *dastaks*, or free passes and regulated the internal trade. He reduced the number of custom houses and enforced a uniform tariff of 2.5 percent for Indian and non-Indian goods. Private trade by the Company's servants continued but within enforceable limits. Weavers were given better treatment and facilities were made to improve their condition. He also introduced a uniform system of pre-paid postage system. A bank was started in Calcutta. He improved the police in Calcutta and the dacoits were severely dealt with.

The Regulating Act of 1773

The Regulating Act of 1773 opened a new chapter in the constitutional history of the Company. Previously, the Home government in England consisted of the Court of Directors and the Court of Proprietors. The Court of Directors were elected annually and practically managed the affairs of the Company. In India, each of the three presidencies was independent and responsible only to the Home Government. The government of the presidency was conducted by a Governor and a Council.

The following conditions invited the Parliamentary intervention in the Company's affairs. The English East India Company became a territorial power when it acquired a wide dominion in India and also the Diwani rights. Its early administration was not only corrupt but notorious. When the Company was in financial trouble, its servants were affluent. The disastrous famine which broke out in Bengal in 1770 affected the agriculturists. As a result, the revenue collection was poor. In short, the Company was on the brink of bankruptcy. In 1773, the Company approached the British government for an immediate loan. It was under these circumstances that the Parliament of England resolved to regulate the affairs of the Company. Lord North, the Prime Minister of England, appointed a select committee to inquire into the affairs of the Company. The report submitted by the Committee paved the way for the enactment of the Regulating Act.

Provisions of the Act

The Regulating Act reformed the Company's Government at Home and in India. The important provisions of the Act were:

- (i) The term of office of the members of the Court of Directors was extended from one year to four years. One-fourth of them were to retire every year and the retiring Directors were not eligible for re-election.
- (ii) The Governor of Bengal was styled the Governor-General of Fort William whose tenure of office was for a period of five years.
- (iii) A council of four members was appointed to assist the Governor-General. The government was to be conducted in accordance with the decision of the majority. The Governor-General had a casting vote in case of a tie.

- (iv) The Governor-General in Council was made supreme over the other Presidencies in matters of war and peace.
- (v) Provision was made in the Act for the establishment of a Supreme Court at Calcutta consisting of a Chief Justice and three junior judges. It was to be independent of the Governor-General in Council. In 1774, the Supreme Court was established by a Royal Charter.
- (vi) This Act prevented the servants of the Company including the Governor-General, members of his council and the judges of the Supreme Court from receiving directly or indirectly any gifts in kind or cash.

Merits and Demerits of the Act

The significance of the Regulating Act is that it brought the affairs of the Company under the control of the Parliament. Besides, it proved that the Parliament of England was concerned about the welfare of Indians. The greatest merit of this Act is that it put an end to the arbitrary rule of the Company and provided a framework for all future enactments relating to the governing of India.

The main defect of the Act was that the Governor-General was made powerless because the council which was given supreme power often created deadlocks by over-ruling his decision. However, many of these defects were rectified by the Pitt's India Act of 1784.

Expansionist Policy of Warren Hastings

Warren Hastings was known for his expansionist policy. His administration witnessed the Rohilla War, the First Anglo-Maratha War and the Second Anglo-Mysore War.

The Rohilla War (1774)

Rohilkand was a small kingdom situated in between Oudh and the Marathas. Its ruler was **Hafiz Rahmat Khan**. He concluded a

defensive treaty in 1772 with the Nawab of Oudh fearing an attack by the Marathas. But no such attack took place. But, the Nawab demanded money. When Rahmat Khan evaded, the Nawab with the help of the British invaded Rohilkand. Warren Hastings, who sent the British troops against Rohilkand was severely criticised for his policy on Rohilla affair.

First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-82)

The Marathas were largely remained disunited since the Third Battle of Panipet (1761). The internal conflict among the Marathas was best utilized by the British in their expansionist policy. In 1775, there was a dispute for the post of Peshwa between Madhav Rao and his uncle Ragunatha Rao. The British authorities in Bombay concluded the Treaty of Surat with Raghunatha Rao in March 1775. Rahunatha Rao promised to cede Bassein and Salsette to the British but later when he was unwilling to fulfill his promise, the British captured them. This action of the Bombay Government was not approved by Warren Hastings. In 1776, Warren Hastings sent Colonel Upton to settle the issue. He cancelled the **Treaty of Surat** and concluded the **Treaty of Purander** with Nana Fadnavis, another Maratha leader. According to this treaty Madhava Rao II was accepted as the new Peshwa and the British retained Salsette along with a heavy war indemnity.

However, the Home authorities rejected the Treaty of Purander. Warren Hastings also considered the Treaty of Purandar as a 'scrap of paper' and sanctioned operations against the Marathas. In the meantime, the British force sent by the Bombay Government was defeated by the Marathas.

In 1781, Warren Hastings dispatched British troops under the command of Captain Popham. He defeated the Maratha chief, Mahadaji Scindia, in a number of small battles and captured Gwalior.

Later in May 1782, the **Treaty of Salbai** was signed between Warren Hastings and Mahadaji Scindia. Accordingly, Salsette and Bassein were given to the British. Raghunath Rao was pensioned off and Madhav Rao II was accepted as the Peshwa.

The Treaty of Salbai established the British influence in Indian politics. It provided the British twenty years of peace with the Marathas. The Treaty also enabled the British to exert pressure on Mysore with the help of the Marathas in recovering their territories from Haider Ali. Thus, the British, on the one hand, saved themselves from the combined opposition of Indian powers and on the other, succeeded in dividing the Indian powers.

The Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-84)

The first Anglo-Mysore War took place in 1767-69. Haider Ali emerged victorious against the British and at the end of the War a defensive treaty was concluded between Haider Ali and the British. After eleven years, the Second Mysore War broke out and the main causes for the second Anglo-Mysore War were:

1. The British failed to fulfill the terms of the defensive treaty with Haider when he was attacked by the Marathas in 1771.
2. There was an outbreak of hostilities between the English and the French (an ally of Haider) during the American War of Independence.
3. The British captured Mahe, a French settlement within Haider's territories.
4. Haider Ali formed a grand alliance with the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas against the British in 1779.



Haider Ali

The War began when the British led their forces through

Haider's territory without his permission to capture Guntur in the Northern Sarkars. Haider Ali defeated Colonel Baillie and captured Arcot in 1780. In the next year, Warren Hastings, by a clever stroke of diplomacy, divided the Confederacy. He made peace with the Nizam, won the friendship of Bhonsle and came to an understanding with the Scindia (both Marathas). Consequently, Haider was isolated without any alliance. He was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote at Porto Novo in March 1781. In December 1782, Haider died of cancer at the age of sixty and his death was kept secret till his son Tipu Sultan assumed power.

The Second Mysore War came to an end by the **Treaty of Mangalore in 1783**. Accordingly, all conquests were mutually restored and the prisoners on both sides were liberated.

Pitt's India Act, 1784

The Regulating Act proved to be an unsatisfactory document as it failed in its objective. In January 1784, Pitt the Younger (who became Prime Minister of England after the General Elections) introduced the India Bill in the British Parliament. Despite bitter debate in both the Houses, the bill was passed after seven months and it received royal assent in August 1784. This was the famous Pitt's India Act of 1784.

Main Provisions

- (i) A **Board of Control** consisting of six members was created. They were appointed by the Crown.
- (ii) The Court of Directors was retained without any alteration in its composition.
- (iii) The Act also introduced significant changes in the Indian administration. It reduced the number of the members of the Governor-General's Council from four to three including the Commander-in-Chief.

Pitt's India Act constitutes a significant landmark with regard to the foreign policy of the Company. A critical review of the Act reveals that it had introduced a kind of contradiction in the functions of the Company. The Court of Directors controlled its commercial functions, whereas the Board of Control maintained its political affairs. In fact, the Board represented the King, and the Directors symbolised the Company.

The Impeachment of Warren Hastings

The Pitt's India Act of 1784 was a rude shock and bitter disappointment for Warren Hastings. The Prime Minister's speech censuring the policy of the Government of Bengal was considered by Warren Hastings as a reflection on his personal character. His image and reputation were tarnished in England. Therefore, he resigned and left India in June 1785.

In 1787, Warren Hastings was impeached in the Parliament by Edmund Burke and the Whigs for his administrative excess. Burke brought forward 22 charges against him. The most important of them were related to the Rohilla War, the Case of Nanda Kumar, the treatment of Raja Chait Singh of Benares and the pressures on the Begums of Oudh. After a long trial which lasted till 1795, Warren Hastings was completely acquitted. He received pension from the Company and lived till 1818.

Nanda Kumar was an influential official in Bengal. He was hanged to death by the verdict of the Supreme Court at Calcutta for a petty offence of forgery. The English law was applied in this judgement. It was contended that Warren Hastings and Sir Elija Impey, the judge of the Supreme Court conspired against Nanda Kumar. Warren Hastings imposed heavy penalty on the Raja Chait Singh of Benares for his delay in payment of tribute and deposed him in an unjust manner.

The Begums of Oudh were mother and grand mother of the Nawab of Oudh. Warren Hastings helped the Nawab by sending his troops to the help of Nawab who squeeze money from the Begums. This was a highhanded policy.

Estimate of Warren Hastings

He was a gifted personality endowed with ‘strong will, great energy and resourcefulness’. His long stay in Bengal ‘in the shadow of the Mughal cultural tradition’ gave him, enough opportunity to learn oriental languages such as Bengali (the local language) and Persian (the diplomatic language) and to develop ‘oriental tastes’. Since he considered Indian culture as a basis for sound Indian administration, he patronised the learning of Indian languages and arts. His task was a challenging one since he was surrounded by hostile forces. “He faced his external enemies with unflinching courage and unfailing resource, and his internal opponents with extraordinary patience and firmness.” It was on the foundation which Warren Hastings laid down, that others erected a ‘stately edifice’.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

1. How the East India Company established its rule in India.
2. The reforms of Warren Hastings such as revenue, judicial and trade.
3. The purpose of the Regulating Act, its merits and defects.
4. Expansion policy of Warren Hastings and the outcome of the first Anglo-Maratha War and second Anglo-Mysore War.
5. The importance of the Pitt's India Act of 1784.
6. The general achievements of Warren Hastings

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Battle of Plassey took place in the year
(a) 1757 (b) 1764
(c) 1772 (d) 1777
2. The Second Mysore War came to an end by the Treaty of
(a) Salbai (b) Mangalore
(c) Purander (d) Mysore

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Dual System was introduced by
2. Haider Ali died in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Francis Day | a. Pitt's India Act |
| 2. Sadar Diwani Adalat | b. Rohilkand |
| 3. Hafiz Rahmat Khan | c. Fort St. George |
| 4. Board of Control | d. Civil Court |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Warren Hastings assumed the Governorship of Fort William in 1774.
- b) Rohilla War took place during the administration of Warren Hastings.
- c) According to the Regulating Act the term of office of the Court of Directors was five years.
- d) Raja Chait Singh was the ruler of Oudh.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The English East India Company was established on 31 December 1600.
2. The Treaty of Salbai was signed between Warren Hastings and Madhava Rao II.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Rohilla War.
2. Pitt's India Act.
3. Second Anglo Mysore War.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the First Anglo-Maratha War.
2. Discuss the main provisions of the Regulating Act.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the reforms of Warren Hastings.
2. Examine the expansionist policy of Warren Hastings.

LESSON 2

LORD CORNWALLIS (1786-1793)

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. The Third Mysore War and Tipu Sultan's efforts to defeat the British.*
- 2. Administrative Reforms of Lord Cornwallis.*
- 3. Judicial Reforms.*
- 4. Police and other reforms.*
- 5. Achievements of Lord Cornwallis.*

Lord Cornwallis, a warrior-statesman, succeeded Warren Hastings as Governor-General in 1786. He belonged to an influential and aristocratic family which had wider political connections. He was also a close friend of Prime Minister Pitt and of Dundas, the most influential member of the Board of Control. He distinguished himself as a remarkable soldier in the American War of Independence. Although he surrendered at York Town in 1781 before the American troops, his reputation was not spoiled. He still enjoyed the confidence of the authorities at Home. After his return from America he was offered the Governor-Generalship in India.



LORD CORNWALLIS

Cornwallis was prompted by a strong sense of public duty and enjoyed the respect as well as the confidence of his fellow countrymen. The Parliament was prepared to give him extraordinary legal powers to carry

out radical reforms in the administration of Bengal. It amended Pitt's India Act in 1786 so as enable him to overrule the decision of the majority of his council, if necessary. The appointment of Cornwallis was significant in one respect. A new tradition of choosing a person from an aristocratic family for the post of Governor-General was initiated. It was his good fortune that he had an excellent team of subordinates comprising John Shore, James Grant, and Sir William Jones. Although Cornwallis commenced his work under beneficial circumstances, he had to carry out his policy with caution.

Tipu Sultan and the Third Mysore War (1790-92)

The Treaty of Mangalore (1784) exhibited the military strength of Mysore, exposed English weaknesses and increased Tipu's strength. Like his father he wanted to eliminate the English from India. His other designs were to wreak vengeance on the Nizam and on the Marathas as they had betrayed his father during the hour of need.

The chief causes for the Third Mysore War were:

1. Tipu Sultan strengthened his position by undertaking various internal reforms. This created worries to the British, the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas.
2. Moreover, Tipu made attempts to seek the help of France and Turkey by sending envoys to those countries.
3. He also expanded his territories at the cost of his neighbours, particularly the Raja of Travancore, who was an ally of the British.
4. In 1789, the British concluded a tripartite alliance with the Nizam and the Marathas against Tipu.

War broke out in May 1790 between the English and Tipu. It was fought in three phases. The first phase commenced when Medows, the Governor of Madras, initially directed the campaign to invade Mysore but Tipu's rapid movements halted the progress of the English troops and inflicted heavy losses on them. In the meantime, Cornwallis himself assumed command in December 1790. This was the beginning of the second phase of the war. Marching from Vellore, he captured Bangalore in March 1791, but Tipu's brilliant strategies prolonged the war and Cornwallis was forced to retreat to Mangalore due to lack of provisions. The third phase of the war began when timely aid from the Marathas with plenty of provisions helped him to resume his campaign and marched against Srirangapattinam again. This time Tipu was at a disadvantage. Swiftly the English forces occupied the hill forts near Srirangapattinam and seized it in February 1792. Tipu Sultan concluded the **Treaty of Srirangapattinam** with the British. The terms of the treaty were as follows:



Tipu Sultan

- (i) Tipu had to give up half his dominions.
- (ii) He had to pay a war indemnity of three crore rupees and surrender two of his sons as hostages to the English.
- (iii) Both sides agreed to release the prisoners of war.

The Treaty of Srirangapattinam is a significant event in the history of South India. The British secured a large territory on the Malabar Coast. In addition they obtained the Baramahal district and Dindugal. After this war, although the strength of Mysore had been reduced, it was not extinguished. Tipu had been defeated but not destroyed.

Reforms

The internal reforms of Cornwallis can be studied under three main heads.

- (i) Administrative reforms
- (ii) Revenue reforms or Permanent Settlement (given in Lesson -7)
- (iii) Judicial and other reforms

Administrative Reforms

The greatest work of Cornwallis was the purification of the civil service by the employment of capable and honest public servants. He aimed at economy, simplification and purity. He found that the servants of the Company were underpaid. But they received very high commissions on revenues. In addition to that they conducted forbidden and profitable private trade in the names of relatives and friends. Cornwallis, who aimed at cleansing the administration, abolished the vicious system of paying small salaries and allowing enormous perquisites. He persuaded the Directors of the Company to pay handsome salaries to the Company servants in order that they might free themselves from commercial and corrupting activities.

Further, Cornwallis inaugurated the policy of making appointments mainly on the basis of merit thereby laying the foundation of the Indian Civil Service. To cut down on extravagances, he abolished a number of surplus posts. Another major reform that Cornwallis introduced was the separation of the three branches of service, namely commercial, judicial and revenue. The collectors, the king-pins of the administrative system were deprived of their judicial powers and their work became merely the collection of revenue.

Judicial Reforms

In the work of judicial reorganization, Cornwallis secured the services of Sir William Jones, who was a judge and a great scholar. Civil and criminal courts were completely reorganized.

1. At the top of the judicial system, the highest civil and criminal courts of appeal, namely *Sadar Diwani Adalat* and *Sadar Nizamat Adalat* were functioning at Calcutta. Both of them were presided over by the Governor-General and his Council.
2. There were four provincial courts of appeal at Calcutta, Dacca, Murshidabad and Patna, each under three European judges assisted by Indian advisers.
3. District and City courts functioned each under a European judge. Every district was provided with a court. As already stated, Cornwallis had taken away from the collectors of their judicial powers and made them solely responsible for the collection of revenue. As a result, District Judges were appointed.
4. Indian judges or *Munsiffs* were appointed to all the courts at the bottom of the judicial system.

In criminal cases, Muslim law was improved and followed. In civil cases, Hindu and Muslim laws were followed according to the religion of the litigants. In suits between Hindus and Muslims, the judge was the deciding authority. Cornwallis was merciful by temperament. He hated barbarous punishments and abolished those like mutilation and trial by ordeal.

Cornwallis was better known as a law giver than as an administrator. With the help of his colleague, George Barlow, Cornwallis prepared a comprehensive code, covering the whole field of administration', judicial, police, commercial and fiscal. This Code

was based upon the principle of Montesquieu, “the Separation of Powers”, which was popular in the West in 18th century. In order to curb undue exercise of authority Cornwallis made all officials answerable to the courts.

Police Reforms

The effective implementation of judicial reforms required the reorganisation of police administration. The District Judge controlled the police. Each district was divided into *thanas* or police circles each of which was about 20 square miles. It was placed under an Indian officer called the *daroga* who was ably assisted by many constables. However, the police organization was not effective. In the words of Marshman, ‘the *daroga* enjoyed almost unlimited power of extortion and became the scourge of the country”.

Other Reforms

Cornwallis reformed the **Board of Trade** which managed the commercial investments of the Company. With the aid of Charles Grant, he eradicated numerous abuses and corrupt practices. Fair treatment was given to weavers and Indian workers. He increased the remuneration for honest service.

Estimate of Cornwallis

Cornwallis, a blue-blooded aristocrat, was an ardent patriot. He discharged his duties fearlessly, and his life was an embodiment of ‘duty and sacrifice’. He perceived the danger of Tipu’s growing power and curtailed it by boldly discarding the policy of nonintervention. As an administrator, he consolidated the Company’s position in India and started the tradition of efficient and pure administration. Although there were defects in his Permanent Settlement of Land Revenue, his administrative and judicial reforms were solid achievements. He may be regarded the parent of the Indian

Administrative Service and founder of an efficient and clean system of administration.

Sir John Shore (1793-98) succeeded Cornwallis as Governor General and his administration was uneventful.

Learning Outcome

The students have learnt

1. The causes, course and results of the Third Mysore War.
2. Changes made in the administrative machinery by Cornwallis.
3. Judicial reforms and its importance.
4. Reorganization of police.
5. A general estimate on the administration of Lord Cornwallis.

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Lord Cornwallis introduced
 - (a) Mahalwari System
 - (b) Permanent Revenue Settlement
 - (c) Ryotwari System
 - (d) Jagirdari System

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Lord Cornwallis prepared the law code with the help of his colleague

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------|
| 1. Tripartite Alliance | a. 1784 |
| 2. Treaty of Srirangapattinam | b. 1786 |
| 3. Treaty of Mangalore | c. 1789 |
| 4. Amendment to Pitt's India Act | d. 1792 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Tipu Sultan concluded the Treaty of Srirangapattinam with the French.
- b) Daroga was a revenue official.
- c) The Third Anglo-Mysore War took place after the death of Haider Ali.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The Treaty of Mangalore exposed the weakness of the English.
2. During the time of Lord Cornwallis Hindu Law followed in criminal cases.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Treaty of Srirangapattinam.
2. Police Reforms of Lord Cornwallis.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the causes for the Third Mysore War.
2. Write the judicial reforms of Lord Cornwallis.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Estimate the reforms of Lord Cornwallis.
“Cornwallis’ life was embodiment of duty and sacrifice” – Justify.

LESSON 3

THE MARQUESS OF WELLESLEY (1798-1805)

Learning Objectives

Students will come to understand

1. *The political condition of India at the time of the arrival of Lord Wellesley*
2. *The Meaning of Subsidiary System*
3. *Merits and defects of the Subsidiary System*
4. *The Indian states that come under this system*
5. *Fourth Mysore War and the final fall of Tipu Sultan*
6. *War with the Marathas.*
7. *Estimate of Lord Wellesley*

The appointment of Richard Colley Wellesley as Governor-General marks an epoch in the history of British India. He was a great imperialist and called himself ‘a Bengal tiger’. Wellesley came to India with a determination to launch a forward policy in order to make ‘the British Empire in India’ into ‘the British Empire of India’. The system that he adopted to achieve his object is known as the ‘Subsidiary Alliance’.



Political Condition of India at the time of Wellesley's Arrival

In the north-western India, the danger of Zaman Shah's aggression posed a serious threat to the British power in India. In the north and central India, the Marathas remained a formidable political power. The Nizam of Hyderabad employed the Frenchmen to train his

LORD WELLESLEY

army. The political unrest in the Karnatak region continued and Tipu Sultan had remained the uncompromising enemy of the British.

Moreover, the policy of neutrality adopted by Sir John Shore, the successor of Cornwallis, created a kind of political unrest in India and greatly affected the prestige of the English. His non-intervention policy contributed much to the growth of anti-British feelings. Further, Napoleon's move for an Eastern invasion created a fear among English statesmen. It was in this light that Wellesley moulded his policy. Preservation of British prestige and removal of French danger from India were Wellesley's twin aims.

He was also thoroughly convinced that only a strong British power in India could reduce and control the existing tyranny and corruption in Indian states. Therefore, he reversed the nonintervention policy of his predecessor and formulated his master plan namely the 'Subsidiary Alliance'.

The Subsidiary System

The predecessors of Wellesley concluded alliances with Indian princes like the Nawab of Oudh and the Nizam of Hyderabad. They received subsidies from the Indian rulers for the maintenance of British troops, which were used for the protection of respective Indian states. Wellesley enlarged and consolidated the already existing system. However, his originality was revealed in its application.

Main Features of Subsidiary Alliance

1. Any Indian ruler who entered into the subsidiary alliance with the British had to maintain a contingent of British troops in his territory. It was commanded by a British officer. The Indian state was called '**the protected state**' and the British hereinafter were referred to as '**the paramount power**'. It was the duty of the British to safeguard that state from external

aggression and to help its ruler maintain internal peace. The protected state should give some money or give part of its territory to the British to support the subsidiary force.

2. The protected state should cut off its connection with European powers other than the English and with the French in particular. The state was also forbidden to have any political contact even with other Indian powers without the permission of the British.
3. The ruler of the protected state should keep a British Resident at his court and disband his own army. He should not employ Europeans in his service without the sanction of the paramount power.
4. The paramount power should not interfere in the internal affairs of the protected state.

Benefits to the British

Wellesley's Subsidiary System is regarded as one of the master-strokes of British imperialism. It increased the military strength of the Company in India at the expense of the protected states. The territories of the Company were free from the ravages of war thereby establishing the stability of the British power in India. The position of the British was strengthened against its Indian and non-Indian enemies. Under the system, expansion of British power became easy. Thus Wellesley's diplomacy made the British the paramount power in India.

Defects of the Subsidiary System

The immediate effect of the establishment of subsidiary forces was the introduction of anarchy because of the unemployment of thousands of soldiers sent away by the Indian princes. The freebooting activities of disbanded soldiers were felt much in central India where the menace of Pindaris affected the people.

Further, the subsidiary system had a demoralizing effect on the princes of the protected states. Safeguarded against external danger and internal revolt, they neglected their administrative responsibilities. They preferred to lead easy-going and pleasure-seeking lives. As a result misgovernment followed. In course of time, the anarchy and misrule in several states had resulted in their annexation by the British. Thus, the subsidiary system proved to be a preparation for annexation.

Furthermore, the British collected very heavy subsidies from the protected princes and this had adversely affected their economy.

Enforcement of the Subsidiary System

Hyderabad: Hyderabad was the first state which was brought under Wellesley's Subsidiary System in 1798. The treaty concluded in 1798 was an ad hoc measure. It fixed the amount to be paid annually at Rs.24 lakhs for the subsidiary force. In accordance with the treaty, all the French troops in Hyderabad were disbanded and replaced by a subsidiary British force. A new treaty was concluded in 1800 by which the Nizam ceded large territories to the Company and this constitutes the famous Ceded Districts.

Oudh: The threat of invasion by Zaman Shah of Afghanistan was the pretext for Wellesley to force the Nawab of Oudh to enter into a subsidiary treaty. Accordingly, the Nawab gave the British the rich lands of Rohilkhand, the lower Doab and Gorakhpur for the maintenance of an increased army which the British stationed in the capital of Oudh. The strength of Nawab's own army was reduced. For the maintenance of law and order the British were authorised to frame rules and regulations. By this, the British acquired the right to interfere in the internal matters of Oudh. Although the Company obtained a fertile and populous territory, which increased its resources, the highhanded action of Wellesley was severely criticized.

Tanjore, Surat and the Karnatak

Wellesley assumed the administration of Tanjore, Surat and the Karnatak by concluding treaties with the respective rulers of these states. The Maratha state of Tanjore witnessed a succession dispute. In 1799, Wellesley concluded a treaty with Serfoji. In accordance with this treaty the British took over the administration of the state and allowed Serfoji to retain the title of Raja with a pension of 4 lakhs of rupees.

***Raja Sarbhoji** was a man of culture and attractive manners. He was the disciple of Schwarts. He built the **Saraswathi Mahal Library** in Tanjore which contains valuable books and manuscripts. He patronized art and culture.*

The principality of Surat came under British protection as early as 1759. The Nawab of this historic city died in 1799 and his brother succeeded him. The change of succession provided Wellesley an opportunity to take over the administration of Surat. The Nawab was allowed to retain the title and given a pension of one lakh of rupees.

The people of Karnatak had been suffering for a long time by the double government. The Nawab, Umadat-ul-Umara was an incompetent ruler noted for his extravagance and misrule. He died in the middle of 1801 and his son, Ali Hussain became the Nawab. Wellesley asked him to retire with a liberal pension leaving the administration to the English. Since he refused, Wellesley signed a treaty with Azim-ud daulah, the nephew of the deceased Nawab in 1801. Accordingly the entire military and civil administration of the Karnatak came under the British.

The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (1799)

The circumstances which led to the Fourth Mysore War can be summarized as follows: Tipu Sultan wanted to avenge his

humiliating defeat and the terms imposed on him by the British. He also aimed at making Mysore a strong state. Tipu worked continuously to secure help to fight British imperialism. He took efforts to seek the help of the France, Arabia, Kabul and Turkey. He corresponded with the Revolutionary French Government in July 1798. At Srirangapattinam, a Jacobian Club was started and the flag of the French Republic was hoisted. The tree of Liberty was also planted. Later, when Napoleon came to power, Tipu received a friendly letter from Napoleon (who was in Egypt at that time).

It was at this juncture that Wellesley reached Calcutta with a mind already filled with fear of Napoleon. Therefore, he prepared for a war against Mysore. As a part of his strategy, Wellesley tried to revive the Triple Alliance of 1790 with the Marathas. Though his proposal was not accepted by the Marathas, they promised to remain neutral. However, a Subsidiary Alliance with the Nizam was concluded by the British and as a consequence, the French force at Hyderabad was disbanded.

Wellesley set out to persuade Tipu to accept a pact of subsidiary alliance and wrote letters requesting the Tipu to dismiss the French, to receive an English envoy, and to make terms with the Company and its allies. Tipu paid scant attention to Wellesley's letters and thus the Fourth Anglo-Mysore war started.

The war was short and decisive. As planned, the Bombay army under General Stuart invaded Mysore from the west. The Madras army, which was led by the Governor-General's brother, Arthur Wellesley, forced Tipu to retreat to his capital Srirangapattinam. Although severely wounded, he fought till his capital Srirangapattinam was captured and he himself was shot dead.

Mysore After the War

With the fall of Tipu Sultan the kingdom of Mysore fell at the feet of Wellesley. He restored Hindu rule at the central part of the

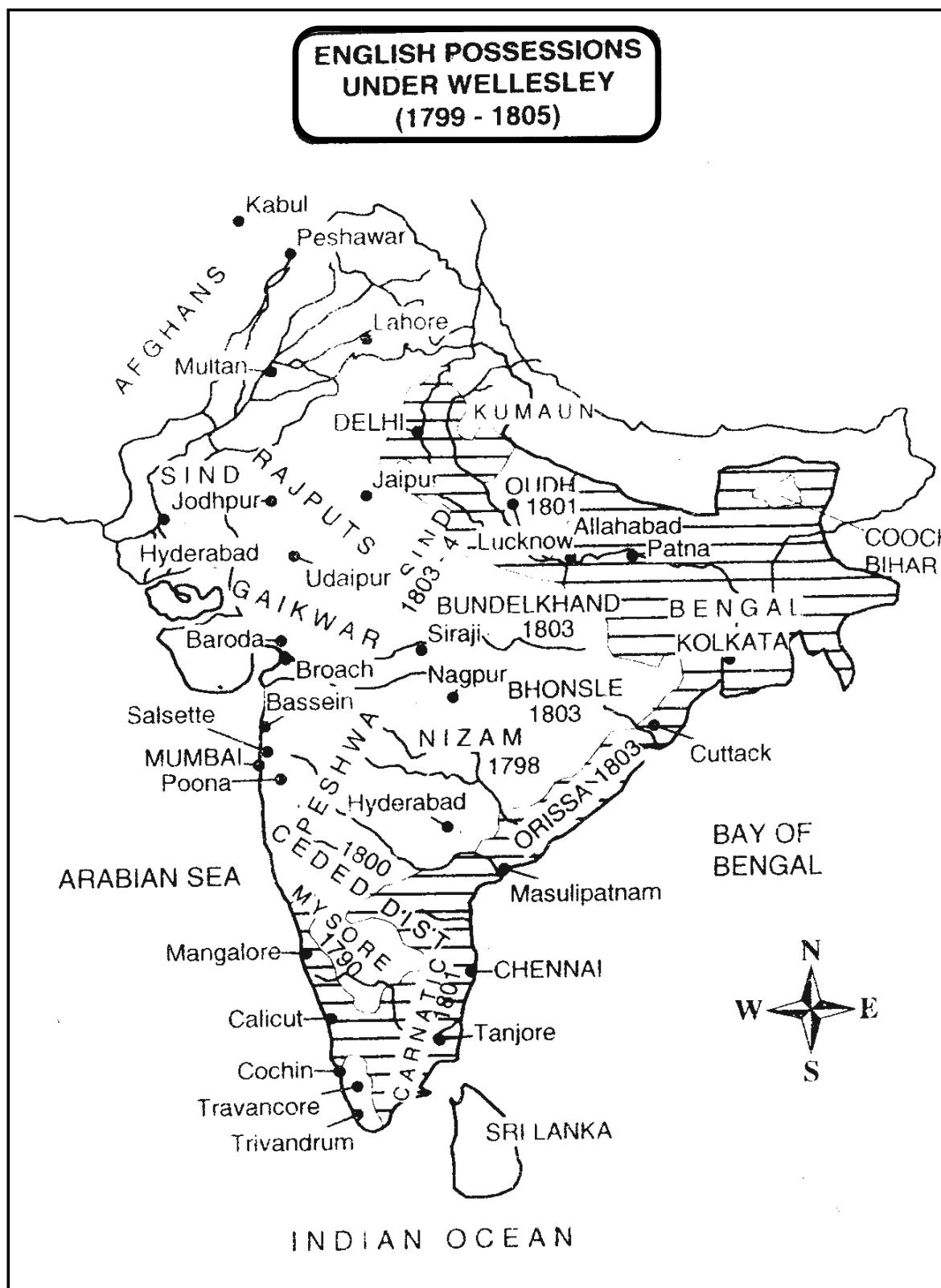
kingdom. A five year old boy, Krishnaraja III, a descendant of the dethroned Hindu Raja, was enthroned at Mysore, which became the capital almost after two hundred years. Purnaiya, the previous minister, became *Diwan*. The remaining parts of the kingdom were divided between the British and the Nizam. The whole of Kanara, Wynad, Coimbatore, Dharmapuri and Srirangapattinam were retained by the British whereas the Nizam was given the areas around Gooty and a part of Chittoor and Chitaldurg districts. A British Resident was stationed at Mysore. Tipu's family was sent to the fort of Vellore.

Wellesley and the Marathas

The only power that remained outside the purview of the subsidiary system was the Marathas. Nana Fadnavis provided the leadership to the Marathas. He was responsible for the preservation of independence of his country from the onslaught of the British. By extending a helping hand to Cornwallis against Tipu he was able to acquire a large slice of territory as the share of the Marathas from the kingdom of Mysore. His death in 1800 removed the last great Maratha leader.

Peshwa Baji Rao II, despite his stately appearance and immense learning, lacked political wisdom. The infighting among the Maratha leaders proved to be self-destructive. Jaswant Rao Holkar and Daulat Rao Scindia were fighting against each other. The Peshwa supported Scindia against Holkar. Holkar marched against the Peshwa. The combined forces of Scindia and the Peshwa were utterly defeated. The city of Poona fell at the feet of the victor who did not hesitate to commit all sorts of atrocities, including the torturing of rich inhabitants. With rich booty Holkar returned to his capital.

Peshwa Baji Rao II was in great danger, so he fled to Bassein where he signed the **Treaty of Bassein** with the British in 1802. It was a subsidiary treaty and the Peshwa was recognized as the head of the Maratha kingdom. Although it was nominal, the treaty was



considered the crowning triumph of Wellesley's Subsidiary System. In accordance with this document, the foreign policy of the Marathas came under British control and therefore any action of the Maratha chiefs against the British was successfully prevented. That is the reason why the Marathas considered the treaty as a document of surrendering their independence.

As an immediate response to the **Treaty of Bassein**, the British troops marched under the command of Arthur Wellesley towards Poona and restored the Peshwa to his position. The forces of Holkar vanished from the Maratha capital.

The Second Maratha War (1803-1805)

Daulat Rao Scindia and Raghoji Bhonsle took the Treaty of Bassein as an insult to the national honour of the Marathas. Soon the forces of both the chieftains were united and they crossed the river Narmada. Wellesley seized this opportunity and declared war in August 1803.

Arthur Wellesley captured Ahmadnagar in August 1803 and defeated the combined forces of Scindia and Bhonsle at Assaye near Aurangabad.

Subsequently, Arthur Wellesley carried the war into Bhonsle's territory and completely defeated the Maratha forces on the plains of Argaon. As a result, the **Treaty of Deogaon** was signed between Bhonsle and Wellesley. The former signed the subsidiary treaty which forced him to give up the province of Cuttack in Orissa.

The campaign of British commander Lord Lake against the forces of Scindia was rather dramatic. Lake triumphantly entered the historic city of Delhi and took Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor under British protection. Lake was quick in consolidating his conquests. By negotiating with the Raja of Bharatpur, he occupied Agra. Sadly this military engagement proved to be a battle of great

slaughter in which thousands of Maratha soldiers perished. Scindia signed a subsidiary treaty with the British. It is known as the **Treaty of Surji –Arjungaon**.

During the war against Bhonsle and Scindia, Holkar remained aloof because he was Scindia's enemy. However, when Wellesley offered an alliance, Holkar made extreme demands. This made Wellesley to declare war against Holkar. The campaign against Holkar was well-organised but the English generals for the first time committed blunders. Holkar remained unsubdued.

Estimate of Wellesley

An unscrupulous annexationist and an advocate of forward policy, Wellesley was one of the greatest empire-builders that England had ever produced. Wellesley converted the British Empire in India to the British Empire of India. The establishment of British paramountcy in India was his supreme task. He located the weak spots of the Indian powers and applied his political technique (namely Subsidiary Alliance). By the annexation of Karnatak and Tanjore he paved the way for the formation of the Madras Presidency. He rightly deserves to be called the maker of the erstwhile Madras Presidency and the creator of the Province of Agra. In this manner a great part of the Indian subcontinent was brought under Company protection. "He turned the East India Company from a trading corporation into an imperial power".

Sir George Barlow was the next Governor-General for two years (1805-07). The Vellore Mutiny of 1806 took place during his administration. He was succeeded by Lord Minto (1807-13) who concluded the Treaty of Amritsar with Ranjit Singh of Punjab in 1809. The Charter Act of 1813 was passed during this period.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student has understood that

- 1. The political condition in India was not favourable to the British*
- 2. The techniques of Subsidiary System by which Wellesley expanded the British control over the Indian states.*
- 3. The manner in which the Indian states were admitted into this system.*
- 4. Later this led to their permanent inclusion into the British empire.*
- 5. The Fourth Mysore War and the defeat of Tipu Sultan removed an important threat to the expansion of the British in India.*
- 6. The Second Maratha War exposed the weaknesses of the Maratha confederacy and the advantages of the British.*
- 7. Wellesley was able to make the Company an imperial power in the Indian subcontinent.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The first state which was brought under Wellesley's Subsidiary System in 1798 was
 - (a) Oudh
 - (b) Tanjore
 - (c) Surat
 - (d) Hyderabad

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The fourth Anglo-Mysore war took place in the year
2. The Subsidiary treaty signed by Scindia with the British is known as

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------|
| 1. Krishnaraja III | a. Marathas |
| 2. Serfoji | b. Karnatak |
| 3. Nana Fadnavis | c. Mysore |
| 4. Umadat-ul-Umara | d. Tanjore |

IV. Find out the correct statement. Only one statement alone is correct.

- a. Tanjore was the first state which was brought under Wellesley's Subsidiary System in 1798.
- b. Wellesley tried to revive the Triple Alliance of 1789.
- c. Peshwa Baji Rao II signed the **Treaty of Bassein** with the British in 1802.
- d. Scindia signed the **Treaty of Deogaon** with the British

V State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Sir John Shore was the successor of Lord Wellesley.
2. Baji Rao signed the Treaty of Bassein in 1802.
3. After the fourth Anglo-Mysore War, Tipu's family was sent to the Fort of Vellore.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Defects of the Subsidiary System.
2. Treaty of Bassein

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Point out the main features of the Subsidiary System.
2. Discuss the circumstances that led to the fourth Mysore War.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the enforcement of the Subsidiary System by Lord Wellesley.
2. Estimate the achievements of Lord Wellesley.

LESSON 4

LORD HASTINGS (1813-1823)

Learning Objectives

Students will come to know

- 1. The condition of India when Lord Hastings became Governor-General.*
- 2. The War with Nepal, the kingdom of the Gurkhas.*
- 3. Who were the Pindaris and how they were exterminated.*
- 4. The third and Final War with the Marathas.*
- 5. The causes for the defeat of the Marathas at the hands of the British.*
- 6. The Reforms introduced by Lord Hastings.*
- 7. An estimate of Lord Hastings.*



LORD HASTINGS

Lord Hastings became Governor-General in 1813. He adopted a vigorous forward policy and waged wars extensively. His aggressive and imperialist policies paved the way for the general expansion of the British Empire. He further expanded the British power in India.

The conditions in India when he assumed power posed a serious threat to the British administration. There was anarchy in central India. The Pindaris plundered the whole region and the Marathas could not control them. Also, there was infighting among the Maratha chiefs. Yet, they were aiming at the expulsion of the British from

India. The Peshwa was secretly plotting against the British. Hastings was also troubled by the expansion of the Gurkha power. Therefore, Hastings determined to restore order by suppressing the Pindaris and to eliminate threats to the British power by waging wars with the Marathas and the Gurkhas.

War against the Gurkhas (1814-16)

Nepal emerged as a powerful Gurkha state in 1768. This country is situated to the north of India with its boundary touching China in the north and Bengal and Oudh in the east and south, respectively. In 1801, the British acquired the districts of Gorakhpur and Basti from the Nawab of Oudh. This move brought the boundary of Nepal to touch the British frontier. The aggressions of the Gurkhas into the British territories culminated in a war. In May 1814, the Gurkhas attacked the British police post and killed 18 policemen and their officer. Hastings declared war on Nepal. In 1814 several battles were fought between the British and the Gurkhas. Amar Singh Thapa, the able General of Nepal Army was forced to surrender.

In March 1816, the **Treaty of Sagauli** was concluded. The Gurkhas gave up their claim over the Tarai region and ceded the areas of Kumaon and Garhwal to the British. The British now secured the area around Simla and their north-western borders touched the Himalayas. The Gurkhas had to withdraw from Sikkim and they also agreed to keep a British Resident at Katmandu. It was also agreed that the kingdom of Nepal would not employ any other foreigner in its services other than the English. The British had also obtained the sites of hill stations like Simla, Mussoori, Nainital, Ranikhet and developed them as tourist and health resorts. After this victory in the Gurkha War Hastings was honoured with English peerage and he became Marquis of Hastings.

Suppression of the Pindaris

The origin of Pindaris is lost in obscurity. The first reference about them is during the Mughal invasion of Maharashtra. They did not belong to any particular caste or creed. They used to serve the army without any payment but instead were allowed to plunder. During the time of Baji Rao I, they were irregular horsemen attached to the Maratha army. It is worth mentioning here that they never helped the British. They were mostly active in the areas of Rajputana and the Central Provinces and subsisted on plunder. Their leaders belonged to both the Hindu as well as the Muslim communities. Chief amongst them were Wasil Muhammad, Chitu and Karim Khan. They had thousands of followers.

In 1812, the Pindaris plundered the districts of Mirzapur and Shahabad and in 1815 they raided the Nizam's dominions. In 1816, they plundered the Northern Circars. Lord Hastings determined to suppress the Pindaris. For this he gathered a large army of 1,13,000 men and 300 guns and attacked the Pindaris from four sides. He himself took command of the force from the north while Sir Thomas Hislop commanded the force from the south. By 1818, the Pindaris were completely suppressed and all their bands disintegrated. Karim Khan was given a small estate in the Gorakhpur district of the United Provinces. Wasil Muhammad took refuge in the Scindia's camp but the latter handed him over to the British. Wasil committed suicide in captivity and Chitu escaped to the forest, where a tiger killed him. Thus, by 1824, the menace of the Pindaris came to an end.

Downfall of the Maratha Confederacy

The third major achievement of Lord Hastings was against the Marathas. In reality, the Maratha power had weakened considerably after the **Third Battle of Panipat** (1761) and the two subsequent wars against the British. But the Marathas had not finally crushed

out. The Maratha chiefs fought amongst themselves and their successors were invariably weak and incapable. The relationships of powerful Maratha chiefs like the Bhonsle, Gaekwar, Scindia, Holkar and the Peshwa were ridden with mutual jealousies.

Peshwa Baji Rao II wanted to become the head of the Maratha Confederacy and at the same time wanted freedom from the British control. His Chief Minister Tirimbakji encouraged him.

On the advice of the Company, the Gaekwar sent his Prime Minister Gangadhar Shastri to negotiate with the Peshwa. On his way back, Gangadhar Shastri, was murdered at Nasik in July 1815, at the instance of Triambakji.

This caused a lot of anger not only among the Marathas but also among the British. The latter asked the Peshwa to handover Triambakji to them. Peshwa handed over his Minister to the British, who lodged him in Thana jail from where he escaped. Consequently, on 13 June 1817, the British Resident Elphinstone forced the Peshwa to sign the **Treaty of Poona**. Baji Rao gave up his desire to become the supreme head of the Marathas.

Third Maratha War (1817-1819)

But soon the Peshwa undid this treaty with the British and on 5 November 1817 attacked the British Residency. He was defeated at a place called Kirkee. Similarly, the Bhonsle chief, Appa Sahib also refused to abide by the **Treaty of Nagpur**, which he had signed with the British on 17 May 1816. According to this treaty, Nagpur came under the control of the Company. He fought with the British in the **Battle of Sitabaldi** in November 1817, but was defeated. The Peshwa now turned to Holkar for help, but Holkar too was defeated by the British on 21 December 1817 at Baroda. Therefore, by December 1817 the dream of a Mighty Maratha Confederacy was finally shattered.

In 1818, Scindia was also forced to sign a new treaty with the British on the basis of which Ajmer was given to the Nawab of Bhopal, who also accepted the British suzerainty. The Gaekwar of Baroda, while accepting the Subsidiary Alliance, agreed to hand over certain areas of Ahmedabad to the British. The Rajput states which were under the Pindaris were freed after the latter's suppression.

The year 1818 was a significant year on account of major political achievements for the British. The Maratha dream of establishing themselves as the paramount power in India was completely destroyed. Thus, the last hurdle in the way of British paramountcy was removed.

Causes of the Defeat of the Marathas

There were several reasons for the defeat of the Marathas in the Anglo-Maratha Wars. The main reasons were:

- Lack of capable leadership
- Military weakness of the Marathas.
- The major drawback of the Maratha power was mutual bitterness and lack of cooperation amongst themselves.
- The Marathas hardly left any positive impact on the conquered territories.
- The Marathas did not have cordial relations with other princes and Nawabs of India.
- The Marathas failed to estimate correctly the political and diplomatic strength of the British.

Reforms of Hastings

The Governor-Generalship of Lord Hastings witnessed not only territorial expansion but also the progress of administration. He approved the **Ryotwari system** of land revenue introduced in the

Madras Presidency by **Sir Thomas Munroe**. In the sphere of judiciary, the Cornwallis Code was improved. The Police system of Bengal was extended to other regions. The importance of Indian Munsiffs had increased during his administration. The separation of judicial and revenue departments was not rigidly followed. Instead, the District Collector acted as Magistrate.

Hastings had also encouraged the foundation of vernacular schools by missionaries and others. In 1817, the Hindu College was established at Calcutta by the public for the teaching of English and western science. Hastings was the Patron of this college. He encouraged the freedom of the Press and abolished the censorship introduced in 1799. The Bengali Weekly, *Samachar Darpan* was started in 1818 by Marshman, a Serampore missionary.

Estimate

Lord Hastings was an able soldier and a brilliant administrator. His liberal views on education and Press are commendable. He suppressed the Pindaris, defeated the Marathas and curbed the power of the Gurkhas. His territorial gains strengthened the British power in India. He was considered the maker of the Bombay Presidency. In short, he completed and consolidated the work of Wellesley.

Lord Hastings was succeeded by Lord Amherst (1823-28) who fought the First Anglo-Mysore War (1824-26).

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student is able to explain

- 1. The chief tasks that Lord Hastings had to fulfil when he came to India.*
- 2. The Gurkhas were defeated in the war and surrendered to the British.*
- 3. The Pindaris remained a nuisance to the peace and tranquillity of central India and the efforts taken by Hastings to eliminate them.*
- 4. The weaknesses of the Maratha confederacy and the supremacy of the British, who overpowered them.*
- 5. The Reforms of Lord Hastings.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Lord Hastings declared war on Nepal in the year
(a) 1814 (b) 1815
(c) 1816 (d) 1817

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. In 1768 emerged as a powerful Gurkha state.
2. The third Battle of Panipat took place in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Amar Singh Thapa | a. Pindaris |
| 2. Karim Khan | b. Bengali Weekly |
| 3. Sir Thomas Munroe | c. General of Nepal |
| 4. Samachar Darpan | d. Ryotwari System |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Lord Hastings adopted the policy of non-intervention.
- b) Treaty of Sugauli was concluded in 1815,
- c) The leaders of Pindaris belonged to Sikh community.
- d) Lord Hastings was the patron of the Hindu College at Calcutta.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. After the Gurkha war, the Gurkhas had agreed to keep a British Resident at Kathmandu.
2. Triambakji was the Chief Minister of Baji Rao II.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Gurkha War.
2. Reforms of Lord Hastings.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the efforts taken by Lord Hastings to eliminate the Pindaris.
2. Mention the causes for the downfall of the Maratha Confederacy.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Evaluate the administration of Lord Hastings.
2. Examine the causes and effects of the Third Maratha War.

LESSON 5

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK (1828-1835)

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. Bentinck's basic attitude towards reforms.*
- 2. His policy towards the Indian states.*
- 3. His cordial relations with Ranjit Singh.*
- 4. The Charter Act of 1833 and its importance.*
- 5. Bentinck's financial and administrative reforms.*
- 6. His social reforms – Abolition of Sati, Suppression of Thugs and prevention of female infanticide.*
- 7. His educational reforms.*

Lord William Bentinck assumed the office of the Governor-General in 1828. Born in 1774 he commenced his career as a soldier and later at the young age of twenty two he became a Member of Parliament. He was appointed the Governor of Madras in 1803. He supported Sir Thomas Munroe on revenue administration. The Vellore



LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK

Mutiny of 1806 had resulted in Bentinck's recall. However, his appointment again to the higher office as Governor-General shows his real greatness. As Governor-General, Bentinck had initiated an era of progress and reforms. He was undoubtedly the first Governor-General of British India who acted on the dictum that "the welfare of the subject peoples was a main, perhaps the primary, duty of the British in India".

Policy Towards Indian States

William Bentinck adopted a policy of **non-intervention** and **non-aggression** with Indian states. If at all he interfered in the affairs of the Indian states, it was only to end any form of misgovernment and never to annex any territory.

Mysore

In Mysore, Hindu rule under Krishnaraja III was restored by Wellesley. In the beginning, the young Raja functioned well along with his able minister Puranaiya. Later, when the young raja assumed full control of the government he proved incompetent. The peasantry of the state suffered from many grievances. There was no redressal. Consequently, a revolt of the peasants broke out in 1830 and it was suppressed with the help of an army from Madras. Nonetheless, the British authorities took over the administration of Mysore State and placed it under the control of a commissioner. The Raja was given a pension.

*Sir Mark Cubbon was commissioner from 1834 to 1861 and his administration was beneficial to the people of Mysore. Even today, the famous **Cubbon Park** in Bangalore city has been named after him to remind his services to Mysore.*

Cachar and Jaintia

The principality of Cachar lying in the North East Frontier came under the protection of the British in accordance with the **Treaty of Yandaboo** concluded at the end of the first Burmese War. The Raja of this small state was assassinated in 1832 but there was no heir to succeed him. Bentinck annexed this state at the wish of the people.

Jaintia was one of the territories brought under the custody of the British after the first Anglo-Burmese War. The ruler of the small

country behaved in an unruly way by abducting a few subjects of British India with the evil intention of sacrificing them to the goddess Kali. Therefore, the Governor-General acted promptly to avert any recurrence of such cruel abhorrent act and annexed this country.

Coorg

Vira Raja was a ruthless ruler of Coorg who treated his people with savage barbarity and killed all his male relatives. Lord William Bentinck decided to deal with him effectively and sent Colonel Lindsay to capture Mercara, the capital of the Coorg state. The Raja was deposed in 1834 and the state was annexed.

Relations with Ranjit Singh

Lord William Bentinck was the first Governor-General to visualise a Russian threat to India. Hence, he was eager to negotiate friendly relations both with the ruler of Punjab, Maharajah Ranjit Singh and also with the Amirs of Sind. His earnest desire was that Afghanistan should be made a buffer state between India and any possible invader. As an initial measure, an exchange of gifts took place between Lahore, the capital of Punjab and Calcutta, the seat of Governor-General. It was then followed by the meeting of Bentinck and Ranjit Singh on 25 October, 1831 at Rupar on the bank of the river Sutlej amidst show and splendor. The Governor-General was successful in winning the friendship of Ranjit Singh and the **Indus Navigation Treaty** was concluded between them. This treaty opened up the Sutlej for navigation. In addition, a commercial treaty was negotiated with Ranjit Singh. A similar treaty was also concluded with the Amirs of Sind.

Charter Act of 1833

The Regulating Act of 1773 made it compulsory to renew the Company's Charter after twenty years. Hence, the Charter Act of 1793 was passed by the Parliament. It extended the life of Company

for another twenty years and introduced minor changes in the existing set up. The Charter Act of 1813 provided one lakh of rupees annually for the promotion of Indian education. It also extended the Company's charter for another twenty years.

The Charter Act of 1833 was a significant constitutional instrument defining the scope and authority of the East India Company. The liberal and **utilitarian philosophy of Bentham** was made popular by the provisions of this Act. Following were the important provisions:

(i) The English East India Company ceased to be a commercial agency in India. In other words, it would function hereafter as the political agent for the Crown.

(ii) The Governor-General of Fort William was hereafter called 'the Governor- General of India'. Thus, **Bentinck was the first Governor-General of India**'.

(iii) A Law Member was appointed to the Governor-General's Council. T. B. Macaulay was the first Law Member of the Governor-General-in-Council.

(iv) The Act categorically stated 'that no native of India, nor any natural born subject of His Majesty, should be disabled from holding any place, office, or employment, by reason of his religion, place of birth, descent or colour'. It was this enactment which laid the foundation for the Indianisation of public services.

After twenty years, the Charter Act of 1853 was passed and it was the last in the series of Charter Acts.

Reforms of Lord William Bentinck

The advent of Lord William Bentinck ushered in a new era in the annals of India in many ways. Although his tenure of office

covered only a short span of seven years, it saw a period of enduring reforms. They may be classified as financial, administrative, social and educational.

Financial Reforms

When Bentinck assumed the Governor-Generalship in 1828, the financial position of the Company was poor. The exchequer was very weak. The state budget showed a deficit of one million rupees. It became necessary on the part of the Governor-General to take effective steps to improve the financial condition. To achieve this he adopted the following measures:

He reduced the salaries and allowances of all officers and additional staff were removed. In the military department, he abolished the system of double *batta*. (*Batta* was an allowance to troops on active service.) By these financial reforms at the time of his departure, he left the treasury with a surplus of Rs.1.5 millions.

Administrative Reforms

Bentinck's administrative reforms speak of his political maturity and wisdom. In the judicial department he abolished the provincial courts of appeal established by Cornwallis. They were largely responsible for the huge arrears of cases. This step was readily accepted by the Directors since it cut down their expenditure. Another good measure of Bentinck was the introduction of local languages in the lower courts and English in the higher courts in the place of Persian. Even in matters of revenue Bentinck left his mark. He launched the revenue settlements of the North West Province under the control of R.M. Bird. This settlement was for a period of 30 years and it was made either with the tillers of the soil, or with the landowners.

Social Reforms

The social reforms of William Bentinck made his name immortal in the history of British India. These include the abolition of *Sati*, the suppression of Thugs and the prevention of female infanticide.

