Literary Sources of Ancient Indian History

History is derived from the word *historia*, meaning “inquiry, ie knowledge acquired by investigation”.

Herodotus is known as the ‘Father of History’ because he was the first of the classical writers to organise his writings in a logical order and also attempted to verify the veracity of what he was writing.

The ancient Indians knew their country as Bharatavarsha (the land of Bharata). It was said to be a part of a larger unit called Jambu-dvipa (the continent of the Jambu tree).

Vedas

Among the literary sources of Ancient Indian history, the foremost are the four Vedas, namely Rig Veda, Sama Veda, Yajur Veda and Atharva Veda.

The term *Veda* was derived from the Sanskrit word *vid*, which means ‘to know’. Vedas are also called *Apaurusheya* (not made by man) and *Nitya* (eternal).

Besides, the Vedas are also known as *Shruti*, meaning “to hear”. These have been passed on from one generation to another through oral transmission.

Vedas are basically hymns and prayers offered to God by different groups of people. They are also called *Samhitas*.

Rig Veda

It is a collection of hymns.
It is the oldest of all the Vedas.
It contains 1017 *Suktas*.
It contains 11 Balakhilya, thus making the total no. of Suktas 1028.
It contains 10 *Mandalas*.
The oldest Mandalas II, III, IV, V, VI and VII are known as *family books* on account of their composition being described to various families of sages.

Mandala IX is completely devoted to the Vedic God *Soma*. Mandala IX contains the famous *Parushshukta* hymns that explain the origin of the four *Varnas* (Chaturvarna theory — Brahmana, Kshatriya, Vaishya, Shudra).

*Gayatri mantra* is the most sacred hymn of the Rig Veda. It is mentioned in the third Mandala and is written by *Viswamittra*. This mantra is addressed to the Sun.

Famous Upanishads of the Rig Veda

- Aitareya Upanishad
- Kaushitaki Upanishad

The hymns of the Rig Veda were recited by the priest known as *Hotri*.

Yajur Veda

It is a collection of rituals for performing different sacrifices.
It has been divided into two parts Krishna (Black) Yajur Veda (commentary in prose) and Shukla (White) Yajur Veda (sacrificial formulae and rituals).

Famous Upanishads of Yajur Veda

- Brihadaranyak Upanishad
- Katha Upanishad

Taittiriya Brahmana — Related with Krishna Yajur Veda.
The hymns of the Yajur Veda were recited by the priest known as Aahwariyu.

Sama Veda

The science of music originated from the Sama Veda.
It was sung by a particular type of priests known as *Udgatari*.
It is known as the *Book of Chants*.

Famous Upanishad of the Sama Veda

Chhandogya Upanishad (describes Lord Krishna)
Kena Upanishad

Atharva Veda

It is a collection of charms, magic and spells.
The term *Atharva* means *magical formula*.
The hymns of the Atharva Veda are meant for warding off evils and demons, winning over friends and gaining material success.
No Brahmanas belong to the Atharva Veda.

Upanishad of the Atharva Veda

Mundaka Upanishad, wherein *Satyamev Jayate* has been mentioned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Veda</th>
<th>Upveda</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rig Veda</td>
<td>Ayurveda</td>
<td>Medicine/Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yajur Veda</td>
<td>Dhanurveda</td>
<td>Archery/Warfare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sam Veda</td>
<td>Gandharvaveda</td>
<td>Music, Dance, Poetry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atharva Veda</td>
<td>Shilpaveda</td>
<td>Engineering/Architecture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other Literary Sources

Brahmanas

They are elaborate prose texts.
Contain explanation of the hymns, prayers, charms and sacrificial formulae.

Satapatha Brahmana is the most famous Brahmana.
Aranyakas

The literal meaning of Aranyakas is forest.
They are also known as forest books.
They deal with mysticism, moral values and philosophical doctrines.
The most famous Aranyakas is Vrihadaranyakas.

Upanishads

The term Upanishad literally means “to sit down near someone to learn”.
They are also known as Vedanta, meaning “the end of the Vedas”, for they denote the last phase of the Vedic period and reveal the ultimate aim of the Vedas.

Vedangas

The Vedangas were considered important for understanding the Vedas but they are not included in Vedic literature.

1. **Siksha** (Pronunciation)
2. **Chhandas** (Metre—Pingal wrote Chhanda shastra)
3. **Vyakarana** (Grammar—Panini wrote Astadhyayi)
4. **Nirukta** (Etymology—Yaksha wrote Nirukta)
5. **Jyotisha** (Astronomy)
6. **Kalpa** (Sacrificial rituals)

Indus Valley Civilization (2350-1750 BC)

This Bronze Age Civilization is also called Harappan because it was discovered in 1921 at the modern site of Harappa situated in the province of West Punjab in Pakistan. The discovery was made by Sir John Marshall, Rai Bahadur Daya Ram Sahni and Madho Sarup Vats.

It extended from Jammu in the north to the Narmada estuary in the south, and from the Makran coast of Baluchistan in the west to Meerut in the north-east. The area formed a triangle and accounted for about 1,299,600 square kilometres.

Nearly 1500 Harappan sites are known so far in the Indian sub-continent. Of these, the two most important cities were Harappa in Punjab and Mohenjo-daro (literally the mound of the dead) in Sindh, both forming parts of Pakistan. Situated at a distance of 483 kilometres, they were linked together by the Indus.

Other cities are Chanhudaro, about 130 km south of Mohenjo-daro in Sindh, Lothal in Gujarat at the head of the Gulf of Cambay, Kalibangan, which means black bangles, in northern Rajasthan, and Banawali, which is situated in Hisar district in Haryana.

Modern technique of Carbon-14 dating has been employed to calculate the date of the Indus Valley Civilization. Harappan seals, which have been obtained from Mesopotamia, provide additional help.

The largest Indus Valley Civilization site is Mohenjo-daro. The smallest site is Allahdino. The three nucleus sites are Dholavira and Rakhigarhi. The number of sites which are considered as cities is six.

The Indus Valley Civilization was probably ruled by the merchant class.

**Note:** The maximum number of sites were explored by SR Rao in Gujarat (190 sites). At present there are over 350 sites which have been excavated.

### Important Harappan Sites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sites</th>
<th>Associated rivers</th>
<th>Year of Discovery</th>
<th>Discoverer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) Harappa</td>
<td>Ravi</td>
<td>1921</td>
<td>DR Sahni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Mohenjo-daro</td>
<td>Indus</td>
<td>1922</td>
<td>RD Banerjee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Chanhudaro</td>
<td>Indus</td>
<td>1925</td>
<td>MG Majumdar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Kalibangan</td>
<td>Ghaggar</td>
<td>1953</td>
<td>AN Ghosh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Ropar</td>
<td></td>
<td>1953</td>
<td>Talwar and Bisht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Lothal</td>
<td>Bhogwa</td>
<td>1957</td>
<td>SR Rao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(g) Suktagender</td>
<td>Dasak</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>Orell Stien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(h) Surkatoda</td>
<td></td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>JP Joshi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Banawali</td>
<td>Saraswati</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>RS Bish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(j) Dholavira</td>
<td></td>
<td>1967/1991</td>
<td>Joshi/Bisht</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Important Sites

Harappa

In the citadel of Harappa, six granaries were found. Each granary measured 15.23 × 6.03 metres and lay within a few metres of the river bank. Harappa also shows two-roomed barracks. The cemetery R37, containing 57 burials, is located at Harappa.

Mohenjo-daro

The most important public place of Mohenjo-daro seems to be the Great Bath, comprising the tank which is situated in the citadel mound. It measures 11.88 × 7.01 metres and 2.43 metres deep. In Mohenjo-daro the largest building is the Great Granary, which is 45.71 metres long and 15.23 metres wide. A stupa, a college hall, a hamnam, assembly halls, a bronze statue of dancing girl and two bronze swords were the other structures found at Mohenjo-daro. The maximum number of bronze figures have been found in Mohenjo-daro.

Note: Maximum number of seals have been found in Mohenjo-daro (57%). The second maximum is at Harappa (36%).

Chanhudaro

Pottery inkpots and writing tablets (leafs) were found at Chanhudaro. Chanhudaro had no citadel.

Kalibangan

Fire altars have been discovered at Kalibangan. Black bangles were found here. A house floor containing the design of intersecting circles was found at Kalibangan. Ploughed fields were found in Kalibangan. The lower city has been laid out in a grid pattern of streets at Kalibangan.

Lothal

An atta chakki (grinding stone) was discovered at Lothal. Rice husk was discovered in Lothal and Rangpur. A terracotta figure of a horse has been found in Lothal. Houses in Indus Valley civilization never opened towards the main roads. They opened towards the inside lanes. Lothal, however, was an exception. Lothal was a major port of exit and entry.

Banawali

A tiger seal was found at Banawali. The most extensively used metal in Indus Valley Civilization was pure copper (unalloyed copper).

Other sites

Amri: Situated in the Sindh region on the banks of the river Indus; founded by MG Majumdar in 1929.

Surakotada: Situated in Gujarat; founded by Jagat Pati Joshi in 1964.

Sutkagendor: Situated along the Makran coast in Baluchistan. Founded by Aurel Stein in 1927.

Kot Diji: Situated in the Sindh region along the banks of the river Indus.

Rangpur: Situated in Gujarat along the river Madar. Founded in 1931 by MS Vats.

Area-Wise Distribution of Settlements


Baluchistan: Mehragarh, Kulli, Levan, Dabarkot, Balakot.

Afghanistan: Mundigak, Shortugai

West Punjab: Harappa, Gareriwala

Gujarat: Dholavira, Lothal, Surkotada, Bhagalrv, Rangpur, Rojadi, Desalpur

Rajasthan: Kalibangan, Siswal, Bara, Hulas, Bhagwanpura

Uttar Pradesh: Alamgirpur, Hulas, Mandi

Punjab: Ropar, Sarai Khola

Agricultural Practices

Wheat and barley were the most important crops of Indus Valley Civilization.

Other crops: Peas, linseed, mustard, cotton, dates. There is no evidence of sugarcane. Rice was produced only in Gujarat.

Town Planning and Structures

The towns were based on grid pattern. Streets and lanes cutting across one another at right angles divide the city into a number of rectangular blocks. The city was divided into two parts. One part was the citadel, a fortified area which housed important civic and religious public buildings, including granaries and residences. The other part was lower town, somewhat bigger in area and located to the east of the citadel. It was meant for common people. At some places like Surkotada and Kalibanga, there is also evidence of division of city into three parts instead
Burnt bricks were basically used for construction. Circular stones were used at Dholavira. Bricks were made in the ratio of 1 : 2 : 4.

Seals
The seals were basically made up of steatite (soft stones) and had signs, symbols and animal pictures on it. They were generally square and rectangular in shape. The most frequently depicted animal on the Harappan seal is the unicorn and the most famous seal is the Pashupati seal discovered from Mohenjo-daro.

Craft and Technology
The Indus Valley civilization exhibits a wide range of crafts and technical skills. Copper and bronze were the principal metals used for making tools and implements — flat oblong axes, knives, spear, arrowheads and razors. Bronze was less common than copper. Other metals used by the Harappans were gold, silver and lead. The Harappans were expert bead makers. They used soft steatite and carnelian for making beads.

Script and Language
The Harappan script is regarded as pictographic (based on symbols). It has more than 600 letters, of which 60 are basic while the rest are variants. The writing style of Harappan people was Bestrophedon, i.e. right to left in the first line, again left to right in the second line, and so on. The language of the Harappan people is still unknown and undeciphered.

Trade
Trading was both internal and external, i.e. inside as well as outside the country. Urban craftsmen needed markets to sell their goods in other areas. The traders established contacts with urban lands, particularly Mesopotamia. The presence of raw materials found at sites away from the place of their origin indicates that it reached there through exchange activities. For example, copper was generally acquired from Khetri mines located in Rajasthan. Kolar gold mines of Karnataka and river beds of Himalayan rivers might have supplied gold. It might also have come from Mesopotamia in exchange of Harappan goods. Turquoise and jade might have been brought from Central Asia. Western India supplied agate, chalcedony and carnelian. The sea-shells must have come from Gujarat and adjoining coastal areas. The trading with Mesopotamia was basically through Oman and Bahrain in the Persian Gulf. Mesopotamian cities like Susa have accounted for about two dozen Harappan seals. The Mesopotamian people were in trade with Dilmun, Magan and Meluhha. Scholars found Meluhha in Harappan region, Magan in Makran Coast, and Dilmun in Bahrain. The Mesopotamian people imported copper, carnelian, shell, pearls and ebony from Meluhha. Exports from Mesopotamia to Harappa included items such as garments, wool, perfumes, leather and silver.

Religious Beliefs and Practices
The Harappan religion is normally termed as animism, i.e. worship of trees, stones, etc. A large number of terracotta figurines are evidence to the worship of Mother Goddess. In some cases a female is shown with an infant. In another case, a plant is shown growing out of the uterus of a female. Many scholars say that the Harappans worshipped a male deity, i.e. Pashupati Mahadev. Evidence of fire worship has also been found at Kalibangan and Lothal.

Burial Practices
The Harappans basically disposed their dead bodies by burying them in pit graves. They generally lay the dead body in North–South direction with head in north and legs in south. A number of ornaments and other items like clay pots, which originally might have contained food and drink, were buried with the dead bodies.
The Aryans were known as creators of the Vedic civilisation. The word *Arya* means “civilized one”.

The Central Asian Theory of Max Mueller is a widely accepted theory of the origin of the Aryans. The language of the Aryans was *Sanskrit*.

According to the Rig Veda, the early Aryans first settled in the “Sapta Sindhu” region or “the land of seven rivers, i.e. modern-day eastern Afghanistan, Punjab and western UP.

### Political Life

In the Rig Vedic age, the prevailing form of government was **monarchical**.

Early Vedic society was not entirely **egalitarian**.

The warriors or **Rajanyas**, who fought the battles, naturally assumed more importance than the remaining members of the tribe.

**Gana, Vidatha, Sabha** and **Samiti** are the names of the various tribal assemblies mentioned in the Rig Veda.

Women participated in Samiti and Vidatha.

### Social Life

Early Vedic society was tribal, with kinship determining social relations.

**Tribe (Jana)** was formed of many clans.

Kingship was not hereditary. The king was selected from the clans and he was the protector of the tribe.

Naturally, the tribes fought over cattle.

The tribes settled in villages, where the family or **Kula** was the basic social unit.

A group of related families formed a **grama**.

It was a **patриarchal society**. The successive higher units were **grama** (village), **visa** (clan) and **jana** (people).

**Note:** Prayer for son is quite frequent in the hymns of Rig Veda.

Women were respected. They were educated and had access to the assemblies.

**Visvavara, Ghosha** and **Apala** were some leading women of the Rig Vedic times.

Women could choose their partners and marry late if they wished so.

Marriage was **usually monogamous** but there were certain indications of polyandry and widow remarriage.

The **Niyoga** system allowed a childless widow to marry the younger brother of her deceased husband for the sake of pregnancy.

There are no examples of child marriage, and the marriageable age in the Rig Veda seems to have been 16 to 17.

The three hymns or poems of the Rig Veda describe the great **Battle of the Ten Kings** in which **Sudasa** defeated a coalition of five Aryan tribes and five non-Aryan tribes on the bank of the river **Parushni**, the modern Ravi.

**Note:** The most powerful of these ten tribes was the **Purus**.

The Aryans were a wild, turbulent people. They were much addicted to inebriating drinks, of which they had at least two, **soma** and **sura**.

**Soma** was drunk at sacrifices and its use was sanctified by religion.

**Sura** was purely secular.

The first mention of the four Varnas (Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaishya, Sudra) is found in the **Purush Sukta of the tenth Mandal of the Rig Veda**.

There were four stages (**ashramas**) in a man’s life: Brahmacharya (studentship), Grihastrha (house-holder), Vanaprastha (recluse) and Sanyas (ascetic).

### Economy

The Rig Veda attached more importance to **cattle wealth** than agricultural produce.

In the Rig Veda, a measure of time is called **Godhuli**, distance is **gavyuti**, and the daughter is **duhitr** (one who milks the cows), which indicates female participation in the productive process, while kinship units are called **gotras**.

**Note:** All these terms are derived from **gau** (cow).

Cow was considered very important and a wealthy man was referred to as **gomat** (i.e. keeper of cattle). Cow was also called **aghanya** (not to be killed). The **horse** was almost as important as the cow. No other grains, apart from **yava** (barley) are mentioned. The Early Vedic people did not know the use of iron. They were familiar with **copper**.

Pastoralism and shifting cultivation indicate that the people were in general **nomadic** or semi-nomadic.

### Religious Beliefs

**Indra** was the most prominent God of the Rig Vedic people. **Indra** was also known as **Purandar**.

The Early Vedic religion is also known as **henotheism** or **kathenotheism** — a belief in single god, each in turn standing out as the highest. It has also been described as the “worship of nature”.

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Rigvedic Gods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aranyani</td>
<td>Goddess of forests and wild creatures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asuniti</td>
<td>Personification of the world of spirits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diti</td>
<td>Mother of the Daityas, who were native tribes opposed to Vedic religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ila</td>
<td>Mother of the cattle herds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashvins</td>
<td>Healers of diseases and experts in surgical art</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maruts</td>
<td>Gods of Storm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ushas</td>
<td>Goddesses of Dawn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savitri</td>
<td>Stimulator or god of light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agni</td>
<td>Intermediary between gods and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yama</td>
<td>God of Death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyaus</td>
<td>God of Heaven and father of Surya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishana</td>
<td>Goddess of vegetables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pushan</td>
<td>Protector of cattle; also the god of marriages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aditi</td>
<td>Goddess of Eternity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indra</td>
<td>A war god, breaker of forts (Purandara), also associated with storm and thunder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varuna</td>
<td>God of water, clouds, oceans and rivers, and moral governor of the deities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soma</td>
<td>God of plants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rivers Mentioned in the Rigveda

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modern Names</th>
<th>Rigvedic Names</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jhelum</td>
<td>Vitasta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chenab</td>
<td>Asikni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indus</td>
<td>Sindhu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ravi</td>
<td>Purushni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beas</td>
<td>Vipas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sutlej</td>
<td>Satadru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghaggar</td>
<td>Drishadvati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurram</td>
<td>Krumu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gomati</td>
<td>Gumal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Saraswati was considered as the most important river in the Rig Vedic period. There were no temples and idols for worshipping. The main mode of prayer was chanting of mantras. Sacrifices were an essential part of religion and yajnas were performed to invoke the gods, to celebrate victories, and to acquire cattle.

Marriage Types in the Later Vedic Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brahma</td>
<td>Arranged form of marriage between a girl and a boy of the same class, involving no dowry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duiva</td>
<td>Marriage in which a father gave his daughter to a sacrificial priest as part of his (priest’s) fee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arsa</td>
<td>Marriage in which a token bride-price of a cow and a bull was paid to the daughter’s father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prajapaty</td>
<td>Marriage in which the father gave the girl without dowry and without demanding bride-price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gandharva</td>
<td>Marriage, often clandestine, by the consent of the two parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asura</td>
<td>Marriage by purchase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rakshasa</td>
<td>Marriage by capture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paishacha</td>
<td>Marriage involving the seduction of a girl while asleep, mentally deranged, or drunk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Later Vedic Age (1000-600 BC)

The history of the Later Vedic Period is based mainly on the Vedas which were compiled after the age of the Rig Veda. The collections of the Vedic hymns or mantras were known as the samhitas.

All the Vedic texts were complied in the upper Gangetic basin in circa 1000-500 BC. These were called Painted Grey Ware (PGW) sites because they were inhabited by people who used bowls and dishes made of painted grey pottery.

Social Life

The Later Vedic people practised gotra exogamy — marrying outside the gotra. The term gotra literally means “cow shelter”. The society was clearly divided into four Varnas, namely Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Shudras.

Political Life

The sabha and samiti continued to hold the ground, but they came to be dominated by chiefs and rich nobles.

Religious Life

In the Later Vedic Period, important changes took place in religious life. Prajapati, the creator, became important in the Later Vedic Period. Some of the minor gods of the Rig Vedic Period (e.g.,
Vishnu and Rudra) became important in the Later Vedic Period. Signs of idolatry also appeared. Pushan became the god of the Shudras. Sacrifices became far more important and involved killing of animals as well. Though the two epics — the Mahabharata and the Ramayana — were compiled later, they reflect the state of affairs of the Later Vedic Period. The Mahabharata, attributed to Vyasa, is older than the Ramayana and describes the period from the tenth century BC to the fourth century AD. The Mahabharata was earlier called Jaya Samhita. The Ramayana was attributed to Valmiki.

Puranas

These are 18 in number. The most famous Purana is the Bhagvata Purana. Matsya Purana (related with the Andhra-Satvahanas dynasty) is the oldest.

Six prominent schools of Hindu Philosophy

(i) Kapila’s Sankhya
(ii) Patanjali’s Yoga
(iii) Gautama’s Nyaya
(iv) Kanada’s Vaishesika
(v) Mimansa (Jaimiti’s Purva Mimamsa and Vyasa’s Uttara Mimamsa)
(vi) Vedanta

Some Important Terms used in the Vedic Period

Amaju A girl who lived life long unmarried
Akratuh People who had no faith in rituals

Apah Water
Duhiti Daughter
Gavisti War
Gomat A wealthy person
Gopa (Janasya) Ruler
Gorasa Milk
Gotra Cow pen
Gavyuti A measure of distance
Rayi Cattle wealth
Sadan House

Important Officials of the Vedic Period

Purohita Priest
Senani Commander
Prajapati Officer-in-charge of pasture land
Jivagribha Police officials
Spasa Spy
Gramani Head of the village
Dampati or Kulapa Head of the family
Madhyamasi Mediator in disputes
Bhagudugha Tax collector
Sangrahami Treasurer
Mahishi Chief queen
Suta Court minstrel or chronicler who also served as charioteer originally
Govikartana Keeper of games and forests
Palagala Messenger
Kshata Chamberlain, in charge of the royal household
Akshavapa Accountant, originally dice-thrower

The Age of Mahajanapadas

About 2500 years ago, some Janapadas became more important than others and came to be known as Mahajanapadas. According to the Buddhist text Anguttara Nihaya, there was 16 Mahajanapadas.

The Mahajanapadas and their Capitals

Kushi Varanasi
Kosala Shravasti
Anga Champa
Magadh Girivraja or Raigha
Vaiji Vaishali
Malla Kushinagar ( Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh) and Pava

Chedi Sotthivati ( Sukiimati; probably located in the Banda district of UP)
Vatsa Kausambi
Kuru Hastinapura, Indraprastha and Isukara
Panchal Northern Panchal — Ahicchtra (Bareilly district of UP); Southern Panchal — Kampilya
Matsya Viratnagar
Surasena Mathura
Assaka Pratishtha
Avanti Ujain and Mahismat
Gandhara Taxila
Kamboj Rajpur
**Jainism**

**Rishabhdeva**, who is also known as **Adinath**, is the founder of the Tirthankara Sect of Jainism. Tirthankaras **Rishabhdeva** and **Aristanemi** are mentioned in Rigveda. The 23rd Tirthankara, **Parsvanath**, was the son of king Asvasena of Banaras. He became an ascetic at the age of 30 and got enlightenment after 84 days of penance.

**Name of the Tirthankara**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the Tirthankara</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rishabhdeva (first)</td>
<td>Bull</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajitnath (second)</td>
<td>Elephant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neminath (22nd)</td>
<td>Conch shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parsvanath (23rd)</td>
<td>Serpent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahavira (24th)</td>
<td>Lion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 24th and last Tirthankhara was **Vardhamana Mahavira**, who was born in 540 BC in **Kundagrama** near **Vaishali** in Bihar.

His father, **Siddhartha**, was a chief of the **Jnatrika clan**. His mother, **Trisala**, was the sister of Chetaka, an eminent Lichchhavi Prince of Vaishali. He was married to **Yasoda** and had a daughter called **Priyadarsena**, who later married **Jamali**, the first disciple of Mahavira.

At the age of 30, after the death of his parents, he became an ascetic. At the age of 42, he attained **Kaivalya**, i.e. the supreme knowledge at Jambhika Gram on the bank of the river **Rijupalika**.

He got the title of **Arhant** (worthy), **Jina** (conqueror) and **Tirthankara** (crossing maker). He passed away in 468 BC at the age of 72 at **Pavapuri**.

His main messages were:
1. **Ahimsa** — Non-injury to living beings
2. **Satya** — Speaking the truth
3. **Asteya** — Non-stealing
4. **Aparigraha** — Non-possession of property
5. **Brahmacarya** — Abstinence or celibacy

Four of the above doctrines were originally given by **Parsvanath**; the fifth was added by **Mahavira**.

Jainism says that souls are found everywhere, even in stones, rocks, water etc. According to Jainism, it is not God, but man’s deeds (karma) and fruits (karmaphal) that shape the destiny of a man.

According to Jainism, this eternal world is full of sorrow and pain. Jainism has given much wider definition to non-violence: it includes non violence of **thought**, non-violence of **speech** and non-violence of **action**.

**Jain Councils**

The first council was held at **Pataliputra** (Bihar) by Sthulabhadra in 300 BC. After this the Jains were divided into Swetambara and Digambara. The Digambaras wore nothing; they remained naked or sky-clad. They were led by **Bhadrabahu**. They observed the tenets of Jainism very strictly. The Swetambars were liberal in approach and wore white clothes. They were led by **Sthulabhadra**.

The second council was held at **Vallabhi** (Gujarat) in the 6th century AD under the leadership of Devadhi Kshamasramana and resulted in final compilation of 12 Angas and 12 Upangas.

**Jain Architecture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jain Temple</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>State</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shravanabelagola</td>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hathigumpha Cave</td>
<td>Udayagiri (Odisha)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilwara Temples</td>
<td>Mt Abu (Rajasthan)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jain Temples</td>
<td>Khajuraho (built by the Chandela rulers)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Buddhism

Buddhism was founded by Gautam Buddha. Gautam Buddha was born in 563 BC in Sakya clan at Lumbini (now in Nepal), Kapilavastu. His father was Siddhodhana, the ruler of Kapilavastu. His mother was Mahamaya, a princess from the Kosala dynasty. Mahamaya died after seven days of Buddha’s birth and Buddha was brought up by his aunt Goutami. Siddhartha (Buddha’s original name) got married to Yasodhara and had a son from her named Rahul. After seeing an aged man, then a sick man, and then a corpse being carried to the cremation ground, he decided to leave all worldly pleasures. One night, accompanying Channa (charioteer) and his favourite horse Kanthaka, he left his home at the time when he was 29 years old. Thus Siddhartha performed his “Great Going Forth” (Mahabhinishkramana) and became a wandering ascetic, owning nothing but the robe he wore.

Alara Kalama was the first to teach Gautam Buddha the technique of meditation and the lore of Brahman as taught in the Upanishads. Hence Alara Kalama became the first teacher (Guru) of Buddha.

Gautam got Enlightenment at the age of 35 years on the bank of the river Nilanjana of Gaya (now Bodhgaya) under a Peepal tree and became the Buddha.

