



INSTITUTE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION
IDE
Rajiv Gandhi University



MAHIS -501
History of India (1707-1857)-I

MA HISTORY
3rd Semester

HISTORY OF INDIA

(1707-1857)

MA [History]

Third Semester

MAHIS – 501

RAJIV GANDHI UNIVERSITY

Arunachal Pradesh, INDIA - 791 112

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About the University

Rajiv Gandhi University (formerly Arunachal University) is a premier institution for higher education in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and has completed twenty-five years of its existence. Late Smt. Indira Gandhi, the then Prime Minister of India, laid the foundation stone of the university on 4th February, 1984 at Rono Hills, where the present campus is located.

Ever since its inception, the university has been trying to achieve excellence and fulfill the objectives as envisaged in the University Act. The university received academic recognition under Section 2(f) from the University Grants Commission on 28th March, 1985 and started functioning from 1st April, 1985. It got financial recognition under section 12-B of the UGC on 25th March, 1994. Since then Rajiv Gandhi University, (then Arunachal University) has carved a niche for itself in the educational scenario of the country following its selection as a University with potential for excellence by a high-level expert committee of the University Grants Commission from among universities in India.

The University was converted into a Central University with effect from 9th April, 2007 as per notification of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

The University is located atop Rono Hills on a picturesque tableland of 302 acres overlooking the river Dikrong. It is 6.5 km from the National Highway 52-A and 25 km from Itanagar, the State capital. The campus is linked with the National Highway by the Dikrong bridge.

The teaching and research programmes of the University are designed with a view to play a positive role in the socio-economic and cultural development of the State. The University offers Undergraduate, Post-graduate, M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes. The Department of Education also offers the B.Ed. programme.

There are fifteen colleges affiliated to the University. The University has been extending educational facilities to students from the neighbouring states, particularly Assam. The strength of students in different departments of the University and in affiliated colleges has been steadily increasing.

The faculty members have been actively engaged in research activities with financial support from UGC and other funding agencies. Since inception, a number of proposals on research projects have been sanctioned by various funding agencies to the University. Various departments have organized numerous seminars, workshops and conferences. Many faculty members have participated in national and international conferences and seminars held within the country and abroad. Eminent scholars and distinguished personalities have visited the University and delivered lectures on various disciplines.

The academic year 2000-2001 was a year of consolidation for the University. The switch over from the annual to the semester system took off smoothly and the performance of the students registered a marked improvement. Various syllabi designed by Boards of Post-graduate Studies (BPGS) have been implemented. VSAT facility installed by the ERNET India, New Delhi under the UGC-Infonet program, provides Internet access.

In spite of infrastructural constraints, the University has been maintaining its academic excellence. The University has strictly adhered to the academic calendar, conducted the examinations and declared the results on time. The students from the University have found placements not only in State and Central Government Services, but also in various institutions, industries and organizations. Many students have emerged successful in the National Eligibility Test (NET).

Since inception, the University has made significant progress in teaching, research, innovations in curriculum development and developing infrastructure.

About IDE

The formal system of higher education in our country is facing the problems of access, limitation of seats, lack of facilities and infrastructure. Academicians from various disciplines opine that it is learning which is more important and not the channel of education. The education through distance mode is an alternative mode of imparting instruction to overcome the problems of access, infrastructure and socio-economic barriers. This will meet the demand for qualitative higher education of millions of people who cannot get admission in the regular system and wish to pursue their education. It also helps interested employed and unemployed men and women to continue with their higher education, Distance education is a distinct approach to impart education to learners who remained away in the space and/or time from the teachers and teaching institutions on account of economic, social and other considerations. Our main aim is to provide higher education opportunities to those who are unable to join regular academic and vocational education programmes in the affiliated colleges of the University and make higher education reach to the doorsteps in rural and geographically remote areas of Arunachal Pradesh in particular and North-eastern part of India in general. In 2008, the Centre for Distance Education has been renamed as "Institute of Distance Education (IDE)."

Continuing the endeavor to expand the learning opportunities for distant learners, IDE has introduced Post Graduate Courses in 5 subjects (Education, English, Hindi, History and Political Science) from the Academic Session 2013-14. The Institute of Distance Education is housed in the Physical Sciences Faculty Building (first floor) next to the University Library. The University campus is 6 kms from NERIST point on National Highway 52A. The University buses ply to NERIST point regularly.

Outstanding Features of Institute of Distance Education:

(1) At Par with Regular Mode

Eligibility requirements, curricular content, mode of examination and the award of degrees are on par with the colleges affiliated to the Rajiv Gandhi University and the Department(s) of the University.

(ii) Self-Instructional Study Material (SISM)

The students are provided SISM prepared by the Institute and approved by Distance Education Council (DEC), New Delhi. This will be provided at the time of admission at the IDE or its Study Centres. SISM is provided only in English except Hindi subject.

(iii) Contact and Counseling Programme (CCP)

The course curriculum of every programme involves counselling in the form of personal contact programme of duration of approximately 7-15 days. The CCP shall not be compulsory for BA. However for professional courses and MA the attendance in CCP will be mandatory.

(iv) Field Training and Project

For professional course(s) there shall be provision of field training and project writing in the concerned subject.

(v) Medium of Instruction and Examination

The medium of instruction and examination will be English for all the subjects except for those subjects where the learners will need to write in the respective languages.

(vi) Subject/Counseling Coordinators

For developing study material, the IDE appoints subject coordinators from within and outside the University. In order to run the PCCP effectively Counseling Coordinators are engaged from the Departments of the University. The Counseling-Coordinators do necessary coordination for involving resource persons in contact and counseling programme and assignment evaluation. The learners can also contact them for clarifying their difficulties in then respective subjects.

SYLLABUS
History of India (1707-1857)

UNIT I: TRANSITION OF THE 18TH CENTURY

- a) Society, Economy, Polity and Culture
- b) Debate theory of 18th century

UNIT II: Advent of European

- a) Emergence of Regional Power
- b) Coming of European- Portuguese, Dutch, French and British

UNIT III: British Relation and Subjugations of Indian Power

- a) Carnatic
- b) Bengal

UNIT IV: Emergence of Regional Powers

- a) Oudh
- b) Hyderabad
- c) Mysore
- d) Marathas
- e) Sikh

UNIT V: Administration under the East India Company

- a) Diwani
- b) Regulating Act
- c) Pitt's India Act
- d) Charter Act of 1813 and 1833

INTRODUCTION

The period from 1707 to 1857 was interjected with events which had profound consequences on the history of India. The advent of the European traders and their subsequent domination of the subcontinent changed the socio-political and economic milieu forever. The ascendancy of the British colonial enterprise was a more complex process than it was initially thought to be. While the British have been criticized for exploiting India's economic resources, the colonial rulers were instrumental in initiating reforms in social, educational, commercial and judicial spheres.

This book History of India (1707-1857) has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Unit Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student's understanding of the topic. A list of Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary, Key Terms and Activity further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text. This book is divided into ten units:

Unit 1: Focuses on 18th century India, which was an important period of transition and remains the subject of debate among scholars of late medieval and modern Indian history.

Unit 2: Discusses the foray of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the British and the French. It also studies how most foreign powers lost while the British succeeded in establishing themselves and ruled over India for two hundred years.

Unit 3: Traces the suppression of the Indian rulers in the Carnatic and Bengal regions by the British East India Company.

Unit 4: Explores how the Indian regional powers like the Marathas, the rulers of Mysore, Oudh and Hyderabad raised their head against a weak Mughal power, but eventually failed fighting the British.

Unit 5: Introduces you to the administrative policies the British East India Company such as the Regulating Act, the Pitt's India Act, the Charter Acts of 1813 and 1833. You will also analyse how the British took the diwani of Bengal from the Mughals.

UNIT 1 TRANSITION OF THE 18TH CENTURY

*Transition of the
18th Century*

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Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Unit Objectives
- 1.2 Society, Economy and Culture in the 18th Century
 - 1.2.1 Social Condition
- 1.3 Religious Conditions
- 1.4 Economic Conditions
- 1.5 Debates of the 18th Century
 - 1.5.1 Religious Debate
- 1.6 Summary
- 1.7 Key Terms
- 1.8 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 1.9 Questions and Exercises
- 1.10 Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The 18th century in India was an important period of transition and remains the subject of continuing debate among scholars of late medieval and modern Indian history. The two main debates on the 18th century are the nature of transition from a centralized Mughal polity to the emergence of regional confederations, and the nature of the transformation brought about by the increasing role of the English East India Company in the economic, commercial, and financial life of the subcontinent. We see the rise of a new economic order, and decentralization of political power which went hand-in-hand with a broader localization process.

The death of Aurangzeb in 1707 laid bare a patchwork of several sovereignties, a network of fragmented and layered forms of regional political powers that had been partly masked and managed by the practices of Mughal state and sovereignty. Eighteenth century was marked by the emergence of regional polities, the so-called successor states like Awadh, Bengal, Hyderabad, although they were politically and financially independent from Mughal state but always used Mughal symbols and titles for legitimacy and political stability. It is generally viewed that East India Company's expansion in India took place due to a power vacuum left after Aurangzeb's death. In the debates of continuity and change, historians have presented enduring socio-economic structures such as financial institutions and information networks that emphasize the utility of Indian agents or collaborators in facilitating early company rule.

In this unit, you will get acquainted with the socio-economic and political milieu in the 18th century and the debates regarding its interpretation.

1.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the social fabric of the 18th century India
- Explain the role of women in the society
- Analyse how religion, education and caste system influenced the society
- Describe the economic conditions during this period
- Critically analyse the debates during the 18th century and thereafter

1.2 SOCIETY, ECONOMY AND CULTURE IN THE 18TH CENTURY

The death of Aurangzeb in 1707 created a political vacuum where anarchy was the order of the day. The political uncertainty had its impact on the social, economic and religious condition. For long administrative authorities were devoid of any power and lawlessness prevailed.

1.2.1 Social Condition

Society in the 18th century was marked by stagnation which revealed in the past glory. The society could be termed as a free one and where socially and culturally people could not be compartmentalized. That is to say, there was no set pattern. However, the people were divided on the lines of religion, language, caste and every other possible structure. These divisions were deeply entrenched and gave rise to economic and social disparities. The upper class lived a different life from those in the lower strata. Since wealth concentrated in the hands of this section of the society, this class of nobility were highly conscious of their supremacy. They presided over religious occasions and dictated social practices. The economically weaker classes were looked down upon and had to follow the dictates of the superior class.

By this time, the Muslim concept of equality and fraternity ceased to exist and intolerance was at its heights. Now a Muslim *sharif* could not bear to see a Muslim *radhil* come close to him in the social ladder. Among the Hindus, the caste structure escalated jealousy among groups concerning rights and this resulted in isolation. Communities remained confined within their own customs and social traditions, and had no urge to create any social values. Any aberration from the established laws and conventions would lead to excommunication.

The 18th century social structure was based on two premises. One was grading on the basis of official position and power, and the other was on ordering based on religion and the traditional division of the society. The former was a reflection of the political system. The latter, on the other hand, was based on the caste and its stratification. For the Muslims, the grading was done on the basis of 'kufr' — believers and non-believers.

Caste

The Hindu society, as we know, is based on four different castes — the brahmins held the topmost position, followed by the khatriyas, vaishyas and at the bottom were the

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shudras. The brahmins, the priestly class, were the sole authority on religious issues. They were also the educators and guide. To quote Craufurd, 'Their caste is the only repository of the literature that yet remains; to them alone is entrusted the education of youth; they are the sole interpreters of the law and the only expounders of their religion.' People were superstitious and did not believe in questioning and reasoning. The brahmanical class took advantage of this and exploited all, from the affluent to the poor.

The kshatriyas were the warrior class. They usually comprised the kings and the soldiers. The role of the kshatriyas during this period has been doubted by many. According to Hindi poet Nagari Dass, they were very selfish and greedy. They had no respect for women, especially if she was a beautiful woman of a poor family or a lower class. The vaisyas were the merchants or traders. They were in the business of giving loans to people and earned heavy interests from them. But one section of the vaisyas was agriculturists. The baniyas were small traders, usually shopkeepers and were ill-famous for the love of money.

The shudras comprise the masses who were engaged in menial jobs. Below these four classes were the *antyajas* with their eight guilds of craftsmen. Like the shudras, they had to live in separate enclosures away from the cities or villages. They were engaged in rendering services to the higher classes. At the bottom of the social rung were the *hadis* and *chandals*. They did odd jobs like performing cremations.

Occupation was another factor that determined the caste of a person. In spite of the general taboos, social and economic exigencies necessitated contacts between the twice-born and the artisan classes and the creation of relationship between the higher and lower castes. Professionals like the barber, weaver, embroiderer, dyer, printer, gardener, potter, and ivory-worker were paid mostly directly for their services. Their remuneration included a fixed quantity of grain at the time of harvest, or money or clothes on occasions. Interestingly though, some occupations such as mercenary, trader and agriculturist were open to all.

The top three sections of the society were further divided into sub-sections, and each section formed an endogamous group. Marriages and inter-dining were permissible only among the community and caste. Restrictions on food habits, social interactions, marriages, and occupation defined a man's social status. People did not go outside the community to share meals. Among the Hindus, though all communities mostly worshipped the same deity, and followed same rituals and customs, they did not eat together. People would refrain from indulging in such practices due to fear of being excommunicated. A form of inter-dinning was permissible only among the Sikhs. It was called the *langer*. This form of community dining, which did not differentiate among people, is prevalent till today.

There was also a lot of restriction on the types of food one could have. The caste prescribed different codes for different groups. For example, the brahmins did not have non-vegetarian food and refrained from having intoxicants. Meat was considered an acquired food habit, which came from the Muslim invaders. Communities like that of the Jains abstained from eating meat. They usually interacted with people who were vegetarians. However, the Rajputs, the kshatriyas, jats and shudras were among the meat eaters.

The society was sensitive about daughters, though not about women. The caste panchayat decided on important social issues and at times had the final say. The rules pertaining to each caste were strictly implemented and people had to pay fines or



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perform penance for breaking norms. Expulsion from the caste was the biggest threat. While the caste system may have been instrumental in uniting a community, it was also an element of disintegration. The various layers within the Hindu society created fissures and groups became social atoms living in the same village or region. But it was possible for a person to acquire a higher social status by acquiring a higher post in office or power as was done by the Holkar family in the 18th century. Sometimes, an entire caste succeeded in raising itself in the caste hierarchy.

Family

The Indian society has always been patriarchal, and dominated by a male figure. Exceptions were noticed in Kerala and among the Khasis in the North-East. Women confined themselves to household chores and were expected to fulfill their duties as mother, wife and daughters. Daughters were regarded a liability and her birth was not welcome; but mothers wielded tremendous influence on the family and she often took important decisions. Women did not have any share in the family property and possessed little individuality. But there were exceptions like Ahilya Bai who administered Indore with great success from 1766 to 1796. Several other Hindu and Muslim women played important roles in the politics of that time. Usually, the status of woman in the family depended not on her competence, but her ability to give birth to sons. A woman who had both were respected.

However, women were restricted from interacting with outsiders and could not venture out in the public alone. These restrictions were more stringent for women of the upper class, but not those who were public figures. But all women had to practice *purdah*, both Hindus and Muslims. Social and political insecurity of the period forced people to get their daughters marry early. Historians look at this fact more as a social security and not a sign of backwardness. There have been instances of female infanticide, mostly among the Rajputs. Another feature that became a characteristic of the Rajputs was the practice of sati. Women who lost their husbands in war would jump to the pyre willingly and die. The practice also prevailed in Bengal and central India.

With time, polygamy became admissible among upper caste brahmins in Bengal and Uttar Pradesh, while the practice existed among the lower caste. Widow remarriage was not prevalent though it existed in some quarters. The general condition of the widows was pitiable. They were expected to give up all earthly pleasures and live a life of restriction, such as, on clothing, eating habits and social interactions. Since they lived on the mercy of other family members, they had to serve them selflessly. To curb the practice of widow remarriage, the Maratha Peshwas imposed a tax called 'Patdam'. Interestingly, Raja Sawai Jai Singh of Amber and the Maratha general Parshuram Bhau tried to promote widow remarriage, but failed.

There were several taboos present in the society. Untouchability was one such. The untouchables were denied all rights and were barred from using the community well for water, schools, places of worship, and public institutions. Standing in front of members of the upper caste was regarded as defiance.

Another unacceptable practice was human sacrifice, which was a result of superstition. Humans, at times even children, were sacrificed to please a deity. Self-immolation was another form of forced sacrifice. There have been cases when people suffering disease would drown themselves. People even resorted to self-torture, such as, piercing different body parts in the belief that good results would follow.

Check Your Progress

1. What were the two aspects of the 18th century social system?
2. What were the two occupation of the vaisyas?
3. The antyajias stood in a better position in the caste hierarchy than the sudras. (True/False)
4. Inter-dinning among the people of different castes were not allowed in the 18th century, except among the Sikhs. (True/False)
5. What were the occupation people of all caste and religion could do?
6. _____ of widows was generally looked down upon though it prevailed in some places.

Slavery

Slavery, akin to bonded labour, prevailed in the country. The slaves were either domestic labourers or serfs tied to the land. The latter would change hands with the sale of lands. In some cases, economic distress, natural calamities, extreme poverty and famines compelled parents to sell their children. The kings and the upper class families kept slave women for domestic work. In most cases though, the slaves became hereditary servants and lived in the family. According to historians, slaves in India were better treated than those in Europe, America and elsewhere. Slavery became more popular with the advent of the Europeans, particularly the Dutch, the Portuguese and the English. They purchased slaves from the open market. There were reports of Europeans at Surat, Madras and Calcutta purchasing Abbaside slaves and employing them for domestic work.

Muslim household

The 18th century Muslim family was no different from the Hindus. Apart from some religious practices, social life was more or less similar. A polygamous household was the fashion among the royalty and the nobility and all those who could afford it. The rich and the powerful had in their houses several wives and slave girls. Some had harems for the concubines, and dancers and singers. Marriage was a civil contract and the family found legal recognition only in connection with inheritance. The first wife was the senior most and led the household. She was given precedence over all other wives and also presided over major functions. But all children enjoyed equal status.

Although Muslim women did not have more rights or enjoyed many privileges, they had some advantages over their Hindu counterparts. In a Muslim family, the mother wielded considerable authority. The Muslim woman had the right to give or withhold her consent to marriage, but she could not exercise her right. In certain cases, marriage was seen as a temporary contract (*muta*), having no bigger motive than sexual gratification. Under the influence of Hinduism, divorce among Muslims were looked down upon. People, especially those held in high esteem, would concede to all differences and dispute than to become a subject of gossip and lose social status. Muslim parents even started giving dowries which were generally beyond their means. The patriarchal structure gave preference to sons than to daughters.

Islam permitted plurality of wives, up to four, but on the condition that all of them would be treated equally. There was no age limit for marriage, but people preferred to marry off their daughters at an early age. Almost as a rule, boys were not allowed to see the girls before they were married. Mannucci writes, 'Among the Mohammedans, it is the practice not to see their brides beforehand, but to marry upon reports, interests or respect.' The groom had to give 'mehr' to the bride during marriage. This amount was fixed in advanced and could be paid during the ceremony or later. It was usually the aged women who took the charge of match-making, unless it was for political reasons. Though the custom of betrothal was opposed to the Shariat, the Muslims were as particular as the Hindus. There were a several instances of inter-communal marriages, especially, among the kings and the nobility. Farrukh Siyar was married to the daughter of Raja Ajit Singh.

Marriage, hence, was a social obligation. Celibacy was practiced at times by princess of the royal family and Sufi saints. The concept of the prohibited degree in marriage seems to have been obligatory on the Muslims in the 18th century. Among

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Check Your Progress

7. Slaves in India were no better than those in Europe. (True/False)
8. Divorces among the Muslims were deplored due to the influence of the Hindus. (True/False)
9. Indians in the 18th century were alert, highly educated and were aware of the scientific development which were taking place in Europe. (True/False)

the orthodox Muslims, there was a prejudice amounting to prohibition in regard to marriages between Sunni Muslims and Shias.

The system of purdah was followed strictly as women lived in separate quarters called the 'zenanah'. The men's quarter was called the 'mardanah'. This could be the fallout of political security, but in the 18th century, probably as a matter of prestige, women were kept in the inner-most quarters. The tradition of seclusion was more rampant among the upper classes. The women from the lower strata had to work as slaves, in the fields and elsewhere, and sell wares in the markets to earn and could not be kept under the veil.

Education

The 18th century Europe was a period of intellectual, social, cultural and political ferment. It was the Age of Enlightenment. Science had taken precedence. People were questioning traditions, customs and conventional ideas and looking at alternatives. Philosophers, scientists, mathematicians and thinkers looked for answers through experiment, observations, questioning and criticism. India during this period saw none of these. Her education system was still bound by tradition and lacked rational reasoning. Although the Indians had come in contact with the Europeans and were trading with them, such as those in Gujarat, Konkan, Kerala, Cholanandal, Orissa and Bengal, they remained unaffected there was practically no exchange of new ideas. The kings and nobles took some interests in animals and birds, toys and perfumes, but only to flaunt their wealth. An interesting aspect was that the Christian world, which was once dominated by the Muslims, was intrigued by the latter's culture, scientific and military developments and had started studying its every branch of knowledge.

But India, till the end of the century, remained untouched by the discoveries and innovations taking place elsewhere in the world. This was not due to lack of education but the quality and the format, which was communal. There were two different systems for the Hindus and the Muslims. The Hindus imparted elementary education through regional language while higher education was imparted in Sanskrit. For the Muslims, it was Persian, which was also the official court language.

The Hindu schools were divided into two water-tight compartments. Sanskrit was taught only to the brahmins and children of the nobles and kings. Pupils who were certain to follow agricultural and commercial pursuits were given elementary education in regional languages. The teachers largely belonged to the writer castes. In Murshidabad, of the sixty-seven teachers in the same number of schools, thirty-nine were kayasthas, fourteen brahmins and fourteen from other castes. In south Bihar, there were 285 schools and the same number of teachers. Of these, 278 were kayasthas and seven came from other castes. None belonged to the brahmin caste.

Primary education continued for a period of five to ten years, which included reading, writing and arithmetic. The idea was to learn writing letters and composing business correspondence, such as, petition, grants and leases, and do calculation in accounting. Emphasis was on tables such as multiplication, weights and measures. Education was purely utilitarian and extremely narrow. It did not allow free thinking or provoke questions among students. Passions and affections were allowed to grow without any thought of pruning their luxuriance or directing their exercise to good purposes.

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The quality of higher education was unprogressive and predominantly theological. The institutions were dominated by the brahmins. The teachers as well as the students belonged to the same caste. The courses taught were law, grammar, general literature and logic. Students as young as two year were sent to these schools and could stay for twelve to twenty-two years. Most of these schools were situated in the house of the teacher, which was known as 'gurukuls'. Students wanting to study law had to devote eight to twenty-eight years in mastering the various branches of Hindu law and rites. In Bengal, the treatises of Raghunandan and Jimutavahan, were studied. Manu and Mitakashara were taught in other schools.

Logic had to be studied for twelve to twenty-two years. For medicine and astronomy, students had to refer to ancient text and their commentaries. The study of the old texts did not indulge students to think freely or look outside the compartmentalised philosophy and ideas. Also, study of these subjects were largely formal and verbal.

The Muslim education system was not very different from the Hindus. It was intended only for the upper class of the community and the masses felt discouraged. As we have mentioned earlier, Persian was the medium of instructions. There were three strands of education. The first included memorising the verses of Quran; it was followed by studies in grammar, literature, computation and arithmetic. In poetry, Firdausi, Sadi, Hafiz, Urfi, Jami, and Khaqani were taught. In prose, Gulistan, Waqai Nimat Khan Ali, and Bahar-i-Danish were taught. In epistolary art, Abul Fazl, Alamgh, and Madhoram Brahman were taught. In grammar and rhetoric, Hadjkat-ul-Balaghat, and Dastur-ul-Mubtabi were taught. Rules of arithmetic and geometry were included in the course.

Subjects, such as, medicine, astronomy and science were confined to the books and no new investigations were conducted. Students were not encouraged to apply experimental methods in studies. Also, there were no laboratories and observatories. Emphasis was on study of theology and law and order. The Muslim mind was soaked in medievalism and it was intellectually quite unprepared to withstand the attack from the West.

According to available literatures, centres of higher education in Sanskrit literature were called 'chatuspathis' or 'tola' in Bengal and Bihar. Nadia, Kas, Tirhut and Utkala were some of the reputed centres. Institutions for higher education in Persian and Arabic were called madrasas. As Persian was the court language, Muslims and the Hindus both had to master it. Azimabad (Patna) was a great centre of Persian education. As for elementary education, there were several pathshalas and maktabas as the schools were called among the Hindus and the Muslims. The students were given instruction in the three R's of reading, writing and arithmetic. Moral instruction with emphasis on truth, honesty and obedience found a place in the school curriculum. Education was mainly popular with the higher castes. Female education received very little attention.

Literature

Urdu was widely understood by the masses in the 18th century. Since the language had spread to all corners of the country, several Urdu literary circles had been set up. When As the British dominion extended over north India, Urdu became the language of the educated and the literary class. It was regarded as a language of the elite. But sadly enough, the literature produced during this period was not regarded highly. Its

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poetry was dilettantish, weighed with euphemism and conceit. Its spirit was shackled by artificial limitations of rhyme. Its mood alternated between the sensuous and the spiritual, neither deeply experienced. They reflected pessimism and huge clouds of despair hung over them. They were far away from reality. The Urdu writers made Urdu a pliant instrument of expression. The Hindi and Urdu poets of this period were virtuosos and were so engrossed in their pursuit that they lost the meaning of life and higher purpose of literature.

The famous romantic epic, *Heer Ranjha*, was written by Warris Shah in Punjabi. Sindhi literature too made great achievements in this century. Shah Abdul Latif composed his famous collection of poems, *Risalo*. Sachal and Sami were the other great Siedfai poets of the century. Daya Ram, one of the great lyricists of Gujarat, wrote during the second half of the 18th century. Tayaumanavar (1706-44) was one of the best exponents of Sittar poetry in Tamil. In line with other Sittar poets, he protested against the abuse of temple-rule and the caste system.

Varadarajan writes about Tamil, 'The literature of this period is full of frigid conceits and pedantic exercises of the grammarians, and the simplicity, the directness and the restraint characteristic of the early literature are now lost. Most of the poets of this age seem imitative and repetitive not only in their narrative but also in their descriptions. Taste in poetry has become sophisticated and poets are judged by the jingle of their alliteration and the acrobatics of their meter. We come across talented writers capable of original productions but they are only a very few. Even the works of these eminent poets evince a childish delight in riotous, imaginations and hyperbolic utterances. There is, in many works of this period, not so much of art as artificiality, and therefore, many of these works have fallen into oblivion.'

Sitapati, expressing his view about Telugu literature, said 'good poetry vanished and a period of decadence prevailed'. Shri Adya Rangacharya writes that 'by the middle of the 18th century, Kannada ceased to exist'. In Marathi, *Lavanis* (erotic poems) became common and even spiritual love and devotion was described in the degraded fashion of carnal love. Deshpande observes, 'It was obvious that degeneration had set in. Metaphysical acumen was getting blunt. Devotional urge was on the wane and the verse and vigour of a soldier's life was also getting lost. Literature was settling down to the leisurely luxuriousness and erudite ornateness of the later days of the Peshwas.'

According to Trivedi, 'Life was decadent from 1700 until the advent of the British.' Regarding Bengali poetry in the 18th century, S. K. Banerjee says it is 'a colourless dragging in of the old patterns both in subject-matter and form'. In Assamese literature, secular tone was predominant.

Noticeably, behind the diversities of language, race and creed, a deep cultural unity pervaded the whole of India. The appearance of a large number of masters of rhetoric, style and diction, who had the expertise over language, aided to this cultural bonding. These experts refined and developed the language to meet future demands.

The widespread unity over culture was also aided by the advent of the printing press set up by the Christian missionaries. They printed vernacular editions of the Bible. Ziegenbelg, a Danish missionary, published studies on the Tamil language, grammar books and even a Bible in Tamil. Baptist missionaries like Carey, Ward and Marshman set up a printing press at Serampur and published a Bengali version of the Bible.

Art during this period suffered. A politically and economically weak Mughal emperor had lost control, and Delhi could no longer support the artisans and craftsmen. As a result, artisans and craftsmen began migrating to smaller states such as Hyderabad, Lucknow, Murshidabad, and Jaipur. Even artists and painters from the Mughal school made places like Kashmir and Patna their new homes. New schools of painting achieved distinction. The paintings of Kangra and Rajput schools revealed new vitality and taste.

One of the unique constructions of this period is the Bada Imambara in Lucknow, built by Asaf-ud-Daula in 1784. Its uniqueness lies in the fact that blocks have been put together with interlocking system of bricks and there has been absolutely no use of girders and beams. The roof stands steady till date without any pillars to support it. According to Percy Brown, the British archeologist and art critic, it is a work of outward show and tawdry pretence whose style has no spiritual values. The palace of Raja Suraj Mal at Deeg, the capital of Bharatpur, was planned to revive the imperial palaces of Arga. Work on its construction was started in 1725 but was left unfinished.

Music continued to develop and flourish in this century, particularly in the reign of Muhammad Shah.

1.3 RELIGIOUS CONDITIONS

The Hindus worshiped several deities, but broadly, the belief was in the existence of the trinity — Brahma (the creator), Vishnu (the sustainer) and Maheshwar (the destructor). Brahma was not very popular, but the society was divided into two popular sects — the Vaishnavites and the Saivites — the followers of Vishnu and Shiva, respectively, along with their female counterparts Lakshmi and Parvati. There was another strand of followers, the Saktas; those who worshipped Parvati or sakti. This shows that the worship represented three distinct forms of belief and practice. However, these divisions did not make any difference in the basic concepts of Hinduism.

Shiva was the deity of the masses and was worshiped by individuals in a simple manner without any fanfare. His form as a lingam is the only way of worshiping Shiva. He was feared and revered as mythology puts him to be a God of destruction. It is said that he destroys the evil with his third eye. He was the patron of craftsmen, cartwrights, smiths, potters, hunters and washermen; the head of the armies, the God of the fighters in any mode of warfare. Har Har Mahadev was a popular war-cry. Thieves and free-booters too were his devotees. Beggars and faqirs showed their affinity with him by wearing long and matted hair or by shaving their heads. He was omnipotent but he was supposed to live on high mountains, dense forests and solitary places. The Rajputs were predominantly the followers of Shiva. Temples dedicated to Shiva can be found even outside Rajasthan in Gujarat and Bundelkhand.

Vishnu was the god of the household. Elaborate preparations are made for his worship. The empowering image of Vishnu over other gods is depicted in a painting of the Rajasthani school dated AD 1740. The painting shows Vishnu seated on a throne in heaven with Lakshmi on his knees and attended by other gods among whom Siva appears on the right as an ascetic along with Ganesh. On the left are Indra and Brahma with his four heads. A Vaishnavite was respected in the society and considered

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Check Your Progress

10. What was the centre of higher education in Sanskrit literature called?
11. Who composed Heer Ranjha?
12. Education was organized on religious basis. (True/False)
13. The elementary schools for both Hindus and Muslims were called pathshalas. (True/False)
14. Urdu was a dominant language in the 18th century. (True/False)
15. Christian missionaries printed vernacular editions of the Bible in the 18th century. (True/False)

a complete and well-formed human being. hence, it was fashionable to become his devotee.

A person could be follower of Vishnu as well as Shiva. The image of Harihara — Hari representing a form of Vishnu and Hara representing Shiva — was a combined representation of both gods in the one idol.

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Under Shaivism and Vaishnavism separate sects or communities were created by different teachers. The most prominent Shaiva sect was that of the jogis. They did not have homes and kept wandering, living in most difficult terrains. They professed 'vedantism' and 'jangamas' and lived a life of severe austerity. The most important order of the jogis was that of the 'kanphatas' or slit ears. Another form of jogis was the mundiyas who kept their heads shaved. The other sects were the 'gosains', 'sannyasis' and the 'dandins' with their ten branches. Some of them practiced the most revolting rites and many sold charms. Some became astrologers, jugglers or minstrels and some practiced incantations and exorcisms. Garibdas (1717-1778), a Jat, was a saint but had a family. Keshavdas, another jogis belonged to the same order. Ram Charan, who was born in 1718, founded the sect of Ram Sanehis. This order consisted exclusively of sadhus. The sect of Sivanarayanis was founded by Shiv Narayan in 1734.

The third strand of believers, the Saktas, was another important sect. They believed that the gods had relegated their more onerous and troublesome executive functions to their female counterparts, the 'devi'. In difficult times, people prayed to the goddesses. Mahadevi, the great goddess, was worshipped under a thousand designations and invested in an infinite variety of forms. This practice was more prevalent in the eastern provinces of northern India. One form was that of Vara Marg, who was worshiped with wine, meat, fish, various body postures and sexual intercourse. Their shrines could be the centers for bloody sacrifices and sensual obscenities. In north India, the goddess was seen a mother. These goddesses were sometimes very gracious and bounteous like Gauri, who was married to Shiva, whom the young girls worshipped in the hope of getting good husbands and a happy married life. The other forms of the goddesses, such as, Shakti, Durga, and Bhawani, who represented courage and power, were worshipped by the Rajputs. Shrines of these goddesses are found all across Rajasthan. She was addressed by such names as Mahamaya, Kali Mata, Chamunda, Sakrai, Rai Mata, Naguechian, Sitala Mata, and Karaiji.

The other gods who had huge followers were Ganesh or Ganapati and the sun god. Ganesh was the God of good luck and fortune, and the one who removed all evils. He was worshipped prior to starting any new project or venture. He was also called Vinayak. The worship of the sun god was widespread in this century. The god was worshipped by offering water in the form of 'aragya' in the morning and the chanting of the 'gayatri mantra'. People, especially agriculturists, also worshipped nature to ward off adverse effects of nature such as rain, drought, heat or cold. Rivers and their tributaries were also worshipped since they were regarded as goddesses. The course of the rivers in the plains was marked as holy cities Tree worship was very common. Pipal was regarded as the Brahman among trees. Tulsi plant was held very sacred by the Hindus. Spirit worship was another major element in Hindu belief.

Muslims

Three factors influenced the beliefs and practices of the 18th century Muslims. The decline of the Mughal empire, the wide prevalence of the doctrine of Wahdat-ul-

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Wujud (unity of existence or immanence) and the influence of Hinduism. A Muslim state was deemed to follow the Shariat laws, but the rulers of the time did not have the will or the political and economic power to enforce it. The Wahdat-ul-Wujud doctrine encouraged an attitude of indifference towards moral laxity although its main aim was to establish a kind of positive tolerance of the beliefs and practices of non-Muslims, on the ground that God is immanent in his creation and Islam and other religions are one. But this concept was opposed. People like Shaikh Ahmed of Sirhind declared that believers of Wahdat-ul-Wujud were evading or undermining the Shariat, the concept of which was higher and could be realised through a spiritual awareness of the unity of phenomena. An intellectual reconciliation of the two doctrines were brought by religious reformer Shah Waliullah (1703-1763) who claimed that the two were different stages on the road of spiritual knowledge. He also tried relentlessly to bring Islam to the masses by translating the Quran in Persian.

However, the orthodox Muslims preached sectarianism. The Mughal court had coteries of the Shai and the Sunnis. Mirza Mazhar Jani-Janan (1702-81), a leading religious and social personality, was murdered by the Shias as they suspected him of making derogatory remarks about the Tadhiahs.

Practices and beliefs

During this period, several folk deities had emerged. Goga was one of the folk deities worshipped in north India, especially in Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. He was worshipped in various forms — as a snake god, a warrior and a saint. According to legends, he was the son of a Chauhan Rajput. Muslims on the other hand considered him to be a peer or a saint. There were also the worshipers of Kkwaja Khizr, the god of water. We also find reference of bisnois, who followed Hinduism, offering the namaz five times a day with their face towards the east. They repeated the names of the Hindu gods, all the angels and prophets such as Allah, Michael, Israel, Jibraeel, and Muhammadaeel and buried their dead. Whenever they uttered the name of Vishnu, they had to say 'bismillah'. Untouchability was common among this sect and they did not eat with one who did not belong to their fraternity.

Hussaini Brahmans were another sect who claimed a mythical relationship with Imam Hussain. They accepted gifts and charity from none other than the Muslims. The Shanwis followed the religious practices of both the Hindus and Muslims and abstained from eating beef and pork. They danced before the idol of Kalka and witnessed aarti in Mathura and Vrindaban. The sect of Sivanamyans was popular with the Muslims. The cult of Mian Bibi found favour both with the Hindus and Muslims equally although Mian Bibi was a deity of the female sex. Shah Daulah's mausoleum attracted many. The worship of Panjpir (five saints) was very common in the Punjab and adjacent areas.