Abolition of Sati

The practice of *sati*, the age old custom of burning of widows alive on the funeral pyre of their husbands was prevalent in India from ancient times. This inhuman social custom was very common in northern India more particularly in Bengal. Bentinck was greatly distressed when he received a report of 800 cases of *sati* in a single year and that from Bengal. He determined to abolish this practice which he considered an offence against natural justice. Therefore, he became a crusader against it and promulgated his Regulation XVII on 4 December 1829 prohibiting the practice of *sati*. Those who practiced *sati* were made liable for punishment by law courts as accessories to the crime. The Regulation was extended to the Madras and Bombay Presidencies in 1830.

Suppression of Thugs

The most commendable measure which Bentinck undertook and which contributed to the material welfare of the people was the suppression of the 'thugs'. They were hereditary robbers. They went about in small groups of fifty to hundred posing as commercial gangs or pilgrims 'strangling and robbing peaceful travellers'. They increased in number in central and northern India during the 18th century when anarchy reigned after the disintegration of the Mughal Empire. A campaign was systematically organised by Colonel Sleeman from 1830 against the thugs. During the course of five years nearly 2000 of them were captured. A greater number of them were exterminated and the rest were transported to the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. For his role in the suppression of thugs, Sir William Sleeman was known as "**Thuggee Sleeman**".

Female Infanticide

Female infanticide was one of the horrible and heartless deeds committed even by civilized people. This practice killing female infants was very much prevalent in places like Rajputana, Punjab, Malwa and Cutch. Bentinck took effective steps to prevent the ritual of child sacrifice at Saugar Island in Bengal. He not only prohibited female infanticide but declared them as punishable crime.

Introduction of English Education

The introduction of English Education was a significant event of Lord William Bentinck's administration. He appointed a committee headed by **Lord Macaulay** to make recommendations for the promotion of education. In his report, Macaulay emphasized the promotion of European literature and science through English medium to the people of India. This recommendation was wholeheartedly accepted by William Bentinck. The Government Resolution in 1835 made English the official and literary language of India. In the same year, William Bentinck laid foundation of the Calcutta Medical College.

Estimate of William Bentinck

Bentinck was a "straightforward, honest, upright, benevolent, sensible man". His social reforms such as abolition of *sati* and prevention of child sacrifice eradicated age old evils from Hindu society. It is gratifying to note that "Bentinck acted where others had talked". To enforce the regulations regarding the prohibition of *sati*, he was prepared to risk his own position. Such courage and straightforwardness were seldom found among the administrators of those days. His educational reforms heralded a new age in India.

After William Bentinck, Lord Auckland (1836-42) became Governor-General. The First Afghan War (1836-42) was fought during his administration. Due to his failure in Afghanistan he was recalled in 1842. Lord Ellenborough succeeded him and ended the Afghan War. He also annexed the Sindh. His successor, Lord Hardinge (1844-48) fought the first Anglo-Sikh War (1845-46) and concluded the Treaty of Lahore.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson, the student should be able to explain

- 1. William Bentinck, despite following the policy of nonintervention, compelled to annex the states like Mysore.*
- 2. He achieved friendship with Raja Ranjit Singh of Punjab and concluded the Treaty of Amritsar.*
- 3. The importance of the Charter of 1833.*
- 4. Bentinck's efficient administrative measures through financial and administrative reforms*
- 5. Bentinck inaugurated an era of social reforms which included the abolition of sati, suppression of thugs and prevention of female infanticide.*
- 6. His educational reforms remained the basis for the modernization of India.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. English was adopted as the official language of British India in
(a) 1833 (b) 1835
(c) 1837 (d) 1839
2. The practice of Sati was abolished during the administration of
(a) Warren Hastings (b) Lord Cornwallis
(c) Lord Wellesley (d) Lord William Bentinck

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Vellore Mutiny broke out in the year
2. In the military department Lord William Bentinck abolished the system of

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------|
| 1. Lord Macaulay | a. Thugs |
| 2. Vira Raja | b. Law Member |
| 3. William Sleeman | c. Punjab |
| 4. Ranjit Singh | d. Coorg |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Regulating Act of 1773 made it mandatory to renew the Company's Charter after thirty years.
- b) The Charter Act of 1833 provided five lakhs of rupees for the promotion of Indian education.
- c) The Charter Act of 1833 made Lord William Bentinck the first Governor General of India.

d) The Charter Act of 1853 was renewed after twenty years.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Lord William Bentinck assumed the office of the Governor General in 1838.
2. Lord William Bentinck laid the foundation for the Calcutta Medical College.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Ranjit Singh.
2. Sati
3. Lord Macaulay.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the important provisions of the Charter act of 1833.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the policy of Lord William Bentinck towards the Indian states.
2. “Bentinck inaugurated an era of social reforms” – Comment.

LESSON 6

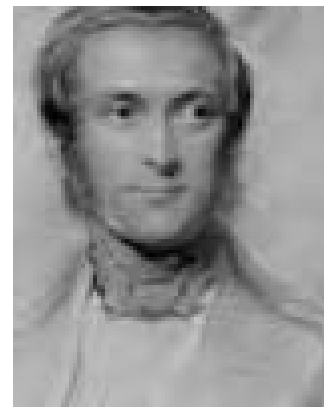
LORD DALHOUSIE (1848-1856)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Dalhousie's policy of annexation.*
- 2. Annexation of Punjab and Lower Burma.*
- 3. Doctrine of Lapse, its application to Indian states.*
- 4. Annexation of Oudh on the pretext of misrule.*
- 5. Dalhousie's domestic reforms including the introduction of railways and telegraphs.*
- 6. His educational and other reforms.*

Lord Dalhousie was the youngest Governor-General of India when he assumed charge at the age of 36 in 1848. His early career was remarkable. He studied in Christ Church, Oxford. He became Member of Parliament and enjoyed the confidence of Sir Robert Peel, the Prime Minister of England. He did much for the progress of railway construction in England as the president of the Board of Trade. In 1847, he was offered the Governor-Generalship of India which he accepted and arrived at Calcutta in January 1848.



LORD DALHOUSIE

Policy of Annexation

The most important aspect of Dalhousie's administration is related to "the great drama of annexation". His aims for expanding the Company's territories were administrative, imperial, commercial and

financial. Although he used different reasons for annexation, his main objective was to end misrule in the annexed states, as in the case of the annexation of Oudh. He aimed at providing the beneficent administration to the people of the annexed states. At the same time he had in his mind the advantages of annexation to the British such as imperial defence, commercial and financial benefits. Though Dalhousie did not come to India to follow a policy of annexation, but he was able to consolidate British rule in India by his policy of annexation. His great annexations include the Punjab, Lower Burma, most of the Central Provinces and Oudh.

Annexation of Punjab

At the end of the second Anglo-Sikh War in 1849, Punjab was annexed by Dalhousie. He organized the administration of Punjab very efficiently. The province was divided into small districts under the control of District Officers who were called Deputy Commissioners. These commissioners with the help of their assistants came into close contact with people. Revenue and judicial departments were combined to secure concentration of power and responsibility. The laws and procedure were simplified in accordance with the custom of the people. The overall administration of Punjab was entrusted to the Chief Commissioner. In fact, the Governor-General was the virtual ruler of Punjab. The services of Lawrence brothers in the administration of Punjab were notable. Within three years perfect order was restored in the province. It was efficiently defended from internal and external enemies. In 1859, Sir John Lawrence became the Lieutenant Governor of Punjab.

Second Burmese War and the Annexation of Lower Burma

In 1852, commercial disputes in Rangoon prompted new hostilities between the British and the Burmese. After the end of the second Burmese War (1852), **Dalhousie annexed Lower Burma** with its capital at Pegu. Major Arthur Phayre was appointed the Commissioner of the new province. His administration also proved to be efficient. The

annexation of Lower Burma proved beneficial to Britain. Rangoon, Britain's most valuable acquisition from the war became one of the biggest ports in Asia.

Doctrine of Lapse

Dalhousie also took advantage of every opportunity to acquire territory by peaceful means. The East India Company was rapidly becoming the predominant power in India. It had concluded alliances with Indian rulers. It promised to support them and their heirs in return for various concessions. Although this type of agreement favoured the British, Dalhousie sought to acquire even more power. According to the Hindu Law, one can adopt a son in case of no male heir to inherit the property. The question arose whether a Hindu ruler, holding his state subordinate to the paramount power, could adopt a son to succeed his kingdom. It was customary for a ruler without a natural heir to ask the British Government whether he could adopt a son to succeed him. According to Dalhousie, if such permission was refused by the British, the state would "lapse" and thereby become part of the British India. Dalhousie maintained that there was a difference in principle between the right to inherit private property and the right to govern. This principle was called the **Doctrine of Lapse**.

The Doctrine of Lapse was applied by Dalhousie to Satara and it was annexed in 1848. Jhansi and Nagpur were annexed in 1854. As a result of these annexations, a large part of the Central Provinces came under the British rule. The new province was governed by a Chief Commissioner from 1861.

Although the Doctrine of Lapse cannot be regarded as illegal, its application by Dalhousie was disliked by Indian princes. The advantages of the annexations of Satara, Jhansi and Nagpur were substantial to the British. Dalhousie was blamed for using the Doctrine of Lapse as an instrument in pursuing his policy of annexation. After the Mutiny of 1857, the doctrine of lapse was withdrawn.

Later during the Mutiny of 1857, Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi played an important role in fighting against the British.

Annexation of Oudh

The British relations with the state of Oudh go back to the Treaty of Allahabad in 1765. Right from Warren Hastings, many Governor-Generals advised the Nawab of Oudh to improve the administration. But, misrule continued there and the Nawab was under the assumption that the British would not annex Oudh because of his loyalty to them. In 1851, William Sleeman, Resident at Lucknow, reported on the “spectacle of human misery and careless misrule”. But Sleeman was against the policy of annexing Oudh. After surveying the situation in Oudh, Dalhousie annexed it in 1856. Nawab Wajid Ali was granted a pension of 12 lakhs of rupees per year. The annexed territory came under the control of a Chief Commissioner.

Dalhousie’s annexation of Oudh, the last one among his annexations, created great political danger. The annexation offended the Muslim elite. More dangerous was the effect on the British army’s Indian troops, many of whom came from Oudh, They had occupied a privileged position before its annexation. Under the British Government they were treated as equals with the rest of the population. This is a loss of prestige for them. In these various ways, the annexation of Oudh contributed to the Mutiny of 1857.

Domestic Reforms of Dalhousie

Dalhousie’s territorial acquisition transformed the map of India. He was not only a conqueror but also a great administrator. The appointment of a Lieutenant-Governor to Bengal enabled Dalhousie concentrate on administration. His greatest achievement was the molding of the new provinces into a modern centralized state. For the newly acquired territories, he introduced the centralized control called “Non-Regulation System”. Under this system a Commissioner

was appointed for a newly acquired territory. Under military reforms Dalhousie shifted the headquarters of Bengal Artillery from Calcutta to Meerut. Simla was made the permanent headquarters of the army.

Railways

The introduction railways in India inaugurated a new economic era. There were three major reasons for the British to take interest in its quick development. The first reason was commercial. The second main reason was administrative. The third reason was defense. At the time of revolt and disturbance, movement of the forces was much easier through railways. Lord Dalhousie's contribution in the development of railways is worth commending. In 1853, he penned his Railway Minute formulating the future policy of railways in India. He started the "guarantee system" by which the railway companies were guaranteed a minimum interest of five percent on their investment. The government retained the right of buying the railway at the end of the period of contract. The first railway line connecting Bombay with Thane was opened in 1853. Railway lines connecting from Calcutta to the Raniganj coal-fields was opened in 1854 and from Madras to Arakkonam in 1856.

The first railway in the world was opened in 1825 in England.

Telegraph

Similarly, the use of Telegraph brought marvelous changes in communication system. In India, Lord Dalhousie's contribution in this respect is commendable. In 1852, O'Shaughnessy was appointed the Superintendent of Telegraph Department. Main cities of the country viz., Calcutta, Peshawar, Bombay and Madras were telegraphically connected. About 4000 miles long Telegraph lines were laid before the departure of Dalhousie. During the 1857 Revolt, the system of telegraphic communication proved a boon for the English and the military value of Dalhousie's creation was much realized at that time.

Postal Reform

The foundation of modern postal system was laid down by Lord Dalhousie. A new Post Office Act was passed in 1854. Consequently, irrespective of the distance over which the letter was sent, a uniform rate of half an *anna* per post card was charged throughout India. Postage stamps were introduced for the first time.

Education

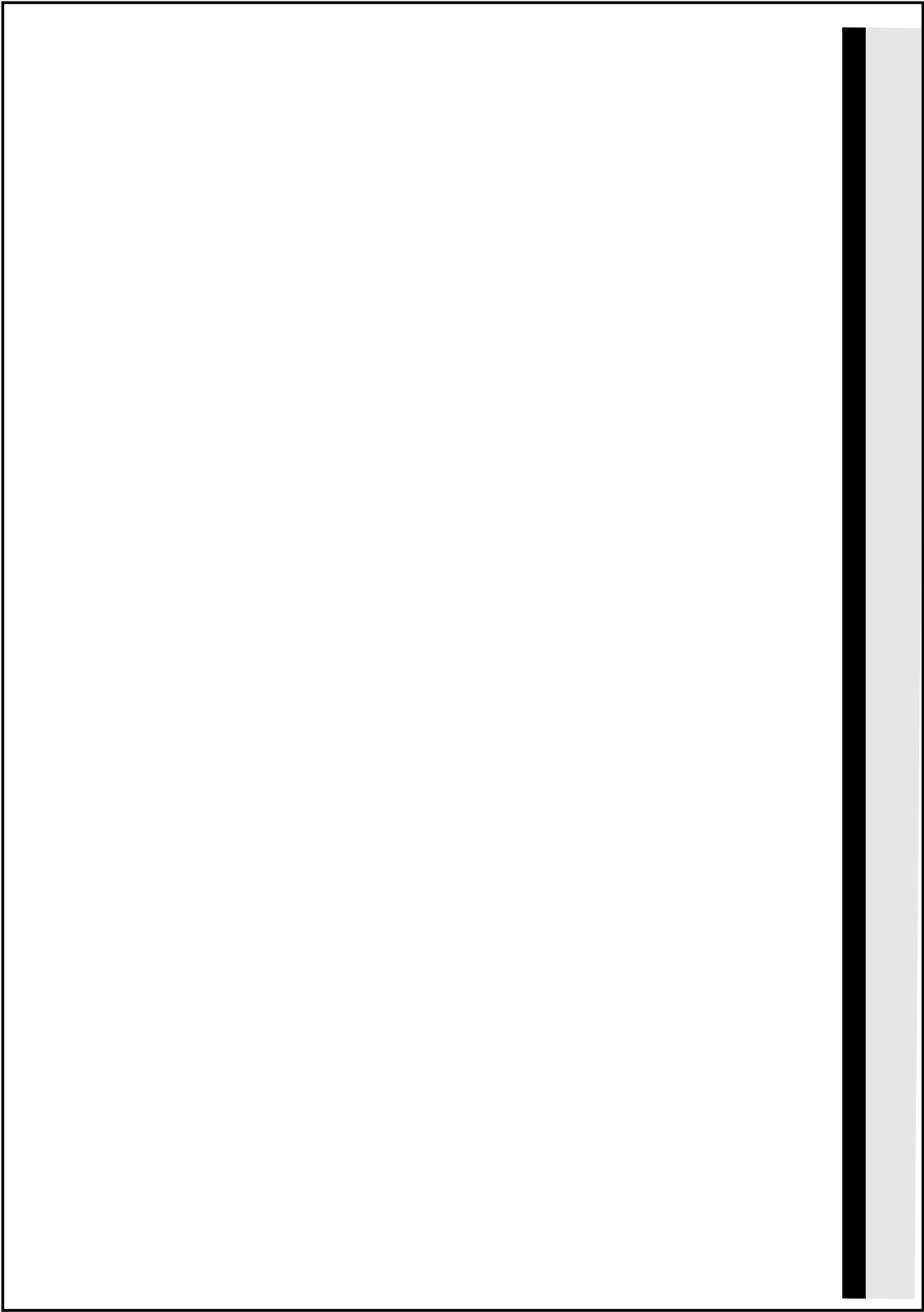
Dalhousie had also evinced in the development of education. The educational Despatch of Sir Charles Wood (1854) was considered the “Intellectual Charter of India”. It provided an outline for the comprehensive scheme of education at primary, secondary and collegiate levels. Dalhousie fully accepted the views of Charles Wood and took steps to carry out the new scheme. Departments of Public Instructions were organized. The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were founded in 1857.

Public Works Department

Before the period of Dalhousie, the job of the Public Works Department was done by the Military Board. Dalhousie created a separate Public Works Department and allotted more funds for cutting canals and roads. The Upper Ganges Canal was completed in 1854. Many bridges were constructed. By modernizing the Public Works Department he laid the foundations of the engineering service in India.

Estimate of Dalhousie

Dalhousie left India in 1856. The outbreak of Mutiny in the following year led to a severe criticism of his policy of annexation. Exhausted by his years of overwork in India, he fell ill and died in 1860. There is no doubt that Dalhousie was an able administrator and visionary. He increased the extent of British India and consolidated it. He inaugurated an era of progress on many sides. He was the father of Railways and Telegraphs. He introduced the process of modernization of India. Hence, he is hailed as “the maker of modern India”.



Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson, the students will be able to explain

- 1. Dalhousie's policy of annexation of states like Oudh was aimed at providing beneficent rule to Indian states.*
- 2. His annexation of Punjab, Lower Burma and most of central India was nothing but expansion of British imperialism.*
- 3. The Doctrine of Lapse was a tool in the hands of Dalhousie for his policy of annexation.*
- 4. Dalhousie remained a progressive reformer by introducing modern methods of communication such as railways and telegraphs.*
- 5. The student can give an impartial estimate of Dalhousie.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Punjab was annexed by Dalhousie in the year
(a) 1839 (b) 1849
(c) 1853 (d) 1856
2. Lawrence brothers lent their services in the administration of
(a) Burma (b) Punjab
(c) Bengal (d) Mysore

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The first railway line between Bombay and Thane was opened in the year.....
2. The foundation of modern postal system was laid down by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---|---------|
| 1. Wood's Despatch | a. 1857 |
| 2. Second Burmese War | b. 1856 |
| 3. Annexation of Oudh | c. 1852 |
| 4. Foundation of the University of Madras | d. 1854 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The doctrine of lapse was introduced by Lord Wellesley.
- b) The doctrine of lapse can be regarded as illegal.
- c) The doctrine of lapse was applied to annex Lower Burma.
- d) The doctrine of lapse was withdrawn after the Mutiny of 1857.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. In 1850, O'Shaughnessy was appointed the Superintendent of Telegraph Department.
2. The first railway line connecting Bombay with Thane was opened in 1853.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Wood's Despatch.
2. Second Burmese War.
3. Dalhousie's Postal Reforms

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the annexation of Oudh by Lord Dalhousie.
2. Explain the principle and application of the Doctrine of Lapse.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Critically examine the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie.
2. Estimate the reforms of Lord Dalhousie.

LESSON 7

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION AND ECONOMIC POLICY OF THE BRITISH

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. The British agrarian policy.*
- 2. Different Land Revenue Systems introduced by the British.*
- 3. The Merits and demerits of the revenue administration.*
- 4. British policy towards the handicrafts industry.*
- 5. Causes for the decline of the Indian handicrafts.*

British Agrarian Policy

It is a well-known fact that India is primarily an agricultural country. The overwhelming majority of its people depend on agriculture for sustenance. If the crop is good, prosperity prevails otherwise it leads to famine and starvation.

Till the 18th century, there was a strong relation between agriculture and cottage industries in India. India was not only ahead in the field of agriculture than most other countries but it also held a prominent place in the world in the field of handicraft production. The British destroyed handicraft industry in the country while unleashing far-reaching changes in the country's agrarian structure by introducing new systems of land tenures and policies of revenue administration.

India's national income, foreign trade, industrial expansion and almost every other dominion of economic activity, depended on the

country's agriculture. The British policies revolved around getting maximum income from land without caring much about Indian interests of the cultivators. They abandoned the age -old system of revenue administration and adopted in their place a ruthless policy of revenue collection.

After their advent, the British principally adopted three types of land tenures. Roughly 19 per cent of the total area under the British rule, i.e., Bengal, Bihar, Banaras, division of the Northern Western Provinces and northern Karnatak, were brought under the **Zamindari System** or the **Permanent Settlement**. The second revenue system, called the **Mahalwari Settlement**, was introduced in about 30 per cent of the total area under British rule i.e., in major parts of the North Western Provinces, Central Provinces and the Punjab with some variations. **The Ryotwari System** covered about 51 per cent of the area under British rule comprising part of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies, Assam and certain other parts of British India.

The Permanent Settlement

Lord Cornwallis' most conspicuous administrative measure was the Permanent Land Revenue Settlement of Bengal, which was extended to the provinces of Bihar and Orissa. It is appropriate to recall that Warren Hastings introduced the annual lease system of auctioning the land to the highest bidder. It created chaos in the revenue administration.

Cornwallis at the time of his appointment was instructed by the Directors to find a satisfactory and permanent solution to the problems of the land revenue system in order to protect the interests of both the Company and the cultivators. It obliged the Governor-General to make a thorough enquiry into the usages, tenures and rents prevalent in Bengal. The whole problem occupied Lord

Cornwallis for over three years and after a prolonged discussion with his colleagues like Sir John Shore and James Grant he decided to abolish the annual lease system and introduce a decennial (Ten years) settlement which was subsequently declared to be continuous. The main features of the Permanent Settlement were as follows:

- (i) The zamindars of Bengal were recognised as the owners of land as long as they paid the revenue to the East India Company regularly.
- (ii) The amount of revenue that the zamindars had to pay to the Company was firmly fixed and would not be raised under any circumstances. In other words the Government of the East India Company got 89% leaving the rest to the zamindars.
- (iii) The ryots became tenants since they were considered the tillers of the soil.
- (iv) This settlement took away the administrative and judicial functions of the zamindars.

The Permanent Settlement of Cornwallis was bitterly criticised on the point that it was adopted with 'undue haste'. The flagrant defect of this arrangement was that no attempt was made ever either to survey the lands or to assess their value. The assessment was made roughly on the basis of accounts of previous collections and it was done in an irregular manner. The effects of this system both on the zamindars and ryots were disastrous. As the revenue fixed by the system was too high, many zamindars defaulted on payments. Their property was seized and distress sales were conducted leading to their ruin. The rich zamindars who led luxurious lives left their villages and migrated into towns. They entrusted their rent collection to agents who exacted all kinds of illegal taxes besides the legal ones from the ryots.

This had resulted in a great deal of misery amongst the peasants and farmers. Therefore Lord Cornwallis' idea of building a system of benevolent land-lordism failed. Baden Powell remarks, "The zamindars as a class did nothing for the tenants". Though initially the Company gained financially, in the long run the Company suffered financial loss because land productivity was high, income from it was meagre since it was a fixed sum. It should be noted that in pre-British period a share on the crop was fixed as land tax.

Nevertheless, this system proved to be a great boon to the zamindars and to the government of Bengal. It formed a regular income and stabilised the government of the Company. The zamindars prospered at the cost of the welfare of the tenants.

Ryotwari Settlement

The Ryotwari settlement was introduced mainly in Madras, Berar, Bombay and Assam. Sir Thomas Munro introduced this system in the Madras Presidency. Under this settlement, the peasant was recognised as the proprietor of land. There was no intermediary like a Zamindar between the peasant and the government. So long as he paid the revenue in time, the peasant was not evicted from the land. Besides, the land revenue was fixed for a period from 20 to 40 years at a time. Every peasant was held personally responsible for direct payment of land revenue to the government. However, in the end, this system also failed. Under this settlement it was certainly not possible to collect revenue in a systematic manner. The revenue officials indulged in harsh measures for non payment or delayed payment.

Mahalwari Settlement

In 1833, the Mahalwari settlement was introduced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces and parts of North Western Provinces. Under this system the basic unit of revenue settlement was the village or

the Mahal. As the village lands belonged jointly to the village community, the responsibility of paying the revenue rested with the entire Mahal or the village community. So the entire land of the village was measured at the time of fixing the revenue.

Though the Mahalwari system eliminated middlemen between the government and the village community and brought about improvement in irrigation facility, yet its benefit was largely enjoyed by the government.

British Policy towards Indian Handicrafts

The European companies began arriving on the Indian soil from 16th century. During this period, they were constantly engaged in fierce competition to establish their supremacy and monopoly over Indian trade. Not surprisingly, therefore, initial objective of the English East India Company was to have flourishing trade with India. Later, this objective was enlarged to acquire a monopoly over this trade and obtain its entire profit. Although the trade monopoly thus acquired by the Company in India was ended by the Charter Act of 1833, yet the British Policy of exploiting the resources of India continued unabated. In this respect, the nature of the British rule was different from the earlier rulers.

As far as the traditional handicraft industry and the production of objects of art were concerned, India was already far ahead of other countries in the world. The textiles were the most important among the Indian industries. Its cotton, silk and woolen products were sought after all over the world. Particularly, the muslin of Dacca, carpets of Lahore, shawls of Kashmir, and the embroidery works of Banaras were very famous. Ivory goods, wood works and jewellery were other widely sought after Indian commodities.

Apart from Dacca, which was highly famous for its muslins, the other important centres of textile production were Krishnanagar, Chanderi,

Arni and Banaras. *Dhotis* and *dupattas* of Ahmedabad, Chikan of Lucknow, and silk borders of Nagpur had earned a worldwide fame. For their silk products some small towns of Bengal besides, Malda and Murshidabad were very famous. Similarly, Kashmir, Punjab and western Rajasthan were famous for their woolen garments.

Besides textiles, India was also known widely for its shipping, leather and metal industries. Indian fame as an industrial economy rested on cutting and polishing of marble and other precious stones and carving of ivory and sandalwood. Moradabad and Banaras were famous for brass, copper, bronze utensils. Nasik, Poona, Hyderabad and Tanjore were famous for other metal works. Kutch, Sind and Punjab were known for manufacturing arms. Kolhapur, Satara, Gorakhpur, Agra, Chittor and Palaghat had likewise earned a reputation for their glass industries. Making of gold, silver and diamond jewellery was another important industrial activity in which many places in India specialized. These entire handicrafts industry indicated a vibrant economy in India.

Despite enjoying such fame in the world, the Indian handicraft industry had begun to decline by the beginning of the 18th century. There were many reasons for it. First, the policies followed by the English East India Company proved to be highly detrimental to the Indian handicrafts industry. The Indian market was flooded with the cheap finished goods from Britain. It resulted in a steep decline in the sale of Indian products both within and outside of the country. In 1769, the Company encouraged the cultivation of raw silk in Bengal while imposing service restrictions on the sale of its finished products. In 1813 strategies were devised by the Company to enhance the consumption of finished goods from Britain. In this respect the tariff and octroi policies were suitably modified to suit the British commercial interests. To cite an example, in 1835 only a minimal import of British duty of 2.5 per cent was imposed on the import of

British manufactured cotton cloth whereas a very high 15 per cent export duty was charged on Indian cotton textiles as per the new maritime regulations.

Moreover, goods from England could only be brought by the English cargo ships. As a result of all these policies, the Indian textiles could not enter the British market, whereas the Indian market was flooded with British goods.

Thus, with the rise of British paramountcy in India, the process of decline in the power and status of Indian rulers had set in. Thus, the demands for the domestic luxury goods like royal attires, armory and objects of art by the Indian royalty also reduced drastically.

So, with the disappearance of the traditional dynasties, their nobility also passed into oblivion. This led to a sharp decline in the demand for traditional luxury goods.

Besides, the Industrial revolution led to the invention of new machinery in Europe. Power looms replaced handlooms. In India also the advent of machines led to the decline of handicraft as now the machine-made products were available at cheaper rate and more goods could be produced in much lesser time.

Finally, the new communication and transport facilities brought about a revolution in public life. Earlier, goods used to be transported either by bullock carts or by ships. Thus, during the rainy season, it was not always convenient to carry on with the normal transportation. But now conditions were changed with the introduction of railways and steamer services. Concrete roads were laid to connect the country's agricultural hinterland. The import of goods from England also increased with the simultaneous increase in exports of raw materials from India, leading to massive loss of jobs among Indian artisans and craftsman who lost their only means to livelihood.

Learning Outcome

The students have learnt

- 1. The objectives of the British agrarian policy.*
- 2. The Permanent Settlement, Ryotwari System and the Mahalwari systems of land revenue.*
- 3. The economic impact of British land revenue administration.*
- 4. The Indian handicrafts industry and its importance.*
- 5. British policy of exploitation.*
- 6. The decline of the Indian handicrafts industry due to the Industrial Revolution in England.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Permanent Settlement was introduced by
- (a) Lord Cornwallis (b) Lord Wellesley
- (c) Lord William Bentinck (d) Lord Dalhousie

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The basic unit of revenue settlement under the Mahalwari system was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------|------------|
| 1. Muslin | a. Banares |
| 2. Silk | b. Tanjore |
| 3. Carpets | c. Dacca |
| 4. Metal works | d. Lahore |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Permanent Settlement took away the judicial functions of zamindars.
- b) There was an intermediary like zamindar between the government and peasants under the Ryotwari settlement.
- c) Indian handicrafts began to decline by the early 16th century.
- d) The Industrial Revolution in England had encouraged the Indian handloom industries.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Warren Hastings introduced the annual leasing system of auctioning the lands.
2. Banaras was famous for embroidery works.
3. The East India Company modified the tariff and octroi policies to suit the Indian commercial interests.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Mahalwari Settlement.
2. Ryotwari Settlement.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Point out the salient features of the Permanent Land revenue Settlement.
2. Write a note on the Indian handicrafts industry.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the economic impact of the British land revenue administration.
2. Analyse the causes for the decline of Indian handicrafts industry.

LESSON 8

EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL REFORMS

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. The language and educational policies of the British.*
- 2. Debates over the introduction of English education in India.*
- 3. Introduction of social reforms in India.*
- 4. Legislation on women.*
- 5. Struggle against the Caste system and the legislation relating to abolition of caste discrimination.*

Language and Education Policy

Initially, the East India Company did not evince any particular interest in matters of education. Although the British had captured Bengal in 1757, yet the responsibility of imparting education remained only in Indian hands. The study of ancient texts written in Arabic, Persian and Sanskrit still continued. In 1781, Warren Hastings established a Madrasa in Calcutta to encourage the study of Muslim laws along with Arabic and Persian languages.

A decade later in 1791 due to the sincere efforts of the British resident, Jonathan Duncan, a Sanskrit College was established to promote the study of Hindu laws and philosophy in Banaras. Therefore, it must be contended that during the first three decades of the 19th century, the development of education took place only through the traditional institutions.

It is apparent from the government and Church records that the state of oriental learning at the time of the establishment of the Company's rule in Bengal, there were about 80,000 traditional institutions of learning in Bengal alone, which means that there was at least one institution for every four hundred people in that province. Different educational surveys of Madras, Bombay and Punjab also demonstrate similar facts. There was at least one school in every village of India at that time.

The East India Company began to adopt a dual policy in the sphere of education. It discouraged the prevalent system of oriental education and gave importance to western education and English language. The Charter Act of 1813 adopted a provision to spend one lakh rupees per annum for the spread of education in India.

Although there was a prolonged debate pertaining to education during the course of a general discussion on the Act of 1813 in the British Parliament, yet the matter continued to generate debate for the next 20 years. Consequently, not even a single penny out of the allocated funds could be spent on education.

The contemporary British scholars were divided into two groups on the issue of development of education in India. One group, called the **Orientalists**, advocated the promotion of oriental subjects through Indian languages. The other group, called the **Anglicists**, argued the cause of western sciences and literature in the medium of English language.

In 1829, after assuming the office of the Governor-General of India, Lord William Bentinck, emphasized on the medium of English language in Indian education. In the beginning of 1835, the 10 members of the General Committee of Public Instruction were clearly divided into two equal groups. Five members including the Chairman of the committee Lord Macaulay were in favour of adopting English

as medium of public instruction whereas the other five were in favour of oriental languages.



LORD MACAULAY

The stalemate continued till 2 February 1835 when the Chairman of the committee, **Lord Macaulay** announced his famous Minute advocating the Anglicist point of view. Consequently, despite fierce opposition from all quarters, Bentinck got the resolution passed on 7 March 1835 which declared that henceforth, government funds would be utilized for the promotion of western literature and science through the medium of English language.

In 1854, **Sir Charles Wood** sent a comprehensive dispatch as a grand plan on education. The establishment of departments of public instructions in five provinces and introduction of the pattern of grants in aid to encourage private participation in the field of education were recommended. Besides, the dispatch also laid emphasis on the establishment of schools for technical education, teacher and women education. Over and above all these, the dispatch recommended the establishment of one University each in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, on the model of the London University. Consequently, within the next few years, the Indian education became rapidly westernized.

Social Policies and Legislation

In the beginning, the British interest was limited to trade and earning profits from economic exploitation. Therefore, they did not evince any interest in taking the issue of social or religious reforms. They were apprehensive of interfering with the social and religious customs and institutions of the Indians because of the fear that they might lose trade advantage. Thus, they adopted the policy of extreme precaution and indifference towards social issues in India. The one

reason why they indulged in criticizing the customs and traditions of India was to generate a feeling of inferiority complex among the Indians.

However, in the mid-19th century the social and religious movements, launched in India, attracted the attention of the Company's administration towards the country's social evils. The propaganda carried out by the Christian missionaries also stirred the minds of the educated Indians. Western thought and education and views expressed in different newspapers and magazines had their own impact. Some of the British administrators like Lord William Bentinck had evinced personal interest in the matter. There were primarily two areas in which laws were enacted, laws pertaining to women emancipation and the caste system.

Social Laws Concerning Women

The condition of women, by the time the British established their rule, was not encouraging. Several evil practices such as the practice of *Sati*, the Purdah system, child marriage, female infanticide, bride price and polygamy had made their life quite miserable. The place of women had come to be confined to the four walls of her home. The doors of education had been shut for them. From economic point of view also her status was miserable. There was no social and economic equality between a man and woman. A Hindu woman was not entitled to inherit any property. Thus, by and large, she was completely dependent on men.

During the 19th and 20th centuries some laws were enacted with the sincere efforts of social reformers, humanists and some British administrators to improve the condition of women in Indian society. The first effort in this direction was the enactment of law against the practice of *Sati* during the administration of Lord William Bentinck.

Female Infanticide

Female infanticide was another inhuman practice afflicting the 19th century Indian society. It was particularly in vogue in Rajputana, Punjab and the North Western Provinces. Colonel Todd, Johnson Duncan, Malcolm and other British administrators have discussed about this evil custom in detail. Factors such as family pride, the fear of not finding a suitable match for the girl child and the hesitation to bend before the prospective in-laws were some of the major reasons responsible for this practice. Therefore, immediately after birth, the female infants were being killed either by feeding them with opium or by strangulating or by purposely neglecting them. Some laws were enacted against this practice in 1795, 1802 and 1804 and then in 1870. However, the practice could not be completely eradicated only through legal measures. Gradually, this evil practice came to be done away through education and public opinion.

Widow Remarriage

There are many historical evidences to suggest that widow remarriage enjoyed social sanction during ancient period in India. In course of time the practice ceased to prevail increasing the number of widows to lakhs during the 19th century. Therefore, it became incumbent on the part of the social reformers to make sincere efforts to popularize widow remarriage by writing in newspapers and contemporary journals.

Prominent among these reformers were Raja Rammohan Roy and Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar. They carried out large scale campaigns in this regard mainly through books, pamphlets and petitions with scores of signatures. In July 1856, J.P. Grant, a member of the Governor-General's Council finally tabled a bill in support of the widow remarriage, which was passed on 13 July 1856 and came to be called the **Widow Remarriage Act, 1856**.

Child Marriage

The practice of child marriage was another social stigma for the women. In November 1870, the Indian Reforms Association was started with the efforts of Keshav Chandra Sen. A journal called *Mahapap Bal Vivah* (Child marriage: The Cardinal Sin) was also launched with the efforts of B.M. Malabari to fight against child marriage. In 1846, the minimum marriageable age for a girl was only 10 years.

In 1891, through the enactment of the Age of Consent Act, this was raised to 12 years. In **1930**, through the **Sharda Act**, the minimum age was raised to 14 years. After independence, the limit was raised to 18 years in 1978.

Purdah System

Similarly, voices were raised against the practice of Purdah during the 19th and 20th century. The condition of women among the peasantry was relatively better in this respect. Purdah was not so much prevalent in Southern India. Through the large scale participation of women in the national freedom movement, the system disappeared without any specific legislative measure taken against it.

Struggle against the Caste System and the related Legislation

Next to the issue of women emancipation, the caste system became the second most important issue of social reforms. In fact, the system of caste had become the bane of Indian society.

The caste system was primarily based on the fourfold division of society viz. Brahmins, Kshatriya, Vaishyas and Shudras. On account of their degradation in their social status, the Shudras were subjected to all kinds of social discrimination. In the beginning of the 19th century the castes of India had been split into innumerable sub-castes on the basis of birth.

In the meantime, a new social consciousness also dawned among the Indians. Abolition of 'untouchability' became a major issue of the 19th century social and religious reform movements in the country. Mahatma Gandhi made the removal of untouchability a part of his constructive programme. He brought out a paper, *The Harijan*, and also organised the Harijan Sevak Sangh.



Dr. AMBEDKAR

Dr. Bhimrao Ambedkar dedicated his entire life for the welfare of the downtrodden. In Bombay, he formed a Bahiskrit Hitkarini Sabha in July 1924 for this purpose. Later, he also organised the Akhil Bharatiya Dalit Varg Sabha to fight against caste



JYOTIRAO PHULE

oppression. **Jyotirao Phule** in Western India and Shri Narayana Guru in Kerala respectively established the Satya Sadhak Samaj and the Shri Narayana Dharma Partipalana Yogam to include self-esteem among the downtrodden.

In the Madras Presidency also the beginning of 20th century witnessed the rise of **Self-respect Movement of Periyar E.V.R.** In order to eradicate this evil practice many other individual and institutional efforts were also made. These movements were directed mainly in removing the disabilities suffered by Harijans in regard to drawing of water from public wells, getting entry into temples and admission into schools.



NARAYANA GURU

Learning Outcome

The students should be able to explain

- 1. The system of education prevalent in India before the advent of the British.*
- 2. The Company's policy towards educational development in India.*
- 3. The debates between the Orientalists and Anglicists relating to the introduction of western education and the language of English.*
- 4. Macaulay's Minute on Education and the importance of Woods Despatch.*
- 5. Legislation relating to the abolition of social evils such as the practice of Sati, female Infanticide.*
- 6. The position of women in Indian society and the role of reformers in the emancipation of women and the related legislation.*
- 7. The measures taken to the eradication of discrimination under the caste system.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Jonathan Duncan established a Sanskrit college at

(a) Madras	(b) Bombay
(c) Calcutta	(d) Banaras
2. The Widow Remarriage Act was passed in the year

(a) 1846	(b) 1856
(c) 1870	(d) 1891

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Sarada Act raised the minimum marriageable age for girls to years.
2. The Bahiskrit Hitkarini Sabha was formed by
3. The Macaulay's Minute was announced in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. Harijan Sevak Sangh | a. Narayana Guru |
| 2. Satya Shodak Samaj | b. Periyar E.V.R. |
| 3. Narayana Dharma
Paripalana Yogam | c. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar |
| 4. Self Respect Movement | d. Mahatma Gandhi |
| 5. Ahila Bharatiya Dalit
Varg Sabha | e. Jyotirao Phule |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a. Orientalists advocated the promotion of oriental subjects through Indian languages.
- b. In 1829 Widow Remarriage Act was enacted.
- c. Jyotirao Phule established the Shri Narayana Dharma Parlupalana Yogam.
- d. In 1830 the Sharda Act was passed.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Warren Hastings established a Madrasa in Bombay.
2. The Anglicists argued for the cause of western sciences and literature in the medium of English language.
3. Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar carried out campaigns to popularize widow remarriage.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Macaulay's Minute
2. Female Infanticide
3. Purdah system

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on Charles Woods Despatch.
2. Discuss the measures taken by reformers to eradicate discrimination under the caste system.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the educational policy of the British.
2. Give an account of the social legislations for the emancipation of women.

LESSON 9

PALAYAKKARAR REBELLION

Learning Objectives

Students will come to know

- 1. The Palayakkarar system in Tamil Nadu.*
- 2. The role of Puli Thevar in the anti-British rebellion.*
- 3. The rise of Kattabomman and his fight against the British.*
- 4. The second rebellion led by the Marudu Brothers.*

In Tamil Nadu, as in other parts of India, the earliest expressions of opposition to British rule took the form of localized rebellions and uprisings. Chief among these was the revolt of the Palayakkarars (Poligars) against the East India Company.

The Palayakkarar system had evolved with the extension of Vijayanagar rule into Tamil Nadu. Each Palayakkarar was the holder of a territory or Palayam (usually consisting of a few villages), granted to him in return for military service and tribute. In most cases, the Palayakkarars gave little attention to perform their duties and were interested in increasing their own powers. With their numerical strength, extensive resources, local influence and independent attitude, the Palayakkarars came to constitute a powerful force in the political system of south India. They regarded themselves as independent, sovereign authorities within their respective Palayams, arguing that their lands had been handed down to them across a span of sixty generations. Such claims were brushed aside by the East India Company.

Puli Thevar

Among the Palayakkarars, there were two blocs, namely the Western and the Eastern blocs. The Western bloc had Marava Palayakkarars and the Eastern bloc had Telugu Palayakkarars. Puli Thevar of Nerkkattumseval headed the former and Kattabomman of Panchalamkuruchi led the latter. These two Palayakkarars refused to pay the kist (tribute) to the Nawab and rebelled.

Many of the neighbouring Palayakkarars put up certain pretexts and did not pay the tribute. Mahfuz Khan, with the assistance of the British army under Col. Heron undertook an expedition to suppress the revolt in March 1755. Puli Thevar and the Marava Palayakkarars of the Western bloc stood firm against the British. Col. Heron decided to deal with the Maravas firmly.

Col. Heron tried to change the mind of Puli Thevar by diplomatic moves and by show of force. But he failed in his attempts. Puli Thevar proceeded to consolidate his position by organising the Marava Palayakkarars of the West into a strong confederacy. He also attempted to get the support of Haider Ali of Mysore and the French against the British. The British approached Ramnad, Pudukottai and the Dutch for help. Haider Ali couldn't help Puli Thevar due to a Mysore-Maratha struggle. Yusuf Khan (Khan Sahib) was entrusted by the British with the duty of tackling Puli Thevar and his allies.

Puli Thevar attacked Madurai and captured it from Mahfuz Khan. Puli Thevar's military success had no parallel. The native ruler triumphed against the British. It is a clear demonstration of the Marava might and the heroism of the patriots. But Yusuf Khan recaptured Madurai. With the help of the Palayakkarars of the Eastern bloc and the king of Travancore, Yusuf Khan had many victories. After fierce battles, Nerkkattumseval was attacked in 1759. In 1767, this city was captured by Col. Campbell. Puli Thevar escaped and died in

exile without finally fulfilling his purpose of checking the growth of the British influence. Although his attempt ended in failure, he leaves a valiant trail of a struggle for independence in the history of South India.

Vira Pandya Kattabomman

Vira Pandya Kattabomman became the Palayakkarar of Panchalamkuruchi at the age of thirty on the death of his father,



KATTABOMMAN

Jagavira Pandya Kattabomman. The Company's administrators, James London and Colin Jackson had considered him as a man without education but of peaceful disposition. Yet, several events led to the conflict between Kattabomman and East India Company. During this period the collection of tribute served as a cause of friction. The Nawab of Arcot who had this right surrendered it to the English under the provisions of the Karnatac Treaty of 1792. Therefore, the chief of Panchalamkuruchi, Kattabomman had to pay tribute to the English. In

September 1798, the tribute from Kattabomman fell into arrears.

Collector Jackson in his characteristic arrogance and rashness wrote letters to Kattabomman in a threatening language. There is a tradition to indicate that Kattabomman declared : " It rains, the land yields, why should we pay tax to the English?" By the 31 May 1789, the total arrears of tribute from Kattabomman amounted to 3310 pagodas. Though Jackson wanted to send an army against Kattabomman, the Madras Government did not give permission.

Hence, on the 18 August 1798 Jackson sent an order to Kattabomman to meet him at Ramanathapuram within two weeks. In the meantime, Kattabomman went with arrears of tribute to meet Jackson. Kattabomman was humiliated twice by Jackson when the

former wanted to meet him at Tirukuttalam and Srivilliputtur. But he was told that he could meet the collector only at Ramanathapuram. Despite this humiliation, Kattabomman followed Jackson for twenty three days in a journey of 400 miles through the latter's route and reached Ramanathapuram on the 19 September.

An interview was granted by Jackson and Kattabomman cleared most of the arrears leaving only 1090 pagodas as balance. During this interview Kattabomman and his Minister, Sivasubramania Pillai, had to stand before the arrogant collector for three hours together. Still he did not permit them to leave the place, but directed them to stay inside the fort. Kattabomman suspected the intentions of Jackson. Hence, he tried to escape with his minister and brother Oomathurai. At the gate of the fort there followed a clash, in which some people including Lieutenant Clarke were killed. Sivasubramania Pillai was taken prisoner. But Kattabomman escaped.

After his return to Panchalamkuruchi, Kattabomman appealed to the Madras Council submitting the facts. The Madras Government directed Kattabomman to appear before a Committee. Meanwhile, the government released Sivasubramania Pillai and suspended the Collector, Jackson. In response Kattabomman decided to submit. He appeared before the Committee, with William Brown, William Oram and John Casmayor as members. The Committee found Kattabomman not guilty. S. R. Lushington was now appointed Collector in the place of Jackson, latter was eventually dismissed from service.

League of the Palayakkarars

Thus the English removed the source of grievance to Kattabomman. Yet, the humiliation suffered by Kattabomman affected his self-respect. During this time, Marudu Pandyan of Sivaganga organized the South Indian Confederacy of rebels against the British. The Tiruchirappalli Proclamation was made. He sent

missions Panchalamkuruchi. Thus a close association between Kattabomman and Marudu Pandyan established. The events now moved to a crisis. In August 1798 the son of the Palayakkarar of Sivagiri and his adviser visited Panchalamkuruchi and held consultations. Kattabomman decided to establish his influence in Sivagiri with the aid of the son of the Palayakkarar. As the Palayakkarar of Sivagiri was a tributary to the Company, the Madras Council considered this move as a challenge to its own authority and ordered war against Kattabomman.

Expedition to Panchalamkuruchi

In May 1799, Lord Wellesley issued orders from Madras for the advance of forces from Tiruchirappalli, Thanjavur and Madurai to Tirunelveli. Major Bannerman, armed with extensive powers, assumed the command of the expedition. On the 1 September, 1799 the Major served an ultimatum directing Kattabomman to surrender and attend on him at Palayamkottai on the 4th. Kattabomman replied that he would submit on a lucky day.

Bannerman considered this reply as evasive and decided on military action. On 5 September Kattabomman's fort was attacked. On the 16th reinforcements reached from Palayamkottai. In a clash at Kolarpatti the Palayakkarar troops suffered heavy casualty and Sivasubramania Pillai was taken prisoner. Kattabomman escaped to Pudukkottai. The ruler of Pudukkottai captured Kattabomman from the jungles of Kalapore and handed him over to the British.

Fall of Kattabomman

Bannerman brought the prisoners to an assembly of the Palayakkarars and after a mockery of trial sentenced them to death. Sivasubramania Pillai was executed at Nagalapuram on the 13th of September. On the 16th of October Vira Pandyan was tried before an assembly of Palayakkarars, summoned at

Kayattar. In an assertive tone and with contempt for death he admitted the charges levelled against him. Thereupon, Bennerman announced death penalty. On the 17th of October Kattabomman was hanged to death at a conspicuous spot near the old fort of Kayattar. Vira Pandyan faced the last moments of his life with the pride of a hero.

Marudu Brothers

Despite the exemplary repression of Palayakkarars in 1799, rebellion broke out again in 1800, this time in a more cohesive and united manner. Although the 1800-1801 rebellion was to be categorized in the British records as the Second Palayakkarar War, it assumed a much broader character than its predecessor. It was directed by a confederacy consisting of Marudu Pandian of Sivaganga, Gopala Nayak of Dindugal, Kerala Verma of Malabar and Krishnappa Nayak and Dhoondaji of Mysore.

The insurrection, which broke out in Coimbatore in June 1800, soon spread to Ramanathapuram and Madurai. By May 1801, it had reached the northern provinces, where Marudu Pandian and Melappan provided the leadership. Oomathurai, the brother of Kattabomman emerged as a key leader. In February 1801, Oomathurai and two hundred men by a cleverly move took control of Panchalamkuruchi Fort.

The fort now re-occupied and reconstructed by rebel forces, Panchalamkuruchi became the centre of the uprising. Three thousand armed men of Madurai and Ramanathapuram, despatched by Marudu Pandian, joined up with the Panchalamkuruchi forces. However, British forces quickly asserted itself. The Palayakkarar forces based at Panchalamkuruchi were crushed. By the orders of the government, the site of the captured fort was ploughed up and sowed with castor oil and salt so that it should never again be inhabited.

The British forces quickly overpowered the remaining insurgents. The Marudu brothers and their sons were put to death. Oomathurai and Sevatiah were beheaded at Panchalamkuruchi on 16 November, 1801. Seventy-three of the principal rebels were sentenced to transportation. So savage and extensive was the death and destruction wrought by the English that the entire region was left in a state of terror.

The suppression of the Palayakkarar rebellions of 1799 and 1800-1801 resulted in the liquidation of the influence of the chieftains. Under the terms of the Karnatac Treaty (31 July, 1801), the British assumed direct control over Tamil Nadu. The Palayakkararr system came to a violent end and the Company introduced the Zamindari settlement in its place.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student is able to explain

- 1. The functioning of Palayakkarar system in Tamil Nadu.*
- 2. Their relations with the British as tributaries.*
- 3. The rise and fall of Puli Thevar against the British dominance.*
- 4. Vira Pandya Kattabomman and the valiant struggle against the British arrogance.*
- 5. The Rebellion led by Marudu Brothers and their failure against the mighty British.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Nerkattumseval was captured by
 - (a) Col. Heron
 - (b) Col. Campbell
 - (c) Colin Jackson
 - (d) Puli Thevar
2. Collector Jackson sent an order to Kattabomman to meet him at
 - (a) Madurai
 - (b) Panchalamkurichi
 - (c) Ramanathapuram
 - (d) Srivilliputtur

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Virpandiya Kattabomman was the son of
2. Kattabomman was hanged to death at
3. The expedition to Panchalamkurichi was commanded by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Marudu Pandiyan | a. Nerkattumseval |
| 2. Gopal Nayak | b. Mysore |
| 3. Kerala Varma | c. Malabar |
| 4. Krishnappa Nayak | d. Dindigal |
| 5. Puli Thevar | e. Sivaganga |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Palayakkarars constitute a powerful force in the political system of North India.
- b) Yusuf Khan was also known as Khan Sahib.

- c) Sivasubramania Pillai was the minister of Marupandiyan.
- d) The South Indian confederacy was organized under the leadership of Oomaithirai.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The Palayakkarar system had evolved with the extension of Vijayanagar rule into Tamil Nadu.
- 2. The Palayakkarar of Sivagiri was a tributary to the Company.
- 3. Oomathurai and Sevatiah were beheaded at Madurai.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Puli Thevar
- 2. Palayakkarar system
- 3. Bannerman

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on South Indian Rebellion of 1801.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Estimate the valiant struggle of Kattabomman against the British.

LESSON 10

VELLORE MUTINY

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. The Causes for the Vellore Mutiny.*
- 2. The objectives of this Mutiny.*
- 3. The suppression of the Mutiny.*
- 4. The nature of this anti-British uprising.*

Vellore was the capital of erstwhile North Arcot district in Tamil Nadu. At present, this district is named after its capital Vellore. It is a well fortified and beautiful city.



Vellore Fort

With the expansion of the East India Company's rule in India, the native rulers and their dependents suffered. The native rulers either submitted or rebelled. These rebellions had no clear vision or ideal but purely motivated by the territorial interest of the native rulers and their ambition to preserve the old feudal order. The heroism and

sacrifice of individuals like Puli Thevar, Kattabomman and Marudu Brothers had no parallel. But all these leaders never organised the common people for a unified and meaningful cause. The ideas of nationalism, political consciousness and organized struggle came much later.

In Vellore the native sepoys rose in revolt in 1806. This incident differs from other previous rebellions in. The earlier rebellions were those of the native rulers. The Vellore Mutiny was organized by the sepoys. The earlier rebellions had only a regional interest. Every prince wanted to safeguard his own kingdom at any cost. But Vellore Mutiny was the result of spontaneous outflow of the feelings of the sepoys who served under the Company. It was a protest by the sepoys against the Company. This protest showed the future possibilities.

Causes

Several causes are attributed to the Vellore Mutiny. Indian sepoys had to experience numerous difficulties when they went to serve in the Company's army.

The sepoys were forced to serve under the Company since their earlier patrons (the native chieftains) were all disappearing from the scene. The strict discipline, practice, new weapons, new methods and uniforms were all new to the sepoys. Anything new appears to be difficult and wrong for a man who is well-settled in the old way of life for a long-time.

Sir John Cradock, the commander-in-chief, with the -approval of **Lord-William Bentinck**, the Governor of Madras, introduced a new form of turban, resembling a European hat. Wearing ear rings and caste marks were also prohibited.

The sepoys were asked to shave the chin and to trim the moustache. The sepoys felt that these were designed to insult them

and their religious and social traditions. There was also a popular belief that this was the beginning of a process by which all of them would be converted to Christianity.

The English treated the Indian sepoy as their inferior. There was the racial prejudice. This was the psychological base for the sepoy mutinies in India during the Company's rule.

The sepoy once served the local chieftains (either Hindu or Muslim). The chieftains were their own kinsmen but now they served under the foreigners. They can never forget their original loyalties.

The Vellore uprising was preceded by a series of protests by the Indian troops. In May 1806, the 4th Regiment rose in revolt against the new turban. The Commander-in-Chief took severe action the sepoy who were found guilty were punished with 500 to 900 lashes. Before the mutiny secret associations were formed and meetings held in which Tipu's family took part.

On June 17th 1806 a sepoy of the 1st Regiment named **Mustapha Beg**, secretly informed his commanding officer, **Colonel Forbes**, that a plot had been planned for the extermination of the European officers and troops. But this was not taken seriously .