He gave his first Sermon at the Deer Park in Sarnath to five ascetics (Assaji, Mogallana, Upali, Sariputta and Anand). This is called Dharmachakraparivartana. They gathered together as a disciplined body of monks called Bhikshus (beggars).

The text Jatakas deal with the stories of Buddha’s previous life.

Most of his sermons were given at Sravasti (UP). He died at Kushinagar at the age of 80 in the year 483 BC. He died of food poisoning after eating pork at the house of Chunda.

Symbols of different events in Buddha’s life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>Lotus and bull</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renunciation</td>
<td>Horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlightenment</td>
<td>Bodhi tree (Peepal tree)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Sermon</td>
<td>Wheel of law (Dhamma-chakra)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parinirvana (Death)</td>
<td>Stupa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Features of Buddhism

Four Noble Truths (Arya-Satyas) of Buddha:
1. Dukha (that the world is full of sorrow)
2. Dukkha Samuddaya (that this sorrow has a cause)
3. Dukkha Nirodha (that this sorrow can be stopped)
4. Dukkha Nirodhagamini Pratipada (the path leading to cessation of sorrow)

Final Salvation (Nirvana) can be achieved by following the Eight Fold Path (Asgitaka Marga):
1. Right Speech
2. Right Action
3. Right Livelihood
4. Right Effort
5. Right Mindfulness
6. Right Meditation
7. Right Resolution
8. Right View

Initially women were not allowed in Sangha; later on, on the insistence of his chief disciple Ananda, Buddha allowed women.

Prajapati Gautami (Buddha’s foster-mother) was the first woman disciple in the Sangha.

Buddha Sangeetis (Councils)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Year/Place</th>
<th>Ruler/Patron</th>
<th>President</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>483 BC/Rajgriha</td>
<td>Ajatasatru</td>
<td>Mahakassapa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>383 BC/Vaishali</td>
<td>Kalashok</td>
<td>Saba Kami</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>250 BC/Pataliputra</td>
<td>Ashoka</td>
<td>Mogaliputra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>100 AD/Kundala</td>
<td>Van Kanishka</td>
<td>Vasumitra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sects of Buddhism

Hinayana: This was a sect with narrow sectarian outlook. They believed in salvation by one’s own efforts.

Mahayana: This was a sect with a broader outlook. They believed that salvation can be attained by faith. They worshipped the idols of Buddha. This sect became more popular.

Buddhist Literature

Buddhist scriptures are called Pitakas and these are written in Pali.

Sutta Pitaka, Vinay Pitaka and Abhidhamma Pitaka are known as the Tripitakas of Buddhism.

Note: Other Buddhist works:

Milindapanha: A dialogue between monk Nagasena and king Menander

Buddhacharita: The biography of Buddha by Ashwaghoshita
Between the sixth and the fourth century BC, **Magadha** (the present-day Bihar) became the most powerful Mahajanapada. Initially, **Girivraj** (Rajagriha) was the capital of Magadha. The Haryanka dynasty was founded by **Bimbisara** when he overthrew the Brihadrathas. He was a contemporary of the Buddha and patron of Buddhism. He acquired Anga and placed it under the viceroyalty of his son **Ajatashatru**. He strengthened his position by marriage alliances. He had three wives. His first wife was the daughter of the king of Koshala and sister of Prasenjit. His second wife Chellana was a Lichchhavi princess from Vaishali who gave birth to Ajatashatru. His third wife was the daughter of the chief of Madra clan of Punjab. Bimbisara ruled for 52 years, from 544 BC to 492 BC.

**Ajatashatru (492-460 BC)**

Ajatashatru killed his father and seized the throne for himself. He defeated the Lichhavis in a 16-year battle. He built **Dhatu-Chaityas** (an enclosure) around the capital.

**Udayabhadra (462-444 BC)**

Ajatashatru was succeeded by Udayabhadra. Udayin’s reign is famous because he built a fort at the confluence of Ganga and Sone which later on became famous as ‘Pataliputra’.

**Shishunaga Dynasty (413-363 BC)**

Shishunaga, a minister of the Haryankas, deposed **Nagadasak**, the last ruler of the Haryanka dynasty and became the king in 413 BC. He established the rule of the Shishunaga dynasty. **Kalasoka**, the son of Shishunaga, transferred his capital from Girivraj to Patliputra.

**The Nandas**

**Mahapadmananda** overthrew the Shishunaga dynasty and founded the Nanda dynasty in 362 BC. **Dhanananda** was the last king of the Nanda dynasty.

**Alexander**

Alexander, the son of Philip of Macedonia (ancient Greece), occupied the throne in 336 BC. He reached India through **Khyber Pass** (326 BC). The **Battle of Hydaspes** was fought by Alexander the Great in 326 BC against king **Porus** of the Hindu kingdom of Paurava on the banks of the Hydaspes river (Jhelum river) in the Punjab. The battle resulted in a complete Macedonian victory. Overrunning the Kathasoi, he reached river **Beas**; his troops were unwilling to move further. Alexander reached back to Babylon, where he died at the age of 33 years in 323 BC. Alexander was a student of **Aristotle**.
Bindusara (300-273 BC)

Bindusara was succeeded by his son Bindusara. Bindusara is known as Amitro Chates or Amitraghata (slayer of foes). He received the Greek Ambassador named Daimachus, sent by Antiochus I, king of Syria. Bindusara seems to have had interest in the Ajivikas, a religious sect of the time. Bindusara appointed his eldest son Sumana (Susima) as his viceroy at Taxila and Ashoka at Ujjain. Once Bindusara asked the Syrian king Antiochus I “to buy and send him sweet wine, dried figs and a philosopher”. Thereupon the Syrian king replied, “We shall send you figs and wine, but the Greek laws forbid a philosopher to be sold.” Bindusara got his name from the bluish spot (a bindu) on his forehead at the time of his birth.

Ashoka (273-232 BC)

The most famous Mauryan ruler was Ashoka. He fought the Kalinga war in 206 BC in the ninth year of his reign, which proved to be a turning point in his career. In the course of the second Dharma Yatra tour (in the 21st year of his reign) he visited Lumbini, the birthplace of Buddha, and worshipped at this holy place. In the 14th year of his reign, he started the institution of Dharma Mahamatras. His Hellenistic contemporaries were Antiochus II (Syria), Ptolemy II (Egypt), Antigonus (Macedonia), Magus (Of Cyrene) and Alexander (Cyprus).

Major Rock Edicts of Ashoka

Major Rock Edicts are 14 in number and are found at the border of the empire.

Major Rock Edict I: Prohibits sacrifice of animals and festive gatherings.

Major Rock Edict II: Relates to social welfare measures like medical centres for animals as well as men.
Mauryan Administration

The Mauryan empire was divided into five provinces:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North-western or Uttar Patha</td>
<td>Taxila</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avanti</td>
<td>Ujjain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dakshin Patha</td>
<td>Swarnagiri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalinga</td>
<td>Tosali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prashi</td>
<td>Patliputra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The important provinces were directly under Kumaras (princes).

The king was assisted in administration by a Council of Ministers (Mantriparishad).

According to Megasthenese, the city was administered by a council of 30 members divided into boards of five members each.

Amatyas: Highest civil or military servants.

Rajukas: They combined their judicial functions, both in the cities and rural areas.

Yukta: His duty was the recording of information from varied sources.

Pillar Edicts

There are seven major pillar edicts and three minor pillar edicts.

Kaushambi pillar edict: It was shifted to Allahabad by Jahangir.

The Kaushambi pillar edict is also called “Queen’s edict”. It talks about the queen Karuvahi.

Delhi–Topra Pillar Edict: The Pillar at Topra near Ambala was shifted to Delhi by Feroz Shah Tughlaq.

Economy and Society

According to Megasthenese, there were seven castes of Mauryan society — philosophers, farmers, soldiers, herdsmen, artisans, magistrates and councilors.

State-owned lands were called Sita lands.

Land revenue was the main source of income.

Bhaga was the royal share of the produce. It was generally \( \frac{1}{6} \) of the produce.

The espionage department worked under Mahamatyapasurpa.

The officials and the soldiers were paid in cash (Panas).

Punch-Marked Coins

The first documented coinage is deemed to start with ‘punch-marked’ coins issued between the 7th-6th century BC and 21st century AD. These coins are called ‘punch-marked’ coins because of their manufacturing technique.

Mostly made of silver, these bear symbols, each of which was punched on the coin with a separate punch.

Issued initially by merchant guilds, the coins represented a trade currency belonging to a period of intensive trade activity and urban development.

The coins are broadly classified into two periods: the first period (attributed to Janapadas or small local states) and the second period (attributed to the imperial Mauryan period).

Mostly found on these coins were images drawn from nature like the sun, various animal motifs, trees, hills etc. and some were geometrical symbols.

The coins used in those days were called Karshapana.

Punch-marked coins were made of silver.

Mauryan Art

In the Mauryan period stone culture dramatically emerged as the principal medium of Indian arts. The finest examples are those of Ashoka’s monolithic pillars.

The four lions on the Sarnath pillar and the smaller figures of animals in relief of the abacus exhibit remarkable beauty and vigour.

Ashoka built a large number of stupas, probably 84,000.

A more important heritage of the Mauryans are the caves built out of Barabar hills near Gaya.
The Sungas
The last Mauryan king Brihadratha was killed by Pushyamitra Sunga, his commander-in-chief. The Sungas were Brahmins. The Sungas established their capital in Vidisha. Kalidasa’s romantic play, Malavika-Agnimitram, presents an image of Shunga rulers. Patanjali performed an Aswamedha Yajna for Pushyamitra Sunga. Pushyamitra was succeeded by his son Agnimitra, who was the hero of Kalidasa’s drama.

Patanjali’s Mahabhasya was composed in the period. The last Sunga king was Devabhuti. According to the Puranas, his rule came to an end in 72 BC. The Sungas were replaced by the Kanvas.

The Kanvas
The last Sunga king was overthrown by his Brahman minister Vasudeva. Susarma was the last ruler of the Kanva dynasty. He ruled for ten years. The Kanvas were replaced by the Andhrs.

Chiefs and Kings in the South
The new kingdoms that emerged in the Deccan and further south, including the kingdoms of the Cholas, Cheras and Pandyas in Tamilakam (the name of the ancient Tamil Country), became stable and prosperous. In Deccan and Central India, covering parts of Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra, the Mauryas were succeeded by the Satavahanas. The Satavahanas were also known as the Andhrs. Simuka was the founder of the Satavahana dynasty. Powerful Satavahana rulers: Satakarni I, Hala, Gautamiputra Satakarni (the greatest of the Satavahanas), Sri Yojna Satakarni. The Satavahanas have been mentioned in the Aitareya Brahmana and Kathasaritsagar (written by Somadeva). The Satavahana king Hala was a poet and is said to have composed Gathasaptasati (also called the Sattasi), an anthology of 700 erotic verses in Maharashtri or Paisachi Prakrit. Coins minted by the Satavahanas were in silver, lead and alloy of copper. The portrait of the king and his name were inscribed on the silver coin. Sri Satakarni I performed two Asvamedha sacrifices and several Vedic sacrifices. The kingdom was famous for the production of rice and cotton.

The Satavahanas began the practice of land grants to Brahmins and Buddhist monks. Buddhism flourished throughout the Satavahana period. Nagarjunakonda and Amaravati in Andhra Pradesh became important Buddhist centres under the Satavahanas. Brahmanism also flourished under the Satavahanas. Gautamiputra Satakarni was the most powerful ruler of the Satavahanas and a supporter of Brahmins. During this period, the Hindu gods were Indra, Vasudeva, the Sun and the Moon, Shiva, Vishnu, Krishna, Ganesha and Pashupati. Gautamiputra Satakarni was succeeded by his son, Vasisitputra Pulomavi. The Satavahana kings patronised Prakrit. Rudradaman-I, the Saka ruler, defeated the Satavahanas twice. The Satavahanas had a matriarchal society. Their coins were predominantly of copper and lead; however, silver issues are also known. They contributed a few Ajanta paintings. Attacks of Sakas of Ujjaini, Abhiras of Nasik area, Ikshuakus of the east, etc. caused the collapse of Satavahanas.
The Indo-Greeks

Alexander’s invasion in north-western India did not lead to a substantial Greek presence in India. This came about in the second century BC through the Greek kings of Bactria, who moved into north-west India and were called the Indo-Greeks. The Greco-Bactrian king Demetrius invaded India early in the second century BC and formed the Indo-Greek kingdom.

The Indo-Greek kings were the first to issue gold coins in India and their coins were special in the sense that each king had his own distinctive coins by which he could be definitely identified. The coins carry legends in Greek and also in Kharosthi and Brahmi.

The most famous Indo-Greek ruler was Menander or Milinda. He had his capital at Sakala (modern Sialkot) in Punjab. Some important Indo-Greek rulers were Euthydemus, Demetrius, Eucratides and Menander.

Milindapanho is the book containing questions of Menander (Milinda) to Nagasena and answers of Nagasena. Later on, Menander was converted to Buddhism by Nagasena.

The Indo-Greeks introduced Hellenistic art forms in north-western India. These later culminated in the Gandhara school of art. Demetrius brought the Greek calendar to India. Thus, the idea of reckoning time from a fixed date came to India along with the Greeks.

The Indo-Greeks remained in India for two centuries and later paved the way for the Shakas (Scythians), the Pahlavas (Parthians) and the Kushans.

The Shakas or Scythians

The Scythians or Sakas were nomadic tribes of Central Asia. By defeating the Indo-Greek kings, the Shakas extended their rule over North and North-Western India.

There were five main branches of the Shakas:
1) Afghanistan
2) Punjab with Taxila as its capital
3) Mathura
4) Maharashtra and Saurashtra
5) Central India with Ujjain as its capital

The Shakas introduced the Satrap system. In 58 BC, a king of Ujjain effectively fought against the Shakas and succeeded in driving them out in his time. He called himself Vikramaditya and an era called Vikram Samvat is reckoned from the event of his victory over the Shakas. Henceforth, Vikramaditya became a coveted title, and consequently there have been 14 Vikramadityas in Indian history.

Rudradaman I was the most powerful ruler of the Shakas. Ujjain was the capital of Rudradaman. He issued the first-ever long inscription in chaste Sanskrit – the Junagarh Rock Inscription; all the earlier inscriptions were composed in Prakrit. It mentions his reconstruction at Girnar (in Saurashtra) of great artificial lake (Sudarshana), which had been excavated under Chandragupta Maurya and improved in the time of Asoka.

The Pahlavas

The Parthians are also known as Pahlavas; they were Iranian people. The earliest king of this dynasty was Vonones, who adopted the title of “great king of kings”.

The most important Parthian king was Gondophernes. St Thomas, a Christian missionary, visited during the reign of Gondophernes.

The Kushans

The origin of the Kushans was Yuezhi nomadic tribe of China, who used what came to be known as the Tocharian language. They followed the Parthians in the north-west of India and also displaced the Shakas in Bactria.

Kujula Kadphises (Kadphises I) established the Kushan dynasty. Kanishka was the greatest ruler of the Kushan dynasty. Kanishka’s reign has been dated 78-144 AD. He established an era, commonly known as the Shaka era, which starts from 78 AD. It is still in use in India.

His capital was Purushapura (modern Peshawar). Kanishka was the follower of Buddhism. The fourth Buddhist council was held during his reign.

The early Kushan kings issued numerous gold coins with a very high degree of purity. Kanishka was a great patron of learning. Kanishka’s court was adorned by the presence of some eminent scholars.
like Ashwaghosha, Nagarjuna, Parsva, Vasumitra and Charaka. Charaka, one of the great authorities on Ayurveda and the writer of Charakasamhita, was Kanishka’s court physician. Asvaghosha, a philosopher, poet and dramatist, wrote Buddha Charita (the biography of Buddha).

Nagarjuna is known as the ‘Einstein of India’ because he propounded the theory of ‘Shunyavada’ similar to Einstein’s theory of relativity. Mathura and Gandhara schools reached their peak in his reign. Vasudeva I was the last great king of the dynasty.

The Sangam Age

The Sangam was a college or assembly of Tamil poets held under royal patronage. These assemblies were attended by powerful dynasties under the patronage of Pandyan kings. According to traditions, there were three Sangams which lasted for 9,000 years.

The Cholas

The Cholas were based in the area of Tanjore. They occupied the delta of the Kaveri river and the adjoining regions. Earlier their capital was at Uraiur (in Tiruchirapalli), which was famous for cotton trade, but later on it was shifted to Puhar (Kaveripattanam). Puhar was the main seaport. The name of Karikala Chola is prominent. He defeated a confederacy of about a dozen of rulers headed by the Chera and Pandya kings in the great Battle of Venni, near Tanjore. Karikala maintained a powerful navy and conquered Sri Lanka. Karikala literally means “the man with the charred leg”. Ultimately, the Cholas suffered a defeated at the hands of the Pallavas.

The Pandyas

The Pandyas controlled the present districts of Madurai, Tirunelveli, and parts of south Kerala. Madurai, situated on the bank of the river Vagai, was their capital. Korkai (Tirunelveli district) was their main port. The Pandya kingdom was first mentioned by Megasthenes and Hiuen Tsang (AD 640).

The Cheras

The Cheras were also known as Keralaputras. They were situated to the west and north of the Pandya kingdom. The Romans set up two regiments at Muziris in the Chera country to protect their interests. They also built a temple of Augustus at Muziris. Senguttuvan, also known as the “Red Chera”, was the greatest of the Chera kings. He defeated the Chola and Pandya kings. He crossed Ganga and reached north. The Chera capital was at Vanji and their main seaport was Muziris.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynasty</th>
<th>Emblem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chola</td>
<td>Tiger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pandya</td>
<td>Fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chera</td>
<td>Bow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sangam Literature

Tolkappiyam: It is the earliest surviving Tamil literature work written by Tolkappiyar. It is a Tamil grammar text. The most important work of Tamil literature is Tirukkural by Tiruvalluvara. It is also called the “Bible of the Tamil land”.

The Jewelled Anklet: It is the greatest and earliest epic by Illango Vadigal. It is the story of Kovalan of Puhar, who falls in love with Madhavi, a dancer.

Manimekalai: This epic by Sattanar of Madurai has Buddhist influence.
The Gupta Empire

The Gupta period is also known as the classical age of ancient India because of its high level of excellence in the field of literature, architecture and fine arts. The Gupta empire rose on the ruins of the Kushan empire in the second half of the third century AD. It comprised eastern UP and Bihar with Prayag probably being the seat of power. They had the advantages of closeness to iron ores in Central India and South Bihar, fertile land, and proximity to the areas carrying silk trade with Byzantine empire.

Sri Gupta

Sri Gupta was the founder of the Gupta Dynasty. Itisng, who visited India during 671 to 695 AD, refers to Sri Gupta as the builder of a temple for Chinese pilgrims (Chini Mandir) at Gaya. Sri Gupta’s son Ghatotkacha succeeded him. No coins were issued by the first two Gupta rulers.

Chandragupta I

The Gupta dynasty came into power with the accession of Chandragupta I. The Gupta era is assumed to have begun from his accession in about 319-20 AD. He married Kumaradevi of the Lichchhavi clan. He was the first Gupta king to adopt the title of Maharajadhiraja.

Samudragupta

Samudragupta succeeded his father in about 335 AD. He is called the Napoleon of India. The Allahabad pillar inscription gives detailed information about Samudragupta. The Allahabad pillar inscription was composed by his court poet Harisena. Samudragupta performed Ashwamedha Yajna. He was a lover of music. On some of his gold coins he is represented playing the veena. Samudragupta was called Dharmavijay in the south. Samudragupta was a patron of Vishnu. It is believed that Samudragupta’s empire stretched from the Ravi to the Brahmaputra and from the foothills of the Himalayas to the Vindhyas.

Chandragupta II

Under his reign, the Gupta empire reached its highest glory. Dattadevi was his mother. He extended the limits of the empire by marriage alliances and conquests. He married Kubernaga the princess of Naga dynasty and married his daughter Prabhavati with the Vakataka prince Rudrasena II. After the victory over Sakas, he adopted the title of Vikramaditya. After this conquest, Ujjain became the second capital of Gupta empire. During his reign, Fa-Hien visited India (between 405 AD and 411 AD). Kalidasa was the member of his royal court. Famous gems during the reign of Chandragupta II were Kalidasa, Varahamihira, Amarsimha and Dhanvantari.

Kumargupta I

He succeeded his father Chandragupta II. He adopted the title of Mahendraditya. He introduced the worship of god Kartikeya. Kalidasa flourished during the reign of both Chandragupta II and Kumargupta I. He founded Nalanda University.

Skandagupta

He succeeded his father Kumargupta I. He restored and repaired the dam of Sudarshana lake. His greatest enemies were the Hunas, a ferocious barbarian tribal which lived in Central Asia. He assumed the titles Vikramaditya, Devraj and Sakapan. Bhanugupta was the last ruler of the Gupta empire.

Administration

The kingdom was divided into a number of provinces called Bhukti in the North and Mandala or Mandalam in the south. The governor of the Bhukti was called Uparika. Danda-Pasika, the chief of police, headed a force consisting of chats and bhutas. Gramikas were in-charge of the villages and were assisted by Mahattaras.
Classification of lands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kshetra</td>
<td>The land under cultivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amarakosa</td>
<td>On which all kinds of crops could be grown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khila</td>
<td>A land which was not fertile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aprahatha</td>
<td>Uncultivated forest land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vasti</td>
<td>The land to be used for residence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Art and Architecture

The Gupta sculpture is the logical outcome of the fairly classical sculpture of Amravati and Mathura.

The Vishnu Temple built in the Gupta period is located at Deogarh (UP).

The Kankali Devi Temple, often referred to as the Tigawa Temple is located in Jabalpur district.

Number 16 and 17 cave paintings of the Ajanta belong to this period.

Varahadeva, the minister of Vakataka king Harisena (AD 475-500), dedicated Cave 16 to the Buddhist Sangha while Cave 17 was the gift of a prince (who subjugated Asmaka) feudatory to the same king.

Note: Vakatakas were the contemporaries of the imperial Guptas.

Literature

Vishnu Sharma wrote Panchatantra in the Gupta period. The Mahabharata was finally compiled and edited. In the Dharmashastra literature, the Yajnavalkya Smriti is usually regarded as the official law-book of the Guptas. Kalidasa’s Meghadutam is a lyric of delicate beauty. Abhijnanashakuntalam, Kumarasambhavam and Malavikagnimitram were written by Kalidas during this period.

Kiratarjuniyam by Bharavi and Mudrarakshasa by Vishakhadatta were also written during this period. The Smritis of Yajnavalkya, Narada, Katyayana and Brihaspati were written during this period.

Other developments

Aryabhata was a mathematician. He proved the value of \( \pi \) (pi) as 3.1416 and conceived the concept of zero.

His book, the Aryabhatiya, presented astronomical and mathematical theories in which the Earth was thought to be spinning on its axis and the periods of the planets were given with respect to the Sun.

Books and Authors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book</th>
<th>Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buddhacharitam</td>
<td>Ashvaghosha (100 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gathasaptasati (Prakrit)</td>
<td>Hala (100 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratnavali</td>
<td>Hashavardhana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagananda</td>
<td>Harshavardhana</td>
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<tr>
<td>Priyadarshika</td>
<td>Harshavardhana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mudrarakshasa</td>
<td>Visakhadatta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kadambari</td>
<td>Banabhatta (700 AD)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Harsha Charita</td>
<td>Banabhatta (700 AD)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brihat Katha</td>
<td>Gunadhyya (200 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kathasaritsagara (Fables)</td>
<td>Somadeva (1100 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prithviraj Raso</td>
<td>Chand Bardai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajitarangini (History of Kashmir, literal meaning: Stream of Kings)</td>
<td>Kalhan (1200 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charak Samhita (book on medicine)</td>
<td>Charaka (Contemporary of Kanishka)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susruta Samhita (First book on surgery)</td>
<td>Susruta (400 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parisistapanav (Ref. of Mauryas)</td>
<td>Hemchandra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitakshara (on law of inheritance)</td>
<td>Vijnaneswara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashtadhyayi (First book on Sankrit grammar)</td>
<td>Panini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahabhasya (on Sanskrit grammar)</td>
<td>Patanjali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amarkosha (lexicography)</td>
<td>Amarsimha (During the reign of Chandragupta II)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gita Govinda</td>
<td>Jayadeva (1200 AD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mattavilasa Prahasana (A burlesque)</td>
<td>Mahendravarman (Pallava King)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hitopdesha</td>
<td>Narayana Pandit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panchtantra</td>
<td>Vishnu Sharma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dansagar</td>
<td>Vallalasena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adbhutagar</td>
<td>Vallalasena</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Post-Gupta Period

The political scene in India was bewildering from the decline of the Guptas until the rise of Harsha. Northern India was divided into four kingdoms: the later Guptas of Magadha, the Maukharis (the region of Western UP around Kannauj), the Pushyabhutis (Thaneswar North Delhi) and the Maitrakas. (The Maitrakas were of Iranian origin. They ruled in Gujarat and developed Vallabhi as their capital.)

The Pushyabhutis (Vardhanas)
The Pushyabhuti dynasty was founded by Pushyabhuti. Their capital was Thaneswar (Haryana). Prabhakaravardhana assumed the title of Paramabhattaraka and Maharajadhiraja. He has two sons, Rajyavardhana and Harshavardhana and a daughter Rajyashri, who was married to the Maukhari king Grahavarmana. After the death of Prabhakaravardhana, it was Rajyavardhana who ascended the throne. Grahavarmana was killed by the ruler of Malwa. Rajyavardhana defeated the king of Malwa. On his return Rajyavardhana was killed by Shashank (king of Gauda). After his death, Harshavardhana ascended the throne with the title of Shiladitya. Harshavardhana was defeated by Pulakesin II, the Chalukya king of Badami. Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang visited India during his reign. Harshacharitam was written by Banabhatta, his court poet. Harsha apparently was a devotee of Surya and Shiva but, under the influence of Hiuen Tsang, he was converted to Mahayana Buddhism. Harsha himself wrote three Sanskrit plays Nagananda, Ratnavali and Priyadarshika. In AD 641, Harsha sent an embassy with Hiuen Tsang to the Chinese emperor. He used to feed 500 Brahmins along with Buddhist 'monks' daily. He died in AD 647.

Nalanda University
The Nalanda University received patronage of the great emperor Harshavardhana of Kannauj and the Pala rulers. The famous Chinese pilgrims, Hiuen Tsang and Fa-Hien, were among the distinguished students of the Nalanda University. Hiuen Tsang received here the Indian name Mokshdeva.

The Chalukyas of Badami
The Chalukyas grew powerful in the Deccan towards the middle of the sixth century AD. The dynasty has two branches, viz. Vatapi (Badami) and Kalyani. The Chalukyas of Vatapi ruled during 550–753 AD. After a lapse of 200 years, the rule of the second branch of the Chalukyas of Kalyani began. Their reign lasted for about 200 years. Pulakesin I, Kirtivarman I, Pulakesin II and Vikramaditya were the important rulers of this dynasty. Pulakesin I is regarded as the real founder of this dynasty. The most famous ruler of this dynasty was Pulakesin II. He defeated Harshavardhana.