Superstition was such that people in general believed in the power of charms and amulets for healing the sick, casting off evil spirits, curing infertility and even identifying thieves. belief in astrology was strong and much depended on the efficiency of the astrologer. There were lucky numbers and unlucky numbers. Thirteen was generally considered to be unlucky, while other odd numbers were considered to be lucky. Number fifty-two was one of the Hindu favourite numbers. Number five was considered sacred. people believed in charity as it would bring blessings and good luck.

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People believed fasting was a road to penance and please the gods; the longer the duration of the fast and the rigorous it is, the better the results. Practices such as the Ramzaan by the Muslims, fasting for a month, or the 'nirjala ekadashi' by the Hindus did not allow even a drop of water during the fasting period. As such, Hindus went on fast in the name of deities on occasions, such as, Janmashtami, Nagapanchmi, Satyanarayan, and Shivratri. These were mostly for a day. During the 'navratris' or 'durga puja' people kept fast for eight to nine days. People celebrated *raksha bandhan*, *bhai duj*, and *teej*. Holi was a popular festival and celebrated best in Mathura and Vrindaban. It was celebrated both by the Hindus and the Muslims. Dussehra and Diwali were also celebrated by the Hindus. Some of these festivals are celebrated till today.

Islam being a puritanical religion, the Muslims had very few festivals. Id-ul-Azha or Id-i-Qurban was the most important festival. Id-ul-fiter was celebrated after fasting for a month for Ramzan. It was celebrated for three days with great festivities, fire-works and banqueting. Nauroz was the Persian new year day. On that date, the king received presents from the nobles. Muharram was celebrated mainly by the Shia Muslims. Shab-e-Barat was another Muslim festival when houses were illuminated along with great display of fireworks.

1.4 ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

Extreme contrast marked 18th century India. While the rich were extremely rich and led a life of luxury, a section of the population was extremely poor. The latter were the agriculturists who were oppressed and impoverished. The state's increasing demand for higher revenue, oppression by officials, greed and rapacity of the nobles, zamindars and revenue farmers. The masses too were exploited by this hierarchy, the destruction due to the wars and invasions. Several prosperous cities, centres of trade and famous temples were ransacked and devastated. Ahmed Shah Abdali, the king of Afghanistan, attacked India five times. Indian tribes as well as kingdoms too indulged in plunder. The Jats attacked Agra, while the Marathas plundered Surat and other cities of Gujarat and the Deccan, the Sikhs looted Sarhind. The decline of the Mughal as the central power led to disintegration and disrespect for law and order. At this point, the urban centres had become a dead place. Poet Nazir gives a graphic picture of Agra of the 18th century in these words:

'Joblessness could show only one thing—poverty

On the hovels of the poor there are no roofs

Poverty covers the hovels

Everyone in Agra these days is ruined

No one knows how he will live further

Although they know thousands of arts and crafts

Dust settles in bazar while shopkeepers sit in their empty shops

As though thieves lined up in prison.'

V.P.S. Raghuvanshi writes, 'Civilized life cannot flourish amid conditions of insecurity and oppression. In the 18th century the fall of the Mughal monarchy released forces of political disintegration and anarchical conditions which destroyed the creative and cooperative spirit of man. They caused deterioration in every phase of national

Check Your Progress

16. The worship of nature had a very strong hold over the pastoral and agricultural people. (True/False)
17. What were the followers of Shiva called?
18. What shaped the beliefs and practices of the Muslims?
19. _____ tried to bring Islam to the masses of India by translating the Quran into Persian.
20. People believed in acts of _____ which carried special healing powers.

life. The regions which suffered most from the ravages of the soldiery became the scenes of uprooted humanity and epidemics. The period glorified war, bred anarchy and held civilisation in terror.'

Ghulam Hussain, a historian from Bengal, calls the 18th century 'an age of senseless, slothful princes and of grandees, ignorant and meddling'. He writes, 'It is in consequence of such wretched administration that every part of Hind has gone to ruin and every one of its discouraged urban inhabitants have broken their hearts. Life itself has become disgusting to most. So that, on comparing the present times with the past, one is apt to think that the world is overspread with blindness and that the earth is totally overwhelmed with an everlasting darkness.'

As we have seen, this period saw several wars and invasions and attempt by regional ruler to consolidate their position. All these created a situation of constant flux and major economic centres such as Delhi, Lahore, Agra and even Mathura began declining. Large tracks of land in the country, like in the Deccan, were destroyed. This was also the period when the European merchants were making inroads. This had some positive impact on the economy of the coastal regions. The European merchants purchased Indian goods in return for gold and silver and this gave a stimulus to industry. Their interest in Indian cotton and silk, embroidery, perfume, art and craft, and ship-building promoted particular groups of artisans, specialisation of skills and small-scale industries. In industrial organization and techniques, India was more advanced than its European counterparts. Demand for Indian goods was growing not only in Europe but also in African countries and other Asian markets viz., Burma, Malaya, Indonesia, China and Japan.

Indian merchants were well established all along the ports of Persian Gulf and Red Sea. They were also met in considerable numbers in Kandahar, Kabul, Balkh, Bukhara, and Kashghar, in Afghanistan and Central Asia. Peter, the Great wrote, 'Commerce of India is the commerce of the world and he who can exclusively control it is the dictator of Europe.'

Within the country, the affluent classes contributed to the growing demand for luxurious goods. They had rich taste and never missed an opportunity to display opulence. These goods were made in small workshops (karkhanas) and at time some artisans became very famous. But a majority of the workers remained poor as they were not reimbursed appropriately. There was usually a middleman who would act as agents who pocketed the maximum profit. Usually merchants advanced money for raw materials and at times wages for finished goods. The agents would bring these finished products to the markets but in some cases the nobles or merchants dealt with the transactions directly.

A remarkable feature of this period was that the village was a self-sufficient economic unit. The need of the villagers were restrained by their economic capacity and, hence, most of the goods were available in the village itself. The peasants, who formed a large chunk of the population, was had little left after paying the revenue through their produce. The stream of exchange of goods between the village and the town was thin. Hence, lack of capital, rigidity of caste restrictions and the meagerness of trade between the village and the town, were the factors which prevented the development of the traditional business classes engaged in trade and banking into a strong and well-knit middle class of the European style. The Indian mercantile community consisted of the tradesmen, bankers and moneylenders. A huge portion of

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wealth of these classes were utilised in forwarding loans to the ruling class. However, they lacked the enterprising spirit.

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To explain the greatness and originality of Indian industry and culture, 17th century travel writer Pyrard said about India, 'I have never seen men of wit so fine and polished as are these Indians; they have nothing barbarous and savage about them, as we are apt to suppose.' Again, 'No people in the world know so much about pearls and precious stones; and even at Goa, the goldsmiths, lapidaries and other workmen occupied with the finer crafts, are all banyas and Brahmans of Cambay and have their own streets and shops.' But this economic prosperity was declining by the middle of the 18th century. While the English capitalist class was ready to take the advantage of the Industrial revolution, the Indian commercial class could not boast of any industrial tradition.

Ship-building was the most flourishing industry of the period. Merchant ships and boats were all manufactures in the country. The places these were built were Dacca, Allahabad, Lahore, Thatta, Masulipatam, Pulicat, Calicut, Surat, Bassein, Chittagong, Satraon, and Goa. In the art of ship-building, India was ahead of European nations. Parkinson writes, 'In ship-building, they probably taught the English far more than they learnt from them.'

The important centres of textile industry were Dacca and Murshidabad in Bengal, Patna in Bihar, Surat, Ahmedabad and Broach in Gujarat, Chanderl in Madhya Pradesh, Burhanpur in Maharashtra, Jaunpur, Varanasi, Lucknow and Agra in Uttar Pradesh, Multan and Lahore in Punjab, Masulipatam, Aurangabad, Chicacole and Vishakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh, Bangalore in Mysore (Karnataka) and Coimbatore and Madurai in Madras. Kashmir was a centre of woolen manufactures. The principal riches of India consisted chiefly of silk and cotton stuffs. Their great popularity was based upon the excellence of craftsmanship.

Though India was self-sufficient in agriculture and industrial goods, she imported materials, such as, raw silk, ivory, coral, tortoise-shell and amber in addition to metals. She was, however, continued to be a sink of precious metals. Van Twist writes, 'Although there were no gold or silver mines in India, large quantities of both were imported from foreign countries, and it was forbidden to export them.' Similar views are expressed by Hawkins and Terry.

Indian trade and industry was organised and financed by the merchants. It was not confined to the port towns only but spread along the trade routes. Multan in Punjab and the three Sing towns of Bukkur, Sukkur and Rohri were important centres of inland trade in the north-west. These towns had flourishing merchant communities such as the Khatris, Lohanas and Bhatias. Lahore, Delhi and Agra were big centres of commercial activity in northern India. Malda, Rangpur and Kasimbazar were important trade centres in Bengal. In Rajasthan, Ajmer, Jodhpur, Pall and Jaisalmer were old centres. Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Poona and Nagpur in the Maratha country rose in importance after 1750. Hyderabad, Bangalore and Tanjore were flourishing centres of trade and commerce. India exported indigo in huge quantity and limited amount of iron and steel from Masulipatam. Precious stones, marble, drugs, opium, and hing were exported from Gujarat and cotton yarn was exported from the Coromandel coast.

Apart from the merchant class, there existed a group of financiers. Jagat Seth, a rich marwari family from Murshidabad, was considered the biggest banker and money exchanger of the century. According to Nick Robins, 'The Jagat Seths were

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unrivalled in northern India for their financial power. Known as 'banker of the world', this Marwari family had build up formindable economic resources on the back of its control of the imperial mint and extensive monely lending. They wielded this financial clout at the Bengali court and were judged to be 'the chief cause of revolutions in Bengal' by a French commentator at the time.' During the first Maratha invasion of Bengal, it is said they took away two crore of Arcot rupees from Jagat Seth, but the incident did not affect their financing ability. Similarly, the Nathjis of Surat had vast resources for finance. The families of Nathu, Kotharis and Chettis (of the South) monopolised business and were regarded the richest. Their business extended to Burma, Malaya and the eastern islands. The Chettis were powerful bankers and had trade relations with the British. They gave the British merchants cash for their bill of exchange and operated through their agencies in the presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.

The big bankers performed all the functions of a modern bank viz., receiving deposits, giving loans and issuing *hundis*. The small bankers and money lenders operated mostly in the villages and gave loans to the artisans, farmers and others in need of capital. If we take into account the activities of the bankers, financiers and moneylenders in 18th century India, we see that the aggregate capital resources of the country were substantial, though scattered.

According to archeologist and historian Tara Chand, the peasants of the century was better off than their successors in the next century. This was so not only in respect to the larger size of his holding, but also because the average productivity of land was higher at that time. Cultivation of foodgrains was mainly for domestic purposes. In the Deccan, mainly wheat, gram, rice and millet were grown. Historian Khafi Khan states that jowar and bajra were the main support of the people of the Deccan and were extensively grown. Millet was the principle crop in north too. Next to foodgrains, sugarcane and cotton were widely grown. Tobacco, opium and indigo were grown for commercial purposes. Despite this self-sufficiency and surplus produce, the country faced several famines. The calamity would spread because of non-availability of foodgrains, while in some regions the food was in surplus.

Also there were huge price variation of foodgrains. Like price in Bengal were lower than north India, while in Gujarat the prices were higher than north India. The prices of commodities of daily consumption were very low. Price fluctuation depended on basically on two factors — regional and periodical. The former was the result of the difficulties and heavy cost of transport of agricultural products. If rains were deficient and crops failed, a farmer could not supplement his stock from outside except at ruinous prices. The margin of fluctuations in prices in the same locality from year to year was very wide.

The concept of wage labourers was an urban phenomenon that emerged in the 18th century. These unskilled people did odd jobs in the urban centres and small industries and were paid in cash. By the middle of the 18th century, the prevailing rate of daily wages in Calcutta was six pice for ordinary labourers and ten pice for skilled workers. At time they even went to the villages to work as agricultural labourers who were given a part of the produce. Hence, price fluctuation had a direct impact on wage earners.

Travellers and writers of the century have talked of poverty in India. These accounts should not be considered as a true picture as the writers based their theory on scantiness of clothing, the spartan lifestyle and the taste of utensils among the

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lower classes and not the lack of adequate quantities of nourishing diet. Fitch writes that in northern India, 'people go all naked save a little cloth bound about their middle. In the winter, the men wear quilted gowns of cotton and quilted caps with a slit to look out and tied down beneath their ears.'

Lord Cornwallis wrote in 1790, 'The consequences of the heavy drain of wealth with the addition of that which has been occasioned by the remittances of private fortunes, having been for many years and are now severely felt, by the great diminution of the current specie and by the languor which has thereby been thrown upon the cultivation and the general commerce of the country.'

1.5 DEBATES OF THE 18TH CENTURY

During the 16th and 17th centuries, while northern India was dominated by Mughal politics, the south had small and mid-sized Kingdoms, without much of a concept of a united India, from Kashmir to Kanyakumari. South India was trudging along sleepily, as the Europeans started slipping in and controlling the business, without so much as any controls. In fact, European business was facilitated by the duty free trades, where no such provision was there for the Indians.

Advent of the Europeans

Europeans had planned to come in to India since 15th century. First of the Europeans to have set foot into India were the Portuguese. Vasco-de Gama came in 1498, even before the Mughals arrived in India. When Vasco da Gama docked his ship in Calicut, he announced that he came in search of 'Christians and spices' and the very first people he met here were Christians, who were descendants of those who had settled in India way back in the 4th century AD. Albuquerque followed eleven years later in 1509. Portuguese had a vibrant business in spices in India, as the religious bent was forgotten in the glitter of wealth being generated. Mughals did not warm up to the European trade in India. Besides, the Portuguese, essentially the Catholics were religious fanatics. The intolerance levels ran high that then in Goa, Hindu temples were not allowed to be built. Albuquerque, the second Viceroy of Goa, encouraged mixed marriages, simply with the aim of bonding the indigenous Goans to the Portugal by culture, bloodline and religion. It would be a matter of conjecture, whether the Portuguese should have gone further and consolidated themselves militarily in India. The Portuguese could not move beyond Goa, since Spain had taken over their country in 1580.

The Portuguese were followed by the Dutch in 1595. The Dutch had commenced their business initially from Jakarta, however, they had their factories dotting all over (in Cochin, Nagapatam and even up in Agra). They did not attempt to gain military power, and were satisfied with the business and profit.

French King Loius XII had granted letters of monopoly to French traders in 1611, however, it was not till December 1667 that a French business company came and established in India. They came in through Surat in 1667 and was followed by another French company in South Eastern Coast in Masulipatnam. The French were able to establish themselves in Golconda and thereafter in the Carnatic (Karnatak), as the Golconda King exempted them from paying duty.

English, to begin with moved into East Indies, where the Dutch had already established business. Their relations were cordial, as both the nations had Spain and

Check Your Progress

21. Ahmed Shah Abdali plundered _____ and _____.
22. In industrial organisation and techniques, India was more advanced than the western countries. (True/ False)
23. How has Ghulam Hussain described the 18th century society?
24. Why were luxury goods in demand?
25. Which were the boat-building and ship-building centres in India in this period?
26. Name the textile centres of India in the 18th century.

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Portugal as the common enemies. The Dutch, however, did not readily allow the British to get into the spice business in the East Indies. As such the British got nudged towards Carnatic coast in South East India. The British slowly established themselves through diplomacy with Jahangir, and the naval supremacy got them the attention. After Mumbai was gifted to British in 1674 as dowry of the Portuguese queen of Charles II, the British never looked back. The death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the inability of various power centres in India to unite, and the ambitious Marathas left British scheming and crawling up to the areas which had power vacuum. It is a moot point, whether, if the French managed their diplomacy and military power better, they could have the better of the British in India. Besides, if the Mughal Empire had not crumbled in the beginning of the 18th century, the British could have been through out of India by the Marathas in the Deccan, Tipu, supported by the French in the south, and Afghan invaders from the North West. Nevertheless, since the power centres in India, and the invaders from Persia and Afghanistan could never come to terms, the British got the advantage. Besides, East India Company was always supported by the Parliament in the island.

Debate then arises, as to how the British got the better of the indigenous powers, as well as the other European trading companies. There is no doubt that the British are shrewd, astute in the diplomacy, and carry clarity of purpose, and have a long-term vision. The Asians appeared to be rather shortsighted and are self-centred and self-seeking. The other Europeans were either not as ambitious militarily, nor as strong and persistent, and possibly, the government at home were neither in a position to support them, nor interested in venturing on to the political games. Some of the questions that can be sought are as under, nevertheless, the answer to these questions could be any body's guess. The questions that are sought are:

- (a) What if Portugal was not occupied by the Spain at the end of 16th century?
- (b) Would Portugal have been able to make the rest of the country Luso Indians?
- (c) What if the French would have defeated the British in the Carnatic wars?
- (d) What if the Marathas had won in the third battle of Panipat?
- (e) Had the Marathas treated Rajputs and Jats respectfully, and had they supported Marathas in their campaigns Northwards, Marathas may have sidelined the British, and established Hindu Samrajya.
- (f) Had the Dutch and Portuguese been able to establish militarily, what would have been the history of the British, and the rest of India?

1.5.1 Religious Debate

What role did the Christian missions play in the social reforms, as well as the education system? This point could churn up a lot of debate. It could be said with some conviction that though conversions to Christianity had always been a controversial point, there was certainly efforts at reforms in the system of education as well as efforts at social reforms such abolition of sati, child marriage, widow remarriage.

By 1830, evangelists started having a lot of influence on the British government in arriving at the education policy. In 1830, English was being used as the language of instruction. By 1837, Persian was no longer being used as the court language, as English was being used for administration as well as at the court. By the beginning of the 19th century, Christian missionaries were given permission to spread the faith and implement conversion activities.

Whether it was right on the part of the local rulers to make it easy for the *phirangis* (foreigners) to establish and carry on their business without paying the duty, and also facilitating them to attain monopoly in their trades locally, such a move was certainly self-centric and without the concern of their subjects/people under their jurisdiction. As the leader or king of the areas they were responsible, the rulers should have had this concern for their public.

Should they not have been particular about the trade agreements, and specified clear terms and products, followed by periodic reviews and feedbacks to make sure that the Europeans were not fleecing the country of its treasures and their trade actions did not cause adverse effect to the economy of their own country. When the British went to Canton, (Guangzau for trade), they were allowed to do specific trade under the clear terms and conditions by the local satrap. There had, therefore, been no military intrusion by the British into China with the exception of Hong Kong, and that, too, on lease from China.

Should the rulers, particularly Mughals, Marathas and others along the coast, have been particular that the European soldiers were not allowed to set foot on Indian soil, as they would have been provided security by the local satraps. It was a foregone conclusion that there was no concept of a united India, and each of the kings, *rajahs*, *nawabs*, independent *zamindars*, who has the powers for collection of revenue, particularly those, who had not been brought under the Mughal administration, had no larger concerns of the Indian nation. Probably India as one large united entity was either not there, or its concept was hazy in the minds of its people.

India has been a greatly tolerant country as far as religion was concerned. When we say this, we refer to emergence of new religious thoughts and practices, such as Buddhism, Jainism, and Sufism, which preached tolerance, peace and tranquility. Muslims, particularly during the times of Aurangzeb, did all that was possible to convert Hindus in large scale, and make the life for those unbearable who protested. The tolerance of the Hindus for all the other religions was certainly taken as weakness, and there has been a large scale missionary network with a view to convert. It has been a matter of debate, whether it was religion or politics.

Decline of Mughal regime

Death of Aurangzeb brought about clear power vacuum in India, and British could see it. There was no central power in India, which could stop the British military expansion, and the totally fraudulent business policies and structure, which ended up fleecing India of its long acquired and cherished treasures. This particularly happened in Bengal, Bihar, Delhi and some parts of the Deccan plateau and Coromandel coast. It is hardly surprising that the more insular British thought it was their divine right or the white man's burden to set the house in order for the Indians who seemed to be their own worst enemies. The theory of the 'white man's burden' was only a cover for the plunder the British had meticulously conducted across India, and gather military power for the next two centuries. It will continue to be debated whether the British discriminated against the native Indians for the benefit of their nation or caused their policies and power structure to enable fragmented power centres in the country to be formulated into one large and now consolidated, united progressive, secular, and democratic nation with substantial liberty, and opportunities to its multi religious, multilingual and multicultural society.

Continuation of the chaos and upheaval

Transition of the
18th Century

Invasion and plundering of north India by Nadir Shah and thereafter by Ahmad Shah Abdali took place when the Mughal empire had lost its sheen. That was the time the British, waiting in the wings to grab power created by the vacuum, made itself available and began dictating authority. Simultaneously, regional powers such as the Marathas, Sikhs and Nizams of Hyderabad and Bengal were grinding their own axe without thinking of presenting a united front. Smaller kingdoms, what is now Haryana and Rajasthan, did not add any luster to the political situation. It shall always be debated whether a united military force could have dealt with the invaders. Would then, India of those days, avoided the massacre and plunder of Delhi by the Afghan invaders from the North-West? Would not then, it would have been so easy for the East India Company to defeat much stronger nawab's forces in the battles of Plassey and Buxar, and swindle Bengal and Awadh of its treasures during 18th and 19th centuries?

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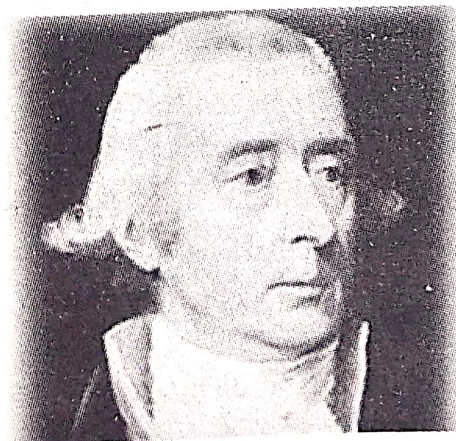
The middle of the 18th century saw the company's servants follow depraved, unethical discriminatory and corrupt practices for individual aggrandizement. While it was some of the policies of the East India Company that tacitly allow these practices to grow freely, there were others in the Parliament in London who thought that the situation had become very bleak, grave, and depressing that some reforms were required to bring order. It is a point to ponder whether the intension for reforms was dispassionate and objective or it came from the jealousy when company's servants were seen to be brazenly ostentatious, because they were not in a position to acquire the disproportionate wealth, or the covetousness, as the newer policies may have enabled them to get richer themselves.

Whatever was the situation, the British government moved on to consolidate their power in the Indian sub-continent and became the unbridled and unquestioned power. During the British rule, a sense of nationalism seems to have got instilled in the minds of the Indian. Hence, when the British left, they left a substantially healthier nation, and their identity, thereby facilitating progress in all the fronts (military, economic, industry, education and infrastructure).

The second half of the 18th century saw two distinct episodes which clearly did not speak well of the British ethos and sense of justice. These were:

- (a) The conflict between Hastings and Philip Francis, and
- (b) Judicial murder of Maharaja Nanda Kumar

The conflict between Hastings and Philip Francis



Warren Hastings

To curb the power of the East India Company, the Parliament in Great Britain imposed a number of administrative and economic reforms. The Regulating Act of 1773 was passed which established the sovereignty and control of the Parliament over the Company. Under the Act, Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of Bengal and was given the administrative powers over all of British India. Hastings, however, soon ran into trouble and his biggest rival Philip Francis was convinced that the Governor General's policies were self-serving and destructive, and he began raising questions about Hastings' conduct. He even accused Hastings of corruption. However, the attempts to impeach him were unsuccessful.

Murder of Maharaja Nanda Kumar



Figure 1.2 Nanda Kumar

Maharaja Nanda Kumar had accused Hastings of bribing him for more than one-third of a million of rupees and claimed that he had proof against Hastings in the form of a letter. On rebound Maharajah Nanda Kumar was charged of forgery and convicted before the supreme court of perjury and his execution under English law (the only law known to British then). Nanda Kumar was hanged in 1775. The episode exposed the moral weakness of the council majority. It may be of interest to know that:

- (a) Nanda Kumar was appointed as Collector of Burdwan, Nadia and Hugli by the East India Company in 1764 in place of Warren Hastings.
- (b) Warren Hastings was a school friend of Sir Elijah Impey, who was first Chief Justice of Supreme Court in Calcutta and gave judgment to hang Nanda Kumar.
- (c) Nanda Kumar's hanging was termed as a judicial murder by certain historians.
- (d) Macaulay accused both Hastings and Elijah Impey to have conspired to execute a judicial murder.
- (e) Maharaja Nanda Kumar was hanged in Calcutta, near present day Vidyasagar Setu, during Warren Hastings' rule, on 5 August 1775.

The British administration did not acquit themselves civilly. Further, the introduction of British law in Bengal, with serious adverse implications in the Indian society caused clear discrimination against Indians. Lord Cornwallis, when sent in 1793 to carry out reforms which were flawed from the beginning, started with the assumption that the race of Europeans were superior and so the top posts were given to the Europeans and the Indians were given the lowest posts. Revenue collectors, such as zamindars were deprived of their judicial powers. A system of courts from session to the supreme (Sadar Deewani Adalat) court through district and provincial courts was established. Interestingly, while courts up to the district level could deliver justice to Indians, the provincial courts could hear appeals from the Indians only, and not the English. Commencement of court and the Company's administrative work in English language, would always to be debated, for its benefits or limitations and clear discrimination against the natives. This was particularly so then, as it would be rare for Indians to know the language.

Notwithstanding the clear prejudice against the Indians, Cornwallis implemented a number of reforms to bring down corruption substantially and bring in professionalism and integrity in public dealings.

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ACTIVITY

Discuss what the present day historians have said about the society and polity of the 18th century India.

DID YOU KNOW

Hastings resigned from the East India Company in December 1764 and sailed for Britain the following month. He was left deeply saddened by the failure of the more moderate strategy he supported which had been rejected by the hawkish members of the Calcutta Council. Once he arrived in London, Hastings began spending far beyond his means. He stayed in fashionable addresses and had his picture painted by Joshua Reynolds in spite of the fact that, unlike many of his contemporaries, he had not amassed a fortune while in India. Eventually, having run up enormous debts, Hastings realized he needed to return to India to restore his finances and applied to the East India Company for employment. His application was initially rejected as he had made many political enemies including the powerful director Laurence Sullivan. Eventually an appeal to Sullivan's rival Robert Clive secured Hastings the position of deputy ruler at the city of Madras. He sailed from Dover in March 1769. On the voyage he met the German Baroness Imhoff and her husband. He soon fell in love with the Baroness and they began an affair, seemingly with her husband's consent. Hastings' first wife, Mary, had died in 1759 and he planned to marry the Baroness once she had obtained a divorce from her husband. The process took a long time and it was not until 1777 when news of divorce came from Germany that Hastings was finally able to marry her.

Check Your Progress

27. Why did Persian cease to be a court language in the early 18th century?
28. Give examples to criticise British policies in the 18th century.
29. Who was Nanda Kumar?
30. Middle of the 18th century saw the company's servants follow depraved, unethical discriminatory and corrupt practices for individual aggrandizement. (True/False)

1.6 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Social life in the 18th century was marked by stagnation and dependence on the past.
- Any deviation from established laws and conventions resulted in excommunication.
- The social system in the 18th century had two aspects. One aspect was a grading on the basis of official power and position. The second aspect was an ordering based on religion and the traditional divisions of society.
- The *brahmanas*, *kshatriyas* and *vaisyas* were all divided and sub-divided into a large number of easiest and sub-castes.
- People of different castes could worship the same God, observe the same manners and customs, but would not eat together.
- The caste prescribed different codes for different groups.
- Occupation was another decisive factor in the formation of caste.
- The family system in the 18th century was, primarily patriarchal.
- The status of a woman in the family depended entirely on her capacity to give births to sons and, hence, they were prepared to make any sacrifice for that purpose.
- The untouchables were denied certain basic privileges of living.
- Slavery prevailed in the country.
- In the 18th century, it became difficult to differentiate between the practices of a Muslim family and a Hindu family although the Muslims conformed to the Shariat.
- In the 18th century, it was made a point of prestige to have the women of the family concealed in the innermost quarters of the house.
- Celibacy did not find any recognition as a virtue in Muslim society.
- The educational system of both the Hindus and Muslims was unprogressive
- The princes and noblemen of India showed some interest in European animals and birds, mirrors, toys, wives and spirits, but they showed no interest in their social, economic or cultural' affairs.
- Although almost every branch of knowledge of the Muslims was studied in the Christian universities of Spain, Italy and France, the new discoveries of Europe remained almost entirely unknown in India till the end of the 18th century.
- The Hindus used the regional language for elementary education and Sanskrit for higher learning.
- The medium of instruction in both Hindu and Muslim schools was Persian.
- The educational system of the Muslims was not very much better than that of the Hindus. It was intended only for the upper classes and did not offer any instruction to the Muslim masses.
- The teaching of rational sciences, including medicine and astronomy, was wholly bookish.

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- During the 18th century, Urdu spread to all corners of India.
- When the British dominion extended over Northern India, Urdu was employed by polite society of the Muslims and the Hindus.
- A large number of masters of rhetoric, style and diction who possessed supreme authority over language appeared during 18th century.
- It was during the 18th century that the Christian missionaries set up printing-presses in India and brought out vernacular editions of the Bible.
- As there was a lack of patronage at Delhi, the artists migrated to the state capitals like Hyderabad, Lucknow, Murshidabad, Jaipur etc.
- The followers of Vishnu were called Vaishnavites.
- The worship of Surya or the Sun was also prevalent in the 18th century.
- Separate religious communities were organised and consolidated within the pale of Saivism and Vaishnavism by particular teachers in order to restrict and ensure the entire devotion of the individual for either Siva or Vishnu.
- The doctrine of Wahdat-ul-Wujud encouraged an attitude of indifference towards moral laxity although its main aim was to establish a kind of positive tolerance of the beliefs and practices of non-Muslims, on the ground that God is immanent in his creation and Muslims and non-Muslims. Islam and other religions are all one.
- The orthodox Muslims were involved in acute sectarianism.
- The people in general believed in the power of amulets and charms for healing the sick, catching the thieves, casting out devils, establishing friendship between two persons, curing barrenness, ensuring, the birth of male children and identifying thieves etc.
- Islam being a puritanical religion, the Muslims had very few festivals. Id-ul-Azha or Id-i-Qurban was the most important, festival.
- The increasing revenue demands of the state, oppression of officials, greed and rapacity of the nobles, revenue farmers and zamindars, marches and counter-marches of the rival armies and the destruction brought about by foreign invaders, made the life of the people wretched.
- In the 18th century, wars, invasions and other calamities wrought havoc and cities like Lahore, Delhi, Agra and Mathura in the North and large tracts of the country in the Deccan were destroyed.
- The rich created a great volume of demand for luxury goods as they loved good things of life and desired expensive articles of fine make.
- The Indian village was a self-sufficient economic unit.
- Lack of capital, rigidity of caste restrictions and the meagreness of trade between the village and the town, were the factors which prevented the development of the traditional business classes engaged in trade and banking into a strong and well-knit middle class of the European type.
- Indian was self-contained and generally self-sufficient in agricultural and industrial goods required for the consumption of her population.
- Indian industries not only met the home demand but also exported their goods.



- Among other articles of export, indigo was of importance. Limited quantities of iron and steel were exported from Masulipatam. Cotton yarn was exported from the Coromandel coast. Gujarat exported precious stones, marble, drugs, opium, Hing etc.
- The view of Tara Chand is that the peasant in the 18th century was better off than his successor in the 19th century. This was so not only in respect of the larger size of his holding, but also because the average productivity of land was higher at that time.
- Every region and even every village tried to be self-sufficient in food supply.
- By the middle of the 18th century, the prevailing rate of daily wages in Calcutta was six pice for ordinary labourers and ten pice for skilled workers.
- There is no doubt that the British are shrewd, astute in the diplomacy, and carry clarity of purpose, and have a long term vision.
- It was a foregone conclusion that there was no concept of a united India, and each of the kings, rajas, nawabs, independent zamindars, who has the powers for collection of revenue, particularly those, who had not been brought under the Mughal administration, had no larger concerns of the Indian nation.
- Should they not have been particular about the trade agreements, and specified clear terms and products, followed by periodic reviews and feedbacks to make sure that the Europeans were not fleecing the country of its treasures and their trade actions did not cause adverse effect to the economy of their own country.
- The theory of the 'white man's burden' was only a cover for the plunder the British had meticulously conducted across India, and gather military power for the next two centuries.
- Middle of the 18th century saw the company's servants follow depraved, unethical discriminatory and corrupt practices for individual aggrandizement.
- The introduction of British law in Bengal, with serious adverse implications in the Indian Society, caused clear discrimination against Indians.

1.7 KEY TERMS

- **Karkhanas:** Hindi terminology for workshops.
- **Jogis:** An ascetic who has renounced material comfort and is a follower of Shiva.
- **Maktabas:** The elementary schools of the Muslims.
- **Muta:** A marriage contract among Muslims which is for a fixed-term or short-term, and where where the duration and compensation are both agreed upon in advance.

1.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The social system in the 18th century had two aspects. One aspect was a grading on the basis of official power and position. The second aspect was an ordering based on religion and the traditional divisions of society.

2. The vaisyas were the community of businessmen. However, they had two broad divisions. One branch took to trade and the other to agriculture. It was the former who were typical of their class.
3. False
4. True
5. There were certain occupations which were open to all such as trading, agriculture and military service.
6. Remarriage
7. False
8. True
9. False
10. Centres of higher education in Sanskrit literature were called Chatuspathis or tola in Bengal and Bihar.
11. Heer Ranjha, the famous romantic epic in Punjabi, was written by Warris Shah.
12. True
13. False
14. True
15. True
16. True
17. The followers of Siva were called Shaivites.
18. The beliefs and practices of the Muslims in the 18th century were influenced by three factors—the decline of the Mughal Empire, the wide prevalence of the doctrine of Wahdat-ul-Wujud (unity of existence or immanence) and the influence of Hinduism.
19. Shah Waliuliah
20. Charity
21. Delhi and Mathura
22. True
23. Ghulam Hussain, a historian of Bengal, calls the 18th century as ‘an age of senseless, slothful princes and of grandees, ignorant and meddling’.
24. The upper classes demanded luxury articles. Its volume was considerable. The rich created a great volume of demand for luxury goods as they loved good things of life and desired expensive articles of fine make. The producers of high quality luxury goods worked in their homes or in the state karkhanas (workshops) in the towns. Some village artisans who had acquired special skill in their respective crafts also contributed to the supply of these articles.
25. There was a flourishing boat-building industry at Dacca, Allahabad, Lahore, Thatta, Masaulipatam. Pulicat, Calicut, Surat, Bassein and Goa. The important ship-building centres were Goa, Bassein, Surat, Masulipatam, Satraon, Dacca and Chittagong.
26. The important centres of textile Industry were Dacca and Murshidabad in Bengal, Patna in Bihar, Surat, Ahmedabad and Broach in Gujarat, Chanderl in

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Madhya Pradesh, Burhanpur in Maharashtra, Jaunpur, Varanasi, Lucknow and Agra in Uttar Pradesh, Multan and Lahore in Punjab, Masulipatam, Aurangabad, Chicacole and Vishakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh, Bangalore in Mysore (Karnataka) and Coimbatore and Madurai in Madras. Kashmir was a centre of woollen manufactures.

27. By 1830, evangelists had a lot of influence on the British government in deciding their education policy. In 1830, English was being used as the language of instruction. And, by 1837, Persians was no longer being used as the court language, as English was being used for administration as well as at the court. By the beginning of the 19th century, Christian missionaries were given permission to spread the faith and implement conversion activities.
28. The second half of the 18th century saw two distinct episodes which clearly did not speak well of the British ethos and sense of justice. These were:
 - (a) The Conflict between Hastings and Philip Francis, and
 - (b) Judicial Murder of Maharaja Nanda Kumar.
29. Maharaja Nanda Kumar was appointed the collector of Burdwan, Nadia and Hugli by the East India Company in 1764, in place of Warren Hastings. He had accused Hasting of bribing him for more than one-third of a million of rupees and claimed that he had proof against Hastings in the form of a letter. Nanda Kumar was, however, hanged on charged of forgery and convicted before the supreme court of perjury and was executed.
30. True

1.9 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What was the role of a woman in a Muslim household in the 18th century?
2. The education system in the 18th century was unprogressive. Discuss.
3. Write a note on Indian merchants in the 18th century.
4. What was the role of Christian missions in the establishment of British rule in India?
5. How significant was the caste system in the 18th century?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Do you think the Hindu education system was better than the Muslims? Give arguments to justify.
2. What was the relation between superstition and religion? Discuss.
3. How did literature flourish in the 18th century? Give you arguments.
4. India of the 18th century was a land of contrasts. Discuss.
5. Was the establishment of British rule a matter of chance or a conjunction of circumstances?
6. What caused the loss of India's sovereignty? What were the failings of the Indian rulers?