On the eve of the Mutiny at Vellore **Fettah Hyder**, the first son of Tipu, tried to form an alliance against the English and sought the help of the Marathas and the French.

Fettah Hyder received secret information through one **Mohammed Malick**. Besides, princes Fettah Hyder and Moiz-ud-Deen in particular were active in planning the execution of the Mutiny.

Thus, there was the desire to revive the old Muslim rule in this region. The sepoy were aware of the tragic end of Puli Thevar, Khan Sahib, Kattabomman, Marudu Brothers, Tipu Sultan and others. Hence there were ill-feelings about the British in the minds of the sepoy. All these led to the rebellion.

Course of the Mutiny

On July 10th in the early morning the native sepoys of the 1st and 23rd Regiments started the revolt . Colonel Fancourt, who commanded the garrison, was their first victim. Colonel Me Kerras of the 23rd Regiment, was shot down on the parade-ground. Major Armstrong was the next officer to be killed during the mutiny. About a dozen other officers were also killed.

Major Cootes who was outside the fort dashed to Ranipet, 14 miles away, and informed **Colonel Gillespie** at 7 am . Col. Gillespie reached the Vellore fort at 9 A.M.

Meantime, the rebels proclaimed Futteh Hyder, Tipu's first son, as their new ruler and hoisted tiger-striped flag of Tipu Sultan. But the uprising was swiftly crushed by Col. Gillespie. 800 Indian soldiers were found dead in the fort alone. Six hundred soldiers were imprisoned in Tiruchi and Vellore. Some rebels were hung, some shot dead. The uprising was thus brought to a bloody end. Tipu's son was sent to Calcutta. The commander-in-chief and the governor were recalled.

Vellore Mutiny failed. There was no proper leadership. The rebellion was also not well organized. But it is the starting point of a new era of the resistance of the sepoys to the British rule. The 18th century was marked by the resistance of the local chieftains. The first six decades of 19th century was marked by the resistance of sepoys.

K.K. Pillai rejects the thesis that Vellore Mutiny led to the 1857 revolt. V.D. Savarkar calls the Vellore Mutiny of 1806 as the prelude to the first War of Indian Independence in 1857. N. Sanjivi proclaims that the Tamils had taken the real lead in the Indian freedom struggle. K. Rajayyan argues that this mutiny was a continuation of the Marudu Brothers' resistance movement against the colonial rule.

Learning Outcome

The students have learnt

- 1. The multiple causes that led to this outbreak of Vellore sepoy Mutiny.*
- 2. The grievances of the sepoys such as new rules and customs implemented by the British in the army.*
- 3. The suppression of the revolt.*
- 4. The nature of this anti-British rebellion.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which among the following was one of the causes for the Vellore Mutiny?
 - (a) Doctrine of lapse
 - (b) Collection of Tributes
 - (c) Introduction of new army regulations
 - (d) Economic exploitation of the British rule.

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Commander-in-Chief of the Vellore Fort was _____
2. _____ who was outside the fort dashed to Ranipet to seek help

III. Match the following

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Fettah Hyder | a. Governor of Madras |
| 2. Colonel Fancourt | b. suppressed the mutiny |
| 3. William Bentinck | c. Tipu's son |
| 4. Col. Gillespie | b. killed in the mutiny |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) New army regulations were mainly responsible for the Vellore Mutiny.
- b) Tipu's family were not kept in the Vellore fort.
- c) French help was not sought by Tipu's son.
- d) After the mutiny Tipu's sons were sent to Penang.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False

1. Mustapha Beg Indian sepoy forewarned about the Vellore Mutiny.
2. No British army officer was killed during the Vellore Mutiny.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Sir John Cradock
2. Col. Gillespie

VII. Answer briefly (100 words)

1. Explain the Course of the Vellore Mutiny.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the causes for the outbreak of Vellore Mutiny of 1806.

LESSON 11

THE GREAT REVOLT OF 1857

Learning Objectives

Students will come to understand

- 1. The nature of the Great Revolt of 1857.*
- 2. The underlying causes of the Revolt.*
- 3. The immediate cause of the outbreak of Revolt..*
- 4. The course of the Revolt.*
- 5. Causes for the failure of the Revolt.*
- 6. Effects of the Revolt.*

The 1857 Revolt sowed the seeds of Indian nationalism, which lay dormant in the subconscious of the Indian people. It started the movement which was a continuous struggle against the British rule till 1947. Hence, the nature, character and causes of this Great Revolt of 1857 should be studied in order to understand the subsequent events.

Nature of the Revolt

The historical writings of the British scholars underplayed the character of the Revolt of 1857. Sir John Lawrence was of the opinion that the Revolt was purely a military outbreak, and not a conspiracy to overthrow British rule. On the other hand the Revolt of 1857 is hailed by the Indian scholars, especially by Vir Savarkar as the First War of Indian Independence.

Two distinguished Indian historians, R.C. Majumdar and S.N. Sen, have analysed the Revolt of 1857 in depth. The two scholars

differ in their opinion. S.N. Sen believes that the 1857 Revolt was part of the struggle for Indian independence. R.C. Majumdar maintains that the outbreaks before 1857, whether civil or military, were “a series of isolated incidents” ultimately culminated in the Great Revolt of 1857.

Causes of the Revolt

Political Causes

The discontent and disaffection manifested in the form of revolts against the British Government were not confined to the ruling chiefs and royal families alone. On the contrary, the British rule was disliked by the people at large in any region when it was newly introduced. Anti-British feelings were particularly strong in those regions like Burma, Assam, Coorg, Sind, and the Punjab which were unjustly annexed to the British Empire. The Doctrine of Lapse, particularly its practical application by Lord Dalhousie, produced grave discontent and alarm among the native princes, who were directly affected.

Economic Causes

The huge drain of wealth, the destruction of its industry and increasing land revenue had become the common features of the latter half of the eighteenth century. The East India Company, after attaining political power, used it to fund the growth of British trade and commerce at the cost of Indians. The British damaged the Indian trade and manufacture by imposing a high tariff in Britain against Indian goods, and by encouraging all means the import of British goods to India. In England the ruin of the old handloom weavers was accompanied by the growth of the machine industry. But in India the ruin of the millions of artisans and craftsmen was not accompanied by any alternative growth of new industrial forms.

A new plantation system introduced in the year 1833 resulted in incalculable misery for the Indian peasants. This was the result of

permitting Englishmen to acquire land plantations in India. The hard hit were the peasants on the indigo plantations in Bengal and Bihar.

Social Causes

The Englishmen showed an arrogant attitude towards the Indians. Indiscriminate assaults on Indians by Englishmen became quite common. Also, a general alarm was raised among the Hindus and Muslims by the activities of the Christian missionaries. The educational institutions established by the missionaries inculcated western education and culture in the place of oriental learning. The native population felt that were losing their social identity.

Military causes

Discontent against the British Raj was widely prevalent among the Indian soldiers in the British army. The Indian sepoys in the British Indian army nursed a sense of strong resentment at their low salary and poor prospects of promotion. The British military officers at times showed least respect to the social values and religious sentiments of Indian sepoys in the army. Thus, although generally faithful to their masters, the sepoys were provoked to revolt. The Vellore mutiny of 1806, a precursor to the 1857 Great Revolt, was the outcome of such tendencies on the part of the military authorities.

Another important cause of the sepoys' dissatisfaction was the order that abolished the foreign allowance or *batta* when they served in foreign territories. Thus the discontent was widespread and there was an undercurrent before the volcanic situation of 1857. All that needed was only a spark to set it a fire.

The Beginning of the Revolt

The 1857 Revolt was sparked off by the episode of the greased cartridges. The new Enfield rifle had been introduced for the first time in the Indian army. Its cartridges had a greased paper cover

whose end had to be bitten off before the cartridge was loaded into the rifle. The grease was composed of fat taken from beef and pig. The religious feelings of the Hindu and Muslim sepoys were terribly wounded. The sepoys believed that the government was deliberately trying to destroy their religious and cultural identity. Hence they raised the banner of revolt.

The events that led to the Revolt began on 29 March 1857 at **Barrackpore**. **Mangal Pandey** (a sepoy) refused to use the greased cartridges and single-handedly attacked and killed his officer. Mangal Pandey was hanged. The regiment to which he belonged was disbanded and sepoys guilty of rebellion punished.

The British instead of diffusing the explosive situation, paved the way for a mighty crisis by the above act. A chain reaction was set in motion. At Meerut in May 1857, 85 sepoys of the 3rd Cavalry regiment were sentenced to long terms of imprisonment for refusing to use the greased cartridges. Therefore, on 10 May the sepoys broke out in open rebellion, shot their officers, released their fellow sepoys and headed towards Delhi. General Hewitt, the officer commanding at Meerut was helpless to prevent the army's march.

Next morning the rebellious army reached Delhi. The city of Delhi fell into the hands of the rebellious soldiers on 12 May 1857. Lieutenant Willtashby, the officer in charge of Delhi could not prevent the mutineers. Soon, the mutineers proclaimed the aged nominal king, Bahadur Shah II of the Mughal dynasty as the Emperor of India. Very soon the rebellion spread throughout northern and central India at Lucknow, Allahabad, Kanpur, Banares, in parts of Bihar, Jhansi and other places.



BAHADUR SHAH II

Delhi

The leadership at Delhi was nominally in the hands of Bahadur Shah, but the real control was exercised by General Bakht Khan. On the side of the British the combined effort of Nicholson, Wilson, Baird Smith and Neville Chamberlain enabled the recapture Delhi by September 1857. In Delhi, Emperor Bahadur Shah II was arrested and deported to Rangoon, where he remained in exile till he died in 1862.

Kanpur

At Kanpur the revolt was led by **Nana Saheb**, the adopted son of Baji Rao II, the last Peshwa. Nana Saheb expelled the English from



NANA SAHEB

Kanpur with the help of the sepoys and proclaimed himself the Peshwa. Nana Saheb in his efforts against the British was ably supported by two of his lieutenants. One was Tantia Tope, the other was



Tantia Tope

Azimullah. Sir Hugh Wheeler the commander of the British garrison at Kanpur surrendered on the 27 June 1857. But, soon Kanpur was recaptured by the British commander Sir Colin Campbell.

Lucknow

The principal person responsible for the revolt in Lucknow was the Begum of Oudh. With the assistance of the sepoys, the zamindars and peasants, the Begum organised



BEGUM OF OUDH

an all out attack on the British. Henry Lawrence, the chief commissioner tried to defend the British. Lawrence was killed in a bomb blast during the fight. The final relief for the British forces in Lucknow came in the form of Sir Colin Campbell, who suppressed the revolt.

Jhansi



RANI LAKSHMI BAI

Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi, the widowed queen of Gangadhar Rao played a heroic role in this revolt. Rani Lakshmi Bai was affected by Dalhousie's Doctrine of Lapse, was joined by Tantia Tope. The combined efforts of Rani and Tantia Tope saw the capture of Gwalior. Meanwhile, Sir Hugh Rose defeated Tantia Tope and stormed Jhansi on 3 April 1858. He then captured Gwalior. The Rani of Jhansi died a soldier's death on 17 June 1858. Tantia Tope was captured and hanged on charges of rebellion and murder in the massacre of Kanpur.

Bihar

Kunwar Singh, a ruined and discontented zamindar of Jagdishpur near Oudh, was the chief organiser of the revolt in Bihar. He fought the British in Bihar. Kunwar Singh sustained a fatal wound in the battle and died on 27 April 1858 at Jagdishpur.

Ultimately the 1857 Revolt came to an end with the victory of the British. Viceroy Canning proclaimed peace throughout India.

Causes for the Failure of the Revolt

The first and foremost cause was that the Revolt failed to embrace the whole of India. Different sections of society such as moneylenders, merchants and modern educated Indians were actually against the Revolt. The lack of interest shown by the intellectuals in

the movement was a serious setback. The resources of the British Empire were far superior to those of the rebels. Similarly, the insurgents lacked a carefully concerted general plan or a strong central organisation to plan the movements of the army and oversee their strategy.

On the other hand, the British possessed better equipment. In addition, the British were aided by new scientific inventions such as the telegraph system and postal communications. This enabled the British to keep in touch with all parts of the country and to manoeuvre their troops according to their needs.

All the said factors combined to cause the defeat of the rebels of the 1857 Revolt and ended in the victory for the British.

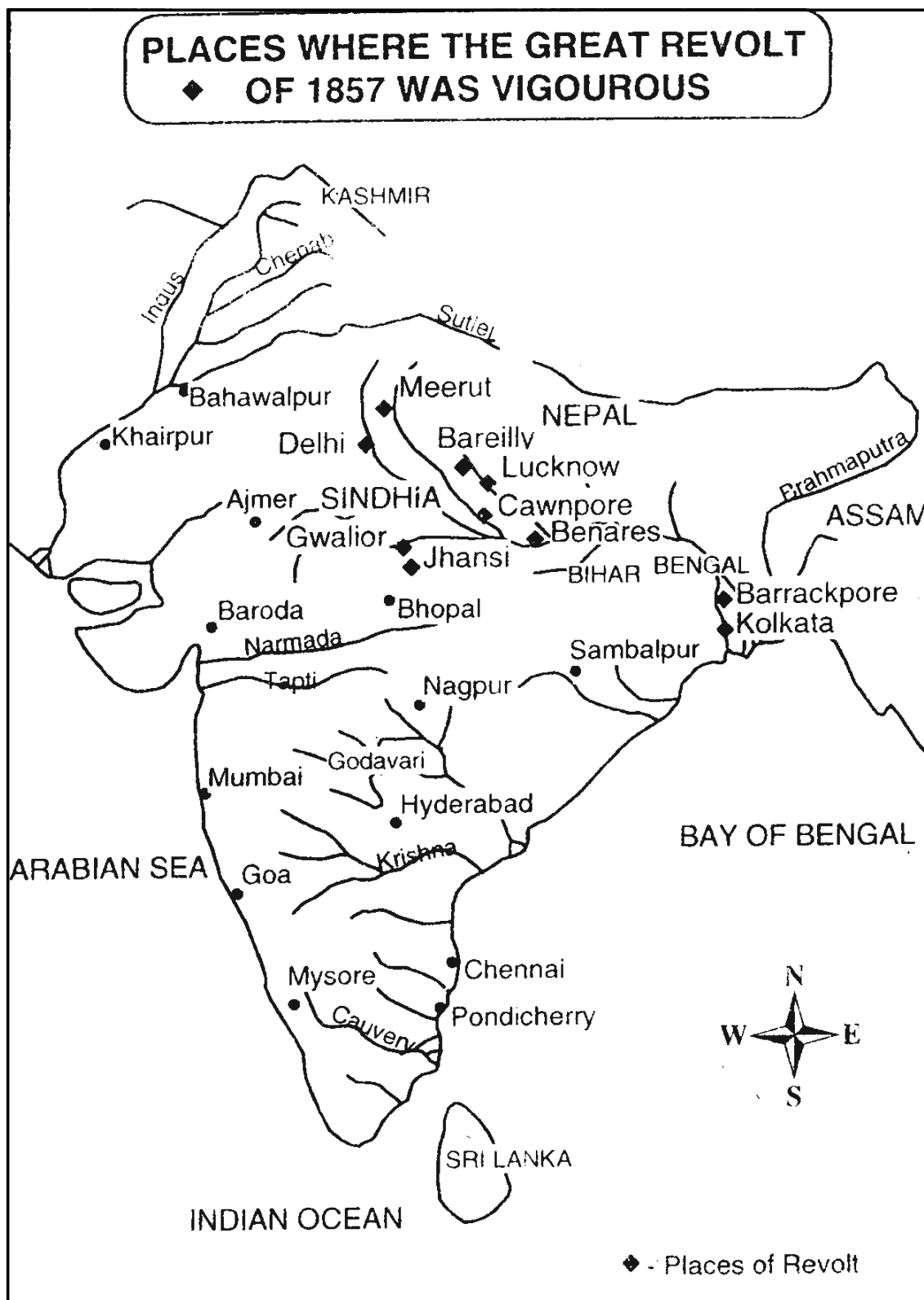
Significance and Effects of the Mutiny

The Revolt of 1857 though completely suppressed had shaken the very foundations of British rule in India, for the simple reason that the Revolt exhibited the popular character. It brought together the disgruntled sections of society to rise against the British rule. The common people rose up in arms often fighting with spears and axes, bows and arrows, lathis and scythes, and crude mulkets. However, this civilian revolt was not universal but sporadic and inconsistent. Nevertheless, it added a new dimension to the character of the 1857 Revolt. Another significant aspect of the 1857 Revolt was the Hindu-Muslim unity.

As far as the effects of the Revolt are concerned, it brought about fundamental changes in the character of Indian administration which was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown by the Queen's Proclamation of 1 November, 1858. At the same time the Governor-General received the new title of Viceroy. Lord Canning had the unique opportunity to become the Governor-General as well as the first Viceroy according to the Act of 1858.

Lord Canning proclaimed the new Government at Allahabad on 1 November 1858 in accordance with the Queen's Proclamation. The latter has been called the Magna Carta of the Indian people; it disclaimed any extension of territory, promised religious toleration, guaranteed the rights of Indian princes and pledged equal treatment to her subjects, Indians and Europeans.

The Revolt of 1857 ended an era and sowed the seeds of a new one. The year 1857 is a great divide between the two landmarks in Indian history. One was that of British paramountcy in the first half, and the other is that of the growth of Indian nationalism in the second half of the nineteenth century.



Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student has understood that

- 1. There are two views on the nature of the Great Revolt of 1857.*
- 2. The fundamental causes are varied such as political, economic, social and military.*
- 3. The immediate cause was the personal grievance of the sepoys.*
- 4. The course of Revolt – not universal but sporadic with scattered civilian participation.*
- 5. The British with their superior strength suppressed the Revolt.*
- 6. The suppression of the Revolt has revealed the weaknesses of the Indian sepoys and leaders of the Revolt.*
- 7. The Results and the importance of the Revolt of 1857.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Who among the following considered the Revolt of 1857 as the First War of Indian Independence?
(a) Sir John Lawrence (b) Vir Savarkar
(c) S.N. Sen (d) R.C. Majumdar
2. Which of the following incident sparked off the Revolt of 1857?
(a) Exploitation of the Indian economy by the British.
(b) The Doctrine of Lapse followed by Dalhousie.
(c) Activities of the Christian Missionaries.
(d) The episode of greased cartridges.

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The sepoy who refused to use the greased cartridge at Barrackpore was
2. The Queen's Proclamation was read by Lord Canning at

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------|------------|
| 1. Bahdur Shah | a. Kanpur |
| 2. Nana Sahib | b. Jhansi |
| 3. Begums of Oudh | c. Bihar |
| 4. Lakshmi Bai | d. Delhi |
| 5. Kanwar Singh | e. Lucknow |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) Bahadur Shah II was proclaimed as the emperor of India during the revolt of 1857.
- b) Kanpur was recaptured by the British commander Johnson.
- c) Rani Lakshmi Bai was hanged on the charges of rebellion.
- d) Tantia Tope was one of the lieutenants of the Begums of Oudh.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Emperor Bahadur Shah was arrested and deported to Rangoon.
- 2. The Vellore Mutiny of 1806 is considered as the precursor of the 1857 Revolt.
- 3. The Revolt of 1857 led to the division between the Hindus and Muslims.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Greased Cartridges.
- 2. Nana Sahib.
- 3. Rani Lakshmi Bai.
- 4. Causes for the failure of the Revolt of 1857.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on the nature of the Revolt of 1857.
- 2. Analyse the results of the Great Revolt of 1857.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the causes for the Revolt of 1857.
- 2. Trace the course of the Revolt of 1857.

LESSON 12

BRITISH INDIA AFTER 1858: LORD LYTTON (1876-1880), LORD RIPON (1880-1884) AND LORD CURZON (1899-1905)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

1. *Lord Lytton's policies on famine, the Indian Press and trade.*
2. *Second Afghan War.*
3. *Lord Ripon's reforms in the field of education and Local-Self Government.*
4. *The Ilbert Bill controversy and Ripon's attitude towards Indians.*
5. *Lord Curzon's reforms and the Partition of Bengal.*

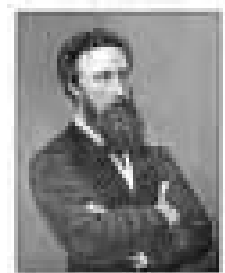


QUEEN VICTORIA

After the 1857 Revolt, the responsibility of ruling India was directly assumed by the British Crown. Lord Canning became the first Viceroy of India in 1858. The Government of India Act of 1858 and the Queen's Proclamation in the same year signify this change in the Indian administration. The Queen's Proclamation remained the basis of the British policy in India for more than 60 years. The administrations of Lord Lytton, Lord Ripon and Lord Curzon were important during this period.

Lord Lytton (1876-1880)

Lord Lytton was an experienced diplomat and a man of striking ability and brilliance. The British Prime Minister, Disraeli appointed him as the Viceroy of India. The prevailing famine and the political disturbances in



LORD LYTTON

the North West Frontier caused a great worry to the British at that time.

Famine Policy

The famine of 1876-78 had resulted from the failure of two monsoons. It covered an area of two lakh fifty thousand square miles and affected fifty eight million people. The worst affected areas were Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad, Bombay, Central India and the Punjab. It took a toll of five million lives in a single year. The outbreak of cholera and fever added to the misery of the suffering population. Lytton's Government failed miserably to tackle the situation. The government's relief measures seemed to be inadequate. The first Famine Commission (1878-80) under Sir Richard Strachey was appointed and it made many commendable recommendations. They include provision of funds for famine relief and construction work in the annual budget. The Famine Code came into existence in 1883.

The Vernacular Press Act and the Arms Act (1878)

In 1878, the **Vernacular Press Act** was passed. This Act empowered a Magistrate to secure an undertaking from the editor, publisher and printer of a vernacular newspaper that nothing would be published against the English Government. The equipment of the press could be seized if the offence was committed. This Act crushed the freedom of the Indian press. This created adverse public opinion against the British Government. In the same year, the **Arms Act** was passed. This Act prevented the Indians to keep arms without appropriate license. Its violation would be a criminal offence. The Europeans and the Anglo- Indians were exempted from the operation of these legislations.

Other Reforms

Lord Lytton introduced uniform salt tax throughout British India. He also abolished many import duties and supported the Free Trade

Policy. This had seriously affected the Indian economic interest. The system of decentralisation of finance that had begun in the time of Lord Mayo was continued during the time of Lord Lytton. The provincial governments were empowered with some control over the expenditure of all provincial matters like land-revenue, excise, stamps, law and justice. Lytton wanted to encourage the provinces in collecting the revenue and thereby strengthen the financial power and position of the provinces. In 1878, the Statutory Civil Service was established exclusively for Indians but this was abolished later.

Lytton and the Second Afghan War (1878-80)

The Afghan policy of the British was based on the assumed threat of Russian invasion of India. The first Afghan War (1838-42) proved to be a disastrous one for the British in India. When Lord Lytton was appointed the Viceroy of India, he was instructed by the home government to follow a forward policy. The Russian attempt to send a mission to Afghanistan was the main cause of the Second Afghan War.

Soon after the outbreak of the war in 1878, the British troops captured the territory between Kabul and Kandahar. The ruler of Afghanistan, Sher Ali fled from his country and died in 1879. His son Yakub Khan became the ruler and the British concluded the **Treaty of Gandamak** with him. A British Resident was sent to Kabul but soon he was murdered along with other British officers by the Afghan rebels. Although the British troops were able to recapture Kabul, the difficulties in holding it increased due to the activities of the rebels. Suddenly in 1780, Lytton was forced to resign by the new government in England.

Lytton's Afghan policy was severely criticised because he was responsible for the murder of the British officers including the Resident in Kabul. During his administration, millions died due to famine. The Vernacular Press Act undermined his credit.

Lord Ripon (1880-84)

Lord Ripon was a staunch Liberal democrat with faith in self-government. He was appointed as the Viceroy of India by Gladstone, the Liberal Party Prime Minister of England. Ripon was instructed to reverse the Afghan policy of Lytton. Therefore, as soon as he came to India, peace was made with Afghanistan without affecting the British prestige. The proposal of appointing a Resident in Kabul was dropped. He was also responsible for the rendition of Mysore to its Hindu ruler. Moreover, he repealed the Vernacular Press Act and earned much popularity among Indians. Then, he devoted himself to task of liberalising the Indian administration.



LORD RIPON

Introduction of Local Self-Government (1882)

Ripon believed that self-government is the highest and noblest principles of politics. Therefore, Ripon helped the growth of local bodies like the Municipal Committees in towns and the local boards in taluks and villages. The powers of municipalities were increased. Their chairmen were to be non-officials. They were entrusted the care of local amenities, sanitation, drainage and water-supply and also primary education. District and taluk boards were created. It was insisted that the majority of the members of these boards should be elected non-officials. The local bodies were given executive powers with financial resources of their own. It was perhaps the desire of Ripon that power in India should be gradually transferred to the educated Indians. He also insisted on the election of local bodies as against selection by the government. In all these measures, Ripon's concern was not so much for efficiency in administration. Instead, Ripon diffused the administration and brought the government closer to the people. This was his most important achievement. It was Ripon who laid the foundations of the system which functions today.

Educational Reforms

Like Lord William Bentinck, Lord Ripon was a champion of education of the Indians. Ripon wanted to review the working of the educational system on the basis of the recommendations of the Wood's Despatch. For further improvement of the system Ripon appointed a Commission in 1882 under the chairmanship of Sir William Hunter. The Commission came to be known as the Hunter Commission. The Commission recommended for the expansion and improvement of the elementary education of the masses. The Commission suggested two channels for the secondary education-one was literary education leading up to the Entrance Examination of the university and the other preparing the students for a vocational career. The Commission noted the poor status of women education. It encouraged the local bodies in the villages and towns to manage the elementary education. This had resulted in the extraordinary rise in the number of educational institutions in India.

First Factory Act (1881)

Lord Ripon introduced the Factory Act of 1881 to improve the service condition of the factory workers in India. The Act banned the appointment of children below the age of seven in factories. It reduced the working hours for children. It made compulsory for all dangerous machines in the factories to be properly fenced to ensure security to the workers.

Ilbert Bill Agitation (1884)

Lord Ripon wanted to remove two kinds of law that had been prevalent in India. According to the system of law, a European could be tried only by a European Judge or a European Magistrate. The disqualification was unjust and it was sought to cast a needless discredit and dishonour upon the Indian-born members of the judiciary. C.P. Ilbert, Law Member, introduced a bill in 1883 to abolish this

discrimination in judiciary. But Europeans opposed this Bill strongly. They even raised a fund of one lakh fifty thousand rupees and established an organisation called the Defence Association. They also suggested that it was better to end the English rule in India than to allow the English to be subjected to the Indian Judges and Magistrates. The press in England joined the issue. Hence, Ripon amended the bill to satisfy the English in India and England.

The Ilbert Bill controversy helped the cause of Indian nationalism. The Ilbert Bill Controversy is a high watermark in the history of Indian National Movement. Ripon was totally disillusioned and heartbroken and he tendered his resignation and left for England. The immediate result of this awakening of India was the birth of the Indian National Congress in 1885, the very next year of Ripon's departure.

Estimate of Lord Ripon

Lord Ripon was the most popular Viceroy that England ever sent to India. The Indians by and large hailed him as "Ripon the Good", because he was the only Viceroy who handled the Indian problems with compassion and sympathy. His attempt to remove racial distinction in the judiciary, the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, the rendition of Mysore and the introduction of the Local-Self Government increased his popularity among Indians. His resignation was deeply regretted by Indians who cherished his memory with gratitude.

Lord Curzon (1899-1905)

Lord Curzon occupies a high place among the rulers of British India like Lord Wellesley and Lord Dalhousie. He was a thorough imperialist. In order to make the administration efficient, Lord Curzon overhauled the entire administrative machinery. His internal administration may be studied under the following heads.



LORD CURZON

Educational Reforms

Curzon took a serious view of the fall in the standard of education and discipline in the educational institutions. In his view the universities had degenerated into factories for producing political revolutionaries. To set the educational system in order, he instituted in **1902, a Universities Commission** to go into the entire question of university education in the country. On the basis of the findings and recommendations of the Commission, Curzon brought in the Indian Universities Act of 1904, which brought all the universities in India under the control of the government.

Police and Military Reforms

Curzon believed in efficiency and discipline. He instituted a Police Commission in 1902 under the chairmanship of **Sir Andrew Frazer**. Curzon accepted all the recommendations and implemented them. He set up training schools for both the officers and the constables and introduced provincial police service. As for the remodeling of the army, it was by and large done by Lord Kitchener, the Commander-in-Chief in India in Curzon's time.

Calcutta Corporation Act (1899)

The Viceroy brought in a new legislative measure namely the Calcutta Corporation Act in 1899 by which the strength of the elected members was reduced and that of the official members increased. Curzon gave more representations to the English people as against the Indians in the Calcutta Corporation. There was strong resentment by the Indian members against Curzon's anti-people measures.

Preservation of Archaeological objects

Curzon had a passion for preserving the ancient monuments of historical importance in India. No Viceroy in India before or after him took such a keen interest in archaeological objects. He passed a

law called the Ancient Monuments Act, 1904 which made it obligatory on the part of the government and local authorities to preserve the monuments of archaeological importance and their destruction an offence.

Partition of Bengal, 1905

The Partition of Bengal into two provinces was effected on 4 July 1905. The new province of Eastern Bengal and Assam included the whole of Assam and the Dacca, Rajshahi and Chittagong divisions of Bengal with headquarters at Dacca. Though Curzon justified his action on administrative lines, partition divided the Hindus and Muslims in Bengal. This led to the anti-partition agitation all over the country. This had also intensified the National Movement.

Estimate of Lord Curzon

Lord Curzon assumed his office, when he was forty years old. All his reform measures were preceded by an expert Commission and its recommendations. He made a serious study of the Indian problems in all their aspects. At the beginning Curzon earned the popularity and admiration of the Indian people. He lost the popularity by the act of Partition of Bengal.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson students would acquire knowledge about

- 1. Lytton's unpopular measures such as the Vernacular Press Act and inadequate handling of the famine situation.*
- 2. His failure in Afghan policy which led to the murder of English officers.*
- 3. Lord Ripon's liberal reforms in the sphere of education, local-self government and labour welfare.*
- 4. His efforts to end the racial discrimination in the judiciary and that the Ilbert Bill issue was also responsible for the rise of national movement.*
- 5. Lord Curzon's reforms and also his anti-Indian measure of the Partition of Bengal and its impact.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Name the first Viceroy of India.
(a) Warren Hastings (b) Lord Dalhousie
(c) Lord Canning (d) Lord Ripon
2. In which year the Vernacular Press Act was passed?
(a) 1878 (b) 1882
(c) 1898 (d) 1902

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The first Famine Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of
2. The Indian Universities Act was passed in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Arms Act | a. Andrew Fraser |
| 2. Local Self-Government | b. Lord Curzon |
| 3. Education Commission | c. Lord Ripon |
| 4. Partition of Bengal | d. William Hunter |
| 5. Police Commission | e. Lord Lytton |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) Lord Ripon was asked to follow the Afghan policy of Lord Lytton.
- b) Lord Ripon earned popularity among the Indians by repealing the Vernacular Press Act.

- c) Lord Ripon gave scant attention to educational reforms.
- d) Lord Ripon introduced the Factory Act in 1882.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The British Prime Minister Disraeli appointed Lord Lytton as the Viceroy of India.
- 2. The Vernacular Press Act crushed the freedom of the Indian Press.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. The Vernacular Press Act.
- 2. Hunter Commission.
- 3. Ilbert Bill Controversy.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on the Famine Policy followed by Lord Lytton.
- 2. Discuss the Importance of Local Self-Government.
- 3. Point out the educational reforms of Lord Curzon.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the Afghan policy of Lord Lytton.
- 2. Estimate the reforms of Lord Ripon.
- 3. Give an account of the administration of Lord Curzon.

LESSON 13

SOCIO-RELIGIOUS REFORM MOVEMENTS

Learning Objectives

Students will come to know

- 1. The Brahmo Samaj and its services.*
- 2. The reforms of Arya Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission and similar organizations.*
- 3. The services rendered by social reformers like Raja Rammohan Roy, Swami Dayanand Saraswathi and Vivekananda.*
- 4. Reform Movements among the Muslims in India.*
- 5. Sikh and Parsi reform movements.*
- 6. Socio-religious reforms in Tamil Nadu led by Saint Ramalinga and Vaikunda swamigal.*

In the history of modern India, the socio-religious reforms occupy a significant place. Social reformers like Raja Rammohan Roy, Swami Dayanand Sarawathi and Swami Vivekananda were responsible for the social and cultural awakening in India. The spread of liberal ideas of the west provided further stimulus for the emergence of reform movements. These movements introduced important changes in social and religious life of the people of India.



RAMMOHAN ROY

Raja Rammohan Roy and the Brahmo Samaj

Raja Rammohan Roy established the **Brahmo Samaj** at Calcutta in 1828 in order to purify Hinduism and to preach **monotheism**. He is considered as the first ‘modern man of India’. He was a pioneer of socio-religious reform movements in modern India.

Born in 1772 in the Hooghly district of Bengal, he inculcated a brilliant freedom of thought and rationality. He studied *the Bible* as well as Hindu and Muslim religious texts. He had excellent command over many languages including English, Sanskrit, Persian, Arabic, French, Latin, Greek and Hebrew.

In 1815, he established the **Atmiya Sabha**. Later, it was developed into the Brahmo Sabha in August 1828. Through this organisation, he preached that there is only one God. He combined the teachings of the *Upanishads*, the *Bible* and the *Koran* in developing unity among the people of different religions. The work of the Atmiya Sabha was carried on by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore (father of Rabindranath Tagore), who renamed it as Brahmo Samaj. He turned the Brahmo Samaj into a leading social organisation of India.

Raj Rammohan Roy is most remembered for helping Lord William Bentinck to declare the practice of *Sati* a punishable offence in 1829. He also protested against the child marriage and female infanticide. He favored the remarriage of widows, female education and women's right to property. He felt that the caste system was the greatest hurdle to Indian unity. He believed in the equality of mankind. He did not believe in the supremacy of the Brahmin priests. He favoured inter-caste marriages. He himself adopted a Muslim boy. In 1817, he founded the Hindu College (now Presidency College, Calcutta) along with David Hare, a missionary. He also set up schools for girls.

Rammohan Roy started the first Bengali weekly *Samvad Kaumudi* and edited a Persian weekly *Mirat-ul-akhbar*. He stood for the freedom of the press. Rammohan died in Bristol in England in 1833.

Henry Vivian Derozio and the Young Bengal Movement

Henry Vivian Derozio was the founder of the **Young Bengal Movement**. He was born in Calcutta in 1809 and taught in the Hindu College, Calcutta. He died of cholera in 1833. His followers were known as the Derozians and their movement the Young Bengal Movement. They attacked old traditions and decadent customs. They also advocated women's rights and their education. They founded associations and organized debates against idol worship, casteism and superstitions.



VIVIAN DEROZIO

Swami Dayanand Saraswathi and the Arya Samaj

The **Arya Samaj** was founded by **Swami Dayanand**



Swami Dayanand
Saraswathi

Saraswathi at Bombay in 1875. Born in Kathiawar in Gujarat, Swami Dayanand (1824-83) was a scholar, a patriot, a social reformer and a revivalist. He believed the *Vedas* were the source of true knowledge. His motto was "Back to the Vedas". He was against idol worship, child marriage and caste system based on birth. He encouraged inter-caste marriages and widow remarriage. He

started the Suddhi movement to bring back those Hindus who had converted to other religions to its fold. He wrote the book *Satyartha Prakash* which contains his ideas.

The Arya Samaj, though founded in Bombay, became very powerful in Punjab and spread its influence to other parts of India. It has contributed very much to the spread of education. The first Dayanand Anglo-Vedic (DAV) School was founded in 1886 at Lahore. Many more schools came up in other parts of India in later years. The Arya Samaj had also spread nationalism. Hundreds of Arya

Samaj patriots, including Lala Lajpat Rai, took part in the Indian freedom struggle.

Prarthana Samaj

The Prarthana Samaj was founded in 1867 in Bombay by **Dr. Atmaram Pandurang**. It was an off-shoot of Brahmo Samaj. It was a reform movement within Hinduism and concentrated on social reforms like inter-dining, inter-marriage, widow remarriage and uplift of women and depressed classes. Justice M.G. Ranade and R.G. Bhandarkar joined it in 1870 and infused new strength to it. Justice Ranade promoted the Deccan Education Society.



M.G. RANADE

Swami Vivekananda and Ramakrishna Mission

The original name of **Swami Vivekananda** was Narendranath Dutta (1863-1902) and he became the most famous disciple of **Shri Ramkrishna Paramahansa**. He was born in a prosperous Bengali family of Calcutta and educated in Scottish Church College. In 1886 Narendranath took the vow of **Sanyasa** and was given the name, Vivekananda. He preached Vedantic Philosophy. He condemned the caste system and the current Hindu emphasis on rituals and ceremonies. Swami Vivekananda participated at the **Parliament of Religions** held in **Chicago (USA)** in September 1893 and raised the prestige of India and Hinduism very high.



SWAMI VIVEKANANDA

Vivekananda preached the message of strength and self-reliance. He asked the people to improve the lives of the poor and depressed classes. He believed that service to mankind is service to

God. He founded the Ramkrishna Mission at Belur in Howrah in 1897. It is a social service and charitable society. The objectives of this Mission are providing humanitarian relief and social work through the establishment of schools, colleges, hospitals and orphanages.

Theosophical Society

The Theosophical Society was founded in New York (USA) in 1875 by Madam H.P. Blavatsky, a Russian lady, and Henry Steel Olcott, an American colonel. Their main objectives were to form a universal brotherhood of man without any distinction of race, colour or creed and to promote the study of ancient religions and philosophies. They arrived in India and established their headquarters at Adyar in Madras in 1882. Later in 1893, Mrs. Annie Besant arrived in India and took over the leadership of the Society after the death of Olcott. Mrs. Annie Besant founded the Central Hindu School along with Madan Mohan Malaviya at Benaras which later developed into the Banaras Hindu University.



MADAM BLAVATSKY

Pandit Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Pandit Ishwar Chandra was a great educator, humanist and social reformer. He was born in 1820 in a village in Midnapur, Bengal. He rose to be the Head Pandit of the Bengali Department of Fort William College. He firmly believed that reform in Indian society could only come about through education. Vidyasagar founded many schools for girls. He helped J.D. Bethune to establish the Bethune School. He founded the Metropolitan Institution in Calcutta. He protested against child marriage and favoured widow



PANDIT VIDYASAGAR

remarriage which was legalised by the Widow Remarriage Act (1856). It was due to his great support for the spread of education that he was given the title of Vidyasagar.

Jyotiba Phule

Jyotiba Phule belonged to a low caste family in Maharashtra. He waged a life-long struggle against upper caste domination and Brahmanical supremacy. In 1873 he founded the Satyashodak Samaj to fight against the caste system. He pioneered the widow remarriage movement in Maharashtra and worked for the education for women. Jyotiba Phule and his wife established the first girls' school at Poona in 1851.

Muslim Reform Movements

The Muslim reform movements started a little later because they had avoided western education in the beginning. The first effort was in 1863 when the Muhammad Literary Society was set up in Calcutta. Its aim was to popularise the study of English and western sciences. It established a number of schools in Bengal.

Aligarh Movement

The Aligarh Movement was started by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan (1817-98) for the social and educational advancement of the Muslims in India. He fought against the medieval backwardness and



SYED AHMAD KHAN

advocated a rational approach towards religion. In 1866, he started the Mohammadan Educational Conference as a general forum for spreading liberal ideas among the Muslims. In 1875, he founded a modern school at Aligarh to promote English education among the Muslims. This had later grown into the **Mohammadan Anglo Oriental College** and then into the Aligarh Muslim University.

The Deoband School

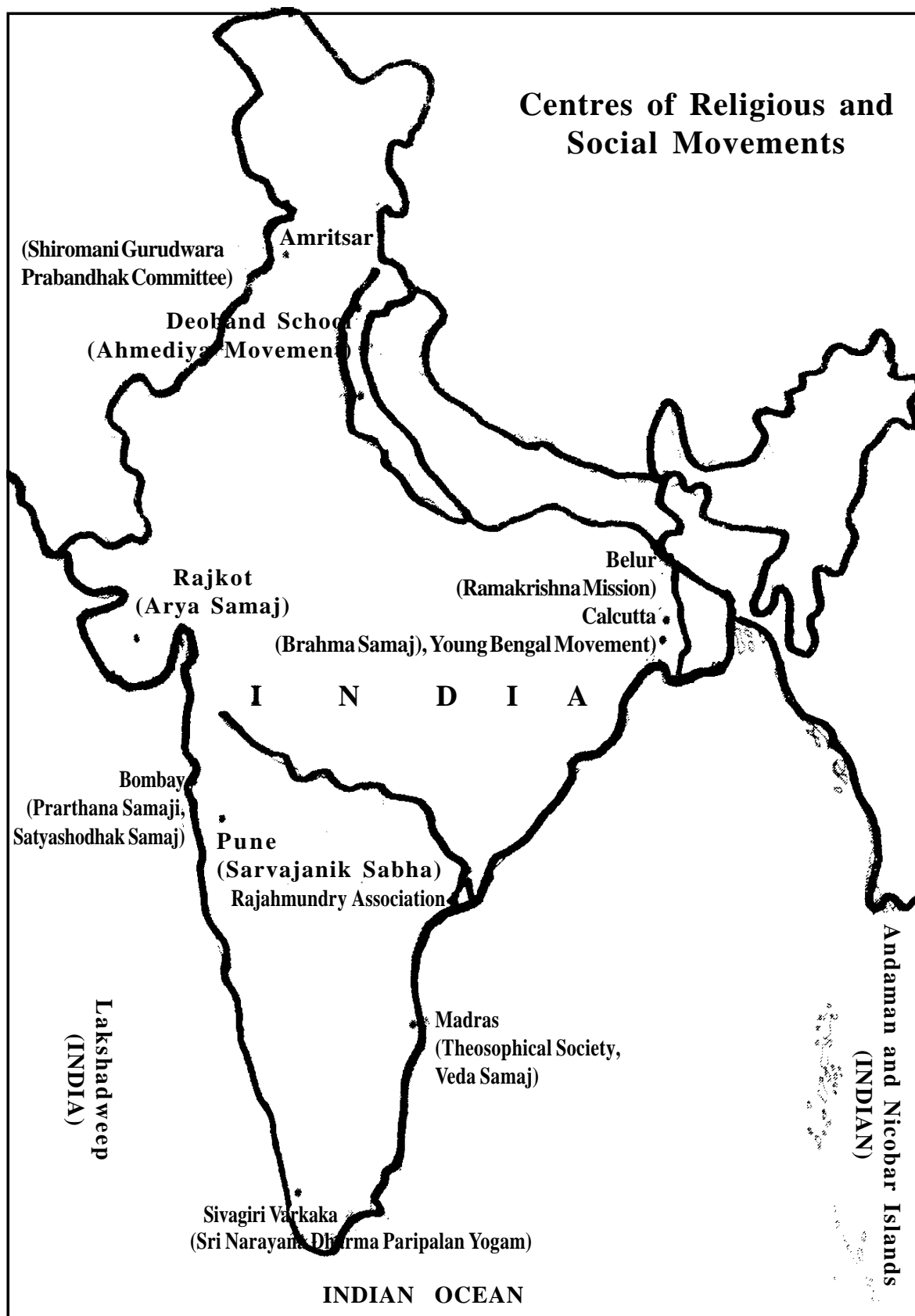
The orthodox section among the Muslim *ulema* organised the Deoband Movement. It was a revivalist movement whose twin objectives were : (i) to propagate among the Muslims the pure teachings of the *Koran* and the *Hadis* and (ii) to keep alive the spirit of *jihad* against the foreign rulers. The new Deoband leader Mahmud-ul-Hasan (1851-1920) sought to impart a political and intellectual content to the religious ideas of the school. The liberal interpretation of Islam created a political awakening among its followers.

Sikh Reform Movement

Punjab also came under the spell of reforms. Baba Dayal Das founded the **Nirankari Movement**. He insisted the worship of God as nirankar (formless). The **Namdhari Movement** was founded by Baba Ram Singh. His followers wore white clothes and gave up meat eating. The Singh Sabhas started in Lahore and Amritsar in 1870 were aimed at reforming the Sikh society. They helped to set up the Khalsa College at Amritsar in 1892. They also encouraged Gurmukhi and Punjabi literature. In 1920, the Akalis started a movement to remove the corrupt Mahants (priests) from the Sikh gurudwaras. The British government was forced to make laws on this matter. Later, the Akalis organised themselves into a political party.

Parsi Reform Movement

The Parsi Religious Reform Association was founded at Bombay by Furdunji Naoroji and S.S. Bengalee in 1851. They advocated the spread of women's education. They also wanted to reform their marriage customs. Naoroji published a monthly journal, *Jagat Mithra*. The momentum gathered through these reform movements and went a long way in uplifting the entire community. By the middle of the twentieth century most of them were highly



placed in various capacities and have made a significant contribution to India's development.

Saint Ramalinga

Saint Ramalinga was one of the foremost saints of Tamil Nadu in the nineteenth century. He was born on October 5, 1823 at Marudhur, near Chidambaram. He was the last son of his father, Ramayya Pillai and mother, Chinnammayar.

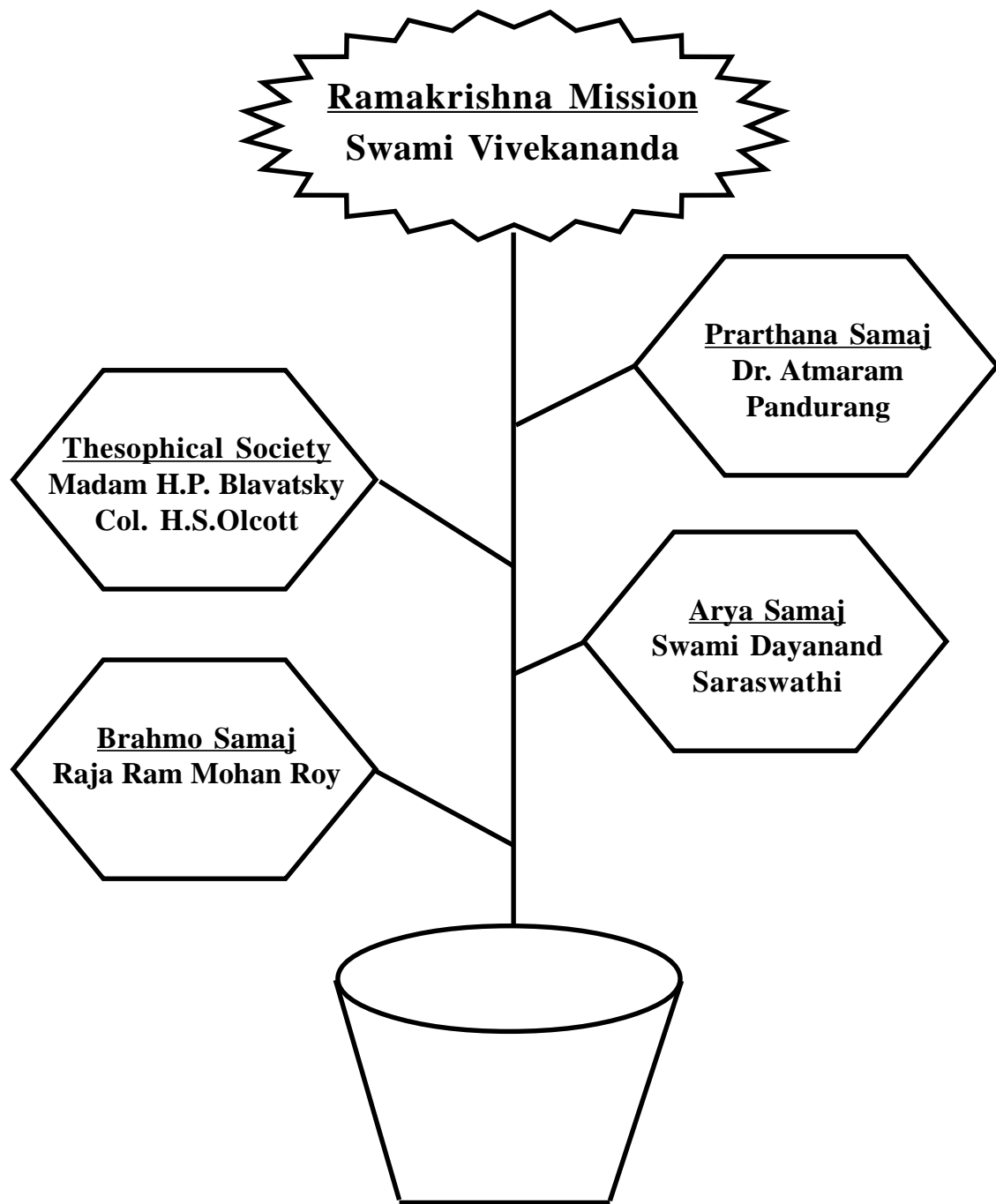


SAINT RAMALINGA

Developing a deep interest in spiritual life, Ramalinga moved to Karunguli in 1858, a place near Vadalur where the Saint later settled down. His divine powers came to be recognised at the early age of eleven. In 1865 he founded the **Samarasa Suddha Sanmargha Sangha** for the promotion of his ideals of establishing a casteless society. He preached love and compassion to the people. He composed *Tiru Arutpa*. His other literary works include *Manu Murai Kanda Vasagam* and *Jeeva Karunyam*. His language was so simple as to enable the illiterate people to understand his teachings. In 1870 he moved to Mettukuppam, a place three miles away from Vadalur. There he started constructing the **Satya Gnana Sabai** in 1872. He introduced the principle that God could be worshipped in the form of Light.

Sri Vaikunda Swamigal

Sri Vaikunda Swamigal was born in 1809 at Swamithoppu in the Kanyakumari district of Tamil Nadu. His original name was Mudichoodum Perumal but he was called Muthukkutty. He preached against the caste system and untouchability. He also condemned religious ceremonies. Many came to his place to worship him and slowly his teachings came to be known as **Ayyavazhi**. By the mid-nineteenth century, Ayyavazhi came to be recognized as a separate religion and spread in the regions of South Travancore and South



Tirunelveli. After his death, the religion was spread on the basis of his teachings and the religious books *Akilattirattu Ammanai* and *Arul Nool*. Hundreds of Nizhal Thangals (places of worship) were built across the country.

Self-Respect Movement and Periyar E.V.R.

Periyar E.V. Ramaswamy was a great social reformer. In 1921, during the anti-liquor campaign he cut down 1000 coconut trees in his own farm. In 1924, he took an active part in the Vaikam Satyagraha. The objective of the Satyagraha was to secure for untouchables the right to use a road near a temple at Vaikom in Kerala. E.V.R. opposed the **Varnashrama policy** followed in the V.V.S. Iyer's Seranmadevi Gurugulam. During 1920-1925 being in the Congress Party he stressed that Congress should accept communal representation.



PERIYAR E.V.R.

Subsequently in 1925, he started the "Self-Respect Movement". The aims of the 'Self -Respect Movement' were to uplift the Dravidians and to expose the Brahminical tyranny and deceptive methods by which they controlled all spheres of Hindu life. He denounced the caste system, child marriage and enforced widowhood. He encouraged inter-caste marriages. He himself conducted many marriages without any rituals. Such a marriage was known as "Self-Respect Marriage." He gave secular names to new born babies.

He attacked the laws of Manu, which he called the basis of the entire Hindu social fabric of caste. He founded the Tamil journals *Kudiarasu*, *Puratchi* and *Viduthalai* to propagate his ideals.

In 1938 at Tamil Nadu Women's Conference appreciating the noble service rendered by E.V.R. he was given the title "**Periyar**". On 27th June 1970 by the UNESCO organisation praised and adorned with the title "**Socrates of South Asia**".

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson students would acquire knowledge about

- 1. Raja Rammohan Roy and the Brahmo Samaj.*
- 2. Swami Dayanand and the services of Arya Samaj.*
- 3. Swami Vivekananda's life and ideals and also the social services rendered by the Ramakrishna Mission*
- 4. The Muslim Reform movements such as the Deoband School, the Aligarh Movement.*
- 5. The Nirankari and Namdari movements among the Sikhs and the Parsi reform movement.*
- 6. St. Ramalinga's Samarasa Suddha Sanmarga, Vaikuntaswami's Ayyavazhi.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Brahmo Samaj was established in the year
(a) 1827 (b) 1828
(c) 1829 (d) 1838
2. Who among the following started the Aligarh Movement?
(a) Sir Syed Ahmed Khan (b) Salimullah Khan
(c) Muhammad Ali Jinnah (d) Muhammad al Hasan
3. Satya Gnana Sabai was started at
(a) Madurai (b) Rameswaram
(c) Vadalur (d) Chidambaram

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. was the Bengali Weekly started by Raj Rammohan Roy.
2. Swami Dayanadha Saraswathi was the author of
3. The Satya Shodak Samaj was founded by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Atmiya Sabha | a. Olcott |
| 2. Young Bengal Movement | b. Raja Rammohan Roy |
| 3. Prarthana Samaj | c. Baba Dayal |
| 4. Nirankari Movement | d. Henry Vivian Derozio |
| 5. Thesopical Society | e. Atmaram Pandurang |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) In 1815 Dayanand Saraswathi established the Atmiya Sabha.

- b) Rammohan Roy started the first Bengali weekly *Samvad Kaumudi*.
- c) Rabindranath Tagore was the founder of the Young Bengal Movement.
- d) The Prarthana Samaj was founded in 1867 in Bombay

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The motto of Swami Dayanand Saraswathi was ‘Back to the Vedas’.
- 2. The original name of Shri Ramakrishna was Narendranath Dutta.
- 3. Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagara opposed the widow remarriage.
- 4. Saint Ramalinga composed Thiru Arutpa.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Arya Samaj
- 2. Swami Vivekananda
- 3. Jyotiba Phule
- 4. Sri Vaikunta Swamigal

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Discuss the principles of Saint Ramalinga.
- 2. Examine the Islamic Reform movements.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. “Raja Rammohan Roy was the father of Indian Renaissance” – Discuss.
- 2. Examine the importance of the socio-religious reform movements of 19th century India.