The Pallavas
Pallava is a Sankrit word meaning “tender shoots and leaves of a plant”. The Pallava dynasty was founded by Simhavishnu. Simhavishnu ruled over the land between the Krishna and the Kaveri. He was a devotee of Lord Vishnu. Bharavi visited his court for some time. Famous rulers of the Pallavas: Mahendravarman I (AD 600-630), Narasimhavarman I (AD 668-70), Paramesvara Varman I (AD 668-70), Narasimha Varman II (AD 695-722), Nandi Varman II (AD 730-95). The name Mamallapuram, the city of Mamalla, is derived from the title of the Pallava ruler Narasimhavarman I (AD 630-68), an acclaimed wrestler who was famously called as Mamallan. There is some evidence of architectural activity going back to the period of Mahendravarman I (AD 600-30). During the reign of Narasimhavarman, the Chalukyan king Pulakesin II attacked the Pallavas and was badly defeated in three successive battles. Narasimhavarman carried the battle into the Chalukya territory and, capturing the capital Vatapi, assumed the title Vatapikonda. Narasimhavarman II built the Kailasnath temple at Kanchi. Dandin, the writer of Dashkumaracharitam, lived in his court for some time.
The Palas

The Pala Empire was founded by Gopala in 750 AD when he was elected king by notable men of the realm during the period of anarchy or Matsya Nyaya. He founded Odantapuri University.

He was succeeded by Dharmapala (great ruler of this dynasty) in 780 AD. He defeated Pratihara Indraraja and conquered Kanauj. He then placed his protege Chakrayudha to the throne of Kanauj. He was defeated by Nagabhatt II of the Pratihara dynasty, who drove away Chakrayudh. He was also defeated by the Rashtrakuta king Dhruv.

Dharmapala founded the Somapur and Vikramshila University and gave 200 villages as grant to revive the Nalanda University.

Devapala, who succeeded Dharmapala in 810 AD, extended his control over Pragajyotishpur (Assam) and pats of Orissa and Nepal. He claimed victory over the Hunas. During his rule, a king of Java and Sumatra made a request for a college at Nalanda for the benefit of foreign students.

After Devapala, the Pala power declined and the Pratiharas came to power.

The Palas were patrons of Buddhism.

The Pratiharas

They are also called Gurjara Pratiharas. They established their sway over Punjab, Marwar and Broach. The dynasty was founded by Nagabhat I. According to the Gwalior inscription of Mihir Bhoja, he checked the invasion of Arabs. He was defeated by the Rashtrakuta king Dhruv.

The tripartite struggle for control of Kanauj began during the reign of Nagabhat’s successor Vatsaraj. Vatsaraj defeated Dharmapala but was defeated by Rashtrakuta king Dhruv.

Naghabhatt II defeated Dharmapala and expelled his protege Chakrayudh from Kanauj. He was defeated by Rashtrakuta king Govind III.

The Pratiharas recovered under Bhoja I or Mihir Bhoja, who was enthroned in Mahodaya (Kanauj) in 836 AD. Mihir Bhoja was a devotee of Vishnu and adopted the title of Adivaraha. The Kalchuris, the Chandelas and the Arabs of Sind acknowledged his supremacy.

Mahendrapala extended his power over Magadh and Bengal. His court was adorned by Rajashekhar, who wrote Kapurmanjari, Kavya Mimansa, Bal Ramayan, Bal Bharat, Vidhsaal, Bhrinjika, Prapanch Pandav, Bhuvankosh, Harvilas etc.

Mahipala I was defeated by Rashtrakuta king Indra III. With the help of the Chandelas, he regained Kanauj, but the disintegration of the Pratihara power started.

Mahendrapala II tried to revive the power of Pratiharas but the rise of the Chandelas dealt a blow to his aspirations.

During Mahmud Ghazni’s raid on Kanauj, Rajapala fled the battle field. Vidhyadhar Chandela murdered him.

Yashpala was the last ruler of this dynasty. By 1090 the Garhwalas conquered Kanauj.

The Rashtrakutas

The Rashtrakuta dynasty was founded by Dantidurga. They claimed their descent from Satyaki, a Yadav chief of north who was a close associate of Krishna of Mahabharrata fame.

They had their capital at Mankir or Manyakhet (present Malkhed near Shalapur, Maharashtra). They fought with the Pratiharas for the control of Gujarat and Malwa.

Al-Masudi came in India during the reign of Indra III and has called the prince of Manyakhet as Vallabhara. Govind III subdued the Pandyas, Cholas, Pallavas and Keralas and Gangas, and captured the king of Sri Lanka.

Dhruba defeated Dharmapala and Nagbbhat II. Amongghavarsha I, Krishna II and Indra III were the patrons of the Jain faith.

Amoghvarsha was an author of repute and wrote the first Kannada book of poetics Kaviraj Marg and Prasnottar Malika. He was a Jain. He shifted his capital to Manyakhet.

Indra II defeated the Gurjara Pratihara king Mahipala. Ellora and Elephanta cave temples were built during the reign of the Rashtrakutas.

Krishna III defeated the Chola king Parantaka I in the battle of Takkolam.

The Cholas (850-1279)

In 850 AD, Vijayalaya captured Tanjore from the Pallavas. He was a feudatory of the Pallavas. He took the titles of Tanjai Konda and Parkesri and built his capital in Tanjore.

During Aditya I’s reign, the Cholas freed themselves from the control of Pallavas. He defeated the Pallava king...
Aparajita and secured control over the whole Tondaimandalam. He also defeated the Gangas and the Pandyas.

Parantaka I was also called Madurai Konda. In the battle of Vellore he defeated the Singhals and captured Madurai. During his reign, the rivalry with Sri Lanka was started.

In the Battle of Takkolam, the combined armies of the Rashtrakutas and the Gangas defeated Parantaka I. The Uttarmerur inscription of Parantaka I throws light on the local administration of the Cholas.

Parantaka II defeated Veer Pandya. He also defeated the Sri Lankan king for having helped the Pandyas.

Uttamchola defeated the Rashtrakutas.

Rajaraja I (985-1014) adopted the titles of Arunmozhi Varma, Mumadi Chodadeva, Jaykonda, Martand Chola, Mumbadi Chola, Keralanath, Singhalatank, Pandkulashini etc.

He defeated the Cheras, Chalukyas and Gangas. He captured Madura from the Pandyas. He captured northern Ceylon and made Polomaruva its capital in place of Anuradhapur. He annexed the Maldives. He built the Brihadeshwar Shiva temple in Tanjore, which is also called Rajarajeshwar temple.

During his reign, the ruler of Srivijaya built a Vihara at Nagaputtanam.

Rajaraja I restored Vengi to its rulers after marrying the daughter of the king of Vengi.

He got the land surveyed and reorganised the revenue system.

Rajendra I (1014-44) succeeded Rajaraja I. He completed the victory over Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and took its king Mahindra to the Chola kingdom. He defeated the Pandyas and Keralas and formed a new kingdom with its capital at Madurai. His son Rajadhiraja was appointed the viceroy here.

Rajendra I led an expedition to the north and defeated the Pala ruler Mahipala I. He assumed the title of Gangaikonda and established a new capital named Gangaikondacholapuram. He built a Shiva temple here and excavated a tank called Chodagang. He also defeated the Shailendras or Srivijaya king Vijayatungavarman.

During his reign, his son Rajadhiraja suppressed a rebellion of the Pandyas and Cheras.

Rajendra I assumed the title of Pandit Chola, Mudikonda Chola, Nigarli Chola and Gangaikondachola.

Rajadhiraja I (1044-54) defeated the Pandyas, the Keralas, and Sri Lanka. He sacked Kalyani and planted a jayastambha at Yadgir. He had his Virabhishekha and assumed the title of Vijay Rajendra. He died in the battlefield while fighting in the battle of Koppam against Someshwar I, the western Chalukyan king.

Rajendra II defeated Someshwar. He was crowned in the battlefield. Someshwar drowned himself to death. He planted a jayastambha in Kolhapur.

Veer Rajendra defeated Someshwar II and established a Vedic college of learning.

Adhirajendra had to face many rebellions and he died while suppressing one of them. Thus the line founded by Vijayalaya ended with Adhirajendra.

The next king belonged to the eastern Chalukyas of Vengi. He was Kollutunga I. He united the eastern Chalukyas of Vengi and the Cholas, hence the subsequent history is known as Chola-Chalukyan history.

Kollutunga I (1070-1120) discarded wars and worked for peace. He was called Sangam Tavritta or abolisher of tols. He liberated Sri Lanka. In 1077, he sent an embassy to China. The noted writer Kamban adorned his court.

**Administration and Society**

The Chola administration was based on local self-government. We owe much of the concept of Panchayati Raj to the Cholas.

The Chola Empire was divided into six provinces called Mandalams. The Mandalams were subsequently divided into Kotams, Valanalud, Nadu and Gram.

The assembly of the Nadu (district) was called Nattar and that of the towns Nagattar.

Perundaram were the higher officials while Sirutaram were the lower officials.

Olainayamak or the chief secretary drafted the royal orders.

The king appointed his Yuvaraj during his reign.

Vari was the revenue department.

The land tax was one-sixth of the produce (Kadamai).

The gold coins were called Kasu.

The army had three limbs — the Cavalry, Elephants and the Infantry.

Kaikolas were men with strong arms. Sengundars were spear wielders. Velalikkaras were the king’s bodyguards.

The Cholas had a grand Navy, which turned Bay of Bengal into a Chola lake.

Nattar was the dominant peasant caste.

Idangai (left-hand castes) and Valangai (right-hand castes) formed the local population.

The society was geographically divided. There were five anais or regions.

The Kuri was the hill region, which had a cattle-raising populace and which believed in pre-nuptial love.

The Palai was the dry land.

The Mullai was the jungle or woodland.

The Marudam was the plains, where the people were ploughmen who believed in pre-nuptial love.

The Neydal was the coastland.
The Ayar or Kovalar were shepherds.
The Vedars were hunters.
The Padaiyacars were artisans.
The Pulaiyans were fishermen.
Nadu was the agricultural land.
Kalam was the unit of measurement.
Kadu was forest land not suitable for cultivation.
The Vellalas were rich peasants.

Local Self-Government

The Uttarmerur inscription of Dantivarman Pallava and Parantaka I have thrown sufficient light on the local self-government of the Cholas.
The assemblies were of three types.
Ur was the most common assembly of villages where land was held by different castes. The assembly consisted of tax-paying residents.
The Sabha or the Mahasabha was the exclusive assembly of the brahmanas, who resided in the agrahara villages given to them through brahmadeya grants.
The third type of assembly, the Nagaram, was the assembly of merchants in towns.
Alunganattar was the executive committee of the Ur.
The members of the Sabha were Perumakkal. The Sabha was also known as Neruguri.
Variyars were the executive officials of the Sabha. The executive committee was called Variyam.
Samastavariyam was the annual committee of 12 members who had earlier served either in tank or in garden committee.
Tottavariyam was the garden committee; Eri-Variyam was the tank committee; Pon Variyam was the gold committee; Udasian Varniyam was the committee of ascetics; and Nyayattar was the judicial committee.
Vyavasthi were the resolutions of the assembly.
The Sabha possessed proprietary right over communal lands. It had control over private lands. It helped in the assessment of land revenue. It reclaimed wastelands. It maintained roads, tanks etc.

The Ayar or Kovalar were shepherds.
The Vedars were hunters.
The Padaiyacars were artisans.
The Pulaiyans were fishermen.
Nadu was the agricultural land.
Kalam was the unit of measurement.
Kadu was forest land not suitable for cultivation.
The Vellalas were rich peasants.

Later Chalukyas (793-1190)
The rule of the second branch of Chalukyas of Kalyani began in 793 AD.

Eastern Chalukyas of Vengi

The dynasty was founded by Pulakesin II’s brother, Kuhja Vishnuvardhana, who transferred his capital from Pishatapura to the ancient city of Vengi in Andhra.
Vijayaditya III was the most powerful ruler of this dynasty.
The Eastern Chalukyas was weakened in the 10th century AD and they became the allies of the Cholas.

Western Chalukyas of Kalyani

The kingdom was founded by Taila II in 973 AD.
Important rulers of this dynasty were Somesvara I, Somesvara II, Vikramaditya II and Vikramaditya IV.
The great author and eminent jurist Vigneshwara (writer of Mitakshara) lived in the court of Vikramaditya VI.

The Yadavas

The Yadavas are believed to be the descendants of the Yadu race to which belonged the Mahabharata hero, Krishna.
The first noteworthy figure of this dynasty was Bhilama V.
He made Devagiri his capital.
The most energetic ruler of this dynasty was Singhana II. During the reign of Mahadeva and Ramchandra, the great Brahman minister, Hemadri, renowned for his Hindi Dharmashastra, flourished. His most important work is the Chaturvarga-Chintamani.

The Kakatiyas

The founder of this dynasty was Beta I.
Ganapati (the most prominent ruler of this dynasty) successfully overcame the Cholas, the Kalingas and the Yadavas.
Ganapati shifted his capital from Anmakonda to Orgungallu (Warangal).
He was succeeded by his daughter Rudramba in 1261.
She ruled sagaciously and assumed the male title of Rudradeva Maharaja.
She was succeeded by her grandson, Prataparudradeva.
Prataparudra was ultimately defeated by the Muslim invader Malik Kafur.
The Hoysalas

The founder of this dynasty was probably a Kshatriya named Sala. The Hoysalas attained a dominant position during the rule of Bittigna or Vishnuvardhana. He transferred his capital from Velapura to Dwarasamudra (Halebid). The last Hoysala ruler was Vira-Ballala III. His kingdom was ravaged by Malik Kafur in 1310. The Hoysalas were great temple builders, supreme examples of which are the Kesava temple at Belur (in Hassan district) dedicated to Vishnu.

The Rajputs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynasty</th>
<th>Centre of Power</th>
<th>Most Famous Ruler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chauhans</td>
<td>Ajmer</td>
<td>Prithviraj Chauhan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gahadavalas</td>
<td>Kanauj</td>
<td>Jayachand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or Rathores</td>
<td>Mahoba</td>
<td>Dhanga (Bundelkhand)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandelas</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paramaras</td>
<td>Dhara (Malva)</td>
<td>Bhoja</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tomar</td>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>Mahipala Tomar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chahamanas or Chauhans

Vasudev was the founder of this dynasty. Ajayaraja, who founded the city Ajayameru (Ajmer), was one of the finest rulers of this dynasty. Another famous king was Vigharaja IV (Visaladeva), who probably made extensive conquests. The famous Prithviraja III or Rai Pithora began his reign from 1177. He defeated the Chandela king Paramadi. In his first confrontation with Muhammad Ghori in 1191 (first battle of Tarain), he defeated Ghori, but in the second battle of Tarain in 1192, Prithviraja was defeated and executed.

The Gahadavalas

Chandradeva was the first ruler of this dynasty. He seized the throne of Kannauj from the Rashtrakuta ruler. Another important ruler was Govindachandra, who extended the boundaries of his kingdom both by war and diplomacy. The last ruler of this dynasty was Jayachandra. The romantic story of his daughter Sanyogita eloping with the Chauhan ruler Prithviraja III is a subject of controversy.

The Solankis

The Solankis were the rulers of Gujarat and Kathiawar. The important ruler of this dynasty was Bhima I, during whose reign Mahamud Ghazni overran Gujarat and plundered the temple of Somnath. Jayasimha Siddharaja (the greatest king of this dynasty) was a patron of learning, and the noted Jain scholar Hemachandra was at his court.

The Chandelas

Nannuka was the founder of this dynasty. He had his capital at Kharjuravahaka (modern Khajuraho). His grandson was Jeja or Yanasakti, after whom the kingdom was called Jejabhukti. The dynasty became powerful under the rule of Dhanga. He sent help to support the Hindushahi king, Jayapala of Punjab, against Subuktgin. He was a patron of learning and fine arts and built many temples at Khajuraho. The rule of this dynasty continued till the kingdom was annexed by Ala-ud-din Khalji.

The Paramaras

The dynasty was founded by Upendra or Krishnaraja. He defeated the powerful Chalukyan king, Tailapa II. Bhoja is considered the best of the Paramara rulers. He was defeated by Jayasimha II.

The Coming of the Arabs

The Arabs were the first Muslims to cast their covetous eyes on India and attack it. Sind was ruled by a king named Dahir. Incensed by certain pirates of Debal, Al-Hajjaj, the governor of Iraq, sent Muhammad bin Qasim to punish the Indian king. In 712 AD, Dahir was killed near the fort Raor.

Subuktagin attacked Jayapala, the Shahiya ruler, and succeeded in forcing the latter to conclude a humiliating treaty. After Subuktagin, Mahmud Ghazni became the king. In 1001 AD, he defeated Jayapala, who burnt himself in the funeral pyre.
His main objective was to destroy Hindu temples and plunder the wealth of the country. He destroyed the morale of the Indian armies.

Al-Beruni was in the court of Mahmud Ghazni. He came to India with his ruler and wrote the famous treatise *Kitab-ul-Hind*. Firdausi (the author of *Shahnama*) and Utbi also adorned Ghazni’s court.

Mahmud Ghazni died in 1030.

Muizuddin Muhammad Ghori

Md. Ghori, the ruler of Ghor, a small principality in Afghanistan, laid the foundation of Muslim rule in India.

He made his first invasion in 1175 AD.

He then marched towards Gujarat in 1178 but Raja Bhimadeva II gave him a crushing defeat.

He attached Delhi from the north-west region and met Prithviraj Chauhan in the First Battle of Tarain in 1191.

First Battle of Tarain 1191 Between Prithviraj Chauhan and Mohd. Ghori

Second Battle of Tarain 1192 Between Prithviraj Chauhan and Mohd. Ghori

Battle of Chandawar 1194 Between Jaichand and Mohd. Ghori

Mohd. Ghori was defeated by Prithviraj in the First Battle of Tarain.

Ghori never forgot his defeat, and in 1192 (Second Battle of Tarain), he marched once again against Prithviraj Chauhan at the invitation of Jaichand of Kanauj and defeated Prithviraj.

In the Battle of Chandawar, Jaichand was defeated by Mohd. Ghori.

Before leaving for his empire in Ghor, he left Qutbuddin Aibak as incharge of his possessions.

### Delhi Sultanate

The assumption of sovereign powers by Qutbuddin Aibak in 1206 is regarded as the foundation of the Sultanate of Delhi.

The Sultanate of Delhi (1206–1526) had five ruling dynasties:

1. The Slaves (1206–1290)
2. The Khaljis (1290–1320)
3. The Tughlaqs (1320–1413)
4. The Sayyids (1414–451)
5. The Lodhis (1451–1526)

#### Slave Dynasty (1206–1290)

**Qutbuddin Aibak** was the founder of the Slave dynasty. The Slave dynasty is called so because its many important rulers had originally been slaves. For example, Qutbuddin was a slave of Mohd. Ghori; Iltutmish was a slave of Qutbuddin.

The Slaves were also called the ‘early Turks’, ‘Mamluks’ or ‘Ilbari’.

**Qutbuddin Aibak (1206–1210)**

Qutbuddin Aibak was the founder of the first independent Turkish kingdom in Northern India.

His capital was at Lahore and he was known as Lakhbaksh for his magnanimity. Hassan Nizami, the famous historian, adorned his court.

Aibak built the Quwat-ul-Islam Mosque and the Adhai Din ka Jhonpra in Delhi and Ajmer respectively.

He started the construction of the Qutab Minar and constructed its first storey, but he died in 1210 while playing Chaugan (Polo). The work was completed by his successor Iltutmish.

This structure was built in memory of the Sufi saint Khwaja Qutbuddin Bakhtiar Kaki.

**Iltutmish (1211-1236)**

After the death of Qutbuddin Aibak, Aram Shah ascended the throne, but he was deposed and Iltutmish was crowned the new Sultan.

Iltutmish was the real founder of the Delhi Sultanate. He made Delhi the capital in place of Lahore.

At the time of Qutbuddin’s death, he was the governor of Badaun.

He saved Delhi Sultanate from the wrath of Changez Khan, the Mongol leader, in 1221.

He completed the construction of Qutub Minar.

He introduced the silver Tanka and the copper Jital.

He set up an official nobility of slaves known as Chahalgani (group of forty).

He organised the Iqta system.

He died in 1236.
Razia Sultan (1236-1240)

Itutmish declared his daughter Razia Sultan to be his successor but the Amirs, disproving his wishes, put Rukn-ud-din Firoz Shah on the throne. He was later executed and Razia became the Sultan. She discarded her female attire and appeared before the public in a Quaba (cloak) and Kulah (hat). Razia appointed an Abyssinian slave Jamaluddin Yaqt as the Amir Akhur (Superintendent of Horses). The Turkish Amirs were jealous of his appointment. Altuniya, the governor of Sirhind, revolted. To quell the disorder, Razia went to the capital but Yaqt was murdered and she was imprisoned. She won over Altuniya and married him.

In 1240 AD, Razia became the victim of a conspiracy and was assassinated near Kaithal. The successors of Razia were Mizuddin Bahram Shah (1240-42) and Alauddin Masud Shah (1242-46).

Nasiruddin Mahmud (1246-1265)

The next Sultan, Nasiruddin Mahmud (1246-65), was a grandson of Itutmish. Three years after the accession of the Sultan (1249), Ghiasuddin Balban, one of the leading Turkish nobles, married his daughter to the Sultan. In return, the Sultan appointed him to the post of regent (naib-i-mamlakat) with the title of Ulugh Khan (Premier Khan).

Nasiruddin devoted all his time to prayers and religious observances such as making copies of the Quran or stitching caps for the devoted.

Amir Khusro

Amir Khusro was born in Badaun in UP in 1253. He was a disciple of Nizamuddin Auliya of Delhi. He is regarded as the father of Gauwals. Amir Khusro served seven kings from the times of Sultan Balban to Muhammad bin Tughlaq. He is also known as Tuti-e-Hind (Parrot of India). The inventions of Tabla and Sitar are traditionally attributed to him.

Ghiyas-ud-din Balban (1265-1288)

Balban ascended the throne in 1265. He ordered the separation of the military department (diwan-i-wizarat), and it was placed under a minister for military affairs (diwan-i-ariz).

He derived the basic elements of his theory of kingship from Sassanid Persia, where kingship had been raised to the highest possible level. Balban claimed his descent from the Iranian hero, Afrasiyab.

He impressed upon the people that kingship was vice-regency of God on earth (niyabat-i-khudai). The king was the shadow of God (zil-i-ilahi).

Balban abolished the Chalisa or Turkan-i-chihalgani. He adopted the policy of ‘blood and iron’.

He placed the overall charge of the frontier in the hands of his son and heir-apparent Muhammad, who was killed in one of his skirmishes against the Mongols.

Muhammad was a great fighter and also a patron of arts and scholar.

The likes of Amir Khusrau and Amir Hasan were under Muhammad’s employment.

Muhammad’s death was a smashing blow to Balban and it sounded the death-knell for his dynasty. Within a year of Muhammad’s death, Balban died. Balban made Kaikhusrau, late prince Muhammad’s son, his successor. Balban died in 1286-87.

After his death, however, the powerful Kotwal of Delhi, Fakhruddin, sent Kaikhusrau to Multan and appointed Kaiqubad (second prince Bughra khan’s son) to the throne.

Balban’s grandson Kaiqubad was a voluptuary. During this time, Malik Nizamuddin, the nephew and son-in-law of Kotwal Fakhruddin, became the virtual ruler. Kaiqubad appointed Jalal-ud-din Khalji the commander of army as well as the governor of Baran.

Kaiqubad had paralysis. A group of Turkish nobles raised Kayumar, Kaikübad’s three-year-old son, to the throne. A group of nobles led by Jalaluddin Khalji murdered Kayumar and seized the throne.

Kaiqubad was murdered in his palace and Jalaluddin ascended the throne. Thus, Balban’s dynasty came to an end in 1290 AD.

The Khaljis (1290-1320)

The coming of Khaljis to power was more than a dynastic change. Their ascendency is known as the Khalji Revolution, because it marked the end of monopoly of power by the Turkish nobility and the racial dictatorship.
Jalaluddin Firuz Khalji (1290-96)

Jalaluddin Khalji ascended the throne in 1290 at the age of 70.
He appointed Malik Chhajju, Balban’s nephew, as the governor of Kara, where he rebelled later.
One of the most important events of Jalaluddin’s reign was the invasion of Debagiri, the capital of the Yadava kingdom in the Deccan, by Ali Gurshap (later Sultan Alauddin Khalji), the nephew and son-in-law of the sultan and the governor of Kara.
After his successful campaign to Debagiri in 1296, Ali Gurshap invited the sultan to come to Kara to receive the enormous wealth brought from the Deccan as present. Jalaluddin came to Kara in July 1296, where he was murdered by Ali Gurshap, who proclaimed himself the sultan with the title of Alauddin.

Alauddin Khalji (1296-1316)

His theory of kingship was based on ‘kingship knows no kinship’.
He was the first ruler among the Delhi sultans who didn’t ask for Mansur (letter of investiture) from the Caliph but called himself the deputy of Caliph.

Alauddin’s Expeditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expedition</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>1298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranthambhore</td>
<td>1301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warangal</td>
<td>1302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mewar</td>
<td>1303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malwa</td>
<td>1305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jalore</td>
<td>1311</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Deccan, Alauddin’s army, led by his slave Malik Kafur, defeated the Yadavas of Debagiri, the Kakatiyas of Warangal, the Hoysalas of Dwarsamudra and the Pandyas of Madurai during 1308-11.
The Somnath temple, rebuilt in the mid-twelfth century, was again demolished by Alauddin Khalji.
He conquered Ranthambhore in Rajputana in 1300-01 from Hamir Deva, a descendant of Prithviraja III.
In 1303, he attacked Chittor, the capital of Mewar, which was being ruled by the Gehlot king Rana Ratan Singh. Amir Khusrup, who accompanied Alauddin Khalji in his expedition in his Khazain-ul-Futuh, gives an account of the conquest of Chittor and also refers to the practice of Jauhar.
According to various Rajput sources and Malik Md. Jayasi’s Padmavat, the main objective of Alauddin Khalji in invading Chittor was to acquire Padmini, the queen of Rana Ratan Singh. Alauddin captured Chittor, which was named Khizrabad, after the name of Alauddin’s son Khizr Khan, who was appointed as the governor.
Alauddin Khalji decided to send an expedition, under the command of Malik Kafur, for the conquest of South India.
Between 1307 and 1312, Malik defeated the Yadava king Ramachandra of Debagiri in 1307 and 1311, the Kakatiya king Pratap Rudra Deva II of Warangal in 1309-10 and the Hoysala king Vira Ballal III in 1311.