1.10 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 ADVENT OF THE EUROPEANS

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Unit Objectives
- 2.2 Coming of the Europeans
- 2.3 The Portuguese
 - 2.3.1 Factories, Fortresses and Commercial Arrangements
 - 2.3.2 Commodities of Export and Import
 - 2.3.3 Causes of Decline of the Portuguese
- 2.4 The Dutch
- 2.5 French and the British
 - 2.5.1 The French
 - 2.5.2 The British
 - 2.5.3 The French vs. the English
- 2.6 Summary
- 2.7 Key Terms
- 2.8 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 2.9 Questions and Exercises
- 2.10 Further Reading

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the transition of India in the 18th century. With the decline of the Roman Empire, around the 7th century, the commercial contact between the East and the West suffered. The geographical discoveries in the last quarter of the 15th century deeply affected the commercial relations of different countries of the world and produced far-reaching consequences in their history. The European nations now embarked on finding a new sea route towards the East. The first efforts were made by the Portuguese. Prince Henry of Portugal, nicknamed the 'Navigator', devoted his whole life to encouraging voyages for the discovery of a sea route to India.

In 1487, Bartholomew Diaz reached the Cape of Good Hope, and following his route Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese navigator, reached the shores of Calicut in 1498. Thus, the long-sought direct trade link with India was discovered. There was perhaps no event during the middle age, which had such far-reaching repercussions on the civilized world as the opening of the sea route to India.

After the discovery of India by Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese tried to establish a trade link and their rule in India. Later, the Dutch, English and the French companies came to India. The Dutch diverted their attention to Indonesia and Portugal. Since they were unable to compete with the English and the French companies, their rule became confined to Dadar, Goa, Daman and Diu.

In this unit, you will study about the advent of the Europeans—the Portuguese and the Dutch, and the British East India Company and the French. You will also study the reasons that led to the Anglo-French rivalry.

2.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

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After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the arrival of the Europeans in India
- Discuss how trade played an important role in the expansion of Portuguese power in the east coast of India
- Interpret the process of Dutch settlements in India
- Explain the reasons for the Anglo–French rivalry
- Summarize the causes of conflict between the French and the British

2.2 COMING OF THE EUROPEANS

The sea route from Europe to India was discovered by Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese explorer. He reached the Port of Calicut on 17 May 1498 and was received by the Hindu ruler of Calicut, the Samudiri, who was known by the title of Zamorin. This led to the establishment of the Portuguese trading stations at Calicut, Cochin and Cannanore. Cochin was the early capital of the Portuguese in India. Later, Goa became its capital and the Portuguese became a significant naval power on the Indian waters.

After the discovery by Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese made a lot of efforts to use the commercial potentialities of Asia, especially India. Local rulers who were ruling at that time allowed them to set up factories for the development of trade and commerce. They initiated propagation of the Christian faith, inter-marriages, conversions and settlements of the Europeans. New social groups emerged due to these activities. Many rulers made political and commercial alliances with them. When other European nations saw the successful commercial activities of the Portuguese, they also felt encouraged to indulge in trading activities with Asia. Many European powers came to India, but you will study about two prominent powers—the Portuguese and the Dutch.

DID YOU KNOW

The Portuguese national epic, the *Lusiadas* of Luís Vaz de Camões largely concerns Vasco da Gama's voyages.

Check Your Progress

1. Who discovered the sea route to India?
2. Name the early capital of Portuguese India?
3. When did Vasco da Gama reach the port of Calicut?
4. The Portuguese emerged as an important naval power in India. (True/False)

2.3 THE PORTUGUESE

The discovery of the sea route to India by Vasco da Gama, one of the most successful explorers in the Age of Discovery and the commander of the first ships to sail directly from Europe to India, ushered the era of the Portuguese trade in India. He returned to Portugal from India in 1499, with cargo worth sixty times his expenses. Zamorin treated the Portuguese mariner in a friendly manner, which encouraged them to open up commercial relations with Calicut within two years. In 1502, he established a factory at Cochin. The king of Cochin let Vasco da Gama build the first fort. He was followed by Alfonso de Albuquerque, who arrived in India in 1503.

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In 1505, the Portuguese appointed a governor named Francisco de Almeida who used to look after their affairs in India. He built forts at Anjadiva, Cannanore and Cochin. Alfonso de Albuquerque was the real founder of the Portuguese Empire in the East. In 1510, Albuquerque occupied the port of Goa from the Bijapur Sultan by a sudden attack and arranged for its defense by strengthening its forts. He was a capable ruler and played an important role in the abolition of the 'sati' system.

Albuquerque encouraged the Portuguese men to marry Indian women so that he could establish the authority of the Portuguese in India. He, however, ill-treated the Muslims. When Albuquerque died in 1515, the Portuguese had established themselves as the strongest naval power in India.

Nino da Cunha (1529–1538) transferred his capital from Cochin to Goa (1530) and acquired Diu and Bassein (1534) from Bahadur Shah of Gujarat. The famous Jesuit Saint Francisco Xavier arrived in India with Martin Alfonso de Souza during this time (1542–1545). Under Albuquerque's successors, the Portuguese occupied Diu, Daman, Salsette, Bassein, Chaul and Bombay, San Thome (near Madras) and Hugli (in Bengal).

Portuguese occupation of Diu compelled the Arabs to withdraw from the Indian trade. The Arab merchants of Calicut were apprehensive of the Portuguese designs from the very beginning. The Zamorins, the hereditary royal title used by the Hindu rulers of the medieval Kingdom of Calicut, supported them against the Europeans. On the other hand, Calicut's rivalry with Cannanore and Cochin forced them to cultivate friendship with the Portuguese. Besides, they forced Cochin to sell all its products through Calicut. To retaliate, this was an apt opportunity for Cochin. Its ruler allowed the Europeans to establish a factory in Cochin. The Portuguese exploited the situation to their advantage. They realized that Calicut was a major hindrance in controlling the Malabar trade. Hence, throughout the 16th century, the Portuguese carried on armed clashes against Calicut. With a view to driving out the Portuguese, the Zamorins allied with Bijapur, Gujarat, Ahmednagar and Egypt. However, they did not succeed. At any rate, the Zamorins continued to harass the Portuguese on land. Even on the seas the Portuguese found it difficult to destroy Calicut's naval power, which was organized under the celebrated Marakkar family of admirals. From 1528 to 1598, the Portuguese–Zamorin clashes were mainly confined to the seas. It was only in 1599 that the Portuguese succeeded in making a breakthrough against the Marakkars.

The Portuguese control was effective at only those places where they had built their fortresses. But their highhandedness and cruelty compelled even these allies to part with them in spite of their traditional rivalries with Calicut. For example, the Cannanore rulers, who supported the Portuguese against Calicut in the early years, later supported the Zamorin in 1558 against the Portuguese. Similarly the King of Tanur, who had become a Christian and supported the Portuguese against Calicut, turned his back to the Europeans. In fact, it was only Cochin and Quilon with whom Portuguese succeeded in maintaining a lasting friendship.

Portuguese settlements on the west coast consisted of the following places:

- Calicut (1500)
- Cochin (1501)
- Cannanore (1503)

- Quilon (1503)
- Cheliyam (1531)
- Rahole (1535)
- Krengannore (1536)
- Mangalore (1568)
- Hanawer (1568)
- Diu (1509)
- Goa (1510)
- Surat (1599)
- Daman (1599)

Portuguese settlements on the east coast consisted of the following places:

- Meliyapur
- Chittagong
- Hugli
- Bandel

The Portuguese power continued to be strong till the middle of the 16th century but with the death of Governor D.J. Castro, the Portuguese power in India began to decline.

2.3.1 Factories, Fortresses and Commercial Arrangements

The Italian merchants had established warehouses (factories) in Cairo and Alexandria to carry on trade and commerce. Following this example the Portuguese, too, founded factories on the coastal regions of India and certain other places in Asia. A factory could be defined as a commercial organization having an autonomous existence set up within the country with which another country had commercial relations. Each factory had an officer who was assisted by a number of persons appointed by the Portuguese king. He was the agent of the crown to promote economic, financial and administrative activities of all sorts. In all situations Portuguese national interests were of paramount consideration. Factories also required protection from hostile elements. Therefore, to consolidate and strengthen their power the Portuguese also attempted to fortify their factories. A chain of factories and fortresses came into existence for the support of the maritime trade conducted by the Portuguese. These fortified centers were expected to serve the Portuguese to check the movements of vessels owned by others and to function as areas for the reserve of military and naval forces. The system of factories had a great role to play in the commercial arrangements in the period beginning with the 16th century till the mid-18th century.

Western India

In the Malabar region, the Portuguese established their first factory in 1500 at Calicut. However, it could not run for a long time because the Zomorins were against the establishment of such factories. In 1525, finally, the Portuguese closed down their factory at Calicut. This did not stop the Portuguese to establish factories in other places, thus, they established factories in other places such as Cochin (1501), Cannanore (1503), Quilon (1503), Chaliyam (1531), Rachol (1535) Crangannore

(1536), and Mangalore and Honaver (1568). Later, in the second decade of the 16th century, Nizamul Mulk of Ahmednagar granted the permission to the Portuguese to construct a factory at Chaul.

In the north-west, Cambay (Khambayat) was the main port of call on the route from Malacca connecting Calicut, the ports of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf with the ports of the Mediterranean. Apart from this, factories were established by the Portuguese at Diu (1509, 1535), Bassin (1534), Surat, Daman (1599) and Bhavnagar. Thus, almost the entire coastal belt of Malabar, Konkan and north-west India came under the influence of the Portuguese.

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Eastern India

The Portuguese navigators came across several merchants from the eastern coast of India who had trade relations with other South-East Asian centers. The Portuguese collected textiles and other commodities from various port-towns of the Coromandel Coast. Some of these port-towns were Masulipatnam, Pulicat, San Thome, Pondicherry, Cuddalore, Porto Novo and Nagapatnam.

Meilapore known as San Thome to the north of Nagapatnam was also a Portuguese settlement, which was surrounded by walls. The Portuguese also established a fortress at Manar in 1518 on the western coast of Ceylon. This fortress, though not on the main land of India, could contain the movement of vessels to the east from the western side of the subcontinent.

The Portuguese also tried to establish commercial contacts with Bengal from AD 1517. The first effort in this direction was made at Chittagong—the chief port of Bengal during this period. After much manoeuvring, they at last obtained permission from Mahmud Shah, the king of Bengal, to establish factories at Chittagong and Satgaon in 1536. The second settlement at Hugli was granted to the Portuguese by Akbar in 1579–1580. The third one was established at Bandel with the permission of Shah Jahan in 1633. Yet, during the 16th century there were no fortresses on the eastern coast. Still the settlements, with a few artilleries, were able to oversee the movement of vessels carrying commodities.

South-East Asia

With a view to having an exclusive domination over the trade in the Indian Ocean regions, the Portuguese found it necessary to bring under their control the important trade centers in South-East Asia.

They established a few fortresses at Colombo and Batticaloa—all in Ceylon. Subsequently, contacts with Java, Siam, Moluccas, Martaban and Pegu were established. From 1518, the Portuguese started a settlement in China on the island of Sancheu. It was here that St. Francis Xavier, a Christian missionary, died in 1552.

The beginning of factories in various parts of the subcontinent of India and neighbouring Asiatic kingdoms provided an environment suitable for long distance trade to the Portuguese.

2.3.2 Commodities of Export and Import

The chief aim of the Portuguese in discovering the sea route connecting the East with Portugal was to collect spices directly from the places of production rather



than from the hands of the intermediaries like the Italian or the Muslim traders. Pepper became a necessary ingredient in European food. The demand for pepper went on increasing, especially for the sake of preserving meat. Besides, ginger, cinnamon, cardamom, mace, nutmeg and several exotic herbs from the East had a market in Europe.

A special variety of textiles like muslin and chintz and few animals like elephants, too, found their way to Portugal. The commodities which the Portuguese had were not acceptable to eastern nobility, thus, they did not have sufficient commodities to give in exchange to acquire commodities available in the East. They bought silver from the West so that they could buy commodities of the East.

Pepper was the most popular commodity which was traded from Malabar and the Konkan coasts. Ginger, white sandalwood, red sandalwood, sealing wax, indigo, spikenard, tamarind, areca nut, textiles, ivory and turmeric were also traded from the Malabar Konkan coasts to Portugal. In 1498, the Zamorin of Calicut asked Vasco da Gama to send gold, silver, coral and scarlet from Portugal. This shows that these commodities were imported to the Malabar and Konkan coasts.

In 1513, Alfonso de Albuquerque gave a list of commodities to the king of Portugal which he felt could be sold in India. This included items like coral, copper, quicksilver, vermilion, velvet, carpets, saffron, rose-water and clothes of various kinds. All these items were not from Portugal, but the Portuguese started procuring them from various places, like Flanders, Germany, England and other European countries.

Indigo, textiles, silk, handicrafts made of tortoise shells, taffeta, satin, chintz, *malmal*, and tripped cotton clothes were some of the things that were exported to Portugal. Among these items, silks were produced in places like Burhanpur and Balaghat, chintz in Cambay, sandalwood in Coromandel, spikenard in Bengal, calico in the vicinity of Daman, Cambay and Balaghat. The volume of export of textile products increased in the 17th century. Copper, broadcloths and cash in various denominations were sent to north-western coast. In addition to this, a few products such as pepper and other spices from the South were also taken to north-western India for the purchase of textiles. The most expensive item of export from this region was pearl, chiefly collected from the pearl fishery coast. Cotton and silk textiles and embroideries from Bengal were exported to the Portuguese. Ginger in conserve, myrobalans, butter, oil, wax and rice were the other commodities that were collected from Bengal.

The Portuguese brought brocades, damasks, satins, taffetas, cloves, nutmegs, mace, camphor, cinnamon, pepper, chests, writing desks, valuable pearls and jewels to Bengal. Most of these were from Malacca, China, Borneo, Ceylon and Malabar Coast. Sea-shells or cowries from Maldives, white and red sandalwood from Solor and Timor were also taken to Bengal by the Portuguese.

Various types of spices were collected from Ceylon and other South-East Asian regions. For example, Malacca and Java produced pepper for export. Moluccas produced good variety of cloves. The best sort of cinnamon was produced by Ceylon for export to Lisbon. Timor and Tennaserim produced good variety of sandalwood, which was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon. Sumatra provided sealing wax for Portuguese consumption. Borneo, Sumatra and China produced good variety of camphor for export to Lisbon. Benzoin from Pegu was also taken by the Portuguese to Portugal. Rhubarb was carried by the Portuguese from China.

In return, the Portuguese took gold, silver, cash and textiles to South-East Asian regions. Most of these textile goods were manufactured in India.

Finances of the Portuguese trade

Taking into account the details of the Portuguese enterprise on the Malabar coast in the period between 1500 and 1506, an Italian estimated in 1506 that the total investment needed for conducting trade with the East was 170,000 ducats every year.

The king of Portugal provided only one-fourth of this amount and the rest was raised by the merchants and financiers who collaborated with the Portuguese king. In 1500, he issued an order permitting natives as well as foreign merchants to send their own vessels to the East. Revenues collected in the form of booty, tributes and taxes levied on ships of the private merchants also provided funds for the conduct of trade with India.

European merchant-financiers

Italians, especially the Florentines, occupied an important position among the financiers in the 16th century. Most of the Italian financiers concluded contracts with the Portuguese king. They supplied cash or materials to the king at Lisbon. The king used them to purchase pepper and other commodities from India. These commodities were given to these financiers at Lisbon in view of the contracts signed. However, some of the financiers also sent their own factors to India. Cash or commodities were always sent under the supervision of the Portuguese authorities to the East.

Indian commodities also attracted the German financiers and merchants. The Portuguese king welcomed them with open arms for he was finding it difficult to finance the Oriental enterprise on his own. Since copper was given in part-payment for Indian commodities, especially pepper and other spices, large quantity of copper was needed for transactions. Some of the German merchant financiers like the Fuggers had a monopoly over the production of copper in Europe. This turned out to be of great use for trade with India. The German financiers could fit out their vessels, entrust cash and commodities to the India House in Lisbon to be taken to India under the Portuguese flag and buy the commodities from Lisbon according to the terms and conditions of the contracts signed.

During the second half of the 16th century both the Welsers and the Fuggers joined the expedition along with Giraldo Paris and Juan Battista Rovalesco for the purchase of 30,000 quintals of pepper directly from India and agreed to send an amount of 1,70,000 crusados to India annually. Thus, the firms of the Welsers and the Fugger's continued to be closely associated with the trade of India. There were a few Portuguese merchants who in their private capacity participated in the trade with India during the 16th century. State officials posted in India were also allowed to participate in the Indian trade. According to their position in the hierarchy, they had some rights to take certain quantity of commodities to Portugal, in lieu of remuneration in cash. The details of their entitlements were spelt out in their appointment orders and this formed part of their emoluments.

Indian merchants and rulers

Several Indian merchants supplied commodities to the Portuguese on credit when the latter did not have cash or commodities to furnish in exchange. The merchants

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of Cochin, especially the Marakkars, were of great help to the Portuguese in this respect and their services were gratefully remembered by the Portuguese officials.

Sometimes, the Portuguese king was persuaded to grant some privileges to such merchants. Khwaja Shamsuddin Gilani, who had settled down in Cannanore after service at the kingdom of Bijapur, was often helpful to the Portuguese in finding funds on loan.

Some of the local rulers stood surety for the Portuguese when they did not have sufficient money to pay the merchants for the commodities bought by them. For example, the king of Cochin came forward to help the Portuguese several times making the required volume of commodities available to them on credit.

The Portuguese had banned all other vessels from plying on the Indian Ocean and the Arabian Sea. They used to confiscate the ships which carried commodities without a pass (cartaz) from the Portuguese officials. All the ships were required to procure pass from the Portuguese officials in case something had to be shipped to India or other Asian countries. Even rulers of India like Akbar and his successors, Nilam Shah of Ahmednagar, Adil Shah of Bijapur, kings of Cochin, the Zamorins of Calicut and the rulers of Cannanore used to procure cartaz when they had to send ships to some places. The fees charged for the issuance of passes also became a source of income for them. Though only a small amount was charged as fees but ships who wished to take passes had to visit ports where the custom houses of the Portuguese asked them to pay tax. Also, the rulers who were defeated by the Portuguese were forced to pay them some money or something in kind. The Portuguese used this method a lot of times to procure money for investment. Thus, the Portuguese used a number of ways to earn money for running their trade in India.

Nature of the Portuguese trade with India

Right from the time Portuguese arrived at Calicut they had demanded that other merchants, Indian as well as foreign, should be ousted and a complete monopoly over trade be granted to them. Portuguese ships equipped with arms and ammunitions threatened other merchants and confiscated their merchandise and vessels. By 1501, the Portuguese king assumed a grandiloquent title showing his proprietary right over the Indian Ocean regions. The title proclaimed him Lord of Navigation, Conquest and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia and India.

In 1502, the Portuguese demanded an exclusive right over trade at Calicut to which the Zamorin, the king of Calicut, did not yield. Vasco da Gama declared war on ships plying on the Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean. He introduced an expedient under which those ships which carried a cartaz duly signed by the Portuguese authorities, namely the royal factor, were not to be attacked. This certificate was first issued in 1502.

Everyone who was involved in maritime activities had to procure cartaz from the Portuguese. There was a condition that they cannot load certain items on their ship such as pepper, ginger, ship pitch, horses, sulphur, lead, coir and cinnamon. The Portuguese had monopoly over these items.

Monopoly trade

Till the end of the 15th century, merchants from various quarters of the world were found on the coastal regions of India engaged in trade and commerce. Vasco da

Gama reported in 1498 that there were merchants from Mecca, Ceylon, Turkey, Egypt, Persia, Ethiopia and various parts of India at the port of Calicut. It is well-known that Chinese merchants as well as merchants from the Red Sea areas used to come to the Indian ports. There is no record of any group of merchants demanding exclusive right of trade in general, nor of any attempts made to declare a few or all commodities set apart for anybody. But, with the arrival of the Portuguese, this state of affairs underwent considerable change. Kings were pressurized to forbid other merchants from trading with their ports. Similarly, certain commodities were declared forbidden to be traded by others.

In other words, the Portuguese demanded monopoly of trade. The treaties concluded with the Indian rulers specifically mentioned this. The setting up of Portuguese fortresses at strategic places, surveillance by their patrolling vessels, and the insistence on passes for other ships were the attempts made to establish monopoly of trade in Asian waters.

Trade of the Indian rulers and merchants

The Portuguese attempts at establishing total monopoly did not bring about a situation in which trade conducted by the Indian rulers and merchants was totally uprooted. The king of Cannanore, for instance, used to collect passes from the Portuguese to send his vessels laden with commodities to Cambay and Hormuz. He imported horses from the above mentioned places though this was identified by the Portuguese a monopoly item. Sometimes such vessels were at the risk of being confiscated by the Portuguese. The same was the case with the kings of Tanur and Calicut on the Malabar Coast. The nobles of Gujarat continued their trade despite the Portuguese monopoly. Malik Gopi, Malik Ayaz, Khwaja Sofar and others interested in trade plied their ships with or without passes from the Portuguese. Besides, the local and foreign merchants settled in India carried on their trade with or without cartaz. The area between Calicut and Cape produced approximately 60,000 quintals of pepper but only 15,000 quintals were sent to the Portuguese factories. The rest of the pepper was taken to other ports and this was termed illegal by the Portuguese. The Portuguese were not willing to increase the price of pepper agreed upon in 1503 even after several decades. Hence, the producers of pepper did not have any alternative other than supplying it to the merchants who might buy it and send it to other centers of trade without the knowledge of the Portuguese. Moreover, several Portuguese officials conducted their own private trade in various commodities without the knowledge of their government. In fact, Portuguese monopoly was never effective in the Red Sea zone.

Trade and production

Overseas trade conducted in the 16th century in Asia in general and India in particular was, by and large, long-distance in nature involving the Asiatic ports on one side and the Atlantic ports on the other. The commodities exported from India reached various parts of Europe. There were a number of elements in the pattern of this trade, as explained earlier, which distinguished it from just 'peddling' trade.

In view of the greater demand for pepper, the cultivators strove to increase the production. In the period between 1515 and 1607, the production of pepper in the Malabar area went up by 200 to 275 per cent. Since we are not aware of the amount of production of pepper before the coming of the Portuguese, it is difficult

to determine the increase in production as well. At any rate, it is reasonable to conclude that the production of pepper in India increased after the Portuguese advent. But it must be borne in mind that the internal demand for pepper from the Mughal Empire and the external one from the Safavi Empire also might have contributed to the increase in pepper production in India.

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2.3.3 Causes of Decline of the Portuguese

The Portuguese power witnessed a decline as quickly as it had risen; the reasons of their decline were as follows:

- Nobody could carry on the work of Albuquerque.
- The Portuguese rulers were not tolerant towards religions of the country.
- The administrative system of the Portuguese had gradually become corrupt.
- The rise of other European trading powers—the Dutch, French and the British.
- In 1631, they lost Hugli when Qasim Khan, a Mughal noble, drove them out.
- In 1661, the king of Portugal gave Bombay to Charles II of England as dowry when he married the former's sister.
- The Marathas captured Salsette and Bassein in 1739.
- In the end, the Portuguese were left only with Goa, Diu and Daman.

The short-sighted policy of the Portuguese governors, resorting to every kind of corrupt practice in the name of business including selling people as slaves and carrying on piracy led to their gradual decline in India as well in as the East.

Check Your Progress

5. When was the first factory at Cochin established?
6. Who was considered the real founder of the Portuguese power in the East?
7. Why did Albuquerque encourage the Portuguese to marry Indian women?
8. Why did the Arabs withdraw from trading in India?
9. Identify the places where the Portuguese established settlements.
10. When did the Portuguese establish commercial contacts with Bengal?
11. What were the main trade items exported from India to Portugal?
12. All ships had to procure Portuguese pass in case something had to be shipped to India or other Asian countries. (True/ False)

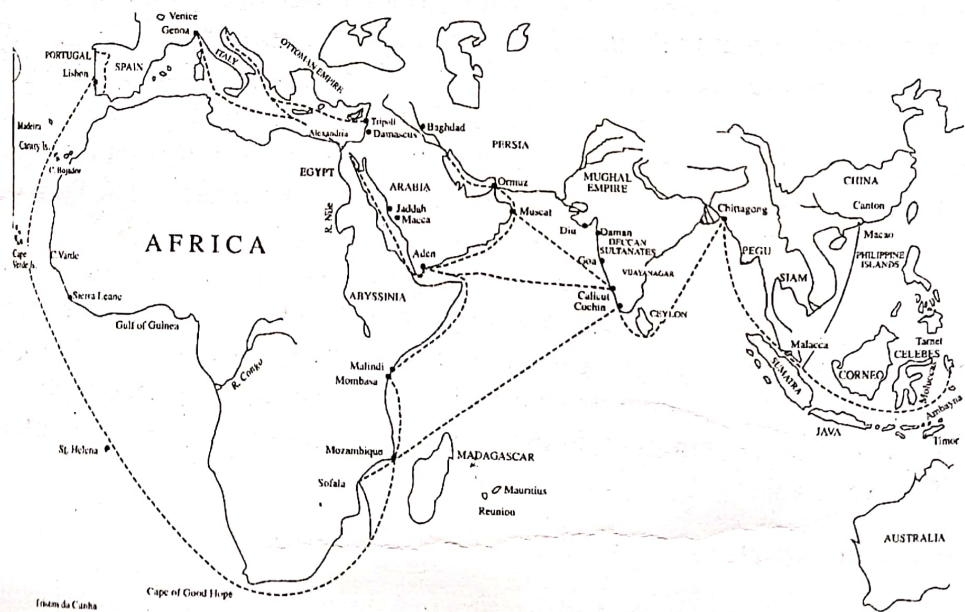


Figure 2.1 The Portuguese Possessions in the East and the Route to India

2.4 THE DUTCH

After the Portuguese, the Dutch also felt encouraged to trade in India. They wanted to have direct access to the spice market of India. To fulfill their ambition, they undertook many voyages to India from 1596 to 1602. In 1602, they established an organization named the United East India Company. The Dutch had conflicts with the Portuguese and the English merchants.

In 1602, the Dutch Parliament passed a Charter. This Charter led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company. As per this Charter, the company had the authority to make wars in order to acquire territories. It also had the power to make treaties and build fortresses.

Establishment of factories

Many factories were set up by the Dutch. Some of the factories were set up at Masulipatam (1605), Pulicat (1610), Surat (1616), Bimilipatam (1641), Karikal (1645), Chinsura (1653) and Cochin (1663). In 1668, the company set up factories in Kasimbazar, Patna, Balasore and Negapatam as well. After the establishment of these factories, they became the most dominant power in the European trade with the East. Till 1690, Pulicat was the main centre of their trading activities. After 1690, Negapatam became the main centre of the Dutch merchants.

The Dutch lost the Battle of Bedera to the English in 1759 and conceded to the English after this battle.

Although there were occasional amicable settlements between the English and the Dutch, hostilities were renewed when in 1623 the Dutch massacred ten Englishmen and nine Japanese at Amboyna, which marked the climax of the hatred of the Dutch towards the English as well as the other trading nations.

The Dutch in their bid for expansion of trade, came into conflicts with Mir Jumla and during 1672–74, they repeatedly obstructed the communication between Surat and other English settlements in Bombay and even captured three English vessels on the Bay of Bengal.

Between 1580 and 1640, Portugal was under Spain. There were hostilities going on between England and Spain, which naturally meant hostilities between the English and the Portuguese. With the Treaty of Madrid in 1630, commercial hostilities between the English and the Portuguese diminished although they did not cease altogether. When in 1640 Portugal became independent of Spain, the relations between the English and Portuguese further improved and the English right to trade in the East was conceded by the Portuguese. This facilitated the conclusion of treaty with the English in 1661 by which the English agreed to support the Portuguese against the Dutch.

Finally, the rivalry of the trading companies ousted the Dutch and the Portuguese from the Indian trading market.

ACTIVITY

Make a comparative report on Portuguese and Dutch invasion of India.

2.5 FRENCH AND THE BRITISH

After the Dutch and the Portuguese, the English and the French companies were the only competitors for trade in India.

2.5.1 The French

Compagnie des Indes was the first French company to establish trading relations with India. Louis XIV, the then king of France, granted charter to this company in

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Check Your Progress

13. The Dutch undertook many voyages to India from 1602-1609. (True/False)
14. The main feature of the Dutch trade in India was their conflict with the Portuguese and the English merchants. (True/False)
15. What was the name of the first Dutch organisation in India?

1664. After this, the planning of this French company was done by Colbert, the then finance minister of France.

Under this company, the first factory was established in 1668 at Surat. The founder of the first factory was Coron, a Dutchman in the French Service. The next factory was set up in 1669 at Masulipattinam. In 1674, Pondicherry became their capital. From 1690 to 1692, the French set up one more factory at Chandra Nagar, Bengal, on the bank of river Hugli. Mahe (now Malabar) and Karikal (now Coromandel) were acquired by the French in 1725 and 1739 respectively.

The company was given a loan of 3,000,000 livres by the king. For this loan, the king did not charge any interest. The company had the monopoly for 25 years to conduct trading activities from the Cape of Good Hope to India and the South Seas. Aurangzeb gave a *farmaan* in the favour of the company according to which the company had the permission to conduct trading activities in the Gujarat coast as well.

2.5.2 The British

The East India Company, initially named The Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading in the East Indies was granted a royal charter by Queen Elizabeth in 1600. The company was given rights for carrying out trading activities in the East. Later, the company became popular as the English East India Company.

For many years, the company traded only with Java, Sumatra and the Moluccas. At this time, they dealt only in the trading of spices. In 1608, Captain William Hawkins met Jehangir. He showed him the letter which he brought from James I, king of England. In this letter, James I requested Jehangir to allow the English merchants to establish their shops in the country. The merchants of the Portuguese and Surat strongly opposed the establishment of the English merchants in India. Thus, Jehangir had to decline the request of James I.

In 1609, however, Jehangir gave permission to the English to set up their factory at Surat. The company also received permission from the Sultan of Golkunda to trade in Golkunda. However, for this the sultan made a condition that the company will have to pay fixed custom duty of 500 pagodas per year. In 1651, Nawab Shuja-ud-Din permitted the company to continue their trading activities for which the company would be obliged to pay ₹3,000 annually.

In 1656, the English was given the security of trade as well. According to this directive, the English received permission to carry on their import and export activities on land as well water without the need to pay customs or tolls.

In 1691, Ibrahim Khan, the successor of Shaista Khan, issued a *farmaan* in favour of the English. According to this *farmaan*, the English were given permission to carry out duty-free trade but they were asked to pay ₹3,000 annually. After 1691, the company prospered by leaps and bounds in Bengal. In 1696, the company gave an excuse that it is at risk from Sobha Singh, a zamindar of Burdwan as he might rebel against the company. With the help of this excuse, the company got the rights for the fortification of their factory.

The zamindari of three villages—Sutanuti, Govindapur and Kalighata or Kalikata—was given to the English in 1698. In return, they were to pay ₹1,200 to Sabarna Chaudhari who was the zamindar of these three villages before the zamindari was granted to the English. In 1700, a separate President and Council took charge

of the factories of Bengal. Also, the English constructed a fort. This fort was named after King William II of England. Later, this fort became the seat of the Council which took charge of the factories. The first President and Governor of this Council was Sir Charles Eyre.

In 1714, the English sent John Surman to the Delhi court to arrange all trading facilities for the East India Company. When he met Emperor Farukhsiyar, the emperor issued a *farmaan* by which the company was granted permission to carry on custom free trade in Bengal, Madras and Bombay. In addition to this, the company was also allowed to mint its own coins.

2.5.3 The French vs the English

In 1749, the French company seemed to be a serious rival of the English Company, but it could not survive for a long time due to the following reasons:

- The French Company was controlled by the Government but the Government was not too interested in the company's affairs. On the other hand, the English company was a private concern.
- The English company had more money as compared to the French company. The area of the English trade was also vast.
- The English were strong on the waters as well. They had big ships and their merchants made regular voyage for trading activities.

War between the English and the French

From 1746 to 1763, English East India Company and French East India Company fought with each other in India. These wars are known as Carnatic wars. They fought with each other in order to get monopoly over trade in India. The Indian rulers, the Mughals, the subedar of Deccan did not participate in these wars.

2.6 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- Vasco da Gama discovered the sea route from Europe to India. He reached the Port of Calicut on the 17 May 1498.
- The discovery of the sea route to India by Vasco da Gama ushered the era of Portuguese trade in India.
- The local Indian rulers allowed the Portuguese to set up factories for the development of trade and commerce, and also initiated propagation of the Christian faith, inter-marriages, conversions and settlements of the Europeans.
- Portuguese governor Francisco de Almeidato built forts at Anjadiva, Cannanore and Cochin.
- Nino da Cunha (1529–1538) transferred his capital from Cochin to Goa (1530) and acquired Diu and Bassein (1534) from Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.
- The Italian merchants had established warehouses (factories) in Cairo and Alexandria to carry on trade and commerce.
- To consolidate and strengthen their power the Portuguese also attempted to fortify their factories. A chain of factories and fortresses came into existence for the support of the maritime trade conducted by the Portuguese.

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Check Your Progress

16. When and where was the first French factory established in India?
17. What was the initial name of the English East India Company?
18. Why did Jehangir refuse the East India Company to establish themselves in India?
19. When was the British trading company allowed to trade in India?
20. Name the villages of which the British got the zamindari.
21. The Mughals and the subedar of Deccan also participated in the war between the French and the British. (True/False)

- Pepper was the most popular commodity which was traded from Malabar and the Konkan coasts. Ginger, white sandalwood, red sandalwood, sealing wax, indigo, spikenard, tamarind, areca nut, textiles, ivory and turmeric were also traded from the Malabar Konkan coasts to Portugal.
- The Portuguese brought brocades, damasks, satins, taffetas, cloves, nutmegs, mace, camphor, cinnamon, pepper, chests, writing desks, valuable pearls and jewels to Bengal.
- Taking into account the details of the Portuguese enterprise on the Malabar coast in the period between 1500 and 1506, an Italian estimated in 1506 that the total investment needed for conducting trade with the East was 170,000 ducats every year.
- Italians, especially the Florentines, occupied an important position among the financiers in the 16th century.
- During the second half of the 16th century both the Welsers and the Fuggers joined the expedition along with Giraldo Paris and Juan Battista Rovalesco for the purchase of 30,000 quintals of pepper directly from India and agreed to send an amount of 1,70,000 crusados to India annually.
- Several Indian merchants supplied commodities to the Portuguese on credit when the latter did not have cash or commodities to furnish in exchange.
- Right from the time Portuguese arrived at Calicut they had demanded that other merchants, Indian as well as foreign, should be ousted and a complete monopoly over trade be granted to them.
- Overseas trade conducted in the 16th century in Asia in general and India in particular was, by and large, of long-distance in nature involving the Asiatic ports on one side and the Atlantic ports on the other.
- After the Portuguese, the Dutch also felt encouraged to trade in India. They wanted to have direct access to the spice market of India.
- The Dutch in their bid for expansion of trade, came into conflicts with Mir Jumla and during 1672–74, they repeatedly obstructed the communication between Surat and other English settlements in Bombay and even captured three English vessels on the Bay of Bengal.
- Compagnie des Indes was the first French company to establish trading relations with India.
- The English East India Company initially traded only with Java, Sumatra and the Moluccas
- In 1609, Jehangir gave permission to the English to set up their factory at Surat. The company also received permission from the Sultan of Golkunda to trade in Golkunda.
- In 1691, Ibrahim Khan, the successor of Shaista Khan, issued a farmaan in favour of the English. According to this farmaan, the English were given permission to carry out duty-free trade but they were asked to pay ₹3,000 annually.
- From 1746 to 1763, English East India Company and French East India Company fought with each other in India. These wars are known as Carnatic wars.

2.7 KEY TERMS

- **Crusado:** A gold coin of Portugal.
- **Zamorin:** The title used by the Nair rulers of the erstwhile state of Kerala.
- **Mariner:** A man who serves as a sailor.
- **Harass:** Subject to aggressive pressure or intimidation.
- **Autonomous:** Acting independently or having the freedom to do so.
- **Manoeuvre:** To act in order to achieve a certain goal.
- **Bullion:** Gold or silver in bulk before coining.
- **Brocade:** A rich fabric, usually silk, woven with a raised pattern, typically with gold or silver thread.
- **Emolument:** A salary, fee or profit from employment or office.
- **Grandiloquent:** Pompous or extravagant in language, style or manner.
- **Evince:** Reveal the presence of a quality or feeling.