LESSON 14

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1885-1905)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The growth of East India Company's Rule in India.*
- 1. Origin and growth of nationalism in India..*
- 2. Birth of Indian National Congress.*
- 3. The objectives and methods of Early Nationalist Movement.*
- 4. Leaders of this period.*
- 5. Achievements of moderates.*

Factors Promoting the Growth of Nationalism in India

The following causes are responsible for the origin and growth of nationalism in India.

1. Political Unity

For the first time, most of the regions in India were united politically and administratively under a single power (the British rule). It introduced a uniform system of law and government.

2. Development of Communication and Transport

The introduction of railways, telegraphs and postal services and the construction of roads and canals facilitated communication among the people. All these brought Indians nearer to each other and provided the facility to organise the national movement on an all India basis.

3. English Language and Western Education

The English language played an important role in the growth of nationalism in the country. The English educated Indians, who led the national movement, developed Indian nationalism and organised it. Western education facilitated the spread of the concepts of liberty, equality, freedom and nationalism and sowed the seeds of nationalism.

4. The Role of the Press

The Indian Press, both English and vernacular, had also aroused the national consciousness.

5. Social and Religious Movements of the Nineteenth Century

The leaders of various organisations like the Brahmo Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission, Arya Samaj, and Theosophical Society generated a feeling of regard for and pride in the motherland.

6. Economic Exploitation by the British

A good deal of anti-British feeling was created by the economic policy pursued by the British government in India. The English systematically ruined the Indian trade and native industries. Therefore, economic exploitation by the British was one of the most important causes for the rise of Indian nationalism.

7. Racial Discrimination

The Revolt of 1857 created a kind of permanent bitterness and suspicion between the British and the Indians. The English feeling of racial superiority grew. India as a nation and Indians as individuals were subjected to insults, humiliation and contemptuous treatment.

8. Administration of Lytton

Lord Lytton arranged the Delhi Durbar at a time when the larger part of India was in the grip of famine. He passed the Vernacular Press Act which curbed the liberty of the Indian Press. His Arms Act was a

means to prevent the Indians from keeping arms. All these measures created widespread discontent among the Indians.

9. *The Ilbert Bill controversy*

The Ilbert Bill was presented in the Central Legislature during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon. The Bill tried to remove racial inequality between Indian and European judges in courts. This Bill was opposed by the British residents in India. Ultimately the Bill was modified.

Thus various factors contributed to the rise of nationalism and the formation of the Indian National Congress.

Early Political Associations

The British Indian Association – 1851 Bengal

The Bombay Association — 1852 Dadabhai Naoroji

East India Association 1856 London

Madras Native Association 1852

Poona Sarvojanik Sabha—1870

The Madras Mahajana Sabha—1884

The Indian National Congress (1885)

Allan Octavian Hume, a retired civil servant in the British Government took the initiative to form an all-India organization. Thus, the Indian National Congress was founded and its first session was held at Bombay in 1885. **W.C. Banerjee** was its first president. It was attended by 72 delegates from all over India. Persons attending the session belonged to different religious faiths. They discussed the problems of all the Indians irrespective of their religion, caste, language and regions. Thus Indian National Congress from the start was an all-India secular movement



A. O. HUME

embracing every section of Indian society. The second session was held in Calcutta in 1886 and the third in Madras in 1887.

The history of the Indian National Movement can be studied in three important phases:

- (i) The phase of moderate nationalism (1885-1905) when the Congress continued to be loyal to the British crown.
- (ii) The years 1906-1916 witnessed- Swadeshi Movement, rise of militant nationalism and the Home Rule Movement.
- (iii) The period from 1917 to 1947 is known as the Gandhian era.

Moderate Nationalism

The leading figures during the first phase of the National Movement were A.O. Hume, W.C. Banerjee, Surendra Nath Banerjee, Dadabhai Naoroji, Feroze Shah Mehta, Gopalakrishna Gokhale, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Badruddin Tyabji, Justice Ranade and G.Subramanya Aiyar.



GOKHALE

Surendranath Banerjee was called the **Indian Burke**. He firmly opposed the Partition of Bengal. He founded the **Indian Association** (1876) to agitate for political reforms. He had convened the **Indian National Conference** (1883) which merged with the Indian National Congress in 1886. G. Subramanya Aiyar preached nationalism through the Madras Mahajana Sabha. He also founded the *The Hindu* and *Swadesamitran*. Dadabhai Naoroji was known as the **Grand Old Man of India**. He is regarded as India's unofficial Ambassador in England. He was the first Indian to become a Member of the British House of Commons. Gopal Krishna Gokhale was regarded as the political guru of Gandhi. In 1905, he founded the **Servants of India Society** to train Indians to dedicate their lives to the cause of the country

For a few years the Congress enjoyed the patronage of the British administrators. Between 1885 and 1905, the Congress leaders were moderates. The Moderates had faith in the British justice and goodwill. They were called moderates because they adopted peaceful and constitutional means to achieve their demands.

Main Demands of Moderates

- Expansion and reform of legislative councils.
- Greater opportunities for Indians in higher posts by holding the ICS examination simultaneously in England and in India.
- Separation of the judiciary from the executive.
- More powers for the local bodies.
- Reduction of land revenue and protection of peasants from unjust landlords.
- Abolition of salt tax and sugar duty.
- Reduction of spending on army.
- Freedom of speech and expression and freedom to form associations

Methods of Moderates

The Moderates had total faith in the British sense of justice and fair play. They were loyal to the British. They looked to England for inspiration and guidance. The Moderates used petitions, resolutions, meetings, leaflets and pamphlets, memorandum and delegations to present their demands. They confined their political activities to the educated classes only. Their aim was to attain political rights and self-government stage by stage.

In the beginning, the British Government welcomed the birth of the Indian National Congress. In 1886, Governor General Lord Dufferin gave a tea garden party for the Congress members in Calcutta. The

government officials had also attended Congress sessions. With the increase in Congress demands, the government became unfriendly. It encouraged the Muslims to stay away from the Congress. The only demand of the Congress granted by the British was the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act of 1892.

Achievements of Moderates

1. The Moderates were able to create a wide national awakening among the people.
2. They popularized the ideas of democracy, civil liberties and representative institutions.
3. They explained how the British were exploiting Indians. Particularly, Dadabhai Naoroji in his famous book *Poverty and UnBritish Rule in India* wrote his Drain Theory. He showed how India's wealth was going away to England in the form of: (a) salaries, (b) savings, (c) pensions, (d) payments to British troops in India and (e) profits of the British companies. In fact, the British Government was forced to appoint the Welby Commission, with Dadabhai as the first Indian as its member, to enquire into the matter.
4. Some Moderates like Ranade and Gokhale favoured social reforms. They protested against child marriage and widowhood.
5. The Moderates had succeeded in getting the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act of 1892.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson students would be able to explain

- 1. The factors led to the growth of Indian nationalism.*
- 2. The birth and growth of the Indian National Congress.*
- 3. A brief sketch of the leaders of the moderate nationalism.*
- 4. The aims and methods of the moderates in claiming their demands.*
- 5. The British exploitation of the Indian economy and the Drain Theory.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Indian National Congress was founded by
 - (a) W.C. Banerjee
 - (b) A.O. Hume
 - (c) Mahatma Gandhi
 - (d) Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose
2. Who among the following was the political Guru of Gandhiji ?
 - (a) Surendra Nath Banerjee
 - (b) Gopala Krishna Gokhale
 - (c) Bala Gangadhar Tilak
 - (d) Bipin Chandra Pal

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The first session of the Indian National Congress was held at
2. was the first Indian to become a member of the British House of Commons.

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Delhi Durbar | a. S.N. Banerjee |
| 2. Ilbert Bill Controversy | b. Gokhale |
| 3. Indian Association | c. Lord Lytton |
| 4. Servants of India Society | d. Dadhabai Naoroji |
| 5. Drain Theory | e. Lord Ripon |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Revolt of 1857 created a kind of permanent bitterness and suspicion between the British and the Indians.
- b) Lord Ripon arranged the Delhi Durbar at a time when the larger part of India was in the grip of famine.
- c) A.O. Hume was the first president of the INC in 1885.
- d) Gokhale was called the Indian Burke.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. W.C. Banerjee was the first President of the Indian National Congress.
- 2. The book *Poverty and UnBritish Rule in India* was written by S.N. Banerjee.
- 3. The administration of Lord Lytton contributed to the growth of nationalism in India.
- 4. The period from 1906 to 1916 is known as the era of moderate nationalism.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Indian National Congress.
- 2. Dadhabai Naoroji.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on the main demands of the moderates.
- 2. Discuss the methods adopted by the moderates in the first phase of the Indian National Movement.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the causes for the rise of nationalism in India.
- 2. Evaluate the achievements of the moderates.

LESSON 15

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1905-1916)

Learning Objectives

Students will come to know

- 1. The causes for the rise of extremism in the Indian National Movement.*
- 2. Main objective and methods of extremists.*
- 3. Leaders of extremists such as Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal and Lala Lajpat Rai.*
- 4. The impact of the Partition of Bengal on national movement.*
- 5. Swadeshi Movement and the achievements of extremists.*
- 6. The birth of Muslim League.*
- 7. The Home Rule Movement.*

The period from 1905 was known as the era of extremism in the Indian National Movement. The extremists or the aggressive nationalists believed that success could be achieved through bold means. The important extremist leaders were Lala Lajpat Rai, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh.

Causes for the Rise of Extremism

1. The failure of the Moderates to win any notable success other than the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act (1892).
2. The famine and plague of 1896-97 which affected the whole country and the suffering of the masses.

3. The economic conditions of the people became worse.
4. The ill-treatment of Indians in South Africa on the basis of colour of skin.
5. The Russo-Japanese war of 1904-5 in which Japan defeated the European power Russia. This encouraged Indians to fight against the European nation, Britain.
6. The immediate cause for the rise of extremism was the reactionary rule of Lord Curzon:
 - He passed the Calcutta Corporation Act, (1899) reducing the Indian control of this local body.
 - The Universities Act (1904) reduced the elected members in the University bodies. It also reduced the autonomy of the universities and made them government departments.
 - The Sedition Act and the Official Secrets Act reduced the freedoms of all people.
 - His worst measure was the Partition of Bengal (1905).

Main Objective of Extremists

Their main objective was to attain *Swaraj* or complete independence and not just self-government.

Methods of the Extremists

The Extremists had no faith in the British sense of justice and fair play. They pointed out the forceful means by which the British had taken control of India. They believed that political rights will have to be fought for. They had the spirit of self-reliance and self-determination.

The methods used by the extremists were:

1. Not cooperating with the British Government by boycotting government courts, schools and colleges.
2. Promotion of Swadeshi and boycott of foreign goods.
3. Introduction and promotion of national education.

Leaders of the Extremists

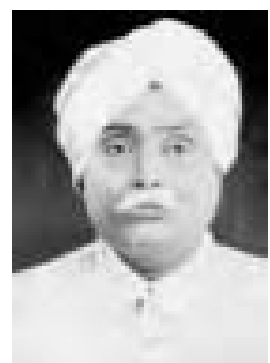
The extremists were led by Bala Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipinchandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh.



TILAK

Bal Gangadhar Tilak is regarded as the real founder of the popular anti-British movement in India. He was known as '**Lokamanya**'. He attacked the British through his weeklies *The Mahratta* and the *Kesari*. He was jailed twice by the British for his nationalist activities and in 1908 deported to Mandalay for six years. He set up the Home Rule League in 1916 at Poona and declared "Swaraj is my birth-right and I will have it."

Lala Lajpat Rai is popularly known as the '**Lion of Punjab**'. He played an important role in the Swadeshi Movement. He founded the Indian Home Rule League in the US in 1916. He was deported to Mandalay on the ground of sedition. He received fatal injuries while leading a procession against the Simon Commission and died on November 17, 1928.



LALA LAJPAT RAI

Bipan Chandra Pal began his career as a moderate and turned an extremist. He played an important role in the Swadeshi Movement. He preached nationalism through the nook and corner of Indian by his powerful speeches and writings.

Aurobinda Ghosh was another extremist leader and he actively participated in the Swadeshi Movement. He was also imprisoned. After his release he settled in the French territory of Pondicherry and concentrated on spiritual activities.

Partition of Bengal and the Rise of Extremism

The partition of Bengal in 1905 provided a spark for the rise of extremism in the Indian National Movement.

Curzon's real motives were:

- To break the growing strength of Bengali nationalism since Bengal was the base of Indian nationalism.
- To divide the Hindus and Muslims in Bengal.
- To show the enormous power of the British Government in doing whatever it liked.



AUROBINDA GHOSH

On the same day when the partition came into effect, 16 October 1905, the people of Bengal organised protest meetings and observed a day of mourning. The whole political life of Bengal underwent a change. Gandhi wrote that the real awakening in India took place only after the Partition of Bengal. The anti-partition movement culminated into the Swadeshi Movement and spread to other parts of India.



DADABHAI NAOROJI

The aggressive nationalists forced Dadabhai Naoroji to speak of *Swaraj* (which was not a Moderate demand) in the Calcutta Session of Congress in 1906. They adopted the resolutions of Boycott and Swadeshi. The Moderate Congressmen were unhappy. They

wanted *Swaraj* to be achieved through constitutional methods. The differences led to a split in the Congress at the Surat session in 1907. This is popularly known as the famous **Surat Split**. The extremists came out of the Congress led by Tilak and others.

Swadeshi Movement

The Swadeshi Movement involved programmes like the boycott of government service, courts, schools and colleges and of foreign goods, promotion of Swadeshi goods, Promotion of National Education through the establishment of national schools and colleges. It was both a political and economic movement.

The Swadeshi Movement was a great success. In Bengal, even the landlords joined the movement. The women and students took to picketing. Students refused using books made of foreign paper.

The government adopted several tough measures. It passed several Acts to crush the movement. The Swadeshi volunteers were beaten badly. The cry of *Bande Mataram* was forbidden. Schools and colleges were warned not to allow their students to take part in the movement or else their aid would be stopped. Some Indian government employees lost their jobs. Extremist leaders Bala Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipin Chandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh were imprisoned and deported.

Achievements of Extremists

The achievements of extremists can be summed up as follows:

1. They were the first to demand *Swaraj* as a matter of birth right.
2. They involved the masses in the freedom struggle and broadened the social base of the National Movement.
3. They were the first to organize an all-India political movement, viz. the Swadeshi Movement.

Formation of the Muslim League (1906)

In December 1906, Muslim delegates from all over India met at Dacca for the Muslim Educational Conference. Taking advantage of this occasion, **Nawab Salimullah of Dacca** proposed the setting up of an organisation to look after the Muslim interests. The proposal was accepted. The **All-India Muslim League** was finally set up on December 30, 1906. Like the Indian National Congress, they conducted annual sessions and put their demands to the British government. Initially, they enjoyed the support of the British. Their first achievement was the separate electorates for the Muslims in the Minto-Morley reforms.

The Lucknow Pact (1916)

During the 1916 Congress session at Lucknow two major events occurred. The divided Congress became united. An understanding for joint action against the British was reached between the Congress and the Muslim League and it was called the **Lucknow Pact**. The signing of the Lucknow Pact by the Congress and the Muslim League in 1916 marked an important step in the Hindu-Muslim unity.

The Home Rule Movement (1916)

Two Home Rule Leagues were established, one by B.G. Tilak at Poona in April 1916 and the other by Mrs. Annie Besant at Madras in September 1916. The aim of the Movement was to get self-government for India within the British Empire. It believed freedom was the natural right of all nations. Moreover, the leaders of the Home Movement thought that India's resources were not being used for her needs.

The two Leagues cooperated with each other as well with the Congress and the Muslim League in putting their demand for home rule. While Tilak's Movement concentrated on Maharashtra, Annie

Besant's Movement covered the rest of the country. The Home Rule Movement had brought a new life in the national movement. There was a revival of Swadeshi. Women joined in larger numbers.

On 20 August 1917, Montague, the Secretary of State in England, made a declaration in the Parliament of England on British Government's policy towards future political reforms in India. He promised the gradual development of self-governing institutions in India. This August Declaration led to the end of the Home Rule Movement.

Revolutionary Movements

In the first half of the 20th century, revolutionary groups sprang up mainly in Bengal, Maharashtra, Punjab and Madras. The revolutionaries were not satisfied with the methods of both the moderates and extremists. Hence, they started many revolutionary secret organizations. In Bengal **Anusilan Samiti** and **Jugantar** were established. In Maharashtra Savarkar brothers had set up **Abhinava Bharat**. In the Madras Presidency, **Bharathamatha Association** was started by Nilakanta Bramachari.

In Punjab Ajit Singh set up a secret society to spread revolutionary ideas among the youth. In London, at India House, Shyamji Krishna Verma gathered young Indian nationalists like Madan Lal Dhingra, Savarkar, V.V.S. Iyer and T.S.S.Rajan. Lala Hardyal set up the '**Ghadar Party**' in USA to organise revolutionary activities from outside India.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson, the student will understand that

- 1. The policies of the British government such as the Partition of Bengal contributed to the rise of extremists.*
- 2. The aims and methods of extremists were different from the moderates.*
- 3. The Swadeshi Movement became a popular movement with its boycott of government schools and colleges.*
- 4. The Muslims were initially supported by the British.*
- 5. The importance of the Home Rule Movement.*
- 6. The activities of the revolutionaries in the cause of Indian nationalism.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which among the following is not a cause for the rise of extremism?
(a) Ilbert Bill (b) Calcutta Corporation Act
(c) The Universities Act (d) Partition of Bengal
2. The Muslim League was founded in
(a) 1906 (b) 1909
(c) 1916 (d) 1926

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The “Surat Split” in the Indian National Congress took place in the year
2. Mrs. Annie Besant established the Home Rule League at
3. Barathamatha Association was started by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. <i>Kesari</i> | a. Maharashtra |
| 2. Lion of Punjab | b. Muslim League |
| 3. Salimulla Khan | c. Lala Har Dayal |
| 4. Ghadar Party | d. B.G. Tilak |
| 5. Abhinav Bharat | e. Lala Lajpat Rai |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) The extremists were led by Gokhale.
- b) The extremists had no faith in the British sense of justice.
- c) The extremists believed in the principle of *ahimsa*.

- d) The extremists wanted to achieve *Swaraj* through the constitutional means.
- e) The differences between the moderates and extremists led to the split in the Congress at Lucknow.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The immediate cause for the rise of extremism was the reactionary rule of Lord Curzon.
- 2. The extremists were the first to demand *Swaraj* as a matter of birth right.
- 3. The All India Muslim League was set up in 1905.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Partition of Bengal.
- 2. Surat Split.
- 3. Muslim League.
- 4. Lucknow Pact.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on the rise of extremism in the Indian National Movement.
- 2. Bring out the importance of the Swadeshi Movement.
- 3. Explain the role of the Home Rule Movement in the Freedom Struggle.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Discuss the important events in the Indian National Movement from 1905 to 1916.

LESSON 16

THE INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1917-1947)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The life of Mahatma Gandhi and his involvement in Indian freedom struggle.*
- 2. The impact of Jallianwala Bagh massacre on the national movement.*
- 3. The Khilafat and Non-Cooperation Movement.*
- 4. The Civil-Disobedience Movement and Salt Satyagraha.*
- 5. The Quit India Movement and its impact on the Freedom Struggle.*
- 6. The Cabinet Mission Plan.*

Advent of Gandhi



MAHATMA GANDHI

The third and final phase of the Nationalist Movement [1917-1947] is known as the Gandhian era. During this period Mahatma Gandhi became the undisputed leader of the National Movement. His principles of **non-violence** and **Satyagraha** were employed against the British Government. Gandhi made the nationalist movement a **mass movement**.

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born at Porbandar in Gujarat on 2 October 1869. He studied law in England. He returned to India in

1891. In April 1893 he went to South Africa and involved himself in the struggle against **apartheid** (Racial discrimination against the Blacks) for twenty years. Finally, he came to India in 1915. Thereafter, he fully involved himself in the Indian National Movement.

Mahatma Gandhi began his experiments with Satyagraha against the oppressive European indigo planters at **Champaran** in Bihar in 1917. In the next year he launched another **Satyagraha at Kheda** in Gujarat in support of the peasants who were not able to pay the land tax due to failure of crops. During this struggle, Sardar Vallabhai Patel emerged as one of the trusted followers of Gandhi. In 1918, Gandhi undertook a fast unto death for the cause of **Ahmedabad Mill Workers** and finally the mill owners conceded the just demands of the workers.

On the whole, the local movements at Champaran, Kheda and Ahmedabad brought Mahatma Gandhi closer to the life of the people and their problems at the grass roots level. Consequently, he became the leader of the masses.

Rowlatt Act (1919)

In 1917, a committee was set up under the presidentship of Sir Sydney Rowlatt to look into the militant Nationalist activities. On the basis of its report the Rowlatt Act was passed in March 1919 by the Central Legislative Council. As per this Act, any person could be arrested on the basis of suspicion. No appeal or petition could be filed against such arrests. This Act was called the Black Act and it was widely opposed. An all-India hartal was organized on 6 April 1919. Meetings were held all over the country. Mahatma Gandhi was arrested near Delhi. Two prominent leaders of Punjab, Dr Satya Pal and Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew, were arrested in Amritsar.

Jallianwala Bagh Massacre (13 April, 1919)

The Jallianwala Bagh Massacre took place on 13 April 1919 and it remained a turning point in the history of India's freedom movement. In Punjab, there was an unprecedented support to the



Jallianwala Bagh Massacre

Rowlatt Satyagraha. Facing a violent situation, the Government of Punjab handed over the administration to the military authorities under General Dyer. He banned all public meetings and detained the political leaders. On 13th April, the Baisakhi day (harvest festival), a public

meeting was organized at the Jallianwala Bagh (garden). Dyer marched in and without any warning opened fire on the crowd. The firing continued for about 10 to 15 minutes and it stopped only after the ammunition exhausted. According to official report 379 people were killed and 1137 wounded in the incident. There was a nation-wide protest against this massacre and Rabindranath Tagore renounced his knighthood as a protest. The Jallianwala Bagh massacre gave a tremendous impetus to the freedom struggle.

Khilafat Movement

The chief cause of the Khilafat Movement was the defeat of Turkey in the First World War. The harsh terms of the **Treaty of Sevres (1920)** was felt by the Muslims as a great insult to them. The whole movement was based on the Muslim belief that the Caliph (the Sultan of Turkey) was the religious head of the Muslims all over the world. The Muslims in India were upset over the British attitude against Turkey and launched the Khilafat Movement.

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, M.A. Ansari, Saifuddin Kitchlew and the Ali brothers were the prominent leaders of this movement. A Khilafat Committee had been formed and on 19th October 1919, the whole country had observed the Khilafat day. On 23 November, a joint conference of the Hindus and the Muslims had also been held under the chairmanship of Mahatma Gandhi. Mahatma Gandhi was particularly interested in bringing the Hindus and the Muslims together to achieve the country's independence. Subsequently, the Khilafat Movement merged with the Non-Cooperation Movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920.

Non-Cooperation Movement (1920-1922)

Mahatma Gandhi announced his plan to begin Non-Cooperation with the government as a sequel to the Rowlatt Act, Jallianwala Bagh massacre and the Khilafat Movement. It was approved by the Indian National Congress at the Nagpur session in December, 1920.

Programmes

The programmes of the Non-Cooperation Movement were:

- Surrender of titles and honorary positions.
- Resignation of membership from the local bodies.
- Boycott of elections held under the provisions of the 1919 Act.
- Boycott of government functions.
- Boycott of courts, government schools and colleges.
- Boycott of foreign goods.
- Establishment of national schools, colleges and private panchayat courts.
- Popularizing swadeshi goods and khadi.

The movement began with Mahatma Gandhi renouncing the titles, which were given by the British. Other leaders and influential persons also followed him by surrendering their honorary posts and titles. Students came out of the government educational institutions. National schools such as the Kashi Vidyapeeth, the Bihar Vidyapeeth and the Jamia Millia Islamia were set up. All the prominent leaders of the country gave up their lucrative legal practice. Legislatures were boycotted. No leader of the Congress came forward to contest the elections for the Legislatures.

In 1921, mass demonstrations were held against the Prince of Wales during his tour of India. The government resorted to strong measures of repression. Many leaders were arrested. The Congress and the Khilafat Committees were proclaimed as illegal. At several places, bonfires of foreign clothes were organised. The message of *Swadeshi* spread everywhere. Most of the households took to weaving cloths with the help of *charkhas*.

But the whole movement was abruptly called off on 11th February 1922 by Gandhi following the **Churi Chaura incident** in the Gorakpur district of U.P. Earlier on 5th February an angry mob set fire to the police station at Churi Chaura and twenty two police men were burnt to death. Many top leaders of the country were stunned at this sudden suspension of the Non-Cooperation Movement. Mahatma Gandhi was arrested on 10 March 1922.

Significance of the Non-Cooperation Movement

1. It was the real mass movement with the participation of different sections of Indian society such as peasants, workers, students, teachers and women.
2. It witnessed the spread of nationalism to the remote corners of India.

3. It also marked the height of Hindu-Muslim unity as a result of the merger of Khilafat movement.
4. It demonstrated the willingness and ability of the masses to endure hardships and make sacrifices.

Swaraj Party

The suspension of the Non-Cooperation Movement led to a split within Congress in the **Gaya session** of the Congress in December 1922. Leaders like Motilal Nehru and Chittranjan Das formed a separate group within the Congress known as the Swaraj Party on 1 January 1923. The Swarajists wanted to contest the council elections and wreck the government from within. Elections to Legislative Councils were held in November 1923. In this, the **Swaraj Party** gained impressive successes. In the Central Legislative Council Motilal Nehru became the leader of the party whereas in Bengal the party was headed by C.R. Das.



MOTILAL NEHRU

The Swaraj Party did several significant things in the Legislative Council. It demanded the setting up of responsible government in India with the necessary changes in the Government of India Act of 1919. The party could pass important resolutions against the repressive laws of the government. When a Committee chaired by the Home Member, Alexander Muddiman considered the system of Dyarchy as proper, a resolution was passed against it in the Central Legislative Council. After the passing away of C.R. Das in June 1925, the Swaraj Party started weakening.

Simon Commission (1927)

The Act of 1919 included a provision for its review after a lapse of ten years. However, the review commission was appointed

by the British Government two years earlier of its schedule in 1927. It came to be known as **Simon Commission** after the name of its chairman, Sir John Simon. All its seven members were Englishmen. As there was no Indian member in it, the Commission faced a lot of criticism even before its landing in India. Almost all the political parties including the Congress decided to oppose the Commission.

On the fateful day of 3 February 1928 when the Commission reached Bombay, a general hartal was observed all over the country. Everywhere it was greeted with black flags and the cries of 'Simon go back'. At Lahore, the students took out a large anti-Simon Commission demonstration on 30 October 1928 under the leadership of Lala Lajpat Rai. In this demonstration, Lala Lajpat Rai was seriously injured in the police *lathi* charge and he passed away after one month.

The report of the Simon Commission was published in May 1930. It was stated that the constitutional experiment with Dyarchy was unsuccessful and in its place the report recommended the establishment of autonomous government. There is no doubt that the Simon Commission's Report became the basis for enacting the Government of India Act of 1935.

Nehru Report (1928)

In the meanwhile, the Secretary of State, Lord Birkenhead, challenged the Indians to produce a Constitution that would be acceptable to all. The challenge was accepted by the Congress, which convened an all party meeting on 28 February 1928. A committee consisting of eight was constituted to draw up a blueprint for the future Constitution of India. It was headed by Motilal Nehru. The Report published by this Committee came to be known as the **Nehru Report**. The Report favoured:

- Dominion Status as the next immediate step.

- Full responsible government at the centre.
- Autonomy to the provinces.
- Clear cut division of power between the centre and the provinces.
- A bicameral legislature at the centre.

However, the leader of the Muslim League, Mohammad Ali Jinnah regarded it as detrimental to the interests of the Muslims. Jinnah convened an All India Conference of the Muslims where he drew up a list of **Fourteen Points** as Muslim League demand.

Civil Disobedience Movement (1930-1934)

In the prevailing atmosphere of restlessness, the annual session of the Congress was held at Lahore in December 1929. During this session presided over by Jawaharlal Nehru the Congress passed the **Poorna Swaraj** resolution. Moreover, as the government failed to accept the Nehru Report, the Congress gave a call to launch the Civil Disobedience Movement. The Congress had also observed January 26, 1930 as the Day of Independence. Since then January 26th had been observed as a day of independence every year. The same date later became the Republic Day when the Indian Constitution was enforced in 1950.

The Dandi March

Thus, the stage was set for the second major struggle led by the Congress. On 12th March 1930, Gandhi began his famous March to Dandi with his chosen 79 followers to break the salt laws. He reached the coast of Dandi on 5 April 1930 after marching a distance of 200 miles and on 6 April formally launched the Civil Disobedience Movement by breaking the salt laws.



Dandi March

On 9 April, Mahatma Gandhi laid out the programme of the movement which included making of salt in every village in violation of the existing salt laws; picketing by women before the shops selling liquor, opium and foreign clothes; organising the bonfires of foreign clothes; spinning clothes by using *charkha* fighting untouchability; boycotting of schools and colleges by students and resigning from government jobs by the people. Over and above all these, the programme also called upon the people not to pay taxes to the government.

Soon, the movement spread to all parts of the country. Students, workers, farmers and women, all participated in this movement with great enthusiasm. As a reaction, the British Government arrested important leaders of the Congress and imprisoned them.

Round Table Conference

The British government adopted the strategy of talking to different political parties by convening the Round Table Conferences. The first Round Table Conference was held in November 1930 at London and it was boycotted by the Congress.

In January 1931 in order to create a conducive atmosphere for talks, the government lifted the ban on the Congress Party and released its leaders from prison. On 8 March 1931 the **Gandhi-Irwin Pact** was signed. As per this pact, Mahatma Gandhi agreed to suspend the Civil-Disobedience Movement and participate in the Second-Round Table Conference. In September 1931, the Second Round Table Conference was held at London. Mahatma Gandhi participated in the Conference but returned to India disappointed as no agreement could be reached on the demand of complete independence and on the communal question.

In January 1932, the Civil-Disobedience Movement was resumed. The government responded to it by arresting Mahatma

Gandhi and Sardar Patel and by reimposing the ban on the Congress party.

Poona Pact (1932)

By 1930, Dr Ambedkar had become a leader of national stature championing the cause of the depressed people of the country. While presenting a real picture of the condition of these people in the First Round Table Conference, he had demanded separate electorates for them. On 16 August 1932 the British Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald made an announcement, which came to be as the **Communal Award**. According to this award, the depressed classes were considered as a separate community and as such provisions were made for separate electorates for them. Mahatma Gandhi protested against the Communal Award and went on a fast unto death in the Yeravada jail on 20 September 1932.

Finally, an agreement was reached between Dr Ambedkar and Gandhi. This agreement came to be called as the **Poona Pact**. The British Government also approved of it. Accordingly, 148 seats in different Provincial Legislatures were reserved for the Depressed Classes in place of 71 as provided in the Communal Award.

The third Round Table Conference came to an end in 1932. The Congress once more did not take part in it. Nonetheless, in March 1933, the British Government issued a White Paper, which became the basis for the enactment of the Government of India Act, 1935.

The Second World War and National Movement

In 1937 elections were held under the provisions of the Government of India Act of 1935. Congress Ministries were formed in seven states of India. On 1 September 1939 the Second World War broke out. The British Government without consulting the people of India involved the country in the war. The Congress vehemently

opposed it and as a mark of protest the Congress Ministries in the Provinces resigned on 12 December 1939. The Muslim League celebrated that day as the **Deliverance Day**. In March 1940 the Muslim League demanded the creation of Pakistan.

Individual Satyagraha

During the course of the Second World War in order to secure the cooperation of the Indians, the British Government made an announcement on 8 August 1940, which came to be known as the '**August Offer**'. The August Offer envisaged that after the War a representative body of Indians would be set up to frame the new Constitution. Gandhi was not satisfied with its offer and decided to launch **Individual Satyagraha**.



VINOBA BHAVE

Individual Satyagraha was limited, symbolic and non-violent in nature and it was left to Mahatma Gandhi to choose the Satyagrahis. Acharya Vinoba Bhave was the first to offer Satyagraha and he was sentenced to three months imprisonment. Jawaharlal Nehru was the second Satyagrahi and imprisoned for four months. The individual Satyagraha continued for nearly 15 months.

Cripps Mission (1942)

In the meantime, the Viceroy, Lord Linlithgow expanded his Executive Council by including five more Indians into it in July 1941. However, in the midst of worsening wartime international situation, the British Government in its continued effort to secure Indian cooperation sent Sir Stafford Cripps to India on 23 March 1942. This is known as **Cripps Mission**.



SIR STAFFORD CRIPPS

The main recommendations of Cripps were:

- The promise of Dominion Status to India,
- Protection of minorities
- setting up of a Constituent Assembly in which there would be representatives from the Princely States along with those of the British Provinces,
- There would be provision for any Province of British India not prepared to accept this Constitution, either to retain its present constitutional position or frame a constitution of its own.

The major political parties of the country rejected the Cripps proposals. Gandhi called Cripp's proposals as a **“Post-dated Cheque”**. They did not like the rights of the Princely States either to send their representatives to the Constituent Assembly or to stay out of the Indian Union. The Muslim League was also dissatisfied as its demand for Pakistan had not been conceded in the proposal.

Quit India Movement (1942-1944)

The failure of the Cripps Mission and the fear of an impending Japanese invasion of India led Mahatma Gandhi to begin his campaign for the British to quit India. Mahatma Gandhi believed that an interim government could be formed only after the British left India and the Hindu-Muslim problem sorted out. The All India Congress Committee met at Bombay on 8 August 1942 and passed the famous **Quit India Resolution**. On the same day, Gandhi gave his call of **‘do or die’**.

On 8th and 9th August 1942, the government arrested all the prominent leaders of the Congress. For once, this pre-planned action of the government left the Indian people without leadership. Mahatma Gandhi was kept in prison at Poona. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Abul Kalam Azad, and other leaders were imprisoned in the Ahmednagar Fort.

At this time, leadership was provided by Ram Manohar Lohia, Achyuta and S.M. Joshi. The role of Jayaprakash Narain in this movement was important. Large number of students also left their schools and colleges to join the movement. The youth of the nation also participated in this movement with patriotism. Strikes, demonstrations and public meetings were organised in various towns and cities. Slowly the movement reached the rural areas. In 1943, as the movement gained further momentum, there were armed attacks on government buildings in Madras and Bengal. In 1944 Mahatma Gandhi was released from jail. Quit India Movement was the final attempt for country's freedom. The British Government ordered for 538 rounds of firing. Nearly 60,229 persons were jailed. At least 7,000 people were killed. This movement paved the way for India's freedom. It aroused among Indians the feelings of bravery, enthusiasm and total sacrifice.

Indian National Army



SUBHAS CHANDRA BOSE

During the course of the Second World War, armed revolutionary activities continued to take place. The role of Subhas Chandra Bose towards such activities is incomparable. On 2 July 1943, Subhas Chandra Bose reached Singapore and gave the rousing war cry of '**Dilli Chalo**'. He was made the President of Indian Independence League and soon became the supreme commander of the **Indian National Army**. He gave the country the slogan of Jai Hind. The names of the INA's three Brigades were the Subhas Brigade, Gandhi Brigade and Nehru Brigade. The women's wing of the army was named after Rani Laxmibai.

The Indian National Army marched towards Imphal after registering its victory over Kohima. After Japan's surrender in 1945,

the INA failed in its efforts. Under such circumstances, Subhas went to Taiwan. Then on his way to Tokyo he died on 18 August 1945 in a plane crash.

The trial of the soldiers of INA was held at Red Fort in Delhi. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Bhulabhai Desai and Tej Bahadur Sapru fought the case on behalf of the soldiers.

Cabinet Mission (1946)

After the Second World War, Lord Atlee became the Prime Minister of England. On 15 March, 1946 Lord Atlee made a historic announcement in which the right to self-determination and the framing of a Constitution for India were conceded. Consequently, three members of the British Cabinet - Pathick Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps and A. V. Alexander - were sent to India. This is known as the **Cabinet Mission**.

The Cabinet Mission put forward a plan for solution of the constitutional problem. Provision was made for three groups of provinces to possess their separate constitutions. The Cabinet Mission also proposed the formation of a Union of India, comprising both the British India and the Princely States. The Union would remain in charge of only foreign affairs, defence and communications leaving the residuary powers to be vested in the provinces. A proposal was envisaged for setting up an Interim Government, which would remain in office till a new government was elected on the basis of the new Constitution framed by the Constituent Assembly. Both the Muslim League and the Congress accepted the plan.

Consequently, elections were held in July 1946 for the formation of a Constituent Assembly. The Congress secured 205 out of 214 General seats. The Muslim League got 73 out of 78 Muslim seats. An Interim Government was formed under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru on 2 September 1946.

Mountbatten Plan (1947)

On 20 February 1947, Prime Minister Atlee announced in the House of Commons the definite intention of the British Government to transfer power to responsible Indian hands by a date not later than June 1948. Thus, to effect the transference of that power Atlee decided to send Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy to India.



LORD MOUNTBATTEN

Lord Mountbatten armed with vast powers became India's Viceroy on 24 March 1947. The partition of India and the creation of Pakistan appeared inevitable to him. After extensive consultation Lord Mountbatten put forth the plan of partition of India on **3 June 1947**. The Congress and the Muslim League ultimately approved the **Mountbatten Plan**.

Indian Independence Act 1947

The British Government accorded formal approval to the Mountbatten Plan by enacting the Indian Independence Act on 18 July 1947. The salient features of this Act were:



Indian Independence

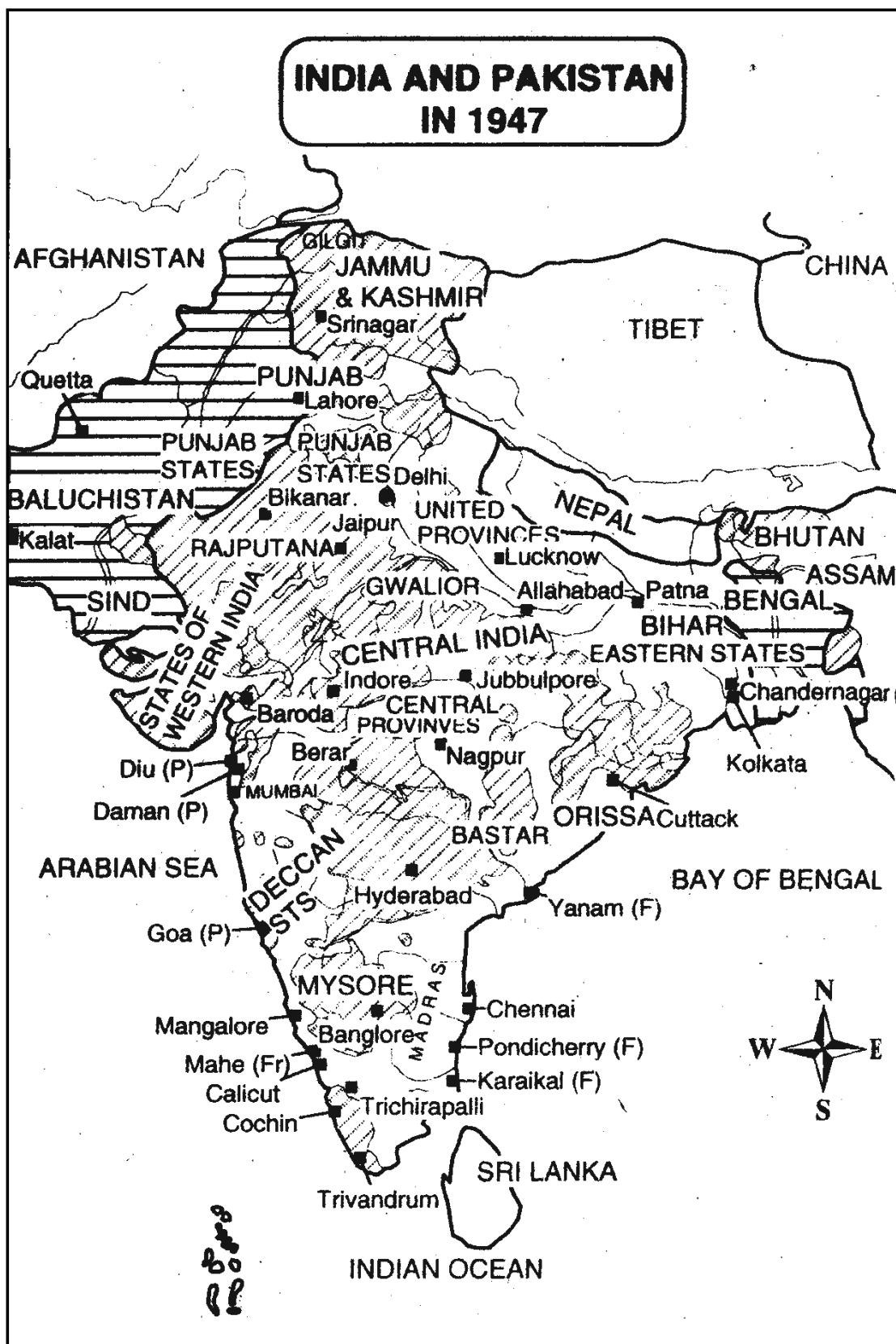
- The partition of the country into India and Pakistan would come into effect from 15 August 1947.
- The British Government would transfer all powers to these two Dominions.
- A Boundary Commission would demarcate the boundaries of the provinces of the Punjab and Bengal.
- The Act provided for the transfer of power to the Constituent Assemblies of the two Dominions, which will have full authority to frame their respective Constitutions.

The **Radcliff Boundary Commission** drew the boundary line separating India and Pakistan. On 15th August 1947 India, and on the 14th August Pakistan came into existence as two independent states. Lord Mountbatten was made the first Governor General of Independent India, whereas Mohammad Ali Jinnah became the first Governor General of Pakistan. The most tragic incident occurred on 30 January 1948, when Mahatma Gandhi - the father of the nation - on his way to a prayer meeting was assassinated by Nathuram Godse.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson students would acquire knowledge about

- 1. Gandhi's early experiments of Satyagraha made him a mass leader.*
- 2. The Non-Cooperation movement and its success.*
- 3. The political activities between 1922 and 1930 such as Swaraj politics and anti-Simon struggle.*
- 4. The Civil Disobedience Movement, Round Table Conference and the Poona Pact.*
- 5. The Quit India Movement and its impact.*
- 6. The role of INA in the freedom struggle.*
- 7. The Cabinet Mission to the Independence of India.*



MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Kheda Satyagraha was launched by Gandhi in support of
 - (a) Indigo planters
 - (b) Industrial labour
 - (c) Peasants
 - (d) Mill workers
2. The Chauri Chaura incident took place in the year
 - (a) 1920
 - (b) 1921
 - (c) 1922
 - (d) 1923

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Rowlat Act was passed in the year
2. The Poorna Swaraj Resolution was passed at
3. The Communal Award was announced by the British Prime Minister

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------|
| 1. Jallianwala Bagh Massacre | a. 1923 |
| 2. Swaraj Party | b. 1931 |
| 3. Dandi March | c. 1930 |
| 4. Poona Pact | d. 1919 |
| 5. Gandhi-Irwin Pact | e. 1932 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) According to the Rowlat Act, any person could be arrested on the basis of suspicion.
- b) The Khilafat Day was observed on 19th October 1919.
- c) The plan of Non Cooperation was approved by the Indian National Congress at the Lahore session.

- d) The Fourteen Points of the Muslim League was submitted by Muhammad Ansari.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The chief cause of the Khilafat Movement was the defeat of Turkey in the First World War.
2. The agreement between Dr. Ambedkar and the British government was called as the 'Poona Pact'.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Khilafat Movement
2. Swaraj Party
3. Dandi March
4. Indian National Army
5. Cabinet Mission
6. Mountbatten Plan

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on the Jallianwala Bagh massacre.
2. Bring out the significance of the Non-Cooperation Movement.
3. Discuss the salient features of the Nehru Report.
4. Write a note on the Poona Pact.
5. Examine the provisions of the Indian Independence Act.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the Civil-Disobedience Movement.
2. Estimate role of Mahatma Gandhi in the Indian Freedom Struggle.
3. Discuss the important events of the Freedom Movement from 1919 to 1935.

LESSON 17

ROLE OF TAMIL NADU IN THE INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT

Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson students will come to understand

- 1. The early nationalist uprisings in Tamil Nadu.*
- 2. Swadeshi Movement.*
- 3. Home Rule Movement in Tamil Nadu.*
- 4. Salt Satyagraha in Tamil Nadu.*
- 5. Quit India Movement.*

Tamil Nadu played an important role in the Indian National Movement. Even prior to the Great Revolt of 1857, the rebellion in Panchalam Kuruchi, the 1801 “South Indian Rebellion” of the Marudu brothers and the Vellore Mutiny of 1806 were the early anti-colonial struggles in Tamil Nadu. During the nationalist era Tamil Nadu provided the leaders like G. Subramania Iyer, V.O.C. Chidambaram Pillai, Subramania Bharathi, C. Rajagopalachari and K. Kamaraj to the National Movement. Besides, the nationalist movement in Tamil Nadu was as active as elsewhere.

Beginning of the National Movement in Tamil Nadu

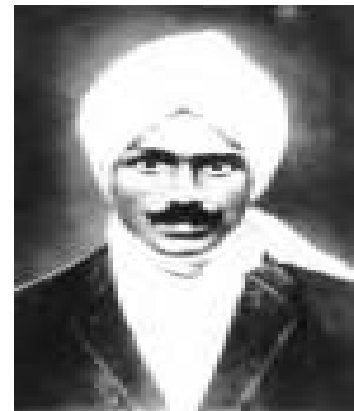
The earliest political organisation, the **Madras Native Association** was started in July 1852. Lakshminarasu Chetty and Srinivasa Pillai were the founders of this organization. The Madras Native Association was sharply critical of the policies of the East India Company’s rule. Subsequently in 1884, the Madras Mahajana Sabha was established by P. Anandacharlu and P. Rangaiya Naidu.

The Madras Native Association was ultimately merged with this organization.

The Madras Mahajana Sabha strongly supported the activities of the Indian National Congress. It had also initiated social reform. G. Subramania Iyer performed the remarriage of his widowed daughter in December 1889. He moved the first resolution in the first session of the Indian National Congress in 1885. He started the nationalist papers like *The Hindu* in English and *Swadeshamitran* in Tamil. In 1892, the Madras Provincial Conference was started to mobilize people in the rural areas of Tamil Nadu. The third session of the Indian National Congress was held in Madras in 1887 under the presidentship of Fakruddin Thyabji. Later a number of such annual sessions were also held in the city of Madras.

Swadeshi Movement in Tamil Nadu

The Partition of Bengal in 1905 led to the beginning of Swadeshi Movement in Tamil Nadu. During this period the important leaders of the National Movement were – V.O. Chidambaram Pillai, Subramania Siva and Subramania Bharathi. In May 1907 Bharathi brought Bipin Chandra Pal one of the leaders of extremists in the Congress to Madras city. After the Surat split in 1907, V.O.C. and fellow nationalists started the



SUBRAMANIA BHARATHI

Chennai Jana Sangam. Subramania Bharathi was a non-conformist, unorthodox and a revolutionary in social and political ideas. He edited the Tamil Weekly *India*. He wrote nationalist songs called the *Swadesa Geethangal*.

V.O. Chidambaram Pillai was a lawyer by profession and he joined the nationalist movement in 1905. He was a follower of Bal Ganghadar Tilak. He led the Coral Mill Strike in February 1908 in

Tuticorin. In 1906 he launched the **Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company** in Tuticorin. Hence he was called ***Kappalottiya Tamilan***. There was competition between Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company and British India Steam Navigation Company. V.O.C. advocated the boycott of the British India Steam Navigation Company and this had resulted in the Tirunelveli uprising in March 1908. He was ably assisted by Subramania Siva.



SUBRAMANIA SIVA

Both were arrested and imprisoned. They served six years rigorous imprisonment. They were given harsh punishment inside the prison. V.O.C. was asked to draw an oil press and hence he is known as ***Chekkilutta Chemmal***.



V.O. CHIDAMBARAM

The arrest of the nationalist leaders, harsh punishment for the nationalist leaders inside the prison and the collapse of the Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company led to the formation of a revolutionary organization in Tamil Nadu called the Bharathamatha Association. Nilakanta Bramachari played a vital role in it. One of the followers of this association Vanchi Nathan shot dead the notorious British official Robert William Ashe at Maniyatchi junction in June 1911.

Home Rule Movement in Tamil Nadu

The Home rule Movement in Madras was organized by Mrs. Annie Besant between 1916 and 1918. The first indication of Annie Besant's decision to launch a Home Rule Movement appeared in ***New India*** in September 1915.



ANNIE BESANT

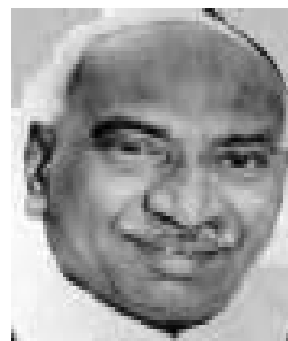
Besant sought the support of the Indian National Congress at its annual meeting at Bombay in December, 1915. She was supported in her movement by Tilak. Home Rule Movement was vigorous during the First World War.

Non-co-operation Movement

In Tamil Nadu the Non-co-operation Movement was strong during the years 1921—23. Beginning in March 1921 there were campaigns of Non-Cooperation against the foreign regulations. In 1921 and 1922 there were campaigns against the consumption of liquor in many parts of the province. Temperance campaign was particularly prominent in Madurai. Non-Cooperation had been a success in Tamil Nadu. C. Rajagopalachari, S. Satyamurthi and E. V. Ramaswami Naicker were the important leaders of the Non-Cooperation Movement in Tamil Nadu. At that time E. V. Ramaswami Naicker was the President of the Tamil Nadu Congress Committee. C. Rajagopalachari stressed that the council boycott was a central part of the Gandhian Programme. However, this view was not shared by Kasturi Ranga Iyengar, Srinivasa Iyengar, Varadarajulu Naidu and Vijayaraghavachari.

In the meantime, Periyar E.V.R. launched the **Vaikom Satyagraha** in Kerala against the practice of social segregation. Later he resigned from the Congress and came out on the social segregation issue at Seramandevi Guru Kulam of V.V.S. Iyer. S. Satyamurthi of Pudukkottai was one of the important freedom fighters. He led the anti-Simon Campaign in 1929 when the Simon Commission visited Tamil Nadu.

The other important nationalist leader was K. Kamaraj from Virudhunagar. He participated in the Vaikom Satyagraha in 1924 and thus entered nationalist movement. He was the vice-president and treasurer of the Ramnad District Congress



K. KAMARAJ

Committee in 1929. From the beginning, Kamaraj was the man of the masses. He spoke in simple and direct language. He had a sound common sense and practical wisdom. He was fully aware of the rural Tamil Nadu. He visited each and every village and understood the different problems of the masses. He always identified himself with the common man of Tamil Nadu. Thus, he really brought the Congress movement to the villages in Tamil Nadu,

Salt Satyagraha

As part of the Civil Disobedience Movement, Gandhi launched the Salt Satyagraha. He undertook the Dandi March in 1930. C. Rajagopalachari became the TNCC president in April 1930. Authorized by TNCC and AICC to direct the Salt Satyagraha in Tamil Nadu **Rajaji** undertook the famous **Vedaranyam Salt Satyagraha March**. He selected the route from Tiruchirappalli to Vedaranyam in Thanjavur district. The March began on Tamil New Year's Day (13th April). The March reached Vedaranyam on 28 April 1930. Two days later Rajagopalachari was arrested for breaking the salt laws. Some of the other important



C. Rajagopalachari

leaders who participated in the Vedaranyam Salt Satyagraha were T.S.S. Rajan, Mrs. Lakshmipathi Sardar Vedaratnam Pillai, C. Swaminatha Chetty and K. Santhanam.



**Tiruppur
Kumaran**

Tiruppur Kumaran who led the flag march was fatally beaten. Since he guarded the national flag in his hands he was called **Kodi Kaththa Kumaran**. Commemorating his sacrifice the Government of India issued a postal stamp in his honour.

Similarly, the National Movement was encouraged by songs composed by Namakkal Kavinjar Ramalingam Pillai. In his songs he praised the Gandhian methods in the struggle for freedom. He sang that “a war is coming without knife and blood”. This highlighted the Gandhian principle of non-violent struggle against the British.

Quit India Movement

Later, in 1937 when elections were held in accordance with the 1935 Act, Congress won the elections and formed the ministry in Madras headed by C. Rajagopalachari. There were nine other ministers in his cabinet. The ministry was in power from July 1937 to October 1939. The ministry had resigned along with other Congress ministries in the different provinces over the issue of the Indian involvement in the Second World War.

During Second War, after the failure of the Cripps's Proposals Gandhi had launched the Quit India Movement. In Tamil Nadu Quit India Movement drew the factory workers, students and common people. It was a wide spread movement. The Buckingham & Carnatic Mills, Port Trust and the Tramway workers joined the movement in large numbers. Quit India Movement was launched in places like North Arcot, Madurai and Coimbatore. There was police firing at Rajapalayam, Karaikudi and Devakottai. Besides, Subhash Bose's INA had many men and women soldiers from Tamil Nadu.

Finally, when India attained independence on 15th August, 1947 the Madras Government under O.P. Ramaswami Reddiar passed a resolution appreciating the Indian Independence Act.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student has understood that

- 1. Tamil Nadu played a significant role in the Indian Freedom Struggle.*
- 2. Those leaders who led the masses from Tamil Nadu in the Swadeshi Movement.*
- 3. The role of C. Rajagopalachari and others in the Salt Satyagraha.*
- 4. The nature of the Quit India Movement in Tamil Nadu.*
- 5. Important places where people in large numbers participated in this historic movement.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Who among the following moved the first resolution in the first session of the Indian National Congress?
(a) Srinivasa Pillai (b) Lakshminarasu Chetty
(c) Rangaiya Naidu (d) G. Subramanya Iyer
2. The Vedaranyam Salt Satyagraha was led by
(a) Gandhi (b) Rajaji
(c) V.O.C (d) Kamaraj

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Madras Native Association was started in
2. The Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company was launched by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Subramaniya Bharathi | a. <i>Swadesamithran</i> |
| 2. Mrs. Annie Besant | b. Madras Mahajana Sabha |
| 3. G. Subramanya Iyer | c. <i>India</i> |
| 4. P. Anandacharlu | d. <i>New India</i> |

IV. Find out the correct statement one statement alone is correct.

- a. Madras Native Association was started by G. Subramania Iyer.
- b. The Third Session of the Indian National Congress was held in Madras.