Alauddin’s Administrative Measures

He introduced the system of branding the horse (Dagh) and preparing descriptive rolls of soldiers (Chehra). Alauddin ordered that all land was to be measured and then the share of state was to be fixed. The post of special officer called Mustakharaj was created for the purpose of collection of revenue.
He ordered all merchants (Hindu and Muslim) to be registered with Dewan-i-Riyasat (Commerce Ministry). Alauddin sought to fix costs of all commodities. For this purpose, he set up three markets in Delhi. In Delhi, a central grain market (mandi) was set up with subsidiary shops in every quarter (mohalla) of the city. There was a separate bazaar (serai-i-adl) dealing in cloth, sugar, dry fruits, butter, lamp oil, etc. while there was one separate market for horses, slaves and cattle, and another separate market for all other commodities.
For effective implementation of state-determined prices, Alauddin appointed a superintendent of the markets known as Shahna-i-mandi, who was assisted by an intelligence officer.
He also constructed the Alai Darwaza, the entrance gate to Qutub Minar.
Ala-ud-din’s two laws for the first time established a direct relationship between the state and the cultivator, thereby requiring the employment of a huge staff consisting of muhassils, amils (revenue collectors), gymashtas (agents), mutasarrifs (accountants), nawisandas (clerks), etc.
The Islamic land tax was called Kharaj.
Under Alauddin, Kharaj was levied over large parts of northern India at the rate of fifty per cent of the produce, the maximum permitted by the Hanafi school of Islamic law prevalent in the Sultanate.
The chronicles of Barani are the main source of information on Alauddin’s fiscal policies.
The Sultan ordered all cultivable land be measured per biswa (one-twentieth of a bigha). The yield was also estimated per biswa.
The land tax was normally required to be paid in cash.
In the Doab area, Kharaj was collected entirely in grain and stored in state grain houses for release in times of...
scarcity. In addition to Kharaj, Alauddin realised two more taxes from the peasants — the charai (grazing tax) and garhi (house tax).

Tughlaq Dynasty

Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq (1321-25)
He probably belonged to the Quranna tribe. He built Tughlaqabad fort near Delhi. Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq was the first Sultan to start irrigation works (construction of bridges and canals). To welcome the Sultan, a temporary wooden pavilion had been hastily constructed by Jauna Khan at Afghanpur, a village at some distance from the new town of Tughlaqabad. All of a sudden, the pavilion came crashing down, killing the Sultan. In 1325, he was succeeded by his son Muhammad Bin Tughlaq.

Muhammad bin Tughlaq (1325-1351)
Jauna Khan succeeded Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq under the title of Muhammad bin Tughlaq. He was a great scholar of Persian and Arabic, astronomy, philosophy, mathematics and medicine. He was the first sultan who visited the tomb of Moinuddin Chisti of Ajmer and the tomb of Salar Maud Gazi at Bahraich (UP). He built the mausoleum over the graves of Nizamuddin Auliya at Delhi, Miran Mulhim at Badaun, Shaikh Ruknuddin at Multan, and Shaikh Alauddin at Ajudhan. Ziauddin Barani and Ibn Batuta visited during his reign. Muhammad bin Tughlaq has been grossly misunderstood and differently assessed on account of his five ambitious projects:
1. Raising taxes in the Doab to fill the depleted treasury
2. Shifting the capital from Delhi to Devagiri in 1328 AD
3. Introduction of token currency during 1329-30 AD
4. The Khorasan campaign
5. The Qarachil campaign
He appointed Ibn Batuta as the qazi of Delhi. He introduced the ‘token currency’ — bronze tankas — in place of silver tankas. He created a new department of agriculture called Diwan-i-Kohi.
The whole of South India became independent during his lifetime and two major independent states emerged — the empire of Vijayanagar (established by Harirhar and Bukka in 1336) and the Bahmani kingdom (established by Alauddin Behman Shah in 1347). He increased the land revenue in the Doab region. He died in 1351, pursuing the last major rebel of his reign towards Thatta.

Barani commented: “At last the people got rid of him and he got rid of the people.”

Firoz Shah Tughlaq (1351-88)
Muhammad bin Tughlaq was succeeded by Firoz Shah Tughlaq. His policy aimed to appease the nobles, army and theologians. He imparted the theocratic tinge to the taxation system by abolishing as many as 24 taxes and imposing only four taxes — Khiraj (land tax), Zakat (alms for Muslims), Jaziah and Khams (20% of war booty). He was the first Muslim ruler to impose Jaziah on the Brahmans. He was a genius in his capacity for construction. The greatest success of the reign of Firoz Shah Tughlaq was the promotion of agriculture through the construction of canals, bringing fresh lands along the banks of those canals under cultivation and laying out more than 1200 state-managed fruit gardens. He introduced an irrigation tax at 10% of the produce of lands. The total number of slaves collected by him was 180,000 (largest in Delhi Sultanate). He build the cities of Fatehabad, Hisar, Jaunpur and Firozabad.
Two Asokan pillars, one from Topra and another from Meerut, were brought to Delhi during his reign. He introduced two new coins, i.e. Adha and Bikh (mixture of copper and silver). He set up a separate department called the Diwan-i-Khairat to the help the poor. He organised the Diwan-i-Bandagan (department of slaves). He made the civil and military posts hereditary. He destroyed the Jagannatha Temple in his Jainagar campaign. He collected 1300 Sanskrit manuscripts from Jwalamukhi Temple during his Nagarkot campaign. He died in 1388.

Nasiruddin Mahmud Tughlaq
He was the last sultan of the dynasty. During his regime, Timur, the great Mongol leader of Central Asia, invaded India. Timur reached Delhi in December 1398 and ordered general massacre. Nasiruddin Mahmud gave Malik Sarvar the title of Malik-us-Sharq. Sarvar founded the Sharqi dynasty in Jaunpur.
KUNDAN

The Sayyids (1414-51)

The Mongol invader Timur appointed Sayyid Khizr Khan (the founder of the Sayyid dynasty) the governor of Lahore, Multan and Dipalpur. Khizr Khan professed to rule as the deputy of Timur’s son and successor, Shahrukh, to whom he probably sent occasional tributes. Mubarak Shah was the successor of Khizr Khan. Alam Shah was the last ruler of the Sayyid dynasty. The Sayyid dynasty had the shortest span of life — 37 years.

The Lodhis (1451-1526)

Bahlool Lodhi (1451-89)
1. He was the first Afghan ruler of Delhi.
2. Bahlool’s most important political achievement was the conquest of the Sultanate of Jaunpur.

Sikandar Lodhi (1489-1517)
Sikandar Lodhi founded the city of Agra in 1504 and transferred his capital from Delhi to Agra. He introduced a new measurement yard called Gaje-i-Sikandari. He wrote Persian verses under the name Gulrukhs. He demolished the famous Jwalamukhi temple at Nagarkot. He was against taking out tazias in the procession during Muharram. Shrines of the Muslim saints were out of bounds for women during his rule.

Ibrahim Lodhi (1517-26)
Sikandar Lodhi was succeed by his son Ibrahim Lodhi. Daulat Khan Lodi, the governor of Punjab and Alam Khan Lodi (brother of Sikandar Lodi), invited Babur, the king of Kabul, to overthrow Ibrahim. Ibrahim Lodhi was defeated and killed in the First Battle of Panipat in 1526 against Babar. The death of Ibrahim Lodhi brought an end to the Sultanate period.

Administration During the Sultanate Period

Sultan: The title of Sultan was started by Turkish rulers. Mahmud Ghazni was the first to assume the title of ‘Sultan’. All powers were vested in his hands. He ruled in the name of Caliph. Amir Khusrau called Alauddin Khalji a Khalifa. Mubarak Shah called himself Al-Wasaq-Billah. Haji Sayyid Sarsari gave Muhammad bin Tughlaq the letter of investiture. Firoz Tughlaq also received the letter of investiture.

Amirs: A group of 40 Amirs called Chahalgani was dominant during the reign of Iltutmish. Balban crushed their power.

Majlis-i-Khalwat: It was a council of friends and trusted officers who advised the Sultan. The advice, however, was not binding.

Wazir: He was the Prime Minister, heading the Diwan-i-Wizarat, which dealt in income and expenditure. The Tughlaq period was the heyday of the Wizarat.

Mushrif-i-Mammalik: He was in-charge of accounts.

Khazin: He was the treasurer.

Mujumadar: He gave loans so that income and expenditure were balanced.

Diwan-i-Waqf: It was founded by Alaluddin Khalji and it looked after the documents relating to income and expenditure.

Diwan-i-Mustkharaj: It was created by Alauddin Khalji to look after and realise arrears from collectors or agents.

Bar-i-Khans: The Sultan received all his courtiers including Khans, Maliks etc here.

Taxation in Sultanate Period

The fiscal policy followed by the Sultans was modelled on the theory of finances of the Hanafi School of Sunni jurists. Only four different sources of revenue were sanctioned by the Quran – Kharaj, Khams, Jaziya and Zakat. But the Sultanate of Delhi charged many taxes. Some of the taxes are given below:

1. Zakat
   The religious taxes were collectively known as Zakat. This was realised from well-to-do Muslims amounting at the rate of 1/40 of one’s property.

2. Jazia
   This was the tax levied on non-Mulims in return for protection of life and property.

3. Kharaj
   It was the land tax realised from non-Muslims.

4. Khams
   It was the tax on mines, treasure, share in war and booty.

5. Sharaf
   It was the irrigation tax charged at the rate of 1/10 of the produce. This was imposed by Firoz Shah Tughlaq.
### Sultanate Literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>Main Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kazi Ismail</td>
<td>Chach Nama</td>
<td>History of Sind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alberuni</td>
<td>Qanun-i-Maudis</td>
<td>Astronomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alberuni</td>
<td>Jawahir fil-Jawahir</td>
<td>Mineralogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alberuni</td>
<td>Kitab-ul-Hind</td>
<td>Indian philosophy and sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chand Bardai</td>
<td>Prithviraj Raso</td>
<td>Heroic exploits or Prithviraj Chauhan III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feroz Shah Tughlaq</td>
<td>Futuhat Firoze Shah</td>
<td>An autobiographical work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firdausi</td>
<td>Shahnama</td>
<td>Mahmud Ghazni’s empire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hasan Nizami</td>
<td>Tajul Maasir</td>
<td>History of the Ilbari dynasty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibn Batuta</td>
<td>Kitab-ul-Rehla</td>
<td>Travelogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jimutvahan</td>
<td>Dayabhaga</td>
<td>Hindu Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalhana</td>
<td>Rajatarangini</td>
<td>A history of Kashmir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minhas-us-Siraj</td>
<td>Tabaqat-i-Nasiri</td>
<td>History of the Islamic dynasty till 1260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malik Muhammad Jayasi</td>
<td>Padmavat</td>
<td>About the queen Padmavati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shams-i-siraj Afif</td>
<td>Tarikh-i-Firoze Shah</td>
<td>History of the Tughlaqs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vijnanesvara</td>
<td>Mitakshara</td>
<td>Hindu Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ziauddin Barani</td>
<td>Fatwa-i-Jhandari</td>
<td>Judicial advice on worldly affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ziauddin Barani</td>
<td>Takikh-e-Firozeshahi</td>
<td>History of the Tughlaqs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Some Other Kingdoms

**Vijayanagar Empire**

It was founded by Harihar and Bukka in 1336. They had earlier served under the Kakatiya ruler of Warangal. They got inspiration from the famous sage Vidyaranya. The capital of the kingdom was Hampi (Karnataka).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kingdom</th>
<th>Founder</th>
<th>Most Important ruler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sangama Dynasty (1336-1485)</td>
<td>Harihara I</td>
<td>Devarai II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saluva dynasty (1485-1505)</td>
<td>Narasimha Suluva</td>
<td>Narasimha Suluva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuluva dynasty (1506-70)</td>
<td>Vira Narasimha</td>
<td>Krishnadeva Raya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aravidu dynasty (1570-middle of seventeenth century)</td>
<td>Shifted to Penugonda</td>
<td>Thirumala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khandesh Farukki dynasty</td>
<td>Malik Raja Faruki</td>
<td>Malik Raja Farukki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahar</td>
<td>Jalal-ud-din Ahsan</td>
<td>Jalal-ud-din Ahsan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Krishna Dev Raya was the greatest ruler of Vijayanagar empire.

During the reign of Deva Raya I, Italian traveller Nicolo Conti visited Vijayanagar. In 1410, Devaraya I got a barrage constructed across the Tungabhadra. He also encouraged the construction of a dam on the river Haritnara for irrigation purpose. Deva Raya II was called Inmadi Devaraya and also Proudh Devaraya. During his reign, the Persian traveller Abdur Razzaq visited Vijayanagar. The Portuguese traveller Domingo Paes stayed at Vijayanagar during the reign of Krishnadeva Raya. Asta Diggajas adorned the court of Krishnadeva Raya. Krishnadeva Raya’s reign is regarded as the classical phase of Telugu literature and has been, therefore, rightly honoured as Andhra Pitamaha. His political ideas are contained in his Telugu work Amuktamalayah. As a great patron of literature, he is known as Abhinava Bhoja.
He founded a new town Nagalapur and built Vithalswami temple and Harara temple at Hampi. After the death of Krishnadeva, his brother Achyuta Raya (1529-42) succeeded him. During Rama Raya’s reign, the Deccan Sultanates of Ahmednagar, Bidar, Bijapur and Golconda who had formed a grand alliance, met the Vijayanagar army at Talikota. They defeated the Vijayanagar forces at Bannihatti near Raksha Tangadi (Talikota) in 1565. After this the Vijayanagar govt was shifted to Penukonda. Ali Adil Shah represented the Deccan Sultanates jointly while Vijayanagar was led by Rama Raya.

Administration

People who held land of the king were called Nayakas. An important feature of the village organisation was the ayagar system. In this system every village was a separate unit and its affairs were conducted by a body of 12 functionaries who were collectively known as the Ayagars. The Ayagars were village servants constituting of a group of families, and had a headman, an accountant and a watchman.

The religion of most of the kings was Vaishnavism. Slavery also existed in the Vijayanagar period.

Foreign travellers during Vijayanagar empire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traveller</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Ruler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nicolo Conti</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1420</td>
<td>Devaraya I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdul Razzaq</td>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>1442</td>
<td>Devaraya II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fernao Nuniz</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1450</td>
<td>Mallikarjun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domingo Paes</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1515</td>
<td>Krishna-devaraya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbosa</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1517</td>
<td>Krishna-devaraya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bahmani Kingdom (1347-1526)

The Bahmani kingdom was founded in 1347 by Hasan Gangu, who revolted for his independence from the Sultanate. He assumed the title of Alauddin Bahmani (also Bahman Shah). Gulbarga was his capital. He divided his kingdom into four provinces: a) Gulbarga, b) Daulatabad, c) Berar and d) Bidar. He was succeeded by Muhammad Shah I (1358-73). Mahmud Gawan was appointed as prime minister during the reign of Muhammad Shah III (1463-82). The last ruler of the Bahmani dynasty was Kalimullah.

Deccan Sultanate

Five independent kingdoms arose on the ruins of the Bahmani kingdom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Founder</th>
<th>Dynasty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Berar</td>
<td>1484-1574</td>
<td>Fathulla</td>
<td>Imadshahi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bidar</td>
<td>1492-1609</td>
<td>Kasim Barid</td>
<td>Baridshahi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmednagar</td>
<td>1490-1637</td>
<td>Malik Ahmed Shah Bahri</td>
<td>Nizam Shahi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golconda</td>
<td>1512-1607</td>
<td>Quli Qutb Shah</td>
<td>Qutb Shahi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bijapur</td>
<td>1490-1686</td>
<td>Yusuf Adil Shah</td>
<td>Adilshahi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chand Bibi: The Great Heroine of the Deccan

The founder of Nizam Shahi dynasty, Malik Ahmad, founded the city of Ahmadnagar and made it his capital. Ahmadnagar was involved in a long-drawn warfare with the Mughals. In 1576, Akbar invaded Ahmadnagar but he was defended by Chand Bibi, who purchased peace by surrendering Berar. She was later murdered by her own officers and the Mughals annexed Ahmadnagar (1600). Later, Malik Amber defended the Mughals and freed Ahmadnagar in 1610. Ahmadnagar was finally annexed by Shah Jahan in 1637 AD.

Jaipur

Jaipur came to be known as the Shiraz of the East. Malik Sarwar was the governor of Jaipur. Hussain Shah was the last ruler of the dynasty.

Mewar

The greatest ruler of this house was Rana Kumbha. Chittor was the capital of Mewar. He built the famous Victory Tower or Vijaya Stambha and Kirti Stambha. During the reign of Sangram Singh (1509-28), the power of Mewar reached its zenith. Mewar recognised Mughal suzerainty in the times of Jahangir in 1615.
Religious Movements of Medieval India

Bhakti Movement

The seeds of the Bhakti movements are to be found in the Upanishads and the Bhagavata Purana. Bhakti movement started in South India. The Alvars (Vaishnavites) and Nayanars (Shaivites) popularised the Bhakti cult in Southern India. Srikanthacharya founded the Sivadvaita. Sankaracharya was born in Kaladi (Kerala) in 788 AD. He propounded the Advaita philosophy. He wrote commentaries on the Brahmasutras and Upanishads. He wrote a commentary on the Bhagavad Gita, and also wrote books like Upadesh Shastri, Vivek Chudamani, Bhaja Govindam etc. He established mutts at Sringeri, Dwarka, Puri and Badrinath. The claim that he founded the Kanchi mutt is disputed. Ramanuja was born in Sriperambudur. He propounded the philosophy of Vishishta Advaita. He founded the Shrivaishnava sect. He wrote Sribhashya. He advocated salvation by Bhakti. Madhavacharya founded the Dvaita philosophy. He was born in Kayanpura in South Canara district. Nimbark established his ashram in Braja (Mathura). He propounded the Dvaitadvaita philosophy and philosophy of Bhedabheda. He founded the Sanak Sampradaya. Vallabhacharya was born in Benaras in 1479. He lived in the court of Krishnadeva Raya. He propounded the Shuddha Advaitavada. His philosophy is known as Pushitinarga. He founded the Rudra Sampradaya. Haridas founded the Parandarsadasa movement. The Lingayat movement was founded by Basava. The sect was also known as Virasaiva Sect. Janeshwara wrote the Bhavarthadipika or Jnaneshwari and Amritanubhava.

Bhakti Saints and Reformers

Ramanuja (11th century) was born in Madras in 1017. A contemporary of Ramajuna was Nimbark, who was a devotee of Radha-Krishna. Ramanand carried the Bhakti movement to North India. He was the guru of the famous saint Kabir. He was born in Prayag (Allahabad). The followers of Ramanand were Kabir (the weaver), Raidasa (the cobbler), Dhanna (the Jat peasant), Sen (the barber) and Pipa (the Rajput). Kabir (1485-1518) refused to acknowledge caste distinction.

The most famous of the followers of Kabir’s ideals was Dadu. Mirabai was a Rajput princess of Merta. She was married to Bhojaraja, the eldest son of Rana Sanga. She was famous for her devotion to Krishna.

Guru Nanak

Guru Nanak was born on 26 November 1469 at the village of Talwandi (famous as Nanakana Sahib). His mother was Tripta Devi and father Kallu Ram. The hymns of Guru Nanak are preserved in the Adi Grantha, the sacred book of Sikhs.

Note: Kabir’s and Nanak’s role in the Bhakti movement are strikingly similar.

Chaitanya (1483-1533)

Chaitanyadeva Mahaprabhu (1486-1533) was born in a Brahman family in Nadia district of Bengal. Chaitanya accepted that Krishna alone is the most perfect god. Chaitanya settled permanently at Puri, where he died.

Vallabhacharya (1479-1537)

He was born at Varanasi in 1479. He worshipped Lord Krishna under the title of Srinathji. Vithalnath was the son of Vallabhacharya. The Mughal emperor Akbar was so pleased with Vithalnath that he assigned to him the jagirs of Gokul and Jaitpura.

Tulsidas (1554-1623)

He was born in Banda district of UP. He wrote Ramcharitmanas.

Dadu Dayal (1554-1603)

He was born in Ahmedabad. He was the founder of the Brahma Sampradaya. Among the Bhakti-saint poets of the period were Narasimha Mehta (writer of Vaishnava jana to tene ...), Mirabai (princess from Merta) in Rajasthan, Surdas in western UP etc.

Sufism

According to someone’s view, the word Sufi is derived from ‘suf’ (wool). Those who entered into a particular fraternity of Sufi saints were called Murids (disciple).
The Chisti Order was originally established in Chist (Afghanistan). The greatest figure in the history of Sufism in India was Khwaja Moinuddin Chisti, who arrived at Lahore from Ghor with Muhammad Ghori and settled down at Ajmer. He was the founder of the Chisti order of Sufis in India.

Important saints of Chisti order: Shaikh Qutubuddin Bakhtiyar Kaki, Baba Farid, Shaikh Nizamuddin Auliya. Amir Khusro was the disciple and friend of Shaikh Nizamuddin Auliya.

The Chistis never differentiated between people on account of their birth, wealth and religion. In the 16th century, the most notable Chisti saint was Shaikh Salim Chisti of Fathepur Sikri, who was a contemporary of Akbar.

The Suhrawardi order was established in India by Shaikh Bahauddin Zakariya. Two sub-orders, the Firdausi and the Shuttari, both offshoots of the Suhrawardi order, were active in Bihar and Bengal. Sindh and Multan had become the centres of the spiritual activities of the saints of Suhrawardi order.

The Mughal Empire

The Mughals were ‘Turks’. They belonged to the Sunni sect.

Babur (1526-30)

Zahir-ud-din Muhammad Babar, who defeated Ibrahim Lodhi at Panipat in 1526, founded the Mughal empire in India.

Babur was a descendant of Timur on his father’s side and of Changez Khan on his mother’s side. They called themselves ‘Timuris’.

On the death of his father Umar Shaikh Mirza, Babur inherited the ancestral kingdom of Farghana in 1494. He invaded India five times. He was invited to attack India by Daulat Khan Lodhi (ruler of Punjab), Ibrahim Lodhi’s uncle Alam Khan Lodhi and Rana Sanga.

The first real expedition took place in 1519, when he captured Bhera, and the fifth one was the defeat of Ibrahim Lodhi in the first battle of Panipat in April 1526. Babur was the first one who declared himself as the ‘Badshah’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Battles fought by Babur</th>
<th>Battle</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Battle of Panipat</td>
<td>1526</td>
<td></td>
<td>Babur defeated Ibrahim Lodhi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Khanwa</td>
<td>1527</td>
<td></td>
<td>Babur defeated Rana Sanga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Chanderi</td>
<td>1528</td>
<td></td>
<td>Babur defeated Medini Rai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Ghagra</td>
<td>1529</td>
<td></td>
<td>Babur defeated the Afghans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Babur died in 1530. His dead body was first buried at Arambagh in Agra, but afterwards it was taken to Kabul and buried at a place chosen by him.

A detailed record of Babur’s career is found in his autobiography Tuzuk-I-Baburi or Baburnama, which he wrote in his mother-tongue (Turki). It was translated into Persian by Abdur Rahim Khan-i-Khana.

Humayun (1530-56)

Humayun succeeded his father Babur at the age of 23. He gave different territories to his brothers. Mirza Sulaiman was given Badakshan, Mirza Kamran inherited Kabul and Kandahar, while Hindal received Mevat and Alwar, and Ashari recieved Sambal.

Humayun made Delhi his capital. He built a new city Dinpahan.

He faced a formidable opponent in the Afghan, Sher Khan.

In the battle of Chausa (near Buxar, on the bank of Ganga) in 1539, Humayun was defeated by Sher Khan. Humayun was saved by a water-carrier named Nizam. Humayun allowed the Nizam to enjoy kingship for a day. This man issued leather coins.

After the battle of Chausa, Sher Khan took the title of Sher Shah.

Humayun was again defeated by Sher Shah in the battle of Bilgram or Kannauj in 1540 and fled the country.
Humayun became a wanderer for about 15 years. During his wanderings in the deserts of Sindh, Humayun married Hamida Banu Begum, the daughter of Mir Ali Akbar Jami, in 1552. In November 1542, Humayun was blessed with a son, Akbar.

After the death of Sher Shah, Humayun conquered Kandahar and re-established his control over Kabul with the help of the king of Persia. Humayun defeated the Afghan forces of Sikandar Sur and occupied Agra and Delhi in 1555 AD. He believed in astrology and wore seven different colours of dresses on all the seven days of the week.

His sister, Gulbadan Begum, wrote his biography Humayunnama. Humayun died after falling from the steps of his library in 1556 AD.

Sher Shah Suri (1540-45)

Sher Shah’s original name was Farid. He was born in 1472 at Bajwara in Hoshiarpur district. His father Hasan Khan was a Jagirdar at Sasaram in Bihar. Bahar Khan Lohani, the Governor of Bihar, gave the title of Sher Khan to Farid. He became the ruler of Delhi in 1540 after the battle of Kannauj.

Grand Trunk Road was renovated by Sher Shah Suri. In 1545, he besieged the fort of Kalinjar in Bundelkhand (UP). The fort was captured but Sher Khan was killed by the explosion of gunpowder.

After Sher Shah’s death, his son Islam Shah ascended the throne. Islam Shah was succeeded by his 12-year-old son Firuz Shah, who was killed by Adil Shah, maternal uncle of Firuz Shah. He constructed the old fort or Purana Qila of Delhi.

Sikandari gaj, the measuring standard introduced by Sikandar Lodi, was used during the reign of Sher Shah. The tomb of Sher Shah Suri is in Sasaram town of Bihar. Malik Muhammad Jaisi was the contemporary of Sher Shah.

Adil Shah appointed to the post of Wazir, a very capable Hindu, Hemchandra, more commonly known as Hemu. Hemu opposed the Mughals soon after the accession of Akbar. As soon as Humayun died, he captured Delhi and Agra and became king under the title of Vikramajit or Vikramaditya. Hemu occupied Agra and Delhi by defeating Tardi Beg, who was the Mughal governor of Delhi.

Akbar (1542-1605)

Jalal-ud-din Muhammad Akbar was born in Amarkot in the palace of Virasaal.

He was crowned at Kalanaur at the age of 13. Bairam Khan was his regent. He defeated Hemu in the second Battle of Panipat in 1556. The period 1556-60 is known as the period of Bairam Khan’s regency. He was slain by Hazi Khan at Patan. The Uzbeq rebellion under Abdullah Khan Uzbeg was crushed.

Adham Khan was victorious at Malwa but he sent only part of the booty to Akbar. Akbar had him thrown down from the Agra Fort. In 1573, Akbar built Buland Darwaza to commemorate the Gujarat victory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Important Regions won by Akbar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>State</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chunar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gondwana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mewar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranthambhor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalinjar (Bundelkhand)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengal, Bihar and Kabul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deccan States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khandesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahmednagar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asirgarh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Akbar was now almost the paramount chief of Rajputana. Almost, because he could never subdue Mewar, against whom he sent expeditions from time to time.

In 1576 was fought the famous battle of Haldighati between Akbar and Rana Pratap. Mansingh and Asaf Khan led the Mughal forces.

Akbar gave the Mughal India one official language — Persian.