2.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The sea route from Europe to India was discovered by Vasco da Gama.
2. Cochin was the early capital of the Portuguese in India.
3. Vasco da Gama reached the Port of Calicut on 17 May 1498.
4. True
5. In 1502, he established a factory at Cochin.
6. Alfonso de Albuquerque was the real founder of the Portuguese Empire in the East.
7. Albuquerque encouraged the Portuguese men to marry Indian women so that he could establish the authority of the Portuguese in India.
8. Portuguese occupation of Diu compelled the Arabs to withdraw from the Indian trade. The Arab merchants of Calicut were apprehensive of the Portuguese designs from the very beginning.
9. Portuguese established settlements on the west and the east coast. The areas in the west coast consisted of
 - Calicut (1500)
 - Cochin (1501)
 - Cannanore (1503)
 - Quilon (1503)
 - Cheliyam (1531)
 - Rahole (1535)
 - Krengannore (1536)
 - Mangalore (1568)
 - Hanawer (1568)
 - Diu (1509)

- Goa (1510)
- Surat (1599)
- Daman (1599)

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In east coast, the places consisted of:

- Meliyapur
- Chittagong
- Hugli
- Bandel

10. The Portuguese also tried to establish commercial contacts with Bengal from AD 1517.
11. Pepper was the most popular commodity which was traded from Malabar and the Konkan coasts. Ginger, white sandalwood, red sandalwood, sealing wax, indigo, spikenard, tamarind, areca nut, textiles, ivory and turmeric were also traded from the Malabar Konkan coasts to Portugal.
12. True
13. False
14. True
15. In 1602, the Dutch established an organization named the United East India Company.
16. The first French factory established in Indian was in 1668 at Surat.
17. Initially the English East India Company was called the Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading in the East Indies.
18. The Portuguese merchants and those from Surat had strongly opposed the establishment of the English merchant in India. This forced Jehangir had to decline the request of England's king James I.
19. The English was given the security of trade in 1656.
20. The British was given the zamindari of three villages—Sutanuti, Govindapur and Kalighata—in 1698.
21. False

2.9 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a note on the discovery of India by the Europeans.
2. Discuss the role of the Zamorins in the early 16th century.
3. Why did the Portuguese ban ships from plying on the Indian Ocean?
4. Briefly discuss Portuguese monopoly trade in India.
5. Discuss the causes of the Portuguese decline in India.
6. Give a brief sketch of the French expansion in India.
8. Discuss the causes of the Anglo-French rivalry.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the expansion of the Portuguese in India.
2. What was the role of trade for the Portuguese expansion in India?
3. How did the Dutch plan their expansion in India? Explain.
4. How did the British acquire the right to trade in India.

NOTES

2.10 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 BRITISH RELATIONS AND SUBJUGATIONS OF INDIAN POWERS

NOTES

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Unit Objectives
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 - 3.2.1 First Carnatic War (1746-48)
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 - 3.4.1 Consequences of Plassey
- 3.5 Battle of Buxar (1764)
 - 3.5.1 Consequences of the Battle of Buxar
- 3.6 Treaty of Allahabad (1765)
- 3.7 Puppet Nawabs of Bengal
- 3.8 Dual Government of Bengal
- 3.9 The East India Company as Sovereign Ruler of Bengal
- 3.10 Summary
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- 3.12 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 3.13 Questions and Exercises
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3.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt how the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French and the British approached and extended their power in India. You came to know about the rivalry among these powers and the various wars they fought with the Indian rulers and themselves. These wars finally led to the erosion of the Portuguese power in the east and the coastal areas and the establishment of the British East India Company. You also studied about the changes in the social fabric brought in by Christianity, conversion and inter-faith marriages.

The Portuguese, the Dutch, the English and the French companies had come to India with the basic objective of trade. By the time the British came and started establishing themselves, the Mughal Empire was on the decline. After the invasion of India by Nadir Shah, the Shah of Iran, in 1738-39, both the French and English companies found the Mughal Empire weak, which led both of them to establish their political power. The natural result was a war between these companies that lasted for about twenty years. This war was fought in the Carnatic as both the trading companies had important possessions in those parts. The English came out victorious in the end. The disintegration of the Mughal Empire and the dispatch of forces to India made possible the acquisition of a British Empire in India.

In this unit, you will read about the suppression of the Indian rulers in the Carnatic and Bengal regions.

3.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the basic causes of the Carnatic wars
- Discuss the impact of the first, second and third Carnatic wars
- Explain the conquest of Bengal
- Discuss the causes and consequences of the Battle of Plassey
- Interpret the causes of the Battle of Buxar and its political implications
- Describe how the nawabs of Bengal became a puppet in the hands of the British

3.2 THE CARNATIC WARS

The Carnatic Wars were a series of battles, primarily between the British and French, for control of the ports of India during the years 1746 to 1763. Also involved were several independent Indian rulers and their regional allies. They fought mainly for succession as well as territory. These wars were described as a diplomatic or a military struggle among the French East India Company and the British East India Company for power. Due to these military wars, the British East India Company formed its dominance among the European trading companies in the India. The French Company's powers were restricted mainly till Pondicherry. The period during which these wars were fought spanned two European wars—the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48) and the Seven Year's War (1756-1763). The First and Third Carnatic Wars were essentially the Indian colonial front in these two international wars.

3.2.1 First Carnatic War (1746-48)

The basic causes that led to the first Carnatic war were as follows:

- The commercial rivalry between the English and the French companies in India.
- Both the English and the French wanted to throw the other out of India and establish its monopoly.
- The close proximity of the kingdoms they owned in Southern India was an important factor that brought the English and the French in constant war with each other.
- French Governor Dupleix concentrated on total eviction of the English from India. This policy prompted tensed relations among the two nations.
- The war of the Austrian succession that broke out in Europe turned into the basic cause of war. The French and the English fought with each other in the Austrian war of succession and as a result a war broke out in India as well among the two nations.

The first Carnatic war was directly linked with the events that took place in Europe. The reason on which the English and French were clashing was the issue of Austria's succession (1740-1748). After the war started in March 1740, both the companies started getting ready for it. The French Governor-General Dupleix was the first person who realized that it was necessary for obtaining political influence and territorial control in India.

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The French East India Company was owned by the French government and it was in trouble. Even though the company's trade had increased in recent years yet its expenditure was even more than what it was earning. So, it accumulated heavy debts and the situation got worsened by the rivalry among two senior leaders of the company—Dupleix and La Bourdonnais. La Bourdonnais arrived at Pondicherry in July 1746. He came with ten vessels, 406 canons, 2,350 white soldiers and 700 black soldiers as he wanted to act with total independence, but Governor-General Dupleix did not approve of this as he considered himself superior to La Bourdonnais.

On 21 September 1746, the French troops, guided by La Bourbononais, overtook Madras, which, was an important English trading center from the mid-17th century. Anwar-ud-Din, the Nawab of Carnatic sent a huge Indian army in order to drive out the French from Madras. The English were guiding him and in the battle of St. Thome (4 November 1746), which is situated on the bank of river Adyar, Mahfuz Khan, son of Anwar-ud-Din got defeated by the French captain Paradis as he had just a thousand soldiers and was compelled to fight 10,000 French men. So, the disciplined and the organized army of the French, which was being led by capable officers, won the battle.

The English alternatively laid siege on Pondicherry from 6th September to 15th October 1748. But Dupleix created a strong defense, which forced the English to move back. This victory of Dupleix made him a popular figure in the Indian courts. The war ended with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). Based on the treaty, Madras was given back to the English and the French got Quebec (Canada) for themselves and the English gave the word that they will never attack Pondicherry.

The first Carnatic war taught a very important lesson to the French that a small army of Europeans, when supported by the Indian troops and trained according to the European style could quite easily conquer many huge Indian armies.

In order to achieve political advantages, Dupleix began to interfere with the internal matters of Hyderabad and Carnatic. Chin Qilich Khan—Nizam-ul-Mulk, the founder of the independent Hyderabad kingdom passed away in 1748. Dupleix seized this opportunity and supported Muzaffar Jang, the grandson of Nizam instead of Nasir Jung, the son.

The Nawab of Carnatic, Anwar-ud-Din also passed away in 1749 and in this case Dupleix supported Chanda Sahib to the throne of the Carnatic as against Mohammad Ali, the illegitimate son of late Nawab. This left the English with an opportunity in Carnatic. Hence, the war of succession among these two kingdoms led to the second Carnatic War (1749–1754).

3.2.2 Second Carnatic War (1749-54)

The basic causes that led to the second Carnatic war were as follows:

- The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) could not end the Anglo–French rivalry in India.
- The authority of the French quickly amplified in the Deccan specifically after the Nawab's army's defeat and the French made the decision to take an active part in the fight between Mohammad Ali and Chanda Sahib in the Carnatic.
- With the death of Nizam Asif Jah in 1748 a dispute started between Muzaffar Jung and Nasir Jung for the throne of Hyderabad. An identical competition began in Carnatic between Chanda Sahib—the son-in-law of

Dost Ali and Anwar-ud-Din—the Nawab of Carnatic. The two fights soon got combined in one and in the subsequent year there were a lot of political alliances as well as counter alliances that were being formed in quick series.

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The fight ensued at a time when the English and French had peace in Europe. This showed that the two were fighting in India for commercial supremacy and not just due to their traditional rivalry.

On 3 August 1749, French soldiers with sepoys attacked Arcot in Ambur, the capital of Carnatic. In this attack, Anwaruddin Muhammed Khan, the first Nawab of Arcot of the second dynasty, was killed and his elder son, Mahfuz Khan, was captured but his younger son Mohammad Ali Khan Wallajah fled. He took shelter at Trichinopoly, proclaimed himself the Nawab of Arcot and received support from the English. Chanda Sahib and French officer Jacques Law seized Trichinopoly. At this critical juncture a young English officer, Robert Clive seized Arcot, the capital of Chanda Sahib on 11 September 1751 with only 200 European soldiers and 300 sepoys. The purpose was to free Trichinopoly from Chanda Sahib. The plan worked; Chanda Sahib had to withdraw his large army from Trichinopoly to lay siege to Arcot to recapture it. Clive and his small army stood the siege for fifty days. Chanda Sahib had to withdraw; later the English defeated him and his Indian allies at several places. He surrendered and was finally executed and the French gave up their entire claim over Carnatic.

However, the French supremacy over Hyderabad continued. Muzaffar Jung was installed as the Nizam and *subedar* of the Deccan. In return, the French got command of a vast area from Krishna to Cape Camorin, which was the *jagir* of Valdavur. Though Muzaffar Jung was killed in 1751, his successor Salabat Jung continued his 'friendship' with the French. Bussy—the French officer at Hyderabad, even succeeded in obtaining *farman* from the Mughal emperor Ahmad Shah, confirming Salabat as the ruler of the Deccan.

The failure of the French in Carnatic was a great setback. The French Government, which was always in trouble, could not bear this defeat. So, it recalled Dupleix to France in 1754. His departure was followed by the Treaty of Pondicherry, which ended the second Carnatic war. This war ended with English acquiring dominance in Carnatic and French—a place in the Court of Nizam.

3.2.3 Third Carnatic War (1758-63)

The third Carnatic war had far-reaching effects. The main causes that led to it are as follows:

- The peace brought about by the Treaty of Pondicherry proved to be short lived. The Seven Years War broke out in 1756 in Europe and soon after the fighting started in India also.
- Count de Lally was sent by the French Government with instructions to oust English from India.
- Lally arrived in Southern India at the end of April 1758. He attacked and captured St. David.

The third Carnatic War (1758–1763) began with the Seven Years War (1756–1763) of Europe. This war was not just confined to Carnatic but had traversed vastly. The English Governor and Lieutenant Colonel of Fort St. David, Robert Clive, took

hold of Chandan Nagar—the French settlement in Bengal in 1757. He was also responsible for Siraj-ud-Daulah—the Nawab of Bengal's defeat by British, in the battle of Plassey (23 June 1757). Thus, financially English East India Company was more secured.

The Seven Years War ended in 1763 and a treaty was signed in Paris (10 February 1763). It was also decided that France would get Pondicherry and five trading ports and many factories but just as a trading centre. It will not have any fortification or armies.

The French East India Company was a state undertaking and its directors were hired by the crown. The laziness and bureaucratic control of this company can be compared with the bureaucratic control of some public sector companies of post-Independent India. The English East India Company, on the other hand, was a private undertaking that was based on free enterprise and individual proposal. It earned revenues from the Asian trade and was not dependent on the state itself.

The French could never concentrate on India as its main priority was Europe whereas England gave their complete attention to the oceans as well as distant lands like India. The French could not understand the intricate political circumstances of India dissimilar to the British. The French also could not struggle with the English in naval superiority. So, the third Carnatic war ended the French challenge in India and it created the way for the establishment of the British Empire in India.

3.2.4 Causes for the Success of the British against the French

The main reasons for the success of the British against the French were as follows:

- **Superior geographical position of England in Europe:** France had to concentrate more towards its borders while it is at war as compared to relative secure position of England.
- **The English navy was superior to the French navy:** The English navy helped to cut off the link among the French possessions in India and France; because of this the English could send help to India whenever it was needed. No one would check them on the way. The French had to avoid the Englishmen while coming back to India. It resulted in months and sometimes years of wastage of time and money.
- **The English company was a private enterprise:** It generated a sense of self-confidence among people who knew that if they worked hard, they would be able to generate profits and if they relaxed they were to be ruined. As a result the English company became rich and prosperous. Its condition became so good that it could afford to give loans to the government itself. Alternatively the French company was just a small department of the French government. It was not self-reliant and it was completely depended on the government, which was in itself quite rotten during the eighteenth century. The corruption in the French government got imitated in the French company. Furthermore, the French government also assured some percentage in the profit to the shareholders. This also led to the destruction of initiative among those who were in charge of the French company.
- French government was never very actively interested in the Indian affairs.
- The English had three important places, i.e., Calcutta, Bombay and Madras while the French had just one, i.e., Pondicherry.

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Check Your Progress

1. When were the Carnatic wars fought?
2. The period during which the Carnatic wars were fought, Europe was going through a turmoil. What was it?
3. Why did Dupleix interfere in the internal matters of Hyderabad and Carnatic?
4. When did the Nawab of Carnatic die?
5. When did the French attack the Carnatic capital?
6. What did the French do after losing Carnatic to the British?
7. Whom did the French proclaim as the ruler of Deccan?
8. When was Dupleix recalled in France?
9. When did the Third Carnatic War begin?
10. The French East India Company was a state undertaking company whose directors were appointed by the crown. (True/False)
11. Count de Lally came to India to oust the British. (True/False)

- The French considered their commercial interest to be subordinated as compared to the territorial ambition and it made the French company short of funds.
- **Commercial superiority and better financial position:** The business conducted by the English company was at a much larger level than the French company. Based on an estimate the worth of the Indian goods in England from 1736 to 1756 was £41,200,000 and the value of the French goods was £11,450,000. The dominance in trade and business had made the English company's financial position much better than of the French company. The French company's financial position had become so bad that during the closing years of the third Carnatic War the French company could not even afford to pay their troops on a regular basis.
- **Recall of Dupleix:** The French government made another blunder and that was its recalling of Dupleix in 1754. Dupleix was a proficient person and he could have done a lot to recover the French position in India. His recall by the French government created a vacuum, which could not be easily filled and France could not send a capable person in order to take his place.
- **The continental position of France also contributed to the ultimate failure of the French company:** Due to its messy involvement in the European affairs, the French government could not take required, proper and active interest in the Indian affairs.
- **The English were lucky to have Bombay as their naval base:** It was an appropriate place for them to keep and repair their ships and they could bring their ships anytime they wanted at the port for sailing or for any other purpose. The French had their naval base in the Isle of France and it was very far off. So, they were at quite a disadvantageous position and hence they could not take any speedy action in the Carnatic Wars.

ACTIVITY 1

On an ancient map of India, mark the important places that were affected due to the Carnatic wars.

3.3 CONQUEST OF BENGAL

In 1717, the Mughal emperor issued a *farman* by which it granted special benefits to the English East India Company, namely, exemption of taxes on goods imported and exported from Bengal. However, this concession did not ensure that they could trade in Bengal without paying any taxes. The Company servants like other Indian traders had to pay taxes. This misinterpretation of the *farman* became a constant cause of dispute between the nawabs of Bengal and the Company. All the nawabs of Bengal, beginning from Murshid Quli Khan to Alivardi Khan, refused to sympathize with the Company's misconstrued explanation of the *farman* and even forced them to pay a huge amount as indemnity if they used the *dastaks* wrongly.

In 1741, when Muhammad Shah Rangila was the Mughal sovereign, Alivardi Khan, the governor of Bengal, announced himself independent and established his

capital at Murshidabad. In 1756, with Alivardi's demise, and in the absence of any rightful successor, several factions vied with each other to make their chosen candidate the Nawab of Bengal. Though Alivardi wanted his grandson, Siraj-ud-Daulah, son of his youngest daughter, to acquire the nawabship, the latter's succession to the throne was not accepted by other contenders, such as Shaukat Jang (*faujdar* of Purnea) and Ghasiti Begam, eldest daughter of Alivardi. In the wake of increasing court intrigues, the English East India Company took the opportunity to win factions in their favour and work against the Nawab, and thereby went into a headlong confrontation with the Nawab.

As Bengal, in the 18th century, was the most prosperous province, the English East India Company considered it economically and politically extremely lucrative. Hence, it is natural that they wanted to consolidate their position further in Bengal. They wanted to base their operations in Calcutta. There were other European contenders too in Bengal, namely, the Dutch, who had their factory at Chinsura, and the French with their factory at Chandernagor.

Siraj-ud-Daulah became the Nawab of Bengal in 1756. Apart from having several foes in the family who were not happy with the succession, he was immature and lacked adequate skills to tackle the situation. In the south, the English East India Company and the French were fighting with each other. Without seeking Nawab Siraj-ud-Daulah's consent, the English began fortification of Calcutta. They even chose to disregard the Nawab's order to curtail augmentation of their military resources and abuse the use of *dastaks* granted to them by the *farman* of 1717. Company servants began misusing the concessions granted by the *farman* of 1717 by extending the privileges over their private trade. Causing further economic loss to Bengal, the officials began to profit by selling off the *dastaks* to the Indian merchants. Another cause of discontentment towards the English for Siraj was their conscious move to give protection to Siraj's foe Krishna Das, son of Raja Rajballava.

Did You Know

As a teenager, Siraj-ud-Daula led a reckless life which came to the notice of his grandfather. But keeping a promise he made to his grandfather on his deathbed, he gave up gambling and drinking alcohol completely after taking the title Nawab of Bengal. He trusted very few people and often insulted and defamed his enemies and rivals including the British.

3.4 BATTLE OF PLASSEY (1757)

To punish the highhandedness of the Company, Siraj-ud-Daulah retaliated by striking Calcutta on 16 June 1756 and bringing it under his sway by 20 June 1756. The English were caught unawares and the Nawab's huge force was more than a match to their troops. Most Englishmen escaped to Fulda, twenty miles down the Hoogly, and the rest were held back as prisoners.

It was Siraj's folly to have allowed the English to flee to Fulda and not annihilate them entirely. Again, after capturing Calcutta, he did not attempt to consolidate his position and ensure its defense from any counter attack. Such errors are seldom

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Check Your Progress

12. What did the Mughal emperor's farman to the East India Company say?
13. Who established Murshidabad as the capital?
14. When did Siraj-ud-Daulah become the Nawab of Bengal?

overlooked in history. In January 1757, the English troops, headed by Robert Clive and Watson, attacked Calcutta and recaptured it. Siraj-ud-Daulah was compelled to consent to the Treaty of Alinagar (as Calcutta was renamed on 9 February 1757), agree to all their claims. Having strengthened their position, the English wanted to embarrass the Nawab further and in March 1757, they sent their troops to strike at the French settlement at Chandernagor.

As Siraj wanted to seek French support in his fight against the English, he requested Clive to refrain from aggression towards the French. This prompted Clive to conspire against the Nawab and ally with those in the court and army who were dissatisfied with Siraj's succession to the throne, namely, Mir Jafar, Mir Bakshi, Jagath Seth and Amin Chand.

Owing to the betrayal of Mir Jafar and Rai Durlab, Siraj, despite being armed with a huge contingent, was defeated by the small band of English soldiers under Robert Clive in the Battle of Plassey (23 June 1757). Siraj-ud-Daulah was held captive and finally was killed by Mir Jafar's son Miran. Clive placed Mir Jafar on the throne of Bengal. In lieu of nawabship, Mir Jafar had to pay a huge sum to the English, and part with the 24 Parganas. The enormity of the wealth looted from Bengal can be gauged by the fact that almost 300 boats were required to carry the spoils to Fort William. The Battle of Plassey was not a battle in the real sense, as the Nawab's army was headed by Mir Jaffer and Rai Durlabh, who had shifted their allegiance towards the English and made no effort to contest the English troops.

After the war, Mir Jafar was installed as the nawab. However, as demands for more presents and bribes from the Company's servants increased, the coffer of Mir Jafar's soon became empty, and when Mir Jafar became unable to meet the Company's expectations any further, the English replaced him by his son-in-law Mir Qasim. The newly appointed nawab won the favour of the English by granting them the zamindari of the districts of Burdwan, Midnapur and Chittagong and rewarding them with expensive gifts.

3.4.1 Consequences of Plassey

According to Sir Jadunath Sarkar, an eminent historian, 23 June 1757, marked the end of the medieval period in India and the beginning of the modern period. Retrospectively speaking, in the years following Plassey (1757-76), that not even covered a single generation, one notices the waning out of the medieval practice of theocratic rule, which can be considered as a fallout of the battle.

The Company's resident at the Nawab's *darbar*, Luke Scrafton, in his observations on post-Plassey Bengal had commented, 'The general idea at this time entertained by the servants of the Company was that the battle of Plassey did only restore us to the same situation we were in before the capture of Calcutta (by Siraj-ud-Daulah); the *Subah* (*subedar*) was conceived to be as independent as ever, and the English returned into their commercial character...' This observation hides the fact that most of the restrictions inflicted on the nawab post-Plassey had been already been enforced on Mir Jafar in a treaty signed (5 June 1757) before the onset of the battle.

However, Plassey did not make the English the rightful legal rulers of Bengal. The Supreme Court of Calcutta even pointed out that apart from those living in Calcutta, other English officials were not British subjects. Thus, post-Plassey, the English did not shed off their 'commercial character'. This was all the more evident

when the English won the Battle of Buxar (1764). However, the commercial activities of the English were gradually becoming political as Clive, determined to yield more benefits, pressurized the meek puppet nawab, Mir Jafar, to concede more privileges. During this period, the Marathas also suffered a crushing defeat at Panipat and the French underwent heavy losses owing to a shipwreck in South India, thereby leaving no serious contenders to challenge the English in Bengal.

After Plassey, it was quite unexpected that the Marathas would be routed, or the French would be subdued, thereby allowing the English to gain control over Bengal. It was the event of the next ten years that turned paramount influence into a new regime.

The English obtained a few immediate military and commercial benefits after Plassey. They worked their way to consolidate their position politically in the 'three provinces abounding in the most valuable production of nature and art'. Their confidence got further boosted when the French were ousted from Bengal. They took this opportunity to consolidate their position in the south. In fact, foreseeing perhaps the potentials of the English, Clive had advised Pitt the Elder, a prominent member of the King's government in London, to request the Crown to take over direct control over Bengal and lay the foundation of the British empire.

3.5 BATTLE OF BUXAR (1764)

The Battle of Buxar (1764) was fought between the forces under the command of the British East India Company led by Hector Munro, and the combined armies of Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal; Shuja-ud-Daula the Nawab of Awadh; and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.

When Robert Clive and his Company officials had completely emptied the Bengal Nawab's treasures, they thought Mir Jafar to be incapable of yielding any further benefits. A few English officials like Holwel were lobbying against Mir Jafar. Mir Qasim, son-in-law of Mir Jafar, replaced him as nawab on 27 September 1760. As rewards of his nawabship, Mir Qasim had to concede Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagaon to the East India Company. He shifted the capital to Mungher. Though during the initial years, he accepted British domination, however, the increasing misuse of the *dastaks* by the Company servants and the consequent losses to the treasury exasperated him to abolish the *dastak* system and exempt duties on trade for all. This precipitated the deposition of Mir Qasim, with Mir Jafar being reinstated to nawabship. Mir Qasim planned an offensive at Buxar (22 October 1764) against the English by allying with Shah Alam II, the Mughal king, and Shuja-ud-Daulah, the Nawab of Awadh. However, the joint forces of the Indian sovereigns could not win against the well-trained and regulated English troops, armed with advanced ammunitions. The failure at Buxar made it evident that India lacked in industrial and technological development.

After reinstating Mir Jafar to the throne of Bengal and the English negotiated a treaty with Shah Alam at Allahabad in 1765 by which the latter conceded *diwani* rights to the Company in lieu of a pension of ₹26 lakh from the Company. Shuja-ud-Daulah, who was a party to the same treaty had to agree to give Allahabad and Kara to the Mughals as well as part with the zamindari of Banaras to Balwant Rai, who was an English loyalist.

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Check Your Progress

15. When did the British troops, headed by Clive and Watson, attack Calcutta?
16. With whom did Clive conspire against Siraj?
17. Who killed Siraj-ud-Daulah?
18. Mir Jafar refused to give more privileges to the British. (True/False)

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In Bengal, between 1765 and 1772, an innovative governing machinery, the dual system of administration, was introduced. With the Company's consent, the Nawab appointed Raja Shitab Rai and Reza Khan as deputy *diwans*, who in actual terms were delegated to work for the English rather than the Nawab. By acquiring the *diwani* rights (authority of revenue collection), the Company virtually became the de facto power, while the Nawab remained the titular head responsible for civil and criminal administration. The inhabitants of the region suffered the most through this arrangement. This system of administration reflected the Company's inexperience in matters related to administration, as the Company was essentially a trading body.

In 1765, the Company became the actual sovereign of Bengal, gaining exclusive rights over all military and political affairs. The Nawab was made responsible for the defense of the British, within and outside Bengal. The East India Company exercised direct control over *diwani* functions, which gave them the right to collect the revenues of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. The Company had indirect hold over the *nizamat* functions, namely, judicial and police rights, also possessing the right to nominate the deputy subedar.

3.5.1 Consequences of the Battle of Buxar

Though the Battle of Buxar was precipitated by the alliance drawn by Mir Qasim with Shuja-ud-Daulah and thereby had caused political repercussions in Bengal, Mir Qasim's decision to break up the alliance even before Munro's attack, saved him. It appears that Shuja-ud-Daulah was the most affected by the defeat at Buxar, making him a nominal power. The influential position that he held in North India got curbed overnight. To get back his lost prestige, he tried to annex Varanasi, Chunar and Allahabad, but could not progress further when his troops abandoned him. Trying to launch another offensive against the English, he went from place to place to ally with other powers. He even sought shelter from the Ruhelas and Bangash Afghans, who had been traditional enemies of his family. However, with all his attempts becoming futile, he surrendered to the English in May 1765 and sought shelter. Prior to Shuja's surrender, Shah Alam had accepted the English supremacy and remained under their protection.

Militarily Buxar was very significant for the English. The English victory at Plassey was not entirely commendable as Siraj suffered defeat when his generals betrayed him. However, there was no instance of betrayal at Buxar. The English troops emerged victorious defeating an experienced politically influential personality like Shuja. After their having established their position in Bengal, Buxar laid out the path for British supremacy over north India.

Political implications of the Battle of Buxar

The Battle of Buxar established British control over Bengal. Buxar revealed the political and military shortfalls of the Indian rulers and the decadence of the Mughal empire. With increasing intrigues and factionalism at the Nawab's court, and with vested interests coming into play, corruption increased and Company officials like Clive used the opportunity to become wealthy. The Treaty of Allahabad signed by Shuja-ud-Daulah and Shah Alam II with the English granted the latter the right to trade freely in Awadh. Moreover, the English possessed the right to station an army

Check Your Progress

19. Who replaced Mir Jafar?
20. Why did Mir Jafar ally with the Mughal emperor?
21. When was the Treaty of Allahabad signed with the Mughals?
22. What happened after the Battle of Buxar?

at Awadh, which were to be maintained by Shuja-ud-Daulah. In lieu of transferring the *diwani* rights over Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the English, Shah Alam II received Kora and Allahabad and an annual pension of ₹26 lakh.

3.6 TREATY OF ALLAHABAD (1765)

In May 1765, Clive was entrusted with the governorship of Bengal for the second time. The Company officials were looking for the appropriate means to tackle Shuja and Shah Alam. There were no further annexation plans with regard to Shuja's territories, which was already under the sway of the English forces. The newly acquired responsibility of governing both Awadh and Allahabad prompted the English to look for innovative designs.

According to the Treaty of Allahabad, the concluding agreement drawn with Shuja-ud-Daulah, (16 August 1765), the territories earlier belonging to Shuja, except Allahabad and Kora, were given back. Shah Alam was given Allahabad and Kora. Also, Shuja was assured regular revenue payment from his zamindari of Varanasi, which was presented by the English to Balwant Singh for having helped them during Buxar. In this way, the Company established 'perpetual and universal peace, sincere friendship and firm union' with the Nawab. It was also agreed that if a third party attacked any one of the powers, the other party to the treaty would assist him in ousting the intruder by sharing his troops totally or partially. The nawab had to bear the expenses of the Company's army if it assisted the nawab. However, it is not clear if the Company met the expenses of the nawab's army when the Company used its services. Also, the nawab had to pay ₹50 lakh as compensation for the war, and grant permission to the Company to continue duty-free trade in his territories.

3.7 PUPPET NAWABS OF BENGAL

After Buxar, Mir Jafar was reinstated to the throne of Bengal by the English. By agreeing to reduce his troops, Mir Jafar had curbed the military powers of the nawab further. He was unable to bring in any formidable political or administrative changes in Bengal at this stage because he had a very weak personality and had developed a negative approach considering the unpleasant political situation he had to tackle and his ailment (believed to be leprosy). The English success at Buxar, followed by Mir Jafar's demise sealed the fate of the nawabs in Bengal and laid the foundation of the British empire in Bengal.

The Company made Najm-ud-Daulah, Mir Jafar's minor son, the nawab and signed a treaty with him that made the throne completely subservient to the English. Muhammad Reza Khan was appointed deputy governor by the nawab under English directives. Khan looked after the entire administration, and he could only be replaced with the approval of the governor and Council. The governor and Council's approval were also essential while appointing or removing revenue collectors.

Subsequently, the Nawab's status deteriorated further. After resuming his second term of governorship in May 1765, Clive pressurized Najm-ud-Daulah to grant all the revenues to the Company in exchange of an annual pension of ₹50 lakh. Subsequently, Najm-ud-Daulah's pension was reduced by ₹12 lakh. When

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Check Your Progress

23. In May 1765, Clive was entrusted with the governorship of Bengal for the third time. (True/False)
24. How much did the nawab pay as compensation after the Treaty of Allahabad?

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Najm-ud-Daulah died in 1766, he was succeeded by his minor brother Saif-ud-Daulah, whose pension was further reduced by ₹10 lakh. Before his death (1770), he had signed a treaty with the English in 1766 by which he had granted all matters related to the administration and protection of the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the English.

3.8 DUAL GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL

In Bengal's history, the Treaty of Allahabad (1765) is extremely significant as it ushered in a new administrative mechanism, which laid down the foundation of the British administrative system in India. The nawab's administrative powers were clipped, bringing in a new mechanism of power devoid of responsibility and vice versa.

We need to understand the meaning of the *diwani* and *nizamat* functions to understand the dual system of government better. The provincial administration in the Mughal period was divided into two branches: the *nizamat* (military defense, police and administration of justice) functions which were looked after by *subedar* or governor and his officials, and the *diwani* affairs (management of revenues and finances) which were handled by another similar set of officials under another *subedar*. These officers were answerable to the central government and they kept a check on each other. Murshid Quli was in charge of Bengal, when Aurangzeb died.

By signing the treaty of Allahabad (with Shah Alam II), the English obtained *diwani* in lieu of ₹26 lakh as annual pension for the Bengal nawab. In a treaty signed earlier in February 1765 with Nawab Najm-ud-Daulah, the Company had already secured all *nizamat* powers, including military, defence and foreign affairs. However, the Company had received the *diwani* rights from the Mughal emperor and the *nizamat* powers from the nawab. Though the Company kept all administrative matters under its control, the *diwani* and the *nizamat* operations were handled by its Indian representatives. As this administrative mechanism involved both the nawab and the Company, it is referred as the dual or double government of Bengal.

The dual government had badly affected the administration. While there was no discipline and order, trade and commerce suffered, and merchants almost became paupers, thriving industries, such as of silk and textiles, collapsed, agriculture was evaluated by the Company to be unyielding and thereby, peasants were subjected to dire poverty. The outbreak of the great famine of 1770 reflected the flaws of the Company's indirect governing policy. Around ten million people lost their lives in the famine, which meant almost a third of the population of Bengal and Bihar. However, during this period of utter distress when the people in desperation were even feeding on the dead to survive, Company's servants and *gomastas* continued with their illegal private trade. While exercising monopoly over the obtainable grain, they even seized the seeds to be used for successive harvests from the peasants.

The Company, under Cartier's governorship (1769–1772), chose to overlook the high mortality and the reduction of cultivable land, granted absolutely no remittance on land revenue and instead, increased it by 10 per cent for the following year.

Check Your Progress

25. Who succeeded after Mir Jafar's demise?
26. When did Najm-ud-Daulah die?

The high mortality rate affected the obtainable quantum of production from agriculture and seriously upset the economic well being of the province. As the revenue-paying capacity dwindled, the zamindars failed to collect adequate revenue. This in turn had an impact on the Company's income as it lost its cultivators and artisans.

3.9 THE EAST INDIA COMPANY AS SOVEREIGN RULER OF BENGAL

Clive's dual government proved to be a complete failure. In 1772, Warren Hastings became the governor of Bengal, and embarked upon an offensive plan that would remove 'the mask of Mughal sovereignty' from the soil of Bengal, and make the English the rightful rulers. The Company servants were made responsible for dual administration. The nawab practically had no share in administration. The pension granted to Shah Alam II was discontinued and he was compelled to part with Allahabad and Kora, which were sold out to Shuja-ud-Daulah.

In this way, within a span of two decades, the reins of Bengal's administration passed over to the Company. Unfortunately, under the Company rule, the most prosperous and industrially developed province soon became steeped in abject poverty and suffering that aggravated in the wake of famines and epidemics. Gaining control over Bengal, the English had become successful in establishing a colonial empire and fulfill its imperial designs.

3.10 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The Carnatic Wars were a series of battles, primarily between the British and French, for control of the ports of India during the years 1746 to 1763.
- The First and Third Carnatic Wars were essentially the Indian colonial front in these two international wars.
- The first Carnatic war was straightly linked with the events that occurred in Europe. The reason on which the English and French were clashing was the issue of Austria's succession (1740–1748).
- The basic causes that led to the second Carnatic war was the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748).
- Robert Clive seized Arcot, the capital of Chanda Sahib on September 11, 1751 with only 200 European soldiers and 300 sepoys.
- Clive and his small army stood the siege for fifty days. Chanda Sahib had to withdraw; later the English defeated him and his Indian allies at several places. He surrendered and was finally executed and the French gave up their entire claim over Carnatic.
- The French installed Muzaffar Jung in Hyderabad. He was succeeded by Salabat Jung in 1751.
- Bussy—the French officer at Hyderabad, even succeeded in obtaining farman from the Mughal emperor Ahmad Shah, confirming Salabat as the ruler of the Deccan.