- c. Periyar E.V.R. had never been the President of Tamil Nadu Congress Committee.
- d. Vedaranyam Salt Satyagraha March begun on 1 January 1930 from Tiruchirappalli.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The Madras Mahajana Sabha severely opposed the Indian National Congress.
- 2. The Bharathamatha Association was a revolutionary organization in Tamil Nadu.
- 3. The Vaikom Satyagraha was launched by Periyar E.V.R.
- 4. In 1937, the Congress Ministry was formed in Madras under Kamaraj.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. G. Subramanya Iyer
- 2. Vedaranyam March
- 3. Subramaniya Bharathi

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Write a note on Madras Mahajana Sabha.
- 2. Discuss the role of V.O.C in the Indian National Movement.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the role of Tamil Nadu in the Indian Freedom Struggle.

Lesson 18

THE JUSTICE PARTY RULE

Learning Objectives

Students will come to understand

- 1. The factors that led to the rise of Non-Brahmin Movement in Madras Presidency.*
- 2. The genesis of the Justice Party.*
- 3. The Justice Party in power.*
- 4. Achievements of the Justice Party.*
- 5. The end of the Justice rule in Madras Presidency.*

The Justice Party rule in the Madras Presidency constitutes an important chapter in the history of South India. The ideology and objectives of the Justice Party had been unique and somewhat different from those of the Congress Party. The Justice Party represented the Non-Brahmin Movement and engineered a social revolution against the domination of Brahmins in the sphere of public services and education.

Birth of the Justice Party

Various factors had contributed to the formation of the Justice Party, which represented the Non-Brahmin Movement. The social dominance of the Brahmins was the main cause for the emergence of the Non-Brahmin Movement. Their high proportion in the Civil Service, educational institutions and also their predominance in the Madras Legislative Council caused a great worry among the non-Brahmins. The Brahmins had also monopolized the Press. The

rediscovery of the greatness of the Tamil language and literature also provided a stimulus to the non-Brahmins. Particularly, the publication of the book entitled *A Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian or South Indian Family of Languages* by Rev. Robert Caldwell in 1856 gave birth to the Dravidian concept. Later the ancient Tamil literature had been rediscovered and printed by various Tamil scholars including Arumuga Navalar, C.V. Damodaram Pillai and U.V. Swaminatha Iyer. V. Kanakasabhai Pillai in his famous historical work, *The Tamils 1800 Years Ago* pointed out that Tamils had attained a high degree of civilization before the Advent of the Aryans. This led to the growth of Dravidian feelings among the non-Brahmins. These factors collectively contributed to the birth of the Non-Brahmin Movement and the Justice Party.

The precursor of the Justice Party was the **Madras United League** which was renamed as the **Madras Dravidian Association** in November 1912. Dr. C. Natesa Mudaliar played a significant role in nurturing this organization. In 1916 the **South Indian Liberal Federation** was formed for the purpose of 'promoting the political interests of non-Brahmin caste Hindus'. The leaders who stood behind the formation of this organization were Pitti Theagaraya Chetti, Dr. T.M. Nair, P. Ramarayaninger (Raja of Panagal) and Dr. C. Natesa Mudaliar. The South Indian Liberal Federation published an English newspaper called **Justice** and hence this organization came to be called the Justice Party. The other news paper which supported the Justice Party was *Dravidan* (in Tamil). Besides, the Justice Party organized a series of public meetings, conferences, lectures to popularise Non-Brahmin movement. Similarly, the Justice Party formed District Associations, the Non-Brahmin Youth League.

Justice Party Rule

The Justice Party came to power following the election of 1920 held according to the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms. The Justice

Party captured sixty three out of ninety eight elected seats in the Madras Legislative Council. As Pitti Theagaraya Chetti declined to lead the ministry, A. Subbarayalu Reddiar formed the ministry. In the election of 1923 it fought against the Swarajya Party. The Justice Party again won the majority and the ministry was formed by Raja of Panagal. In the election of 1926 a divided Justice Party faced the opposition of a united Congress. Therefore, an independent, A. Subbarayan with the help of the Swarajya Party formed the ministry. In 1930 when the next election was held the Justice Party won the majority and formed a ministry with B. Muniswami Naidu as the leader. In 1932 Raja of Bobbili replaced him as Prime Minister of the Presidency. In 1934 Raja of Bobbili formed his second ministry, which continued in power until the election of 1937.

Achievements of the Justice Party

The Justice Party remained in power for a period of thirteen years. Its administration was noted for social justice and social reform. Justice rule gave adequate representation to non-Brahman communities in the public services. It improved the status of depressed classes through education reforms. Justice Party introduced following reforms in the field of Education :

1. Free and compulsory education was introduced for the first time in Madras.
2. Nearly 3000 fisher boys and fisher girls were offered free special instruction by the Department of Fisheries.
3. Midday Meals was given at selected corporation schools in Madras.
4. The Madras Elementary Education Act was amended in 1934 and in 1935 to improve elementary education.

5. The Education of girls received encouragement during the Justice rule in Madras.
6. Education of the Depressed Classes was entrusted with Labour Department.
7. Encouragement was given to Ayurveda, Siddha and Unani medical education.

The government took over the power of appointing district *munsiffs* out of the control of the High Court. The Communal G. O.s (Government Orders) of 1921 and 1922 provided for the reservation of appointments in local bodies and educational institutions for non-Brahmin communities in increased proportion.

The Staff Selection Board, created by the Panagal Ministry in 1924, was made the Public Service Commission in 1929. It was the first of its kind in India. The women were granted the right to vote on the same basis as was given to men. The Hindu Religious Endowment Act of 1921, enacted by the Panagal Ministry, tried to eliminate corruption in the management of temples. Justice Party Government introduced economic reforms.

To assist the growth of industries State Aid to Industries Act, 1922 was passed. This led to the establishment of new industries such as : sugar factories, engineering works, tanneries, aluminum factories, cement factories and oil milling so on. This act provided credits to industries, allotted land and water. This proved favourable for industrial progress.)

Similarly, Justice Party Government introduced schemes for rural development to help agrarian population, public health schemes to prevent diseases. To improve village economy village road scheme was introduced. In the city of Madras the Town Improvement Committee of the Madras Corporation introduced Slum Clearance

and Housing Schemes. As a social welfare measures the Justice Party Government gave waste lands in village to Depressed Classes.

The *devadasi* system, a disgrace to women, was abolished. The Justice administration reorganized the working of the University of Madras. During the administration of Justice Party, the Andhra University was established in 1926 and Annamalai University in 1929.

End of Justice Party Rule

The Government of India Act of 1935 provided for provincial autonomy and the electoral victory meant the assumption of a major responsibility in the administration of the province. K. V. Reddi Naidu led the Justice Party, while C. Rajagopalachari led the Congress in the South. In the election of 1937, the Congress captured 152 out of 215 seats in the Legislative Assembly and 26 out of 46 in the Legislative Council. In July 1937 the Congress formed its ministry under C. Rajagopalachari. Thus, the rule of Justice Party which introduced important social legislations came to an end. In 1944 the Justice party conference was held in Salem. There Perarinar Anna passed a resolution whereby the name of justice party was changed as Dravidian Kalagam.

Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student has understood that

- 1. The domination of Brahmin community in the sphere of civil service and education led to the emergence of the Non-Brahmin Movement.*
- 2. The leaders of the Justice Movement.*
- 3. The Justice ministries between 1920 and 1937.*
- 4. The achievements of the Justice party administration such as Communal G.O, Hindu Religious Endowment Act and abolition of devadasi system.*
- 5. The decline of the Justice Party.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The South Indian Liberal Foundation was formed in the year
(a) 1912 (b) 1914
(c) 1916 (d) 1917
2. Which of the following journal was not founded by Periyar E.V.R?
(a) Kudi Arasu (b) Puratchi
(c) Viduthalai (d) Swarajya

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Hindu Religious Act was passed in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------|
| 1. Communal G.O. | a. 1929 |
| 2. Staff Selection Board | b. 1922 |
| 3. Madras State Aid to Industries Act | c. 1924 |
| 4. Annamalai University | d. 1921 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) C.V. Damodaram Pillai was the author of *The Tamils 1800 Years Ago*.
- b) Madras Dravidian Association was started in November 1912.
- c) In 1917 the South Indian Liberal Federation was formed.
- d) Tamil newspaper called *Justice* supported the Justice Party.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False

- 1 The Justice Party remained in power for a period of thirteen years.
- 2 Justice Party introduced Free and compulsory education.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Non Brahmin Movement
2. Communal G.O

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Describe the educational reforms of the Justice Party.
2. Write a note on the end of Justice Party.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the achievements of the Justice Party rule in Tamil Nadu.
2. Estimate the role of Periyar E.V.R. in the promotion of social justice.

LESSON 19

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT (1858 – 1947)

Learning Objectives

Students will come to understand

- 1. The history of constitutional development from 1858 to 1935.*
- 2. The importance of the Councils Act of 1861 and 1892.*
- 3. Main provisions of the Minto-Morley Reforms, 1919.*
- 4. The Salient features of the Act of 1919.*
- 5. The Significance of the Government of India Act of 1935.*

The history of constitutional development in India begins from the passing of the Regulating Act in 1773. The Pitt's India Act of 1784 and the successive Charter Acts from 1793 to 1853 form part of the constitutional changes under the East India Company's rule. The Revolt of 1857 brought about important changes in the British administration in India. The rule of the East India Company came to an end. The administration of India came under the direct control of the British Crown. These changes were announced in the Government of India Act of 1858. The 'Proclamation of Queen Victoria' assured the Indians a benevolent administration. Thereafter, important development had taken place in constitutional history of India as a result of the Indian National Movement.

Government of India Act of 1858

The Government of India Act of 1858 was passed by the Parliament of England and received royal assent on 2nd August 1858. Following are **the main provisions of the Act:**

- East India **Company's rule came to an end** and the Indian administration came under the direct control of the Crown.
- In England, the **Court of Directors** and **Board of Control** were **abolished**. In their place came the **Secretary of State for India** and **India Council** were established. The Secretary of State would be a member of the British cabinet. Sir Charles Wood was made the first Secretary of State for India. India Council consisting of 15 members would assist him.
- The Governor General of India was also made the **Viceroy of India**. The first Viceroy of India was Lord Canning.
- All the previous treaties were accepted and honoured by the Act.

Queen Victoria's Proclamation

On 1 November 1858 the Proclamation of Queen Victoria was announced by Lord Canning at Allahabad. This royal Proclamation was translated into Indian languages and publicly read in many important places. It announced the end of Company's rule in India and the Queen's assumption of the Government of India. It endorsed the treaty made by the Company with Indian princes and promised to respect their rights, dignity and honour. It assured the Indian people equal and impartial protection of law and freedom of religion and social practices. The Proclamation of Queen Victoria gave a practical shape to the Act of 1858.

Indian Councils Act of 1861

The Indian Councils Act of 1861 increased the number of members in the Governor-General's executive Council from 4 to 5. Further the Governor-General's Executive Council was enlarged into

a Central Legislative Council. Six to twelve “additional members” were to be nominated by the Governor-General. Not less than half of these members were to be non-officials. Thus a provision was made for the inclusion of Indians in the Legislative Council. The functions of these members were strictly limited to making legislation and they were forbidden from interfering in the matters of the Executive Council. They did not possess powers of administration and finance.

Legislative Councils were also established in the provinces. The number of additional members in the provinces was fixed between four to eight. So, this Act was an important constitutional development and the people of India came to be involved in the law making process. The mechanism of Indian legislation developed slowly and reinforced further by the Acts of 1892 and 1909.

Indian Councils Act of 1892

The Indian Councils Act of 1892 was the first achievement of the Indian National Congress. It had increased the number of “additional members” in the Central Legislative Council. They were to be not less than 10 and not more than 16. It had also increased the proportion of non-officials – 6 officials and 10 non-officials. The members were allowed to discuss the budget and criticize the financial policy of the government. In the provinces also the number of additional members was increased with additional powers.

Minto- Morley Reforms of 1909

The Indian Councils Act of 1909 was also known as Minto-Morley Reforms in the names of Lord Morley, the Secretary of State for India and Lord Minto, the Governor-General of India. Both were responsible for the passing of this Act. It was passed to win the support of the Moderates in the Congress. The important provisions of this Act were:

1. The number of “additional members” of the Central Legislative Council was increased to a maximum of 60. Elected members were to be 27 and among the remaining 33 nominated members not more than 28 were to be officials.
2. The principle of election to the councils was legally recognized. But **communal representation** was for the **first time introduced** in the interests of Muslims. **Separate electorates** were provided for the Muslims.
3. The number of members in provincial legislative councils of major provinces was raised to 50.
4. The Councils were given right to discuss and pass resolutions on the Budget and on all matters of public interest. However, the Governor-General had the power to disallow discussion on the budget.
5. An Indian member was appointed for the first time to the Governor-General’s Executive Council. Sir S. P. Sinha was the first Indian to be appointed thus.
6. In Bombay and Madras, the number of members of the Executive Councils was raised from 2 to 4. The practice of appointing Indians to these Councils began.
7. Two Indians were also appointed to the India Council [in England].

The Minto- Morley reforms never desired to set up a parliamentary form of government in India. However, the Moderates welcomed the reforms as fairly liberal measures. The principle of separate electorates had ultimately led to the partition of India in 1947.

Montague-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919

The political developments in India during the First World War such as the Home Rule Movement led to the August Declaration. On 20th August, 1917 Montague, the Secretary of State for India made a momentous declaration in the House of Commons. His declaration assured the introduction of responsible government in India in different stages. As a first measure the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed by the Parliament of England. This Act is popularly known as Montague-Chelmsford Reforms. At that time Lord Chelmsford was the Viceroy of India.

The main features of the Act were:

1. **Dyarchy** was introduced in the provinces. Provincial subjects were divided into “**Reserved Subjects**” such as police, jails, land revenue, irrigation and forests and “**Transferred Subjects**” such as education, local self-government, public health, sanitation, agriculture and industries. The Reserved subjects were to be administered by the Governor and his Executive Council. The Transferred subjects by the Governor and his ministers.
2. A bicameral (Two Chambers) legislature was set up at the centre. It consisted of the **Council of States** and the **Legislative Assembly**. The total member in the Legislative Assembly was to be a maximum of 145, out of which 105 were to be elected and the remaining nominated. In the Council of States there would be a maximum of 60 members out of which 34 were elected and the remaining nominated.
3. The salaries of the Secretary of State for India and his assistants were to be paid out of the British revenues. So far, they were paid out of the Indian revenues.

4. A High Commissioner for India at London was appointed.

The most important defect in this Act was the **division of powers** under the system of Dyarchy in the provinces.

The Government of India Act of 1935

The Government of India Act of 1935 was passed on the basis of the report of the Simon Commission, the outcome of the Round Table Conferences and the White Paper issued by the British Government in 1933. This Act contained many important changes over the previous Act of 1919.

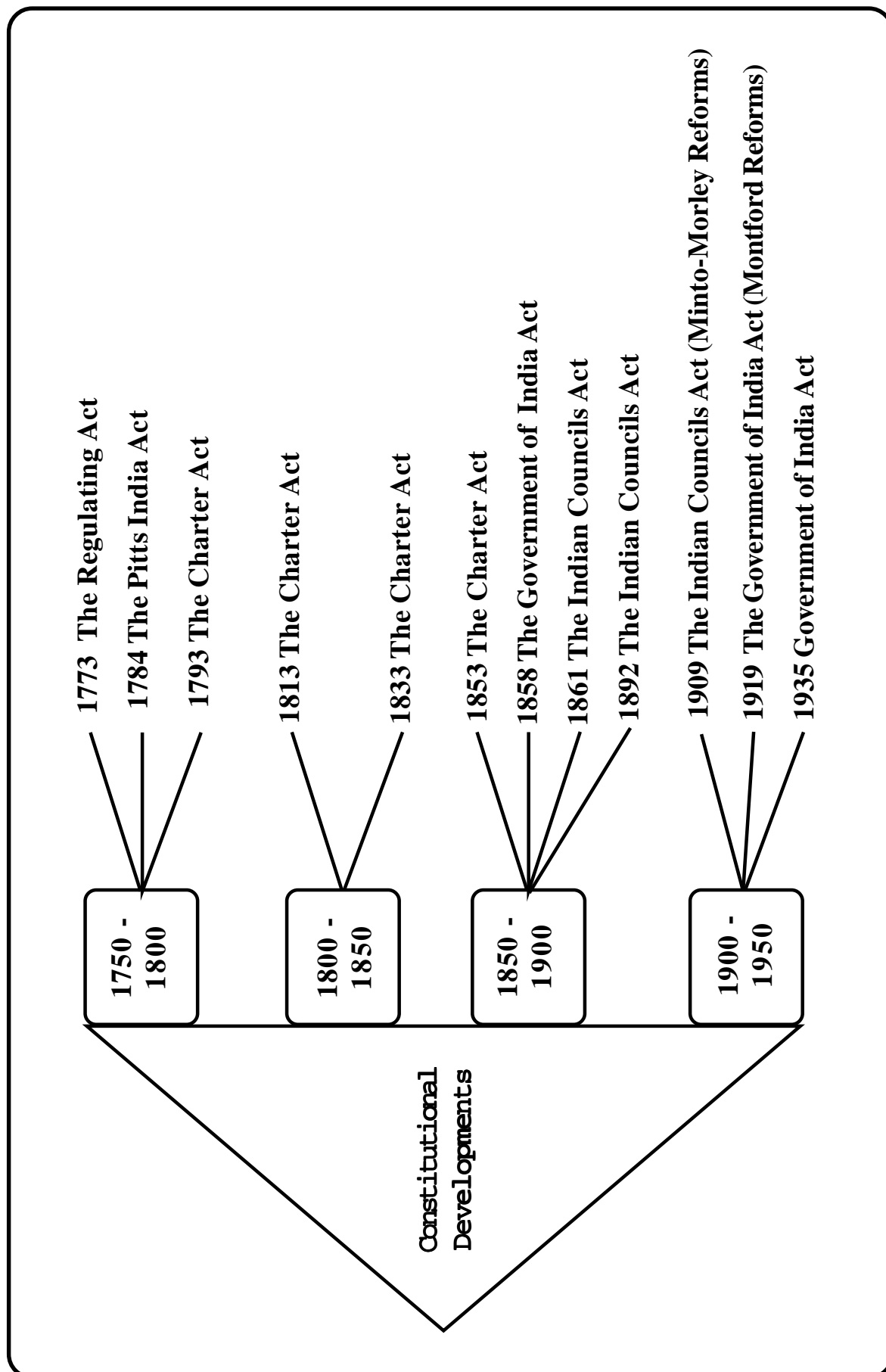
Following were the salient features of this Act.

1. Provision for the establishment of an **All India Federation** at the Centre, consisting of the Provinces of British India and the Princely States. (It did not come into existence since the Princely States refused to give their consent for the union.)
2. Division of powers into three lists: Federal, Provincial and Concurrent.
3. Introduction of Dyarchy at the Centre. The Governor-General and his councillors administered the “Reserved subjects”. The Council of Ministers were responsible for the “Transferred” subjects.
4. Abolition of Dyarchy and the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in the provinces. The Governor was made the head of the Provincial Executive but he was expected to run the administration on the advice of the Council of Ministers. Thus provincial government was entrusted to the elected Ministers. They were responsible to the popularly elected Legislative Assemblies.
5. Provincial Legislatures of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, United Provinces, Bihar and Assam were made bicameral.

6. Extension of the principle of Separate Electorates to Sikhs, Europeans, Indian Christians and Anglo Indians.
7. Establishment of a Federal Court at Delhi with a Chief Justice and 6 judges.

The working of the provincial autonomy was not successful. The Governors were not bound to accept the advice of the ministers. In reality, the real power in the Provincial Government was with the Governor. But, despite these drawbacks in the scheme, the Congress decided to take part in the elections to the Provincial Legislatures with the consideration that it was an improvement over the previous Acts.

In accordance with the provisions of the Government of India Act of 1935 elections to the Provincial Legislatures were held in February 1937. The Congress had virtually swept the polls. On 7 July 1937, after the Viceroy Lord Linlithgow, assured the Congress of his cooperation, the party formed its ministries in seven provinces.



Learning Outcome

After studying this lesson the student has understood that

- 1. The changes effected under the Act of 1858 and the importance of Queen's Proclamation.*
- 2. The expansion of central and provincial legislatures by the Acts of 1861 and 1892.*
- 3. The intrduction of the priciples of election and also Separate Electorates to the Muslims by the Act of 1909.*
- 4. The introduction of Dyarchy in the provinces and the division of subjects into "Reserved" and "Transferred" by the Act of 1919.*
- 5. The Provincial Autonomy was intrduced by the Act of 1935 but with limited powere to Indian ministers.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which among the following was the provision of the Government of India Act of 1858?
 - (a) Creation of Court of Directors and Board of Control
 - (b) Extension of Company's rule for twenty years
 - (c) Establishment of India Council with fifteen members
 - (d) Cancellation of all previous treaties.
2. Which Act legally recognized the principle of election to the legislative councils?
 - (a) Act of 1861
 - (b) Act of 1892
 - (c) Act of 1909
 - (d) Act of 1919

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Government of India Act of 1919 was passed during the Viceroyalty of
2. The Government of India Act of 1935 introduced in the provinces.
3. The first Indian law member to the Governor General's Council was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| 1. Secretary of State for India | a. 1935 |
| 2. Dyarchy in the provinces | b. 1909 |
| 3. All India Federation | c. 1919 |
| 4. Introduction of Separate Electorate | d. 1858 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Proclamation of Queen Victoria was announced by Lord Canning at Allahabad.
- b) Minto- Morley Reforms refers to Lord Morley, the Governor and Lord Minto, the Secretary of State for India.
- c) 1919 Act introduced **Dyarchy** at the Centre.
- d) A Unicameral (one Chamber) legislature was set up at the centre.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. The Act of 1858 made the Governor-General of India as the Viceroy of India.
- 2. The Act of 1861 increased the number of members in the Governor-General in Council from five to six.
- 3. The Act of 1919 appointed a High Commissioner for India at London.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Queen's Proclamation
- 2. Indian Councils Act of 1892
- 3. Bicameral Legislature
- 4. Dyarchy
- 5. Provincial Autonomy

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Point out the importance of the Government of India Act of 1858.
2. Discuss the provisions of the Indian Councils Act of 1861.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Critically examine the provisions of the Minto-Morley Reforms.
2. Analyse the salient features of the Government of India Act of 1919.
3. “The Government of India Act of 1935 introduced significant changes in the constitutional system of India” – Comment.

LESSON 20

INDIA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Learning Objectives

Students will understand

- 1. The salient features of the Indian Constitution.*
- 2. The integration of Indian States.*
- 3. The Linguistic Reorganization of States.*
- 4. Economic Development of India since Independence.*
- 5. Growth of Science and Technology*
- 6. The foreign policy of Independent India.*

After the Independence in 1947, the most immediate and important tasks before the Indian leaders were the drafting of the constitution and the integration of Indian states into the Indian union. They had also been vested with the responsibility of making India economically sound and scientifically modern. In the long term perspective, the most challenging tasks ahead have been the removal poverty and the progress of education among the masses for which the successive governments continue to take necessary steps.

Constitution of India



Dr. RAJENDRA PRASAD

The Constituent Assembly began its work on 9th December 1946 and Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected as its Chairman. **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar** was appointed as the Chairman of the Drafting Committee. After a detailed discussion, the Constitution of India was finally adopted on 26th

November 1949. The Constitution came into effect on 26th January 1950. Since then the day is celebrated as Republic Day.

The salient features of the Indian Constitution are the adult suffrage, Parliamentary system, Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles. It provides a combination of federal and unitary forms of governance at the centre and the powers of the government have been clearly stated in the three lists: Central, State and Concurrent.

The President is the constitutional head of the state while the Prime Minister is the head of the Executive. The Prime Minister is the leader of the party that has a majority in the Lok Sabha. The Indian Parliament has two houses – the **Rajya Sabha** or upper house and the **Lok Sabha** or lower house. Each state has its own government headed by the Chief Minister who remains the leader of the majority party in the respective Legislative Assembly. Thus, democratically elected governments rule the nation and provision is made for periodical elections.

The judiciary remains the upholder of the constitution. The Indian judiciary system consists of the Supreme Court at the centre and High Courts in the states. The subordinate courts in each state are under the control of the High Court.

Integration of Princely States



VALLABAI PATEL

At the time of Independence there were 11 British provinces and nearly 566 princely states. After the departure of the British from India the princes of Indian states began to dream of independence. With great skill and masterful diplomacy Sardar Vallabhai Patel succeeded in integrating the princely states with the Indian union by 15 August 1947. Only three of them – Junagadh, Jammu and Kashmir and Hyderabad – refused to join.

The ruler of Junagadh expressed his willingness to join Pakistan against the wishes of the people of that state. Patel sent Indian troops and after a plebiscite Junagadh joined Indian Union.

The state of Jammu and Kashmir bordered India and Pakistan. Its ruler was **Raja Hari Singh**. In the beginning he also claimed independent status. When the Pathan tribes led by Pakistan army officers invaded Kashmir, Hari Singh sought the help of India. Nehru pointed out that under international law India could send its troops only after the state's accession to India. Therefore, on 26th October 1947, Raja Hari Singh signed the 'instrument of accession' and Jammu and Kashmir has become an integral part of India.

In the case of Hyderabad the Nizam refused to join the Indian union. After repeated appeals, in 1948 Indian troops moved into Hyderabad and the Nizam surrendered. Finally, Hyderabad acceded to the Indian Union.

Thus the Union of India was established with the integration and accession of the princely states with the Indian Union. This formidable task was fulfilled by the **"Iron Man of India"** Sardar Vallabhai Patel.

The Linguistic Reorganization of the States

In 1948, the first Linguistic Provinces Commission headed by S.K. Dar was appointed by the Constituent Assembly to enquire into the possibility of linguistic provinces. This commission advised against such a step. In the same year another committee known as JVP committee consisting of Jawaharlal Nehru, Vallabhai Patel and Pattabhi Sitaramaih was appointed by the Congress Party. This committee also did not favour for linguistic provinces. But there were popular movements for states reorganization all over the country and it was intensive in Andhra. Therefore, in 1953 Andhra was created as a separate state. Simultaneously, Madras was created as a Tamil-

speaking state. The struggle led by M.P. Sivagnanam to retain Tiruttani with Madras was a memorable event in the history of Tamil Nadu.

The success of Andhra struggle encouraged other linguistic groups to agitate for their own state. In 1953, Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru appointed the States Reorganization Commission with Justice Fazal Ali as its chairman and Pandit Hridayanath Kunzru and Sardar K.M. Panikkar as its members. The commission submitted its report on 30 September 1955. Based on this report, the States Reorganization Act was passed by the Parliament in 1956. It provided for 16 states and six union territories. The Telengana region was transferred to Andhra. Kerala was created by merging the Malabar district with Travancore-Cochin. There was a strong movement of the Tamil linguistic people in Travancore (Kaniyakumari) who struggled to be part of the state of Tamil Nadu.

Indian Polity (1947 – 2000)

India's first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru was considered the architect of modern India. He consolidated the Indian Independence by forging national unity, nurturing democratic institutions, promoting science and technology, planning for economic development and by following independent foreign policy. He was truly a nation builder. He died in 1964.

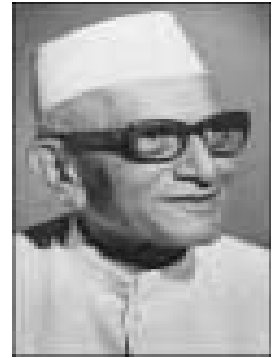


JAWAHARLAL NEHRU

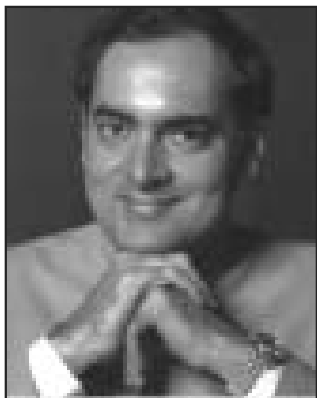
Lal Bahadur Sastri succeeded Nehru as the next Prime Minister of India. He remained a role model for honesty in public life. He ended the Indo-Pak war of 1965 by concluding the **Tashkent Agreement** in January 1966. His untimely death was a great loss to the nation.

**INDIRA GANDHI**

Indira Gandhi, daughter of Nehru became Prime Minister in 1966 and bravely faced the domestic challenges such as scarcity of food and foreign pressures during the 1971 Bangladesh crisis. When opposition to her rule gathered momentum in 1975, she brought emergency rule, a black mark in the democratic tradition of India. However, she restored democratic rule by announcing general elections in 1977 in which she was defeated. Later in 1980 she was able to regain power by democratic means. In 1983 she undertook “Blue Star Operation” in the Golden Temple at Amritsar - Punjab. As a result, unfortunately, she was shot dead by her own bodyguards in 1984 as a vengeance to her policy towards Punjab militancy.

**MORARJI DESAI**

The Janata Party rule for brief period between 1977 and 1980 brought **Morarji Desai** as Prime Minister of India. For the first time a non-Congress ministry was formed after independence. The lack of unity among the Janata leaders had resulted in the fall of the Janata Government.

**RAJIV GANDHI**

Rajiv Gandhi became the Prime Minister of India in 1984 after her mother Indira Gandhi's assassination. He introduced New Education Policy and encouraged foreign investment. In 1987 he sent the Indian Peace Keeping Force to Sri Lanka with a view to put an end to the ethnic violence. He continued as Prime Minister till the next elections held in 1989. Later in May 1991, he was assassinated (by the Sri Lankan Tamil extremists).

V.P. Singh was the Prime Minister between 1989 and 1991. He was leading an anti-Congress coalition called the Janata Dal. During his tenure he decided to implement the **Mandal Commission Report** which provided reservation for other backward classes. His government was marked by factionalism, and he was forced to resign in 1990. The next Prime Minister Chandrasekhar held the office from November 1990 to March 1991.



V.P. SINGH

In June 1991 **P. V. Narasimha Rao** became Prime Minister. He moved decisively toward new economic reforms, reducing the government's economic role, instituting austerity measures, and encouraging foreign investment. The finance minister Dr. Manmohan Singh's role in this sphere is worth noting. As a result, India started moving towards liberalization, privatization and globalization.

After the elections of 1996, **Atal Bihari Vajpayee** became Prime Minister from the BJP party but he was not able to prove majority in the Parliament. **Deve Gowda** formed a coalition government. He was the eleventh Prime Minister of India (1996–1997). He was from the state of Karnataka. His government also fell due to the no confidence motion voted jointly by the Congress and the BJP. He was succeeded by **I.K. Gujral** for a brief period in 1997. **Atal Bihari Vajpayee** became the Prime Minister of India in 1998. In the 1999 elections the National Democratic Alliance under the leadership of Vajpayee formed the government. His period witnessed two important events. One was the Kargil War with Pakistan and another was the nuclear tests at Pokhran.

Economic Development

When India became independent in 1947, it was gripped by mass poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, static agriculture, poorly developed industries and inadequate infrastructure. There was an

urgent need immediate efforts on national scale to achieve the path of progress in the socio-economic front. Jawaharlal Nehru, was greatly influenced by the achievements of Soviet Planning. But he also realized the importance of the democratic values. He encouraged planning for rapid industrial and agricultural growth. He encouraged **Mixed Economy** as a result both public sector (Government owned) and Private Sector companies come in to existence. His fundamental objective was to build an independent self-reliant economy.

Economic Planning

The National Planning Commission was established on 15 March 1950 with the Prime Minister Nehru as its chairperson. The main objectives of the Planning Commission were:

- (i) To achieve higher level of national and per capita income.
- (ii) To achieve full employment.
- (iii) To reduce inequalities of income and wealth.
- (iv) To setup a society based on equality and justice and absence of exploitation.

The First Five Year Plan (1951-1956) tried to complete the projects at hand including the rehabilitation of refugees. It was only during the Second Five Year Plan (1956-61) Prof. P.C. Mahalanobis, the noted economist played a leading role. This plan aimed at developing the industrial sector in the country. Rapid industrialization with particular emphasis in the development of basic and heavy industries continued during the Third Five Year Plan (1961-66). During this period many iron and steel, chemical, fertilizers, heavy engineering and machine building industries were set up in different parts of India.

The objective of the Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74) was **“growth with stability”** and **“progressive achievement of self**

reliance”. The original draft outline of the plan was prepared in 1966 under the stewardship of Ashok Mehta. Popular economic slogan during this time was *Garibi Hatao* (Removal of poverty). The Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-79) was introduced at a time when the country was under severe economic crisis arising out of inflation. There was increase in oil price. But the plan was dropped at the end of the fourth year of the plan in March 1978 by the Janata Government.

The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) aimed at strengthening the infrastructure for both agriculture and industry and meet the minimum basic needs of the people. The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985 – 90) emphasized on accelerating the growth of food grains production, increasing employment opportunities and raising productivity. The Eighth Five Year Plan (1992 – 97) aimed to achieve the goals, namely, improvement in the levels of living, health and education of the people, full employment, and elimination of poverty and planned growth of population. The main objectives of the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997 – 2002) were to give priority to agricultural sector, to remove poverty, to control prices, to provide food to the weaker sections, population control, to develop panchayat administration and to uplift the depressed classes as well as tribal people.

The Green Revolution

Despite creditable growth of agricultural output in the 1950s India faced food shortage in the mid sixties. The increase in population and the huge outlay to the plan of industrialization put pressures on agricultural growth. India was forced to import millions of tons of food grains. The two wars with China (1962) and Pakistan (1965) and two successive drought years (1965-66) brought enormous pressures to food production. In this background the Green Revolution was launched in India with the aim of achieving self-sufficiency in food production.

The then Prime Minister, Lal Bahadur Shastri, Food Minister, C. Subramanian, and Indira Gandhi, who succeeded Shastri in 1966 after his brief tenure, put their efforts to the development of agriculture. The term Green Revolution was coined by Dr William Gadd of USA in 1968, when Indian farmers brought about a great advancement in wheat production. The introduction of modern methods of agriculture such as high-yield variety seeds, chemical fertilizers and pesticides agricultural machineries such as tractors, pump-sets and agricultural education considerably increased the food grain production in India. India attained food self-sufficiency by the 1980s. The effects of Green Revolution were notable in the north-western region of Punjab, Haryana and western U.P., Andhra Pradesh, parts of Karnataka and Tamil Nadu.

Growth of Science and Technology

Independent India has also witnessed a tremendous growth in the sphere of science and technology. After 1947, Nehru became aware of the significant role of scientific research and technology for the progress of India. India's first national laboratory, the National Physical Laboratory was established in 1947. It was followed by seventeen such national laboratories for specializing in different areas of research. Nehru himself assumed the chairmanship of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research.

In 1952, the first Indian Institute of Technology, on the model of Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was set up at Kharagpur. Subsequently, IITs were set up at Madras, Bombay, Kanpur and Delhi. The expenditure on scientific research and science-based activities has increased year by year.

There are about 200 research laboratories in India carrying out research in different areas. The Department of Science and

Technology (DST) which was set up in 1971 has been assigned the responsibility of formulating science policy.

Atomic Energy

India was one of the first countries in the world to recognize the importance of nuclear energy. The Atomic Energy Commission was set up in August 1948 under the chairmanship of Homi J. Baba to formulate a policy for all atomic energy activities in the country. The Department of Atomic Energy (DAE) was set up 1954 as executive agency for implementing the atomic energy programmes. In 1956, India's first nuclear reactor in Trombay near Bombay (first in Asia also) began to function. Research and development work in the field of atomic energy and allied fields are carried out at three research centres, namely the Bhabha Atomic Research Center at Trombay, the Indira Gandhi Centre for Atomic Research, Kalpakkam, Tamil Nadu and the Center for Advanced Technology, Chennai.



HOMI J. BABA

Space Research

India has also evinced interest in space research. The Indian National Committee for Space Research was set up in 1962. Side by side, a Rocket Launching Facility at Thumba came up. The first generation Indian National Satellite System (INSAT-1) represents India's first step towards implementing national requirements. The INSAT – 1A and the INSAT – 1B served country's need in the field of telecommunications and meteorological earth observations.

The ISRO [Indian Space Research Organization] looks after the activities in space science, technology and applications. The Vikram Sarabhai Space Centre at Trivandrum, the largest of the ISRO centres, is primarily responsible for indigenous launch vehicle

technology. The ISRO Satellite Centre, Bangalore is the satellite technology base of the Indian space programme.

The SHAR Centre, encompassing the Sriharikota Island in Andhra Pradesh on the east coast of India is the main operational base of ISRO which is the satellite launching range.

India's Foreign Policy

After 1947, India began to follow an independent foreign policy. It was designed by the first Prime Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru. He developed the basic principles of India's foreign policy. He was the architect of the Non-aligned Movement during the Cold War era. Also, he extended support to colonial countries in their struggle for independence. Nehru outlined the five principles of coexistence or **Panch Sheel** for conducting relations among countries. They are:

- mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty
- non-aggression
- non-interference in each other's internal affairs
- equality and mutual benefit and
- peaceful coexistence.

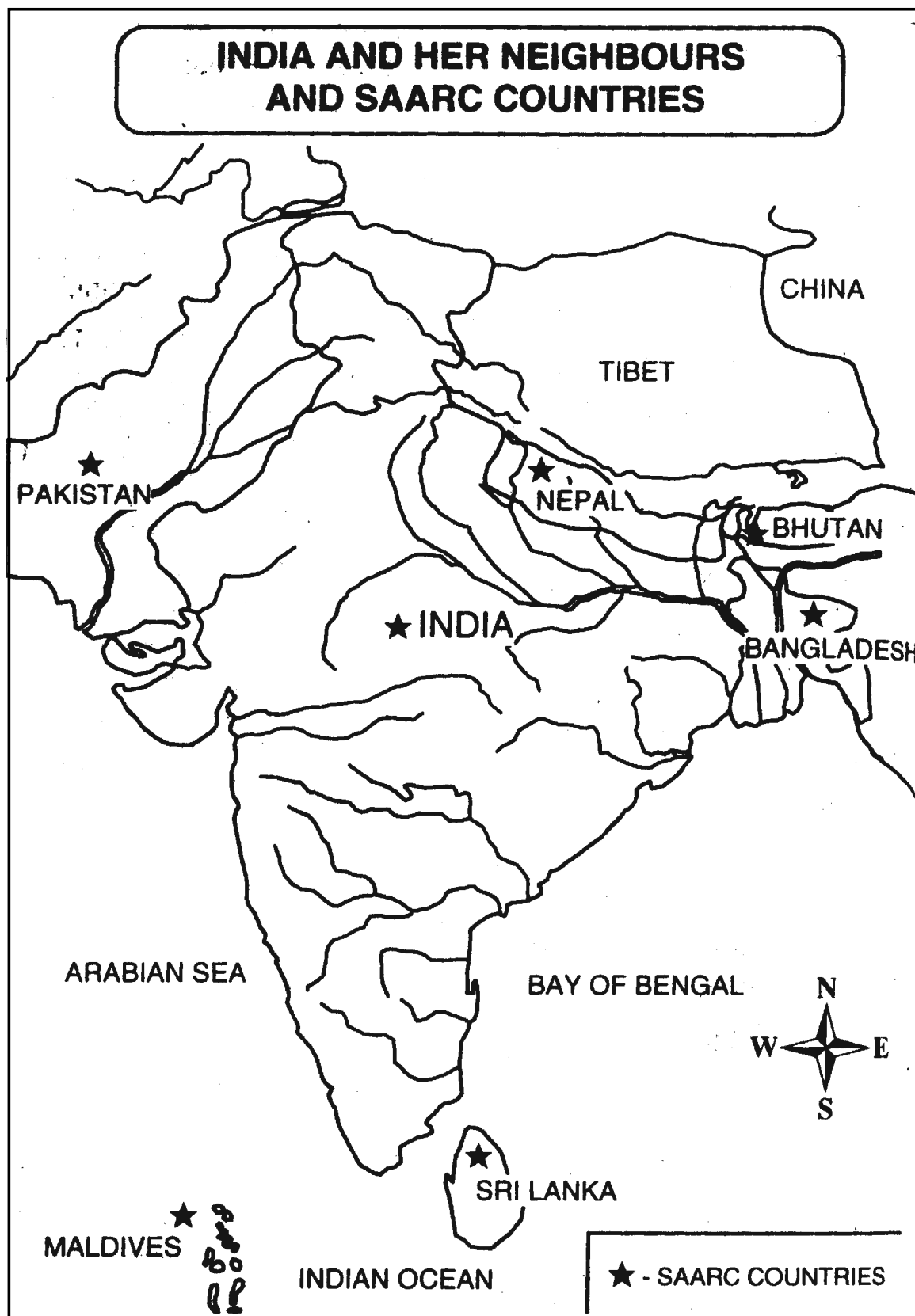
India plays an active role in international bodies such as the Common Wealth and the United Nations Organization. After the Independence, Nehru decided to stay within Common Wealth, an organization consisting of former British colonies. India had also played an active role in the UN peacekeeping forces in various parts of the world. It had sent its troops as part of UN peace-keeping Mission to Korea, Indo-China, Suez Canal and The Congo.

India had to fight three major wars [1965, 1971 and 2000] with Pakistan over the issue of Kashmir.

India maintained friendly relations with both USA and USSR during the Cold War era. In 1971 India and USSR signed the Indo-Soviet Treaty of Friendship and Alliance during the Bangladesh crisis.

India and China are the two most important powers of Asia. These two are the most populous countries of the World. Also, they possess the significance of proud, history and civilization dating back to ancient times. When the communist regime under the leadership of Mao Tse Tung was established in 1949, India was one among the first countries to recognize the People's Republic of China. In spite of India's friendly relations with China India had to defend herself when China attacked India in 1962. The emergence of Bangladesh as an independent state with the active help of India was an important event. During the liberation struggle between East Pakistan and West Pakistan India supported East Pakistan. The coordinated approach of the Indian forces along with Mukti Bahini ultimately led to the liberation of Bangladesh (East Pakistan) in December 1971 India is maintaining friendly relations right from the birth of Bangladesh in 1971.

India has also been maintaining friendly relations with its neighbours for which purpose the South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC) was established. India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Bhutan and Maldives are its members. The aim of SAARC is to increase economic, social and cultural cooperation among its members. Periodic meetings are being held to achieve this goal.



Learning Outcome

The students have learnt

- 1. The democratic principles laid in the Indian Constitution.*
- 2. Vallabhai Patel's Contribution to the integration of Princely States.*
- 3. The reorganization of states on linguistic basis.*
- 4. Nehru's economic planning and the objectives of various Five Year Plans.*
- 5. Development of science and Technology in various spheres including atomic research and space programmes.*
- 6. Basic principles of India's foreign policy and India's relations with world countries and neighbours.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Who among the following was the chairman of the Constituent Assembly?
(a) Dr. Ambedkar (b) Dr. Rajendra Prasad
(c) K.M. Panikkar (d) Jawaharlal Nehru
2. Which of the following Princely states refused to join the Indian Union?
(a) Hyderabad (b) Mysore
(c) Jaipur (d) Travancore
3. For the first time in independent India, a non-Congress ministry was formed under the leadership of
(a) V.P. Singh (b) Narasimha Rao
(c) Morarji Desai (d) A.B. Vajpayee
4. The first Indian Institute of Technology was set up at
(a) Kanpur (b) Bombay
(c) Madras (d) Kharagpur

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Iron Man of India was
2. Andhra State was created in the year
3. was considered as the architect of modern India.
4. The New Education Policy was introduced by
5. With the aim of achieving self sufficiency in food production was launched.

6. The Bhaba Atomic Research Centre is situated at
7. The nation Bangladesh emerged in

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Raja Hari Singh | a. Emergency Rule |
| 2. Indira Gandhi | b. Atomic Energy Commission |
| 3. V.P. Singh | c. ISRO |
| 4. Homi J. Bhaba | d. Kashmir |
| 5. Vikram Sarabai | e. Mandal Commission |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) The President is the constitutional head of the state.
- b) The Planning Commission was established with the Vice-President as its chairman.
- c) The Indira Gandhi Centre for Atomic Research is situated in Neyveli.
- d) ISRO satellite centre is at Mangalore.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The States Reorganization Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Fazal Ali.
2. Dr. Manmohan Singh served as Finance Minister under P.V. Narasimha Rao.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Green Revolution
2. Panch Sheel
3. ISRO

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the salient features of the Indian Constitution.
2. Write a note on the Linguistic Reorganization of States.
3. Mention the important features of India's foreign policy.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Analyse the role of Sardar Vallabhai Patel in the integration of Indian states.
2. Give an account of the economic progress through five year plans.
3. Describe the development of science and technology in independent India.
4. "Jawaharlal Nehru is the architect of modern India" – Discuss.

LESSON 21

RENAISSANCE

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The meaning of Renaissance.*
- 2. The causes for the birth of Renaissance in Italy.*
- 3. Revival of classical Literature.*
- 4. Renaissance Literature.*
- 5. Renaissance Art.*
- 6. Development of Science.*
- 7. Results of the Renaissance.*

The term Renaissance literally means “rebirth” or “revival”. But it refers to the significant changes that took place in Europe during the transition period between the medieval and modern. There was a revival of literature and art on the intellectual side. The spirit of enquiry led to scientific inventions. Politically, this period witnessed the end of feudalism and the emergence of nation-states. The spirit of individualism and humanism began to dominate in the social sphere. The religious transformation was symbolized by the Reformation. All these changes in Europe were collectively referred to as Renaissance.

The Roman Empire declined by the end of the 5th century A.D. It had resulted in the neglect of classical literature and arts. But these treasures of culture were preserved in the Eastern Roman Empire with its capital at Constantinople. The Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople in 1453. As a result, the Byzantine-Greek scholars

fled from Constantinople to Rome. They brought with them the Greek and Roman heritage. With this revival of classical learning in Italy, a spirit of enquiry developed. This spirit of enquiry stimulated the progress of science, art, architecture, sculpture, painting, literature, geography and religion.

Renaissance in Italy

Italy is considered the birth place of the Renaissance for several reasons. Some of them were:

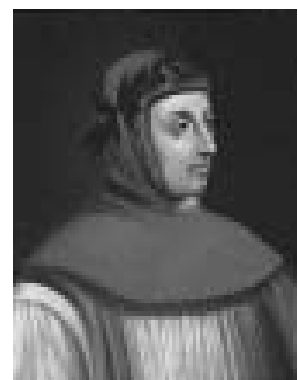
- Italy was the seat of ancient civilization and the Latin language.

- The rich city states in Italy like Florence and Venice patronized art and literature. For example, the Medici family of Florence had patronized many scholars.

- The publication of the *Divine Comedy* by the greatest Italian poet Dante (1265-1321) triggered the Renaissance movement in the city of Florence. It was written in the Italian language. Thereafter, the Renaissance spread to other parts of Europe and reached its peak in the sixteenth century.

Revival of Classical Literature

The most important contribution of the Renaissance was the revival and learning of ancient Greek and Latin literature. The pioneer in this effort was Petrarch (1304–1374) with his profound knowledge in these languages, he collected and compiled many ancient manuscripts containing the works of Plato and Aristotle. His disciple Boccaccio had also encouraged the classical learning. Many Greek scholars who came from Constantinople spread the ancient Greek literature in Florence. The most notable among them was Manuel Chrysolores.



PETRARCH

**BOCCACCIO**

Another scholar, Bracciolini traced the works of Tacitus, Livy and Sophocles. In the 15th century Pope Nicholas V founded the Vatican Library and the ancient manuscripts were preserved in that library. They were studied and analysed by scholars. The contribution of Erasmus (1463-1536) in correcting and editing the Latin works was also notable. He edited the *New Testament* in the Greek language.

**LIVY**

The invention of printing press by John Gutenberg (1398-1468) in Germany had influenced the Renaissance literature. The first book published by him was *The Bible*. William Caxton set up a printing press in England.

**ERASMUS**

Shortly, many printing presses came up throughout Europe and it provided a stimulus to the Renaissance movement. The availability of books at cheaper rates made the masses to improve their awareness.

Renaissance Literature

Apart from the revival of classical literature, many works in classical languages as well as in the native languages came up during this period. We have already referred to Dante's *Divine Comedy* written in the Italian language. Similarly, Chaucer wrote the *Canterbury Tales* in English. Boccaccio was the author of the *Decameron*, a collection of fables. Machiavelli, who lived in

**DANTE****MACHIAVELLI**

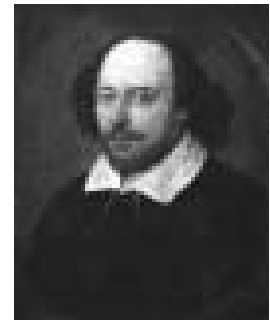
Florence, wrote his eight- volume *History of Florence*. His most famous work was *The Prince*, a book on political science.



THOMAS MORE

While Italy was the home of the most famous literary figures of the Renaissance, a Renaissance literature typical of that period can also be found in France, England, Germany, and Spain.

In England, Sir Thomas Moore wrote his famous book *Utopia* in Latin. However, the Elizabethan era marked the beginning of the English Renaissance. It saw dramatists like William Shakespeare, Christopher Marlowe and Charles Webster; poets like Edmund Spenser, Sydney and Ben Johnson. Hakluyt wrote excellent travel accounts during this period.



SHAKESPEARE



MARTIN LUTHER

Montaigne (1533-1592), the French essayist, was the most typical writer of the Renaissance literature. His works reflect an intense interest in himself and in things connected with the life of man. His essays on education were regarded as important for centuries. A forerunner of Voltaire in his method of writing and thinking, Montaigne revolted against the authority and the tyranny of the past and earned the title “the first modern man”.

In Germany, Martin Luther translated the *Bible* in the German language. Sebastian Brant wrote *The Ship of Fools*. In Spain, Cervantes authored the famous *Don Quixote*.

Renaissance Art

Art in the Middle Ages was dominated by the Christian religion and Church. During the Renaissance importance was given to the love of nature and human body. Although the spirit of humanism

prevailed, the subject matter of the most of the Renaissance art was Christian. Renaissance painting bloomed most profusely in Italy. Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519), Michelangelo (1475-1564) and Raphael (1483-1520) were the dominant figures among the Renaissance painters.



LEONARDO DA VINCI

Leonardo da Vinci, one of the most versatile men of his time, was an artist, poet, musician, and engineer. Hence, he is known as the “Renaissance Man”. Born in Florence, he visited several countries. He was patronized by the Duke of Milan. His famous paintings were the *Mona Lisa* and the *Last Supper*.

Michelangelo was both a painter and sculptor. He lived in Florence and patronized by the Medici family. Later, he went to Rome. The magnificent frescoes on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican represent his most brilliant achievement in painting. This work contains 145 pictures with 394 figures, some of which are as much as ten feet high. His painting, *The Last Judgement* is considered the best in the world.



MICHELANGELO

Raphael achieved a rare blending of devotional feeling with a sense of beauty. Although Raphael died at the age of thirty-seven, he produced a great number of paintings, of which the most familiar is the *Madonna*.



RAPHAEL

The Venetian School is an excellent example of the secularization of the Renaissance art. Artistic expression in Venice was worldly and materialistic. Titian (1477-1576) and Tintoretto (1518-1592) were the greatest painters of Venice.

Renaissance Sculpture

The art of sculpture had also witnessed progress during the Renaissance period. It was more original and beautiful. The pioneer of the Renaissance sculpture was Lorenzo Ghiberti (1378-1455). The magnificent doors at the Baptistery of Florence were his master piece.



LORENZO Ghiberti

Michael Angelo appreciated the beauty of these doors as worthy to the gates of the Paradise. Donatello (1386-1466) produced the statue of St. George in Florence and that of St. Mark at Venice. Michelangelo besides being a painter was a celebrated sculptor. He produced some of his best sculptures for the Medici family in Florence. He was also the creator of the statue of David in Florence. Brunelleschi and Robbia were the other famous sculptors of this period. One of the most familiar examples of the Renaissance architecture is St. Peter's Church of Rome.

Development of Science

The spirit of modern science was born with the Renaissance.



FRANCIS BACON

Science in the Middle Ages struggled against superstitions. The Renaissance brought about a critical observation of natural phenomena. This spirit of learning took root in science.

Francis Bacon (1561-1626) is considered the father of modern science.

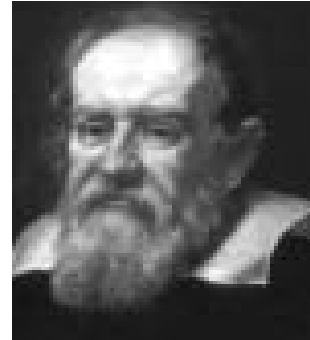
He denounced the deductive method and advocated the inductive method in scientific research. **Descartes** (1596-1650) brought out convincingly the necessity of questioning everything. Descartes contributed the idea of doubt, and doubt was the forerunner of a new age in science.



COPERNICUS

**KEPLER**

Copernicus (1473-1543) established the **heliocentric theory**. According to this theory the heavenly bodies do not revolve about the earth as believed during that period but around the sun. **Kepler** (1571-1630) formulated mathematical

**GALILEO**

laws to support the conclusions of Copernicus. He also stated that the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbits. **Galileo** (1564-1642) through the invention of the telescope brought new evidence to support the Copernican theory.

**NEWTON**

Newton (1642-1727) concluded that the movements of all celestial bodies were controlled by gravitation. With the new astronomical knowledge that was available, the old Julian calendar was reformed in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII.

The humanistic spirit of the Renaissance had also awakened increased interest in the study of medicine and anatomy. Vesalius (1514-1564), a Netherlander wrote a treatise on human anatomy. William Harvey (1578-1657) discovered the blood circulation, a prime contribution to medical science. In this period, chemistry became something more than alchemy. Paracelsus (1493-1541) showed that reactions in the human body involve chemical changes. He had employed chemicals for medicinal purposes. Cordus (1515-1544) made ether from sulphuric acid and alcohol. Helmont (1577-1644) discovered the carbon dioxide.

Results of the Renaissance

The Renaissance remained the symbol of the beginning of the modern age. The spirit of enquiry and the consequent scientific

inventions produced important changes in the life of humanity. The invention of the Mariner's Compass and other astronomical faiths led to the Geographical discoveries. The impact of these discoveries was profound in the political and economic life of the people. The reasoning spirit had resulted in the Reformation and changed the outlook of the people towards religion.