The last campaign of Akbar was against Asirgarh in 1601. Abdur Rahim was given the title Khan-i-Khana for supressing the revolt of Gujarath.

Birbal died in a campaign against the Yusufzais.

Akbar abolished the pilgrimage tax in 1563 and Jaziya in 1564. In 1575, he constructed Ibadat Khana (Hall of Worship) for religious descussions at Fatehpur Sikri.

His religious discussions were held every Thursday evening.
In 1578, he converted the Ibadat Khana into a parliament of religions.
In 1579, the proclamation of Mazhar took place. Akbar became the Imam-i-Adil. In 1582, the discussions in Ibadat Khana were stopped. Tauhid-i-Illahi or Din-i-Illahi was enunciated. According to Badauni, Akbar wanted to create a new religion. Birbal, Abul Fazal and Faizi joined the Din-i-Illahi.
Akbar read the Khutba composed by Faizi in his own name in 1579.
Abul Fazal was murdered by Bir Singh Bundela.
Akbar died after an attack of dysentery. He was buried at Sikandara.

Akbar’s Administration

During Akbar’s reign, the empire was divided into 12 Subahs (provinces). These were Bengal, Bihar, Allahabad, Agra, Avadh, Delhi, Lahore, Multan, Kabul, Ajmer, Malwa and Gujarat. Each of these provinces was administered by officers called Subahdar, Diwan, Bakshi, Sadr and Qazi.
The provinces were further divided into Sarkars and Parganas.
The entire land of the empire was divided into Jagir, Khalisa and Inam lands.
Akbar reorganised the central machinery of the administration on the basis of division of power between the various departments as given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wazir</th>
<th>Head of the revenue department</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mir Bakshi</td>
<td>Head of the military department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barids</td>
<td>Intelligence Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waqia</td>
<td>Reporters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mir Saman</td>
<td>In charge of imperial household</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qazi</td>
<td>Head of the judicial department</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Akbar’s Court

The Nine Gems or Navratnas of emperor Akbar were:
(1) Birbal: A Brahman of Kalpi, he is known for his gift of humour and wits. His original name was Mahesh Dass. He was in charge of administration of justice at the royal court.
(2) Todar Mal: He is known for his expertise in land revenue matters.
(3) Tansen: He is known as Geet Samrat. Born at Gwalior, he was a court singer of Akbar. His original name was Ramtanu Pandey.
(4) Abul Fazal: He is known for his books Akbarnama and Ain-i-Akbari.
(5) Raja Man Singh: He is credited with defeating Maharana Pratap in the battle of Haldighati.
(6) Faizi: A great poet at the court of Akbar.
(7) Hamim Humam: He was the chief of royal school.
(8) Abdul Rahim: was conferred the title of Khan-e-Illahi by Akbar. He is remembered for Rahim Satsai.
(9) Shalik Mubarak: He was a great Sufi.

Jahangir (1605-1627)

Akbar’s eldest and only surviving son, Salim, became king under the title of Nur-ud-din Mohammad Jahangir. His mother was the Rajput princess Jodhabai.
In 1611, Jahangir married Mehr-un-Nisa, who was later known as Nur Jahan. She conferred the title of Itmad-ud-Daula on her father.
Nur Jahan exercised tremendous influence over the state affairs. She built Itmad-ud-Daula’s tomb in Agra.
In 1612, Nur Jahan arranged the marriage of Jahangir’s second son Khurram (Shah Jahan) to her brother Asif Khan’s daughter Arjumand Banu (later known as Mumtaz Mahal).
Nur Jahan was the widow of Sher Afghan before she got married to Jahangir.
Rooh Gulab Itr was discovered by Nur Jahan’s mother, Asmat Begum.
Jahangir had five sons:
(1) Khusrau
(2) Parvez
(3) Khurram (Shah Jahan)
(4) Shahryar
(5) Jahandar
A few months after his accession, his eldest son Khusrau revolted against him.
Khusrau received the patronage of Guru Arjun Dev. The fifth Sikh guru Arjun Dev was later sentenced to death for his blessing to the rebel prince.
Jahangir’s first political success was against the Mewar Rana, Amar Singh (1615).
Jahangir sent his son Khurram against Malik Amber in Ahmadnagar. In 1617, Ahmadnagar fell and Khurram was awarded the title ‘Shah Jahan’.
In 1622, the Mughals lost Kandahar to the Iranian king Shah Abbas.
Nur Jahan married Ladli Begum, her daughter by Sher Afghan, to Jahangir’s youngest son Shahryar.
The reign of Jahangir is generally regarded as the Golden Age of Mughal Painting.
Jahangir’s reign has been vividly portrayed by two representatives of king of England, namely Captain Hawkins (1608-11) and Sir Thomas Roe (1615-18), who visited his court.
Jahangir was famous for his Chain of Justice (Zunjir-i-Adil), a golden chain with bells attached to it that was hung between the Jasmine Tower in the Agra Fort and a
port on the bank of Yamuna. Anyone in despair could pull the chain and go in for a personal hearing from the Emperor himself.
Jahangir died in 1627 and was buried at Lahore.

Shah Jahan (1627-58)
Shah Jahan took the charge of Mughal empire on the death of Jahangir in 1627. His mother was Jagat Gosain, a Rajput princess.
Shah Jahan was supported by Asaf Khan (brother of Nur Jahan) in the struggle that ensued for succession. The first thing that Shah Jahan had to face was revolts in Bundelkhand (Jujhar Singh Bundela) and the Deccan (Khan-i-Jahan Lodi, the governor of Deccan).
In 1612, he married Arzumand Banu, who became famous as Mumtaz Mahal.

Mumtaz Mahal
Mumtaz Mahal (1593-1637) was the beloved wife of the Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan. It was in her fond memory and as a tribute to her beauty that the grand monument of Taj Mahal was built.
Mumtaz’s maiden name was Arjumand Banu Begum. She died in 1631 while giving birth to her 14th child. The master architect under whose guidance the Taj Mahal was designed and completed was Ustad Isa. The monument was constructed in 22 years.
The period of Shah Jahan’s rule in India is regarded as the Golden Age of Indian Architecture. Shah Jahan built Moti Masjid (Agra), Jama Masjid (Delhi), Taj Mahal (Agra), Shalimar Garden (Lahore), the Tomb of Jahangir at Lahore, and the Diwan-i-Aam and Diwan-i-Khas at the Red Fort in New Delhi.

Peacock Throne
The famous Peacock Throne was built by Shah Jahan. The famous Koh-i-Noor diamond was placed in this throne. Nadir Shah invaded the Mughal empire in 1738 and returned to Persia in 1739 with the original Peacock Throne from the Mughal emperor Muhammad Shah.

In the absence of a well-defined law of succession, a terrible civil war broke out among Shah Jahan’s four sons. Shah Jahan favoured the succession of his eldest son, the liberal-minded Dara Shikoh.
Dara translated the Upanishads, Bhagawad Gita and Yogavishishtha and wrote Safinat-al-Aulia. Dara Shikoh is known as the King of Lofty Fortune.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>War of Succession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Dhurmat</td>
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<tr>
<td>Battle of Samugarh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Battle of Deorai</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Shah Jahan fell seriously ill in September 1657. Seeking this as an opportunity, one of his sons, Aurangzeb, took over the throne and imprisoned him in the citadel of Agra. Shah Jahan left this world, in confinement, in the year 1666. Shah Jahan was looked after by his daughter Jahan Ara till his death.

Aurangzeb (1658-1707)
After the capture of Agra, Aurangzeb crowned himself as emperor of Delhi at Delhi in 1658 and assumed the title of Alamgir (Conqueror of the World.) But his formal coronation took place on June 5, 1695, after to the battle of Deorai.
Aurangzeb had claimed the throne as the champion of Sunni orthodoxy.
He discontinued the practice of inscribing the Kalma on the coins and abolished the celebration of the new year’s day.
He re-imposed Jaziya in 1679. He prohibited intoxicating drugs and destroyed the Vishwanath temple at Varanasi.
He appointed Muhtasibs (regulator of moral conduct) to censor the public morals as per the laws of the Quran. He forbade music in court.
Aurangzeb was not that good in the construction of monuments. However, he built Moti Masjid at Delhi and Bibi Ka Maqbara at Aurangabad.
He ended the ceremony of weighing the emperor on his birthday and the practice of Jharokha darshan.
Guru Tegh Bahadur, the ninth Guru of the Sikhs, was besieged and taken to Delhi, where he was beheaded in 1679.
In 1689, Sambhaji, the eldest son of Shivaji, was captured and beheaded by Aurangzeb.
Aurangzeb compiled Fatwa-i-Alamgiri.
The Jats also rebelled against Aurangzeb in 1669 under the leadership of Jharokha darshan.
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Aurangzeb died in 1707 in Ahmednagar and was buried near Daulatabad. During Aurangzeb’s reign, the Marathas had become very powerful under Shivaji. Aurangzeb sent Shaista Khan against him, but Shivaji defeated Shaista Khan.
### Important Books of Medieval India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book Title</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chachnama:</td>
<td>Originally written in Arabic by an anonymous writer, it was translated in Persian by Muhammad Ali Bin Abu Bakr Kufi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarik-ul-Hind:</td>
<td>Alberuni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taj-ul-Maasir:</td>
<td>Hasan Nizami</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabaqat-i-Nasiri:</td>
<td>Minhah-us-Siraj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarikh-i-Firoz Shahi:</td>
<td>Zainuddin Barni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Futuhat-i-Firoz Shahi:</td>
<td>Firoz Tughlaq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zafarnama:</td>
<td>Maulana Yazdi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarikh-i-Mubarak Shahi:</td>
<td>Yahya bin Ahmad Sirhindi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Futuhus-Salatin:</td>
<td>Khwaja Abdullah Malik Isani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuzuk-i-Babri or Babarnama:</td>
<td>Babar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humayunnama:</td>
<td>Gulbadan Begum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi:</td>
<td>Abbas Khan Sherwani</td>
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### The Later Mughals

**Bahadur Shah (1707-12)**

After the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, a war of succession started amongst his three surviving sons, namely Muazzam, the governor of Kabul; Azam, the governor of Gujarat; and Kam Baksh, the governor of Bijapur.

Muazzam defeated Azam and Kam Baksh and ascended the Mughal throne under the title of Bahadur Shah. He pursued pacifist policy and was therefore also called Shah-e-Bekhaber.

He also assumed the title of Shah Alam I. He made peace with Guru Gobind Singh and Chhatrasal. He granted Sardeshmukhi to Marathas and also released Shahu. He defeated Banda Bahadur at Lohgarh and reoccupied Sirhind in 1711.

**Jahandar Shah (1712-13)**

In the civil war of 1712, Jahandar Shah emerged victorious and he ascended the throne with the aid of Zulfiqar Khan.

He was an incapable ruler, so the power was shifted in the hands of Zulfiqar Khan.

He abolished Jaziya.

He adorned Raja Jai Singh with the title of Mirza Raja Savai.

**Farrukh Siyar (1713-19)**

Farrukh Siyar ascended the throne with the help of the Sayyid brothers, Abdullah Khan and Hussain Khan, who were Wazir and Mir Bakshi respectively.

Abdullah Khan and Hussain Khan were known as the king makers.

Farrukh Siyar was killed by the Sayyid brothers in 1719.

**Mohammad Shah (1719-48)**

Mohammad Shah was never bothered about what was happening in the state and what was required for the development of the state. He was a pleasure-loving king and was nicknamed Rangeela.
Nizam-ul-Mulk was appointed Wazir in 1722 but he relinquished the post and marched to the Deccan to found the state of Hyderabad.

Murshid Quli Khan, who was the governor of Bengal, established the independent state of Bengal.

Saadat Khan Burhan-ul-Mulk, who was appointed governor of Awadh by Mohammad Shah, laid the foundation of the autonomous state of Awadh. During the reign of Mohammad Shah, Nadir Shah raided India in 1739 and he destroyed the mughal empire and took away the Peacock Throne and the Kohinoor diamond. He ruined Delhi and killed the masses of Delhi.

Ahmed Shah (1748-1754)

During his reign, Ahmed Shah Abdali (one of the ablest generals of Nadir Shah) marched towards Delhi and the Mughals ceded Punjab and Multan. From 1748 to 1761, Ahmed Shah Abdali attacked many times and looted Mathura and Delhi. He defeated the Marathas in the third battle of Panipat in 1761.

Alamgir (1754-59)

During his reign Ahmed Shah Abdali occupied Delhi. Later, Delhi was also plundered by the Marathas.

Shah Alam II (1759-1806)

After Mohammad Shah, he was the first ruler who got so many years to rule. But he was so afraid of his own Wazir that he transferred his capital from one place to another. He, along with Nawab of Bengal Mir Qasim and Nawab of Awadh Shuja-ud-daula, fought the Battle of Buxar in 1764, but they were defeated by the British.

Akbar Shah II (1806-37)

During the rule of Akbar Shah II, Lord Hastings ceased to accept the sovereignty of Mughals and claimed an equal status.

Bahadur Shah II (1837-1862)

Bahadur Shah II was the last Mughal king. He was confined by the British to the Red Fort. He was known as Bahadur Shah Zafar. During the revolt of 1857, he was proclaimed the emperor by the rebels. He was deported to Rangoon following the 1857 rebellion and he died there in 1862. With the death of Bahadur Shah Zafar, Mughal rule formally came to an end.

European travellers during Mughal period

Father Anthony Monserrate (1578-82): He came with Father Acquaviva during Akbar’s reign. His travelouge contains descriptions of Akbar’s court.

Ralph Fitch (1588-91): He came during Akbar’s reign. He was the first European who wrote about the clothes and customs of Indians.

William Hawkins (1608-91): He came during Jahangir’s period. He was a merchant and official of the East India Company.

William Fitch (1608): He too came during the reign of Jahangir.

Sir Thomas Roe (1615-1619): He came to India during the reign of Jahangir.

Francisco Paelsari: He came during Jahangir’s reign. He was a Dutch Doctor.

Jean Baptiste Tavernier (1641-87): He came during Shah Jahan’s reign.

Francois Bernier (1658-70): He was a French doctor. He visited India during the reigns of Shah Jahan and Aurangzeb. He wrote Travels in Mughal India.

Mughal Painting

Mir Sayyid Ali, the pupil of Bihzad of Herat, who has been styled the Raphael of the East, and Khwaja Abdu Samad were in the court of Humayun. Both helped prepare the illustrations to the Dastan-i-Amir Hamzah. During Akbar’s reign, Abdu Samad, Farrukh Beg, Khursau Quli, Jamshed, Basawan, Lal Kesu, Haribans and Daswanth were the prominent painters. Akbar said that it appeared to him that the painter had quite peculiar means of recognising God. The painters excelled in portraiture, book illustration and animal painting.

Daswant painted the Razm Nama (Persian Mahabharat). Abdu Samad was given the title of Shiraz. Jahangir could tell the names of individual artists in a composite piece of painting.

In his royal court at Agra, Abul Hasan of Herat, Muhammad Nadab, Muhammad Murad, Ustad Mansur, Bishan Das, Manohar, Govardhan et al flourished. Aurangzeb’s age saw a decline in painting and he had many paintings defaced.
The Marathas

Shivaji

Shivaji was the founder of the Maratha empire. He belonged to the Bhonsle clan of the Marathas. His father Shahji Bhonsle was a military commander under the Nizamshahi rulers of Ahmednagar. After the failure of Ahmednagar, he transferred his services to Bijapur. He had two wives. Shivaji was born to Jijabai in the hill fortress of Shivner in Poona in 1627. Apart from Jijabai, the two persons who influenced the life of Shivaji were Dadaji Konddev and Guru Ramdas.

Dadaji Konddev made Shivaji an expert soldier and efficient administrator. Probably in 1637 or 1638, Shivaji inherited the paternal Jagir of Poona from his father under the guardianship of Dadaji Konddev. At the age of 18, he first conquered Torna fort and built a fort at Raigarh.

Shivaji initially targeted its campaign against the Adil Shahi kingdom of Bijapur. Then Adil Shah deputed Afzal Khan to punish Shivaji, but Afzal Khan was murdered by Shivaji in 1659. Later, Shaista Khan, governor of Deccan and maternal uncle of Aurangzeb, was appointed by Aurangzeb to put down the rising power of Shivaji in 1660. Shivaji lost Poona and suffered several defeats till he made a bold attack on Shaista’s military camp and plundered Surat (1664) and later Ahmednagar.

The treaty of Purandhar (1665) was signed. Shivaji recovered most of the fort lost by him through the treaty of Purandhar. In 1674, Shivaji was coronated at Raigarh and he assumed the title of Chhatrapati.

Shivaji died in 1680 at Raigarh.

Administration

Shivaji divided his territory under his rule (swaraj) into three provinces. Each of the provinces was under a viceroy. The provinces were divided into prants, which were subdivided into parganas or tarafs. The lowest unit was village, which was headed by Headman or Patel.

Shivaji was helped by the ashtapradhan (eight ministers), which was like a council of ministers.

Ashtapradhan (Council of Eight Ministers)

(i) The Peshwa or the chief minister
(ii) The amatyta or majumdar
(iii) The sachiv or shuru nawis
(iv) The sumant or dabir
(v) The senapati or san-i-naubat
(vi) The mantri or waqia nawis
(vii) The nyayadhish
(viii) The dhanadhyaksha or the pundit rao

Military Organisation

(i) Foot soldiers (Infantry) Guerilla warfare (most efficient)
(ii) Bargi A part of the cavalry, formally recruited with fixed pay and horses and equipment provided by the state
(iii) Silahdars A part of the cavalry, recruited informally, required to maintain their own horses and equipment, entitled for a share in war booty but not for a regular pay

Other posts

(i) Sar-i-nauhat (senapati)
(ii) Qiladars
(iii) Nayak
(iv) Havaldar

He looked after general administration.
He was minister for finance.
He was responsible for all correspondence.
He worked as foreign minister and was responsible for correspondence with other kings.
He was not the commander-in-chief and looked after recruitment, training and discipline of the army.
He was responsible for the personal safety of the king.
He was responsible for administration of justice.
He was minister for charities and religious affair.
Revenue System

It was mostly based on the Malik Amber’s (Ahmednagar) revenue system. Assessment of land revenue was based on measurement. The kathi was adopted as the unit of measurement. Chauth was one-fourth of the land revenue paid to the marathas so as not to be subjected to Maratha raids. Sardeshmakhi was an additional levy of 10 per cent on those lands of Maharashtra over which the Marathas claimed herditary rights, but which formed part of the Mughal Empire.

Great Saints of Maharashtra

Saint Dnyaneshwar (1271-96): He was a 13th-century Marathi saint, poet, philosopher and yogi of the Nath sect. His works Dyananeswari, which is a commentary on the Bhagavad Gita, and Amrutanubhav, another compilation of composition, are considered to be milestones in Marathi literature.

Saint Namdev (1270-1350): He is considered a prominent religious poet of Maharashtra. He is the foremost proponent of the Bhagwad-Dharma. He was a devotee of Vithoba (incarnation of Vishnu).

Saint Tukaram (1598-1650): He was an enlightened, dauntless and rebellious poet. His Abhangas gained such popularity that they came to be associated with the name of Saint Tukaram.

Swami Ram Das (1608-81): He was born in Thosar family in Jamb village in Maharashtra. He was a great devotee of the deities Hanuman and Lord Rama.

Sambhaji (1680-89)

Shivaji had two sons Sambhaji and Rajaram from his two different wives. Sambhaji (the elder son) defeated Rajaram, the younger son of Shivaji, in the war of succession. He provided protection and support to Akbar, the rebellious son of Aurangzeb. He, along with Kavikalash, was captured at Sangamesvar by a Mughal officer and executed in 1689.

Rajaram (1689-1700)

He succeeded the throne with the help of the Maratha council of ministers at Raigarh. But soon he fled from Aigarh to Jinni or Ginjee (South Arcot district, Tamil Nadu) in 1689 due to a Mughal invasion in which Raigarh was captured along with Sambhaji’s wife and son (Sahu) by the Mughals. Sahu was only seven years old at that time. Rajaram died at Satara in 1700.

Satara later become the capital of Marathas after the fall of Jinni to Mughals in 1698. Rajaram created the new post of Pratinidhi, thus taking the total number of ministers from eight to nine.

Shivaji II and Tarabai (1700-07)

Rajaram was succeeded by his minor son Shivaji II under the guardianship of his mother Tarabai. Tarabai became the de facto ruler of the state.

Shahu (1707-49)

Nearly three months after Aurangzeb’s death, Shahu was released by the Mughal emperor Azam Shah, who was known as Bahadur Shah. Tarabai’s army was defeated by Shahu at the battle of Khed (1700) and Shahu occupied Satara. But the southern part of the Maratha kingdom with its capital at Kolhapur continued to be under the control of the descendants of Rajaram (Shivaji II and later Sambhaji II). Shahu’s reign saw the rise of the Peshwas and transformation of the Maratha kingdom into an empire based on the principle of confederacy. From now onwards the Peshwas became the de facto rulers of the state.

Balaji Viswanath (1713-20)

Balaji Viswanath became Peshwa in 1713 and with his appointment the post became hereditary. He has been called second founder of Maratha state.

Baji Rao I (1720-40)

Baji Rao, the eldest son of Balaji Viswanath, was appointed as Peshwa by Sahu. He was considered the greatest exponent of guerrilla tactics after Shivaji. Maratha power again reached its zenith under Baji Rao I. Baji Rao was the first Peshwa who attacked Delhi. He was a contemporary of Mughal emperor Muhammad Shah. Baji Rao died at a young age of 40.

Balaji Baji Rao (1740-61)

He was popularly known as Nana Saheb. He became Peshwa after his father’s death. After the death of Shahu in 1749, the management of all state affairs was left in his hands. The third battle of Panipat in 1761 resulted in the defeat of the Marathas by Ahmad Shah Abdali and the death of Viswas Rao (son of Nana Saheb).
In the third battle of Panipat, the Maratha Army was led by Sadasiv Rao Bhau (cousin of Nana Saheb) and Viswas Rao (son of Nana Saheb). Nana Saheb died in 1761.

**Madhav Rao I (1761-72)**

He rehabilitated the Maratha power broken by the battle of Panipat. He died in 1772.

**Narayana Rao (1772-73)**

Narayan Rao, the younger brother of Madhav Rao, ascended the throne. Narayanarao’s uncle Raghunath Rao killed him and tried himself to become a Peshwa. The court did not accept Raghunathrao as a Peshwa. A council of ministers called Barabhai (12 members) consisting of Nana Phadnavis, Mahadaji Sindhia, Haripant Phadake and others ran the government. Nana Phadnavis looked after the matters in South while Mahadaji Sindhia was to look after the matters in the North. Sindhia died in 1793.

**Nana Phadnavis**

Nana Phadnavis, who was originally known as Balaji Janardan Bhau, existed as an eminent and influential Peshwa of the Maratha Empire during Peshwa administration in Pune. Nana Phadnavis died in 1800.

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**Baji Rao II**

He was the last Peshwa. The British put an end to the title of the Peshwas by banishing Baji Rao to Bithur near Kanpur, where he died in 1853.

**Anglo-Maratha Wars**

**First War (1775-82)**

Favouring the cause of Raghunath Rao for Peshwaship, the British (Hastings) came into conflict with the Marathas. On being defeated, the British had to sign the humiliating Convention of Wadgaon. The British later signed the Treaty of Salbai, renouncing the cause of Raghoba.

**Second War (1803-06)**

The Peshwa signed the Subsidiary Alliance in the Treaty of Bassein (1802). The Maratha confederacy, which did not like the idea, challenged the British power but were defeated by the British.

**Third War (1817-18)**

Lord Hastings was determined to proclaim British paramountcy in India. His move against the Pindaris transgressed the sovereignty of the Maratha chief and the war began. The Marathas were decisively defeated.

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**The Sikhs**

Sikhism was established by ten prophet-teachers called Gurus over the period 1469 to 1708. Each Guru added to and reinforced the message taught by the previous one, resulting in the creation of Sikhism.

**Guru Nanak Dev (1469-1539)**

*First Guru* of the Sikhs. Founder of Sikhism. Preached the equality of all humans. The langar or free kitchen was started by Guru Nanak. Travelled extensively throughout India and foreign lands to spread his message. There are 947 hymns from Guru Nanak Dev included in the Guru Granth Sahib (Sikh holy book). Born in Talwandi, now known as Nankana Sahib.

**Guru Angad Dev (1504-52)**

Compiled the biography of Guru Nanak Dev, known as the Janam Sakhi. Introduced Gurmukhi script and encouraged people to learn Punjabi. There are 63 hymns from Guru Angad Dev included in the Guru Granth Sahib.

**Guru Amar Das (1479-1574)**

He encouraged the use of the langar to carry on the tradition, started by Guru Nanak, of communal eating. Guru Amar Das not only preached the equality of people but also tried to foster the idea of women’s equality.
Guru Ram Das (1534-81)
Founded the city of Amritsar in 1574.
Amritsar, literally meaning “the pool of nectar”, was gifted by the Mughal Emperor Akbar to Guru Ramdas.
The standard Sikh marriage ceremony, known as the Anand Karaj, is based on the Lawan, a four-stanza hymn composed by Guru Ram Das.

Guru Arjan Dev (1563-1606)
Guru Arjan was the fifth Guru and the youngest son of Guru Ram Das. He built the Golden Temple (Harmandir Sahib) at Amritsar in the middle of the lake constructed by the fourth Guru.
Compiled the Guru Granth Sahib in 1604.
Started the practice of daswandh (tithe) — contributing one tenth of one’s earnings for community purposes.
Guru Arjan was the first Sikh martyr.

Guru Hargobind (1595-1644)
Transformed the Sikhs by introducing martial arts and weapons for the defence of the masses.
Guru Hargobind put on two swords — one signifying miri (secular power) and the other piri (spiritual power).
Built the Akal Takht in 1608 at Amritsar in Punjab.

Guru Har Rai (1630-61)
Continued the military traditions started by his grandfather Guru Hargobind.

Guru Harkishan (1656-64)
Became Guru at the age of five.
Guru Harkishan cured the sick during a smallpox epidemic in Delhi.
He is sometimes called the Child Guru.
Gurdwara Bangla Sahib in New Delhi was constructed in this Guru’s memory. This is where the Guru stayed during his visit to Delhi.

Guru Tegh Bahadur (1621-75)
Built the city of Anandpur Sahib.
Guru Tegh Bahadur was martyred by Emperor Aurangzeb because he would not become a Muslim. Gurdwara Sis Ganj in Chandni Chowk in Delhi is located where he was martyred.

Guru Gobind Singh (1666-1708)
In 1699, Guru Gobind Singh baptized the Sikhs and created the Khalsa (“Pure”). The Khalsa consists of Sikhs who have been baptized and who dedicate themselves to living by the high standards of the Sikh Gurus at all times.
Instructed the Sikhs to keep the five K’s (Kesh, Kangha, Kripan, Kachchha and Kada).
Compiled the 1428-page Dasam Granth Sahib.
Author of several banis (hymns) which Sikhs recite daily: Jaap Sahib and Chaupai.
Wrote his autobiography, the Bichitra Natak.
Instructed Sikh males to use the last name of Singh (lion) and Sikh females to use the last name Kaur (princess).
All four sons of Guru Gobind Singh were martyred by the Mughals.
He was killed by a Pathan, Gul Khan, in 1708.
He instructed the Sikhs to follow the Granth Sahib as the Guru after him.