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Check Your Progress

27. How did the British acquire the diwani and the nizamat rights of Bengal?
28. When did Hastings become the governor of Bengal?
29. The dual government had improved the British administration over Bengal. (True/False)
30. Gaining control over Bengal, the English had become successful in establishing a colonial empire and fulfill its imperial designs. (True/False)

- The third Carnatic War (1758–1763) began with the Seven Years' War (1756–1763) of Europe.
- The English Governor and Lieutenant Colonel of Fort St. David, Robert Clive, took hold of Chandan Nagar—the French settlement in Bengal in 1757. He was also accountable for Siraj-ud-Daulah—the Nawab of Bengal's victory against British, in the battle of Plassey (June 23, 1757). Thus, financially English East India Company was more secured.
- The French also could not struggle with the English in naval superiority. So, the third Carnatic war ended the French challenge in India and it created the way for the establishment of the British Empire in India.
- The English navy helped to cut off the link among the French possessions in India and France; because of this the English could send help to India whenever it was needed.
- French Government was never very actively interested in the Indian affairs.
- In 1717, the Mughal emperor issued a farman by which it granted special benefits to the English East India Company, namely, exemption of taxes on goods imported and exported from Bengal.
- In 1741, when Muhammad Shah Rangila was the Mughal sovereign, Alivardi Khan, the governor of Bengal, announced himself independent and established his capital at Murshidabad.
- Though Alivardi wanted his grandson, Siraj-ud-Daulah, son of his youngest daughter, to acquire the nawabship, the latter's succession to the throne was not accepted by other contenders, such as Shaukat Jang (faujdar of Purnea) and Ghasiti Begam, eldest daughter of Alivardi.
- Siraj-ud-Daulah became the Nawab of Bengal in 1756.
- Without seeking Nawab Siraj-ud-Daulah's consent, the English began to build fortifications in Calcutta.
- To punish the highhandedness of the Company, Siraj-ud-Daulah retaliated by striking Calcutta on 16 June 1756 and bringing it under his sway by 20 June 1756.
- It was Siraj's folly to have allowed the English to flee to Fulda and not annihilate them entirely from Fulda.
- The English troops, headed by Robert Clive and Watson, attacked Calcutta and recaptured it.
- Siraj-ud-Daulah was compelled to consent to the Treaty of Alinagar (as Calcutta was renamed in 9 February 1757), agree to all their claims. Having strengthened their position, the English wanted to embarrass the Nawab further and in March 1757, they sent their troops to strike at the French settlement at Chandernagor.
- Owing to the betrayal of Mir Jafar and Rai Durlab, Siraj, despite being armed with a huge contingent, was defeated by the small band of English soldiers under Robert Clive in the Battle of Plassey (23 June 1757).
- The Battle of Plassey was not a battle in the real sense, as the Nawab's army was headed by Mir Jaffer and Rai Durlabh, who had shifted their allegiance towards the English and made no effort to contest the English troops.
- Siraj-ud-Daulah was held captive and finally was killed by Mir Jafar's son Miran. Clive placed Mir Jafar on the throne of Bengal.
- According to Sir Jadunath Sarkar, an eminent historian, 23 June 1757, marked the end of the medieval period in India and the beginning of the

modern period. Retrospectively speaking, in the years following Plassey (1757–76), that not even covered a single generation, one notices the waning out of the medieval practice of theocratic rule, which can be considered as a fallout of the Battle.

- The Supreme Court of Calcutta even pointed out that apart from those living in Calcutta, other English officials were not British subjects. Thus, post Plassey, the English did not shed off their 'commercial character'.
- After Plassey, it was quite unexpected that the Marathas would be routed, or the French would be subdued, thereby allowing the English to gain control over Bengal.
- The Battle of Buxar (1764) was fought between the forces under the command of the British East India Company led by Hector Munro, and the combined armies of Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal; Shuja-ud-Daula the Nawab of Awadh; and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.
- Mir Qasim, son-in-law of Mir Jafar replaced him as nawab on 27 September 1760. He shifted the capital to Munger.
- After reinstating Mir Jafar to the throne of Bengal and the English negotiated a treaty with Shah Alam at Allahabad in 1765 by which the latter conceded diwani rights to the Company in lieu of a pension of ₹26 lakh from the Company and ₹53 lakh from the Nawab of Bengal.
- In Bengal, between 1765 and 1772, an innovative governing machinery, the dual system of administration, was introduced.
- Since 1765, the Company became the actual sovereign of Bengal, gaining exclusive rights over all military and political affairs.
- The Battle of Buxar established British control over Bengal. Buxar revealed the political and military shortfalls of the Indian rulers and the decadence of the Mughal empire.
- Though the Battle of Buxar was precipitated by the alliance drawn by Mir Qasim with Shuja-ud-Daulah and thereby had caused political repercussions in Bengal, Mir Qasim's decision to break the alliance even before Munro's attack, saved him.
- In May 1765, Clive was entrusted with the governorship of Bengal for the second time. The Company officials were looking for the appropriate means to tackle Shuja and Shah Alam.
- According to the Treaty of Allahabad, the concluding agreement drawn with Shuja-ud-Daulah, (16 August 1765), the territories earlier belonging to Shuja, except Allahabad and Kora, were given back.
- After Buxar, Mir Jafar was reinstated to the throne of Bengal by the English.
- The English success at Buxar, followed by Mir Jafar's demise sealed the fate of the nawabs in Bengal and laid the foundation of the British empire in Bengal.
- After resuming for his second term of governorship in May 1765, Clive pressurized Najm-ud-Daulah to grant all the revenues to the Company in exchange of an annual pension of ₹50 lakh.
- When Najm-ud-Daulah died in 1766, he was succeeded by his minor brother Saif-ud-Daulah, who was granted a pension of ₹12 lakh only.
- In Bengal's history, the treaty of Allahabad (1765) is extremely significant as it ushered in a new administrative mechanism, which laid down the foundation of the British administrative system in India.

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- By signing the treaty of Allahabad (with Shah Alam II), the English obtained diwani and nizam rights in lieu of ₹26 lakh as annual pension and ₹53 lakh, respectively.
- The dual government had badly affected administration. While there was no discipline and order, trade and commerce suffered, and merchants almost became paupers, thriving industries, such as of silk and textiles, collapsed, agriculture was evaluated by the Company to be unyielding and thereby, peasants were subjected to dire poverty.
- Clive's dual government proved to be a complete failure. In 1772, Warren Hastings became the governor of Bengal, and embarked upon an offensive plan that would remove 'the mask of Mughal sovereignty' from the soil of Bengal, and make the English the rightful rulers.

3.11 KEY TERMS

- **Diwani:** The right to collect revenue.
 - **Subedar:** The person who looked after the *nizamat*.
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3.12 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. The Carnatic Wars between the British and French were fought between 1746 and 1763.
2. The period during which the Carnatic Wars were fought, Europe saw two wars, the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48) and the Seven Year's War (1756-1763).
3. To achieve political advantages, Dupleix began to interfere with the internal matters of Hyderabad and Carnatic.
4. The Nawab of Carnatic Anwar-ud-Din died in 1749.
5. On 3 August, 1749, French soldiers attacked Arcot in Ambur, the capital of Carnatic.
6. After the French lost the Carnatic region to the British, they continued their hold on Hyderabad and installed Muzaffar Jung as the Nizam and subedar of the Deccan. In return, they got command of a vast area from Krishna to Cape Camorin, which was the jagir of Valdavur.
7. Salabat Jung was proclaimed ruler of Deccan after French officer Bussy obtained a farman from the Mughal emperor Ahmad Shah.
8. After the French defeat in the Carnatic region, Dupleix was recalled to France in 1754.
9. The third Carnatic War began in 1758-1763.
10. True
11. True
12. The Mughal emperor issued a farman in 1717 by which it granted special benefits to the English East India Company, namely, exemption of taxes on goods imported and exported from Bengal.

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13. In 1741, when Muhammad Shah Rangila was the Mughal sovereign, Alivardi Khan, the governor of Bengal, announced himself independent and established his capital at Murshidabad.
14. Siraj-ud-Daulah became the Nawab of Bengal in 1756.
15. In January 1757, the English troops, headed by Robert Clive and Watson, attacked Calcutta and recaptured it.
16. Clive took the help of people like Mir Jafar, Mir Bakshi, Jagath Seth and Amin Chand and the army who were dissatisfied with Siraj's succession to the throne.
17. Siraj-ud-Daulah was held captive and was finally killed by Mir Jafar's son Miran.
18. False
19. Mir Qasim, son-in-law of Mir Jafar replaced him as nawab on 27 September 1760.
20. After being reinstated, Mir Qasim planned an offensive at Buxar (22 October 1764) against the English by allying with Shah Alam II, the Mughal king and Shuja-ud-Daulah, the Nawab of Awadh.
21. The English negotiated a treaty with Shah Alam at Allahabad in 1765.
22. The Battle of Buxar established British control over Bengal.
23. False
24. The Nawab had to pay ₹50 lakh as compensation for the war.
25. After Mir Jafar passed away, his minor son Najm-ud-Daulah was made the nawab.
26. Najm-ud-Daulah died in 1766.
27. By signing the Treaty of Allahabad (with Shah Alam II), the English obtained diwani in lieu of ₹26 lakh as pension for the Bengal nawab.
28. Warren Hastings became the governor of Bengal in 1772.
29. False
30. True

3.13 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the causes of the first Carnatic War?
2. What were the immediate causes of the third Carnatic War?
3. What were the differences between the French and the English East India Company?
4. What was the main cause of dispute between the Nawab of Bengal and the British East India Company?
5. What was the dual system of government of Bengal?
6. How did the second Carnatic War end?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the reasons that made the British more successful than the French.
2. What were the consequences of the Battle of Plassey?
3. How important was the Treaty of Allahabad to the Mughals and the British?
4. Write a short note on the consequences of the Carnatic Wars?
5. Why did the British want to conquer Bengal?

3.14 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 EMERGENCE OF REGIONAL POWERS

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 - 4.5.6 Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (March-May 1799)
- 4.6 Marathas
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 - 4.6.4 Causes of the Failure of Marathas in Panipat
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4.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the British subjugation of regional powers like Bengal and the Carnatic. With fall of the Mughal empire, the territories under its reign witnessed chaos and were fragmented into small princely states. Regional rulers who had till now nourished dreams of throwing out the Mughals started waging bitter wars. States like Oudh (Awadh), Hyderabad, Punjab, and Mysore came to the fore.

In this unit, you will learn how the nawabs of Awadh and Hyderabad became puppets in the hands of the British. You will also study how the Sikhs, the Marathas and rulers of Mysore fought the British before accepting British sovereignty.

4.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain how the British annexed Awadh
- Describe how the princely state of Hyderabad came under British subjugation

- Analyse the Anglo-Sikh wars
- Outline the rise of Tipu Sultan and the interpret the Anglo-Mysore wars
- Discuss the historical background of the great Marathas
- List the causes and consequences of the Third Battle of Panipat
- Describe Marathas relations with the English East India Company
- Assess the causes of the failure of the Marathas

4.2 OUDH (AWADH)

The second half of the 18th century witnessed gradual expansion of the British East India Company's role in North India and this had a strong bearing on the economy and politics of Awadh. Until 1801, Awadh was treated as a buffer state protecting Bengal against the powers to the Marathas and the question of encroachment and annexation did not arise. It was only around the turn of the 19th century that Awadh became a block to further British expansion. This eventually led to the takeover of the province in 1856.

The enmity between Awadh and the English started in 1764 with the Battle of Buxar. In this battle, the English defeated the combined forces of the Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh, Mughal emperor Shah Alam and Nawab of Bengal, Mir Qasim. After the battle, the Treaty of Allahabad was signed between Nawab of Awadh and the British. According to this treaty, Shuja-ud-Daula was allowed to retain Awadh. However, Kora and Allahabad were ceded to the Mughal emperor. A war indemnity of ₹50,00,000 to be paid in instalments was imposed on Shuja who entered into a reciprocal arrangement with the company for defence of each other's territory. The nawabs were aware of the company's burgeoning strength and aspirations and, like the Bengal nawabs, they were not prepared to let go without at least a semblance of a struggle. This assumed in the initial stages the form of a concerted drive against British commercial penetration of Awadh. Alongside, a major reorganization and reform of the Awadh army was initiated.

The military reforms initiated by Shuja-ud-Daula after the humiliation at Buxar were not intended to either intimidate the English or promote a war against them. Rather, it would seem that the overall military effort reflected the Nawab's anxiety to defend his political authority at a time when it was being steadily undermined by the alien company. For the Company, Awadh was too important and lucrative a province to be left alone. Its vast amount of revenue could be used to subsidize the company's armies. In carefully planned stages, the company stepped up its fiscal demands. In 1773 the first definitive treaty was concluded between Awadh and the English East India Company. By this treaty, the Nawab agreed to pay ₹2,10,000 monthly for each brigade of company troops that would remain present in Awadh or Allahabad. This provision established the beginning of Awadh's chronic indebtedness to the company and represented the initial British thrust into the region's political system.

It was in and after 1775 that the vulnerability of the nawabi came into sharp focus. It was also in these years, ironically enough, that the emergence of a provincial cultural identity centered on the new court and capital at Lucknow (the capital had been shifted from Fyzabad) was more clearly identifiable than before. Asaf-ud-Daula's succession to the throne in 1775 went without a hitch notwithstanding the

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hostility of some of Shuja's courtiers and of the opposition faction of his brother Saadat Ali, the governor of Rohilkhand. Soon, however, under the stewardship of Murtaza Khan (Asaf's favorite who received the exalted title of Mukhtar-ud-Daula), the stability of the existing political set up was strengthened as older nobles and generals were displaced. Furthermore, Mukhtar allowed the Company to negotiate a treaty with the Nawab ceding to English control the territories surrounding Benaras, north to Jaunpur and west to Allahabad, then held by Chait Singh. The treaty also fixed a larger subsidy than before for the Company brigade and excluded the Mughal emperor from all future Anglo-Nawabi transactions. Finally all diplomatic transactions and foreign intelligence were to be controlled by the English through the Resident at the Nawab's court. The disintegration of the political system, the blatant intervention of the English in Awadh's affairs and Asaf-ud-Daula's excessively indulgent disposition and disregard of political affairs alarmed a sizeable section of the Awadh nobility. The situation worsened as troops were in arrears and at places mutinied. These acts of disturbance and lawlessness smoothed the way for British intervention. In the 1770s, the English East India Company persistently eroded the basis of Awadh's sovereignty. The rapid inroads of the English made by virtue of their military presence seriously undermined the Nawabi regime which in 1780 came up with the first declaration of protest. The supreme government in Calcutta was forced to realize that unremitting pressure on Awadh's resources could not be sustained indefinitely and that the excessive intervention of the English Resident would have to be curtailed if Awadh's usefulness as a subsidiary was to be guaranteed.

Thus, in 1784, Warren Hastings entered into a new series of arrangements with Asaf-ud-Daula which reduced the debt by ₹50 lakh and thereby the pressure on the Awadh regime. In the following decade and a half, the Awadh regime continued to function as a semi-autonomous regional power whose relations with the company were cordial. This state of affairs lasted until 1797, the year of Asaf's demise, when the British once more intervened in the succession issue. Wazir Ali, Asaf's chosen successor, was deposed in favour of Saadat Ali. With Saadat Ali a formal treaty was signed on 21 February 1798 which increased the subsidy to ₹76 lakh yearly.

A more forward policy was initiated by Lord Wellesley who arrived in 1798 only to reject the Awadh system. The Nawab's declaration of inability to pay the increased financial demand of the company gave Wellesley a suitable pretext to contemplate annexation. In September 1801, Henry Wellesley arrived in Lucknow to force Saadat's surrender of his whole territory. After protracted negotiations, the company accepted the perpetual sovereignty of Rohilkhand, Gorakhpur and the Doab which yielded a gross amount of ₹1 crore 35 lakh. The annexations inaugurated a new era in Anglo-Awadh relations. The shrunken subah could no longer pose a threat to the stability of the Company dominions nor did the rulers of Awadh entertain any notion of resistance to the relentless forward march of the English. Deprived of their army and half of their territory, they concentrated their energies in cultural pursuits.

In this, they were following the footsteps of Asaf-ud-Daula who had built up around the Lucknow court a vibrant and living cultural arena. The patronage extended to luminaries and poets like Mirza Rafi Sauda (1713-86) and Mir Ghulam Hasan (1734-86). Lucknow had been a second home for these sensitive men of letters who had left Delhi and lamented for the world they had loved and lost. The assumption of imperial status by Ghazi-ud-din-Hyder (1819) and the formal revocation of Mughal sovereignty was an integral part of the blooming court culture of Awadh. But this

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coincided with the decline in the ruler's control over the administration and province. The heavy price that had to be continually paid to the Company for 'protection', the devolution of administrative responsibility to ministers, and the dominant position of the British Resident, were facts which no regal pomp and ceremony could conceal.

The Nawab of Awadh had many heirs and could not, therefore, be covered by the Doctrine of Lapse. Some other pretext had to be found for depriving him of his dominions. Finally, Lord Dalhousie hit upon the idea of alleviating the plight of the people of Awadh. Nawab Wajid Ali Shah was accused of having misgoverned his state and of refusing to introduce reforms. His state was, therefore, annexed in 1856. Undoubtedly, the degeneration of the administration of Awadh was a painful reality for its people.

4.3 HYDERABAD

Six Deccan subahs of the Mughal Empire made up the area of Hyderabad. Since the Mughals were constantly involved in a struggle with the warring Marathas, they had neglected to consolidate the newly-conquered Deccan region. After Aurangzeb had died, an ambitious Zulfiqar Khan, who had hitherto been the strongest and most influential general of Aurangzeb, vowed to seize control of the Deccan subahs. To do so, he decided to befriend the Mughal enemies—the Marathas—and entered into a secret pact with them. Since Khan was a Shia Muslim, his ambition was to establish a Shia kingdom where Bijapur and Golconda had been. But he was not the only one with his eye on the coveted prize of these two states. Chin Qilich Khan (later known as Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah) was a powerful mansabdar who also wanted to set up an independent state in the Deccan.

Zulfiqar Khan and Chin Qilich Khan had been enemies for a long time, since they belonged to two warring camps in the Mughal court—Irani and Turani. However, after Aurangzeb died, Zulfiqar Khan had a slight edge because his father Asad Khan, had been the wazir in Aurangzeb's time and managed to maintain his influence for much longer after the Emperor died. Zulfiqar came even closer to realizing his ambition when in 1708, he was granted the vice-royalty of the Deccan by Bahadur Shah I. He held that post until his death in 1713 at the hands of his killer, Farrukh-Siyar.

Immediately after Aurangzeb died, as was the norm, his sons started fighting among themselves to take over the throne. However, Chin Qilich Khan remained neutral at his post in Bijapur. He was made the governor of Awadh and Faujdar of Gorakhpur by Bahadur Shah on 9 December 1707. He was thus removed from Bijapur where his ambitions had lain. When Bahadur Shah eventually came close to the end of his reign, Chin Qilich Khan rejoined public service because he saw another opportunity for gaining power. However, the reigns of the Deccan were handed over to Nizam-ul-Mulk in 1713 by Farrukh-Siyar, who gave Nizam-ul-Mulk prestigious titles like Khan Khana and Bahadur Fatehjang in return for his services. The new Governor, Nizam-ul-Mulk, was an ambitious man and aspired to rule the Deccan region independently of the Mughal interference.

Nizam-ul-Mulk was a shrewd and tactful administrator. He wanted to suppress the Marathas and to do so, he put a stop to the payment of 'chauth' and incited the already proud and selfish Maratha chiefs against the Sahu. In the meantime, at the Delhi court a number of political intrigues were brewing and as a result, Nizam-ul-

Check Your Progress

1. When did Lord Wellesley come to India?
2. How did Dalhousie annex Awadh?
3. In 1773 the first definitive treaty was concluded between Awadh and the English East India Company. (True/False)

Mulk was summoned from the Deccan close to the end of 1715 and replaced by Husain Ali. Nizam-ul-Mulk was sent to control Muradabad and later to Bihar. While he was still preparing to assume charge of his new duties Farrukh-Siyar fell and Nizam-ul-Mulk was transferred again, this time to Malwa. This time, he received the pledge that he would not be transferred again.

It was finally in Malwa that Nizam-ul-Mulk came into his own as a great leader. He became so popular that the Sayyid brother became jealous of him and he was summoned back to the court. However, Nizam-ul-Mulk was not happy with this decision and rebelled against it—he led the army to take control of Asirgarh in May 1720 and three days later, Burhanpur. The Sayyid brothers sent Sayyid Dilawar Ali Khan and Alam Ali Khan to overcome Nizam-ul-Mulk. However, Dilawar Ali Khan tasted defeat in June 1720 and Alam Ali Khan was killed in the battle. Husain Ali was also murdered when he was on his way to the Deccan, on 8 October 1720. Sayyid Abdullah was also killed soon after.

Once the Sayyid brothers were out of his way, Nizam-ul-Mulk appointed himself the ruler of the six subahs of the Deccan and shifted his attention to overpowering the Marathas. In February 1722, his feats were recognized by the Mughal ruler and he was granted the office of the Wazir of the Mughal Empire, which he remained until 1724. He was a strict disciplinarian and tried to rule the court with an iron hand. However, the hangers-on at the court did not like this. They spread stories about him to the king. As a wazir, his tenure was highly dissatisfying for him, even though he managed to add Malwa and Gujarat to the Deccan area.

Once he found out that he was not appreciated at the court, he left for the Deccan without taking leave of the emperor. Obviously, the emperor felt insulted and appointed Mubariz Khan as the Viceroy of the Deccan and ordered the new Viceroy to bring the Nizam to the court, dead or alive. But the Nizam was not so easily defeated and he killed Mubariz Khan and sent his head to the emperor instead. Nizam-ul-Mulk also defeated Mubariz Khan's son and overtook the reigns of Hyderabad in early 1725.

The historian, Irvine, writes, 'From this period may be dated Nizam-ul-Mulk's virtual independence and the foundation of the present Hyderabad state.' The Nizam started his rule in earnest and appointed officers for various posts, besides promoting his favorites and conferring titles upon the deserving officers. He also issued assignments on land revenue according to his own idea of administration. While in all other ways, he was like a king, he refrained from overt royal manifestations like the use of scarlet or imperial umbrella, the recitation of the Friday prayer in his own name and the issue of coins stamped with his own superscription.

Nizam-ul-Malik was an intelligent ruler and gauged the intentions of the Marathas, specifically Peshwa Baji Rao I, to oppose his independent rule in the Deccan. He decided thus to take preventive measures. At the same time, there were many Maratha chieftains who were dissatisfied with the Peshwa and the Nizam got them to his side. The battle between the Nizam and supporters and Peshwa Baji Rao I continued for five years—from 1727 to 1732. In 1728, the Nizam was defeated at Palkhed. His main supporter, Senapati Trimbak Rao Dabhade, was killed later in 1731.

Nizam-ul-Mulk realized that he needed to negotiate a mutually beneficial treaty with the Peshwa, who also wanted peace after such a long period of strife and wanted Nizam's support for his expeditions to the north. The two leaders managed

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to reach a compromise in December 1732 which gave the Nizam freedom to expand his empire in the south and the Peshwa to expand his empire in the north.

When Peshwa Baji Rao I suddenly died soon after, the Nizam was summoned by the emperor and he reached Delhi in July 1737. Here, the Nizam was given the title of Asaf Jah. The Nizam then proceeded to Malwa but was overpowered by Peshwa Baji Rao near Bhopal and forced to sign a humiliating peace treaty in January 1738. The Nizam had to sign away the subedari of Malwa to Baji Rao as well as the area between rivers Narmada and Chambal.

After the attack of Nadir Shah on the Mughal India, the Nizam was summoned to Delhi by the emperor who wanted the Nizam to finalize a peace treaty with Nadir Shah. The Nizam succeeded in this task but it didn't amount to much due to the intervention of Saadat Ali Khan.

Nizam-ul-Mulk controlled the Deccan region until he died in 1748. He maintained his loyalty to the Mughal ruler and rejected Nadir Shah's offer of gaining control of the throne in Delhi. Not only was Nizam-ul-Mulk an able general and a thoughtful, progressive administrator but he was a shrewd statesman and diplomat as well. He helped to uplift the regions under his reigns financially by successfully suppressing the refractory chiefs, over-ambitious officers and robbers. He promoted trade through his measured revenue assessment and taxation policies. Religion-wise also, he was tolerant and progressive. His right hand man was Puran Chand, designated as Diwan.

After Nizam-ul-Mulk died, a war of succession followed which ultimately became interlinked with the Anglo-French dispute in the Deccan. It was finally in 1762 that India reached a level of political stability when Nizam Ali came to the throne and ruled for over 40 years. After the English East India company started to establish itself, and Lord Wellesley was the administrator, the Nizam entered into a subsidiary alliance with them and became their ally.

4.4 PUNJAB

Ranjit Singh made himself the master of Punjab. The first regular contact between Ranjit Singh and the British seems to have been made in 1800, when India was threatened by an invasion of Zaman Shah, the Afghan ruler who had been invited by Tipu Sultan, a bitter enemy of the British. As a precautionary measure, the British sent Munshi Yusuf Ali to the court of Ranjit Singh with rich presents to win the Maharaja over to the British side. Soon, however, he learnt that the danger of Zaman Shah's invasion receded and Yusuf Ali was recalled.

The second contact was made in 1805, when the Maratha chief Holkar entered Punjab with help from Ranjit Singh. Ranjit Singh had gone to conquer Multan and Jhang but came to Amritsar on learning about Holkar's arrival. He called a meeting of a Sarbat Khalsa to decide about the policy to be followed towards Holkar. Fateh Singh Ahluwalia and Bhag Singh of Jind advised Ranjit Singh not to come in conflict with the British by helping Holkar. Ranjit Singh told Holkar politely that he would not help him against the British. General Lake and Maharaja Ranjit Singh concluded an agreement in January, 1806.

Check Your Progress

4. What were the designations of Zulfiqar Khan and Chin Qilich Khan?
5. Who replaced Nizam-ul-Mulk as the Governor of Deccan?
6. Who all joined the Nizam in his fight against Peshwa Baji Rao I?
7. Bahadur Shah removed Chin Qilich Khan from the Deccan and made him the Governor of _____ and _____ of Gorakhpur.

As the danger of French invasion on India became remote, the English adopted a stern policy towards Ranjit Singh. He was given a note by the governor general Metcalfe which contained some soft-worded warnings against his aggressive policy. Ranjit Singh was asked to restore all the places he had taken possession of since 1806 to the former possessors which will confine his army right to the bank of the Sutlej. Ranjit Singh was not prepared to accept the demand. However, he withdrew his troops from Ambala and Saniwal but continued to retain Faridkot. Ranjit Singh fortified the fort of Govindgarh. But in the last stage, Ranjit Singh changed his mind and agreed to sign the Treaty of Amritsar in 1809.

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One of the effects of the treaty of Amritsar was that the British government was able to take the Sutlej states under its protection. Ranjit Singh's advance in the east was checked but he was given a carte blanche so far as the region to the west of the Sutlej was concerned.

The death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh in June 1839 was followed by political instability and rapid changes of government in the Punjab. Selfish and corrupt leaders came to the front. Ultimately, power fell into the hands of the brave and patriotic but utterly indisciplined army. This led the British to look greedily across the Sutlej upon the land of the five rivers even though they had signed a treaty in 1809. Figure 4.1 shows a map displaying the kingdom of Maharaja Ranjit Singh.

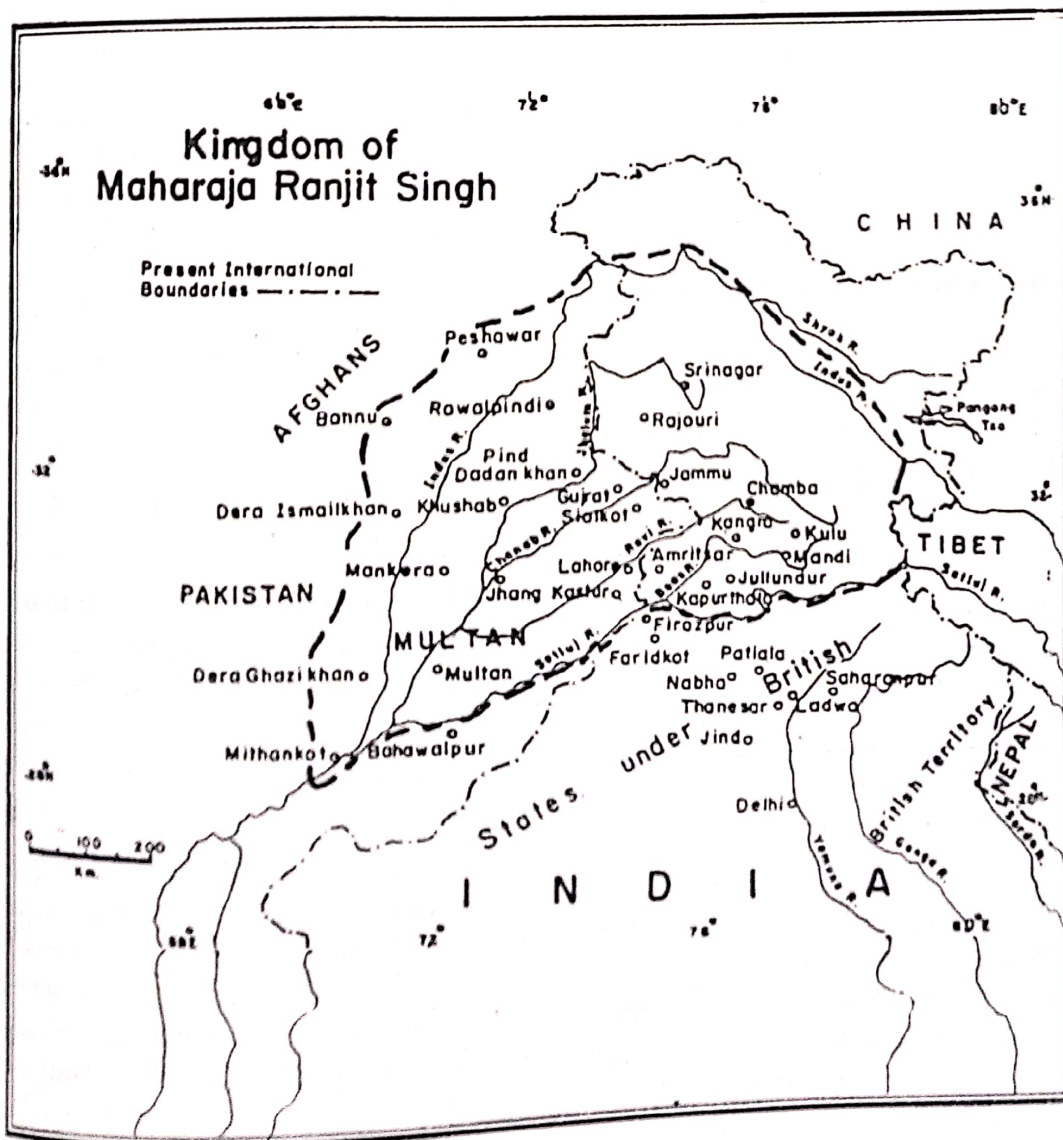


Figure 4.1 Kingdom of Maharaja Ranjit Singh

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4.4.1 First Anglo-Sikh War (1845–1846)

The First Anglo-Sikh War was fought at Mudki on 18 December 1845 and the Sikhs were defeated. The English again won the battle at Ferozepur on December 21. The Sikhs, under Ranjit Singh Majithia, however, defeated the English at Buddwal on 21 January 1846. But, the Sikhs were again defeated at Aliwal on January 28. The decisive battle was fought at Sobraon on 10 February 1846 and the Sikhs were routed. The English then crossed the Sutlej on February 13 and captured the capital of Lahore on February 20. As the Sikhs were absolutely beaten, many people advised Lord Hardinge to annex the Empire, but he did not accept this.

The war came to an end by the Treaty of Lahore which was signed on 9th March, 1846. This treaty left the Sikhs with no capacity for resisting the English. Another treaty was made with the Sikhs on 16 December 1846. This treaty is known as the 'Second Treaty of Lahore' or the 'Treaty of Bhairawal'.

4.4.2 Second Anglo-Sikh War (1848–1849)

The Sikhs considered their defeat in the first Sikh War as a great humiliation. They had been accustomed to victories during the time of Ranjit Singh and this defeat gave a rude shock to their mentality. The Sikhs wanted to restore the fallen fortunes of their kingdom and the Second Anglo-Sikh War was fought between them in 1848–1849.

Lord Gough, the British Commander-in-Chief, reached Lahore with the grand army of the Punjab on 13 November. On 22 November, the rebels were defeated in a battle at Ramnagar. Another indecisive action was fought at Sadullapur on 3 December.

4.4.3 Third Anglo-Sikh War (1849)

The third battle was fought on 13 January 1849 at Chelianwala. On 21 February, Lord Gough met the Sikhs in another battle at Derajat. The Sikhs were utterly defeated. They surrendered themselves at Rawalpindi.

The complete defeat of the Sikhs sealed the fate of their kingdom. Lord Dalhousie, on his own responsibility, annexed Punjab on 29 March, 1849.

The annexation of Punjab extended the British territories in India up to the natural frontiers of India towards the north-west. Besides, after the destruction of the power of the Sikhs, there remained no active power which could pose a threat to the security of the English in India.

Check Your Progress

8. What happened in 1846?
9. Who were the parties of Treaty of Lahore?
10. When was Punjab annexed?
11. When was the first regular contact made between Ranjit Singh and the British?

4.5 MYSORE

Mysore, which lies between the two Ghats—the eastern and western—were ruled by the Wodeyar dynasty. However, between 1731 and 34 there began a fierce contest between Devaraja, the head of the army, and his brother Naniaraja, the guardian of the state's finances, to gain suzerainty over Mysore. Corresponding to this phase, the entire Deccan had become a battleground for several powers, namely, Marathas, the Nizam, English and the French.

Owing to frequent Maratha invasions, Mysore had become financially insolvent, making it more susceptible to attacks. Being under Mughal suzerainty earlier, Mysore, in the Nizam's eyes, was a legitimate part of his kingdom.

Hence, began the scramble for power over Mysore between the Peshwa and the Nizam. The French and the English also became a part of this struggle with the involvement of the English during the Second Carnatic War. Nanaraja had approached the English for help. However, loyalty towards the French later, embroiled both the English and the French in the political tussle in Deccan.

4.5.1 Haider Ali (1760–1782)

Hyder Ali was a great Indian general whose outstanding martial splendour saw him become the factual ruler of the Kingdom of Mysore in south-western India. Haider Ali's father, Fatah Mohammad, belonged to the lineage of Qurush of Mecca, and was an administrative servant in Mysore. From such humble parentage, Haider Ali brought himself into limelight by annexing Devanhalli in 1749 and by raiding Hyderabad and amassing a large booty. Using the looted resources, he strengthened his army. With French aid, Haider Ali trained his troops as well. In 1775, as *faujdar* of Dindigul he brought the Poligars under his control. Soon, with the help of French engineers, he set up an arsenal.

Subsequently, using the enmity that existed between the Raja of Mysore and Nanajaraja, he took over the reins of administration in his own hands in 1761, making the Raja, a de jure head, who had practically no powers and received a fixed amount as pension. Interestingly, Haider Ali never wanted to proclaim himself with a new title or establish a new dynasty as an independent ruler. Even the term 'Sultan', in the name of his son and successor Tipu Sultan, did not denote any title, but was a part of the name.

In 1760, Haider Ali was defeated by the Marathas. He could only establish himself firmly after the Battle of Panipat, where the Marathas faced a humiliating defeat. During the period between 1764 and 1776, Haider Ali was engaged in constant wars with the Marathas, whom he managed to appease by offering a huge booty or by granting territories.

However, post 1776, Haider Ali retrieved all lands granted earlier, and brought under his sway the strategically significant areas lying in the Krishna–Tungabhadra Doab. His stance posed to be most challenging to the English. He overwhelmed the English in the First Anglo–Mysore War (1767–69) with the help of the French and the Nizam and in 1769 compelled them to draw an embarrassing pact with him. During the Second Anglo–Mysore War (1780–84) he faced the English with a combined army comprising the Nizam and the Maratha forces. In 1782, Arcot was annexed by Haider after crushing the English forces. However, on 7 December 1782 Haider Ali died during the course of the war. His son Tipu Sultan took over the reins of Mysore to fulfill his father's unaccomplished mission and carried on fighting against the English.

4.5.2 Tipu Sultan (1782–99)

The eldest son of Hyder Ali, Tipu ascended the throne on his father's death in 1782, following the Second Mysore War. The Second Anglo–Mysore War, which was prolonged further under Tipu Sultan's leadership, finally ended in 1784 when both parties had been waned of their resources. The Treaty of Mangalore was drawn in March 1784, and both parties agreed to compensate each other for the losses suffered.

Under Tipu Sultan, Mysore's hegemony increased further; this caused its foes, the Marathas and the Nizam, to ally against him. But, showing his astounding military

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skills, Tipu Sultan resisted such attempts and defeated them. This in turn prompted the Marathas and the Nizam to look for help from the English, who wanted to take revenge of their earlier defeat. This culminated into the Third Anglo–Mysore War (1790–92). With the cooperation of the Marathas and the Nizam, the English proceeded to Srirangapatnam.

Despite putting up a fierce resistance, Tipu Sultan failed to quell the combined forces for long. The Treaty of Srirangapatnam was signed in March 1792, owing to which Tipu Sultan had to give away more than fifty per cent of his kingdom. In 1799, with the conclusion of the Fourth Anglo–Mysore War, Tipu Sultan lost his suzerainty completely. The Fourth Anglo–Mysore War was triggered by English accusations against Tipu of having conspired with the Marathas and the Nizam to launch an attack against the English in India. They claimed that to attain his goal, Tipu had sent embassies to Arabia, Afghanistan, the French in Mauritius and to Versailles.