WILLIAM HARVEY

Important Historical Events of Renaissance	
1300	Humanism taught at Padua University in Italy
1341	Petrarch given title of 'Poet Laureate' in Rome
1349	University established in Florence
1390	Geoffrey Chaucer's Canterbury Tales published
1436	Brunelleschi designs the Duomo in Florence
1454	Gutenberg prints the Bible with movable type
1495	Leonardo da Vinci paints The Last Supper
1512	Michelangelo paints the Sistine Chapel ceiling
1516	Thomas More's Utopia published
1543	Andreas Vesalius writes On Anatomy
1582	Gregorian calendar introduced by Pope Gregory XIII
1628	William Harvey links the heart with blood circulation
1687	Isaac Newton's <i>Principia Mathematica</i> published

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The wider meaning of the Renaissance.*
- 2. The reasons for the birth of Renaissance in Italy.*
- 3. The role of intellectuals like Dante and Petrarch in the revival of Classical Literature.*
- 4. The role of Leonardo da Vinci and others in the Renaissance art.*
- 5. The scientific development during the Renaissance.*
- 6. The results of the Renaissance.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople in
(a) 1453 (b) 1533
(c) 1543 (d) 1443
2. Who among the following is considered as the father of modern science?
(a) Copernicus (b) Francis Bacon
(c) Kepler (d) Newton

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Boccaccio was the disciple of
2. The Prince, a book on political science was written by
3. Telescope was invented by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Last Supper | a. Michael Angelo |
| 2. Last Judgement | b. Sebastian Brant |
| 3. Madonna | c. Sir Thomas Moore |
| 4. Utopia | d. Leonardo da Vinci |
| 5. The Ship of Fools | e. Raphael |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a) The first book published by John Gutenberg was *The Bible*.
- b) Descartes is considered the father of modern science

- c) Newton established the Heliocentric Theory.
- d. Blood circulation was discovered by Thomas More.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. Dante's Divine Comedy was written in the Latin language.
- 2. The printing press was first invented by William Caxton.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Meaning of Renaissance.
- 2. Leonardo da Vinci.
- 3. Copernicus.

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Discuss the causes for the birth of Renaissance in Italy.
- 2. Write a note on the Renaissance sculpture.
- 3. Estimate the results of the Renaissance.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Evaluate the role of intellectuals in the development of Renaissance literature.
- 2. Assess the scientific development during the period of the Renaissance.

LESSON 22

GEOGRAPHICAL DISCOVERIES

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The causes leading to the geographical discoveries.*
- 2. The role of Portugal in exploring the new sea routes.*
- 3. The role of Spain in the discovery of new continents.*
- 4. Other geographical discoveries.*
- 5. The impact of geographical discoveries.*

The Geographical Discoveries of the 15th and 16th centuries constitute an important chapter in the history of the modern world. It is also known as the Age of Discovery. The new sea routes to the East as well as the discovery of new continents like the America radically transformed the course of history. The adventurous spirit of the sailors like Bartholomew Diaz, Christopher Columbus and Ferdinand Magellan ultimately led to these historic discoveries. There are several causes that led to these discoveries.

Causes for the Geographical Discoveries

1. In 1453, the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, the important trade route to the East. Thus, the Turks began to control the European trade with the East. They imposed heavy duties on the goods. On the other hand, the Arab traders continued their trade through the Coasts of India and got huge profits in spice trade. Therefore, the Europeans were forced to find an alternative route to the East.

2. The Renaissance spirit and the consequent scientific discoveries were also responsible for geographical discoveries. The art of ship-building developed along with the invention of Mariner's Compass. The astronomical and other scientific discoveries raised the hope of the adventurers to explore new sea routes.
3. The travel accounts of Marco Polo and Nicolo Polo about China and India kindled great enthusiasm among the Europeans about the fabulous wealth of the Eastern countries. Other accounts of the voyages also encouraged explorations. A *Merchants Handbook* described all known trade routes between Europe and the Far East. Similarly, the *Secrets of the Faithful Crusader* told about Asiatic cities.
4. Other factors such as the spirit of adventure, desire for new lands and competition for exploration between European nations had also stimulated the explorers venturing into the seas.

Portugal

The first great wave of expeditions was launched by Portugal. Its ruler was Henry (1394-1460) generally known



HENRY THE NAVIGATOR

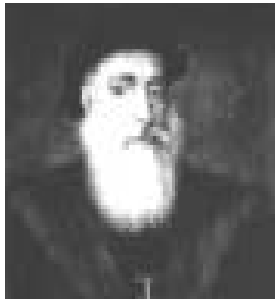
as “the Navigator”. As a result of his efforts, the Madeira and Azores Islands were discovered. The main project of **Henry the Navigator** was the exploration of the West Coast of Africa. His sailors discovered the Cape Verde



BARTHOLOMEW
DIAZ

Islands. Although Henry died in 1460, his zeal provided stimulus to the Portuguese for further explorations. In 1487 **Bartholomew Diaz** reached the southern tip of Africa and called it “the Cape of Storms” due to a terrible storm he experienced there. Later it was renamed as “the Cape of Good Hope” because it provided hope that access to the Indian Ocean was possible. Vasco da Gama

successfully used this route and reached India in 1498. Vasco da Gama's discovery of a new sea-route to India was a most significant event in the history of Europe and Asia.



VASCO DA GAMA

Spain

Next to Portugal, Spain began to explore the sea route to the east. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese sailor, planned to discover a new sea route to the East by traveling westwards.

After securing monetary assistance from King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain, he set sail on August 3, 1492 across the Atlantic. After a long and difficult voyage he reached an island of the Bahamas on Oct 12, 1492. He thought that he had reached the shores of India. Therefore, he called the natives of that island Indians. He made three more voyages and explored the islands in the Caribbean Sea and Central America. These islands are even today called as the West Indies.



COLOUMBUS



AMERIGO VESPUCCI

Later in 1501, Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian navigator, with the support of the king of Spain explored the areas of South America. He came to the conclusion that what Columbus discovered was not India but a "New World". Therefore the new continent was named as America. However, Columbus is considered as the discoverer of America.

In 1493, Pope Alexander VI issued a Bull in order to prevent any dispute between Spain and Portugal in exploring new sea routes and new lands.

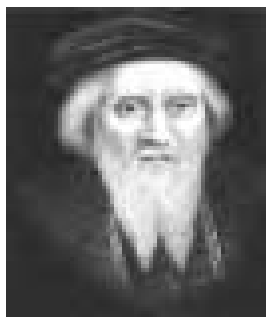


MAGELLAN

It is popularly called the Papal Bull (order of Pope). According to it an imaginary line was drawn dividing the globe into east and west. Spain was given the right to possess the lands on the west and Portugal on the east of the Pope's line. Thus, Spain could not use sea route through the Cape of Good Hope to reach the East Indies.

Therefore, Spain planned to reach the east by sailing westwards. On August 10, 1519, Ferdinand Magellan had sailed with five Spanish ships – namely, *Trinidad*, *San Antonio*, *Concepcion*, *Victoria*, and *Santiago* - from the port of *Sevilla*. The fleet of Magellan crossed an arduous 373-mile long passage on the southern end of South America. This strait is now named the **Strait of Magellan**. Then he entered an ocean which was calmer than the Atlantic. Therefore, he named it the **Pacific Ocean**. While crossing the Pacific, the sailors suffered for want of food and drinking-water. At last, on March 6, 1521, they reached the Philippines, where Magellan was killed by the natives. The survivors with the only remaining ship, the *Victoria* arrived at *Sevilla* through the Cape of Good Hope on September 9, 1522. It was the first voyage undertaken round the world.

Other Geographical Discoveries



JOHN CABOT

In 1497, John Cabot was sent by Henry VII of England to explore the seas. He discovered the Newfoundland. In his next expedition, he reached North America and explored it. But he was not able to find any people there and returned to England disappointed. However, this voyage resulted in the claim of England to the mainland of North America. In

1534, Jacques Cartier from France went to the North America and explored the region. He found the Red Indian settlements and named that region as Canada.



JACUS CARTIER

Voyages by Europeans	
1492	Columbus claims Bahama Islands and Cuba for Spain
1494	The 'undiscovered world' divided between Portugal and
1497	John Cabot, Englishman, explores North American coast
1498	Vasco da Gama reaches Calicut/Kozhikode
1499	Amerigo Vespucci sights South American coast
1522	Magellan circumnavigates the globe
1571	Spanish conquer the Philippines
1600	British East India Company formed
1602	Dutch East India Company formed

Impact of the Geographical Discoveries

The geographical discoveries had a profound impact on the economic, political and social conditions in most parts of the world. The most important among them are:

1. There was a tremendous improvement in the trade and industry in Europe. It began to reach beyond the Oceans.
2. The expansion of trade provided a stimulus to the development of ship-building industry. Larger quantities of goods had to be carried in bigger ships.
3. As the trade developed in large scale, joint-stock companies and banking enterprises emerged. European companies established their trade centres in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

4. The trading companies slowly captured political power and established their rule in their respective regions. This led to Colonialism and Imperialism.
5. Capitalism had grown in Europe along with the policy of Mercantilism. As a result, the colonies were exploited.
6. The mad rush for new colonies led to mutual rivalry among the European powers and ultimately resulted in wars.
7. The system of slavery was followed. The European planters in America imported Negro slaves from Africa to work in their plantations.
8. The geographical discoveries solved the problem of over population in Europe and many Europeans began to settle in the American continents.
9. The culture of Europe had spread to Asia, Africa and other parts of the world very rapidly.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

1. *The causes like the fall of Constantinople and scientific discoveries led to geographical discoveries.*
2. *Henry the Navigator and his contributions to geographical explorations.*
3. *Early efforts of the Portuguese navigators like Bartholomew Diaz.*
4. *The explorations of Christopher Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci.*
5. *Magellan's circumnavigation of the Globe.*
6. *Impact of the geographical discoveries.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Madeira and Azores islands were discovered by
 - (a) Henry
 - (b) Bartholomew Diaz
 - (c) Columbus
 - (d) Magellan

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Vascodagama reached India in
2. Canada was discovered by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Bartholomew Diaz | a. Bahamas Island |
| 2. Columbus | b. Newfoundland |
| 3. Amerigo Vespucci | c. Cape of Storm |
| 4. John Cabot | d. America |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a. King Ferdinand of Spain is generally known as “the Navigator”.
- b. In 1487 Vasco da Gama reached the southern tip of Africa and called it “the Cape of Storms”.
- c. Ferdinand Magellan while crossing the clam part of the ocean named it the Pacific Ocean.
- d. John Cabot of England went to the North America and explored the region.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Vasco da Gama_reached India in 1598.
2. Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian navigator, with the support of the king of Spain explored the areas of South America.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Henry the Navigator.
2. Ferdinand Magellan

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the role of Portugal in exploring the new sea routes.
2. Analyse the causes for the geographical discoveries.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the contribution of Spain towards the discovery of new countries.
2. Examine the impact of the geographical discoveries.

LESSON 23

THE REFORMATION AND COUNTER REFORMATION

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The causes for the Reformation.*
- 2. Martin Luther's Contribution to the Reformation.*
- 3. Ulrich Zwingli and the Reformation in Switzerland.*
- 4. John Calvin and his contribution to the Reformation.*
- 5. Counter Reformation.*
- 6. The results of the Reformation.*

The term Reformation refers to a great religious reform movement in Europe during 16th century. There was a big protest against the Christian Church in different parts of Europe and it ultimately resulted in the emergence of Protestant Christian religion. This great religious movement was not only the evidence of a great religious change, but also proclaimed the dawn of a new era. The Reformation started in Germany and later it spread to other countries.

Causes for the Reformation

There are several causes for the Reformation.

1. The Christian Church under the Pope was originally commanded respect among the people. But in the Middle ages, it had become a big feudal institution and possessed so much of lands and wealth. The Popes enjoyed great political influence and interfered into the political affairs. As a result they began to neglect their spiritual duties. The Pope and the clergy began to lead luxurious lives. The Popes like Alexander VI, Julius II

and Leo X who lived in 15th and 16th centuries with their activities undermined the respect and prestige of the Church.

2. The Renaissance movement created a spirit of inquiry among the masses. They began to read the *Bible* and realized that the activities of the Church and the clergy were not according to the precepts of the holy book. In the years preceding the Reformation, many writers condemned luxurious and superstitious practices prevalent in the Church. John Wycliffe (1330-1384) from England criticized the Pope for his authority and misdeeds. He translated the *Bible* into English. He is considered “the Morning Star of the Reformation. Erasmus (1466-1536) attacked the superstitions followed by the clergy in his book *In Praise of Folly*. It was published in 1509. John Huss (1369-1415), a Bohemian, struggled for reforming the Church. But he was condemned for his writings against the Church and burnt to death. These early efforts to reform the Church sowed the seeds for the Reformation of the 16th century.
3. The emergence of nation-states in Europe eroded the political influence enjoyed by the Church during the Middle Ages. The Pope and the Emperor lost their influence and power. The people began to respect their king and the nation. Therefore, the concept of Universal Church slowly gave way to national churches.

Martin Luther (1483-1546)

The Reformation started in Germany and it was led by Martin Luther. Martin Luther was born in Eisleben on November 10, 1483. Luther was educated at the University of Erfurt. He became a monk in 1508. In November 1510 he visited Rome. He was shocked to see the worldly life led by the



MARTIN LUTHER

Roman clergy. In 1512 he received his doctorate in theology from Wittenberg University. He began his career as a professor of theology in the same university. Thereafter, Luther began a systematic campaign for the removal of evils of the Church.

In 1517, Pope Leo X sent John Tetzel to Germany to sell indulgences for the purpose of



POPE LEO X

raising money to renovate the Saint Peter's Church at Rome. An indulgence was originally meant a promise given to a sinner for the remission of punishment if he



JOHN TETZEL

repented and confessed his sins. But Pope Leo X used the sale of indulgences to raise money. Therefore, Luther opposed the practice of the sale of indulgences. When John Tetzel visited

Wittenberg, Luther listed the abuse of indulgence in his 95 theses and nailed it to the doors of the church. Pope Leo X got alarmed and excommunicated Luther in January 1521. Luther burnt this order in public.



CHARLES V

Then the Pope appealed to Charles V, the Holy Roman Emperor, to punish Luther for his writings against the Church. But Luther had the support of the German princes. However, he appeared before Emperor Charles V at the Diet of Worms in April 1521. Luther was proclaimed guilty. But before his imprisonment, he was escorted by his friends and kept at Wartburg Castle. There he translated *New Testament* from

original Greek into German language. He published his most popular book, the *Small Catechism*, in 1529. Luther led a life of seclusion till his death in 1546.

When the rural people of Germany joined this religious protest it became the Peasants' War of 1524-1525. The revolt of peasants was suppressed with an iron hand. Many peasants were massacred. In the Diet of Spire which met in 1526, the religious question was raised again by the German princes. The Diet gave permission to the princes to choose their own religion. But, Emperor Charles V revoked this decision in 1529. Therefore, the German princes drew up a protest and they came to be known as "Protestants". It was only in the Peace of Augsburg in 1555, formal approval was given by the Emperor to the princes either to remain Catholic or Lutheran. It gave recognition only to Lutheran sect and not to Zwinglianism or Calvinism.

Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531)

Ulrich Zwingli paved the way for the Reformation in Switzerland. He was contemporary of Martin Luther. Born in a rich family in Switzerland, he became a priest in the Zurich Canton in



ULRICHZWINGLI

1502. He attacked abuses of the Church such as the sale of indulgences. He spoke openly that the clergy should strictly follow the principles of the *Bible*. Samson was sent to Zurich by the Pope to sell the indulgences. It was opposed by Zwingli. Thereafter, his preaching was directed against the leadership of the Pope, the excessive veneration of saints, the celibacy of the priesthood, and fasting.

His stand against the celibacy was opposed by the bishop of Constance. The city council voted in favour of Zwingli and against the bishop. Thus Zurich adopted the Reformation. In 1523, Pope sent an order excommunicating Zwingli but, the Zurich Canton announced its separation from the Church. Five other Cantons declared a war against Zurich in which Zwingli was killed in 1531. Finally an agreement was reached between the Cantons by which each Canton was given freedom to choose their religious sect.

John Calvin (1509-1564)



JOHN CALVIN

The French protest reformer John Calvin was born in France. He studied humanities and Law at the University of Paris. He obtained in 1532, Doctor of Law. His first published work was a commentary on Roman philosopher Seneca's *De Clementia*. In 1536, he settled in Geneva. His main teachings are that the Bible alone is the final authority for matters of faith and that salvation is attained purely through grace. He subscribed to the doctrine of the absolute fore-knowledge and the determining power of God. Calvin published his religious doctrines as a book called *The Institutes of Christian Religion*. His religious sect was known as Calvinism. He became the head of the church in Geneva. He established several schools for the spread of education. He was also the founder of the University of Geneva. Calvinism had spread to many parts of Europe.



Reformation in England

HENRY VIII

King Henry VIII of England initially opposed Martin Luther and supported the Pope. He was called "the Defender of Faith" by Pope Leo X. This relationship with the Pope broke down when the Pope refused to permit King Henry VIII to marry Anne Boleyn after divorcing his queen. He asked the Parliament to pass an Act of Supremacy in 1534 by which the king was made the head of the Church of England. This new Church independent of the authority of Pope was called the Anglican Church. Henry VIII did not introduce any changes in the Catholic doctrines. But the Anglican Church became really



EDWARD VI

Protestant in the reign of Edward VI (1547-1553). The service books were translated into English.

Counter-Reformation

The success of the Reformation movement created a great awe and fear in the Roman Catholic Church. Before things went out of control, it took drastic measures to check the spread of the Protestant religion and also to carry out reforms within itself. This process was known as Counter-Reformation.

Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556) was a Spanish soldier and lost his legs in a war. Thereafter, he decided to contribute his might to the



IGNATIUS LOYOLA

cause of the Roman Catholic Church. Loyola founded the Society of Jesus in 1534 and it was recognized by the Pope. The aim of this Society was to reform and restore the glory of the Catholic Church. Members of the society were known as Jesuits. They worked hard to earn good name for the Catholic Church through their dedicated service.

They established schools and colleges in several parts of the world. They achieved a remarkable success in their missionary activities. They remained faithful to the Pope and the Catholic religion.

The Council of Trent (1545-1563) introduced several reforms in the Catholic Church. The most glaring abuses of the clergy were removed. Celibacy was strictly enforced for them. The sale of offices was stopped. The practice of the sale of indulgences was abolished. It also stressed that clergy adhere more strictly to their duties. The Pope was recognized as the supreme authority in the matters of religion.

An Index consisting of the list of dangerous and heretical books was issued by the Church. The Catholics were prohibited from reading these books.

Similarly the medieval practice of Ecclesiastical Court of Inquisition was revived. Torture was used to extract confession. Severe punishments such as burning to death were employed against the enemies of the Church.

The success of the Counter Reformation can be understood from the fact that the rapid spread of Protestantism was halted. Southern Germany, France, Poland, some of the Swiss cantons, and Savoy were brought back to the Catholic faith. At the same time Protestantism was driven out of Italy and Spain. The Roman Catholic Church is still one of the greatest religious organizations in the world.

Important Historical Events of Reformation	
1492	Columbus claims Bahama Islands and Cuba for Spain
1517	Martin Luther writes the Ninety-Five Theses
1522	Luther translates the Bible into German
1525	Peasant uprising in Germany
1559	Anglican Church established in England, with the king/queen as its head

Effects of Reformation

The important results of the Reformation were:

1. The Reformation led to two major divisions in Christianity – Catholics and Protestants. This division had resulted in religious persecution and religious wars Germany and in other parts of Europe.
2. People were encouraged to read the *Bible* and ponder on religion. The freedom given by the Protestants to interpret the *Bible* led to free thinking. It encouraged the development of art, literature and science.

3. The democratic church system paved the way for the growth of democracy and nationalism. The nations began to evolve their own churches. The place of Pope was taken by the nationalistic churches.
4. The rapid progress of the Protestant religion and the counter-Reformation ultimately resulted in the purification of the Church. Both Catholics and Protestants began to adopt high moral standards after the Reformation. The Catholics purified their Church establishments and this in turn improved the values in the society.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

1. *The abuses in the Church and other factors led to the Reformation.*
2. *The life and work of Martin Luther in bringing the Reformation in Germany.*
3. *The role of John Calvin and Ulrich Zwingli in the Reformation.*
4. *The process of Counter Reformation and the role of Ignatius Loyola.*
5. *The results of the Reformation.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which among the following was not a reason for the Reformation?
 - (a) The Spirit of enquiry created by the Renaissance
 - (b) Emergence of nation-states in Europe
 - (c) The Geographical discoveries
 - (d) The luxurious life led by the Pope and the Clergy.
2. Who is considered as the ‘morning star of the Reformation’?
 - (a) Erasmus
 - (b) Martin Luther
 - (c) John Huss
 - (d) John Wycliffe

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Society of Jesus was founded by
2. The founder of the University of Geneva was

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 1. Martin Luther | a. France |
| 2. Ulrich Zwingli | b. Spain |
| 3. John Calvin | c. Germany |
| 4. Ignatius Loyola | d. England |
| 5. John Wycliffe | e. Switzerland |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Counter Reformation was launched by the Protestants.
- b) The followers of Ignatius Loyola contributed for the spread of education.
- c) The Trent Council was convened by Henry VIII.
- d) During the Counter Reformation an Index consisting of the list of good books was issued by the Church.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1. King Henry VIII of England initially supported Martin Luther and opposed the Pope.
- 2. The Anglican Church became really Protestant in the reign of Edward.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Ulrich Zwingli
- 2. Counter Reformation
- 3. Society of Jesus

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Discuss the role of John Calvin in the Reformation.
- 2. Evaluate the effects of the Reformation.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the causes for the Reformation.
- 2. Analyse the contribution of Martin Luther for the Reformation in Germany.
- 3. Discuss the course of the Counter Reformation.

LESSON 24

THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE (1776-1783)

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The fundamental causes of the American War of Independence.*
- 2. The circumstances leading the war.*
- 3. The Declaration of Independence.*
- 4. Important events of the war.*
- 5. Importance of the war.*

The English Colonies in America

After the discovery of the American continent, there was a continuous migration of people from Europe to the New World. South America was colonized by Spain. The English and the French established their colonies in the North America. By the mid eighteenth century, the English had established their thirteen colonies along the Atlantic coast. Landless peasants, people seeking religious freedom and traders had settled there. Initially the relationship between the colonies and British Government was cordial. Although these colonies were controlled through the governors, they enjoyed political freedom. Each colony had its own assembly elected by the people. It enacted laws concerning local matters. However, the policies followed by the home government (Britain) had resulted in the confrontation. This ultimately led to the American War of Independence at the end of which the colonies became independent. There were several causes for this war.

Fundamental Causes

The British Government followed the policy of mercantilism. According to this policy the colonies existed for the benefit of the mother country. The colonies were expected to furnish raw materials. They had to serve as markets for produced goods. Moreover, the colonies had to ship their goods only in British ships. In these ways the colonies were expected to add more wealth to the home country. The British Government enacted laws to implement this policy of mercantilism.

A series of Navigation Acts were passed by the British Parliament to control the trade of the American colonies. These Acts insisted that all the goods of both exports and imports should be carried in ships owned by England. Custom collectors were appointed in the colonies to implement the Navigation Acts. But, the American colonies considered these Acts as infringement of their rights.

The Molasses Act levied heavy duties on sugar and molasses imported into the American colonies. In addition to this, a series of Trade Acts were also passed to control the trade in the colonies. For example, the Hat Act of 1732 prohibited the import of hats from one colony to the other. The Iron Act 1750 stopped the large-scale production of iron in the colonies. These Acts were opposed by the colonies.

Due to these restrictions, bitterness developed between the home government and the American colonies. They were looking for an opportunity to free themselves from the control of Britain.

Circumstances leading to the War of Independence

Seven Year's War

The end of the Seven Years War in 1763 and the transfer of Canada from France to England removed the French fear from the

minds of the Americans. There was no need to depend on their mother country against any possible attack by the French. Therefore, the American colonies decided to face the colonial attitude of the British.

Granville Measures

When Granville was the Prime Minister of England a series of Acts were passed affecting the interests of the American colonies. The Proclamation of 1763 prohibited the colonists from purchasing lands beyond Appalachian Mountains. The Sugar Act of 1764 increased the duties on the sugar which affected the interests of the colonies. The Stamp Act of 1765 insisted on the use of British stamps in commercial and legal documents of the colonies. The Quartering Act made it compulsory that colonists should provide food and shelter to English troops. These measures were severely opposed by the colonists. They raised the slogan “No Taxation without Representation” thus insisting American representation in the English Parliament. As violence broke out in the streets, the Stamp Act was repealed.

Townshend Laws

Charles Townshend, the Finance Minister of England imposed fresh taxes on glass, paper, tea, paints, etc in 1767. It was known as Townshend laws. The Americans protested it and boycotted the British goods. On 5th March 1770, five Americans were killed by the British soldiers at Boston during the protest. It was known as the Boston Massacre. After this event, the Townshend laws were repealed.

Boston Tea Party

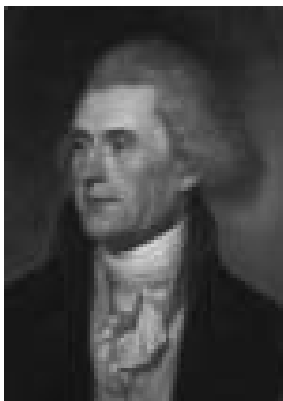


BOSTON TEA PARTY

In 1773, a new Tea Act was passed imposing a tax on import of tea. It was a symbol to show that the British Parliament had the right to tax the colonies. But Americans showed their protest. A group of Americans dressed as Red Indians,

climbed on the ships and threw away the tea bundles into the sea at the Boston harbour. This event took place on 16th December 1773 and it was known as the Boston Tea Party. The offenders were punished. In 1774, the British Parliament passed the Intolerable Acts against the Americans in order to prevent such protests.

Philadelphia Congress

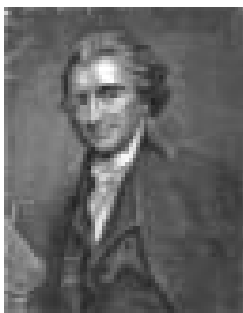


JEFFERSON

The American colonists decided to unite in their fight against the British. In September 1774, the **first Continental Congress** was held at Philadelphia. It was attended by the representatives of the twelve colonies except Georgia. This congress appealed to the British King to remove restrictions on industries and trade and not to impose any taxes without their consent. The second Continental Congress met in May 1775 at Philadelphia. Delegates from all the thirteen colonies attended this Congress. Prominent leaders like Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin participated in it. George Washington was made the Commander-in-Chief of the American army. As a last attempt, an Olive Branch Petition was sent to the British king George III, who rejected it. The king proclaimed that the American colonies were in a state of rebellion.

Declaration of Independence

In January 1776, Thomas Paine came to America from England and issued a pamphlet “Common Sense”. It attacked the idea of hereditary monarchy and advocated democratic government. More than one lakh copies of this 50 page booklet were distributed throughout the thirteen colonies. It inculcated the fighting spirit among the Americans. On 4th July 1776, the **American Declaration of Independence** was adopted by the

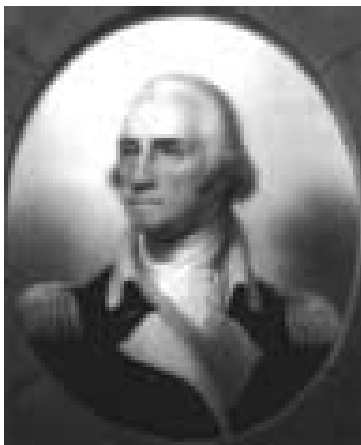


THOMAS PAINE

Continental Congress. It was prepared by a committee of five led by Thomas Jefferson who included the ideals of human freedom in it. The Declaration of independence laid emphasis on the unalienable rights of men namely, “**Life, Liberty and Pursuit of happiness**”.

Important Battles

The war started in 1775, when the first battle was fought between the British soldiers and the colonial militia at **Lexington** in Massachusetts. Soon, George Washington assume the command of



**GEORGE
WASHINGTON**

the army of the American colonies. The British General, Gage won a victory at Bunker Hill. In 1776 the British forces led by Sir William Howe defeated Washington in the battle of Long Island. However, the army of American colonies commanded by General Gates defeated British troops at Saratoga in October, 1777. The **victory at Saratoga** marked a turning point in the war. The French troops under Lafayette came to the help of the American colonies. Finally, the British troops

under the command of General Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at **Yorktown in 1781**. The war came to an end by the Treaty of Paris in 1783.

Importance of the American War of Independence

- The American colonies became free and the Republic of the United States of America was established. The first democratic government with a written constitution in the world became a reality. The Bill of Rights ensured fundamental rights to the citizens of the U.S.A.
- The American War of Independence was also called the American Revolution because it inspired the French

Revolution. It was not only a war against England but against aristocracy and reactionary elements. It was also a fight against colonial domination.

- It introduced new political, social and economic set up in the United States of America. Democracy with separation of powers on the model suggested by French thinker Montesquieu was founded. Capitalism also took strong roots.
- However, the rights of the sons of the soil, the Red Indians and the Negroes were not considered at that time.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The fundamental causes for the war of American Independence.*
- 2. The circumstances leading the war such as Granville measures, Townshend laws and the Boston Tea Party.*
- 3. The Declaration of Independence and its importance.*
- 4. The important events of the war.*
- 5. The importance of the American War of Independence.*



MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. “No Taxation without representation” was the slogan of revolution in
 - (a) France
 - (b) China
 - (c) America
 - (d) Russia
2. The author of “Common Sense”
 - (a) Voltaire
 - (b) Benjamin Franklin
 - (c) Thomas Paine
 - (d) Thomas Jefferson

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The First Continental Congress in 1774 was held at
2. The Seven Years War came to an end in
3. The American War of Independence came to an end by the treaty of

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------|
| 1. Stamp Act | a. 1764 |
| 2. Sugar Act | b. 1765 |
| 3. Boston Tea Party | c. 1767 |
| 4. Townshend laws | d. 1773 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The Navigation Acts were passed by the British Parliament for the benefit of the American colonies.
- b) The Quartering Act made it compulsory that the colonists should provide food and shelter to the English troops.

- c) The Second Continental Congress was attended by the representatives of the 12 colonies except Georgia.
- d) On 4th July 1774, the American Declaration of Independence was adopted by the Continental Congress.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

- 1 The **victory at Saratoga** marked a turning point in American War of Independence.
- 2. The British troops under the command of General Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at Lexington in 1781.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

- 1. Townshend Laws
- 2. Boston Tea Party
- 3. Stamp Act

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

- 1. Analyse the fundamental causes for the American War of Independence.
- 2. Write a note on the Philadelphia Congress.
- 3. Bring out the importance of the American Declaration of Independence.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

- 1. Examine the circumstances leading to the American War of Independence.

LESSON 25

FRENCH REVOLUTION

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The causes of the French Revolution.*
- 2. The role of French philosophers.*
- 3. The Fall of Bastille and the beginning of the revolution.*
- 4. The Constituent Assembly and the National Convention.*
- 5. The Reign of Terror.*
- 6. The end of the revolution.*

The French Revolution opened a new chapter in the history of Europe. It marked a turning point in the history of humankind. The French Revolution put an end to the age old absolute monarchy, feudal laws and social inequality. It introduced for the first time the idea of republicanism based on “Liberty, Equality and Fraternity”. These ideas had influenced the entire continent of Europe and also the world.

Causes of the French Revolution

The causes of the French revolution include the political, social and economic aspects that were prevalent in France before the outbreak of the revolution.

Political Causes

France was ruled by the Bourbon dynasty. They firmly believed in the Divine Right theory – as they were representatives of God, they were answerable only to God. Louis XIV was a strong and powerful



Louis XVI

ruler of the Bourbon dynasty. His wars ruined the economy of France. His successors Louis XV and Louis XVI were weak administrators. Louis XV foretold at the end of his rule: “After me the deluge”. His words came to be true. Louis XVI was the most incompetent ruler. His wife and queen, Marie Antoinette interfered too much into the administration. She was thoroughly ignorant of the sufferings of the French people. But she always favoured and protected the interests of the French nobles. She did not allow the financial reforms to take place. Because it affected the interests of the nobles and the clergy.

Social Causes

The French society was based on inequality. The society consisted of three major divisions, the nobles, clergy and the common people. The nobles had no political power but remained loyal to the king. They enjoyed many privileges and led a life of luxury. They were exempted from taxation. The higher clergy owned one fifth of the lands in France and enjoyed several privileges. Their number in France was around only five thousand. They lived in palatial houses and they were exempted from taxes. But the lower clergy were denied all these privileges. Therefore, they turned against the higher clergy during the revolution. Both the noble and the higher clergy led a life of ease and pleasure without bothering about the wretched condition of the masses.

The majority of the population in France belonged to the third category. Traders, lawyers, owners of industries, government servants, peasants and workers were in this category. While the nobles and the clergy were exempted from paying taxes, the masses paid all the taxes. Hence it was said : “the nobles fight, the clergy pray and the people pay”. The **taille** or land tax was entirely paid by the peasants. The **gabelle** or salt tax was a burden on the common man. The head of each family had to pay the capitation tax. Besides paying these taxes to the king, they have to pay **tithe** (tax) to the Church.

The burden on the peasants was higher than the others because he had certain other obligations to the nobles. They were forced to use the mill, wine-press, slaughterhouse and oven of their lords after paying the usual dues. They were also compelled to render feudal services to the lords.

Economic Causes

The financial condition of France was very critical during the reign of Louis XVI. The national debt had increased beyond the limit. The national income was less than national expenditure. Hence, the king tried to mobilize national income by selling important offices of the government. At last, the king appointed financial experts Turgot and Jacques Necker as Director-General of Finances. They tried to curtail royal expenditure and improve the income to the government. But their measures did not receive the support of the nobles. On their advice the queen Marie Antoinette removed them. Later, Calonne was appointed to look into the financial crisis. But he was not able to do anything but to levy fresh taxes. Therefore, Louis XVI was forced to convene the States General after a gap of 175 years, on May 5th, 1789.



JACQUES NECKER

The French Philosophers

The writings and the preaching of the French philosophers prepared the common people for the revolution.

The most prominent among them were Montesquieu, Voltaire and Rousseau.

Montesquieu in his book, *The Spirit of Laws* advocated the constitutional form government. He introduced the idea of **separation of**

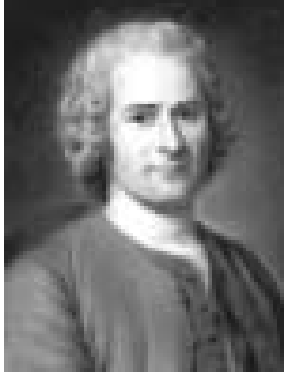


MONTESQUIEU



VOLTAIRE

powers into executive, legislative and judiciary to ensure the effective functioning of democracy. **Voltaire** launched a crusade against superstition and attacked traditional beliefs. He wrote many essays,



ROUSSEAU

poems and dramas creating awareness among the masses. He advocated the supremacy of reason. He stood for religious toleration. He strongly condemned the corruptions in the church. He stood for a benevolent despotism. **Rousseau** was the author of the famous book, *Social Contract*, which was considered the Bible of the French Revolution.

He said that the real sovereignty rests with the people. His famous statement, “Man is born free and is everywhere in chains” kindled the revolutionary spirit of the masses. Diderot and D’ Alembert published the *Encyclopedia*. It contained several essays and articles written by revolutionary thinkers. The revolutionary ideas of these philosophers spread throughout France and created awareness among the masses. The French intellectuals gave the motto “Liberty, Equality and Fraternity” which became the watchwords of the revolution of 1789.

Impact of the American War of Independence

The independence of the thirteen American colonies from England provided a boost to the French people. The French captain Lafayette with his soldiers returned from America after helping the colonies to secure their independence. His experience in America along with the fighting spirit for the cause of democracy reached the ears of the French and inspired them. Therefore, they decided to put an end to the despotic rule of the Bourbons.

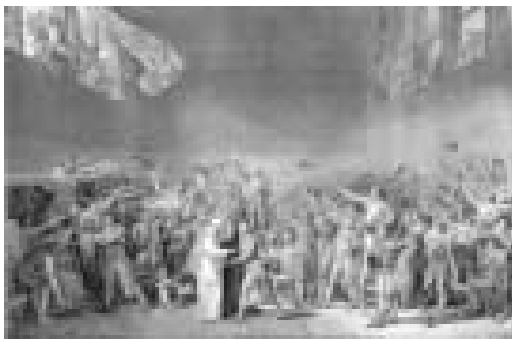
Convening of the States-General

The bankruptcy of French treasury was the starting point of the French Revolution. Louis XVI was faced with a serious financial situation. There was also no alternative but to propose new taxes.

So, Louis XVI summoned the States General on 5th May 1789. The main purpose for summoning the States General was to get its consent for the fresh taxes to be levied upon the people. The king also recalled Necker to head the finance ministry.

National Assembly

The States General consisted of three Estates Chambers. The first Estate was represented by the nobles, the second the clergy and



TENNIS COURT OATH

the third by the common people. When the king called for its meeting, each Estate sat separately. However, the members of the third estate demanded a joint sitting and one vote for each member. As the first and second Estates did not concede to this demand, there was a deadlock. On

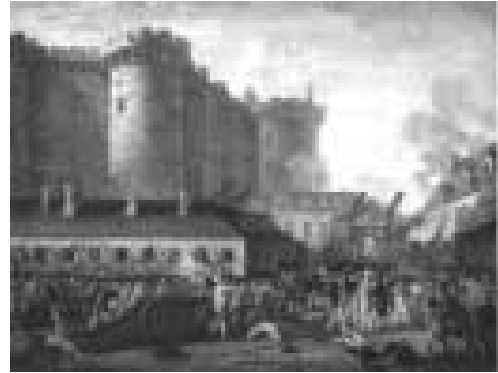
17th June 1789, the third Estate declared itself as the **National Assembly**. The king got alarmed and prevented them from entering the hall. But, the members of the National Assembly went to a nearby Tennis Court and took an oath to frame a new constitution. This is known as **Tennis Court Oath**.

On 23rd June 1789, a special session of States General was held. The king declared the acts of the Third Estate as illegal. He also ordered that the three Estates should meet separately. But the third Estate refused to accept the king's orders. Hence, Louis XVI submitted to the will of the third Estate, which represented the common people. He ordered the three Estates to sit together. Thus the formation of National Assembly was completed.

Fall of the Bastille

Although the king recognised the National Assembly, he decided to suppress it. A large number of soldiers were brought to Versailles

and Paris. Necker, the popular minister was also dismissed. On hearing this, the mob of Paris became violent. They attacked the State prison called the Bastille, murdered the guards and freed the prisoners. The fall of the Bastille was regarded in France as a triumph of liberty. After the fall of the Bastille



FALL OF THE BASTILLE

the peasants rose against the nobles. Riots began against the aristocrats all over France. Nobles were attacked and their castles stormed. They also destroyed the records of their feudal services. The nobles voluntarily surrendered their feudal rights and the privileges on 4th August 1789. Feudalism and serfdom were abolished. The principle of equality was established. Class distinctions were abolished. There was a shortage for bread in Paris. On 5th October, a large number of women went to the King's palace at Versailles to make a petition. They were not satisfied with the reply of the queen and hence they brought with them the king, the queen and their son to Paris.

Work of the National Assembly (1789 - 1791)

The National Assembly styled itself the **Constituent Assembly**. It drew up the **Declaration of the Rights of Man**. The new constitution drafted by the Constituent Assembly provided for a limited monarchy to France. The titles of the nobles were abolished. Judiciary was remodeled. The method of torture was abolished. New central and local courts were established. Judges were to be elected. Drastic action was also taken against the church. The monasteries were suppressed. Absolute religious toleration was proclaimed. The collection of tithes by the church was abolished. Then, measures were taken for the nationalization of church properties. After drafting the new constitution, the National Assembly dissolved itself in 1791.

Political Clubs



DANTON

The political clubs sprang up in different quarters. Of these, the most conspicuous were the **Jacobian Club** and **Cordelier Club**. The Jacobian Club was led by Robespierre, a radical democrat. The Cordelier Club was led by Danton. The Girondists were a



ROBESPIERRE

group of eloquent young men and stood for establishing a republican form of government. Madame Roland was a prominent member of the Girondists.

The Legislative Assembly

According to the new constitution, the new Legislative Assembly met in 1791. When the revolution broke out many of the nobles managed to escape from France. They carried out propaganda against the revolution in France and tried to mobilize support from other countries. Austria and Prussia came forward to help them. To curtail their activities the Legislative Assembly passed laws. The king did not approve of these laws and used his veto against them.

King Leopold of Austria issued the famous Declaration of Pilnitz against the revolutionaries on 27th August 1791. War broke out between the revolutionary government and Austria in 1792. The revolutionary army was defeated. The wrath of the revolutionaries turned against the French king. On 10th August 1792 the mob attacked the King's palace at Tuileries. The king was suspended and elections were ordered for a National Convention to prepare another new constitution for the country. This was followed by the "September Massacres". The Revolutionary government at Paris led by Danton massacred 1500 suspected supporters of the French king. Then the French army defeated the Austrian army at Valmy.

The National Convention (1792 - 1795)

After the dissolution of the Legislative Assembly, the **National Convention** met in 1792. It abolished monarchy and declared France as a republic. The king Louis XVI after a summary trial was found guilty of treason was guillotined (head cut off) on Sunday, 21st January 1793. Three days later the queen Marie Antoinette was also guillotined.

Reign of Terror

The National convention divided on the issue of the execution of the king. The moderates did not agree with the Jacobians, who formed the majority in the Convention. The Jacobians had set up the Revolutionary Tribunal to deal with the moderates. It was the beginning of the Reign of Terror. It was the final phase of the Revolution. It was also the darkest period of the Revolution. Riots broke out in many places like Lyons, Marseilles and other cities. In 1793, the first coalition was formed by the European nations against the revolutionary government.

The Jacobians suspended the constitution and created the **Committee of Public Safety** with full powers to deal with the situation. Robespierre was the leader of this committee. It put down all the riots staged by the royalists within the country. Many people were killed on suspicion of being royalists. Soon, Robespierre became a virtual dictator of France. But, his opponents turned against him and sent him to the guillotine in 1794.



NAPOLEAN

End of Revolution

With the fall of Robespierre the Reign of Terror gradually came to an end. Moreover the public opinion was strongly against it. The **Revolutionary Tribunal** was suspended. The

functions of Committee of Public Safety were restricted. The Jacobian Club was closed. The National Convention at last took up its long neglected task of framing of a constitution for the French Republic. The executive was entrusted to a **Directory**, consisting of five members. The legislative power was entrusted to two houses called the **Council of Five Hundred** and the **Council of the Ancients**. Napoleon Bonaparte was then at Paris and he was entrusted with the task of defending the Convention against the Parisian mob. He dispersed the mob and saved the Convention and began his brilliant career. On October 26, 1795 the convention declared itself dissolved and the Directory took charge of the French government.

Results of the Revolution

The French Revolution of 1789 inaugurated a new era in the history of the mankind. The ideas of “liberty, equality and fraternity” spread to other parts of the world. The Bourbon monarchy was abolished. The Revolution rejected tyranny, divine right, conservatism, and feudal vestiges associated with bourbon rule in France. At the same time it failed to establish a permanent Republic in France. The French Revolution, after a violent turn led to the emergence of a great dictator, Napoleon Bonaparte.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The political, social and economic causes of the French Revolution*
- 2. The role French thinkers like Voltaire, Rousseau and Montesquieu.*
- 3. The fall of Bastille and the beginning of the revolution.*
- 4. The Constituent Assembly and its role in framing the constitution.*
- 5. The National Convention and its activities.*
- 6. The Reign of Terror under Robespierre.*
- 7. The end of the revolution and the results*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The King of France at the time of 1789 Revolution was
 - (a) Louis XII
 - (b) Louis XIV
 - (c) Louis XVIII
 - (d) Louis XVI

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. was the author of the book “Social Contract”.
2. In the States General, the first Estate was represented by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Encyclopedia | a. Danton |
| 2. September Massacres | b. D' Alembert |
| 3. Reign of Terror | c. Montesquieu |
| 4. The Spirit of Laws | d. Robespierre |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a. King Louis XVI issued the **Declaration of the Rights of Man**.
- b. Madame Roland was a prominent member of the **Cordelier Club**.
- c. King Leopold of Prussia issued the famous Declaration of Pilnitz.
- d. The Jacobians suspended the constitution and created the **Committee of Public Safety**.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Marie Antoinette was the wife and queen of Louis XVI.
2. The idea of Separation of Powers was proposed by Montesquieu.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. National Assembly
2. Rousseau
3. Reign of Terror

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Examine the contributions of the French philosophers to the French Revolution.
2. Write a note on the results of the French Revolution.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the causes of the French Revolution of 1789.
2. Trace the course of the French Revolution of 1789.

LESSON 26

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTIONS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The process of agricultural revolution.*
- 2. The causes for the Industrial Revolution.*
- 3. Scientific inventions in different sectors of industrial production.*
- 4. Merits and demerits of the Industrial Revolution.*

Agricultural Revolution

The term agricultural revolution refers to the radical changes in the method of agriculture in England in the 17th and 18th centuries. There was a massive increase in agricultural productivity, which supported the growing population. The Agricultural Revolution preceded the Industrial Revolution in England. During the Agricultural Revolution, four key changes took place in agricultural practices. They were enclosure of lands, mechanization of farming, four-field crop rotation, and selective breeding of domestic animals.

Prior to the agricultural revolution, the practice of agriculture had been much the same across Europe since the Middle Ages. The open field system was essentially feudal. Each farmer engaged in cultivation in common land and dividing the produce.

From the beginning of 12th century, some of the common fields in Britain were enclosed into individually owned fields. This process rapidly accelerated in the 15th and 16th centuries as sheep farming grew more profitable. This led to farmers losing their land and their

grazing rights. Many farmers became unemployed. In the 16th and 17th centuries, the practice of enclosure was denounced by the Church, and legislation was drawn up against it. However, the mechanization of agriculture during the 18th century required large, enclosed fields. This led to a series of government acts, culminating finally in the **General Enclosure Act of 1801**. By the end of the 19th century the process of enclosure was largely complete.

Great experiments were conducted in farming during this period. Machines were introduced for seeding and harvesting. Rotation of crops was introduced by Townshend. The lands became fertile by this method. Bakewell introduced scientific breeding of farm animals. The horse-drawn ploughs, rake, portable threshers, manure spreaders, multiple ploughs and dairy appliances had revolutionized farming. These changes in agriculture increased food production as well as other farm outputs.

Industrial Revolution

The term 'Industrial Revolution' was used by European scholars – Georges Michelet in France and Friedrich Engels in Germany. It was used to describe the changes that occurred in the industrial development of England between 1760 and 1820. The Industrial Revolution had far-reaching effects in England. Subsequently, similar changes occurred in European countries and in the U.S.A. the Industrial Revolution had a major impact on the society and economy of these countries and also on the rest of the world.

This phase of industrial development in England is strongly associated with new machinery and technologies. These made it possible to produce goods on a massive scale compared to handicraft and handloom industries. There were changes in the cotton and iron industries. Steam, a new source of power, began to be used on a wide scale in British industries. Its use led to faster forms of transportation by ships and railways. Industrialisation led to greater

prosperity for some, but in the initial stages many people including women and children had experienced poor living and working conditions. This sparked off protests and the government was forced to enact laws to improve the conditions of workers.

Causes for the Industrial Revolution

- England's advantageous geographical location.
- The precedence of agricultural revolution.
- New inventions and the introduction of machinery.
- The enterprising spirit of British entrepreneurs.
- Growth of capital in England.
- Colonial possessions of England, which supplied raw materials and served as markets

Scientific Inventions

Textile Machinery

The primary cause of the Industrial Revolution was the scientific inventions. The earliest mechanical inventions came in the textile industry. Spinning was the slowest process in the manufacturing of cloth. The invention of flying shuttle by Kay in 1733 improved weaving. In 1764, Hargreaves invented the 'spinning jenny'. This machine could spin eight threads at the same time, instead of one. Arkwright improved the 'spinning jenny' in 1769. Compton improved it still further in 1779. In 1785, Cartwright invented the power loom. Whitney, an American, speeded up the process (1792) with a cotton gin, which automatically removed seeds from the fiber of the cotton. The invention of the sewing machine by Elias Howe, in 1846, accelerated the production of clothing and made possible the modern clothing industry. Thus, one invention followed another, not only in textile industries but also in many others. In this way, the present-day complex machinery has evolved.

Steam Engine

Heavy machinery could not function without power to operate it. The invention of the steam engine provided the practical solution. The first practical application of steam to machinery was made by James Watt in 1765. He devised the first closed cylinder with a piston pushed back and forth by steam. This has been extensively used in textile machinery.



JAMES WATT

Development of Transport

There is a close relationship between the development of industry and improvement in transportation. Industrialization depends largely on the bringing of raw materials to factories and on the disposing of manufactured goods in a wide market. As late as the 17th century, highways were poorly kept. A pack horse was the only possible means of travel on land. In the second half of the 18th century, John McAdam (1756-1836) built a type of hard-surfaced road in England. The only important change made in this method was the substitution of a tar composition for mud as a binder. France copied the English methods, and under the patronage of the government many highways were built.

The heavy expenses involved in the building and upkeep of highway encouraged the development of inland waterways. During the second half of the 18th century and the early part of the 19th century thousands of miles of artificial water route were dug in England, in France, and in the United States. In 1761, a canal was built in England from Worsley to Manchester to carry coal from the mines to the furnaces.

There were serious drawbacks in the river and canal transportation. The rate of travel was slow and the expense of construction and maintenance was high. Geographical factors limited



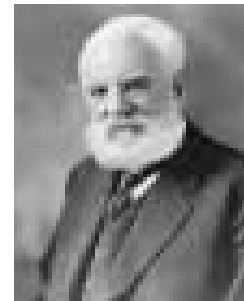
LOCOMOTIVE OF GEORGE STEPHENSON

the extent to which water transportation could be utilized. Railroads provided a solution for these problems. The first tracks were made of wood and the first cars were horse drawn, but the introduction of iron for rails and the application of Watt's steam engine for traction power

revolutionized the whole procedure. George Stephenson constructed the first practical locomotive in 1814. The Stockton and Darlington railroad started operation in England in 1825. The era of railroads had begun.

Communication

Modern transportation and business enterprises are much dependent on rapid and efficient communication. Before the perfection of the telegraph, carrier pigeons and semaphores were the speediest methods available. The electric telegraph depended upon earlier basic researches made by Faraday, Volta, Ampere, and Franklin. It was invented independently in Germany, England, and the United States, by Steinheil, Wheatstone, and Morse, respectively. Telegraphic equipment was widely installed after 1845. A cable from America to Europe was laid under the Atlantic Ocean in 1866. By the close of the 19th century, all the important commercial centers in the world had telegraphic communications. The penny post was established in 1840. The Universal Postal Union, to aid international mail service, was adopted in 1875. Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876.



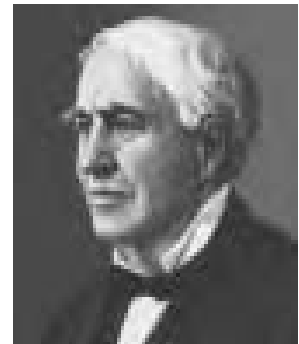
GRAHAM BELL

Lighting

In industry, transportation, social activities, amusements, and cultural pursuits, artificial light plays a very important role. In 1784, a burner was devised for oil lamps, which was later used for kerosene lamps. Gas for artificial illumination was introduced and widely used by the middle of the 19th century. Davy, in 1821, worked out the theory of the electric arc. Edison, in 1879 invented the electric bulb.

Iron and Steel

The coal and iron industries replaced old technologies of wood, water and wind. In 1709 Darby introduced coal for charcoal in blast furnace. John Smeaton invented the blast furnace with a rotary fan. For the new machinery, a better grade than ordinary cast iron was needed. Henry Cord and Peter Onions introduced puddling and rolling Process in 1784. In 1740 steel was produced at Sheffield by Huntsman. Later, Henry Bessemer invented a faster and cheaper method of producing steel. The first iron bridge was constructed in 1777. The first iron ship was made in 1790.



EDISON

Merits of Industrial Revolution

Urbanisation

The factory system introduced by the Industrial Revolution created cities and urban centres. In England, cities like Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, and Sheffield arose. People left their rural homes and gathered around these cities by the hundreds and thousands in quest of work and wages. The population of Manchester increased six fold within a half century.

Machinery

The introduction of power machinery rapidly increased production of goods.

Intellectual Movement

The intellectual encouragement had also been great. Schools, colleges, newspapers, libraries, and the radio had been dependent on the capitalistic system for their rapid development. Many intellectual like Marx, St. Simon emerged as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

Large Employment

The starting of new industries provided employment to many men and women.

Demerits of Industrial Revolution

New Social Problems

The rapid growth of industrial cities created problems that were difficult to solve. Accommodation, sanitation, and health were not provided adequately. Sickness and crime prevailed. Women and children were employed for cheap labour. They worked for 12 to 14 hours per day.

Capitalism

The establishment of the factory system increased the amount of money in circulation. However, money concentrated in the hands of a few people.

Class Division

The Industrial Revolution divided society into two distinct groups: the rich middle class (bourgeoisie), composed of manufacturers, merchants, mine owners, bankers, and professional men, on the one hand, and the wage-earning class (proletariat), composed of mill workers and factory workers, on the other. This

gap between employer and employee gave rise to many economic and social problems.

Growth of Colonialism and Imperialism

The Industrial Revolution had strengthened colonialism because the colonies were useful to obtain raw materials and sell the finished products. So, larger territories were captured thus paving way for imperialism.