Guru Granth Sahib
The Guru Granth Sahib is the holy book of the Sikhs. It is the eternal spiritual guide of the Sikhs. The hymns provide broad guidelines for harmonious living.
Compiled by Guru Arjan Dev, it has the writings of the Sikh Gurus and other saints.
The Granth Sahib is kept in all gurdwaras and in many Sikh houses.
It contains a total of 5867 hymns in 1430 pages.

Anglo-Sikh Wars
Anglo-Sikh wars began after the death of Ranjit Singh in 1839.

First War (1845-46)
The Sikhs were defeated in all the four battles at Mudki, Feroz Pur, Aliwal and Sobraon. The Treaty of Lahore ended the War.

Second War (1848-49)
Dalhousie annexed Punjab.
Sir John Lawrence became the first Chief Commissioner of the Punjab.
The Coming of the British

The Portuguese

In 1498, Vasco da Gama successfully discovered a new sea route from Europe to India, which paved the way for direct Indo-European commerce. He reached Calicut (Kerala) on May 17, 1498, where he was received by king Zamorin. The Portuguese established their trading centre at Calicut, Cochin and Cannore. Cochin was the earlier capital of Portuguese in India. Later Goa replaced it. Francisco Almeida was the first Viceroy of the Portuguese in India. Alfonso Albuquerque succeeded Almeida as governor in 1509. He captured Goa from the ruler of Bijapur in 1510. Governor Nino da Cunha transferred the capital from Cochin to Goa (1530). The Portuguese lost Surat to the English. The Portuguese king presented Bombay to his son-in-law Prince Charles II of England as dowry. After Albuquerque, the Portuguese began to decline and, in the end, they were left only with Goa, Diu and Daman, which they retained till 1961.

The Dutch

In 1602, the Dutch East India company was established by a charter of Dutch parliament with a power to make war, acquire territory and build fortress. The Dutch East India company established their factories at Machlipatnam (1605), Pulicat (1610), Surat (1616), Bimilipatnam (1641), Baranagar, Patan, Balasore, Nagapattanam (all in 1658) and Cochin (1663). Pulicat was the Dutch’s main centre in India till 1690, after which Nagapattanam replaced it. The Dutch conceded to English after their defeat in the Battle of Bedara in 1759.

The British

The East India Company established its first factory in Surat. Captain William Hawkins arrived at Jahangir’s court (1609) to seek permission. A farman was issued by Jahangir permitting the English to build a factory at Surat (1613).

Sir Thomas Roe came to India as ambassador of James I to Jahangir’s court and established factories in different parts of the Empire.

The French

The first French factory was established at Surat by Francois Caron in 1668. The French had their factory at Masulipatnam also. They also occupied Mahe in the Malabar, Yanam in Coromandel and Karikal in Tamil Nadu. They eventually established at Chandranagar and Pondicherry.

Growth of British East India Company (1600-1714)

The British East India company had very humble beginning in India. By 1623, the British established their factory at Surat, Broach, Ahmedabad, Agra and Masulipatnam. The conditions in South India were favourable for the British because the strong kingdom of Vijaynagar had been overthrown and the region was ruled by petty and weak rulers. The English opened their first factory in South at Masulipatnam in 1611. But they soon shifted the centre of their activity to Madras, the lease of which was granted to them by the local raja in 1639. The English built a small fort around the factory called Fort St. George. On 11 May 1661, the marriage treaty of Charles II of England and Catherine of Braganza, daughter of King John IV of Portugal, placed Bombay in possession of the British Empire, as part of dowry of Catherine to Charles. The island of Bombay was acquired by the East India Company from the British Government in 1668. In 1717, the company secured from emperor Farrukh Siyar a firman confirming the privileges granted in 1691 and extending them to Gujarat and Deccan.

East India Company and The Nawabs of Bengal

Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula sieged the English factory at Kasim Bazar on 20th June 1756. Fort William was surrendered but Robert Clive recovered Calcutta in Jan 1757.
The Battle of Plassey was fought on 23rd June 1757. Owing to a conspiracy, the Nawab was defeated.

Mir Jafar (1757-60)
The Company was granted undisputed right to free trade in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. It received the Zamindari of 24 Parganas.

Mir Jafar, however, fell into arrears and was forced to abdicate in favour of his son-in-law Mir Qasim. He was again placed on the throne.

Mir Qasim (1760-64)
Mir Qasim ceded Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagong. He shifted his capital from Murshidabad to Monghyr. Mir Qasim soon revolted as he was angry with the British for misusing the dastaks (free duty passes). However, having been defeated by the British, he fled to Awadh, where he formed a confederacy with Shuja-ud-Daula and Shah Alam II.

Battle of Buxar (1764)
Shuja-ud-Daula, Shah Alam II and Mir Qasim were defeated by Munro.

Nizam-ud-Daula (1765-72)
On Mir Jafar’s death, his son Nizam-ud-Daula was placed on the throne.

Nizam-ud-Daula signed a treaty on 20th February, 1765, by which the Nawab was to disband most of his army and to administer Bengal through a Deputy Subedar nominated by the company.

Clive concluded two separate treaties of Allahabad with Shuja-ud-Daula and Shah Alam II.

Dual system of government started in Bengal. The Company acquired both Diwani and Nizamat rights from Nizam-ud-Daula, the new nawab of Bengal. But the company did not take over direct administration and revenue collection.

Warren Hastings ended the dual system of government in 1772.

Anglo-Mysore Wars

First War (1767-69)
Haider Ali defeated the British. The Treaty of Madras (1769) was signed.

Second War (1780-84)
Warren Hastings attacked the French port at Mahe, which was in Haider Ali’s territory.

Haider Ali led a joint front with the Nizam and Marathas and captured Arcot.

In 1781, Haider Ali was defeated at Porto Novo. The Treaty of Mangalore (1784) was signed by Tipu Sultan.

Third War (1790-92)
The Marathas and the Nizam aided the British in this war. Cornwallis captured Bangalore. Tipu ceded half of his territories by the Treaty of Seringapatnam (1792).

Fourth War (1799)
Lord Wellesley attacked and Tipu died.

Anglo-French Carnatic Wars

First War (1746-48)
The first Carnatic War was the fallout of the Austrian war of succession, in which France and England were in opposite camps. The English navy under Barnett captured a few French ships. The French Governor, Dupleix, besieged Madras, in 1746 both by land and sea.

Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle (1748): By this treaty the war of Austrian succession ended.

Second War (1750-54)
Dupleix aligned with Muzaffar Jung (Hyderabad) and Chanda Sahib (Carnatic).

After initial victories for the French, Robert Clive finally emerged victorious.

Third War (1758-63)
War of Wandiwash (1760): It was a war between the French under Conte de Lally and the British under Sir Eyre Coote. It was the decisive battle in Anglo-French struggle.

The French surrendered in 1761. Pondicherry was returneud to the French by the Treaty of Paris.

Land Revenue System

Permanent Settlement (1793)
Permanent Settlement introduced by Cornwallis on the basis of an enquiry conducted by Sir John Shore.

Introduced in Bengal, Orissa and district of Banaras and northern districts of Madras by Lord Cornwallis in 1793.

It declared the Zamindar the owner of the land. They had to fix the rate of land revenue. They kept for themselves 1/11 of the collected revenue and 10/11 was provided to the British.
History

Kundan

**Ryotwari System (1820)**

It was introduced in Bombay, Madras and Assam.

It was recommended by Thomas Munro (Governor) and Charles Read Elphinstone.

In this system, direct settlement of land revenue was made between government and ryot (cultivator).

The revenue was fixed for a period not exceeding 30 years, on the basis of quality of land nature of crops.

The position of cultivator became more secure but the rigid system of revenue collection often forced him into the clutches of the moneylender.

The government retained right to increase the rate of land revenue and cultivators were left to the wishes of Government officers.

**Mahalwari System (1822)**

It was recommended by Holt Mackenzie.

This modified version of Zamindari System was introduced in the Ganga Valley, the North West Frontier Province, parts of central India and Punjab.

Revenue settlement was to be made by village or estate owners. In western UP a settlement of Mahal consisted of a group of villages.

Revenue was periodically revised.

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<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>Atmiya Sabha</td>
<td>Rammohun Roy</td>
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<td>1828</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>Brahmo Samaj</td>
<td>Rammohun Roy</td>
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<td>1839</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>Tattvabadhini Sabha</td>
<td>Debendranath Tagore</td>
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<td>1849</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Paramhansa Mandli</td>
<td>Gopal Hari Deshmukh</td>
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<td>1861</td>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>Radha Swami Satsang</td>
<td>Tulsi Ram</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
<td>Brahmo Samaj of India</td>
<td>Keshab Chandra Sen</td>
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<td>1866</td>
<td>Deoband</td>
<td>Dar-ul-Ulum</td>
<td>Maulana Hussain Ahmed</td>
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<td>1867</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Prarthna Samaj</td>
<td>Atmaram Pandurang</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Arya Samaj</td>
<td>Swami Dayanand Saraswati</td>
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<td>1875</td>
<td>New York (USA)</td>
<td>Theosophical Society</td>
<td>Madam H.P. Blavatsky and Col H.S. Olcott</td>
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<tr>
<td>1884</td>
<td>Pune (Poona)</td>
<td>Deccan Educational Society</td>
<td>G.G. Agarkar</td>
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<td>1886</td>
<td>Aligarh</td>
<td>Muhammadan Educational Conference</td>
<td>Syed Ahmad Khan</td>
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<td>1887</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Indian National Social Conference</td>
<td>M.G Ranade</td>
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<td>1894</td>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>Nadwatul-Ulama</td>
<td>Maulana Shibli Numani</td>
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<td>1897</td>
<td>Belur</td>
<td>Ramakrishna Mission</td>
<td>Swami Vivekanand</td>
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<td>1904</td>
<td>Nasik</td>
<td>Abhinav Bharat</td>
<td>Vinayak Damodar Savarkar</td>
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<td>1905</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Servants of India Society</td>
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<td>1911</td>
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<td>Social Service League</td>
<td>N.M. Joshi</td>
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<td>1911</td>
<td>Allahabad</td>
<td>Allahabad Seva Samiti</td>
<td>H.N. Kunzru</td>
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<td>1912</td>
<td>Santiniketan</td>
<td>Vishwa Bharati</td>
<td>Rabindra Nath Tagore</td>
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**Socio-Religious Reform Movements**

**The Revolt of 1857**

**Nature of the revolt**

- A mutiny due to the use of greased cartridges — British historians
- A national revolt rooted in deep mistrust — Disraeli (Opposition Leader)
- First war of independence — VD Savarkar
- Civil rebellion — SB Choudhary

- Neither ‘first’ nor ‘national’ nor ‘a war of independence’ — R.C. Majumdar
- An effort by the conservative element to turn the clock back — SN Sen
- A soldier-peasant struggle against foreign and feudal bondage — Marxists
- Sepoy mutiny — Malleson

History ● 43
Causes of the revolt

Religious discrimination

British social reforms (widow remarriage, abolition of Sati, school for girls, Christian missionaries)
Rumours that Enfield rifles used greased cartridges (greased with pork or beef)

Military discrimination

Indian soldiers were paid low salaries; they could not rise above the rank of subedar and were racially insulted.
The soldiers were also distressed by the fact that their cherished Awadh state had been annexed by the British.

Political reasons

Nana Sahib was refused pension, as he was the adopted son of Peshwa Baji Rao II.
Lucknow was annexed in 1856 on charges of maladministration and Jhansi was annexed under the Doctrine of Lapse.

Economic grievances

Heavy taxation, summary eviction, discriminatory tariff policy against India products and destruction of traditional handicrafts that hit peasants, artisans and small zamindars

Beginning of the revolt

The earliest incident was the revolt in the 19th Native infantry in Berhampur.
29th March 1857: First spark of revolt at Barrackpore in Bengal where Mangal Pandey killed the British adjutant and was later hanged for firing on senior officers.
10th May 1857: Ninety sepoy of 3rd Native Regiment at Meerut revolted on the issue of the greased cartridges. After their trial and execution, the entire garrison in Meerut revolted and raised the battle cry of ‘Delhi Chalo’.

Centres of the revolt and their leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Leader(s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kanpur</td>
<td>Nana Sahib, Tantia Tope, Azimullah Khan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>Bahadur Shah II, Bakht Khan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lucknow</td>
<td>Begum Hazrat Mahal (Awadh), Maulvi Ahmadullah of Faizabad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jhansi</td>
<td>Rani Laxmi Bai</td>
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<td>Bareilly</td>
<td>Khan Bahadur Khan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arrah (Bihar)</td>
<td>Kunwar Singh of Jagdishpur</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Suppression of the revolt

Delhi: The British captured Delhi on September 20, 1857 after prolonged and bitter fighting. John Nicholson, the leader of the siege, was badly wounded and later succumbed to his injuries. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner. The royal princes were captured and butchered on the spot, publicly shot at point-blank range by Lieutenant Hudson himself. The emperor was exiled to Rangoon, where he died in 1862.
Kanpur: Sir Colin Campbell occupied Kanpur on December 6, 1857. Nana Saheb defeated at Kanpur, escaped to Nepal with Begum Hazrat Mahal.
Lucknow: It was recaptured on 21 March 1858 by Colin Campbell.
Jhansi: The Rani of Jhansi died in the battlefield in June 1858. Jhansi was recaptured through assault by Sir Hugh Rose.
Arrah: William Taylor and Eyre suppressed the revolt. By 1859, Kunwar Singh, Bakht Khan, Khan Bahadur Khan of Bareilly, Rao Sahib (brother of Nana Saheb) and Maulvi Ahmadullah were all dead.

Indian Nationalist Movement

The history of the Indian nationalist movement can be studied under three phases:
(i) The Indian National Congress and its Moderate phase (1885-1905)
(ii) Extremist phase (1905-19)
(iii) Gandhian phase (1919-47)

The Indian National Congress and Its Moderate Phase (1885-1905)

The phase of Congress activities covering the years between 1885 and 1905 is generally called the ‘moderate phase’ of the Congress.

Some of the great presidents of the Congress during this early phase were Dadabhai Naoroji, Pherozeshah Mehta, Anandacharlu, Surendranath Banerjea, Romesh Chandra Dutta, Ananda Mohan Bose and Gopal Krishna Gokhale.
The main aims of the Congress in its early phase were as follows:
To found a democratic, nationalist movement.
To formulate and present popular demands before the Government with a view to unifying the people over a common economic and political programme.
Dadabhai Naoroji, the ‘Grand Old Man of India’.
put forward the theory of economic drain in *Poverty and UnBritish Rule in India*.

The *drain theory*, popularised by Dadabhai Naoroji (Grand old man of India), RC Datta and others was an open indictment of Britain’s economic rule in India.

**Partition of Bengal**

- On 20 July 1805, Lord Curzon issued an order dividing the province of Bengal into two parts: (i) Bengal and (ii) East Bengal and Assam — East Bengal with a population of 31 million and Assam with a population of 54 million.
- The main aim of the British was to create a gulf between the Hindus and the Muslims on religious ground and to disrupt and weaken nationalism in Bengal.
- Partition of Bengal came into effect on October 16, 1905.

**Anti-Partition Movement**

- The anti-partition movement was initiated on August 7, 1905.
- October 16, 1905, the day the partition formally came into force, was observed as a day of mourning throughout Bengal.
- People fasted, bathed in the Ganga and walked barefoot in processions, singing *Bande Mataram*, which almost spontaneously became the theme song of the movement.
- Rabindranath Tagore composed the national song ‘Amar Sonar Bangla’, which was sung by huge crowds.
- Soon, the movement spread to other parts of the country in Poona and Bombay under Tilak, in Punjab under Lala Lajpat Rai and Ajit Singh, in Delhi under Syed Haider Raza and in Madras under Chidambaram Pillai.
- The veteran leader Ananda Mohan Bose laid the foundation of a Federation Hall to mark the indestructible unity of Bengal.

**Swadeshi and Boycott**

- ‘Swadeshi and Boycott’ was adopted as a protest movement against the partition of Bengal.
- The important aspect of the Swadeshi movement was the emphasis placed on *self-reliance* or *Atmasakti*.
- It involved programmes like boycott of Government services, English goods, English speech etc.
- The theory of Swadeshi was promoted to establish Indian textile mills, national banks, soap factories, tobacco factories, chemical work, tanneries, insurance companies and Swadeshi stores.
- Its initial objective was the annulment of the *partition of Bengal*, which was however soon superseded by the greater objective of attainment of India’s independence.
- The movement was suppressed by the British through repressive measures like imprisonment and deportation of its leaders in 1908.

**Extremist Phase (1905-1919)**

**Formation of Muslim League (1906)**

The Muslim League was formed at Dacca (Bangladesh) by Aga Khan in 1906. Nawab Salimullah of Dacca played an important role in its formation.

The objective of the League was to create a sense of loyalty among the Muslims towards the British government and to protect the political rights and other interests of the Muslim.

In 1905, Cama along with her friends designed the India’s first tricolour flag with green, saffron and red stripes bearing the immortal words – *Bande Mataram*. This flag was raised by Madam Cama on August 22, 1907, for India’s Independence at the International Socialist Conference in Stuttgart, Germany. After 35 years of fighting for India’s independence on foreign land, she returned to India and died on August 13, 1936.

**The Surat Split of 1907**

In December 1905, at the Benaras session of the Indian National Congress presided over by Gokhale, the Moderate-Extremist differences came to the fore. The Extremists wanted to extend the Boycott and Swadeshi Movements to regions outside Bengal and also to include all forms of associations.

The Moderates, on the other hand, were not in favour of extending the movement beyond Bengal and were totally opposed to boycott of councils and similar associations. The policies of Moderates and Extremists were different. Thus, the Moderates were determined to split. Therefore, the Congress split at the Surat came in December 1907.

**Home Rule movement**

Two Home Rule Leagues were established — one by BG Tilak in April 1916 at Poona and the other by Mrs Annie Besant and S Subramaniya Iyer in September 1916 at Adyar in Madras.

The aim of the movement was to attain Home Rule or self-government for India within British empires by constitutional means.

Inspired by the Gadar Party, 700 men of the 5th Light Infantry at Singapore revolted under the leadership of Jamadar Chisti Khan and Subedar Dundey Khan.

**Kamagata Maru Incident**

*Kamagata Maru* was the name of a ship which was carrying 370 passengers, mainly Sikh and Punjabi Muslim would-be immigrants, from Singapore to Vancouver. They were turned back by Canadian authorities after two months of privation and uncertainty. The ship finally anchored at Calcutta in September 1914. The inmates refused to board the Punjab-bound train. In the scuffle with the police at Budge Budge near Calcutta, 22 persons died.
Lucknow session of the Congress (1916)
The annual session of Congress was held at Lucknow. This session witnessed two historical developments.
(i) The two parts of the Congress — the Moderates and the Extremists — were reunited.
(ii) Equally significant was the unity between the Congress and the Muslim League at Lucknow session.
An important role in bringing the two together was played by Lokmanya Tilak and Mohammed Ali Jinnah because the two believed that India could win self-government only through Hindu-Muslim unity.
Annie Besant and Lokmanya Tilak played important role for bringing together the Extremists and the Moderates.

Gandhian Phase (1919-47)
The word Mahatma is taken from the Sanskrit words maha (Great) and atma (Soul). Rabindranath Tagore is said to have accorded the title Mahatma to Gandhi.
“Mahatma Gandhi came and stood at the door of India’s destitute millions, clad as one of themselves”: Rabindranath Tagore
“The only ray of light — He was the only ray of light to help us through these darkest days”: Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan
“Generations to come, it may be, will scarcely believe that such one as this ever in flesh and blood walked upon this earth”: Albert Einstein
“He was right, he knew he was right, we all knew he was right. The man who killed him knew he was right. However long the follies of the violent continue, they but prove that Gandhi was right. ‘Resist to the very end’, he said, ‘but without violence’. Of violence the world is sick. Oh, India, dare to be worthy of your Gandhi”: Pearl S. Buck
“Impressions of Gandhi? You might well ask for someone’s impression of the Himalayas”: Bernard Shaw
“Mahatma Gandhi will go down in history on a par with Buddha and Jesus Christ”: Earl Mountbatten

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi
Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born on 2nd October 1869 in Porbandar in Gujarat. After university, he went to London to train as a barrister. He returned to India in 1891 and in 1893 accepted a job at an Indian law firm in Durban, South Africa. Gandhi was appalled by the treatment of Indian immigrants there, and joined the struggle to obtain basic rights for them. During his 20 years in South Africa he was sent to prison many times. Influenced primarily by Hinduism, but also by elements of Jainism and Christianity as well as writers including Tolstoy and Thoreau, Gandhi developed method of direct action, first called “passive resistance” and subsequently described as “Satyagraha (devotion to truth)”, in South Africa. Satyagraha was a new non-violent way to redress wrongs. In 1914, the South African government conceded to many of Gandhi’s demands. Gandhi returned to India in January 1915.

Champaran Satyagraha (1917)
First Civil Disobedience: Gandhiji’s first civil disobedience movement was Champaran Satyagraha in 1917 in a district of Bihar.
Here indigo planters were compelled to grow on at least 3/20 of their land and to sell it at prices fixed by the planters.
The peasants of Champaran invited Gandhi to help them. Gandhi was accompanied by Babu Rajendra Prasad, Mazharul-Huq, JB Kriplani, Narhari Parikh and Mahadev Desai.
An enquiry committee was appointed by the government. Gandhiji as one of the members was successful in abolishing the Tin-Kathia system.

Ahmedabad Mill strike(1918): First hunger strike
Gandhi now intervened in a dispute between the mill owners of Ahmedabad and the workers over the issue of discontinuation of the plague bonus.
Bapu’s ‘Satyagraha’ fasting was undertaken to put pressure on his opponents, who finally agreed to give the workers an increase in wages.

Kheda Satyagraha, 1918
(First Non-Cooperation Movement)
The crops failed in 1918 in Kheda district of Gujarat. But the Government was not ready to remit the land revenue and insisted on its full collection.
It was the first non-cooperation experiment in which Gandhiji advised the peasants to hold the payment of revenue till they accepted the demand.
The struggle was withdrawn when the Government declared that revenue should be collected from only those peasants who could afford to pay.
Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel was one of Gandhiji’s followers in this Satyagraha.

Satyagraha against Rowlatt Act
(First All-India Satyagraha)
In 1919, British plans to intern people suspected of sedition — the Rowlatt Acts — prompted Gandhi to announce a new satyagraha which attracted millions of followers. The satyagraha was to be launched on April 6, 1919.
In December 1922, CR Das and Motilal Nehru formed the Swaraj Party, which won 42 seats out of 101 elected seats in the Indian National Congress. The party's popularity grew due to the leadership of Gandhi and other prominent leaders such as Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew and Dr. Satyapal. General Dyer, military commander, ordered to open fire on a large but unarmed crowd that had gathered in Jallianwala Bagh at Amritsar to protest against the arrest of their popular leader Udham Singh.

The Hunter Commission was appointed to probe into the incident. Gandhi described the report of the Commission as a whitewash. Rabindranath Tagore returned his knighthood in protest against the Jallianwala incident. Udham Singh killed General Dyer in England.

Gandhi was awarded the Kaisar-i-Hind (Emperor of India) gold medal in 1915 for distinguished service to the British Raj. In 1920, he returned the medal to protest the Jallianwala Bagh massacre.

On 13 April 1919, a Sikh teenager named Udham Singh, who was being raised at Khalsa Orphanage, saw the happening with his own eyes and avenged the killings of more than 1300 countrymen by killing Michael O'Dwyer in Caxton Hall of London. On 31st July, 1940, Udham Singh was hanged at Pentonville jail, London.

Khilafat and Non Cooperation Movement

The Non-Cooperation Movement (1919-22) is also called the Khilafat Movement. The unique feature of this movement was the united action by the Hindus as well as the Muslims. The Muslim community was attracted to the Khilafat Movement because of the shabby treatment meted out by the British to the Ottoman Empire and the Caliph of Turkey. The position of the Sultan of Turkey, who was regarded as head of the Muslim community (Caliph) all over the world, got undermined to a great extent.

The Khilafat Committee formally launched the Khilafat Movement on August 31, 1920. Immediately after this, the Indian National Congress convened a special session in September 1920 in Calcutta, where Gandhi presented a plan for non-cooperation with the government till the wrongs in Punjab and those in Turkey were mended by the British. Khilafat committee was formed under the leadership of the Ali brothers (Shaukat Ali and Muhammad Ali). Congress agreed with the plan of Gandhi and gave a call for boycotting the government educational institutions, offices and law courts. Call was also given to boycott foreign clothes and adopt Khadi.

After the Chauri Chaura incident of violence in 1922, the Movement was suspended by Gandhiji.

Chauri Chaura incident

Chauri Chaura is a small village in the Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh. On 5 February 1922, the police stationed there fired at a group of demonstrators. The demonstrators retaliated by burning down the police station, which caused the death of twenty-two policemen.

Gandhiji had all through the movement emphasized on peace and non-violence. This incident hurt him deeply and he called off the movement. In 1922, Gandhi himself was sentenced to six years' imprisonment. He was released after two years and withdrew from politics, devoting himself to trying to improve Hindu-Muslim relations, which had worsened.

Very soon the people of Turkey rose up under the leadership of Mustafa Kamal Pasha and, in November 1922, deprived the Sultan of his political power.

The Swarajists

The sudden calling off of the non-cooperation movement disappointed many of the Congress leaders. One school of thought headed by CR Das and Motilal Nehru advocated the end of the boycott of legislature so as to enter the council and expose the government’s weaknesses.

Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel and Rajendra Prasad and others opposed council entry. They came to be known as No Changers.

In December 1922, CR Das and Motilal Nehru formed Congress Khilafat Swarajist Party with Das as president. The party was popularly known as Swaraj Party.

On Gandhiji’s advice the party became ready to remain with Congress but worked in its own way. The Belgaon session (1924) of the Congress presided by Gandhiji endorsed the council entry.

Swaraj Party won 42 seats out of 101 elected seats in the Central Assembly with a clear majority in Central Province.

In 1925, Vithalbai Patel became the president of the Central assembly.

A group known as ‘Responsivists’, including Madan Mohan Malaviya, Lala Lajpat Rai and NC Kelkar, offered cooperation to government so that so-called Hindu interests might be safeguarded.

Simon Commission and Nehru Report

The Government of India Act, 1919, had provided that a review of the constitutional position would be made after ten years. However, the British Government appointed Royal Commission headed by Sir John Simon in 1927, two years ahead of time, to go into the question of constructional reforms. This Commission did not contain any Indian
members; its all-White composition was treated by the people of India as an affront to national dignity. When Simon landed in Bombay, he was treated with black flags and shouts of “Simon, go back”, and there was a countrywide hartal. Anti-Simon demonstrations took place all over the country. Lala Lajpat Rai, the “Lion of Punjab”, was struck with lathi blows of the police, and he died soon afterwards.