Lord Wellesley as Governor-General of India became increasingly concerned at Tipu Sultan's growing power and acquisitions. Though Tipu had put up a brave resistance against the English, he lost his life in May 1799 during the course of the war. With Tipu's demise, Mysore lost its autonomy and the English finally became successful in ousting their most formidable foe. The East India Company captured larger portions of Mysore state. Following Lord Wellesley's subsidiary alliance, a minor from the Hindu royal family was put on the throne of Mysore.

Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan were remarkable rulers of the second half of 18th century. They were benevolent and allowed the practice of all religions. As the Peshwa remained subordinate to Shahu and accepted the latter as the de jure head of the state, so also Haider Ali refrained from assuming any title. However, in 1786 Tipu Sultan proclaimed himself to be the Sultan after dethroning the king. Coins belonging to Haider and Tipu's regime show images of Hindu deities and refer to the Hindu calendar, which reflect on the tolerant attitude of the rulers.

Jagadguru Shankaracharya of Sringeri was greatly regarded by Tipu Sultan and the latter had even provided monetary aid for the restoration of temples. Being competent rulers Haider and Tipu were also great patrons of architecture. It is interesting to note that Tipu Sultan even tried to restructure his administration according to the Western model, a novel step initiated for the first time by an Indian ruler. He considered the Almighty to be the real sovereign for whom his subjects had complete faith. He encouraged trade, both internal and foreign. He looked after the welfare of the peasants. He was fair and just with judicial disputes. Office holders in his administration were selected because of their merit and not owing to their lineage to a particular social strata, race or religion. Hence, the dynamism of the reign of Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan has left a permanent mark in the history of India as no other sovereign of the period showed such vibrancy.

DID YOU KNOW

Tipu was commonly known as the Tiger of Mysore and adopted this animal as the symbol of his rule.

4.5.3 First Anglo-Mysore War (1767-69)

To oust Haider Ali, the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas joined hands with the English. This led to the First Anglo-Mysore War (1767-69). The key factors that led to the war are listed below.

- Haider Ali's desire to oust the English from the Carnatic and establish his suzerainty, and the English apprehension of him being an obstacle to their imperial designs.
- The formation of a coalition among the English the Nizam and the Marathas to expel Haider Ali.
- Haider Ali's proclamation of war against the English after being able to split the tripartite coalition formed against him.

Being a competent general and an astute diplomat, Haider Ali was able to rupture the coalition formed against him. Following his instructions, Tipu Sultan paid a visit to the Nizam and appeased him by addressing him at the Nizam's court as Nasib-ud-daulah (the Fortune of the State) and Fateh Ali Khan Bahadur. Tipu always provided with the necessary aid whenever required. In Tiruvannamalai, when Haider was embroiled in a difficult situation Tipu saved his father. Their combined efforts won them the forts of Tirupattur and Vaniyambadi. With the annexation of Mangalore by Tipu, Haider drove out the English from the Malabar Coast. This crystallized into the signing of the Treaty of Madras between the English and Haider Ali, whereby the English had to comply with Haider's demands.

Treaty of Madras (1769)

The signatories of this treaty were Haider Ali and the East India Company with its allies – the Raja of Tanjore and the sovereign of Malabar. The clauses of the treaty were as follows:

- Apart from Karur and its districts, which would remain with the ruler of Mysore, the other annexed territories would be restored back.
- Each party to the treaty was to be mutually responsible to help each other if attacked. Prisoners belonging to the Madras government were to be freed by Haider Ali.
- The Raja of Tanjore was to be accepted as friend of Haider Ali.
- The Bombay Presidency and English factories were to get back their trading benefits.

4.5.4 Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-84)

The important events that led to the outbreak of the Second Anglo-Mysore War are listed as follows:

- When the Marathas attacked Haider Ali in 1771, the English refused to come to Haider's aid, thereby refuting the clause of mutual assistance as agreed earlier in the Treaty of Madras. The antagonism between the English and the French during the American War of Independence was extended to the Indian soil. As Haider was an ally of the French, the hostility against the French was directed against Haider too. Mahe, a French settlement in Haider Ali's territories, was captured by the English.
- Haider Ali created anti-English coalition with the Nizam and Marathas in 1779.

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The attack on Mahe by the English triggered the Second Anglo–Mysore war (1780–84). Haider and Tipu immediately proceeded to strike Arcot, the capital of Carnatic, to oust the English from the Carnatic, and simultaneously attacked Porto Novo where the offensive was led by Karim, Haider's second son. At Perambakkam, where Tipu disrupted the troops led by Baillie, the English suffered defeat. Tipu's constant assaults on Baillie's troops, prevented the latter from reaching and annexing Conjeeveram. When Tipu advanced his offensive against Baillie, the latter mistook Tipu's extremely disciplined infantry to be English troops, headed by Hector Munro, sent to his aid. At the end, Baillie had no option but to accept defeat. Thomas Munro had commented that Baillie's defeat was 'the severest blow that the English ever sustained in India.'

But, Haider had made a slight miscalculation. While Tipu was fighting Baillie, if he had ousted Munro too, he could have also captured Madras. But he sent Tipu armed with a small contingent after Munro. Such was the progress of events in the earlier half of September 1780. Thereafter Tipu made a series of annexations: Arcot, Satghur, Ambar and Tiagar forts. His plan to advance to Wandiwash was marred when he learned about Haider's defeat at Porto Novo.

After ousting Col. Braithwaite at Tanjore in February 1782, Tipu, with French assistance, proceeded to annex the Malabar Coast, but knowing about his father's death, he had to withdraw. On 7 December 1782, Haider Ali died at Narasingarayanpet near Chittoor. It is believed that he died from multiple carbuncles. To prevent any outbreak of any possible rebellion in the army, his death was not declared till the time Tipu arrived. Tipu became Haider's successor to a huge empire that stretched from river Krishna in the north to Travancore and Tinnevely in the south, Eastern Ghats in the east and the Arabian Sea in the west. He declared himself as Nawab Tipu Sultan Bahadur. After consolidating his newly acquired empire, he resumed the Anglo–Mysore War. However, in 1784, the parties of the war were too tired to continue further. They understood the need to conclude a peaceful treaty and concluded the Treaty of Mangalore on 11 March 1784.

Treaty of Mangalore (1784)

The Treaty of Mangalore was signed between Tipu Sultan and the British East India Company on 11 March 1784. It was signed in Mangalore and brought an end to the Second Anglo-Mysore War.

The terms of the treaties were as follows:

- None of the parties could offer direct or indirect help to the foes of any party to the treaty. Neither could they declare war against any of the allies of the parties to the treaty. Apart from restoring the former trading benefits granted by Haider Ali in 1770 to the Company, no further privileges were to be given.
- Except the Amboorgur and Satgur forts, the parties acceded to grant the territories back. Tipu also promised to refrain from raising any cause of contention over the Carnatic. Around 1,680 captives of war were to be freed by Tipu.
- Tipu consented to reinstate all benefits enjoyed by the Company until 1779 as well as the factory at Calicut.

In return, Tipu Sultan gained back all territories, which he had lost to the English during the war. Both sides mutually agreed to refrain from helping each

other's foes, directly or indirectly, or to declare war against their allies. Owing to this clause, the Treaty of Salbai became inconsequential.

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Consequence: For Tipu, the Treaty of Mangalore was a great diplomatic feat. The treaty was beneficial for the English who signed it when they realized that they could not afford to continue with the war further. With this treaty, Tipu got an opportunity to strengthen his position, and look into the organization of the administrative machineries and army. He emulated his administrative structure on the Mughal and Western models and named it Sarkar-i-Khudadad (Government given by God). As Dodwell observes, 'Tipu was the first Indian sovereign to seek to apply western methods to his administration'.

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4.5.5 Third Anglo-Mysore War (1790-92)

Pursuing his father's dream of gaining control over southern India, in 1789, Tipu struck Travancore. This aroused Cornwallis' apprehensions of affecting British interests. Even the Marathas and the Nizam were more skeptical about Mysore's annexation policies than that of the English. Fear of Tipu became the common ground for the English, Marathas and Nizam for forging a coalition against him. In 1790, the English planned a three-pronged attack and advanced towards Mysore. General Medows headed the army towards Coimbatore, while another brigade proceeded towards the Malabar Coast. However, seeing Tipu's prompt defensive measures, Lord Cornwallis decided to head the English troops. After annexing Bangalore, Cornwallis proceeded to Srirangapatnam. Though Tipu had managed to put the English forces under pressure by cutting off their food supplies, the Marathas rescued the latter by providing them with large quantities of grain. When the English occupied Srirangapatnam in January 1792, Tipu had got no other option but to agree to the Treaty of Srirangapatnam (23 February 1792).

Causes of Third Anglo-Mysore War

The key factors that led to the Third Anglo-Mysore War are listed as follows:

- Tipu's accomplishment in consolidating his empire internally through several reforms made his stance against the other powers more formidable
- Tipu's policy of annexation posed a serious threat to the British, Nizam and Marathas
- Tipu's plans to seek the help of France and Turkey against the British as evident by the envoys he sent to these countries posed a direct threat to British interests
- Tipu's policy of annexation, incorporating the territories of his neighbouring kingdoms, namely, the kingdom of the Raja of Travancore, an ally of the British (1789), aroused British apprehensions.

Treaty of Srirangapatna

The parties to the treaty were Tipu Sultan and the English along with their allies.

The terms of the treaty are listed as follows:

- Former treaties between the English and the sovereigns of Mysore were reaffirmed.
- Fifty per cent of Tipu's territories were to be distributed among the allies of the British.
- Tipu had to pay three crores and thirty lakh rupees, in gold or bullions, as indemnity. Out of this amount, a crore and sixty-five lakh rupees, had to

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be paid immediately, while the remaining amount could be paid in three installments, within the span of a year.

- All captives of war were to be freed.
- Till the time, the treaty was completely realized, Tipu's two sons, Abdul Khaliq (eight years) and Muiz-ud-din (five years old), to remain in English custody. Both of them were looked after well and it is believed that Cornwallis had even gifted them gold watches.

The main cause of Tipu Sultan's failure was that he had three foes that had to keep under control individually. If Tipu were given the task of only tackling the English, he would have been successful. Such an assumption is confirmed by Cornwallis' comment, 'Tipu's looties were the best troops in the world for they were always doing something to harass their enemies' and Munro's observation that 'Cornwallis could not have reduced Tipu without the assistance of the Marathas.'

Another reason for Tipu's failure lay in the fact that he was stronger in his offensive attacks than in his defensive actions. Hence he remained unsuccessful in defending Bangalore and Srirangapattinam. Also, had he decided to proceed beyond Arikere on 15 May 1791 after defeating the English troops and taking advantage of their weakness he would have inflicted formidable damage to them. Even Haider Ali had made a similar miscalculation during the Second Anglo-Mysore War. However, it must be noted that the European army was generally superior to the Tipu's forces as they had access to more advanced military equipments and had a more structured military organization.

Despite having modernized their troops Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan failed to raise an equally strong infantry and artillery as possessed by the English army. The English enjoyed the advantage of getting constant supplies of men, money and material from England, as well as from the Nizam and the Marathas. However, Tipu had to constantly struggle to maintain his supplies of recruits and money as they were often disrupted by Maratha incursions. Overcoming all such drawbacks, Tipu had faced the English and their allies bravely and had kept them at bay for almost two years. Even after the Treaty of Srirangapattinam, his indomitable spirit could not be dampened. The English had realized that without surrendering Mysore, they could not become the 'Power Paramount' in India. This led Lord Wellesley, as soon as he became Governor-General, to draw Tipu Sultan into the Subsidiary Alliance, and Tipu's reluctance perpetuated the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (March-May 1799).

4.5.6 Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (March-May 1799)

The primary causes behind Fourth Anglo-Mysore War have been listed below:

- Tipu Sultan's determination to win back his lost territories and his ability to make Mysore regain its strength
- Tipu's attempts to obtain aid from France and the Muslims of Arabia, Kabul and Turkey to oust the English from India
- Lord Wellesley's firm plan to eliminate all possibilities of attack from Mysore permanently

By forging a neutral pact with its allies against Tipu, the English again followed a three-pronged offensive: one under General Harris, the second led by General Stewart, and the third headed by Arthur Wellesley marched from three different directions on Tipu's kingdom.

Check Your Progress

12. What are the factors that led to the first Anglo-Mysore war in 1767?
13. Who all signed the Treaty of Mardas?
14. When did Haider Ali die?
15. Who succeeded Tipu after his death?
16. The third Anglo-Mysore war started in _____.

Stewart defeated Tipu Sultan at Sedasere on 8 March while Harris inflicted a crushing blow on 27 March. On 17 April Srirangapattinam was besieged and Mir Sadiq, betrayed Tipu and allowed the English to attack the fort. Despite putting up a brave fight, Tipu was killed on 4 May 1799. Lord Wellesley succeeded in imposing the subsidiary alliance by placing Krishnaraja, a descendant of Woodeyar dynasty on the throne.

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4.6 MARATHAS

During the Mughal rule, a powerful group emerged in the Deccan known as the Marathas. They were great warriors. When the Bahmani empire collapsed, many Hindu kingdoms rose to high positions, the Marathas were among them. The Deccan then consisted of the present region of Maharashtra and north Karnataka.

Shivaji and Peshwa Baji Rao were the prominent Maratha rulers and they challenged the supremacy of the Mughal empire. But the Third Battle of Panipat shattered the dream of the Marathas to establish their supremacy on whole India and gave the opportunity to the East India Company to establish its rule on India.

4.6.1 Historical Background of the Marathas

At the beginning of the 17th century, most of the territory in Maharashtra was under the possession of the Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar and Adil Shah of Bijapur. They took the help of local Marathi speaking people to run their administration. They recruited a large number of Maratha sardars and soldiers in their armies. The Mores, Ghatages, Nimbalkars, Jadhavs, Gorpades, Sawants and Bhonsales were sardar families who rose to fame during the sixteenth and seventeenth century. The Desphandes and Deshmukhs traditionally performed the duty of collecting land revenue. They were granted tax free land in return for their services. Such a land grant was called *watan*.

Shahji Bhonsle

The Bhonsle family of the Poona district acquired military and political prominence in the Ahmadnagar kingdom at the close of the 16th century. Shahji Bhonsle was the major ruler of this clan and he was married to Jija Bai. He sought his fortune under the Sultan of Bijapur and had his jagir at Poona.

Shivaji

Shivaji was the son of Shahji Bhonsle. When he was fourteen years old, his father entrusted the administration of Poona *jagir* to him. The peasants living in Shivaji's *jagir* had grown tired of the despotic rule of the *Watandars*. Shivaji's administration responded to the aspirations of the masses. Shivaji realized that he could establish a welfare state for the benefit of his subjects only by controlling the neighbouring forts and building new ones.

Shivaji showed his mettle at the young age of eighteen, when he overran a number of hill forts near Poona—Rajgarh, Kondana and Torana—in the years 1645–1647. Shivaji began his real career of conquest in 1656, when he conquered Javli from the Maratha chief, Chandra Rao More. The Mughal invasion of Bijapur in 1657 saved Shivaji from Bijapuri reprisal. In 1659, Bijapur, free from the Mughal



menace, sent in army against Shivaji under Afzal Khan, whom he murdered treacherously. In 1660, a combined Mughal-Bijapuri campaign started against Shivaji. In 1663, Shivaji made a surprise night attack on Poona, wounded Shaista Khan (maternal uncle of Aurangzeb) and killed one of his sons. In 1665, Purandhar Fort, at the centre of Shivaji's territory was besieged by Jai Singh and a treaty was signed between the two. Shivaji's visit to Agra and his escape from detention in 1666, proved to be the turning point for Mughal relations with the Marathas.

The Treaty of Purandhar was signed in 1665, according to which Shivaji agreed to help the Mughals against Bijapur. Shivaji ceded 23 forts to the Mughals and agreed to visit the imperial court of Aurangzeb. Shivaji reached Agra in 1666, and was admitted in the hall of public audience. The Emperor gave him a cold reception by making him stand among the *mansabdars*. A humiliated and angry Shivaji, walked out of the court. He was put under house arrest, along with his son. However, they tricked their guards and managed to escape in a basket of sweets which was to be sent as a gift to the Brahmins. Shivaji reached Maharashtra in September, 1666. After consolidating his position and reorganizing his administration, Shivaji renewed his war with the Mughals and gradually recovered many of his forts.

Shivaji declared himself the independent ruler of the Maratha kingdom and was crowned Chattrapati in 1674. Politically speaking, two factors contributed to the rise of Maratha power under Shivaji. These were as follows:

- The comparatively advantageous position of the Marathas under the Deccan Sultanates
- The threat to Bijapur and Golkonda from the annexationist policy of the Mughal Empire

The saints and writers of Maharashtra played a significant role in provoking and sustaining the national spirit of the Marathas. Among the saints, special mention should be made of the following:

- Jnaneswar and Namdev (13th and 14th centuries)
- Eknath and Tukaram (15th and 16th centuries)
- Ramdas (17th century)

Apart from the above reasons, Mughal's control over the Deccan had weakened. Secondly the Marathas had worked out a revenue system by which they attained large revenue and could maintain strong armies.

Shivaji's coronation symbolized the rise of people to challenge the might of the Mughals. By coronating himself king under the title '*Haindava Dharmodharak*' of the new and independent state *Hindavi Swarajya*, Shivaji proclaimed to the world that he was not just a rebel son of a Sardar in Bijapur court, but equal to any other ruler in India. Only a coronation could give Shivaji the legitimate right to collect revenue from the land and levy tax on the people. This source of income was necessary to sustain the treasury of the new kingdom.

Administration

Shivaji laid the foundations of a sound system of administration. His system of administration was largely borrowed from the administrative practices of the Deccan states. Although he designated eight ministers, sometimes called the '*ashtapradhan*', it was not in the nature of a council of ministers, each minister being directly responsible to the ruler. The most important ministers were the Peshwas, who looked

after the finances and general administration, and the '*sar-i-naubat*' (senapati), which was a post of honour and was generally given to one of the leading Maratha chiefs. The '*majumdar*' was the accountant, while the '*waqianavis*' were responsible for the intelligence posts and household affairs.

The '*shur-nawis*' or '*chitnis*' helped the king with his correspondence. The '*dabir*' was master of ceremonies and also helped the king in his dealing with foreign powers. The finance minister was called '*amatya*'.

The eight ministers were as follows:

1. **Peshwa:** He was the king's principal minister. He performed all tasks of administration, put his seal on the official letters and documents and made arrangements for the preservation of the conquered districts.
2. **Dabir:** He was also known as the '*sumanta*'. He was in-charge of foreign affairs.
3. **Shru-navis:** He was the '*sachiv*'. He looked after the royal correspondence.
4. **Pandit rao:** He was the minister of religion.
5. **Sar-i-naubat:** He was the *senapati*; also known as the commander-in-chief and in this capacity he maintained the army.
6. **Nyayadhish:** He was the Chief Justice exercising jurisdiction over all civil and criminal cases in the kingdom.
7. **Muzmudar:** He was also known as the *Amatya*. He was the minister for finance and revenue.
8. **Waqianavis:** His duties were similar to those of a Home Minister of today.

Besides performing the departmental duties, three of the ministers; the Peshwa, the *sachiva* and the *mantri* were put in-charge of the extensive provinces. Moreover, all ministers, except the *pandit rao* and the *nyayadhish*, had to serve in war whenever necessary. In his departmental duties each minister was assisted by a staff of eight clerks, who were known as follows:

- *Diwan* (secretary)
- *Majumdar* (auditor and accountant)
- *Fadnis* (deputy auditor)
- *Sabnis* or *daftardar* (office-in-charge)
- *Karkhanis* (commissary)
- *Chitnis* (correspondence clerk)
- *Jamadar* (treasurer)
- *Potnis* (cashier)

There were eighteen departments in the state, which were looked after by the ministers under the guidance of the king. The *swaraj* territory, which was directly under the rule of Shivaji, was divided into a number of parts (groups of districts), which were all aggregated into three provinces, each being placed under a viceroy. The system of *jagirs* was abolished and the officers were paid in cash, a practice which resulted in great administrative efficiency. Though the Maratha bureaucracy was well-adapted to meet the needs of the time, it contained within itself the seeds of dissolution. All members of the Council, except the *Pandit rao* and the *Nyayadhish*, were expected to be like the Mughal officers, military commanders who, when they got an opportunity, tried to set up their own independent power, as happened during the later period of Maratha history.

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In the army administration, Shivaji preferred to give cash salaries to the regular soldiers, though sometimes the chiefs received revenue grants (*saranjam*). The regular army (*paga*) consisting of about 30,000 to 40,000 cavalry, as distinct from the loose auxiliaries (*silahdars*), were supervised by '*havalgars*' who received fixed salaries.

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Revenue system

The revenue system seems to have been patterned on the *kathi* system of Malik Ambar; in which land was carefully measured with the help of a measuring rod or '*Kathi*'. A new revenue assessment was completed by Annaji Datto in 1679. Shivaji strictly supervised the '*mirasdars*' that is those with hereditary rights in land.

Shivaji supplemented his income by levying a contribution on the neighbouring Mughal territories. This contribution which came to one-fourth of the land revenue began to be called '*chauth*'. In some territories, an additional levy of the 10 per cent of the land revenue, known as '*Sardeshmukhi*' was imposed.

He also laid the foundation of a strong state by curbing the power of the '*deshmukhs*'. The army was an effective instrument of his policies where rapidity of movement was the most important factor. The army depended for its salaries to a considerable extent on the plunder of the neighbouring areas. He abolished the *Jagirdari* system and replaced it with *Ryotwari* system.

Chauth and Sardeshmukhi

The two most important taxes in the Maratha taxation system were *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*.

According to Ranade, *chauth* was a military contribution in lieu of protection against the invasion of third power. But Jadunath Sarkar does not agree with this view. He says that the payment of *chauth* merely saved a place from the unwelcome presence of the Maratha soldiers and civil underlings; it did not impose on Shivaji any corresponding obligation to guard the district from foreign invasion or internal disorder.

S.G. Sardesai says that *chauth* was a military tribute realized from hostile or conquered territories. The *sardeshmukhi* was an additional levy of 10 per cent which Shivaji demanded on the basis of a legal fiction that he was the hereditary *sardeshmukh* of Maharashtra. According to Ishwasi Prasad, *desai* is the corrupt form of the Sanskrit word *deshswami* also called *deshmukh*. The *sardeshmukh* stood above several *desais* or *deshsmukhs*, and his duty was to look after the work of the latter. He was paid for his services, and this payment was called *sardeshmukhi*. Shivaji claimed to be the hereditary *sardesh-mukh* of the country.

Shivaji was a born leader. From the son of a small *jagirdar* of Ahmadnagar; he rose to be an independent king and a formidable foe of the Mughal Empire, His greatest contribution was that he united the Marathas and instilled in them the sense of self-pride, sacrifice and chivalry.

Shambhaji (1680-1689)

The death of Shivaji (1680) was followed by the internal dissensions in the newly created Maratha kingdom. There was a dispute about succession between the two sons of Shivaji (Sambhaji and Rajaram) from his two different wives. Finally, after deposing Rajaram from the throne, Sambhaji or Sambhuji ascended the throne on

July 20, 1680. For more than a year afterwards, however, his position continued to be insecure. As a matter of fact, his whole reign was disturbed by frequent conspiracies and desertions among, his officers.

Shambhaji, the eldest son of Shivaji, found a faithful adviser in a Kanauji Brahmin on whom he conferred the title of *Kavi Kalash*. Aurangzeb was determined to crush Shambhaji. In 1689, Shambhaji and *Kavi Kalash* were captured by a Mughal general and put to death. Rajaram was crowned by the Maratha ministers at Raigarh as Shambhaji's son Shahu, was too young. Then Raigarh was captured by the Mughals. By the end of 1689, Aurangzeb's Deccan policy appeared to have achieved complete success. However, animated by desire to avenge their wrongs, the Maratha bands spread over the Mughal territories harassing Mughal armies, destroying their outposts. The Mughals could not deal effectively with such raiders. When Aurangzeb died in 1707, he was aware that his efforts to crush the Marathas had failed.

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Rajaram (1689-1700)

At the time of Sambhaji's death, his son Sahu was only seven years old. Rajaram, the younger son of Shivaji and stepbrother of Sambhaji, who had been kept in prison by the latter, was proclaimed King by the Maratha Council of Ministers and crowned at Raigarh in February 1689. But soon thereafter, apprehending a Mughal attack, Rajaram left Raigarh and, moving from one place to another, ultimately reached Jinji (South Arcot district, Tamil Nadu). The Maratha Council of Ministers and other officials also joined him at Jinji which, till 1698, became the centre of Maratha activity against the Mughals.

Shortly after Rajaram's flight to Jinji, the Mughals under Zulfiqar Khan captured Raigarh in October 1689 and all members of Sambhaji's family, including his son Sahu, fell into Mughal hands. Although Sahu was given the title of Raja and granted a *mansab*, he virtually remained a prisoner in the hands of the Mughals till the death of Aurangzeb (1707). Thus, at the close of 1689, the situation in the Maratha kingdom had completely changed. The royal family was virtually immobilized, the Maratha country no longer had a common head or a central government and the whole of the Deccan was divided into different spheres of influence under various Maratha commanders. With a nominal Maratha king living at a distance from the Maratha homeland, the resistance to the Mughals in the Deccan was organized by the Maratha leaders and commanders. This situation changed the basic character of the Mughal-Maratha struggle into a civil war or a war of independence.

Tarabai (1700-1707)

After Rajaram's death, his minor son by his wife Tarabai, named Shivaji II, was placed on the throne. Tarabai's energy and ability made her the de facto ruler of the state. She saved the Maratha state during a period of grave crisis. The succession to the throne was in dispute. Personal jealousies divided the Maratha leaders. Several thousands of *mavles* (Maratha hill infantry) were in the Mughal pay.

Aurangzeb, after the fall of Jinji, concentrated all his resources on the siege of successive Maratha forts. In this situation Tarabai played a role which elicited high praise from the hostile Muslim historian Khafi Khan who says 'Under Tarabai's guidance, Maratha activities began to increase daily. She took into her own hands the control of all affairs, such as the appointment and change of generals, the cultivation of the country and the planning of raids into the Mughal territory. She

made such arrangements for sending troops to ravage the 'six subahs' of the Deccan and winning the heart of her officers to the extent that all the efforts of Aurangzeb against the Marathas down to the end of his reign failed.'

Tarabai moved from place to place with a view to guiding the Maratha operations against the Mughals.

4.6.2 Rise of the Peshwas

Nearly three months after the Aurangzeb's death, Sambhaji's son Sahu (born on 18 May 1682) who had been in Mughal captivity since November 3, 1689 was liberated on 8 May 1707 by Aurangzeb's second son, who ascended the throne as Bahadur Shah I. Sahu was recognized as the king of the Marathas and his right to the Maratha swaraj and to *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of the Deccani *subahs* of the Mughals was also probably recognized. The Mughal suzerainty was protected through the arrangement that he would rule as a vassal of the Empire. The intention of the Mughals was to end long-drawn wars in the Deccan or to create dissensions in the Maratha camp. Both situations were advantageous to the Mughals and they were not disappointed. Sahu's release was followed by a civil war between the forces of Tarabai and Sahu, which lasted up to 1714.

Balaji Viswanath (1713-1720)

Balaji Viswanath began his career as a small revenue official and was given the title of '*Sena Karte*' (maker of the army) by Shahu in 1708. He became Peshwa in 1713 and made the post the most important and powerful as well as hereditary. He played a crucial role in the final victory of Shahu by winning over almost all the Maratha sardars to the side of Shahu.

He concluded an agreement with the Sayyid brothers (1719) by which the Mughal Emperor (Farukh Siyar) recognized Shahu as the king of the Swarajya. Balaji's character and capacity and the peculiar circumstances of the country favoured the rise of the Peshwas to power and renown. One of the first things Balaji was called upon to do was to secure the restoration of Sahu's mother to him from the custody of the Mughals who had detained her at Delhi as hostage for the good behaviour of her son Sahu, Balaji opened direct negotiations with the Saiyid brothers and in February 1719 all his demands were accepted.

Accordingly Sahu's mother and family was released, he was recognized as the ruler of Shivaji's home dominions and was allowed to collect *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* from the six *subahs* of the Deccan, as also in Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. In return for all this, the Marathas were expected to keep a contingent on 15,000 horses in the service of the Mughals and to maintain order in the Deccan. Balaji's success in Delhi greatly increased his power and prestige. Balaji Vishwanath has been rightly called the 'second founder of the Maratha state'.

He perceived that the revival of Maratha power in its old monarchical form was no longer possible and it would be difficult to harness the nation's military resources to the common cause unless concessions were made to the great warlords who had won an important place for themselves. He made them subordinate allies or confederates of the sovereign, granting them a free hand in administering their conquests and called from them no greater sacrifice than uniting on matters of common policy. This arrangement, however, left too much authority in the hands of these chiefs, without providing for checks to call them to account, which was

responsible for the speedy expansion of the Maratha power and its rapid dissolution. The term of Balaji's peshwaship marks the transition from the royal period to the age of the Peshwas.

Balaji has been credited with 'a mastery of finance'. Though constantly engaged in war and diplomacy, he took firm measures to put a stop to anarchy in the kingdom. He suppressed freebooters and restored civil government. Solid foundations were laid for a well-organized revenue system in the Swaraj territory, which was under direct royal administration.

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Baji Rao I (1720-1740)

Baji Rao, the eldest son of Balaji Viswanath, succeeded him as peshwa at the young age of twenty. He was considered the greatest exponent of guerrilla tactics after Shivaji and Maratha power reached its zenith under him.

Under him, several Maratha families became prominent and got themselves entrenched in different parts of India. Some of these places were as follows:

- Gaekwad at Baroda
- Bhonsles at Nagpur
- Holkars at Indore
- Scindias at Gwalior
- Peshwas at Pune

After defeating and expelling the Siddhis of Janjira from the mainland (1722), he conquered Bassein and Salsette from the Portuguese (1733). He also defeated the Nizam-ul-Mulk near Bhopal and concluded the Treaty of Durai Sarai by which he got Malwa and Bundelkhand from the latter (1737). He led innumerable successful expeditions into north India to weaken the Mughal Empire and to make the Marathas the supreme power in India.

Balaji Baji Rao (1740-1761)

Balaji Baji Rao was popularly known as 'Nana Saheb'. He succeeded his father at the age of twenty. After the death of his father, the management of all state affairs was left in his hands. In an agreement with the Mughal emperor (Ahmad Shah), the peshwa (1752) was to protect the Mughal Empire from the internal and the external (Ahmad Shah Abdali) enemies in return for the *chauth*. He remained dependent on the advice and guidance of his cousin Sadashiva Rao Bhau.

With regard to the future policy of his government, he asked Sadashiva Rao Bhau to continue the policies of his father and said 'The elder Bajirao achieved great deeds in the devoted service of the king. But his life was cut short. You are his son, and you ought to consummate his policy of conquering the whole of Hindustan and establish an Empire and lead your horses beyond Attock.'

One of the earliest achievements of Nana Saheb was better financial management of the Empire by exercising careful supervision over all financial transactions. He later discussed the affairs of northern India with Holkar and Scindia and in April 1742 marched northwards to consolidate the Maratha authority in Bundelkhand. In 1743 he undertook the second expedition to the north to help Ali Vardi Khan (in Bengal) whose territories had been ravaged by Raghuji Bhonsle. The Peshwa reached Murshidabad and met Ali Vardi Khan who agreed to pay him the *chauth* for Bengal and ₹22 lakh to the Peshwa for the expenses of his expedition. By this arrangement the Peshwa freed Ali Vardi Khan's territories from the ravages

of Raghujī's troops. During the first half of his Peshwaship he established Maratha supremacy in Karnataka and sent expeditions to Rajputana.

Sahu died childless on 15 December 1749. He had nominated Ramraja, a grandson of Tarabai, as his successor before his death. Ramaraja was crowned as Chhatrapati in January 1750. Since he was weak and incompetent, Tarabai tried to make him a puppet in her own hands, which caused utter confusion and crisis in the Maratha kingdom; it deepened further when the Peshwa learnt that Ramaraja was not the grandson of Tarabai but an impostor. When this fact came to knowledge, the Chhatrapati was virtually confined in the fort at Satara and lost all contacts with political developments. Hence forth, Pune became the real capital of the Maratha confederacy and the peshwa its virtual ruler.

During the second period of Balaji's regime (1751–1761), four campaigns were organized in the north. The Punjab politics was at the time in a confused state and as a result the first two invasions of Ahmad Shah Abdali, the subahs of Lahore, Multan and Kashmir were annexed by Abdali to his dominions. After the third invasion, the Mughal wazir, Safdarjung, persuaded the Emperor to enter into an agreement with the Marathas in May 1752 for undertaking defence of the Empire against its internal and external foes. In return the Marathas were to get the *chauth* of the north-western provinces usurped and occupied by the Afghans. However, that *chauth* could only be secured by the actual conquest. The Marathas were also given the *subahs* of Agra and Ajmer. As a result of this agreement the Maratha military force was posted at Delhi and they repeatedly interfered in the politics of North India and established their supremacy at Delhi.

This arrangement would have marked the fulfillment of Balaji Baji Rao's dream of 'a Mughal–Maratha alliance for the governance of India as a whole'. But Safdarjung lost his wazirship and retired to Awadh in 1753, and power in the imperial court passed to Imad-ul-Mulk, grandson of Nizam ul-Mulk. He terrorized the helpless Emperor with Maratha help and secured the office of wazir, dethroned Ahmad Shah and placed Alamgir II, grandson of Bahadur Shah, on the imperial throne in 1754.

There was a wazir of Delhi whose rule was so barren of good result and so full of misery to himself and to the empire, to his friends and foes alike, as Imad-ul-Mulk's. At first he 'clung like a helpless infant to the breast of the Marathas'; but being unable to continue 'the cash nexus on which alone Maratha friendship depended', he agreed to Ahmad Shah Abdali's project of ousting the Marathas from the Doab and Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh, son and successor of Safdarjung, from provincial governorship (1757). This drew Shuja-ud-Daula, Surajmal Jat and the Marathas together and left Imad-ul-Mulk utterly friendless during the absence of Abdali from India. As per the above arrangements early in 1758, Raghunath Rao, accompanied by Malhar Rao Holkar, entered the Punjab. He was joined by Adina Beg Khan and the Sikhs. Sirhind fell, Lahore was occupied and the Afghans were expelled (April 1758). Timur Shah fled, pursued by the Marathas up to the Chenab. They did not cross the river because it was too deep for fording and the districts beyond it were inhabited mostly by the Afghans.

Raghunath Rao returned from Punjab after leaving the province in the charge of Adina Beg Khan. Confusion followed the latter's death a few months later (October 1758). The Peshwa sent a large army under Dattaji Scindia who reached the eastern bank of the Sutlej (April 1759), and sent Sabaji Scindia to Lahore to take over the governorship of the province. Within a few months, a strong army sent by Abdali

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crossed the Indus. Sabaji fell back precipitately, abandoning the entire province of the Punjab to the Afghans. Abdali established his government at Lahore, resumed his march and entered Sirhind (November 1759).

The Maratha adventure in the Punjab has been acclaimed by some historians as 'carrying the Hindu paramount up to Attock'. It is doubtful if the Maratha army actually advanced as far as Attock and the collection of revenue in the trans-Chenab district was a purely temporary affair. The peshwa did not realize that the Punjab could not be retained without keeping a large well-equipped force constantly on the spot. This was not possible because the necessary funds were not available and no Maratha soldier could stand the winter of Lahore. No first-rate Maratha general was posted in the Punjab as warden of the North-west frontier. The peshwa sanctioned 'a provocatively advanced frontier', which made war with Abdali inevitable, but he made no adequate arrangement for its defence.

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North India: Bhau's expedition (1760)

On return towards Delhi (May 1759) after the conquest of Punjab, Dattaji Scindia was involved in hostilities with Najib-ud-Daula in Rohilkhand. He suffered defeat and retreated towards Panipat (December 1759), and heard that Abdali's forces were advancing from Sind and had occupied Ambala. His resistance failed and he was killed in a battle with Abdali at Barari, some 16 km north of Delhi (January 1760). Malhar Rao Holkar was routed by the Afghans at Sikanderabad. Thereafter the Maratha army in Hindustan ceased to exist.