Industry	Name	Invention	Year
Textile Machinery	John Kay	Flying Shuttle	1763
	Hardgreaves	Spinning jenny	1764
	Richard Arkwright	Water Frame	1769
	Samuel Crompton	Spinning Mule	1779
	Edmund Cartwright	Power Loom	1785
	Ely Whitney	Cotton Gin	1792
	Elias Howe	Sewing Machine	1846
Coal and Iron Industries	John Smeaton	Blastfurnance	1760
	Henry Bessemen	Steel	1850
	Sir Humphrey Davy	Safety Lamp	1816
Field of Power	James Watt	Steam Engine	1736-1819
	George Stephenson	Locomotive	1781-1848
Field of Transport	John Mc Adam	He used a mud birder to build a type of hard surface road	1756-1836
Comm-unication	Alexander Graham Bell	Telephone	1876

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The meaning and the process of Agricultural Revolution.*
- 2. The causes for the Industrial Revolution.*
- 3. Scientific Inventions that contributed to the growth of Industrial Revolution.*
- 4. Growth of different industrial sectors such as textiles and transportation.*
- 5. The merits and demerits of industrial revolution.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Rotation of crops was introduced by
 - (a) Harvey
 - (b) Townshend
 - (c) Mac Adam
 - (d) Hargreaves

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Alexander Graham Bell invented
2. The electric bulb was invented by

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. Flying Shuttle | a. Hargreaves |
| 2. Spinning Jenny | b. Elias Howe |
| 3. Power Loom | c. Kay |
| 4. Sewing Machine | d. James Watt |
| 5. Steam engine | e. Cartwright |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a. Bakewell introduced scientific breeding of farm animals
- b. The term 'Industrial Revolution' was used Georges Michelet in Germany.
- c. John McAdam introduced railways in England.
- d. Edison invented the steam engine in 1879.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Industrialization depends largely on the bringing of raw materials to factories and on the disposing of manufactured goods in a wide market.
2. John Smeaton constructed the first practical locomotive in 1814.
3. The Universal Postal Union was adopted in 1875 to aid international mail service.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. John McAdam

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Examine the causes for the Industrial Revolution.
2. Discuss the process of Industrial Revolution in England.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the scientific inventions that contributed to the growth of Industrial Revolution.
2. Analyse the merits and demerits of the Industrial Revolution.

LESSON 27

FIRST WORLD WAR

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The concepts of colonialism, imperialism and their impact.*
- 2. The causes for the First World War.*
- 3. The course of the First World War.*
- 4. The end and results of the First World War.*

COLONIALISM

Colonialism is the extension of a nation's sovereignty over another territory beyond its borders. Colonizers generally dominate the resources, labor, and markets of the colonial territory. They also impose socio-cultural, religious and linguistic aspects on the conquered population.

European colonialism began in the 15th century with the “Age of Discovery”. This was led by Portuguese and Spanish explorations of the Americas, and the coasts of Africa, the Middle East, India, and East Asia. By 17th century, England, France and Holland successfully established their own overseas empires, in direct competition with each other and those of Spain and Portugal. Spain and Portugal were weakened after the loss of their New World colonies. But Britain, France and Holland turned their attention to the Old World, particularly South Africa, India and South East Asia, where colonies were established. The industrialization of the 19th century led to what has been termed the era of New Imperialism. The fight among the European countries to control and establish new colonies led to the First World War.

There are different types of colonies. **Settler colonies**, such as the original thirteen states of the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Argentina arose from the emigration of peoples from a mother country. This led to the displacement of the indigenous peoples.

Colonies of dependencies came into existence due to the conquest by foreign countries. Examples in this category include the British India, Dutch Indonesia, French Indo-China, and the Japanese colonial empire.

Plantation colonies such as Barbados, Saint-Dominguez and Jamaica, where the white colonizers imported black slaves - who rapidly began to outnumber their owners- led to minority rule, similar to a dependency.

Imperialism

Imperialism is a policy of extending control or authority over colonized countries. The term is used to describe the policy of a nation's dominance over distant lands. The "Age of Imperialism" usually refers to the Old Imperialism period starting from 1860, when major European states started colonizing the other continents. The term 'Imperialism' was initially coined in the mid 1500s to reflect the policies of countries such as Britain and France who expanded into Africa, and the Americas. Imperialism refers to the highest stage of capitalism which made it necessary to find new markets and resources. This theory of necessary expansion of capitalism outside the boundaries of nation-states was shared by Lenin and Rosa Luxemburg.

Economic Market

Industrial Revolution created the need among the European countries to find new markets for their industrial goods. Similarly, they had to find raw materials for their industries. This dual need

pushed the European countries to compete with each other to establish their political control over Asia, Africa and Latin America.

Improvement in Communications

Advancement in science and technology led to improvement in transport and communication. Steamships, Railroads, roadways were improved. This helped imperialism to have a firm hold over the conquered territories.

Rise of Extreme Nationalism

The late 19th century was a period of intense nationalism. Many nations developed myths of superiority over other peoples. Each country wanted to have colonies to add to its prestige and power. Writers and speakers in England, France and Germany opened institutions to promote the idea of imperialism. European countries took great pride in calling their territories as empires.

The ‘Civilizing Mission’

In the minds of many Europeans, imperialist expansion was very noble. They considered it a way of bringing civilization to the ‘backward peoples of the world. Explorers and adventurers, as well as missionaries helped in spreading imperialism.

US Imperialism

The United States has enjoyed its status as a sole superpower. Beginning at the end of World War II, the U.S. largely took over from the United Kingdom certain roles of influence in the Middle East. Several Middle Eastern nations such as Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, and Israel have all been directly or otherwise substantially influenced by U.S. policy.

First World War (1914 -1919)

CAUSES

System of Alliances

There were many causes for the World War I. The most important cause was the system of secret alliances. Before 1914 Europe was divided into two camps. It was Germany which created the division in European politics before World War I. In order to isolate France, Germany entered in to an alliance with Austria. Bismarck formed the **three Emperors League** by making alliance with Russia. Later Germany did not care for Russia. Hence Russia left. But Germany continued its alliance with Austria alone. This was known as **Dual alliance**. After Italy joined in this alliance, it became a **Triple alliance**.

In the meantime Russia began to lean towards France. In 1894 there came Franco-Russian alliance against Austro-German alliance. It was at this time England followed a policy of splendid isolation. She also felt that she was all alone. First she wanted to join with Germany. When this became a failure, she entered into an alliance with Japan in 1902. In 1904 she made alliance with France. In 1907 Russia joined this alliance. This had resulted in **Triple Entente**. Thus Europe was divided into two camps. The secret nature of these alliances brought about the war of 1914.

Militarism

The countries in Europe had been increasing their armies and navies. This was the main reason for universal fear, hatred and suspicions among the countries of Europe. In Europe, England and Germany were superior in Navy. There were competitions between these two countries in naval armaments. For every ship built by Germany, two ships were built by England.

Narrow Nationalism was also a cause for the war. The love of the country demanded the hatred of another. For instance, love of Germany demanded the hatred of France. Likewise the French people hated the German people. In Eastern Europe narrow nationalism played a greater role. The Serbians hated Austria-Hungary.

The desire for the people of France to get back Alsace-Lorraine was also a cause for the outbreak of First World War. It was Bismarck who had taken away Alsace-Lorraine from France and annexed them with Germany in 1871. The result was that there grew animosities between these two countries. It was this reason that forced Germany to take steps to isolate France by making alliances with other countries.

William II, the Emperor of Germany himself was a cause for the First World War. He wanted to make Germany a stronger power. He was not prepared to make any compromise in international affairs. He was mistaken in assessing Great Britain's strength. It was a misunderstanding of the British character by William II that was responsible for the war.

Prussian spirit by Germany was also a cause for war. The Prussians were taught that war was a legal in the world. War was the national industry of Prussia. The younger generation of Germany was indoctrinated with such a philosophy of war.

Public Opinion

The position of public opinion by the newspapers was also a cause. Often, the newspapers tried to inflame nationalist feeling by misrepresenting the situations in other countries. Ambassadors and cabinet ministers admitted the senseless attitude of the leading news papers in their own countries.

The desire of Italy to recover the Trentino and the area around the port of Trieste was also a cause for war. The Italians considered that these areas were inhabited by Italians. But they were still part and parcel of Austria-Hungary. They cried for the redemption of these territories. Italy also entered into a competition with Austria to control the Adriatic Sea. As Austria was not prepared to put up with the competition, there arose bitterness in the relations of these two countries.

The Eastern Question was also a factor for the war. This complicated the situation in the Balkans. The misrule of Turkey resulted in discontentment. There was a rivalry between Greece, Serbia and Bulgaria for the control of Macedonia which had a mixed population. On the occasion of Bosnian crises Russia supported Serbia. Pan Slavism also created complications.

The questions Bosnia - Herzegovina in the Balkans was also similar to the problem of Alsace-Lorraine. Bosnia and Herzegovina were given to Austria-Hungary by the Congress of Berlin in 1878. This was strongly opposed by Serbia. A strong agitation was started in Serbia to separate these provinces from Austria-Hungary and unite them with Serbia. This created rivalry between Serbia and Austria-Hungary. This became very keen after 1909. Serbia also received moral support from her big brother Russia (The Serbs and Russians belong to Slav Race).

Immediate Cause

The immediate cause was the assassination of Arch Duke Francis Ferdinand who was heir to the Austrian throne. Arch Duke Francis Ferdinand and his wife were assassinated by Serbians in the Bosnian capital Sarajevo when they paid a visit to this city on 28th June 1914. The news of this murder shocked many countries. Austria-Hungary was



ARCH DUKE FERDINAND

already sick of Serbia and she decided to take advantage of the new situation to crush her. The murder of their crown prince and his wife resulted in an ultimatum being sent to Serbia for immediate compliance of certain terms. Serbia's reply did not pacify Austria-Hungary. Hence, Austria-Hungary backed by Germany declared war on Serbia. Russia mobilised her forces in favour of Serbia.

Course of the War

During the war Germany and her allies were called **Central Powers**. England and her allies were called **Allied Powers**. Germany entered the war to defend Austria. Shortly all the powers in the hostile camps were automatically drawn into the war. Turkey and Bulgaria joined the war on the side of Germany. Italy left the Triple Alliance and joined the opposite camp with the idea of recovering Italian territories under Austrian control.

England joined the war against Germany. There was bitter fighting on the French soil. The **Battle of Verdun** decided the fortunes of the war in favour of the Allies. Germany started submarine warfare in a large scale. All the laws relating to naval warfare were thrown out.

Russia fought on the side of Allies up to 1917. The Bolshevik regime wanted peace with Germany. Thus the Brest-Litovsk Treaty was signed between Russia and Germany.

The Lusitania ship was drowned by a German submarine and consequently many Americans lost their lives. This resulted in the declaration of war against Germany by the U.S.A. In spite of best efforts, Germany could not stand and ultimately she surrendered in November 1919.



KAISER WILLIAM

The German Emperor Kaiser William lost all hopes of winning the war. He abdicated his throne and fled to Holland. The German

army signed the armistice agreement on November 11, 1918 to mark their surrender to the Allies. The allies of Germany had earlier suffered defeat at the hands of the Allied powers.

Results of the War

The Great War took a heavy toll of lives. It is estimated that about ten million lives were lost and twenty million people have been wounded. People all over the world suffered untold miseries. There was a large scale damage to civil property.

It is estimated that the direct cost of the war reached just over two hundred billion dollars and the indirect cost more than a hundred and fifty billion dollars.

A large variety of deadly weapons such as incendiary bombs, grenades and poison gases were used. Tanks, submarines and aircrafts were also used.

The war wrought its havoc on the economics of the participating countries. It may be remembered that about 25 nations had joined the allies at the time of the outbreak of war. The victors felt the devastating effects of the war even before the cessation. All these nations were burdened with the national debts. The world economy was in shambles.

Germany was forced to sign the **Treaty of Versailles** on 28th June 1919. It was a dictated peace and Germany had by then become even too weak to protest. She lost everything. Germany and her allies suffered most since they had to pay heavy sums to the victorious allies as reparation debts.

Austria Hungary signed the **Treaty of St. Germaine**. Hungary signed the **Treaty of Trianon** with the allies in 1920. Bulgaria had accepted the **Treaty of Neuilly** in 1919. Turkey, which sided with Germany during the war, signed the **Treaty of Sevres** in 1920.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The rise of colonialism and its impact.*
- 2. Imperialism and its impact on the world politics.*
- 3. The system of alliances and other causes for the First World War.*
- 4. The role of USA in the First World War and the victory of the Allied powers in the war.*
- 5. The Treaties concluded at the end of the First World War and the results of the war.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which one of the following was grouped under the settler colonies?
(a) British India (b) Indo-China
(c) 13 American colonies (d) Indonesia

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Three Emperors League was formed by
2. The Congress of Berlin was convened in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Treaty of Versailles | a. Austria-Hungary |
| 2. Treaty of Saint Germaine | b. Turkey |
| 3. Treaty of Sevres | c. Germany |
| 4. Treaty of Nueliy | d. Bulgaria |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a. When Italy joined Dual Alliance it became Triple Alliance.
- b. Austrian Prince Francis Ferdinand was assassinated in Austrian Capital.
- c. During the First World War the world was divided in to Allied Powers and Axis Powers.
- d. After the War Bulgaria joined the Treaty of Trianan.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The Triple Alliance was concluded between Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary.
2. William II was the emperor of Germany during the First World War.
3. The immediate cause of the First World War was the assassination of Arch Duke Francis Ferdinand.
4. The Brest-Litovsk was signed between Russia and Italy.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Colonialism
2. Imperialism
3. Triple Entente
4. Treaty of Versailles

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the impact of colonialism.
2. Trace the course of the First World War.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Enumerate the various causes of the First World War.
2. Examine the results of the First World War.

LESSON 28

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. Causes of the Russian Revolution.*
- 2. The rise of Socialists in Russia.*
- 3. The Course of the Russian Revolution.*
- 4. The end of the revolution and its results.*

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was a very important political event of the 20th Century. For the first time, Karl Marx's idea of socialism and Proletariat revolution became a reality. Russia was a big and powerful country. Even Napoleon Bonaparte could not conquer Russia in 1812. However, during the beginning of the 20th Century Russia was no longer a powerful country. During this time Russia was ruled by the **Romanov dynasty**. Tsar Nicholas II ruled Russia at the time of the Revolution. During his rule Russia faced serious domestic and international problems. Eventually, a series of political events led to the overthrow of the Tsarist rule by October Revolution of 1917. Bolshevik Party headed by Lenin led the revolution. Thus, Russia became USSR [Union of Soviet Socialist Republics], which lasted until its disintegration in 1991.

Causes of the Russian Revolution

Political

Politically the Tsar's rule was very weak. Russia fought a war with Japan in 1904-05. Small Asian Country Japan defeated the mighty European country Russia in the Russo-Japanese war. This lowered the international and domestic prestige of Russia.

The Tsars believed in the divine right theory of kingship. Tsar Nicholas II was autocratic in his administration. The people had many grievances. The members of zemstoves and Dumas wanted liberal reforms from the Tsar. But Tsar was not prepared to sanction any reforms. Meantime, the working class of St. Petersburg went on strike. The striking workers went on a



TSAR NICHOLAS II



RUSPUTIN

procession to Tsar's place to present a petition to redress their grievances. They were led by father Gapon. When the workers reached Tsar's palace the guards fired on the unarmed crowd. This event is known as **"Bloody Sunday"** as it took place on a Sunday, 22nd January 1905. This is also known as 1905 Revolution. This event was indeed a prelude to the October Revolution of 1917.

The Tsarist court was under the evil influence of Rasputin. The Tsarina was strongly under his influence and at times the administration was affected by his influence. Hence, the nobles poisoned Rasputin to death.

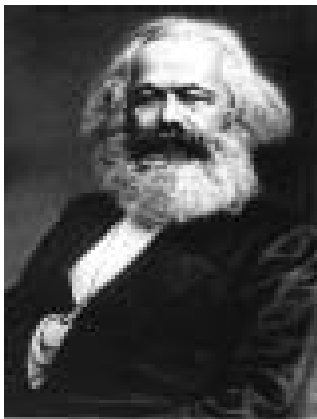
Economic

The economic causes of the Russian Revolution largely originated in Russia's slightly outdated economy. Russia's agriculture was largely based on independent peasants. They did not own modern machinery. Russian agriculture suffered from cold climate. Russia's agriculture season was only 4-6 months. The famine of 1891 had left many peasants in poverty. The rapid industrialization of Russia also resulted in urban overcrowding and poor conditions for urban industrial workers. Between 1890 and 1910, the population of the capital of St Petersburg increased from 1,033,600 to 1,905,600, with Moscow experiencing similar growth. In one 1904 survey, it was found that an

average of sixteen people shared each apartment in St Petersburg, with six people per room. There was also no running water, and piles of human waste were a threat to the health of the workers. Hence, the workers in general were in a discontented situation.

Rise of Socialist Party

One of the most important events in the history of socialist movement was the formation in 1864 of the International Working Men's Association or the **First International**. During the short period of its existence, the International exercised a tremendous influence on workers' movements in Europe.



KARL MARX

To unite the socialist parties in various countries into an international organisation, a Congress was held in Paris on 14th July 1889, the centenary of the French Revolution of 1789. The result of this Congress was what has come to be known as the **Second International**. The formation of the Second International marked a new stage in the history of socialism.

On the first of May 1890, millions of workers all over Europe and America struck work and held massive demonstrations. Since then the **first of May** is observed as the **international working class day** all over the world.

In Russia when the workers' organizations were set up they were dominated by Marx's ideas on socialism. In 1883, the Russian Social Democratic Party was formed by George Plekhanov, a follower of Marx. This party along with many other socialist groups was united into the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party in 1898. However, the party was



GEORGE PLEKHANOV

soon split over questions of organization and policies. One group which was in a minority called the **Mensheviks** [Russian it means minority]. The majority party was called as the **Bolsheviks**.



LENIN

The leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, popularly known as **Lenin**. He is regarded as one of the greatest leaders of the socialist movement after Marx and Engels. He devoted himself to the task of organizing the Bolshevik Party as an instrument for bringing about revolution. His name has become inseparable from the revolution of 1917. The Russian socialists, including Plekhanov and Lenin, had played an important part in the Second International.

Besides the Menshevik and the Bolshevik parties, which were the political parties of industrial workers, there was the Socialist Revolutionary Party which voiced the demands of the peasantry.

World War I

Russia had a very adverse history of military failures. Even before the outbreak of the First World War, Russia had lost a war with Japan in 1904–05. Most of Russia's fleet was sunk by the Japanese in that war. While the Russian army enjoyed some initial successes against Austria-Hungary in 1914, Russia's deficiencies — particularly regarding the equipment of its soldiers and the lack of advanced technology (aeroplanes, telephones) proved the causes for Russia's failures.

Russia's first major battle was a disaster. In the 1914 **Battle of Tannenberg**, over 120,000 Russian troops were killed, wounded, or captured, while Germany suffered only 20,000 casualties. Whatever nationalistic or patriotic support the Russian government had gained in the early stages of the war had been lost.

In 1915, Nicholas had taken direct command of the army. The superior German army - better led, better trained, better supplied - was effective against the ill-equipped Russian forces. By the end of October 1916, Russia had lost between 1.6 and 1.8 million soldiers, with an additional two million prisoners of war and one million missing. Thus, a total of nearly five million men lost. These were heavy losses. Mutinies began to occur in the Russian army. Soldiers went hungry and lacked shoes, munitions, and even weapons.

Nicholas was blamed for all these crises. As this discontent grew, the State Duma issued a warning to Nicholas to grant constitutional form of government. Nicholas ignored them. As a result, Russia's Tsarist regime collapsed a few months later during the February Revolution of 1917.

February Revolution

The February Revolution was the result of the political, economic and social causes mentioned above. On the eve of the February Revolution there was food shortage in the city. People protested against war.

As the protests grew, various political reformists (both liberal and radical left) joined together against the Tsar regime. In February the protests in Petrograd turned violent as large numbers of city residents rioted and clashed with police and soldiers. There was also total strike. Eventually the bulk of the soldiers garrisoned in Petrograd joined the protesters.

On 12th March, 1917 the capital city of Petersburg (renamed Petrograd and now Leningrad) fell into the hands of the revolutionaries. Soon the revolutionaries took Moscow, the Tsar Nicholas II gave up his throne and the first provisional Government was formed on 15 March.

The fall of the Tsar is known as the February Revolution because, according to the old Russian calendar, it occurred on 27 February 1917.

Kerensky's Provisional Government

The most important demands of the people were fourfold: peace, land to the tiller, control of industry by workers, and equal status for the non-Russian nationalities. The Provisional Government under the leadership of Kerensky did not implement any of these demands and lost the support of the people. Lenin, who was in exile in Switzerland at the time of the February Revolution, returned to Russia in April. Lenin gave his “**April Theses**”. This promised people what they wanted.



KERENSKY

Under his leadership the Bolshevik Party put forward clear policies to end the war, transfer land to the peasants and advance the slogan “All power to the Soviets”. Lenin and his trusted associate Leon Trotsky led the October Revolution.

October Revolution of 1917

The unpopularity of the Kerensky's government led to its collapse on 7th November 1917, when a group of soldiers occupied the Winter Palace, the seat of the Kerensky Government. An All-Russian Congress of Soviets met on the same day and assumed full political power. This event which took place on 7 November is known as the October Revolution because of the corresponding date of the old Russian calendar, 25 October.

Results of the Revolution

Russia withdrew from the First World War. Later, formal peace was signed with Germany later. The estates of the landlords, the

Church and the Tsar were confiscated and transferred to peasants' societies to be allotted to peasant families to be cultivated without hired labour. The control of industries was transferred to committees of workers. By the middle of 1918, banks and insurance companies, large industries, mines, water transport and railways were nationalised. Foreign debts were refused and foreign investments were confiscated. A Declaration of the Rights of Peoples was issued conferring the right of self-determination upon all nationalities. A new government, called the Council of People's Commissars, headed by Lenin was founded. These first acts of the new government began the era of socialism.

The **first Soviet constitution** was adopted on July 10, 1918. It created the **Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic**. Later, on December 30, 1922, the **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics** came into being. However, soon the new Soviet state was involved in a civil war. The officers of the army of the fallen Tsar organised an armed rebellion against the Soviet state. Troops of foreign powers—England, France, Japan, the United States and others—joined them. War was fought till 1920. By this time the 'Red Army' of the new state was in control of almost all the lands of the old Czarist empire. Indeed, a revolutionary wave lasted until 1923.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The political, social and economic causes of the Russian Revolution.*
- 2. The role of the Socialist led by Lenin in the Russian Revolution.*
- 3. Course of the revolution and the end of Tsarist regime in Russia.*
- 4. The formation of USSR and the results of the Russian Revolution.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The Bolshevik Party in Russia was headed by
 - (a) Karl Marx
 - (b) Tsar Nicholas II
 - (c) Lenin
 - (d) Engles

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Russian Socialist Democratic Party was formed by
2. The Union of Soviet Socialist Republic came into existence in the year

III. Match the following

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Tsar Nicholas | a. Provincial Government |
| 2. Bloody Sunday | b. Lenin |
| 3. 'April Thesis' | c. 1905 |
| 4. Krensky | d. Romanov Dynasty |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The February revolution in Russia was led by Lenin.
- b) The Menshevik government was led by Kerensky.
- c) The Bolshevik party was a moderate political force.
- d) Tsar Nicholas II supported the Mensheviks.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Russian withdrew from the First World War in the middle.
2. The trusted associate of Lenin was Leon Trotsky.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Bloody Sunday
2. The Bolsheviks
3. October Revolution

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the role of Lenin in the Russian Revolution.
2. Write a note on the February Revolution.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the causes for the Russian Revolution of 1917.
2. Discuss the course of the Russian Revolution of 1917.

LESSON 29

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The establishment of the League of Nations.*
- 2. The organs of the League of Nations.*
- 3. The achievements of the League of Nations.*
- 4. Causes for the failure of the League of Nations.*

Establishment of League of Nations

The out break of the First World War made the leaders of the world to establish an international organisation for preventing future wars. The Treaty of Versailles also provided a Covenant for the establishment of an international organisation to maintain peace and security in the world. The founder of this organization was President Woodrow Wilson of USA. It was his idea to create a world organization to maintain peace and prevent future wars. President Woodrow Wilson's **Fourteen Points** underline the creation of a general association of nations. It was Woodrow Wilson who worked hard during Paris negotiations to bring about the birth of the **League of Nations**. The League was actually established in 1920 and its head quarters was shifted from Paris to Geneva in Switzerland. Thus, the League of Nations came into being. However, League failed to prevent the Second World War.



WOODROW WILSON

Aims of the League

The League aimed at preventing wars through peaceful settlement of disputes among member nations. Secondly it desired to preserve and protect the independence of member-nations by promoting international understanding and co-operation.

Organs of the League

The League set upon itself the task of achieving the above aims through its organs-mainly the Assembly and the Council. To begin with, all those powers who worked for the defeat of Germany and her allies became the members of the League.

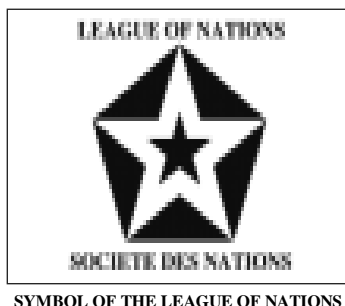
The Assembly

This supreme body consisted of the representatives of the various states which were the members of the League. Every member state was given the right of one vote in the Assembly. All decisions of the Assembly were required to be unanimous. It acted as International Legislature.

The Council

It originally consisted of four permanent members and four other members elected by the Assembly. In 1926, Germany was also given a permanent seat in the council. The number of non-permanent members continued to increase and ultimately it reached the figures of eleven. Of the two, the assembly was certainly stronger.

The Secretariat

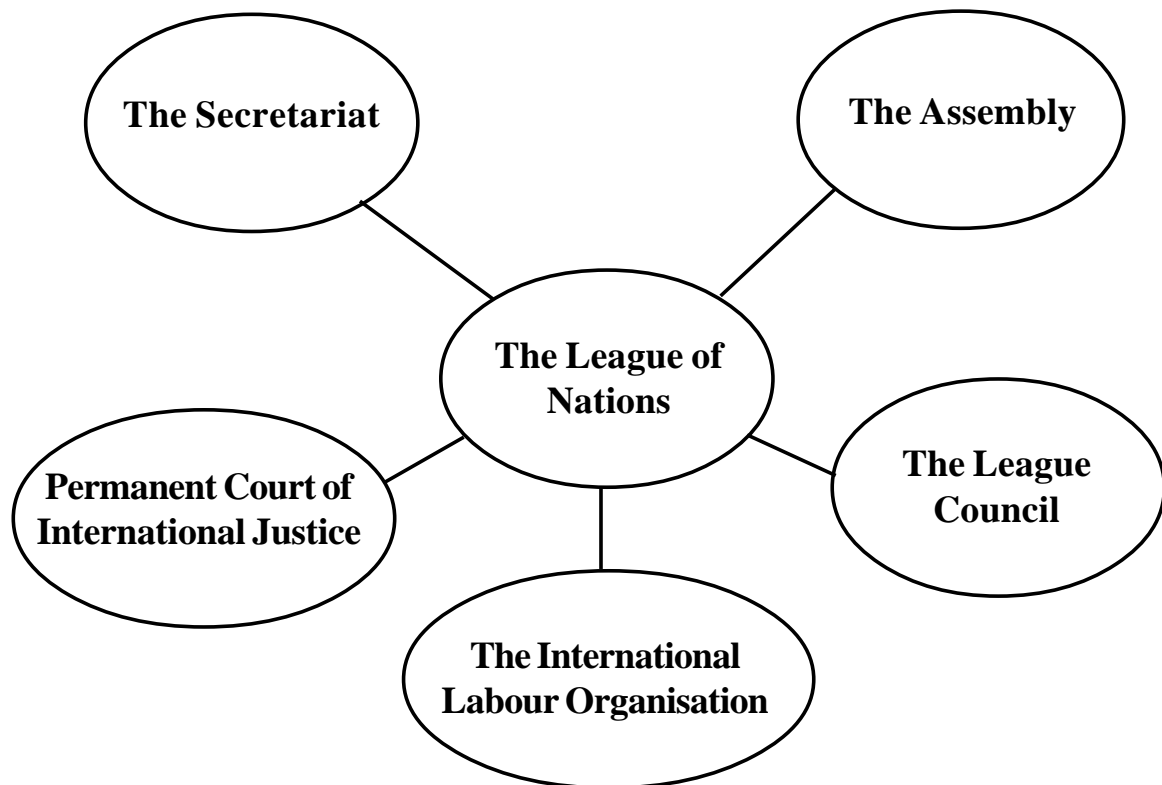


SYMBOLE DES NATIONS

It was located at Geneva. The Secretary General was the prominent figure. He was appointed by the Council but the approval of Assembly was essential. The staff of the Secretariat was appointed by the Secretary General in consultation with the

Council. The member states had to pay towards the expenses of the Secretariat..

ORGANISATION OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS



The Permanent Court of International Justice

It consisted of 15 judges with its head quarters at **The Hague**. It gave judgments on questions involving the interpretation of international law, treaties and other mutual obligations. The judges of the court were elected for nine years.

The International Labour Organisation

It was also attached to the League of Nations with its headquarters at Geneva. Its object was to improve the labour conditions in various parts of the world. Its governing body consisted of the representatives of the government, employers and workers.

Mandate system

It was set up by the League. The territories captured from the Central Powers and Turkey were not restored to them. The administration of those countries was given to various powers under the supervision of the League of Nations.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Aaland Islands

These islands lie between Sweden and Finland. Both Finland and Aaland once belonged to Sweden. On the ownership of Aaland Islands, there came a dispute between Sweden and Finland in 1920. A special Commission of the League investigated the case and settled the dispute in favour of Finland.

Mosul Boundary Dispute

This was a question related to the frontier dispute between Turkey and the Great Britain's mandated territory of Iraq. Both the parties claimed Mosul Villayet which was rich in oil. Both failed to come to an agreement on this boundary line. Ultimately the League Council gave its final judgment on the subject. . In June 1926, a treaty was made between Turkey and Great Britain by which a small part of the Villayet was given to Turkey. The revised boundary was recognised as definite. Some royalty from Mosul oil fields were given to Turkey.

Eupen and Malmady

In 1920 and 1921 Germany protested to the League of Nations against the decision of giving Euphen and Malmady to Belgium. The League Council discussed the matter in September 1920 and wrote to the government that its decision regarding the transfer of Euphen and Malmedy to Belgium was final.

Curfu Incident

In August 1923, an Italian general and two officers were murdered on Greek soil. The Italians demanded apologies and reparations too for the crime. Greece refused to accept the demands of Italy. Hence Italy occupied the island of Curfu. In this dispute Britain and France mediated and brought about a compromise between Italy and Greece.

Dispute between Greece and Bulgaria

There was a border dispute between Greece and Bulgaria. In 1925 a Greek army commander was murdered. The Greek army marched in to Bulgaria. The League Council requested Britain and France to investigate this affair. The Greek forces were withdrawn and Greece was asked to pay compensation to Bulgaria for violation of her territory on a scale to be fixed by a League Commission.

Dispute between Great Britain and France

In 1921, there was dispute between France and Great Britain over the nationality question in Tunis and Morocco. The matter went to the Court of International Justice. However the dispute was decided by mutual negotiations between the foreign ministers of the two countries.

Non-political Work

The League did also a lot of non-political work. A slavery convention met at Geneva in 1925. In 1932 it was decided to set up a permanent **Slavery Commission**. The **Financial Commission** was responsible for the issue and supervision of various League Loans for Austria, Hungary, Greece etc. The league also set up in 1923 the **Health Organisation** with a Health Committee and a secretariat. It did good in fighting diseases such as Malaria, Smallpox, Rabies, Cancer, Tuberculosis and heart diseases etc. It helped nations to

improve national health. It organised technical conferences. The League did commentate Common Wealth work in the field of control of traffic in dangerous drugs, peasant reforms, suppression of trade in obscene literature .

Causes for the Failure of League of Nations

The League failed in its main object of maintaining peace in the world. In spite of its efforts for two decades, the whole world was involved in war again in 1939. There are many causes for its failure.

The major powers like USA and USSR were not members of the League of Nations. This was a serious defect.

It was unfortunate that the Covenant of the League of Nations was made a part and parcel of the peace settlement. It would have been better if it had been kept separate. There were many states which considered the Treaty of Versailles as a treaty of revenge and were not prepared to ratify the same. By not ratifying the treaty, they were refused to be members the League. The absence of great powers [USA and USSR] in the international organisation weakened the League. Japan, Germany and Italy had left the League.

There was also a feeling among the nations that the League of Nations was fully dominated by the victorious countries of World War I especially of France and England. The result was that the other states began to doubt about the working of the League of Nations.

The countries like Germany were humiliated by the victorious countries. Germany was compelled to pay war reparations when it was suffering from economic difficulties. Hence there were no chances of peace.

After World War I, in Europe there came situations for the rise of dictatorships in Italy, Japan and Germany. Japan in the Far East

conquered Manchuria. The League was not also in a position to condemn the action of Japan. Japan was also prepared to give up the membership of the League.

Likewise in Italy there was Fascist Dictatorship. This had preached the people of Italy narrow nationalism. Italy captured Abyssinia. When the League questioned the conquest of Italy on Abyssinia, it left the League.

Germany too was not prepared to accept the commitments under the Treaty of Versailles. In Germany too there was Nazi dictatorship. Hitler preached pseudo patriotism. He also spoke about the superiority of German race over other races. He wanted to expand Germany's sway over Austria and Poland. He made conquests over these countries. Defying the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles he increased the armaments. When this was questioned in the League, Germany left the League.

Small nations lost their faith on the working of the League. They felt that the League of Nations had no power to control the aggressive activities of the big powers.

France's insistence of forcing Germany to pay the war reparation at the time of its economic crisis had disastrous effects on the politics of the country. This contributed to the downfall of the Weimar Republic. This led to the rise of Hitler in Germany and the latter was responsible for the failure of the League.

The birth of the League of Nations on the ruins of the First World War was welcomed. However, the member states of the League did not cooperate. As a result the League failed in its mission. Thus, the Second World War broke out. Finally, UNO was established on the disintegration of the League.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The formation of the League of Nations.*
- 2. The role of Woodrow Wilson in its formation.*
- 3. The achievements of the League of Nations in establishing world peace.*
- 4. Causes for the failure of the League of Nations.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Name the person responsible for the founding of the League of Nations
(a) George Washington (b) Harry Truman
(c) F.D. Roosevelt (d) Woodrow Wilson

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The League of Nations was established in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 1. Headquarters of the League of Nations | a. The Hague |
| 2. Court of International Justice | b. Curfu Incident |
| 3. Italy | c. Turkey and Iraq |
| 4. Mosul Boundary | d. Geneva |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) The U.S.A did not join the League of Nations.
- b) The League of Nations succeeded in preventing the world war.
- c) The League of Nations successfully prevented Japanese attack on Manchuria.
- d) Hitler and Mussolini did not respect the decisions of the League of Nations.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The mandate system was set up by the League of Nations.
2. The League of Nations was replaced by the United Nations Organization.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. International Labour Organization
2. Mandate System
3. Curfu Incident

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Give an account of the formation of the League of Nations.
2. Describe the important organs of the League of Nations.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Examine the achievements of the League of Nations.
2. Analyse the causes for the failure of the League of Nations.

LESSON 30

RISE OF FASCISM AND NAZISM

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The rise of Fascism in Italy and its causes.*
- 2. Mussolini's foreign policy.*
- 3. The rise of Nazism in Germany and the factors contributed to it.*
- 4. Hitler's foreign policy and its effects.*

Mussolini and the Fascist Italy

Causes for the Growth of Fascism in Italy

Italy attended the Paris Peace Conference with great expectations. The secret Treaty of London which was signed in 1915 with the Allies gave Italy great hope. At Paris, Orlando presented the demands of Italy. But the US President Woodrow Wilson rejected the **Treaty of London**. Italian claims over territories on the Adriatic Sea, some Turkish provinces and Albania in the Balkan were all turned down. Thus Italy gained nothing in the Paris Peace Conference. "Italy had won the war but had lost peace".

Italy was disappointed. The representatives of Italy were forced to boycott the conference. They felt that the Allies had purposely deceived Italy. This discontentment created a feeling of revolt among the middle class youth. They decided to form an organization and unite in order to avenge their national humiliation and treachery.

Economic Condition

During the war, Italy was forced to spend huge amount more than her national income. Unemployment prevailed. People believed that government was responsible for such a situation. They wanted an alternative government. The rise of the Fascist Party was also a result of above dissatisfaction.

Spread of Socialism

The unemployment problem, poverty and inflation helped the spread of Socialism. The believers in Marxism had a political party called **Social Democrats** of Italy. In the 1919 election they gained 156 seats out of 574. This party helped a lot for the rise and development of Fascism in Italy.

Rise of Mussolini

Benito Mussolini was the originator of the idea of Fascism. He was born in 1883. Mussolini's father an ironsmith, was a follower of Socialism. Hence, Mussolini was influenced by the socialistic ideology. He was a school teacher a trade unionist and a journalist. He was imprisoned in 1908 for revolutionary ideas. In 1912 he started the editing of *Avanti*, a socialist journal. He was a bitter opponent of the Church.



MUSSOLINI

When the First World War broke out, the Italian Government decided not to take part in the War. But Mussolini propagated that the Italian Government should immediately join the war in favour of the Allies. For that Mussolini was punished. But later Italy was forced to join the war on the side of the Allies. As a result Mussolini became popular. He also participated in the war as a soldier.

The Bolshevik Revolution took place in Russia in 1917. The people of Italy also were influenced by the revolution. The

communists of Italy also were planning for a massive revolution. Mussolini, who was a staunch opponent of Bolshevism, decided to start a new party to fight Communism. In march 1919 the **Fascist Party** was established under his leadership. The members wore **black shirts** and were equipped with arms. The party had its own flag. The members were well disciplined and Mussolini was their chief commander.

In the first party convention of Milan, Mussolini announced the programmes and Charter of demands of the party. They were:

- Nationalisation of factories
- Confiscation of surplus money from the capitalists
- Universal Franchise
- Forfeiture of the Church property
- Eight hours work in factories
- Framing of a new constitution.

These demands of the Fascist Party soon achieved popularity in Italy. The number of members increased very rapidly. In 1919 there were only seventeen thousand members in the party. The number increased to 3 lakhs in 1922. The Fascists captured the offices of the Socialist and the Communist parties by force.

In October 1922, the Fascist Party had its party convention at Naples. A Charter of Demands was passed at the convention. They include induction of Fascist members in the Cabinet, new election to the Legislatures and the adoption of a vigorous foreign policy. But the government refused to concede. The Fascists therefore marched on to Rome, under the leadership of Mussolini. They captured all the government officers. The government asked the king Victor Immanuel III to promulgate martial law. Mussolini was invited to form the ministry.

Mussolini as the Prime Minister of Italy

Mussolini was an action oriented Prime Minister. He took the following steps for the reorganization of administration.

- The dacoits living in the interiors of Naples and Sicily were crushed.
- The economic and social conditions of the labourers were improved.
- Trade Unions were abolished.
- The entire powers of the Parliament were snatched.
- Members faithful to the leader alone were appointed as ministers and officers.

Elections were conducted under the basis of the changed law. The Fascist Party got a complete majority in the National Parliament. After elections, Mussolini adopted some measures to crush opponents.

- All local bodies were suspended.
- Only Fascist lawyers were allowed to practice.
- In 1926, all political parties were banned.
- The cabinet system of government came to an end.
- Freedom of the Press was curtailed.
- Unlimited powers were given to the police department.
- Members of the opposition parties were imprisoned.

Mussolini as the Dictator

Rule of one leader and one party was the ideology of Fascism. He had no faith in democracy and hated the majority. He believed in the supremacy of the state. The individual had no right. The individual was merely a means to recognise the existence of the state.

NAZISM IN GERMANY

After the First World War, harsh peace was imposed on Germany and other defeated countries. This had created intense nationalist upsurge in Germany. The economic breakdown and the rise of socialist parties paved the way for the rise of Hitler and Nazism in Germany. Similarly such situation arose in Italy and Japan. This resulted in the Axis formation. The aggressive foreign policy of Hitler led to the Second World War.

Germany at the End of World War I

At the end of the World War I, the German King William was forced to abdicate. A republic was proclaimed in Germany. **Friedrich Ebert**, the leader of the **Social - Democratic Party** formed a temporary government. This was followed by an election to the Constituent Assembly. The Social Democratic Party emerged as the largest party. The session of the Constituent Assembly was held in the city of Weimar. A new constitution was drafted. This is known as **Weimar Constitution**.

The Revolt of the Royalists

The Treaty of Versailles was very harsh and humiliating to Germany. It suffered territorial loss. The policy of disarmament was imposed. The war reparation was enormous. Germany was held responsible for the World War. This affected the sentiments of the Germans. A group of people opposed the signing of the Treaty of Versailles.

In March 1920, the royalists under the leadership of Dr. Kapp revolted. But he failed and surrendered before the republican government. The second such revolt was led by Ludendorff. He was assisted by Hitler. Ludendorff and Hitler were arrested and imprisoned for 5 years. It was during this jail life, Hitler wrote the famous book *Mein Kampf* which later became the **Bible** of the Nazi party.

Economic Crisis

The post war Germany posed a disastrous financial crisis. For the payment of reparation, the government was forced to take loans. Factories were closed. Trade and commerce were deteriorating. Heavy taxes were imposed. To meet the financial crisis the government had no other option but to issue more and more paper currencies. This resulted into inflation. Unemployment was rampant.

Reparation

According to the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, Germany, which was held responsible for the First World War, had to pay a heavy amount of compensation. The Reparation Commission fixed the amount as 660 million pounds. There was opposition against these provisions. Most of them argued that, since Germany was not responsible for World War I, there was no need to pay the heavy amount of war indemnity.

Dawes Plan

The financial crisis in Germany forced the Weimar Republic to make an appeal to the allies for the reduction of the amount of reparation. As a result a committee consisting of ten members was formed under the chairmanship of Dawes, an eminent finance specialist of U.S.A. The committee made some amendments to the provision of the Treaty of Versailles. This known as **Dawes Plan** The financial burden of Germany was reduced to certain level. When the problem of reparation again appeared in 1929 the **Young Committee** made a plan to solve it.

Hitler and the Nazi Germany

Adolph Hitler was born in April 1889 in a very humble family in an Austrian village. On account of poverty he could not get proper education. His father wanted to make his son a government



HITLER

employee. But Hitler was very fond of art from his early days. So he went to Vienna at the age of 18 to learn the art of painting and architecture. While he was in Vienna, he happened to witness the behavior of the Jews. He felt that the Jews were the moral enemies of individualism, nationalism and racialism. Further he felt that the Jews were the supporters of the Marxian ideology. Thus his anti- Jews ideas developed at very early age. Hitler was opposed to democracy and believed in the supremacy of the German race.

During the First World War Hitler joined the army and participated in the war. In recognition of his service and bravery shown during the war, he was honoured with the award of the 'Iron Cross'. He believed that the Jews and the communists were responsible for the defeat of Germany. He therefore undertook a programme to avenge the defeat. He began to work as a spy in Munich. He also started a new party with the cooperation of his friends. **National Socialist German Labour Party** was launched.

Nazi Party

To carryout his programmes, Hitler started the **National Socialist Party** or Nazi Party. 'Swastika' was made the symbol of Nazi Party. By the year 1932, the membership of the Nazi Party increased to 70 lakhs. To attract the young people to his party, Hitler started '**Hitler Young Society.**' Also he formed two military bodies. The members were wearing brown shirts with a red armband carrying a black Swastika. Another division was called as the '**Black Shirts**'. They were the body guards of the Nazi party leaders.

In 1932, Hitler contested for the post of President. But he was defeated with a few votes against Hindenburg. But in the general election conducted in the same year, his party became the largest party in the parliament. According to the provisions of the constitution as a leader of the majority party in the Reichstag, Hitler was made the Chancellor. Thus he formed the Nazi Government.

He established the dictatorship of the Nazi Party. Communist party was banned and its leaders were arrested. The civil rights of the people were suspended. The Weimar Republic came to an end. Hitler declared the establishment of the Third Reich. The flag of the Nazi Party became the National flag. The Parliament was dissolved. The powers of the parliament were transferred to Hitler.

Anti- Jew Policy

In Germany, the Jews enjoyed a privileged position due to their wealth and education. He believed that they were anti- nationals. Hitler now made several efforts to crush the Jews. Anti- Jew Laws were passed. They were denied German citizenship. He adopted very harsh and repressive measures for the economic and cultural boycott of the Jews.

Military Reforms

Hitler reorganised his military on the basis of German nationality. Germans alone were admitted into the military service. He established a totalitarian type of government so that he could follow an aggressive foreign policy.

Foreign Policy of Hitler

Hitler did not approve the Treaty of Versailles. It was a dictated peace. Hence it was a humiliating one. The German people accepted the policy of Hitler and accepted him as their leader. The important aspects of his foreign policy are given below.

German came out of the League of Nations

Following the League of Nations Disarmament Conference on February 3, 1932 Hitler announced the withdrawal from the League. He started the process of rearming Germany.

Rearmament

As mentioned above, after the Geneva Disarmament Conference, Hitler withdrew from the League of Nations. Now he was free to rearm Germany. On March 16, 1935, Hitler announced compulsory military training for all German people. He also aimed to have the air force equal to that of England and France. He announced that the reason for the increase in the strength of the army was self-defence. But France and England had natural suspicion over these actions of Hitler. Therefore they convened a meeting at Stresa in Switzerland and condemned the behaviour of Hitler. But their condemnation did not affect Hitler from rearmament.

Militarization of Rhineland

Rhineland was to be demilitarised, according to the Treaty of Versailles. On March 7, 1936, Hitler sent his army into the heart of Rhineland and started the construction of fortifications. France opposed this move of Germany. But England was a silent spectator to this action of Hitler. Thus a golden opportunity to stop the aggressive behaviour of Hitler was lost by both England and France.

The Spanish Civil War

A Republic had been proclaimed in Spain in 1931. In 1936 the conservatives under General Franco started a Civil War against the Republic. Now Germany and Italy supported Franco whereas Russia supported the Republicans. The Republicans were defeated and the dictatorship of Franco was established. The net result of the Spanish Civil War was that it helped Italy and Germany to come closer and later their friendship was converted into a treaty.

Rome- Berlin -Tokyo Axis

In October 1936, On the basis of an agreement Germany approved Italian control over Abyssinia and Italy granted permission to Hitler to annex Austria with Germany. Hitler was antagonistic towards Russian Communism. Therefore Hitler in November 1936, signed an Anti- Comintern Pact with Japan, another enemy of Russia. In November 1937, Italy was admitted into the alliance. This Anti Comintern pact was otherwise called as **Rome –Berlin-Tokyo Axis**. This Axis was formed against England, France and Russia. This was the beginning of Second World War.

Nazism grew in Germany under Hitler. It stood for aggressive nationalism, authoritarianism and the leadership principle. On becoming Germany's Chancellor in 1933, Hitler undertook a rearmament programme. His aggressive foreign policy led to the Second World War. Similarly, Mussolini organized the Fascist movement in Italy. He believed in dictatorship, aggressive foreign policy and colonial policy. Thus, he emerged as the *Il Duce* or supreme commander. The emergence of dictatorship in Europe paved the way for Second World War.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The factors led to the rise of Fascism in Italy.*
- 2. The principles of Fascism and Mussolini's aggressive foreign policy.*
- 3. Growth of Nazism in Germany and its principles.*
- 4. Hitler's foreign policy and the formation of Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.*
- 5. The impact of the rise of Fascism and Nazism.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Which among the following journal was edited by Mussolini?
(a) New Italy (b) Mein Kamph
(c) Avanti (d) Risorgimento
2. The Nationalist Socialist Party was founded by
(a) Hitler (b) Mussolini
(c) Kaiser William II (d) Karl Marx

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. Fascism was the principle of
2. Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis was signed in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------|
| 1. Treaty of London | a. 1917 |
| 2. Fascist Party | b. 1936 |
| 3. Anti- Comintern Pact | c. 1915 |
| 4. Bolshevik Revolution | d. 1919 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Mussolini was influenced by the socialist ideology.
- b) Mussolini was a staunch supporter of the Church.
- c) Swastika was made as the symbol of the Fascist Party.
- d) The members of the Fascist Party wore Red Shirts.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. The aggressive foreign policy of Hitler led to the Second World War.
2. Hitler was the author of Mein Kampf.
3. The Spanish Civil War was started under the leadership of Dr. Kapp.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Fascism
2. Nazism
3. Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Briefly discuss the causes for the growth of Fascism in Italy.
2. What were the reasons for the rise of Hitler in Germany?
3. Discuss the foreign policy of Hitler.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the rise of dictatorships in Germany and Italy.
2. Analyse the principles and growth of Nazism in Germany.

LESSON 31

SECOND WORLD WAR

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The causes for the Second World War.*
- 2. The rise of dictatorships and other causes for the war.*
- 3. The course of the Second World War.*
- 4. Results of the Second World War.*

The First World War came to an end in 1918 and the Paris Peace conference was held in 1919. Many treaties including the Treaty of Versailles were signed in the conference. One of the important features of this conference was that only the victorious nations alone were invited. The conference turned out to be a meeting of the victors to share the spoils of the war. The defeated countries were badly treated. They also discussed about the establishment of permanent peace in the world. In order to solve mutual problems among the nations, under the initiative of the U.S. President Woodrow Wilson, the League of Nations had been established. But the League failed to maintain the expected international peace. This ultimately led to the rise of dictatorships in Germany, Italy and Japan. The formation of Rome, Berlin, Tokyo Axis led to the Second World War.

Causes of the Second World War

Treaty of Versailles

Germany was defeated in the First World War. She was not invited to the Paris Peace Conference. Germany was forced to sign a harsh and humiliating treaty. German territories were taken away from her. She was deprived of her colonies. Her navy was completely

disbanded. Her army was reduced considerably. The Weimar Republic was not in a position to solve the post-war problems. The German people decided to take revenge for their humiliation. In fact, the Second World War was a war of retaliation. Therefore, the Treaty of Versailles had in itself the seeds of the Second World War.



TREATY OF VERSAILLES

Rise of Dictatorships

The inter-war period witnessed the rise of dictatorships in Europe. The inter-war period is otherwise called the period of dictators. Germany, Italy, Spain and Japan witnessed the rise of dictators. In Germany, the Weimar Republic was weak. Hitler, the leader of the Nazi Party took full advantage of the weakness of the Republican Government and brought the government under his control. He started aggression. He captured Austria and Czechoslovakia. At last he attacked Poland and World War II started.

The same condition prevailed in Italy also. Italy felt that it was deceived in the Paris Peace Conference. Mussolini started the Fascist Party. In 1922 he captured power and became a dictator. He also followed an aggressive foreign policy. The spirit of dictatorship arose in Spain and Japan also. In Spain, General Franco defeated the Republican Government and established his dictatorship. In this effort, he was assisted by the armies of Hitler and Mussolini. Japan became a partner of Hitler and Mussolini by signing the Rome- Berlin -Tokyo Axis. This alliance disturbed world peace and the Second World War started.

Militarism

The failure of the disarmament efforts after the First World War was a major reason for the outbreak of a new War. In the Paris

Peace conference Germany was forced to disarm itself. The German Government demanded disarmament of the victorious powers, in the same way as she had been disarmed. As they refused, Germany under the dictatorship of Hitler increased its military strength. Owing to the immense increase in armaments and the development of militarism, the Second World War became inevitable.

Imperialism

The policy of imperialism was one of the causes for the Second World War. It was this same feeling of imperialism which played a dominant role during the First World War. Germany and Japan, who were more imperialistic than the Allied powers, simply ignored the decisions of the Paris Peace Conference. They made their efforts to expand their respective territories. Hitler occupied Rhineland, Austria, Memel, Czechoslovakia and incorporated them into German territory. Japan attacked Manchuria and captured it from China. Mussolini occupied Abyssinia and launched a series of aggressive activities.

Colonialism

There was also a race for colonies among the European countries in order to obtain raw materials and markets for their industrial growth. This trend continued among these powers even after the First World War. Germany was deprived of all her colonies at the Paris Peace Conference. Italy was dissatisfied with the treatment of Allied Powers. Japan, a powerful Asiatic country wanted to have colonies to enrich its resources. It is in these circumstances Germany, Italy and Japan decided to follow aggressive foreign policy. These aggressive actions ultimately led to the Second World War.

Failure of the League of Nations

After the First World War, the League of Nations was established to solve controversies among the nations and to maintain permanent peace and order in the world. Even the members of the

League failed to respect the provisions of the covenant of the League. Those who violated the provisions simply walked out of the League, without any punishment. The League could not contain the Japanese annexation of Manchuria and Italian invasion of Abyssinia. Hitler's activities posed a challenge to the League. Thus, the failure of the League of Nations to control aggressive countries was a major cause for World War II.

Dissatisfaction of National Minorities

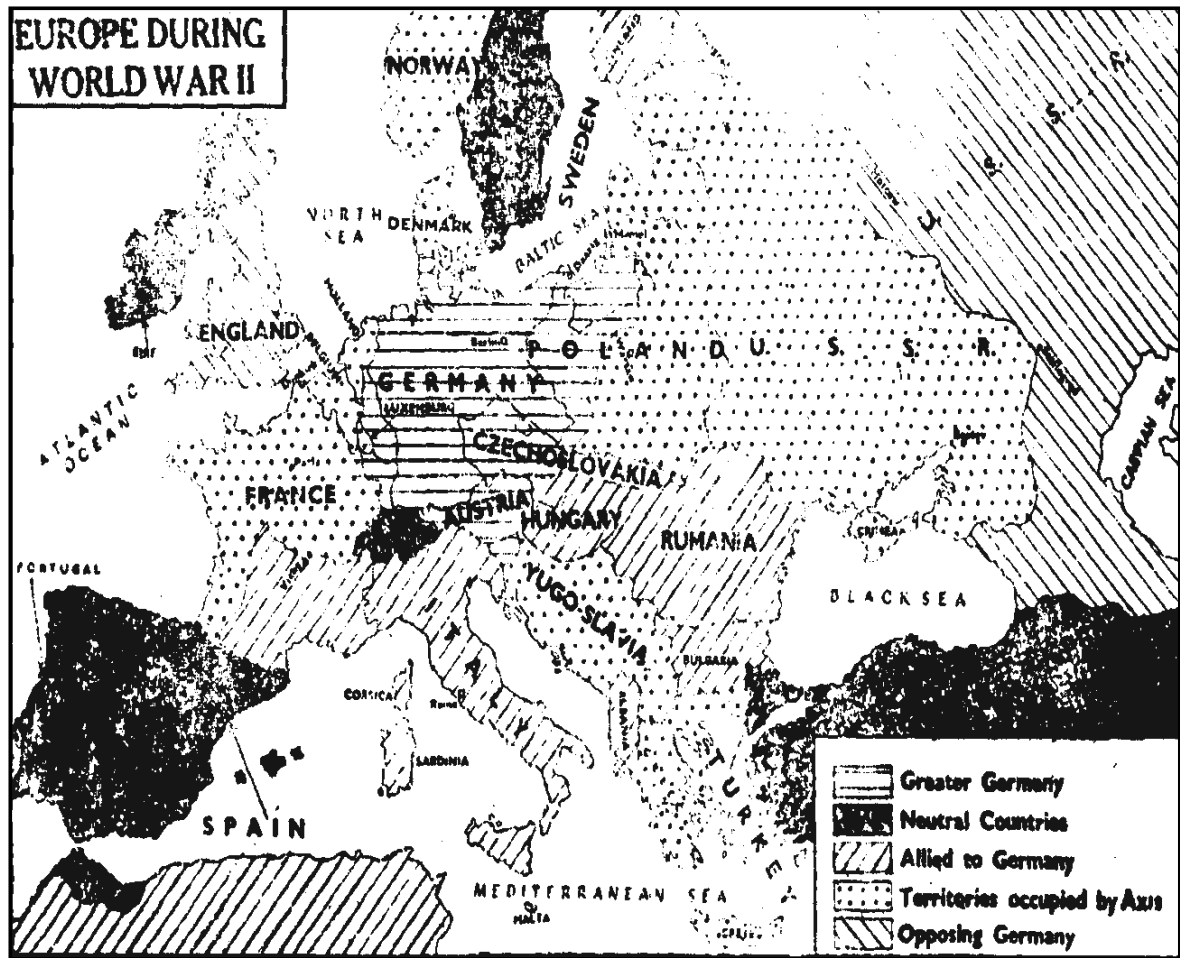
The Allied powers though posed themselves as the champions of the principle of self-determination, in actual practice that principle was not followed by them. In some parts of Central Europe, the problem of national minorities existed. It is these minority groups which became the hot beds of discontent and dissatisfaction. German annexation of Austria and Sudetenland and attack on Poland was based on this policy of reunion of National minorities.