The Congress, on the other hand, appointed an all-party Constitution Committee to draft a new Constitution for India. As a result, there emerged a report drafted under the chairmanship of Motilal Nehru. Called the Nehru Report, it marked a watershed in the constitutional thinking of Indian nationalists. The Nehru report came up before the Calcutta Congress for approval. At the Calcutta Session of the Congress held in 1928, it was intended to pass a resolution declaring complete independence as the goal of India. However, Mahatma Gandhi intervened and Dominion Status was declared to be the goal of India. The year 1929 had been a year of waiting.

Lahore Session and Poorna Swaraj

When the Congress leaders met on the banks of the river Ravi, near Lahore, in 1929 they were disappointed over the attitude of the British Government. Leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru, Subhas Chandra Bose and Srinivas Iyengar asked for bold action against the Government. Nehru declared that complete independence should be the goal of the Congress. Mahatma Gandhi also approved of the goal. A resolution was passed that the word Swaraj in the Congress Constitution means “complete independence”. The All India Congress Committee was authorised to launch a programme of civil disobedience including the non-payment of taxes. On midnight of 31 December 1929, as the new year was ushered in, the Tri-colour Flag of Purna Swaraj was hoisted on the banks of the river Ravi by the Congress President, Jawaharlal Nehru.

26 January 1930 was declared the First Independence Day and a pledge was taken by the people of India on that date and the same independence pledge was repeated year after year.

Civil Disobedience Movement

Under the leadership of Gandhiji, the Civil Disobedience Movement was launched in AD 1930. It began with the Dandi March. On 12 March 1930, Gandhiji with some of his followers left the Sabarmati Ashram at Ahmedabad and made their way towards Dandi, a village on the west coast of India. After travelling for 25 days and covering a distance of 385 km, the group reached Dandi on 6 April 1930. Here, Gandhiji protested against the Salt Law (salt was a monopoly of the government and no one was allowed to make salt) by making salt himself and throwing up a challenge to the British government. The Dandi March signified the start of the Civil Disobedience Movement.

The movement spread and salt laws were challenged in other parts of the country. Salt became the symbol of people’s defiance of the government. In Tamil Nadu, C Rajagopalchari led a similar march from Trichinopoly to Vedaranyam. In Gujarat, Sarojini Naidu pretested in front of the salt depots. Lakhs of people, including a large number of women, participated in these protests actively.

In the North-West Frontier Province, the movement was led by Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan, popularly known as ‘Frontier Gandhi’, under the banner of his Khudai Khidmatgar (Servants of God) organization.

Chronology of events

12 March 1930: Dandi March was undertaken from Sabarmati Ashram to Dandi by Gandhiji.
23 March 1931: Bhagat Singh, Rajguru and Sukhdev were executed.
December 1931: Gandhi returned and launched Civil Disobedience Movement but the movement was brutally suppressed by force.
April 1934: The movement was withdrawn formally.

First Round Table Conference (1930)

The First Round Table Conference was organised in London in 1930 to discuss the Simon Commission Report. The Indian National Congress boycotted the Conference. The Nehru Report was represented by Mohammed Ali, Agha Khan, Fazl-ul-Haq and Jinnah.

Gandhi–Irwin Pact 1931

Lord Irwin agreed to release all political prisoners except Bhagat Singh, Rajguru and Sukhdev. Gandhiji agreed to suspend Civil Disobedience Movement and participate in the second session of Round Table Conference.

The spirit in which the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed did not last long. In spite of protests from all quarters, the Government carried out the execution of Sardar Bhagat Singh, Sukh Dev and Raj Guru on 23 March 1931. On 18 April 1931, Lord Irwin was succeeded by Lord Willingdon. The new Viceroy had no intention to abide by the terms of the Pact.

Second Round Table Conference (1931)

The Second Round Table Conference was held in London in September 1931. Gandhi went to England to attend it along with Sarojini Naidu, Mahadev Desai, G.D. Birla and Madan Mohan Malaviya. He powerfully advocated for the immediate grant of Dominion Status to India, but this was refused. This led to the failure of the Second Round Table Conference. Ramsay Mc Donald announced the formation of two new provinces, viz Sind and North-West Frontier, and three experts committees on finance.
Moreover, Gandhi discovered how the British wanted to apply “divide and rule” policy through their proposed constitution. On his return Gandhi resumed the Civil Disobedience movement in 1932.

When the Civil Disobedience movement was resumed, the Government took stern measures to suppress it. The new Viceroy, Lord Willingdon, was determined to crush it. The Congress was declared an illegal body and special ordinances were made to arrest the satyagrahis. Gandhi and many other Congress leaders were arrested in January 1932. Over a lakh of satyagrahis were jailed and the properties of some of them were confiscated.

Third Round Table Conference

The Third Round Table Conference was scheduled to be held in London (1932). The Congress did not participate in it. The discussion led to the passing of the Government of India Act, 1935.

1. In 1931 Gandhi ji arrived in England to attend the Second Round Table Conference to mediate for peace between the British government and the Indian Independence Movement. Huge crowds of people poured on the streets of London to have a glimpse of him, for he was dressed in a loincloth, like the poorest of Indians whom he came to represent. Hundreds would gather to listen to this “Nanga Fakir” (as Mr. Winston Churchill used to call him).
2. Ramsay Mac Donald was the prime minister of England at the time of Round Table Conferences.
3. Dr. Bhimrao Ambedkar attended all Round Table Conferences.

Communal Award and Poona Pact (1932)

The Communal Award was announced by the British Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald in August 1932. The Muslims, Sikhs and Christians had already been recognised as minorities. The Communal Award declared the depressed classes also to be minorities and entitled them to separate electorates.

Gandhi saw the Communal Award as an attack on Indian unity and nationalism.

The provision for depressed classes was objected by Gandhiji and he decided to go on fast unto death in Yervada Jail.

This decision brought about negotiations with BR Ambedkar and Gandhiji through Poona Pact (24 September, 1932), by which a common electorate of all Hindus was agreed upon with reserved seats for depressed classes in the central and provincial legislatures.

The text uses the term “Depressed Classes” to denote untouchables, who were later called Scheduled Castes under India Act 1935, and the later Indian Constitution of 1950.

Gandhi’s Harijan Campaign

While in Yervada Jail, Gandhiji had set up All India Anti-Untouchability League in September 1932 and had started the weekly Harijan (children of God) in January 1933.

After his release, he shifted to the Satyagraha Ashram in Wardha as he had vowed in 1930 not to return to Sabarmati Ashram unless Swaraj was won.

After this, Gandhi put aside political activities and devoted himself to the service of the Harijans and other constructive work.

Government of India Act, 1935

It provided for the establishment of an All-India Federation consisting of provinces and princely states as units.

The Act divided the powers between the Centre and units in terms of three lists—Federal List (59 items), Provincial List (54 items) and the Concurrent List (36 items). Residuary powers were vested with the Viceroy.

It abolished dyarchy in the provinces and they were allowed to act as autonomous units of administration in their defined spheres.

It provided for the adoption of dyarchy at the Centre.

In the elections to the Central Legislative Assembly held in November 1934, the Congress captured 45 out of 75 seats reserved for Indians.

In February 1937, elections to the provincial assemblies were held.

The Congress contested 716 out of 1161 seats.

Congress ministries were formed in Bombay, Madras, Central Provinces, Orissa, UP, Bihar and later in NWFP and Assam also.

Second World War and Indian freedom struggle

The Second World War began on 1st September, 1939. Two days later, the Viceroy of India declared war against Germany without consulting or taking into confidence the Indian leaders. Indian troops were sent to the various theatres of war for the defence of the British Empire. All Congress members decided to resign in the provinces against this move. This day (22 December 1939) was celebrated by the Muslim League as a “Day of Deliverance”.

August Offer (1940)

On August 8 1940, Lord Linlithgow offered a set of proposals to the Congress for securing its cooperation during the Second World War.

It turned down the Congress demand of setting up the
provisional National Government but made the following proposals:

1. A representative Constitution-making body to be set up after the war
2. Increase in the number of Indians in the Governor’s Executive Council
3. A war advisory council to be set up.

**Individual satyagraha (1940)**

It was decided to launch satyagraha in support of the issue of freedom of speech. On October 17, individual satyagraha commenced and Vinobha Bhave was the first nominee. Pandit Nehru was to follow him but was arrested on October 31, 1940, and was sentenced to 4 years’ imprisonment. The campaign thus went on smoothly for 14 months.

**Cripps Mission (1942)**

The spectacular success of Japan and the pressure of the allies of Britain during the early months of 1942 forced the British Government to make a serious attempt to end the deadlock in India. On March 11, 1942, Mr. Churchill announced that Sir Stafford Cripps, a member of the War Cabinet, would go to India to explain certain constitutional proposals. An Indian union with a dominion status would be set up of the British provinces, princely states and chief commissionary areas. All political parties rejected the proposal. Mahatma Gandhi remarked that the Cripps offer was a post-dated cheque on a crashing bank.

**Quit India Movement (1942)**

Soon after the departure of Cripps, Gandhiji decided that the time for sterner policy and programme had come. The All India Congress Committee met at Bombay on August 8, 1942 and passed the famous Quit India resolution proposing to start a non-violent mass struggle to achieve this aim. On this occasion Gandhiji gave his famous call of “Do or Die”.

But before the Congress could start the movement, the Government arrested all the popular leaders, including Gandhiji.

A number of Congress leaders like Jai Prakash Narain, Ram Manohar Lohia and Aruna Asaf Ali went underground and carried out the struggle from there.

**Indian National Army (INA)**

Subhas Chandra Bose had escaped from India in March 1941 to go to the Soviet Union for help. But when the Soviet Union joined the allies in June 1941, he went to Germany.

The idea of the Indian National Army (INA) was first conceived by Mohan Singh at Malaya. The first division of INA formed in September 1942 with the Japanese help. The more vigorous phase of INA began with the arrival of Subhas Chandra Bose at Singapore in July 1943. He set up the Azad Hind government, adopted tri-colour flag and gave the slogan ‘Jai Hind’. Subhas Bose set up two INA headquarters at Rangoon and Singapore.

Even a women’s regiment called the Rani Jhansi regiment was formed.

Subhas Bose was the first to address Gandhiji as the Father of the Nation in his appeal on the Azad Hind radio from Singapore.

In May 1944 INA captured Mowdok (Manipur) and INA chief Shah Nawaz Khan hoisted the tri-colour flag on Indian soil. The Japanese Government handed over the Andaman and Nicobar Islands to him.

Unfortunately Japan was defeated and forced to retreat from the Indo-Bhutan border and ultimately the INA troop had to surrender before the British. The INA troops had to surrender before the British Army in 1945.

**INA Trials**

The government decided to put on trial the prisoners of INA. The defence of the INA prisoners was taken up by the Congress. Bhula Bhai Desai, Tej Bahadur Sapru, KN Katju, Nehru and Asaf Ali appeared in the court at the historic Red Fort.

**C. Rajagopalachari Formula (1945)**

In 1944, C. Rajagopalachari proposed that after the termination of the war, a Commission could be appointed for demarcating contiguous districts in the north-west and east where Muslims were in absolute majority. In the areas thus demarcated, a plebiscite would be held on the basis of adult suffrage that would ultimately decide the issue of separation from Hindustan. Jinnah objected, as he wanted Congress to accept two-nation theory and wanted only Muslims of the northwest and east of India to vote in the plebiscite. Hindu leaders led by V.D. Savarkar condemned the plan.

**Simla Conference (1945)**

The conservative government in Britain led by Churchill was keen to reach a solution on the question of constitution in India. For this purpose, a conference was convened by the viceroy, Lord Wavell, at Simla in June 1945.

Talks suggested setting up of a new executive council with only Indian members, and Hindus and Muslims were to have equal representation.

Talks broke down due to Jinnah’s demand for the Muslim
League to have absolute choice in choosing all Muslim members and a demand for communal veto.

Cabinet Mission (1946)

The Attlee Government announced in February 1946 the decision to send a high-powered mission of three British Cabinet members (Pethick Lawrence, Secretary of State for India; Stafford Cripps, President of the Board of Trade; and A.V. Alexander, First Lord of Admiralty) to India to find out ways and means for a negotiable peaceful transfer of power to India. The plan proposed rejection of the demand of a full-fledged Pakistan.

On 29 July 1946, Jinnah withdrew his earlier acceptance of the plan and fixed 16 August 1946 as Direct Action Day. Interim government came into existence on 2nd September 1946 in accordance with Cabinet Mission’s proposal and was headed by J.L. Nehru.

Mountbatten Plan (3rd June Plan)

In 1945, the British government began negotiations which culminated in the Mountbatten Plan of June 1947, and the formation of the two new independent states of India and Pakistan, divided along religious lines. Massive inter-communal violence marred the months before and after independence. Gandhi was opposed to partition, and now fasted in an attempt to bring calm in Calcutta and Delhi. On 30 January 1948, he was assassinated in Delhi by a Hindu fanatic Nathuram Godse.

Independence of India Act, 1947

On July 18, 1947 the British Parliament ratified the Mountbatten Plan as the “Independence of India Act 1947”. The Act was implemented on August 15, 1947. The Act provided for the creation of two independent dominions of India and Pakistan with effect from August 15, 1947. Each dominion was to have a governor-general to be responsible for effective operation of the Act.

Governors-General and Viceroyys

Governors-General

Warren Hastings (1772-85)
Governor of Bengal in 1772 for two years. After enactment of Regulating Act 1773, he became the first Governor-General of Bengal in 1774. End of Dual system of administration set up by Clive. Appointment of collectors to manage revenue affairs. Transfer of the treasury from Murshidabad to Calcutta. The districts of Allahabad and Kora sold to the Nawab of Awadh. Regulating Act of 1773. The Supreme Court was set up at Calcutta in 1774. The Rohilla war between the Rohillas and the Nawab of Awadh (1774) The trial and execution of Nand Kumar (1775) The first Anglo-Maratha war, 1776-82 Treaty of Salbai in 1782. The second Anglo-Mysore war, 1780-84. Pitt’s India Act of 1784. Foundation of Asiatic Society of Bengal by William Jones in 1784. Hastings was impeached in England, under the charge of taking bribes but later he was acquitted.

Lord Cornwallis (1786-93)
Established lower grade courts and appellate courts. The Third Anglo-Mysore war, 1790-92. To suppress bribery, he increased the salaries of the employees of the company and police officers. Introduction of the permanent settlement in Bengal and Bihar. Introduction of the Cornwallis Code on the basis of distribution of powers in 1793. Introduction of civil service in India. Cornwallis is called the father of Civil Services in India.

Sir John Shore (1793-98)
Famous for his policy of non-intervention.

Lord Wellesley (1798-1805)
Introduction of Subsidiary Alliance system in 1798, to bring Indian states under the control of British political power. The fourth Anglo-Mysore war (1799). Treaty of Bassein between Baji Rao II and the English (1802). The second Anglo-Maratha war (1803-1805). The first subsidiary treaty was signed with the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1798.
Hyderabad (1798), Tanjore (1799), Awadh (1801), Peshawar (1802), Bhonsle (1803), Sindhi (1804), Indore (1817), Jaipur and Jodhpur (1818) were brought under the rule of British.

Formation of Madras presidency in 1801.

Sir George Barlow (1805-07)

Mutiny at Vellore in 1806.
Treaty of Amritsar with Ranjit Singh (1809).

Lord Hastings (1813-23)

Ended the policy of non-intervention.
Military operation against the Pindaris (1817-18).
Abolition of Peshwaship and annexation of all his territories in 1818.
Treaty of Sugauli (1818) between the Gurkhas and the English.
Creation of Bombay presidency in 1818.
By 1818, all the Indian territories, except the Punjab and Sindh, had been brought under British control.
Gurkha war (The Anglo-Nepal war, 1814-16).
Abolished the censorship of press.
Ryotwari system in Madras established by the governor Thomas Munro.
Ryotwari and Mahalwari systems introduced in Bombay by Governor Elphinstone.
In the north-western provinces the Mahalwari system was introduced.

Lord William Bentinck (1825-35)

Governor-General of Bengal from 1825 to 1833.
The Charter Act of 1833 passed.
After enactment of the Charter Act of 1833, he became the first Governor-General of India.
Known as liberal Governor-General.
Passed various social reform Bills.
Abolition of Sati in 1829.
Suppression of infanticide and child sacrifices.
Suppression of Thuggee, 1829-1835.
English was accepted as the official language of India after recommendations of Macaulay.
First time a law member, Macaulay, was appointed in the executive council.
Opium trade was regularised, licensed and duty paid.
Salaries of civil servants were reduced and so were the allowances of military officers.
In higher courts Persian was replaced by English as the court language.
Established the Agra province in 1834.
Annexation of Mysore, Kachhar and Coorg (Southern Malabar).

Sir Charles Metcalfe (1835-1836)

Called as ‘Liberator of the Indian press’, he removed all the restrictions on the press.

Lord Auckland (1836-42)

First Afghan War (1838-42)

Lord Ellenborough (1842-44)

Annexation of Sindh (1843)

Lord Hardinge I (1844-48)

Suppression of human sacrifices
First Anglo-Sikh War (1845-1846)

Lord Dalhousie (1848-56)

Introduced the Doctrine of Lapse for annexing the dependent states whose ruler died without a natural heir to succeed him.
Some important Indian states — Satara, Uadipur, Jhansi and Nagpur — were annexed by the enforcement of the Doctrine of lapse.
Charles Wood’s Dispatch on Indian education was accepted. It is called the Magna Carta of British education.
First railway line between Bombay and Thane opened (1853).
Postal and Telegraph system was established.
First telegraph line between Calcutta and Agra.
A new Post Office Act, 1854 was passed and first-time postage stamps were issued.
Established public works department. The object of this department was the construction and maintenance of canals, roads, bridges etc.
Second Anglo-Sikh War and annexation of Punjab in 1849
Abolition of titles and pensions
Headquarters of the Bengal Artillery were shifted from Calcutta to Meerut.
Simla became the summer capital of India and permanent headquarters of the Army.
Competitive exams of Indian Civil Services were started. Annexation of Pegu (lower Burma)
The Santhal insurrection in 1855
Gorkha regiment formed
The Charter Act of 1853 passed

Lord Canning (1856-1857)

Universities of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras were set up in 1857.
Viceroy’s

After the *Government of India Act, 1858*, the Governor-General was called Viceroy.

**Lord Canning (1857-1862)**

First Viceroy of India
Transfer of Indian administration to the British crown.
Sir Edward Drummond took charge in November, 1860 as the first *Auditor General of India*.

**Indian Council Act of 1861**: Through this Act central and provincial legislative council was established.

Official end of Dalhousie’s Doctrine of Lapse in 1859
The Indian Penal Code (1858), Code of Criminal Procedure (1859) and High Court Act (1861) introduced.

**Indigo Revolt** (1859-60) by the indigo farmers of Bengal

**Lord Elgin I** (1862-63)

Suppressed the Wahabi Revolt.

**Lord John Lawrence (1864-69)**

Establishment of high courts at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1865

Lord Mayo (1869-72)

Decentralization of finance
For the first time in India, a census was held in 1871.
A council for statistical survey in India was organised.
He was assassinated by a Pathan in Andaman.
Establishment of Mayo College at Ajmer

**Lord North Brook (1872-76)**

Kuka movement in Punjab in 1872
Visit of Prince of Wales to India
Abolition of Income Tax

**Lord Lytton (1876-80)**

Parliament passed the Royal Titles Act of 1876 and queen Victoria got the title of *Empress of India*.

**Vernacular Press Act** (1878) was passed. This act was also called the *Gagging Act*.
Lord Lytton held a *Durbar at Delhi* in 1877, where the queen was declared ‘Kaiser-i-Hind’.
A famine committee under Sir Richard Strachey was appointed.
The maximum age limit for candidates of Indian Civil Services (ICS) exams was lowered from 21 years to 19.

**Lord Ripon (1880-84)**

He was appointed by the Liberal party under Gladstone.
The first *Factory Act* of 1881.

Repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, 1882.
The first organised census was held in 1881.
Appointment of the *Hunter Commission* on school education in 1882
The Ilbert Bill was prepared by the law member of the viceroy’s council, Sir CP Ilbert.
Local self-government acts were passed in various provinces during 1883-85.
Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya said: “Ripon was the greatest and the most beloved viceroy India has known.”

**Lord Dufferin (1884-88)**

Formation of the *Indian National Congress* on 28 Oct 1885 in Bombay.

**Lord Lansdowne (1888-94)**

The Indian Council Act 1892 passed
The Age of Consent Bill passed
Organisation of the *Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental Defence Association* of Upper India (1893)
Demarcation of the Afghan boundary (Durand line)
Tilak celebrates the Ganapati festival (1893).

**Lord Elgin II** (1894-99)

The convention delimiting the frontier between China and India was ratified.
Lyall commission appointed after famine
Assassination of two British officials by the Chapekar brothers in 1897.

**Lord Curzon (1899-1905)**

A famine commission was appointed under the presidency of Sir Anthony MacDonnell.
The Indian coinage and paper currency act of 1899
He passed the *Ancient Monuments Act, 1904* and also founded the *Archaeological Department*.
Partition of Bengal on 16th October, 1905 (It was cardinal blunder of Curzon.)
Shyamji Krishna Verma founded *India House* in London (1905).

**Lord Minto II (1905-10)**

Partition of Bengal was reversed in 1911.
Muslim League was formed in 1906 at Dacca.
Execution of Khudiram Bose on 30th April, 1908.
Tilak sentenced to six years’ transportation on the charge of sedition
Surat Session and split in the congress (1907).

**Lord Hardinge II (1910-16)**

Partition of Bengal was reversed in 1911.
A grand Durbar was held at Delhi in honour of King...
George V and Queen Mary.
It was declared to transport the capital of British India from Calcutta to Delhi in 1911.
Capital of India shifted from Calcutta to Delhi in 1912.
Bomb thrown at Lord Hardinge on his state entry into Delhi.
Ghadar Party formed by Lala Hardayal at San Francisco in 1913 began the Ghadar movement.
Establishment of Hindu Mahasabha by Madan Mohan Malviya in 1915

Lord Chelmsford (1916-21)
Formation of two Home Rule Leagues — one by Bal Gangadhar Tilak at Pune and the other by Mrs Annie Besant at Madras.
Arrival of Gandhi and Champaran Satyagraha in 1916
Saddler commission of education in 1917
Kheda Satyagraha and Satyagraha at Ahmedabad in 1918
The Government of India Act of 1919 (Montagu–Chelmsford reforms), which introduced dyarchy in the provinces.
Under the Montagu–Chelmsford reforms of 1919, the Auditor General became independent of the Government.
The Jallianwala Bagh Massacre on 13 April, 1919
Khilafat movement (1919-20)
Non-cooperation movement (1920-22)
Rowlatt Act, 1919
Moplah Rebellion on the Malabar Coast

Lord Reading (1921-26)
Violent incidents at Chauri Chaura led Gandhiji to call off the Non-Cooperation Movement 1922.
Kakori robbery in 1925
CPI founded in 1921
RSS founded in 1925

Lord Irwin (1926-31)
Appointment of Simon Commission in 1927
The Simon Commission came to India in 1928
In 1928, Nehru report recommended principles for the new constitution of India.
In Lahore session of 1929, Congress adopted the goal of Complete independence for India.
Civil disobedience movement started in 1930.
Gandhiji began Dandi March to manufacture illegal salt (March 12th, 1930).
Gandhi-Irwin pact of 1931
Jawaharlal Nehru hoisted the tricolour of Indian Independence on the bank of the river Ravi at Lahore on 1st January, 1930.
All India Youth Congress, 1928

Lord Willingdon (1931-36)
Second Round Table conference in 1931
Ramsay MacDonald announced the Communal Award (modified by the Poona Pact) in 1932.
Third Round Table Conference in 1932
The Government of India Act, 1935 passed
Civil Disobedience movement in 1933.
Foundation of Congress Socialist Party in 1934
Burma separated from India in 1935
All India Kisan Sabha, 1936

Lord Linlithgow (1936-43)
First General Election (1936-37)
Forward Bloc founded in 1939 by Subhash Chandra Bose
Deliverance Day by Muslim League (1939)
August Offer, 1940
Cripps Mission, 1942
Quit India Movement, 1942

Lord Wavell (1943-47)
C. Rajagopalachari's formula (or CR formula or Rajaji formula), 1944.
End of the Second World War, 1945
Cabinet Mission, 1946, and acceptance of its proposals by the Congress
Direct Action Day by the Muslim League on 16th August, 1946
British Prime Minister Clement Attlee’s announcement of 20th February 1947 that power would be transferred to the Indians by June 1948

Lord Mountbatten (1947-48)
Last British viceroy of India
First Governor-General of India after Independence
Announced the June 3, 1947 plan.
Indian Independence Act of 1947
Partition of India and Pakistan came into being on 14th August, 1947.
Appointment of two boundary commissions under Sir Cyril Radcliffe.

C. Rajagopalachari (1948-50)
The last Governor-General of free India.
The only Indian Governor-General, he remained in office from 21st June, 1948 to 25th January, 1950.
He prepared a formula for Congress–League cooperation. Gandhiji supported this formula.
The printing press was introduced in the country by the Portuguese. The English East India Company established a printing press in Bangalore in 1684. In May 1799, the first Press regulations were issued requiring newspaper to carry the names of the printer, the editor and the proprietor.

James Buckingham and Raja Rammohan Roy were great fighters for freedom of the Press at this period. Vernacular Press Act 1878, Newspaper Act 1908, Indian Press Act 1910 and Indian Press Act 1931 were passed during the British rule. Raja Ram Mohan Roy is known as the Pioneer of Journalism.