When the news of these disasters reached the Peshwa at Poona, he realized that 'all his gains in North India had been wiped out, and he must again fight for the Maratha control over the Delhi Empire and build up his supremacy in Hindustan from the very foundations.' This crisis could be met only by sending a strong army to the North. Soon the Peshwa dispatched the Maratha troops under his cousin Sadashiv Rao Bhau and his eldest son Vishwas Rao. The Maratha artillery was to be commanded by Ibrahim Khan Gardi. In July 1760, the Marathas occupied Delhi. This small success added to the prestige of the Marathas, but they were friendless in the whole of North India. Even the Jat king Surajmal deserted them at the last moment. On the other hand, Ahmad Shah Abdali had been able to secure the support of the Ruhela Chiefs Najib-ud-daula and Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh. During this period some futile attempts were made for peace between Ahmad Shah Abdali and the Peshwa, but they could not succeed due to the exorbitant demands of the Marathas and self-interest of the Muslim rulers. This culminated in the unfortunate and disastrous battle of Panipat. The Battle of Panipat (January 14, 1761) resulted in the death of Viswas Rao (son of Nana Saheb).

Madhav Rao (1761-1772), Narayana Rao (1772-1773), Sawai Madhav Rao (1773-1795), and Baji Rao II (1795-1818) succeeded him thereafter.

4.6.3 Causes and Consequences of Third Battle of Panipat

The conquest and occupation of the Punjab by the Marathas brought them into conflict with Ahmad Shah Abdali. The Third Battle of Panipat took place on 14 January 1761, at Panipat (Haryana). The battle pitted the French-supplied artillery and cavalry of the Marathas against the heavy cavalry and mounted artillery of the Afghans led by Ahmad Shah Durrani, also known as Ahmad Shah Abdali. The battle is considered as one of the largest battles fought in the 18th century. The

battle lasted for several days and involved over 1, 25,000 men. Protracted skirmishes occurred, with losses and gains on both sides. The forces led by Ahmad Shah Durrani came out victorious after destroying several Maratha flanks. The extent of the losses on both sides was heavily disputed by historians, but it is believed that between 60,000–70,000 were killed in fighting, while number of the injured and prisoners taken vary considerably. The result of the battle was the halting of the Maratha advances in the north.

Causes of Third Battle of Panipat

The causes of the Third Battle of Panipat were many. Some of them were as follows:

- **Invasions of Nadir Shah:** Nadir Shah defeated the Mughal troops near Karnal. Then he marched to Delhi, where he stayed for 57 days. He took away the accumulated wealth of 348 years and the famous Peacock Throne from Delhi. The invasion of Nadir Shah exposed the weakness of Mughal Empire. It encouraged the Afghans to invade India.
- **Ambitions of Ahmad Shah Abdali:** He was an ambitious ruler and a gallant soldier. He dreamt to be the ruler of India and was not satisfied by merely plundering raids.
- **Attack of Maratha army on Punjab:** Maratha army attacked those regions which belonged to the heirs of Nadir Shah. Ahmad Shah Abdali wanted to teach lesson to the Marathas and break their power.
- **Internal disputes:** The internal disputes were also responsible for foreign invasion. Ahmad Shah Abdali took full advantage of the internal disputes. The Mughals, Rajputs, Rohillas and the Marathas have not combined together to face their common enemy. Had they combined together it would have been not so easy for Abdali to crush Marathas. The Marathas had interfered in the internal affairs of the Rajputana states (present day Rajasthan) and levied heavy taxes and huge fines on them. They had also made huge territorial and monetary claims upon Awadh. Their raids in the Jat territory had resulted in the loss of trust of Jat chiefs like Suraj Mal. They had, therefore, to fight their enemies alone. The main reason for the failure of Marathas was that they went to war without good allies.
- **Distance of Punjab from south:** Though Marathas had conquered portions of Punjab but it was difficult to rule on Punjab from south because Marathas did not want to be away from their homes in the south. It made the task of recapturing of lost territories by Ahmad Shah easier. The Marathas did not care to defend northern frontier properly. Had the Marathas settled in Punjab, Abdali's success would have been doubtful.
- **Maratha relation with Ruhelas:** Marathas did not have good relations with Ruhelas because the Mughals had gained support from Scindia and Holker against Ruhelas. Under these circumstances, the Ruhelas invited Ahmad Shah Abdali to invade India.
- **Strong position of Afghans:** After the murder of Nadir Shah, Abdali ascended the throne and improved his power. In a short period of one year, he was strong enough to invade India again and again.
- **Dream of the Marathas to establish a Hindu State:** Knowing the weaknesses of the Mughals, they thought it is practicable to establish a Hindu State on the ruins of the Mughal Empire. But Abdali never wanted that their dreams should be materialized.

Third Battle of Panipat (1761)

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At Panipat, the two rival armies stood entrenched, face to face, for more than two months. There were skirmishes and minor battles. The Afghan cavalry patrols dominated the environs of the Maratha camp and cut off its communications and also food supply. Gradually, despair and terror seized the straying Marathas. They decided to launch a direct attack on the Afghans when there was no food for men and no grass for horses, and when filth and stench 'made the confines of the entrenchment a living hell'.

The Bhau's army marched out to battle on January 15, 1761. The battle actually began about four hours after daybreak. Vishwas Ruo was shot dead at quarter past two. Soon after the Bhau was also killed. Among the leading chiefs who met death were Jankoji Scindia, Tukoji Scindia and Ibrahim Khan Gardi. Mahadji Scindia received wounds, which claimed his life. 'It was a nation-wide disaster like a flooded field. An entire generation of leaders was cut off at one stroke. Apart from those who fell on the field, many fugitives lost their lives during their long flight without food or rest. About 50,000 men and women were saved by the kindness and hospitality of Suraj Mal.

The crushing defeat of the Marathas is easily explained. Numerically, the Afghans had considerable superiority. Against 60,000 Afghans and their Indian allies actually present in the field, supported by 80,000 behind the fighting line, the Bhau had 45,000 troops in the field and 15,000 Pindaris in the rear. The Afghan army had better training and discipline, and it was better organized. Moreover, a famished army on less than half-dead country mares met the finest Afghan cavalry. Abdali had superiority in artillery; he employed 'the most efficient mobile artillery known in that age'. Although the field guns of the Marathas were of larger caliber than those of the Afghans, they could not be dragged forward with the advancing troops and became useless as the battle developed. The Bhau had no worthy and dependable lieutenants as comparable to Abdali's front-rank officers. Malhar Rao Holkar did not exchange fire till after the contest at the centre had been decided in Abdali's favour; and at the last stage he fled away. Abdali was a far greater military leader and strategist than the Bhau. The defeat became virtually inevitable after the Bhau's postponement of battle for two and a half months. He kept his army on the defensive in a besieged camp until starvation compelled him to make the last desperate effort for escape.

From the political point of view the defeat was largely due to the alienation of the Rajputs and the Jats and the failure to neutralize Shuja-ud-Daula and Najib-ud-Daula. While half of Abdali's army was composed of troops furnished by his Indian allies, the valiant Rajputs and the Jats did not fight on the Maratha side. The clue to this situation lies in 'the total diplomatic failure on the part of the Peshwa who dictated, and the Bhau who carried out, his North Indian policy'.

Consequences of Third Battle of Panipat

Some modern Maratha writers argue that although the Marathas suffered terrible losses in manpower at Panipat, the battle did not destroy the Maratha power in North India nor did it essentially shake the Maratha Empire as a whole. Abdali made several unsuccessful efforts to conclude peace with the Peshwa and Surajmal, and in the following years he failed to crush the Sikhs in the Punjab. There was a revival of the Maratha power in North India under Peshwa Madhav Rao I (1761-

1972). After the death of Najib-ud-daula (1770) who 'administered Delhi as Abdali's agent after Panipat, the Marathas restored the exiled Mughal emperor Shah Alam II to the capital of his ancestors (1772). Mahadji Scindia occupied Delhi in 1788 and it was from his successor Daulat Rao Scindia that the English wrested the imperial capital in 1803. In South India the Marathas secured victories against Haider Ali and the Nizam, S.G. Sardesai maintains that 'the disaster at Panipat was indeed like a natural visitation destroying life, but leading to no decisive political consequences'. But the views of Sardesai and the others were too simplistic. Undoubtedly the disaster at Panipat was the greatest loss to the Marathas in manpower and personal prestige both. The Maratha dream of being a successor to the great Mughals was lost forever. Certainly Panipat paved the way for the rise of the British power, which became a paramount power in India by the close of the eighteenth century.

Peshwa Balaji Bajirao could not bear the shock of the awful catastrophe at Panipat and died six months after the battle (June 1761). During the post-Panipat era, the links of the Peshwa with the Maratha Confederacy also grew very loose. In the words of Kashiraj Pandit, who was an eyewitness to the Third Battle of Panipat, 'It was verily doomsday for the Maratha people'.

Peshwa Madhav Rao I (1761-1772)

After the death of Balaji Bajirao, his younger son Madhav Rao was placed on the Peshwa's *gaddi*. Since the new Peshwa was only seventeen years old, his uncle Raghunath Rao, the eldest surviving member of the Peshwa's family, became his regent and the *de facto* ruler of the state. During this period, serious differences broke out between the Peshwa and his uncle, leading to war between the two in 1762, in which the Peshwa's army was defeated. For some time a reconciliation was arrived at between the Peshwa and his uncle, but soon serious differences again erupted. In 1765, Raghunath Rao demanded the partition of the Maratha state between himself and the Peshwa. In the meantime, when the Maratha state was paralysed by the internal strife, Haider Ali of Mysore ravaged the Maratha territories in Karnataka; but the first Anglo-Mysore war involved Haider Ali in a greater crisis. During this period, the Marathas tried to restore their lost position in North India. In January 1771, Mahadji Scindia occupied Delhi and succeeded in exacting money from the leading Rajput princes; but the premature death of Madhav Rao in November 1772 placed the Maratha dominion in a deep crisis. Madhav Rao was the last great Peshwa, had he survived longer, the Maratha Empire could have been saved from disaster.

After Madhav Rao's death the fortunes of the Maratha Kingdom and the prestige of the Peshwas under Narayan Rao (1772-1774), Madhav Rao Narayan (1774-95) and Bajirao rapidly declined, owing to their internal feuds and prolonged wars with the English. The last Peshwa surrendered to the English and the Peshwaship was abolished.

Effects and Importance of the Third Battle of Panipat

The effects and the importance of the Third Battle of Panipat were as follows:

- **Loss of the wealth and human power:** The Third Battle of Panipat decided the fate of India. In this battle the loss of money and life was enormous. It was a nationwide disaster. It was stated that—two pearls had been dissolved, twenty seven gold mohars had been lost and the loss of silver and copper could not be reckoned.

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- **End of Maratha confederacy:** The decisive battle of Panipat completely destroyed the Maratha Confederacy. It destroyed the central organization of the Marathas. After this battle Maratha's central power became weak.
- **Decentralization of Maratha power:** The Third Battle of Panipat also brought about the decentralization of the Maratha power. The power of Marathas was scattered and divided. Maratha leaders established their independent kingdoms. Scindias were wounded in the battle field. They established their independent kingdom and made Gwalior centre of their kingdom.
- **Downfall of Mughal Empire:** The Third Battle of Panipat was the last and final blow to the staggering Mughal power. It hastened its decline and paved the way for British supremacy.
- **Freedom of Rajputs:** After the Battle of Panipat the Marathas lost their hold over the Rajputana. The Rajputs regained their freedom. They did not support Marathas either against Ahamad Shah Abdali or Britishers.

4.6.4 Causes of the Failure of Marathas in Panipat

The causes that led to the failure of Marathas in Panipat were as follows:

- The main reason of the failure of the Marathas was Abdali's superior strategy and novel tactics and superiority of arms and ammunitions. Though Sada Shiva Rao was a brave and capable leader but he lacked the maturity and experience of Abdali.
- The Marathas had made Jats and Rajputs their enemy while Abdali was supported by Ruhelas and others. It was total diplomatic failure on the part of the Peshwa who dictated, and the Bhau who carried out, his North Indian policy.
- Marathas had neither adequate force nor a good supply of quality horses or seasonal troops.
- The Marathas had terrible want of food and adequate clothing. Starved and barebacked on the bitter cold of January many of them fell sick or even died.
- The absence of Duttaji from this fateful fight was a serious handicap to the Marathas.
- Marathas had used guerrilla warfare in North India. Though their infantry was based on the European style contingent and had some of the best French made guns of the times, their artillery was static and lacked mobility against the fast moving Afghan forces.

Marathas under Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis

Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis were contemporaries and both of them played an important role during the first Anglo-Maratha war and came into prominence in Maratha politics. Nana Phadnavis controlled the Maratha affairs at Poona and Mahadji Scindia busied himself in the north. Both of them served the Maratha state faithfully. It is pointed out by Sardesai that if Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis had not acted in concert and brought all the resources to bear on the First Maratha war, there would have been an end of Maratha power.

Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis worked in close co-operation during the First Anglo-Maratha war, faced the British challenge united and succeeded in thwarting the British design to curb the Marathas. But Mahadji Scindia entered into

the treaty of Salbai without the concurrence of Nana Phadnavis. By this treaty Mahadji Scindia became virtually independent and was recognized by the East India Company as mediator between it and Peshwas and guarantor of the honourable peace with the Marathas.

Mahadji and Nana Phadnavis had different physical features and mental cast. The life of Mahadji was a long period of strenuous activity. His life can be divided into four parts. During the first part up to 1761, he was an obscure figure overshadowed by his brilliant brothers. From 1761 to 1772 his life was one of the apprenticeship in which he acquired the supreme fitness, which later on helped him to co-operate with Nana Phadnavis to defeat the English during the first Anglo-Maratha war. During the third part, he gained valuable experience of war and diplomacy on his own initiative which he put in actual test later on. During the fourth part he created the kingdom which he left for his children.

The private life of Mahadji was pure and free from blemish. He was free from caste and religious bias. He was equally respected by the Muslims and the Hindus. He employed Brahmans, Marathas and Mahars. The Saraswat Brahmans attained special distinction in his service as soldiers and diplomats.

Mahadji was always careful and faithful to the Peshwa family. He never tried to assert his independence. It was unfortunate that Nana Phadnavis was jealous of Mahadji and always tried to keep him away from Poona. Mahadji did not manage his financial affairs properly. He borrowed a large amount of money from all sources. A lot of money was pocketed by unscrupulous middlemen. There was confusion and misappropriation. Money was poured into useless channels. Lands were deserted and cultivation was stopped at many places. Robberies became frequent. Life became insecure. Mahadji agreed to pay the expenses of the Mughal armies but he had no money to do so.

Nana Phadnavis was born in 1742. He worked very hard at his desk. He attended to all the details of the administration. He did not like the open methods of Mahadji and always worked in secret. He was usually reasonable and fair in his dealings. He was afraid to commit treachery or wrong. He was strict in punctually carrying on work. However he did not possess self-confidence of Mahadji. He took counsel with all separately, but acted according to his own considered judgment. He was not at all loved as he was a stern task master. He was often in danger of assassination. On about 20 occasions, he had miraculous escape from attempts on his life.

Nana Phadnavis lacked military leadership and that was a great disadvantage in the rough times in which he lived. Nana Phadnavis did not possess a conciliatory spirit. He gradually removed all the members, one by one, of the Bara-Bhai council and concentrated all the power in his own hands. If, instead of that, Nana Phadnavis had shared powers with others, there would have been better prospects for the future of the Marathas. It has been suggested that if Nana Phadnavis had taken into confidence all the Maratha chiefs and pooled together all the resources of the Marathas, the Marathas would not have fallen as they did under Bajirao II.

According to Sardesai, Nana would have acquired a much higher place in history if he had subordinated his love of power and money to the service of the nation.

Nana had too much love for power. It is suggested that if he had retired from politics in 1795, he would have rendered a great service to the Maratha cause. Another criticism against Nana is that he loved money too much.

4.6.5 Maratha Struggle with the British

The word 'confederacy' is derived from Anglo-French word '*Confederate cie*', which means a league or union, whether of states or the individuals. After the death of Shivaji in 1680, there was no great leader among the Marathas who could unite them. Sahu, the grandson of Shivaji, was under Mughal custody (between 1689 and 1707), which made him weak, passive and dependent on others. The emergence of Peshwa as the 'de facto' ruler is directly linked with the weak character of Sahu. When Balaji Vishwanath served as Peshwa (1713–1720), he made the king a puppet in his hands and his own post hereditary.

However, the Maratha Confederacy really began in the Peshwaship of Baji Rao I (1720–1740), son of Balaji Vishwanath, when Maratha Empire expanded in the North and South India. The Peshwa put large areas under the control of his following subordinates:

- Gwalior under Ramoji Scindia
- Baroda under Damaji Gaekwad
- Indore under Malhar Rao Holkar
- Nagpur under Raghuji Bhonsle

The Peshwa's seat was at Pune and Sahu was relegated to being only a nominal king. The confederacy was strictly controlled by the two Peshwas:

- Baji Rao I (1720–1740)
- Balaji Baji Rao (1740–1761)

The defeat of the Marathas in the Third Battle of Panipat by the Afghan army of Ahmad Shah Abdali made the post of Peshwa very weak. He was now dependent on Phadnavis and the other Maratha chiefs.

The origin of the Maratha confederacy may be traced to the revival of the *jagir* or *saranjam* system by Rajaram. But, it was only in the time of Baji Rao I that the system made a base for itself. In this process, Sahu issued letters of authority to his various Maratha sardars for collecting *Chauth* and *Sardeshmukhi* from various parts of India. These letters of authority were called '*saranjam*'. The holders of these *saranjams* were called *saranjamdars*. They merely recognized the Maratha Peshwas as their nominal head after the death of Sahu. In this way, arose the confederacy, consisting of very important Maratha jagirdars. Some of them were as follows:

- Raghuji Bhonsle of Berar
- Gaekwad of Baroda
- Holkar of Indore
- Scindia of Gwalior
- The Peshwa of Poona

1. First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-1782)

The first Anglo-Maratha War started when Raghunath Rao, after killing Peshwa Narayan Rao, claimed the post of Peshwa. But the widow of Narayan Rao gave birth to Madhav Rao Narayan. The Maratha Sardars, led by Nana Phadnavis, accepted the minor Madhav Rao Narayan as Peshwa and rejected Raghunath Rao, who in

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search of a friend concluded a treaty with the English at Surat on March 7, 1775. This treaty led to the first war between the British and the Marathas.

Causes of the first Anglo-Maratha war

The causes of the first Anglo-Maratha war were as follows:

- Friendship with Raghunath Rao
- Defeat of British by the Marathas at Talegoan (1776)
- March of British army under Goddard from Calcutta to Ahmedabad through central India (which itself was a great military feat in those days) and the brilliant victories on the way (1779–1780)
- Stalemate and deadlock for two years (1781–1782)

Results

The results of the first Anglo-Maratha war were as follows:

- **Treaty of Surat (1775):** Signed by Raghunath Rao, wherein he promised to hand over Bassein and Salsette and a few islands near Bombay to the British.

The provisions of the Treaty of Surat were as follows:

- o The English agreed to assist Raghunath Rao with a force of 2,500 men.
- o Raghunath Rao agreed to give Salsette and Bassein to the English and as security deposited six lakh.
- o The Marathas would not raid in Bengal and Karnataka.
- o Some areas of Surat and Bharuch would be given to the English.
- o If Raghunath Rao decided to enter into a pact with Pune, the English would be involved.

The Calcutta Council became more powerful by the Regulating Act, 1773, than by the Government of Bombay and Madras. The Council condemned the activities of Bombay Government as 'dangerous', 'unauthorized' and 'unjust' and rejected the Treaty of Surat. It sent Lieutenant on to Pune who concluded the Treaty of Purandhar on March 1, 1776.

- **Treaty of Purandhar (1776):** Signed by Madhav Rao II; the Company got a huge war indemnity and retained Salsette.

The provisions of the Treaty of Purandhar were as follows:

- o The English and the Marathas would maintain peace.
- o The English East India Company would retain Salsette.
- o Raghunath Rao would go to Gujarat, and Pune would give him ₹2,500 per month as pension.

This time, the treaty was not acceptable to the Bombay Government, and Pune was also not showing any interest in its implementation. In the mean-time American War of Independence started (1776–1781). In this war the French supported the Americans against the English. French, who were old rivals of English East India Company, came closer to the Pune Durbar. The Court of Director of English East India Company was worried with the new political development, so it rejected the Treaty of Purandhar. The Government of Bombay was more than happy and the Calcutta Council, obviously, felt insulted. The Government of Bombay renewed its ties with Raghunath Rao (the Treaty of Surat) and a British troop was sent to Surat (November 1778) but the British troop was defeated and the Bombay government was forced to sign Treaty of Wadgaon (1779) with Pune Durbar.

Treaty of Wadgaon: Provisions

The provisions of the Treaty of Wadgaon were as follows:

- The Bombay Government would return all the territories, which it occupied after 1773, to the Marathas.
- The Bombay Government would stop the English army coming from Bengal.
- Scindia would get some income from Bharuch.

Once again the treaty created a rift between the Calcutta Government and the Bombay Government. Warren Hastings, the Governor General (1773–1785), rejected the Convention of Wadgaon. An army, led by Godard, came from Bengal and captured Ahmedabad (February, 1780) and Bassein (December, 1780). But the English army was defeated at Pune (April, 1781). Another British army led by Captain Popham came from Calcutta and won Gwalior (3 August 1780), Scindia was also defeated at Sipri (16 February 1781) and agreed to work as a mediator between the English and the Pune Durbar resulting into the Treaty of Salbai (17 May 1782).

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- **Treaty of Salbai (1782):** Signed by Mahadji Scindia, whereby the British influence in Indian politics and mutual conflicts increased among the Marathas. It, however, gave the British twenty years peace with the Marathas.

The provisions of the Treaty of Salbai were as follows:

- o The British would support Rahghunath Rao, but he would get pension from Pune, the headquarters of Peshwa.
- o Salsette and Elephanta were given to the English.
- o Scindia got the land to the west of Yamuna.
- o The Marathas and the English agreed to return the rest of the areas to each other.

The Treaty of Salbai established the status quo. It benefited the company because they got peace from Marathas for the next twenty years. They could focus their energy and resources against their bitterest enemy in India, which was Mysore.

2. Second Anglo-Maratha War (1803-1806)

The internal conflict of Maratha Confederacy brought them once again on the verge of war. The Peshwa, Baji Rao II, after killing Bithuji Holkar, the brother of Jaswant Rao Holkar, fled from Pune. Holkar installed Vinayak Rao as Peshwa at Pune. Baji Rao came to Bassein and signed a treaty with the English on 31 December 1802. The Company, which was always in search of such situation, made Peshwa virtually a puppet.

- **Treaty of Bassein (1802):** Signed between Baji Rao II; The treaty gave effective control of not only Maratha but also Deccan regions to the Company.

The provisions of the Treaty of Bassein were as follows:

- o The English would help Peshwa with 600 troops and artillery.
- o Peshwa agreed to cede, to the Company, territories yielding an income of 26 lakh rupees. Territories included Gujarat, South of Tapti, territories between Tapti and Narbada and some territories near Tungabhadra.
- o Peshwa promised that he would not keep any European in his army other than the English.



- o Peshwa would give up his claim over Surat.
- o Peshwa would not have any foreign relationship with other states without the English approval.
- o Peshwa would settle all its disputes, if any, with Nizam of Hyderabad and Gaekwad of Baroda with Company's mediation.

The Peshwa, with the help of Arthur Wellesley, entered Pune on 13 May 1803 and captured it. But the Treaty of Bassein was perceived as a great insult by the other Maratha chiefs. Daulat Rao Scindia and Raghuji Bhonsle joined hands together against the British. Instead of bringing peace, this was the treaty which brought war. The war started in August 1803 from both North and South of the Maratha Kingdom. The Northern Command was led by General Lake and Southern Command by Arthur Wellesley. The British started fighting in Gujarat, in Bundelkhand and in Orissa. The strategy was to engage all the Maratha chiefs at different places, and not allow them to unite. On September 23, 1803, Arthur Wellesley defeated a joint army of Scindia and Bhonsle at Assaye, near Aurangabad. Gwalior fell on December 15, 1803. In the North, General Lake captured Aligarh in August, Delhi in September and Agra in October 1803. Scindia was defeated again at Laswari (November 1803) and lost the territory south of Chambal river. The English also captured Cuttack and succeeded in Gujarat and Bundelkhand.

This humiliating defeat forced Bhonsle and Scindia to conclude similar kind of treaty as signed by the Peshwa. On 17 December 1803, Bhonsle at Dergaon, and on 30 December 1803, Daulat Rao Scindia at Surajarjan Gaon signed the peace treaty; Treaty of Surji-Arjangaon. Bhonsle gave Cuttack, Balasore, and Western part of Wardha River to the British. Scindia gave Jaipur, Jodhpur, North of Gohad, Ahmednagar, Bhaduch, Ajanta and all their territory between Ganga and Yamuna. Both agreed that in resolving their outstanding issues with Nizam and Peshwa, they would seek English 'help'. They agreed that they would not allow any enemy of English to stay in their territory; that they would keep a British Resident in their capital and they would accept the Treaty of Bassein. Holkar, so far aloof from the war, started fighting in April 1804. After defeating Colonel Monson in the passes of Mukund Dara near Kota, he advanced towards Delhi and made an unsuccessful attempt to seize Delhi. He was defeated at Deeg on November 13, 1804 and at Farrukhabad on November 17, 1804. Finally, he too concluded a treaty with the British on January 7, 1806 at Rajpurghat. He agreed to give up his claims to places north of the river Chambal, Bundhelkhand and Peshwa's territory. He promised not to entertain any European, other than English, in his kingdom. In return, the British promised not to interfere in the southern territory of river Chambal.

3. Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817–1818)

The third Anglo-Maratha War was partly related with the British imperialistic design in India and partly with the nature of the Maratha state. In 1813, the Charter Act was passed, which ended the monopoly of English East India Company. All the English Companies, now, were allowed to sell their products in India and purchase raw material from India. The British capitalists were in search of a greater market. Annexation of Indian territories meant a big market for British goods in India and cheap raw materials for British industries. English cotton mills were heavily dependent on Indian cotton and Deccan region was famous for cotton produce. The policy of 'non-interference', with Indian States, was no longer relevant.

The Company was in search of an excuse to wage war against the Marathas. The issue of Pindaris provided an opportunity. The Pindaris, who consisted of many castes and classes, were attached to the Maratha armies. They worked like mercenaries, mostly under the Maratha chiefs. But once the Maratha chief became weak and failed to employ them regularly, they started plundering different territories, including those territories which were under the control of the Company or its allies. The Company accused the Maratha for giving them shelter and encouragement.

Lord Hastings, the Governor-General (1813–1823), made a plan to surround the Pindaris in Malwa by a large army and to prevent the Marathas from assisting them. By the end of 1817 and early 1818, the Pindaris were hunted across the Chambal. Thousands of them were killed. Their leaders, Amir Khan and Karim Khan, surrendered while the most dangerous, Chitu, fled into the jungles of Asirgarh. The direct conflict between the English and the Marathas, however, started when Gangadhar Shastri, the ambassador of Gaekwad, was killed by Tryanbakji, the Prime Minister of Peshwa. The English Resident, Elphinston told Peshwa to hand over Tryanbakji, but he escaped. Colonel Smith besieged Pune and forced the Peshwa to sign the Pune Pact (June 13, 1817). The Maratha confederacy was dissolved and Peshwa's leadership was brought to an end. The fort of Ahmednagar, Bundelkhand and a vast territory of Malwa was ceded to the Company. The Peshwa agreed to keep English troops at Pune and his family under British custody till Triyanbankji was arrested or surrendered.

The Pune Pact was, once again, humiliating for the Marathas. The Peshwa too was unhappy. He started thinking of revenge so he burnt the British Residency and started war against the English. He was defeated at Kirki in November 1817. In the same month Appaji, the Bhonsle chief, was also defeated at Sitabaldi. In the Battle of Mahidpur (December, 1817), Holkar was defeated and was compelled to sign a treaty at Mandisor (January, 1818). He had to cede Khandesh and the vast territory across the river Narmada.

The Peshwa continued the war but he was defeated again at Koregaon (January, 1818) and finally at Ashti (February, 1818), he surrendered. A small part of his territory was given to the descendent of Shivaji, based at Satara, whereas a large part of his territory including Pune was annexed. The post of Peshwa was abandoned and Baji Rao was sent to Bithur (near Kanpur). An annual pension was fixed for him. With this defeat the British supremacy in Maratha kingdom was already established and the hopeful successor of Mughals lost all hopes.

Causes of the Third Anglo-Maratha war

The causes of the third Anglo-Maratha war were as follows:

- Resentment of the Marathas against the loss of their freedom to the British
- Rigid control exercised by the British residents on the Marathas chiefs

Results of the Third Anglo-Maratha war

The results of the third Anglo-Maratha war were as follows:

- Dethronement of the Peshwa (he was pensioned off and sent to Bithur near Kanpur) and the annexation of all his territories by the British (the creation of the Bombay Presidency)
- Creation of the kingdom of Satara out of Peshwa's lands to satisfy Maratha pride

After this war the Maratha chiefs existed at the mercy of the British.

NOTES

Check Your Progress

17. What were the traditionally duties of the Deshmukhs and Deshpandes?
18. Shivaji was entrusted with administration of _____ at 14 years by his father.
19. The Mughal invasion of Bijapur in 1657 saved Shivaji from Bijapuri reprisal. (True/False)
20. What was the finance minister under the Marathas called?
21. How did Shambhaji come to power?
22. The term of Balaji's peshwaship marks the transition from the royal period to the age of the peshwas. (True/False)

Causes of the failure of Marathas

The causes of the failure of Marathas were as follows:

- **Weak rulers:** Most of the Maratha chiefs, with few exceptions, were not capable to lead the Marathas. Rulers like Daulat Rao Scindia were lovers of luxury. Besides, Maratha rulers were jealous of each other and always conspired against each other. It helped the Company's cause.
- **Nature of the Maratha state:** The Maratha state was never stable. An English historian called their state as 'robber's state'. After the death of Shivaji (1680), various Maratha chiefs carved their own independent kingdoms. During the Peshwaship of Baji Rao I (1720-1740) they were loosely attached with the Peshwa, but after the debacle of Panipat (January 14, 1761) they became enemy of each other and plundered each other's territory.
- **Low morale:** During the period of Shivaji and the Maratha war of independence, the morale of the Maratha state was very high which enabled them to resist the imperial armies of the Mughals. In the absence of strong leadership, the moral of the army was low and the soldiers often fled from the battlefield.
- **Unstable economy:** The economy of the Maratha state was not on a sound basis. Agriculture was the main source of income, but it depended on rainfall. No proper attention was paid to industry and commerce. The success of any kingdom depended heavily on its resources. The regular civil war had ruined Maratha's agriculture, trade and industry. Plunder was their main source of income. The Maratha chiefs were always found in debt. They failed to evolve a stable economic policy. War and plunder became most sought after job for Maratha youths, but most of the time their chiefs struggled to pay them. The soldiers always shifted their loyalty. Many of them joined Company's army, where they could get a regular salary.
- **Superior English diplomacy:** Before any war the British always made some allies and isolated the enemy. This was the policy which most of the European nations in the eighteenth and nineteenth century adopted but the English succeeded the most. In the second Anglo-Maratha war, they were allies of Peshwa and Gaekwad and in the third Anglo Maratha war they made Scindia their ally.
- **Superior British espionage system:** The Company's espionage system had no match in Asia. They carefully recorded each and every movement of their enemies, their strengths, weaknesses, military methods etc. The entire diplomacy of the East India Company was based on the 'inputs' provided by their spies. The Marathas, on the other hand, were completely ignorant about the activities of the Company. The English learned Marathi and other India languages, but the Marathas failed to learn English. They had no knowledge about England, English people, their factories, their arms and their strategy. Wars were fought in the battlefield but strategies were made on the table which required 'inputs'.
- **The Marathas lacked national spirit:** Individually, the Marathas were clever and brave but the internal jealousies and selfish treacheries triumphed over public interest.

NOTES

Check Your Progress

23. What was the name of Shahji Bhonsle's wife?
24. Name the two most important taxes in the Maratha taxation system.
25. Who was given the title sena karte?
26. When did the Third Battle of Panipat take place?
27. Who was Madhav Rao?
28. Name the two contemporaries who played an important role during the first Anglo-Maratha War.
29. When was Nana Phadnavis born?
30. How did the first Anglo-Maratha War begin?
31. When did Daulat Rao Scindia sign the 'Peace Treaty'?
32. What was the biggest weakness of Daulat Rao Scindia?
33. What was the duration of Peshwaship of Baji Rao I?
34. The Third Battle of Panipat completely destroyed the Maratha confederacy. (True/False)
35. The main reason of the failure of the Marathas in the Third Battle of Panipat was Abdali's superior strategy. (True/False)

- **The Marathas lacked a scientific spirit:** The Marathas tried to preserve religion at the sacrifice of science. They avoided handling modern equipment for fear that they would lose their religion. They failed to develop artillery as the main support of defence.
- **Defence policy:** The Marathas recruited foreigners as soldiers to defend their country. Thus, the Maratha army lacked homogeneity. Also, they failed to develop a strong navy.
- **Superior British military organization:** The Marathas failed to adopt modern technique of warfare. Except Mahadji Scindia, no Maratha chief gave importance to artillery. He too, was dependent on French. The Pune Government set up an artillery department, but it hardly functioned effectively. The Marathas also gave up their traditional method of guerilla warfare which had baffled the Mughals. Besides, there was no motivation for the mercenary soldiers of the Marathas.

ACTIVITY

Conduct a research to draw a comparative analysis between Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan.

4.7 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The second half of the 18th century witnessed gradual expansion of the British East India Company's role in North India and this had a strong bearing on the economy and politics of Awadh.
- The enmity between Awadh and English started in 1764 with the Battle of Buxar.
- The military reforms initiated by Shuja-ud-Daula after the humiliation at Buxar were not intended to either intimidate the English or to promote a war against them. Rather it would seem that the overall military effort reflected the Nawab's anxiety to defend his political authority at a time when it was being steadily undermined by the alien company.
- Murtaza Khan allowed the company to negotiate a treaty with the Nawab ceding to English control the territories surrounding Benaras, north to Jaunpur and west to Allahabad, then held by Chait Singh. The treaty also fixed a larger subsidy than before for the company brigade and excluded the Mughal emperor from all future Anglo-Nawabi transactions.
- In the 1770s, the English East India Company persistently eroded the basis of Awadh's sovereignty.
- The supreme government in Calcutta was forced to realize that unremitting pressure on Awadh's resources could not be sustained indefinitely and that the excessive intervention of the English Resident would have to be curtailed if Awadh's usefulness as a subsidiary was to be guaranteed.
- Thus, in 1784, Warren Hastings entered into a new series of arrangements with Asaf-ud-Daula which reduced the debt by ₹50 lakh and thereby the pressure on the Awadh regime.

NOTES

Check Your Progress

36. Nana Phadnavis controlled the Maratha affairs in Mumbai. (True/False)
37. The life of Mahadji was a long period of luxury. (True/False)
38. Nana Phadnavis was born in 1740. (True/False)
39. Nana Phadnavis lacked military leadership. (True/False)
40. The Third Anglo-Maratha war was partly related to the British imperialistic design in India and partly to the nature of Maratha state. (True/False)
41. The Marathas tried to preserve religion at the cost of science. (True/False)
42. The Marathas recruited foreigners as soldiers to defend their country. (True/False)
43. The Bhonsle family of the Pune district acquired military and political prominence in the Ahmadnagar kingdom at the close of the 16th century. (True/False)

- A more forward policy was initiated by Lord Wellesley who arrived in 1798 only to reject the Awadh system.
- The Nawab's declaration of inability to pay the increased financial demand of the company gave Wellesley a suitable pretext to contemplate annexation.
- The Nawab of Awadh had many heirs and could not therefore be covered by the Doctrine of Lapse.
- Hyderabad was formed by the six Deccan Subahs of the Mughal Empire.
- Zulfiqar Khan, the most powerful and reputed general of Aurangzeb, made plans to seize the Deccan subahs after the death of Aurangzeb. To achieve his aim, he entered into a secret understanding with the Marathas.
- At the time of the death of Aurangzeb, Chin Qilich Khan was at Bijapur and he observed neutrality during the war of succession among the sons of Aurangzeb.
- The Sayyid brothers ordered Sayyid Dilawar Ali Khan and Alam Ali, Khan to oppose the march of Nizam-ul-Mulk.
- After the fall of the Sayyid brothers, Nizam-ul-Mulk made himself the master of the six subahs of the Deccan and began his operations against the Marathas.
- As Wazir, Nizam-ul-Mulk added Malwa and Gujarat to the subedari of the Deccan.
- Nizam-ul-Mulk correctly realized that the activities of Peshwa Baji Rao I were opposed to his own policy of establishing an independent kingdom in the Deccan and, hence, he decided to oppose him.
- There were many Maratha chiefs who were not satisfied with the Peshwa and they joined the Nizam against him.
- When Nadir Shah attacked India, the Mughal Emperor called Nizam-ul-Mulk to Delhi to negotiate the terms of agreement with the invader. The agreement was actually made by the Nizam but the same was upset by Saadat Ali Khan.
- After the death of Nizam-ul-Mulk, there was a war of succession which became linked with the Anglo-French conflict in the Deccan.
- In the time of Lord Wellesley, the Nizam entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English East India Company and virtually became their subordinate ally.
- Ranjit Singh made himself the master of Punjab.
- The first regular contact between Ranjit Singh and the British seems to have been made in 1800, when India was threatened by an invasion of Zaman Shah, the Afghan ruler who had been invited by Tipu Sultan, a bitter enemy of the British.
- The second contact was made in 1805, when the Maratha chief Holkar entered Punjab with help from Ranjit Singh.
- As the danger of French invasion on India became remote, the English adopted a stern policy towards Ranjit Singh.
- Ranjit Singh fortified the fort of Govindgarh. But in the last stage, Ranjit Singh changed his mind and agreed to sign the Treaty of Amritsar in 1809.
- The death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh in June 1839 was followed by political instability and rapid changes of government in the Punjab.
- The First Anglo-Sikh War was fought at Mudki on December 18, 1845 and the Sikhs were defeated.