Mutual differences of the Allies

There was no collective cooperation among the Allies. England followed a policy of appeasement towards Germany. France's fear of Germany was opposed by England. The U.S.A., the architect of the League of Nations, did not join the League. These differences among the allies failed to check the increasing strength of the dictators.

Course of the War

According to the decisions taken in the Paris Peace Conference, Poland had been made an independent kingdom. East Prussia was separated from Germany. Now, Hitler wanted to unite East Prussia with Germany. Hitler invaded Poland on September 1, 1939. Great Britain declared war against Germany on September 3. Second World War started.



In April 1940, Germany captured Denmark and Norway. In May 1940, Holland and Belgium were conquered. Germany attacked France and captured it in June 1940.

Italy fought against the British forces in North Africa. Mussolini attacked Greece and captured it with German support. Yugoslavia and Crete were occupied by the Germans.

After the fall of France, Britain was left alone. Hence, Hitler wanted to attack England by air. There was continuous air force attack on Britain. But the dynamic leadership of Prime Minister Churchill saved England. Germany could not conquer Britain.

Germany made a mistake of invading the Soviet Union, despite a non-aggression pact. One of the important battles was the **Battle of Stalingrad**. For five months the battle went on. It involved 2 million



PEARL HARBOUR

men, 2000 tanks and 2000 aero-planes. The invading German army was driven back. In February 1943, about 90,000 German soldiers surrendered. This was a turning point of the war.

In December 1941, Japan attacked the Pearl Harbour. This tragedy dragged the U.S.A. into the war. General MacArthur was made the supreme commander of the Pacific region. Lord Mountbatten, the Commander of South East Asia drove the Japanese from Burma.

In Africa, Abyssinia was conquered by the U.S.A. from Italy. The Italian Somaliland was also conquered. The British General Montgomery captured Libya from Germans. He also conquered Tripoli and entered Tunisia. In 1942 Algeria fell. In 1943 Sicily was captured by the British and U.S. troops. North Africa was cleared of Italian and German troops. The mainland of Italy was attacked. There was a revolt in Italy and Mussolini was arrested, but he managed to escape with German help. In September 1943, Italy surrendered unconditionally. Mussolini was captured and killed by his own people in April 1945.

In 1944 the Allied forces entered into France and expelled the German army from France. After that the Allied forces attacked Germany from the Southwest. Russia invaded Germany from the East. On 2 May 1945 Russian army entered Berlin. Hitler committed suicide. Germany surrendered.

Even after the surrender of Germany, Japan continued the war. USA dropped two atom bombs on Hiroshima (6th August) and on Nagasaki (9th August). Following this Japan surrendered on 14th August 1945.

The Second World War was over. At the end of the war, some 13 million Europeans were killed and 17 million civilians had died as a result of the fighting. All major cities were in ruins. Agriculture was ruined. People of the entire world had to face untold miseries, directly or indirectly.

Results of the Second World War

- In this war, about 15 Million soldiers and 10 million civilians lost their lives.
- An important result of the Second World War was that it brought to an end the colonial Empire of the European countries in Asia and Africa.
- Multi-polar world became bi-polar world.
- The USA and USSR emerged as Super Powers.
- Cold War started as an ideological war between USA and USSR

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The causes of the Second World War.*
- 2. The rise of dictatorships and the formation of the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis led to the outbreak of the war.*
- 3. The main events of the war and the ultimate victory of the allied power.*
- 4. Results of the Second World War.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. Japan attacked the Pearl Harbour in the year
(a) 1940 (b) 1941
(c) 1942 (d) 1945

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The U.S.A. dropped the first atom bomb on Hiroshima on
2. The Supreme Commander of the Pacific region was

III. Match the following:

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| 1. Mussolini | a. Japanese invasion |
| 2. Manchuria | b. Nazism |
| 3. General MacArther | c. Fascism |
| 4. Hitler | d. Supreme Commander
of the Pacific Region |

IV. Find out the Statement. One statement alone is correct.

- a. Hitler invaded Poland on September 1, 1940.
- b. In December 1941, Japan attacked the Pearl Harbour.
- c. In September 1945 Italy surrendered.
- d. On 2 May 1944 Russian army entered Berlin.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. Germany was invited to attend the Paris Peace Conference.
2. General Franco was the dictator of Spain.
3. The U.S.A. was an active member of the League of Nations.
4. The Battle of Stalingrad was fought between Germany and the Soviet Union.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Militarism
2. Imperialism
3. National Minorities

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the main events of the Second World War.
2. Examine the results of the Second World War.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the causes of the Second World War.

LESSON 32

GROWTH OF ASIAN NATIONS: CHINA AND JAPAN

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1.The rise of modern China.*
- 2.The emergence of the People's Republic of China.*
- 3.The rise of modern Japan.*
- 4.Growth of Japan as an economic giant.*

Rise of Modern China

Asia is generally divided into South Asia, South East Asia, East Asia and West Asia. China and Japan are part of East Asia. The People's Republic of China, which was established in 1949 is the largest country in East Asia. It is also the fourth largest country in the world. It has the largest population in the world. It shares its border with 14 nations in Asia.



China is one of the oldest civilizations in the world. China was ruled by many dynasties. During the 19th and 20th centuries, China was ruled by the Manchu dynasty. China during Manchu rule became weak. China was called the sick man of Asia. It became a quasi colony of the western powers. The European countries came to China for trade and commerce. China called the Europeans as “Red Barbarians”. China imposed many restrictions on European traders. **Co-hong** (security merchants) was the institution that controlled the European trade. Particularly the English and French did not like this. Slowly the English merchants introduced

opium to the Chinese traders. In due course of time, China imported large quantities of opium. Opium-eating became a national vice. Therefore, the Chinese government imposed rules to prohibit opium trade. The action of Commissioner Lin Tse hsu led to First Opium War (1839-1842) in which England defeated China. The war came to an end with the **Treaty of Nanking**. In 1856 the Second Opium War took place. This time Britain, France, USA and Russia fought against China. The war ended with the **Treaty of Tientsin** in 1860.

Thus, the western countries established their supremacy in China. China was partitioned into many economic zones controlled by western powers. This is known as “the cutting of the Chinese Melon” (ie., cutting China into many pieces). The failure of Manchu dynasty led to the **Taiping Rebellion** (1851-1864) in China. It was led by Hung Hsiu-chüan. The rebellion was crushed. China was controlled by queen Tzu hsi from 1860 to 1908 till her death. Tzu hsi’s reactionary rule led to revolutionary movements in China.

In 1894-1895 a war broke out between China and Japan. This is known as the First Sino-Japanese War. The war was fought for the control of Korea. China was defeated in this war. This led to a Chinese revolt known as the **Boxer Rebellion** against the foreign domination of China. This rebellion was also suppressed with the help of the western countries.



Dr. SUN YAT SEN

However, during this time an intellectual emerged as the undisputed leader of China. He was **Dr. Sun Yat Sen**. He is known as the “**Morning Star**” of China. He mobilized young revolutionaries and started the 1911 Revolution in China. This revolution ended the Manchu rule in China. New flag, new calendar were adopted. China for the first time became a republic. Yuan Shih Kai became the President of the Chinese Republic.

During the First World War, Japan captured the Shantung Province from China. After the War, at the Peace Conference at Versailles China wanted to get back her territory of Shantung province. But the allied countries gave Shantung to Japan. Immediately, the **May Fourth Movement** started in China.

Following this once again Dr. Sun Yat Sen assumed control of China. He started the **Kuomintang Party**. With the Russian help he wanted to introduce reforms in China. It was during this period the **Chinese Communist Party of China** was started. Mso Tse Tung and Chou –en-lai were the original founding members of the Communist Party of China.

In 1924 Dr. Sun Yat Sen passed away. The leadership of the Kuomintang party was assumed by Chiang Kai Shek. In the beginning there was an understanding between the Kuomintang and the Communists. But, soon both became rivals. Chiang wanted to exterminate Mao's Communist Party. Mao retired to northern China. It is known as the **Long March**. There the Communists established their control. In 1945 a civil war broke out between the Communists and the Kuomintang. Finally, Mao established the People's Republic of China in October 1949. Chinag Kai Shek fled to Taiwan, which is known as Nationalist China. During the Cold War Era the USA supported the Nationalist China . Hence, the Nationalist China became a member of the UNO until 1971. The Peoples Republic of China was admitted as a member in the UNO only in 1971.



MAO TSE TUNG

Mao Tse Tung introduced the economic reform known as the **Great Leap Forward**. In 1966, Mao launched the **Cultural Revolution**. During the Cultural Revolution those who were against Mao were removed from the Communist Party and imprisoned.

After Mao's death in 1976 and the **Gang of Four** were arrested. Following this Deng Xiaoping quickly captured power from Mao's successor Hua Guofeng. Deng introduced many economic reforms including the relaxation of government control over the Chinese economy. Thus China moved from a planned economy to a mixed economy. As a result of the changing economic scene China formally joined the World Trade Organization in 2001.

JAPAN

Japan was the only country which was not colonized by the European countries in Asia. Though it was geographically a small country, it became a powerful country. Japan like the western countries followed a policy of imperialism in Asia. It possessed great military strength. Today Japan is an economic giant.

Japan followed a policy of isolation for more than 200 years. It was broken by **Commodore Perry** of the U.S.A. on 8th July 1853. His mission paved the way for Japan's trade with the West. During this period the **Tokugawa Shoguns** controlled Japan. Perry's mission led to the restoration of the Japanese Emperor to full authority. This is known as the **Meiji Restoration**.

The Meiji Restoration had initiated many reforms in Japan. The feudal system was abolished. Western legal system was adopted. Constitutional Monarchy, as in Britain, was introduced according to the Meiji Constitution. Japan was fully modernized.

Soon Japan followed a policy of militarism and imperialism. Japan defeated China in 1894-95. Subsequently, it defeated the biggest European country Russia in 1904-05. During the First World War Japan captured the Chinese territory of Shantung which was leased to Germany. It also imposed the **21 Demands** on China. Thus, at the end of the First World War Japan emerged as a superior military power. Hence, in order to control Japan's Navy the **Washington**

Naval Conference was held in 1921-22. But this was only a temporary measure.

In 1931 Japan invaded Manchuria and established a puppet regime. In 1937 once again Japan invaded China. Finally, it joined with Germany and Italy and formed the axis. In 1941 Japan attacked the Pearl Harbour and the U.S.A. entered the Second World War in support of Britain and France and Russia.

On August 6th and 9th two atom bombs were dropped by the U.S.A. on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Japan surrendered to the U.S.A.

General MacArthur and Emperor Hirohito

After the war, Japan was placed under control of the Supreme Commander, Gen. Douglas MacArthur. The new constitution took effect on 3rd May 1947. The United States and 45 other Allied nations signed the **San Francisco Peace Treaty** in September 1951. Following the treaty, Japan was made an independent nation once again.



MACARTHUR

From the 1950s to the 1980s, Japan's history consists mainly of its rapid development into a major economic power. The U.S.A. provided the latest technology to Japan. Thus, Japan rapidly rebuilt its heavy industrial sector. Japan soon emerged as a significant power in many economic spheres, including steel making, car manufacture and the manufacture of electronic goods. Distinguishing characteristics of the Japanese economy include the cooperation of manufacturers, suppliers, distributors, and banks in closely-knit groups called **keiretsu** emerged. For examples Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Fuyo, Mitsui, Dai-Ichi Kangyo and Sanwa are some of the powerful companies.

Politically, the postwar Japan has been dominated by one party - the Liberal Democratic Party. The party remained practically invincible for almost half a century. Emperor Hirohito died in 1989 and his son Akihito succeeded.

In the 21st century Japan emerged as a strong economic power. Japan is the only Asian country to be included in the group of developed countries. Japan is a member of the G8 (Group of developed countries).

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The rise of modern China and a brief history.*
- 2. The emergence of the People's Republic of China and the role of Mao.*
- 3. The rise of modern Japan and its role in world politics.*
- 4. Growth of Japan as an economic giant in 20th century.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The sick man of Asia
 - (a) Turkey
 - (b) Japan
 - (c) Korea
 - (d) China
2. The First Opium War came to an end by the treaty of
 - (a) Nanking
 - (b) Peking
 - (c) Tienstein
 - (d) Shantung

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The Kuomintang Party was founded by
2. The San Francisco Peace Treaty was signed in the year

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Hung Hsiu-Chuan | a. Cultural Revolution |
| 2. Dr. Sun Yat Sen | b. Japanese Emperor |
| 3. Mao Tse Tung | c. US Mission |
| 4. Commodore Perry | d. Morning Star of China |
| 5. Hirohito | e. Taiping Rebellion |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is correct.

1. Dr. Sun Yat Sen led the Taiping Rebellion.
2. Mao Tse Tung became the President of China after 1911 Revolution.
3. Japan was modernized after Meiji Restoration.
4. Japan is not a member of the G 8.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False.

1. China was controlled by queen Tzu hsi from 1860 to 1908.
2. After Sun Yat Sen Kuomintang party was led by Mao Tse Tung.
3. Japan was the only country which was not colonized by the Europeans in Asia.
4. Japan imposed 21 demands on China during the First World War.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Taiping Rebellion
2. Long March
3. Meiji Restoration

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Write a note on Mao Tse Tung.
2. Discuss the developments in post-war Japan.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Estimate the role of Dr. Sun Yat Sen in the establishment of modern China.
2. Give an account of the rise of Japan in the modern world.

LESSON 33

UNITED NATIONS ORGANISATION

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The foundation of the UNO.*
- 2. Aims of the UNO.*
- 3. Organization of the UNO.*
- 4. Achievements of the UNO.*
- 5. Non-Political functions of the UNO.*

The Second World War proved to be more destructive than the First World War. For the first time atomic weapon was used. The people of the whole world were afraid of the consequences of such wars in future. In order to bring the quarreling countries to talks and negotiate for peace countries like the USA, the USSR and the UK wanted a world forum. Although they had failed in their first experiment during the First World War yet they were firmly committed to peace. The result of their tireless effort was the birth of the United Nations Organization.

Foundation of the UNO

After a series of conferences such as the **Atlantic Charter**, **Yalta Conference** and **Potsdam Conference** finally in 1944 at Dumbarton Oaks in USA the creation of UNO was finalized. The Charter of the United Nations (U.N.) was signed by the representatives of fifty one nations at San Francisco on 26th June 1945.

Delegates of fifty one countries after a long discussion, accepted the scheme and they published a U.N. Charter. On 24th

October 1945, the United Nations came into being. The UN Headquarters is located in New York, USA.

Aims of the UNO

The fundamental aims of the U.N.O. as set forth in the Charter are :

- (i) To maintain and preserve international peace and security.
- (ii) To develop friendly relations and harmony among the countries.
- (iii) To grant equal rights and self-determination to all countries.
- (iv) To solve economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems through international cooperation.
- (v) To promote respect for human rights, dignity and freedom.
- (vi) Not to intervene in the matters which are directly related with the domestic jurisdiction of any country.

Organization of the U.N.O.

The U.N.O. consists of six main bodies which are as follows :

- (i) The General Assembly.
- (ii) The Security Council
- (iii) The Economic and Social Council
- (iv) The Trusteeship Council.
- (v) The International Court of Justice
- (vi) The Secretariat.

The General Assembly

It is a deliberative body of the United Nations Organization. This body consists of five representatives of each member state. But each member state has only one vote. The main function of this

Organs of U.N.O.



organ is to consider issues relating to international peace and security and to discuss important international problems. UNO has a Secretary General. The official languages of UNO are English, French, Spanish, Russian, Chinese and Arabic. Now [2006] UN has 192 member countries.

The Security Council

It is the chief executive body of the U.N.O. It consists of fifteen members - five permanent and ten temporary. Russia, China, U.S.A., France and Great Britain are the permanent members of the Security Council of the U.N.O. Its main function is to preserve peace and security in the world. It can take diplomatic and economic steps against those nations who violate the constitution of the U.N.O. Each of the five permanent members has a powerful vote known as **veto**.

The Economic and Social Council

This council is composed of eighteen members (there are twenty-seven members at present). All members of this council are elected by the General Assembly. It is directly responsible to the General Assembly. The fundamental principle of this body is to create a spirit of universal respect for human rights and to promote a higher cultural educational standard. Its function is to raise the standard of living of the people, to assure them employment. The UNO believes that world peace could be maintained only when the people enjoy a high economic and social standard of living.

The Social and Economic Council works through the cooperation of several special committees and commissions. such as, The United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), The United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA), Food and Agricultural Organization (F.A.O.), International Labour Organization (I.L.O.), International Bank, World Health Organization (W.H.O.) etc. This organ has rendered undoubtedly great services to the mankind since 1945.

The Trusteeship Council

This Council is composed of the representatives of permanent members of the Security Council, representatives of all those states which hold the administration of colonies and some other representatives elected by the General Assembly. The main function of the Trusteeship Council is to preserve the interests of the territories handed over to it and to help the General Assembly in the administration of those countries over which the U.N.O. holds Trusteeship.

The International Court of Justice

It is the judicial organ of the U.N.O. It has its headquarters at The Hague (Netherlands). It is composed of fifteen judges elected

by the General Assembly and the Security Council for nine years. Its main function is to solve the legal disputes of the member states of UNO.

The Secretariat

It consists of the working staff of the U.N.O. The chief of the Secretariat is called the Secretary General who is appointed by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The main function of this body is to assist all bodies of the U.N.O.

Achievements of the U N O

From the very beginning, the United Nations Organization had to deal with a large number of conflicts and problems in the international field. The Security Council of the U.N.O. made several efforts to solve those problems. But the efforts of the Security Council had been greatly hampered by the free use of the veto power. During the year 1946-47, Russia exercised the right of veto on twenty-two occasions. But in spite of this serious handicap U.N.O. has achieved success in solving many problems. some of them are as follows :

Decolonisation

UNO assisted the colonized countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America to attain their independence from the colonial masters. This process is known as **decolonization**. After the establishment of UNO the process of decolonization was quickly achieved.

Maintenance of Peace

The main function of UNO had been the maintenance of peace in the world. UNO achieved peace in the following conflict situations.

The Problem of Iran

On 1st January 1946, Iran presented a complaint against Russia before the U.N.O. The root cause of the conflict was stationing of

Russian troops in Iran. U.N.O. took a very strong line as a consequence of this, the Russian troops were withdrawn from Iran, which had been stationed there for many years. This was the first and the most important achievement of the U.N.O.

Syria and Lebanon

Similar complaint was also made by Syria and Lebanon before the U.N.O. Both of them requested the U.N.O. that British and French troops should be immediately removed from their respective states. The Security Council, therefore, made its efforts and at last it succeeded in securing the withdrawal of British and French troops from those states.

Indonesia

After the end of the Second World War, the nationalists living in Indonesia established a republican government. But the Dutch living in the colonies of Java and Sumatra rose in rebellion against the nationalists. The Security Council issued a cease-fire order to both sides. The Dutch agreed to grant full independence to Indonesia.

The Palestine Problem

After the end of the First World War, Palestine had been handed over to Great Britain under the mandate system. But the struggle arose between the Arabs and the Jews which created disturbance and tension in Palestine. After the Second World War U.N.O. appointed a special committee to study the problem of Palestine. The Committee recommended immediate partition of Palestine into three parts - an Arab State, a Jewish State and the City of Jerusalem which was to be governed by the Trusteeship Council of the U.N.O. Thus, an independent state of Israel was established for the Jews in 1948.

The Arabs bitterly opposed the plan of the partition of Palestine. They rose in revolt against the Jews. Consequently, a civil war broke out

in Palestine between the Arab League and the newly established Israel. The UNO took effective steps to diffuse the tension in Palestine.

The Kashmir Problem

This problem arose between India and Pakistan. Both of them fell into a state of great rivalry on this issue. This problem was brought to the notice of the U.N.O. It made its best efforts to remove hostility and differences between them. As a result of its mediation, the war was stopped between India and Pakistan. But this problem could not be solved permanently. It still awaits a peaceful and permanent solution.

The Problem of Korea

Before the beginning of the Second World War, the whole of Korea was under the control of Japan. After the Second World War, Russia and America decided to divide Korea on the 38th parallel line. On 24th June 1950 the army of the North Korea made a fierce attack over South Korea. The matter was again brought before the U.N.O. Hence, the Security Council decided to take some strong steps against North Korea. UNO sent its army under the command of an American, General Douglas MacArthur. A treaty was signed on July 27, 1953 by which the U.N.O. withdrew its military action.

Other Important Problems

UNO tried to bring peaceful conclusion of many other problems such as Suez Crisis [1956], Cyprus issue [1960], Congo problem [1960], Gulf War [1990].

Besides, UNO was concerned about arms control and disarmament, particularly the nuclear disarmament and control of nuclear weapons.

Non-Political Achievements

UNO has achieved considerable success in non-political matters. Such as ending racial discrimination [called Apartheid] in

South Africa, protecting human rights and providing financial assistance to many developing countries from World Bank, IDA and IMF.

The United Nations (UN) is an international organization whose stated aims are to facilitate co-operation in international law, international security, economic development, and social equity. UNO was successful in its main objectives, in spite of difficulties and set backs.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be to explain

- 1. The foundation of the UNO after the Second World War.*
- 2. The aims and objectives of the UNO as an international organization.*
- 3. The structure of the UNO and its mode of functioning.*
- 4. The achievements of the UNO in settling issues between nations and promoting world peace.*
- 5. The non-political achievements of the UNO.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The headquarters of the United Nations is located in
 - (a) Geneva
 - (b) The Hague
 - (c) New York
 - (d) San Francisco

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The United Nations was founded on
2. The judicial organ of the United Nations is

III. Match the following.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------|
| 1. United Nations Charter | a. 1956 |
| 2. Suez Crisis | b. 1960 |
| 3. Cyprus Issue | c. 1990 |
| 4. Gulf War | d. 1945 |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a. UNO is the first world organization to be established to maintain world peace.
- b. International Labour Organisation has its Headquarters at Rome.
- c. International Court of Justice has 15 Judges.
- d. WHO is one of the six main organs of the UNO.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False

1. The Charter of the UNO was signed by 51 countries at San Francisco in 1945.
2. Both the Permanent Members and Non-Permanent Members of the Security Council have **Veto** power.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Security Council
2. Kashmir Dispute
3. Arab-Israel Conflict

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. State the aims of the United Nations.
2. Write a note on the functions of the UNESCO.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Briefly mention the various functions of the U.N.O.
2. Estimate the role of U.N.O. in maintaining the world peace.

LESSON 34

THE COLD WAR

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The beginning of the Cold War.*
- 2. The formation of military alliances.*
- 3. The mounting tensions between the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R.*
- 4. The end of the Cold War.*

The end of the Second World War saw the rise of the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. as Super Powers. The strained relationship between these two countries till the collapse of the U.S.S.R is known as the Cold War. The term 'Cold War' was used for the first time by Bernard Baruch. Thereafter this term gained popularity through the journalist Walter Lippman.

The Cold War may be described as the existence of continued tensions and conflicts between the western world and the Communist countries in general and between the United States and the Soviet Union in particular. The Cold War was otherwise an ideological war or a propaganda war or a diplomatic war. It was neither a condition of war nor a condition of peace. It was a state of uneasy peace.

Beginning of the Cold War

Even before the end of the Second World War the Soviet Union had imposed Communist regimes in the East European countries of Poland, Bulgaria, Rumania, Hungary and Yugoslavia. Immediately after the War the Soviet Union brought East Germany under her influence. West Germany came under the influence of the U.S.A.

The Soviet Union blocked all roads to the west-occupied zones in Berlin. This is known as **Berlin Blockade**. Thus, a tense situation developed between the two blocs of the Cold War groups. The West was now concerned about the Russian influence. The U.S.A. had then assumed the responsibility of containing Communism. On 5th June 1947, the **Marshall Plan** was announced by the U.S.A. by which economic assistance was to be provided to the western European nations. It was a step to save the European Continent from the growing influence of Communism. In response to American Marshall Plan, the Soviet Union initiated **Molotov Plan**. On 12th March 1948, **Truman Doctrine** [Truman was the President of USA] was announced and accordingly the U.S.A. provided economic and the military aid to Greece and Turkey to the tune of 400 million dollars in order to stop the Soviet influence in those countries.

NATO

The U.S.A. had created a military alliance to prevent further spread of communism into Western Europe. A beginning in this direction was made by the signing of the **Brussels Treaty** in March 1948. Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg signed this treaty promising military collaboration in case of war. On 4th April 1949, the **North Atlantic Treaty** was signed thus forming a military power bloc, commonly known as the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization** or NATO. The U.S.A., Canada, Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg, Portugal, Denmark, Italy and Norway became its members. They had agreed to mutually extend military help in case of an attack on any one of them. It was formed against the Soviet Union.

Warsaw Pact

Between 1955 and 1958, West Asia remained the centre of the Cold War. In the series of western military pacts, the **Baghdad Pact** was concluded in 1955, later known as Central Treaty

Organization (**CENTO**). In response to these western military pacts, the Soviet Union concluded the **Warsaw Pact** on 14th May 1955 with her satellite powers. During this phase a number of military pacts were concluded, but the tension between East and West was somewhat reduced.

China

The establishment of People's' Republic of China by Mao-Tse Tung in October 1949 strengthened the Soviet bloc. The U.S.A. refused to recognize the Communist Government of China. On the other hand the U.S.A. helped Chiang Kai-Shek to establish his Nationalist Government in Taiwan. The U.S.A. recognised the Nationalist Government as the legal Government of China and made her as a permanent member of the U.N. Security Council. The Communist China or the People's Republic of China was prevented by the U.S.A. to become a member in the UNO.

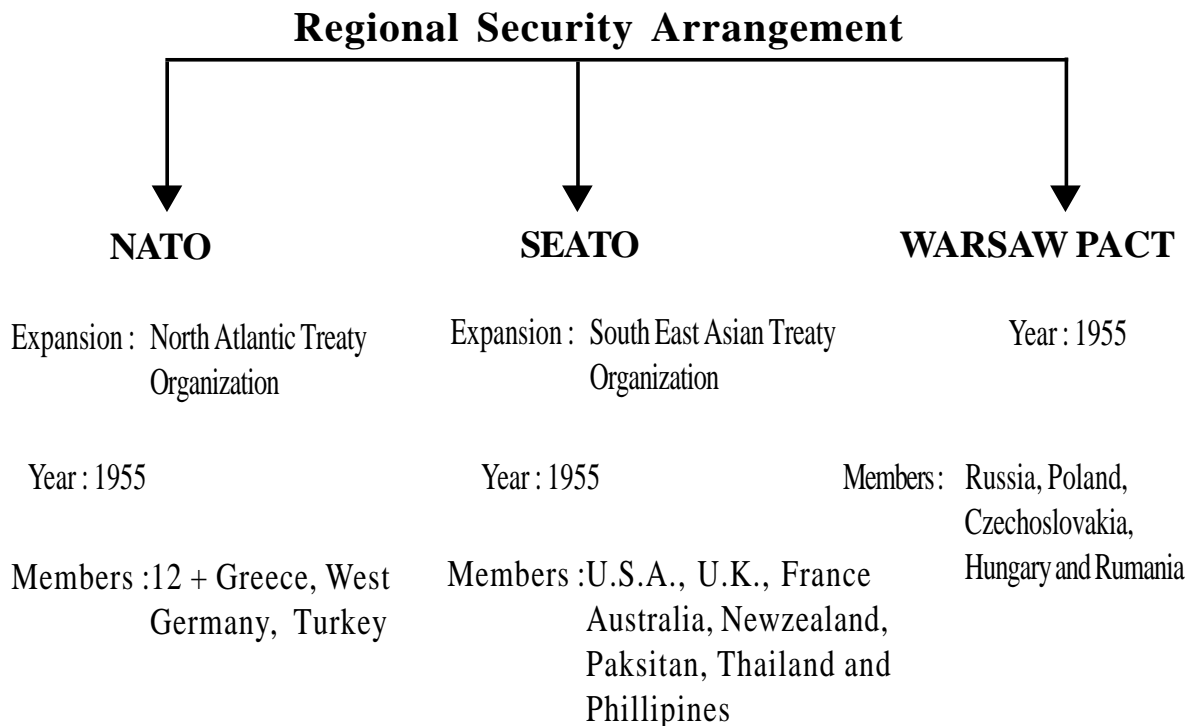
Korean Crisis

In 1950, the arena of the cold war was changed from Europe to East Asia. After the Second World War Korea was split into north and south Korea. In the North Korea the Soviet - supported communist government was formed, while the South Korea had an American - sponsored government. The two Korean governments were in conflict with each other. On 25th June 1950 North Korea attacked South Korea. North Korea was fighting with Soviet weapons and Chinese troops, while the U.S.A. in the name of U.N. force was fighting on behalf of South Korea. The Korean War turned the Cold War into an open armed conflict.

Vietnam War

Cold War was extended to Vietnam also. The fall of Dien Bien Phu on 7th May 1954 brought the final collapse of France in Indo-China. By Geneva Agreement, Vietnam was partitioned at the

17th parallel between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. A conflict developed between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. The U.S.A. entered the war supporting South Vietnam. Further, in order to contain Communism in South East Asia, the South East Asia Treaty Organization (**SEATO**) was formed in 1954.



The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962)

The Soviet Union stationed her nuclear missiles in Cuba, which was a communist country and Soviet ally. The U.S.A. considered this as a great threat to her security. John F. Kennedy sent the 7th Nuclear fleet towards Cuba. This literally brought the two super - powers to the verge of war. However, the good sense prevailed on both the sides and the crisis was averted. Subsequently, the U.S.S.R. dismantled missiles in Cuba.

Decline of Cold War- Détente (Reduction of Tension)

After 1960, the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. had developed equality in nuclear weapons. Thus any nuclear war would lead to co-destruction. This awareness led both the super powers to believe in the inevitability

of peaceful co-existence. They were, therefore, prompted to conclude the **Nuclear Test Ban Treaty** in 1963. This treaty was followed by a '**Hot Line Agreement**' between Washington and Kremlin.

After the 1970s, the friction between the Soviet Union and Communist China led to Sino-Soviet rift. The People's Republic of China was admitted into the UN. President Nixon of U.S.A. visited Moscow in May 1972 and concluded the SALT -I Treaty (Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty). In June 1973, Brezhnev paid a nine-day visit to the United States and further progress was made in the direction of strategic arms limitation. This reduction of tension between the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. is known as era of détente.

End of the Cold War

With the disintegration of the Soviet Union, the collapse of Communism in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe occurred. The bi-polar world became unipolar world. On 31st July 1991, American President George Bush and Soviet leader Michael Gorbachev signed the 'historic' START - I Treaty in the Moscow Summit. This marks the end of the Era of Cold War.

The ideological war otherwise known as Cold War was fought for about five decades since 1945. The world saw the vertical division of nation states. Military alliances were made. Arms race developed. Nuclear holocaust threatened the world on many occasions. However, after the 1970s détente resulted in the gradual relaxation of tension between the two super powers which ultimately ended with the dissolution of Soviet Union.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The meaning of the Cold War and its beginning.*
- 2. The formation of military blocs such as the NATO, CENTO, SEATO and the Warsaw Pact.*
- 3. The turning of Cold War into real military conflicts such as the Korean War and the Vietnam War.*
- 4. The end of the Cold War and the dissolution of the Soviet Union.*

V. State whether the following statements are True or False

1. During the Cuban Missile Crisis 7th Nuclear Fleet was sent by U.S.A.
2. USA and USSR concluded the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty in 1960.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Cold War
2. Warsaw Pact
3. NATO
4. Vietnam War
5. Korean Crisis

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Trace the beginning of the Cold War.
2. Briefly mention the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

1. Give an account of the formation of Military Blocs during the Cold War.
2. Critically examine the impact of the Cold War.

LESSON 35

WORLD TODAY

Learning Objectives

Students will acquire knowledge about

- 1. The emerging New World Order.*
- 2. The Nuclear Disarmament.*
- 3. The process of Globalization and the WTO.*
- 4. The menace of Terrorism.*
- 5. The environmental issues facing the world today.*

New World Order

The Year 1945 is a landmark in the history of modern world. It marked the end of multi-polar world and balance of power. The World saw the emergence of bi-polar world and the rise of Super Powers, the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. In the 1990s the collapse of Soviet Union once again changed the existing world order. The New World Order is witnessing a Uni-polar world, Globalisation, new technologies, age of information and also global terrorism.

Fall of Soviet Union



MIKHAIL GORBACHEV

Mikhail Gorbachev became the President of the Soviet Union in March 1985. He instituted a number of political reforms under the name of “glasnost”. However, Gorbachev’s relaxation of censorship and attempts to create more political openness had the unintended effect of re-awakening long suppressed nationalist and anti-Russian feelings in the Soviet Union’s constituent republics.

Domestically, Gorbachev implemented economic reforms that he hoped would improve living standards and worker productivity as part of his **Perestroika** program. This new Economic Policy permitted private ownership.

All these reforms led to revolutionary changes in the U.S.S.R. On 8th December 1991, the leaders of the Russian, Ukrainian, and Byelorussian republics issued a declaration that the Soviet Union was dissolved and replaced by the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). Gorbachev became president without a country. On 25th December 1991, he resigned as president of the U.S.S.R. and returned the powers of his office over to Boris Yeltsin. The next day, the Supreme Soviet voted to dissolve itself and repealed the declaration written in 1922 that had officially established the U.S.S.R. Thus, the collapse of the Soviet Union took place.

German Reunification

After the Second World War, Germany was divided into two separate nations. East Germany was fully under the control of the U.S.S.R. West Germany was supported by the U.S.A. and her allies. A wall was erected across Berlin to separate these two German territories. It was the famous **Berlin Wall**. But with the collapse of U.S.S.R, the German reunification took place on October 3, 1990. The areas of the former German Democratic Republic (East Germany) were incorporated into the Federal Republic of Germany [FRG] (West Germany). After the GDR's first free elections on 18th March 1990, negotiations between the GDR and FRG culminated in a Unification Treaty.

Nuclear Disarmament

In the history of warfare, nuclear weapons have been used only twice on 6th and 8th of August 1945, when the United States dropped atom bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and

Nagasaki. Since then, nuclear weapons have been detonated on over two thousand occasions for testing and demonstration purposes. The countries known to have detonated such weapons are the United States, Soviet Union, United Kingdom, France, People's Republic of China, India, Pakistan, and North Korea.

In order to minimize the risk of future nuclear war the **Non-Proliferation Treaty** (NPT) was proposed. The NPT is the most extensive inspection and control system ever devised to prevent the diversion of nuclear material from civilian nuclear programmes for weapon purposes. The idea of **Nuclear Weapon Free Zone** (NWFZ) was mooted to convince the countries refusing to join NPT club. The concept of nuclear weapon free zone means that countries without nuclear weapons should agree not to produce nuclear weapons and declare their region free from nuclear weapons. It was followed by the **Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty** (CTBT) to tighten the control over nuclear weapons programme.

Globalisation

Globalisation has become an important issue in the national and international economic field. Globalisation has assumed great importance in the recent changes in global business environment. Now business has global-orientation and the whole world has become just like a global village. Globalisation implies integration of economy of one nation with the rest of the world economy and liberalising the rules and regulations for foreign investment in economy. Broadly speaking the term Globalisation means integration of economies and societies through cross-country flows of information, ideas, technologies, goods, services, capital, finance and people. Cross border integration can have several dimensions- cultural, social, political and economic.

India and Globalization

The economic policy of India since 1991 proved to be a turning point in the history of Indian economy. In 1991 Indian government introduced a series of reforms to liberalize and globalize the Indian economy. These economic reforms move towards the market economy and globalization. These policies of economic reforms were intended to integrate the Indian economy with the world economy.

World Trade Organization (WTO)

The origin of World Trade Organization could be traced from the **Bretton Woods Conference** of 1944. In this conference, it was proposed for the creation of an International Trade Organization to establish rules and regulations for trade between countries. It finally succeeded in creating the **General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade** (GATT). Seven rounds of negotiations occurred under the GATT. The eighth round - known as the Uruguay Round — which began in 1986 and concluded in 1995 established the WTO. The main aim of WTO is to increase international trade by promoting lower trade barriers and providing a platform for the negotiation of trade.

The World Trade Organization sets the rules for the global trading system and resolves disputes between its member states. The WTO headquarter is located in Geneva, Switzerland. There are 149 members in the organization with Vietnam set to join in January, 2007. The General Council of the WTO is highest decision-making body. This meets regularly to carry out the functions of the WTO.

One of the criticisms against the WTO is that it favours rich countries and multinational corporations which affect the smaller states. Another criticism is the introduction of Trade-Related Aspects of the Intellectual Property Rights [TRIPs] into the WTO rules and regulations.

European Economic Community

The European Economic Community (EEC) was an organization established (1958) by the treaty between Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and West Germany, known informally as the Common Market. The EEC was the most significant of the three treaty organizations that were consolidated in 1967 to form the European Community. It is known as the European Union since 1993. The **European Union** or EU is an intergovernmental and supranational union of 25 European countries, known as member states.

Global Terrorism

The term terrorism means politically motivated violence carried out against mostly unarmed civilian population by a group of terrorists.



WTC ATTACK SEPTEMBER 11, 2001

The term international terrorism means terrorism involving citizens of more than one country. Today, terrorism is globalised. Hence, the UN Security Council, on 28th September 2001 passed a resolution against terrorism. The UN Resolution condemned all forms of terrorism such as political, ideological, ethnic, religious or any other form.

There are several acts of terrorism committed all over the world. The most violent terrorist attack was made on the Twin Towers of the World Trade Centre, New York on September 11, 2001 in the U.S.A. On the morning of September 11, 2001, nineteen terrorists affiliated with **al-Qaeda** terrorist organization hijacked four commercial passenger jet planes in U.S.A. Each team of hijackers included a trained pilot. The hijackers crashed two of the planes into the World Trade Center in New York City, one plane into each tower.

As a result both buildings collapsed. A third plane was crashed into the Pentagon in Arlington County, Virginia. In this terrorist attack 2,973 people died. They belonged to many countries.

India has been witnessing terrorist violence since 1980, first in Punjab and then in Jammu and Kashmir and other parts of India. Nearly 20,000 people have been killed in terrorist violence in Jammu and Kashmir, involving both shootings and bombings. In the Jammu and Kashmir India is experiencing cross border terrorism.

The 1992 serial bomb blasts in Bombay were one of the major incidents of terrorism in India in recent years. The bomb blast in Lajpat Nagar in Delhi in 1996 had also resulted in a large number of civilian casualties. There have been many more incidents of bomb blasts in different parts of the country. An Indian Airlines aircraft was hijacked to Kandahar, the headquarters of the Taliban. 178 innocent passengers were held hostage there for a week. Indian government had to make a very difficult decision. It was forced to release three terrorists from Indian prisons to secure the safety of the hostages. On 13th December, 2001 there was an attack on the Indian Parliament. Hence, India along with U.N. has condemned terrorism because it violates the human rights of the innocent citizens.

Environmental Threats

Today the world is much more worried about the environmental changes that are taking place around the globe. The major threats identified are: Global warming, Green House Effect and Ozone depletion. There is awareness among the educated public as well as general population to reduce the environmental pollution and make the earth a safe place to live.

Learning Outcome

After learning this lesson the students will be able to explain

- 1. The dissolution of the Soviet Union and the emerging New World Order.*
- 2. The Efforts taken to control the proliferation of Nuclear Arms.*
- 3. The Process of Globalization and its impact on the contemporary world.*
- 4. The growth of terrorism and its impact on India.*
- 5. The environmental issues that affect the life on earth.*

MODEL QUESTIONS

I. Choose the correct answer.

1. The proposal for an International Trade Organization was made at the
 - (a) Washington Conference
 - (b) Vienna Conference
 - (c) U N Conference
 - (d) Breton Woods Conference

II. Fill in the blanks.

1. The New York Twin Towers of the World Trade Center was attacked by the terrorists in the year
2. The headquarters of the WTO is located in

III. Match the Following

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Gorbachev | a. Environmental threat |
| 2. NPT | b. 1958 |
| 3. EEC | c. Perestroika |
| 4. Green House Effect | d. Nuclear disarmament |

IV. Find out the correct statement. One statement alone is right.

- a) Michael Gorbachev became the President of the Soviet Union in 1990.
- b) Gorbachev's economic policy criticized private ownership.
- c) He instituted a number of political reforms under the name 'Glasnost'.

d) He resigned as the President of the USSR in 1995.

V. State whether the following statements are True or False

1. In 1991 Indian government introduced a series of reforms to liberalize and globalize the Indian economy.
2. On 13th December, 2000 there was an attack on the Indian Parliament.

VI. Write short notes (Any three points).

1. Nuclear Disarmament
2. World Trade Organization
3. Global Terrorism

VII. Answer briefly (100 words).

1. Discuss the events that led to the fall of the Soviet Union.
2. Describe the reunification of Germany.
3. State the main features of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty.

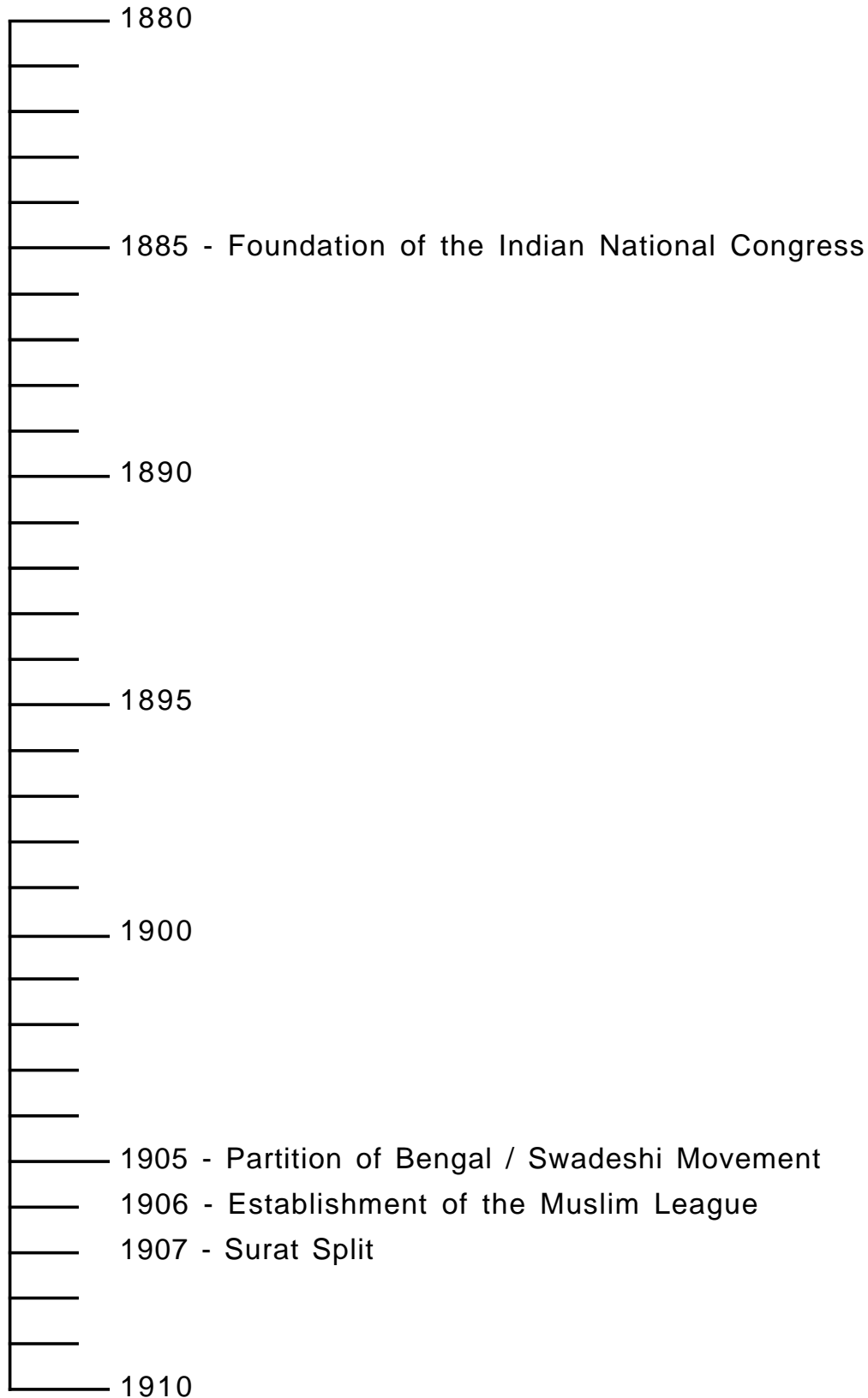
VIII. Answer in detail (200 words).

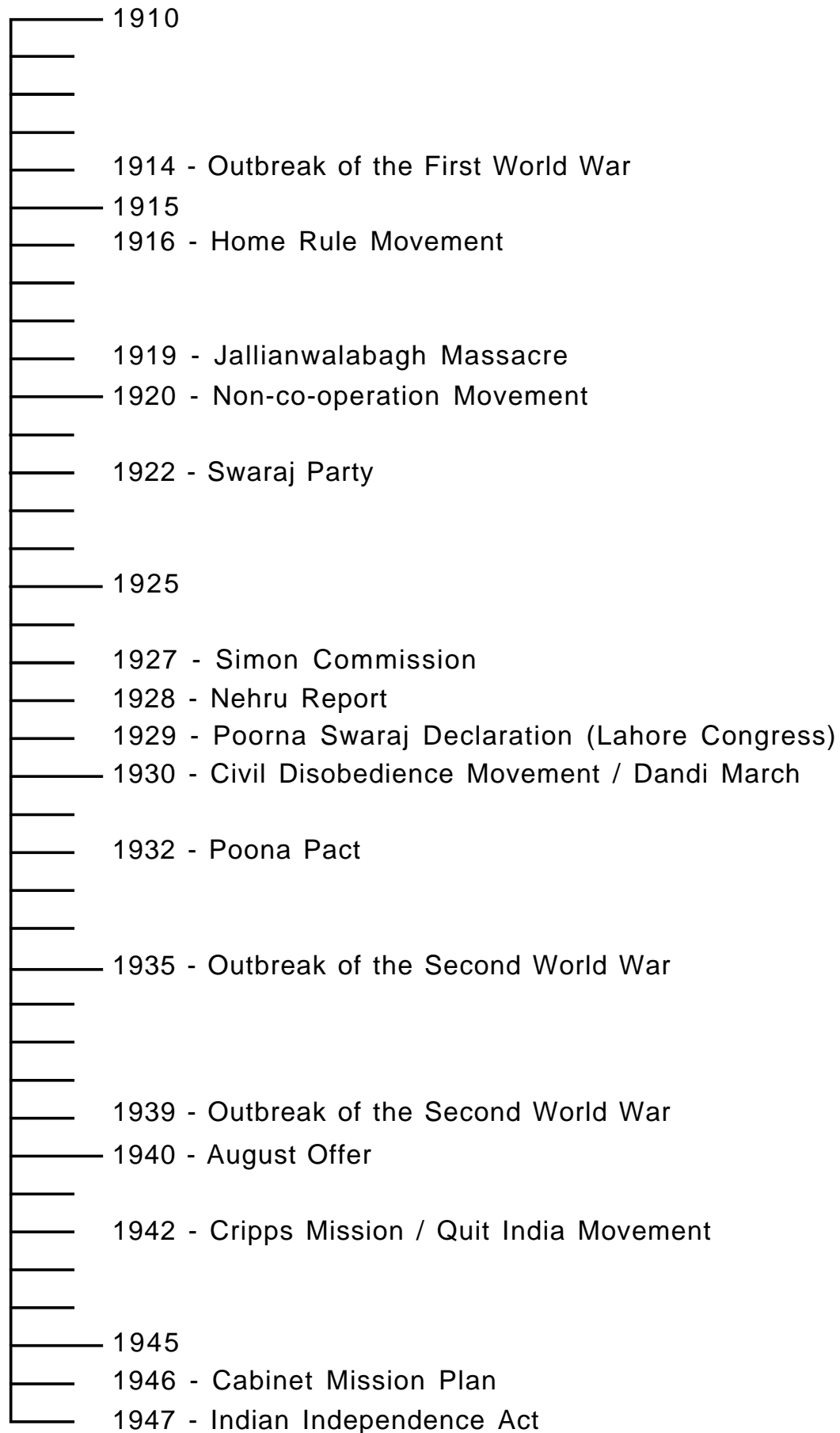
1. Explain the process and impact of Globalization.
2. Examine the role of WTO in the regulation of global trading system.
3. Evaluate the impact of Global Terrorism.

NATIONAL MOVEMENT

TIME LINE

1 Unit = 10 Years



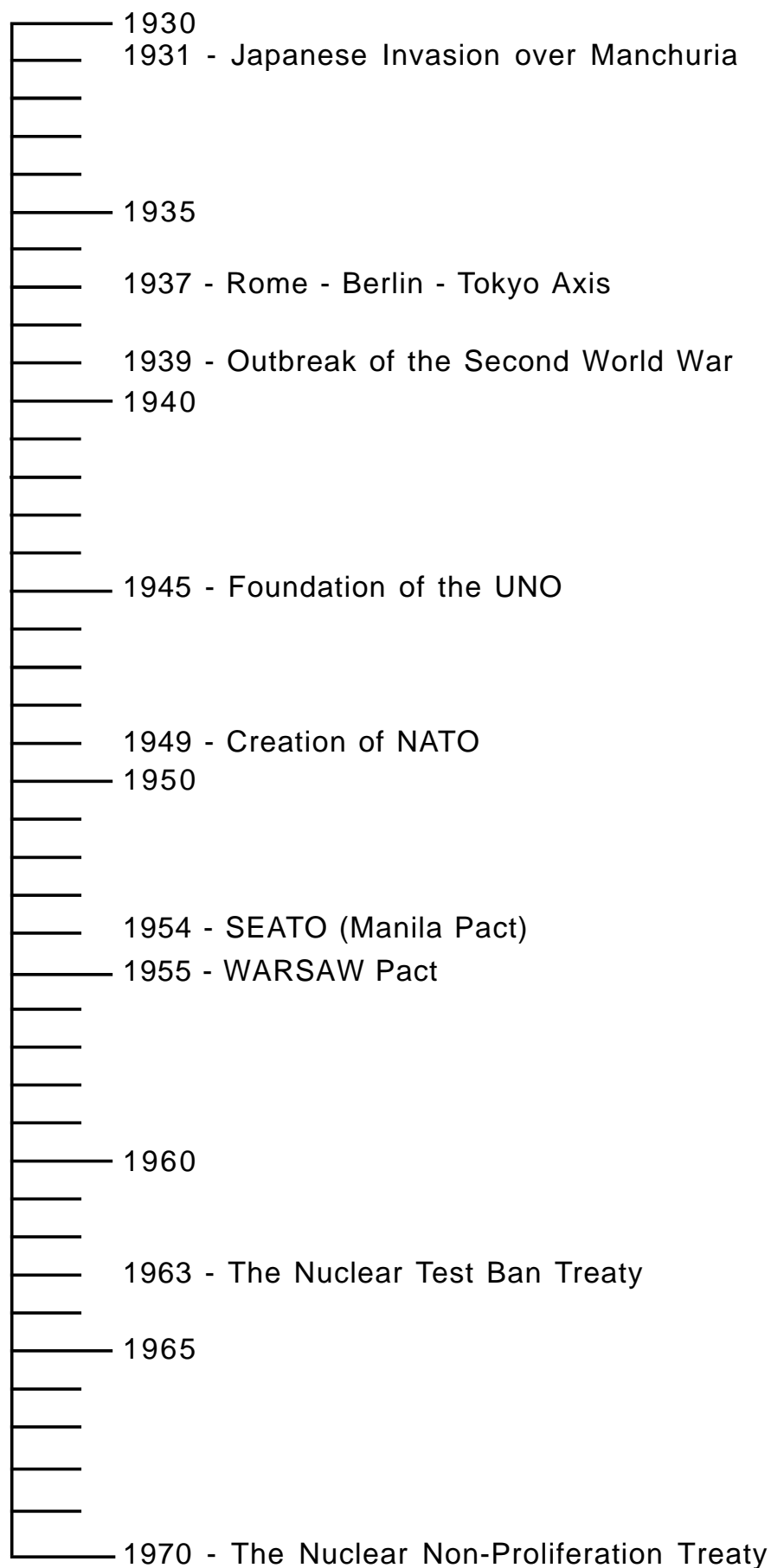


MODERN WORLD IN THE 20TH CENTURY

TIME LINE

1 Unit = 10 Years





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