**Important Books of Indian Freedom Struggle Era**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book</th>
<th>Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Causes of the Indian Revolt</td>
<td>Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gulamgiri</td>
<td>Jyotibha Phule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To All Fighters, Why Socialism?</td>
<td>JP Narayan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakhtoon</td>
<td>Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem of the Far East</td>
<td>Lord Curzon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My Indian Years: 1910-1916</td>
<td>R.C. Dutt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic History of India</td>
<td>Bibhubhushan Banerji</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pather Panchali</td>
<td>Syed Ameer Ali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Spirit of Islam</td>
<td>Raja Ram Mohan Roy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Precepts of Jesus</td>
<td>Raja Ram Mohan Roy</td>
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<tr>
<td>A Gift of Monotheists</td>
<td>Swami Dayanand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satyarth Prakash</td>
<td>Bankim C. Chatterji</td>
</tr>
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<td>Anand Math</td>
<td>Bankim C. Chatterji</td>
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<tr>
<td>Devi Chaudharani</td>
<td>Bankim C. Chatterji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sitaram</td>
<td>SC Bose</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Indian Struggle</td>
<td>Dadabhai Naoroji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty and Un-British Rule in India</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gitanjali</td>
<td>Rabindranath Tagore</td>
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<tr>
<td>India for Indian</td>
<td>Chittaranjan Das</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India Wins Freedom</td>
<td>Maulana Abul Kalam Ajad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Nation in the Making</td>
<td>S.N. Banerji</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unhappy India</td>
<td>Lala Lajpat Rai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Indian War of Independence</td>
<td>V.D. Savarkar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India Divided</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Discovery of India</td>
<td>Rajendra Prasad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neel Darpan</td>
<td>J.L. Nehru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hind Swaraj</td>
<td>Dinbandhu Mitra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What Congress and Gandhi Have Done to the Untouchables</td>
<td>M.K. Gandhi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Indian War of Independence, 1857</td>
<td>B.R. Ambedkar</td>
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<td>V.D. Savarkar</td>
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**Paper/Journal**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper/Journal</th>
<th>Founder/Editor</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bengal Gazette</td>
<td>James Augustus Hicky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mirat-ul-Akbar</td>
<td>Raja Ram Mohan Roy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1st newspaper in Persian)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Calcutta Journal</td>
<td>James Silk Buckingham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samvod-Kaumudi</td>
<td>Raja Ram Mohan Ray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rast Gofar</td>
<td>Girishchandra Ghosh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hindi Patriot</td>
<td>Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar</td>
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<td>Som Prakasha</td>
<td>Devendranath Tagore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Mirror</td>
<td>BG Tilak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kesari</td>
<td>Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pratap</td>
<td>Abul Kalam Azad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Al-Hilal</td>
<td>Gandhiji</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young India</td>
<td>Annie Besant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonweal</td>
<td>Bhikaji Madam Cama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bande Mataram</td>
<td>Girishchandra Ghosh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amrit Bazar Patrika</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Calcutta Statesman</td>
<td>(taken over by S.N. Banerjea in 1879)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugantar</td>
<td>Robert Knight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhya</td>
<td>Barindranath Ghosh and Bhubendra Kumar Dutta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Sociologist</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Free Hindustan</td>
<td>Brahmabandhab Upadhayay</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bombay Chronicle</td>
<td>Shyamji Krishna Varma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Milap (Urdu)</td>
<td>Taraknath Das</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Pherozeesh Mehta and BG Horniman</td>
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<td>MK Chand</td>
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<td>Madan Mohan Malaviya</td>
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**Bahiskrit Bharat** (Marathi) BR Ambedkar

**Kudi Arasu** (Tamil) EV Ramaswamy Naicker

**Kranti** SS Mirajkar, KN Joglekar and SV Ghate

**Bandi Jivan** Sachindranath Sanyal

**National Herald** Jawaharlal Nehru
Development of Education

The Calcutta Madrasa was established by Warren Hastings in 1781 for the study of Muslim law and related subjects.
The Sanskrit College was established by Jonathan Duncan, the resident at Banaras, in 1791 for the study of Hindu law and philosophy.
Fort William College was set up by Wellesley in 1800 for training of civil servants of the Company in languages and customs of Indians.

Charter Act of 1813

The Act directed the Company to sanction one lakh rupees annually for education, but the amount was not made available till 1823.
With the efforts of enlightened Indians such as Raja Ram Mohan Roy, a grant was sanctioned for Calcutta College set up in 1817 by educated Bengalis.
The Government also set up three Sanskrit colleges at Calcutta, Delhi and Agra.

Lord Macaulay’s Minute (1835)

Lord Macaulay’s Minute (1835) settled the row in favour of the Anglicists – the limited government resources were to be devoted to teaching of Western sciences and literature through the medium of English language alone.
Lord Macaulay held the view that “Indian learning was inferior to European learning” – which was true as far as physical and social sciences in the contemporary stage were concerned.
By this act, the British planned to educate a small section of upper and middle classes, thus creating a class “Indian in blood and colour but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect”.

Wood’s Dispatch (1854)

It is considered as the “Magna Carta of English Education in India”.
It asked the Government of India to owe responsibility for education of the masses.
It systematised the hierarchy from vernacular primary schools in villages at bottom, followed by Anglo-vernacular High Schools and an affiliated College at the district level, and affiliating universities in the presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.
It recommended English as the medium of instruction for higher studies and vernaculars at school level.

It laid stress on female and vocational education, and on teacher training.
It recommended a system of grants in aid to encourage private enterprises.
In 1857, universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were set up.
An Agriculture Institute at Pusa and an Engineering Institute at Roorkee were started.

Hunter Education Commission (1882-83)

In 1882, the Government appointed a commission under the chairmanship of W.W. Hunter to review the progress of education in the country since the dispatch of 1854. The Hunter Commission mostly confined its recommendations to primary and secondary education.
It recommended that primary education should be imparted through vernacular.
It recommended transfer of control of primary education to newly set-up districts and municipal boards.
It recommended that secondary (High School) education should have two divisions: (1) Literary — leading upto University and (2) Vocational — for commercial careers.

Indian Universities Act, 1904

In 1902, the Raleigh Commission was set up to go into conditions and prospects of universities in India and to suggest measures for improvement in their constitution and working.
Conditions were to be made stricter for affiliation of private colleges.
Five lakh rupees was to be sectioned per annum for five years for improvement of higher education and universities.
Gokhale called it a “retrograde measure”.

Saddler University Commission (1917-19)

It recommended that school course should cover 12 years. Students should enter university after an intermediate stage (rather than matric) for a three-year degree course in university.
A separate board of secondary and intermediate education should be set up for administration and control of secondary and intermediate education.
A university should function as a centralized entity and
there should be more applied scientific and technological education for women.

**Hartog Committee (1929)**

According to it, emphasis should be laid on primary education but there need be no hasty expansion or compulsion in education. Only deserving students should go in for high school and intermediate stage, while average students should be diverted to vocational courses after VIII standard.

**Wardha Scheme of Basic Education**

A National Conference on Education was organized in 1937. It passed a resolution on education. In the light of the resolution, Zakir Hussain Committee formulated a detailed national scheme for basic education which aimed at ‘learning through activity’. The scheme included basic handicraft in the syllabus. It provided first seven years’ schooling compulsorily nationwide through mother tongue. It defused the method which established contact with the community around schools through service. There was not much development of this idea because of the start of the Second World War and resignation of Congress ministries.

**Radhakrishnan Commission (1948-49)**

The commission was set up to report on university education in the country.

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**Civil Rebellions and Tribal Uprisings (1757-1900)**

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**Sanyasi Revolt**

The British government imposed restrictions on visits to holy places by Sanyasis. The Sanyasis retaliated by organizing raids on the Company’s factories. This revolt was contained by Warren Hastings.

**Ho Uprising**

The Ho and Munda tribesmen of Chhotanagpur challenged the Company’s forces and the area remained disturbed till 1837.

**Kol Mutiny (1831)**

The Kols of Chhotanagpur, under the leadership of Budho Bhagat, revolted against the large-scale transfer of land from Kol headmen (Mundas) to outsiders like Sikh and Muslim farmers.

**Kandh Uprising (1837-56)**

The Kandhs retaliated under Chakra Bisoi against the British efforts to put an end to the Kandh practice of human sacrifice (Mariah).

**Santhal Uprising (1854)**

The Santhals of Rajmahal Hills under Sidhu and Kanhu Murmu rose up against the oppression by revenue officials, police, moneylenders, landlords and outsiders (Diku). A separate district of Santhal Parganas was created by the Government to pacify the Santhals.

**Ahom Revolt (1828)**

The British attempt to incorporate the Ahom territories in the Company’s dominion sparked off a rebellion under the leadership of Gomdhar Konwar. Finally Government handed over Upper Assam to Maharaja Purandar Singh Narendra and part of the kingdom was restored to the Assamese king.

**Khasi Uprising**

The East India Company wanted to build a road linking the Brahmaputra valley with Sylhet. For this purpose a large number of labourers from the plains were brought to the hilly region between Garo and Jaintia. The Khasis, Garos, Khamptis and Singhopos organized themselves under Tirath Singh to drive away the strangers. The rising was suppressed by the British by 1833.

**Pagal Panthis (1825-40)**

Karam Shah was the founder of the Pagal Panth, a semi-religious sect. Tipu, the politically motivated son of Karam Shah, captured Sherepur in 1825 and assumed royal power.

**Faraizi Revolt (1838-1857)**

The Faraizis were the followers of a Muslim sect founded by Haji Shariat-Ul-ah of Faridpur in Eastern Bengal. He organized his followers with an aim to expel the English intruders from Bengal.
Munda Revolt
The Mundas of Chhotnagpur rose under Birsa Munda against the intrusion of jagirdars, thikadars (revenue farmers) and moneylenders. The revolt was also known as “Ulgulan”.

Bhil Uprising
The Bhils of Khandesh revolted under the leadership of Sewaram in 1817-19 against the East India Company, fearing agrarian hardships under the new regime.

Cutch Rebellion (1819)
The British interfered in an internal matter and disposed the Cutch ruler Rao Bharamal in favour of his infant. Rao Bharamal reorganized the revolt against the British to recapture the power.

Ramosi Uprisings (1822-1829)
The Ramosi hill tribes of the Western Ghats rose under Chittur Singh and plundered the country around Satara to overthrow the British pattern of administration.

Kuka Revolt
The Kuka Movement was founded in 1840 by Bhagat Jawaharlal (also called Sian Saheb) in western Punjab. After the British took the Punjab, the movement transformed from a religious purification campaign to a political one.

Revolt of Raja of Vizianagaram
The East India Company demanded a tribute of three lakh rupees from the Raja and also asked him to disband his troops. The Raja supported by his subjects rose up in revolt.

Poligars Revolt
The Poligars of Dindigal and Malabar rose up against the oppressive land revenue system under the British during 1801-06.

Rampa Revolt
The tribesmen of Rampa in coastal Andhra revolted in March 1879 against the depredations of government-supported Mansabdar and the new restrictive forest regulations.

Kisan Sabha Movement
Kisan Sabhas were organized in UP and the UP Kisan Sabha was set up in February 1918 by Gauri Shankar Mishra and Indra Narayan Dwivedi. Madan Mohan Malviya supported their efforts. In October, 1920, the Awadh Kisan Sabha came into existence.

All India Kisan Sabha (AIKS)
This Sabha was founded in Lucknow in April 1936 with Swami Sahajanand Saraswati as the president and N.G. Ranga as the general secretary. The AIKS and the Congress held their session in Faizpur in 1936.

Mappila Revolt
Mappila Revolt refers to a series of riots by the Mappila Muslims of Malabar, South India in the 19th century against Hindi landlords and the state.

Indigo Revolt
The revolt was led by Digambar and Bishnucharan Biswas (1859-60) of Nadia District of Bengal against terms imposed by the European Indigo commission that was set up in 1860 to view the situation.

Deccan Peasants Uprising
It was an uprising by the Maratha Peasants of Puna, Ahmednagar, Solapur and Satara against corrupt practices of Gujarati and Marwari moneylenders. Finally, government passed Agriculturist Relief Act of 1879.

Pabna Agrarian Uprising
The uprising was led by Ishan Chandra Roy, Shambhu Pal and Khoodi Mollah and was supported by B.C. Chatterjee and R.C. Dutt (1873) in Pabna district. It was against the policies of Zamindars to deprive the ryots of their occupancy rights. Finally, the Bengal Tenancy Act of 1885 was passed by British government.

Peasant Movements (1857-1947)

Bardoli Satyagraha
It was led by Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel in Surat district of Gujarat against oppression by upper castes and hike in revenue by 22 per cent by the Bombay government. The revenue was brought down to 6.03 percent.

Eka Movement (1921)
This was a movement mainly by Pasi and Ahir castes of Hardoi, Barabanki and Sitapur districts of Uttar Pradesh against the hike in rent.

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### Congress Sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year/Place</th>
<th>President</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1885 Bombay</td>
<td>W.C. Bonnerjee</td>
<td>First session, attended by 72 delegates, objectives of the Congress outlined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1886 Calcutta</td>
<td>Dadabhai Naoroji</td>
<td>Attended by 436 delegates, witnessed the merger of National Congress and National Conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1887 Madras</td>
<td>Syed Badruddin</td>
<td>Attended by 607 delegates, appeal to the Muslim to join hand with national leaders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1888 Allahabad</td>
<td>George Yule</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889 Bombay</td>
<td>William Wedderburn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892 Allahabad</td>
<td>W.C. Bonnerjee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893 Lahore</td>
<td>Dadabhai Naoroji</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899 Lucknow</td>
<td>Romesh Chunder Dutt</td>
<td>Demand for permanent fixation of land revenue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905 Benaras</td>
<td>Gopal Krishna Gokhale</td>
<td>Expressed resentment against the partition of Bengal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906 Calcutta</td>
<td>Dadabhai Naoroji</td>
<td>The word ‘Swaraj’ mentioned for the first time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907 Surat</td>
<td>Rash Behari Ghosh</td>
<td>Split in the Congress into the moderates and the Extremists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908 Madras</td>
<td>Rash Behari Ghosh</td>
<td>Constitution of the Congress drawn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909 Lahore</td>
<td>Madan Mohan Malaviya</td>
<td>Expressed disapproval over formation of separate electorates on the basis of religion (of the India Councils Act, 1909).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916 Lucknow</td>
<td>A.C. Majumdar</td>
<td>Reunion of Congress factions; the Lucknow Pact signed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1917 Calcutta</td>
<td>Annie Besant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1918 Bombay</td>
<td>Hasan Imam</td>
<td>Discussed Montagu–Chelmsford scheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919 Amritsar</td>
<td>Motilal Nehru</td>
<td>Strongly condemned the Jallianwala massacre and boosted the Khilafat Movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920 Calcutta (Special session)</td>
<td>Lala Lajpat Rai</td>
<td>Approved Non-Co-operation Movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920 Nagpur</td>
<td>C. Vijayaraghavachariar</td>
<td>A new Constitution for the Congress framed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922 Gaya</td>
<td>C.R. Das</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924 Belgaum</td>
<td>M.K. Gandhi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925 Kanpur</td>
<td>Sarojini Naidu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927 Madras</td>
<td>M.A. Ansari</td>
<td>A resolution on complete independence passed; resolved to boycott the Simon Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929 Lahore</td>
<td>Jawaharlal Nehru</td>
<td>Passed the Purna Swaraj Resolution; authorized the working committee to launch civil disobedience programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931 Karachi</td>
<td>Vallabhbhai Patel</td>
<td>Endorsement of Gandhi-Irwin pact; resolution on Fundamental right and National Economic Programme passed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933 Calcutta</td>
<td>Nellie Sengupta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936 Faizpur</td>
<td>Jawaharlal Nehru</td>
<td>The session held in a village for the first time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938 Haripur</td>
<td>Subhas Chandra Bose</td>
<td>National Planning Committee set up under the chairmanship of Jawaharlal Nehru.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939 Tripuri</td>
<td>Subhash Chandra Bose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940 Ramgarh</td>
<td>Maulana Abul Kalam Azad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946 Meerut</td>
<td>Acharya J.B. Kripalani</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1948 Jaipur</td>
<td>Pattabhi Sitaramayya</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Gandhiji addressed Congress session only once in 1924 (Belgaum).
Great Martyrs/Freedom Fighters of India

Subhas Chandra Bose

Netaji Subhas Chandra Bose was one of the most prominent leaders of the Indian Independence Movement against the British Raj.

Bose was educated at Cambridge University. In 1920, he took the Indian Civil Service entrance examination and was placed second.

However, he resigned from the prestigious Indian Civil Service in April 1921 despite his high ranking in the merit list, and went on to become an active member of India’s independence movement. He joined the Indian National Congress, and was particularly active in its youth wing.

In May 1939, Subhas formed the Forward Bloc within the Congress as an umbrella organization of the left forces within the Congress.

On August 16, 1945, Netaji boarded a plane from Singapore to Bangkok. He was scheduled to fly in a Type 97-2 bomber ‘Sally’ from Bangkok to Saigon. The plane made a stopover in Taipei and crashed within minutes of take-off from Taipei.

Netaji’s body was cremated in Taipei on August 20, 1945 and his ashes were flown to Tokyo on September 5, 1945 where they rest in the Renkoji Temple. To this day, many believe that Netaji escaped from the air crash and went into hiding. His slogan “Jai Hind” still acts as a great binding force.

Jawaharlal Nehru

Jawaharlal Nehru, also called Pandit Nehru, was an important leader of the Indian Independence Movement and the Indian National Congress, and became the first Prime Minister of India when India won its independence on August 15, 1947.

Nehru was born on November 14, 1889, to Swaroop Rani, the wife of Motilal Nehru, a wealthy Allahabad-based barrister and political leader himself. He became the Prime Minister of India on August 15, 1947. Jawaharlal Nehru served as India’s Prime Minister from August 15, 1947, to May 27, 1964 – the day he died.

Bhagat Singh

Bhagat Singh (September 27, 1907 – March 23, 1931) was an Indian revolutionary. He is considered to be one of the most famous martyrs of the Indian freedom struggle. For this reason, he is often referred to as Shaheed Bhagat Singh (the word shaheed means “martyr”). In search of revolutionary groups and ideas, he met Sukhdev and Rajguru. Bhagat Singh, along with the help of Chandrashekhara Azad, formed the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army (HSRA). During the Simon Commission protests, Sher-e-Punjab Lala Lajpat Rai was wounded and died later. To avenge his death, Bhagat Singh and Rajguru killed Mr. Saunders (one of the deputy officers in connection with the Simon Commission).

When the British government promulgated the two bills — Trade Union Dispute Bill and Public Safety Bill — which Bhagat Singh and his party thought were Black Laws aimed at curbing citizens’ freedom and civil liberties, they decided to oppose these bills by throwing a bomb in the Central Assembly Hall (which is now Lok Sabha) on March 23, 1931. Bhagat Singh, Shivram Rajguru and Sukhdev were hanged to death.

Dr. Rajendra Prasad

Dr. Rajendra Prasad was the first President of India. Prasad was born at Jiradei in the Siwan district of Bihar.

Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel

In India and across the world, he is known as Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel. The word Sardar stands for “chief” in many languages of India. Patel organized the peasants of Kheda, Borsad and Bardoli in Gujarat in non-violent civil disobedience against the oppressive policies imposed by the British Raj – becoming one of the most influential leaders in Gujarat. After suffering a massive heart attack he died in Bombay on December 15th, 1950.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak

Reverently addressed as Lokmanya (meaning “beloved of the people” or “revered by the world”), Tilak was a scholar of Indian History, Sanskrit, Hinduism, Mathematics and Astronomy. He was born on July 23, 1856, in a village near Ratnagiri, Maharashtra, into a middle-class Chitpavan Brahmin family. He organized the Deccan Education Society to improve the quality of education for India’s youth. Tilak opposed the moderate views of Gopal Krishna Gokhale, and was supported by fellow Indian nationalists Bipin Chandra Pal in Bengal and Lala Lajpat Rai in Punjab. In 1907, the Congress Party split into the Extremists led by Tilak, Pal and Lajpat Rai and the Moderates led by Gokhale during its convention at Surat in Gujarat. When Tilak died in 1920, Gandhi paid his respects at his cremation in Bombay, along with 200,000 people. Gandhi called Tilak the “Maker of Modern India”. Tilak is also considered as the father of Hindu Nationalism.
Mahadev Govind Ranade

Mahadev Govind Ranade, a distinguished Indian scholar, social reformer and author, was born into a strictly orthodox Chitpavan Brahmin household in Niphad. He was a founding member of the Indian National Congress. During his life he helped establish the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha and the Prarthana Samaj. He edited a Bombay Anglo-Marathi daily paper, Induprakash, founded on his ideology of social and religious reform.

Gopal Krishna Gokhale

Gopal Krishna Gokhale was one of the leaders of the Indian Independence Movement. He was a senior freedom fighter and also a respected leader of the Indian National Congress. Gokhale was also considered as the political guru of Mahatma Gandhi. He was born to Krishna Rao and Valubai in Kothluk in Ratnagiri district of Maharashtra. He completed his graduation in arts from the Elphinstone College, Bombay. Thereafter, he joined Fergusson College, Poona as professor of history and political economy. Gopal Krishna Gokhale considered Mahadev Govind Ranade as his guru. Ranade was a great leader and scholar. He was also a renowned social reformer. Together, they worked in establishing Servants of India Society and in a quarterly journal called Sarvajanik.

Gokhale was also sent to England on behalf of the Congress to present India’s constitutional demands among the British leaders. He passed away on February 19, 1915.

Master Amichand

He was a prominent worker in the Swadeshi Movement. Contact with the famous revolutionary leader, Lala Har Dayal, brought him into the revolutionary movement. He became leader of the Ghadar Party. He was arrested in February 1914 on the charge of conspiracy to kill Lord Hardinge, the Viceroy of India, and also accused of complicity in the Lahore Bomb Case. He was sentenced to death on October 5, 1914, along with his three compatriots.

Ashfaqulla Khan

A member of the revolutionary organisation called Matrivedi Sanstha, he participated in the Kakori Mail Dacoity. He was arrested and sentenced to death. He died on the gallows in the Faizabad Jail on April 3, 1927.

Chandra Shekhar Azad

He was born on July 23, 1906 at village Bhaora in Jhabua district of Madhya Pradesh. He was a student of the Banaras Sanskrit College and later of the Kashi Vidyapeeth and took part in the Non-Cooperation Movement (1921). He was arrested at the age of 14 years and punished with fifteen cane strokes. In his court statement, he described his own name as “Azad”, his father as “Swadhin” and his address as “the jail”. After being released from the jail, he was hailed as a young hero. He joined the Indian Revolutionary Party in 1922. He was a member of the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army and took part in several political dacoities, including the Kakori Mail Dacoity. He was declared an absconder and was hunted by the police. He carried a reward of Rs 30,000 for his capture. To avenge the death of Lala Lajpat Rai, he organised, along with Sardar Bhagat Singh and Raiguru, the shooting of British Police Superintendent, J. A. Scott, at Lahore. Scott escaped and the Asstt. Superintendent of Police, J.P. Saunders, was killed. Azad planned the bomb explosion in the Central Legislative Assembly that took place on April 8, 1929. He successfully evaded arrest by the police for about two years. He was betrayed by a companion and surrounded by the police at the Alfred Park in Allahabad on February 27, 1931.

Satyendra Nath Bose

A resident of Midnapur, West Bengal, he was a Member of the Revolutionary Party and one of the founders of Ananda Math, a revolutionary secret society at Midnapur. He organised the agitation against the partition of Bengal and actively worked for the Swadeshi Movement. He was arrested on June 28, 1908, on the charge of involvement in the Muzaffarpur Bomb Case and in the Alipur Bomb Case. Basu died on the gallows in the Alipur Central Jail on November 21, 1908.

Ram Prasad Bismil

He was a member of the revolutionary organisation known as the Hindustan Socialist Republican Association. He participated in the Kakori Mail Decoity on August 9, 1925. He was a member of the revolutionary secret society at Midnapur. He organised, along with Sardar Bhagat Singh and Rajguru, the shooting of British Police Superintendent, J. A. Scott, at Lahore. Scott escaped and the Asstt. Superintendent of Police, J.P. Saunders, was killed. Azad planned the bomb explosion in the Central Legislative Assembly that took place on April 8, 1929. He successfully evaded arrest by the police for about two years. He was betrayed by a companion and surrounded by the police at the Alfred Park in Allahabad on February 27, 1931.

Khudi Ram Bose

He was born on December 3, 1889, at Midnapur, West Bengal. He became a member of the Revolutionary Party. He distributed a pamphlet titled Bande Mataram. He organised a plot in collaboration with Prafulla Chaki to kill Kingsford. He threw bomb on April 30, 1908, at Kingsford's carriage, which happened to be carrying a European lady, Mrs. Kennedy, and her daughter. Both of them were killed by mistake.

He was arrested at Waini railway station and tried for murder. He died on the gallows in the Muzaffarpur Jail on August 11, 1908.
Vasudev Phadke
He was born at Shirdhon, Distt. Kolaba, Maharashtra on November 4, 1845. He tried to organise a national revolt against the British. He successfully recruited a large number of followers from the Ramoshi tribe in Bombay Presidency and built up an armed force. He attacked British installations and communications and seized money from a few government treasuries. He carried on his activities for a number of years until he was captured by the British on July 3, 1879. He was sentenced to transportation for life and was sent to Aden, where he was kept in detention under inhuman conditions. He died on February 17, 1883, after undertaking a fast unto death.

Vishnu Ganesh Pingle
An engineering graduate from the University of Seattle, US, He was member of the Ghadar Party went to San Francisco, U.S.A. and worked at the Ghadar Party’s press. As a leader of the Lahore Military Conspiracy to overthrow British rule, he was arrested on March 23, 1915, with high-explosive bombs in his possession. He died on the gallows in the Lahore Central Jail on November 16, 1915.

Rajendra Nath Lahiri
He was arrested and sentenced to imprisonment in the Dakshineswar Bomb Case. He participated in the Kakori Mail Dacoity on August 9, 1925. He died on the gallows in the Gonda Jail on December 17, 1927.

Udham Singh
A resident of Amritsar, Punjab, he was brought up in an orphanage in Amritsar after the death of his parents. He received early education at Amritsar. His tender mind was deeply shocked by the horrible scenes of cruelty and carnage at the Jallianwala Bagh, Amritsar, on April 13, 1919, when hundreds of people were brutally killed and wounded by British troops in firing with machine-guns ordered by General Dyer. He went to England and joined an Engineering course in London. He shot and killed Sir Michael O’Dyer (who was Governor of Punjab when the Jallianwala Bagh tragedy took place) at a meeting of the Royal Central Asian Society and the East India Association in the Caxton Hall, London, on March 13, 1940. He was sent to the gallows in London on June 12, 1940.

Sarojini Naidu
Great as a poet and orator, Sarojini Naidu was one of the most enlightened women of modern India. She joined the Home Rule movement launched by Annie Besant. On the call of Gopal Krishna Gokhale, she joined the Indian National Congress in 1915. He became President of the Congress in 1925. She was invited along with Gandhiji to the Second Round Table Conference in London. After India became independent in 1947, she was appointed Governor of Uttar Pradesh as a token of recognition of her services.

Vijay Laxmi Pandit
The sister of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru also played a great role in the freedom movement. She was elected to Uttar Pradesh Assembly in 1936 and in 1946. She was the first woman in India to hold a ministerial rank. She was imprisoned thrice for taking part in the Civil Disobedience Movement in 1932, 1941 and 1942. She was the first woman to become president of the United Nations General Assembly.

Indira Gandhi
During the 1930 movement, she formed the Vanar Sena — a children’s brigade to help freedom fighters. She became a member of the Indian National Congress in 1938. In the eventful years of her leadership as Prime Minister, Indian society underwent profound changes.

Dr. Annie Besant
A strong votary of truth, Dr. Annie Besant came to India in 1893 at the age of 46, impressed as she was by its great religion and philosophy. She entered active politics in 1914. She founded Home Rule League in India.

She fittingly became the president of Indian National Congress in 1917. Tilak declared that if we were nearer our goals, it was due to Dr. Annie Besant’s sincere efforts. Gokhale considered her a true daughter of Mother India.