- The Sikhs, under Ranjit Singh Majithia, however, defeated the English at Buddwal on January 21, 1846.
- But, the Sikhs were again defeated at Aliwal on January 28. The decisive battle was fought at Sobraon on February 10, 1846 and the Sikhs were routed.
- The war came to an end by the Treaty of Lahore which was signed on 9th March, 1846.
- Another treaty was made with the Sikhs on 16th December, 1846. This treaty is known as the Second Treaty of Lahore or the Treaty of Bhairawal.
- The annexation of Punjab extended the British territories in India up to the natural frontiers of India towards the north-west.
- Mysore, which lies between the two Ghats—the Eastern and Western—were ruled by the Wodeyar dynasty
- Owing to frequent Maratha invasions, Mysore had become financially insolvent, making it more susceptible to attacks.
- Hyder Ali was a great Indian general whose outstanding martial splendour saw him become the factual ruler of the Kingdom of Mysore in south-western India.
- Haider Ali brought himself into limelight by annexing Devanhalli in 1749 and by raiding Hyderabad and amassing a large booty.
- using the enmity that existed between the Raja of Mysore and Nanajaraja, he took over the reins of administration in his own hands in 1761, making the Raja, a de jure head, who had practically no powers and received a fixed amount as pension.
- In 1760, Haider Ali was defeated by the Marathas.
- On 7 December 1782, Haider Ali died and his son Tipu Sultan took over the reins of Mysore.
- During the first half of seventeenth century when the Mughal Empire was at the height of its glory, the rise of the Marathas under Shivaji gave a severe jolt to it.
- The Marathas washed out all the achievements of Mughals in the later half of seventeenth century. They emerged as the most formidable power in India, till they were decisively defeated in the Third Battle of Panipat in 1761.
- The defeat of the Marathas in the Third Battle of Panipat was due to the alienation of the Rajputs and Jats and the failure to neutralize Shuja-ud-Daula and Najib-ud-daula.
- In the Third Battle of Panipat, the Afghan army had better training and it was better organized than the Maratha army.
- Panipat paved the way for the rise of British power, which became a paramount power in India by the eighteenth century.
- During the period of Peshwa Madhav Rao I Marathas tried to restore their lost position in North India.
- After the Battle of Panipat, Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis played an important role to regain Maratha glory. In 1818, the Marathas made a last attempt to restore their independence. The third Anglo-Maratha war ended in their ignominious defeat.
- After the third Anglo-Maratha war, the Peshwa was dethroned and pensioned off. His territories were annexed and the enlarged presidency of Bombay was brought into existence.

NOTES

- The other Maratha chiefs also lost most of their territories and were reduced to very subordinate positions under British residents.
- The main causes of failure of Marathas were as follows:
 - o Lack of national spirit
 - o Superior British diplomacy
 - o Military organization
 - o Weak Maratha rulers

4.8 KEY TERMS

- **Doctrine of Lapse:** It was an annexation policy purportedly devised by Lord Dalhousie, who was the Governor General for the East India Company in India between 1848 and 1856. According to the Doctrine, any princely state or territory under the direct influence (paramountcy) of the British East India Company (the dominant imperial power in the subcontinent), as a vassal state under the British subsidiary system, would automatically be annexed if the ruler was either manifestly incompetent or died without a direct heir.
- **Mansabdar:** It was a generic term for the military-type grading of all imperial officials of the Mughal Empire.
- **Chauth:** A tax or tribute imposed from early 18th century by the Maratha empire.
- **Subahs:** It referred to a province under the Mughal empire. The governor of a subah was known as a subahdar.
- **Doab:** It refers to a track of land lying between two confluent rivers.

4.9 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR PROGRESS'

1. Lord Wellesley came to India in 1798.
2. The Nawab of Awadh had many heirs and could not, therefore, be covered by the Doctrine of Lapse. So, Lord Dalhousie accused Nawab Wajid Ali Shah of having misgoverned his state and of refusing to introduce reforms. His state was, therefore, annexed in 1856.
3. True
4. Zulfiqar Khan was a powerful and reputed general of Aurangzeb and Chin Qilich Khan was a powerful Mansabdar who later became Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah.
5. Nizam-ul-Mulk was recalled from the Deccan by the end of 1715 and in his place Husain Ali was appointed the governor.
6. Several dissatisfied Maratha chiefs allied with Nizam-ul-Mulk, the nizam, in his fight against the Peshwa.
7. Awadh, Faujdar
8. On 21 January, 1846, the Sikhs, under Ranjit Singh Majithia, defeated the English at Buddwal, but were defeated at Aliwal on January 28. On 10 February 1846, the Sikhs were routed at Sobraon. The English crossed the Sutlej on February 13 and captured the capital of Lahore on February 20.

9. The Treaty of Lahore was signed between the Sikhs and the British on 9 March 1846.
10. Punjab was annexed on 29 March 1849 under the leadership of Lord Dalhousie.
11. The first regular contact between Ranjit Singh and the British seems to have been made in 1800.
12. The key factors that led to the first Anglo–Mysore war were:
 - (i) Haider Ali's desire to oust the English from the Carnatic and establish his suzerainty, and the English apprehension of him being an obstacle to their imperial designs.
 - (ii) The formation of a coalition among the English the Nizam and the Marathas to expel Haider.
 - (iii) Haider's proclamation of war against the English after being able to split the tripartite coalition formed against him.
13. The signatories of the Treaty of Madras were Haider Ali and the East India Company with its allies, the Raja of Tanjore and the sovereign of Malabar.
14. Haider Ali died on 7 December 1782 at Narasingarayanpet near Chittoor.
15. After Tipu Sultan's death on 4 May 1799, Lord Wellesley imposed the subsidiary alliance and placed Krishnaraja, a descendant of Woodeyar dynasty on the throne of Mysore.
16. 1790
17. The Desphandes and Deshmukhs traditionally performed the duty of collecting land revenue.
18. Poona jagir
19. True
20. The finance minister was called amatya.
21. Shambhaji, the eldest son of Shivaji, had to fight a battle of succession against his step brother Rajaram.
22. True
23. Shahji Bhonsle's wife's name was Jija Bai.
24. The two most important taxes in the Maratha taxation system were chauth and sardeshmukhi.
25. Balaji Viswanath, a small revenue official, was given the title of 'sena karte' (maker of the army) by Shahu in 1708. He became Peshwa in 1713 and made the post the most important and powerful as well as hereditary. He played a crucial role in the final victory of Shahu by winning over almost all the Maratha sardars to the side of Shahu.
26. The Third Battle of Panipat took place on January 15, 1761.
27. Madhav Rao was the younger son of Balaji Bajirao. He was placed on the Peshwa's gaddi after the death of his father when he was only 17 years old. So, his uncle Raghunath Rao, the eldest surviving member of the Peshwa's family, became his regent and the de facto ruler of the state.
28. The two contemporaries who played an important role during the first Anglo-Maratha war were Mahadji Scindia and Nana Phadnavis.

NOTES



29. Nana Phadnavis was born in 1742.
30. The first Anglo-Maratha War started when Raghunath Rao, after killing Peshwa Narayan Rao, claimed the post of Peshwa.
31. Daulat Rao Scindia signed the 'Peace Treaty' on December 30, 1803.
32. The biggest weakness of Daulat Rao Scindia was that he was a lover of luxury.
33. Bajji Rao I was Peshwa from 1720 to 1740.
34. True
35. True
36. False
37. False
38. False
39. True
40. True
41. True
42. True
43. True

4.10 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why was Asaf-ud-Daula's succession a turning point in the history of Awadh?
2. How was Ranjit Singh able to keep the British East India Company from taking over Punjab?
3. Briefly discuss the life of Hyder Ali.
4. What do you know about chauth and sardeshmukhi?
5. What are the causes of the Third Battle of Panipat?
6. What were the provisions of the Treaty of Purandhar?
7. What led the Marathas towards the second Anglo-Maratha War?
8. Name the various treaties signed between the Maratha chiefs and the Company.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the annexation of Awadh.
2. Explain how the Deccan subahs of Hyderabad slipped into the hands of the British.
3. Discuss the three Anglo-Sikh wars. What were the consequences?
4. What led to the second Anglo-Mysore war? What were its consequences?
5. Why was the Treaty of Srirangapatnam signed? What were its clauses?
6. What were the causes of Tipu Sultan's failure in the late 18th century? Were these roots to the fourth war with the British?
7. Write a detailed note on Shivaji.

8. Describe the changes that Marathas saw under Balaji Baji Rao's regime.
9. Discuss the effects and the importance of the Third Battle of Panipat.

4.11 FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

Administration under the
East India Company

NOTES

Structure

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Unit Objectives
- 5.2 Diwani
- 5.3 Regulating Act of 1773
- 5.4 Pitt's India Act of 1784
- 5.5 Charter Acts of 1813 and 1833
 - 5.5.1 Charter Act of 1813
 - 5.5.2 Charter Act of 1833
- 5.6 Summary
- 5.7 Key Terms
- 5.8 Answers to 'Check Your Progress'
- 5.9 Questions and Exercises
- 5.10 Further Reading

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt that the emergence of regional powers such as Awadh, Punjab, Hyderabad, Mysore and the Marathas and the growing weakness of the Mughal emperor. You also learnt how these powers fought the British East India Company to retain their suzerainty, but finally lost due to internal feuds.

The entire administrative machinery of the East India Company was designed to ensure the smooth functioning of trade. Maintaining law and order was significant to ensure that exploitation of the Indian resources could take place effectively. Bengal was the first major administrative region of the East India Company. As the Company expanded its powers in India, the government in Britain started questioning its authority. In 1767, the Parliament in Britain passed a law under which the East India Company was asked to pay an annual tribute of 470,000 thousands a year to the government. Situation in Britain coupled with the need to retain its authority over regional Indian powers and the Mughals, saw the trading company acquire ownership of regions.

The Regulating Act of 1773 had many defects and in order to correct them the British Parliament passed the Pitt's India Act in 1784. In 1786, the Court of Directors sent Cornwallis to India to carry out the policy of peace outlined in Pitts India Act and to reorganize the administrative system in the country. He introduced the Permanent Settlement in Bengal and Bihar. He also implemented police, judicial and revenue reforms. After Cornwallis, Lord Wellesely was sent to India in 1798. He introduced the system of Subsidiary Alliance and the first subsidiary treaty was signed by the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1798. Then, in 1814, arrived Lord Hastings from London. He adopted the policy of intervention and war.

In this unit, you will learn how the East India Company extracts the diwani of the lucrative province of Bengal from the Mughal emperor Shah Alam II after defeating the latter in the Battle of Buxar. You will also learn how the government in Britain tried to exercise its control over the East India Company, which was

actually a trading company under its jurisdiction but was growing its power and authority in Asia.

5.1 UNIT OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain how the East India Company got the diwani of Bengal from the Mughal emperor
- Describe the Regulating Act and its defects
- Analyse the Pitt's India Act and its shortcomings
- Discuss the Charter Acts of 1813 and 1833

5.2 DIWANI

The East India Company's battles at Plassey in 1757 and Buxar in 1764 laid the foundation of the British rule in India. The battle at Buxar was the crucial one. It was fought between the British, led by Major Hector Munro, on the one hand and a united force of Mir Kasim, the nawab of Bengal, Suja-ud-Daula, the nawab of Awadh and Shah Alam II, the Mughal Emperor on the other. The defeat of the Indian powers established the superiority of the British, and Robert Clive extracted the diwani of the lucrative Bengal province from Shah Alam II through the Treaty of Allahabad.

The idea of the acquisition of diwani for the Company was mooted by the President and the Council who wrote to the Court of Directors on 31 December 1758 proposing the takeover of diwani of the British rule. But Clive was hesitant to accept it.

Clive was afraid that 'so large a sovereignty may possibly be an object too extensive for a mercantile company'. He requested the Elder Pitt to consider 'whether the execution of a design, that may hereafter be still carried to greater lengths, be worthy of the Government's taking it into hand'. The latter's comment was that there were legal and practical difficulties.

The Company's Charter had not expired. It was uncertain whether the Company's conquests and acquisitions belonged to it or to the crown. The large revenues raised in India 'would endanger its liberties. There would be administrative difficulties after Clive's retirement; it was not probable that he would be succeeded by persons equal to the task. On the whole, Pitt was inclined to leave the Company free to do what it pleased.

In 1761, Shah Alam offered Major Carnac the grant of the diwani if the Company guaranteed the payment of the Emperor's share of the revenues. Vansittart rejected the offer on the ground that acceptance would cause jealousy and ill-will between the Company and the nawab. This was approved by the Court of Directors. Its political aims were thus defined:

If we can secure our present possessions and privileges in Bengal, preserve the peace of the province and the Nabob in the government, and prevent the borders from being invaded or disturbed by the neighbouring rajahs or other powers, we shall be fully satisfied, and think our forces judiciously employed in answering these principal points: for we are by no means desirous of making further acquisitions, or engaging our forces in very distant projects, unless the most absolute necessity should require it, to answer one or other of the political views afore-mentioned.

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In 1765, Clive found himself in an entirely changed situation. The two grounds on which the acquisition of the diwani had been considered undesirable on previous occasions (1758, 1759, and 1761)—fear of the nawab's dissatisfaction and inadequacy of the Company's military forces—had lost their relevance. Najm-ud-Daula had been converted into a helpless tool, and the defeat of the nawab of Oudh had removed all possibilities of external military danger. In April 1765, Clive felt that the English had 'at last arrived at that critical period... 'that period which renders it necessary for us to determine, whether we can or shall take the whole to ourselves'. The policy of ruling through nominated nawabs might put the Company in a precarious position: 'The very *nabobs* whom we might support, would be either covetous of our possessions, or jealous of our power'. So he concluded: 'We must indeed become *nabobs* ourselves, in fact, if not in name, perhaps totally so without disguise.'

The treaty with Najm-ud-Daula, concluded before Clive's arrival, had made the English 'nabobs... in fact'. Shah Alam's grant of diwani formalized this political revolution. But the Company did not become nawab 'in name...totally so without disguise'. The reasons were explained by Clive himself in January 1767. If the Company 'threw off the mask' and assumed the nawab's functions such as the appointment of officers, foreign nations would immediately take umbrage, and complaints preferred to the British court might be attended with very embarrassing consequences'. Nor could it be supposed that 'either the French, Dutch, or Danes would readily acknowledge the Company's *subahship*, and pay into the hands of their servants the duties upon trade, or the quit rents' of lands held by them. So, every act of the 'country government must be carried on in the name of the nabob, and by his authority'.

Several months before the grant of the diwani, the English had assumed full control over the nawab's revenues through the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula. That this might provoke jealousies among 'foreign nations' was anticipated by a member of Calcutta Council, George Gray, in February 1765. He wrote:

... if we encroach on his (nawab's) authority by taking such a share of the administration we shall make it appear that the Company make the grant to themselves and that they oppose the entrance of foreign nations into Bengal. The Company and not the *nabob* will then be considered as the principal and in all disputes they will be accountable for whatever is done in the country and as force is the only argument we can produce in our favour, we tacitly acknowledge the same right in the French, Dutch or any other power whenever they could make use of it.

Although the Calcutta Council ignored this warning in February 1765, Clive appreciated its gravity when he arranged the settlement with Shah Alam II. The Company, he felt, should not 'make it appear' that it was itself granting the Bengal revenues to itself; it should not appear as 'the principal... accountable for whatever is done in the country'; force should not appear to be the 'only argument' it can produce in its favour. Whatever authority the Company might seize should appear to be based on a lawful grant. Such a grant could be made only by the Emperor of Delhi who, despite his political and military helplessness, had not yet lost his nominal sovereignty.

Clive made use of the imperial authority because Shah Alam was then a protégé of the Company. At the time of Najm-ud-Daula's accession, the Calcutta Council observed that the right of nominating nawabs without reference to Delhi had been



'thrice already assumed' (twice in the case of Mir Jafar and once in the case of Mir Qasim), and the same right could be exercised in the case of Mir Jafar's son. Moreover, if the Company could dictate to the Emperor the appointment of successors to the *subahdari* of Bengal, there could be no hesitation in imposing restraints on a young nawab incapable of managing his affairs. If *sanads* from the Emperor ever appeared necessary, they were to be obtained through the Council. Matters were arranged in such a way that Najm-ud-Daula appeared to receive the throne only from the Company. The Council observed:

... shall we, who have lost so many lives in support of privileges heretofore held by grants from Delhi, yield up our authority in Bengal, and sacrifice, at once, all we have been contending for? To admit the King's right of confirming, while we support a man by force in the Nizamut, would be the grossest absurdity.

Clive had much greater political wisdom than his predecessor's Council. He was no less anxious to retain 'all we have been contending for'; but he knew that this could best be done by 'admitting the King's right of confirming the actual position secured by the Company through its skilful use of political and military weapons.

Shah Alaim's historic *farman* (12 August 1765) was a brief and simple document.

... we have granted them (the English Company) the *Dewanny* of the Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa... as a free gift and *ultumgau*... It is requisite that the said Company — engage to be security for the sum of twenty-six lakh of rupees a year, for our royal revenue... and regularly remit the same to the royal Circar; and... as the said Company are obliged to keep up a large army for the protection of the Provinces of Bengal, etc., we have granted to them whatsoever may remain out of the revenues of the said provinces, after remitting the sum of twenty-six lakh of rupees to the royal Circar, and providing for the expenses of the *Nizamut*.

Under the Mughal system, the tenure of the provincial dewans was not permanent; but the grant to the Company was 'a free gift' (with an exemption from the payment of the customs of the '*dewanny*' and '*ultumgau*', i.e., near-permanent. Indeed, the *farman* directed 'our royal descendants' and imperial officers, 'as well as the future as the present', to 'leave the said office in possession of the said Company, from generation to generation, forever and ever'. The office of diwan was always held by individuals; there was no precedent for granting it to a group of individuals functioning jointly.

The functions of the diwani included the collection and management of the revenues as also the administration of civil justice; those of the nizamat included the maintenance of law and order as also the administration of criminal justice. Out of the revenues collected by the Company, an amount of twenty-six lakh per year was to be 'regularly remitted' to the 'royal circar' (i.e., the imperial treasury) and 'the expenses of the Nizamut' were to be provided for. By implication, the Nizamut was to be retained by Najm-ud-daula. The amount of expenses to which he would be entitled was not specified; but by an agreement dated 30 September 1765, he agreed to accept the annual sum of *sicca* rupees 5,386,131,9 annas 0 paise as 'an adequate allowance for the support of the Nizamut'.

Of this sum, the amount of ₹36,07,277,8 annas 0 paise was to be spent on the maintenance of troops for 'the support of the king's (my) dignity only'. This

expenditure was to be controlled, not by the nawab himself, but by an official nominated by the Company. Thus, the nawab became a mere pensioner.

After meeting the imperial charges and the expenses of the nizamat, the Company was to retain 'whatsoever may remain out of the revenues of the said provinces'. This surplus was to be used for the maintenance of the 'large army' which it had to 'keep up... for the protection of the provinces of Bengal, etc.'. In normal circumstances, it was not the dewan's duty to take responsibility for military protection; that was the Nazim's duty, and the necessary expenses would be included in the 'expenses of the Nizamat'. By directly recognizing the maintenance of 'a large army for the protection of the provinces of Bengal, etc' as a function of the dewan, the *farman* extended the scope of the diwani so as to include the most important of the functions of the nizamat. This was a gross deviation from the traditional Mughal system, a clear repudiation of the bifurcation of functions which was the basis of Mughal provincial administration.

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The grant of the diwani was a cession to the Company of the military government of the three provinces in addition to the right to administer civil justice as also the complete control of the finances.

It was, in fact, though not in name, a cession of the sovereignty of these provinces, seeing that it was a cession of all the essentials of sovereignty.

The implications of the change were quite clear to Clive and his colleagues. The Select Committee described the Company as having 'come into the place of the country Government, by his Majesty's royal grant of the dewanee'. The general letter from Bengal to the Court of Directors, dated 30 September 1765, stated:

By this acquisition of the Dewanny, your possessions and influence are rendered paramount and secure, since no future Nabob will either have the power, or riches sufficient, to attempt your overthrow, by means either of force or corruption. All revolutions must henceforward be at an end, as there will be no fund for secret services, for donations, or for restitutions.... The power is now lodged where it can only be lodged with safety to us....

The Court of Directors approved the acquisition of the diwani but refused to accept the wide responsibilities involved in it. 'The office of diwan' was to be exercised by the resident at the durbar 'only in superintending the collections and disposal of the revenues...under the control of the governor and the Select Committee'. The ordinary bounds of that control should 'extend to nothing beyond the superintending the collection of the revenues, and the receiving the money from the Nabob's treasury to that of the dewanny or the Company'. The administration of justice, the appointment of officers, the management of zamindar is, in short, 'whatever comes under the denomination of civil administration', was to remain in the hands of the nawab or his ministers.

Firminger comments:

The Court of Directors imagined that all it wanted their servants to do was to lie beneath the tree and let the ripe fruit tumble into their open mouths. They would take the produce of the people's labour, and, in return, offer the people no protection against injustice and oppression.

Muhammad Reza Khan, who was functioning as the *naib subah* or deputy *subahdar* as the Company's nominee under the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula, was appointed by Clive as the *naib dewan* to discharge the diwani functions of the Company in Bengal. An analogous position was held in Bihar by Raja Dhiraj Narayan

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who was replaced in 1766 by Raja Shitab Roy. Reza Khan and his counterpart in Bihar were in charge of the Nizamat as also of the Diwani; they controlled the entire administration as agents of the English. It was 'a dual system in a double sense'. The authority (under the Emperor) was divided in theory between Company and nawab; in practice the administration was divided between 'English controllers and Indian agency'.

The head of the 'Indian agency' in Bengal was Reza Khan; the *de facto* chief of the 'English controllers' was the resident at the durbar who had to 'superintend the collections and disposal of revenues...under the control of the governor and the Select Committee'. His functions and procedure of work were specified in the court's instructions.

It will be his duty to stand between the administration and the encroachments always to be apprehended from the agents of the Company's servants, which must first be known to him; and we rely upon his fidelity to the Company to check all such encroachments, and to prevent the oppression of the natives.

His correspondence with the Select Committee was to be carried on through the channel of the President. He was to keep a diary of all his transactions. His correspondence with the Indians 'must be publicly conducted'. Copies of all his letters 'sent and received' were to be transmitted monthly to the Presidency as also the Court 'by every ship'. The duties of the Resident were found to be so heavy that in 1767 the court took two steps—it ordered that the office of Chief of Qasimbazar was to be separated from that of Resident and that, in spite of this relief, he was to be paid 2 per cent commission on the revenue collections.

The resident's jurisdiction in revenue matters covered the 'diwani portion' of Bengal, consisting of twenty-four districts; it did not extend to the three 'ceded districts' (Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagong). There the company's servants (the residents of Burdwan and Midnapore and the chief of Chittagong) were primarily in charge of management of revenues; in fact, they exercised all functions of the government including control over the police. In criminal justice, the Nawab's formal authority was recognized, but they were 'invested with the superintendence of the *faujdari* courts'.

In the 'diwani portion', the resident exercised important judicial functions in addition to the general supervision of revenue affairs. He inspected the Courts of Justice at Murshidabad. Along with the *naib subah*, he received and determined appeals from the district courts. In 1770, it was decided that in 'all criminal cases throughout the province' the decisions should be submitted to the Murshidabad Controlling Council for its 'approbation', and that in all cases relating to property in land and to the revenue 'tried in the country government courts' the Council would have the power of 'final determination'.

The functions of the diwani extended to control and collection of customs. Through the exercise of this power, the Company put its commercial supremacy on a firm basis.

The Directors, as we have seen, had assigned to their servants very limited functions: nothing beyond the superintending the collection of the revenues, and receiving the money from the nawab's treasury to that of the *dewanny* or the Company.

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The Select Committee directed the Resident in 1767 not 'to make the Company appear as a principal in any measure or act of government'. But, the men on the spot found it convenient actually to rule under the guise of superintending or giving advice, without accepting formal responsibility.

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The results were deplored by Richard Becher, the Resident at the Durbar, in May 1769:

... this fine country, which flourished under the most despotic and arbitrary government is verging towards its ruin....

A few months later (December 1769) Governor Verelst wrote:

Such a divided and complicated authority gave rise to oppressions and intrigues unknown at any other period; the officers of government caught the infection, and being removed from any immediate control proceeded with still greater audacity.... The consequences are but too evidently exemplified in the decline of commerce and cultivation, the diminution of specie, and the general distress of the poor. . .

The 'pretended nawabs' had, meanwhile, passed into oblivion. Najm-ud-Daula died in May 1766. As he left no issue, his brother Saif-ud-Daula, a boy of sixteen, was proclaimed his successor. The new nawab's allowance was 12 lakh less than that of his predecessor. He was made to sign a treaty 'agreeing that the protecting the provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and the force sufficient for that purpose, be left entirely to their (i.e., the Company's) discretion and good management'. He died in 1770. His successor was his younger brother, Mubarak-ud-Daula, a boy of twelve, who had to submit to a further cut of 10 lakh in his allowance.

On 29 August 1771, the Directors recorded their censure of Muhammad Reza Khan who, they observed, had 'abused the trust reposed in him and been guilty of many acts of violence and injustice towards his countrymen. They directed that a 'minute investigation' should be held into his 'general conduct during the time the *dewanny* revenues have been under his charge'. At the same time they took the historic decision to stand forth as *duan*, and, by the agency of the Company's servants to take upon themselves the entire care and management of the revenues.

The success of the Company's servants in improving the collection of the revenues in the 'ceded districts' probably convinced the Directors that their English servants were not absolutely unfit for revenue work. They felt that the experiment of collecting the revenues through a *naib dewan* had failed. They wrote:

... we have not a doubt but that by the exertion of your abilities and the care and assiduity of our servants in the superintendency of the revenue the collections will be conducted with more advantage to the Company and ease to the natives than by the means of a Naib Duan....

There was some apprehension that 'the abolition of the office of naib dewan and stepping forth as principals' might 'alarm... European neighbours'. The Directors relied on the 'prudence' of the governor and Council 'for removing every improper jealousy that may be entertained on that account'.

The removal of the 'paradox' was described by Mill as a 'revolution': A total change in the management of the revenues... was an innovation by which the whole property of the country and along with it the administration of justice, were placed upon a new foundation.

The task of giving a concrete shape to this 'revolution' fell upon Warren Hastings who assumed office as Governor of Bengal in April 1772. After the fall of

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Reza Khan and Shitab Roy, he transferred the headquarters of revenue and judicial administration from Murshidabad to Calcutta. By these and other measures (he wrote on 2 March 1773):

... the authority of the Company is fixed in this country without any possibility of a competition and beyond the power of any but themselves to shake it. The *nabob* is a mere name, and the seat of Government most effectually and visibly translated from Murshidabad to Calcutta....

Hastings did not believe that 'the authority of the Company' was based on Shah Alam's *farman*; the Diwani, he wrote, was 'a presumptuous gift of what was not his to give'. Force, not law, was the source of power. He wrote:

The sword which gave us the dominion of Bengal must be the instrument of its preservation; and if.. it shall ever cease to be ours, the next proprietor will derive his right and possession from the same natural Charter.

The 'presumptuous' giver of the *diwani* had left the Company's protection, and entered Delhi as a protégé of the Marathas three months before Hastings' assumption of charge at Calcutta. The new Governor refused under instructions from the Court of Directors to make the annual payment of twenty-six lakh of rupees which was the primary condition of the 'presumptuous gift'. This was 'in effect a declaration of the practical independence of Bengal'. As Dodwell says, 'The payment of tribute was the one really crucial element in the relations between the emperors and the rulers of the provinces'. It 'alone signified a real, living allegiance to the imperial power'.

Moreover, the puppet emperor was dispossessed of the districts of Kora and Allahabad which he had received from Clive. Hastings declined the title which Shah Alam offered him. Thus, the links with the Mughal empire were clearly and publicly cut off.

Since the deposition of Mir Qasim in 1763, the nawab had been 'a mere name'. By 1772, Clive's insistence on the political necessity of maintaining 'the name and shadow of (the Nawab's) authority' had become an anachronism. Not a mouse stirred when Najm-ud-Daula and Saif-ud-Daula signed away their powers, nor when Saif-ud-Daula and Mubarak-ud-Daula accepted cut in their pensions. The 'revolution' of 1772 was accomplished without any protest from any quarter. This was a practical demonstration of the fact that the 'mask' could be thrown off without giving 'umbrage' to the French, Dutch or Danes.

In regard to the nawab, however, Hastings was more cautious than he was in the case of the emperor. He wrote in July 1773 that he would supersede, whenever necessary, the authority of the Nazim 'to supply deficiencies or correct the irregularities of his (criminal) courts'; but this license ought never to be used without an absolute necessity, and after the most solemn deliberation'.

Two years later (December 1775) he wrote:

... it is as visible as the light of the sun that... the Nabob is a mere pageant without so much as the pageant of authority, and even his most consequential agents receive their appointment from the recommendation of the Company, and the express nomination of their own servants.

The question of the nawab's sovereignty was raised before the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1775 in connection with two cases. One was a case of conspiracy against Hastings; the other, a case of conspiracy against Barwell, a pro-Hastings member of the Council. One of the defendants in both cases was Roy Radha Charan.

Three members of the Council (Clavering, Monson, and Francis) wrote to Chief Justice Impey and the other Judges that Radha Charan was 'the Vakeel, or public minister of the Subah of these provinces' and was, therefore, 'entitled to the rights, privileges, and immunities allowed by the Law of Nations and the Statute Law of England to the Representatives of Princes'.

The Company's counsel pleaded that Mubarak-ud-daula was a sovereign prince. 'He exercises criminal justice throughout his dominions, and signs the death-warrants, without any control whatsoever from this Government. He has exercised the right of sending Ambassadors from time immemorial. He is possessed of a royal mint, and coins money. He keeps in pay a body of troops.... If the Nawab is not the Sovereign, I should be glad to know who is'.

The counsel for the prosecution argued that the Nawab's power of signing the death-warrants was 'a delusion': it was vested in him by the Company from 'political motives'. His army was 'no other than his *Swarry* (body of ceremonial troops), of which the number of sepoys and peons is limited by the Company'. As he had 'no possessions to lose' he could have no 'occasion for an army'. Affidavits sworn by Hastings and a high officer of the Company stated that the judicial changes introduced in 1772 were ordered by the Company, 'without consulting the said Nabob, or requiring his concurrence'.

Chief Justice Impey relied on two sets of documents. He interpreted Mubarak-ud-Daula's treaty as 'a surrender' by him of all power into the hands of the Company. The affidavits proved, according to him, that the Nawab performed no act of sovereignty independent of, and without the consent of, the Company. So he concluded: 'Nothing is left to Mubarick but an empty title'. Justice Lemaistre stated the same conclusion in uncharitable language:

With regard to this phantom, this man of straw, Mubaruck-ul-Dowlah, it is an insult to the understanding of the Court to have made the question of his Sovereignty.

Justice Hyde observed:

The Act of Parliament does not consider Mobaruck-ul-Dowlah as a Sovereign Prince; the jurisdiction of this Court extends over all his dominions: his situation is not such as will enable him to confer the character of Ambassador.

Justice Chambers concentrated his attention on the question of the alleged immunity of Radha Charan as an Ambassador. He did not think himself 'obliged' to decide the basic question of sovereignty 'because the Parliament seems cautiously to have avoided it, by founding the jurisdiction of this Court over those who do not reside in Calcutta or the interior factories, on personal not local subjection'.

The Majority in the Council (Clavering, Monson, and Francis) took the cue from Chambers' observation and wrote again to the judges:

If it is true that the sovereignty of Mubarick-ul-Dowlah be not admitted by the Supreme Court... we should not be left in doubt as to the party to whom the Sovereignty belongs.

In 1776, Francis asked a fundamental question:

...whether the natives of Bengal are to acknowledge one Sovereign and be subject to one Government; or whether they are to be left... divided between their native Prince, claiming the rights of Subadar... the Emperor, whose rights, as Lord Paramount, inherent in the constitution of the Empire, have been for a number of years acknowledged by the Company—the Presidency of Fort William, who

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hold by the sword by agreement with the Nabob, as they do the purse by grant from the Emperor; and lastly a Court (i.e., the Supreme Court).. exercising an unlimited jurisdiction through the provinces, in the name of the King of Great Britain.

Such questions were not strictly relevant to the issue of Radha Charan's alleged immunity, but their political importance could not be denied. It was, however, not the duty of the Supreme Court to decide whether the 'ostensible' sovereign (i.e., the Nawab) was 'a real sovereign'. Impey wrote in 1776 that the Supreme Court was bound by oaths and evidence and could not function politically like the servants of the Company.

They (servants of the Company) do their duty in obeying their superiors, by holding them (him, i.e., the nawab) out as the ostensible; we should be guilty of a breach of duty, and of oaths, should we solemnly and judicially determine him to be the acting ruling Sovereign of this Province.

The Supreme Court, in effect, upheld Hastings' view that the nawab was 'a mere pageant without so much as the pageant of authority'. The Emperor had already been eliminated through stoppage of payment of the annual tribute. The Presidency of Fort William, guided and controlled by the Court of Directors, exercised *de facto* sovereignty, subject to the ultimate authority of the (British) State to dictate the terms on which that sovereignty was to be exercised.

5.3 REGULATING ACT OF 1773

The British government directed the affairs of the Company through the Regulating Act, 1773. It was particularly initiated with to serve this purpose. The Act reorganized the government in Calcutta and established the Supreme Court there. The Regulating Act of 1773 was the first instance where Parliamentary Acts deviated from its royal charters, but was the turning point in the constitutional history of India as it protested against the putrefaction of East India Company.

Warren Hastings was formally declared the governor general of Bengal and he was to be assisted by an executive council comprising four members. The Act empowered the governor general in council to make rules, ordinances and regulations that were meant to bring order and establish civil government. Through this Act, Hastings was able to convert a trading company into an administrative body that formed the basis of the British empire in India.

The Act said: The Government of the presidency of Fort William in Bengal should have a governor general and a council, which consists of four councilors with the general democratic rule that the governor general would consider decision of the majority of the Councilors. Warren Hastings shall be the first Governor General and Lt. General John Clavering, George Monson, Richard Barwell and Philip Francis shall be the first four Councilors.

Main provisions

The main specifications of the Regulating Act, 1773, are listed below.

- The King of England was in charge of the East India Company. High officials of the company, judges and member of the court of directors were to be nominated.

Check Your Progress

1. Why was Clive reluctant to take over the diwani of Bengal?
2. What condition did Shah Alam put before granting of Bengal diwani to the British?
3. What were the functions of the diwani and the nizamat?

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- The qualifying sum to gain voting right in the court of proprietors was increased from £500 to £1000.
- The directors, who were earlier elected annually, had to continue office for four years, and a quarter of the number of were to be re-elected annually.
- A supreme court comprising a chief justice and three other judges was established in Bengal. Apart from the governor general and the members of his council, it entailed civil, criminal, admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdiction over all British subjects in the Company's dominions
- The governor general and his four councillors were to look after civil and military affairs and they who were mentioned in the Act in the first instance, they were to hold office for five years and during their tenure they could only be removed by the king on the representation of the court of directors.
- Though he had a casting vote which were to be used to break a stalemate, the governor general had to abide by the decision of the majority of the council.
- In matters of war and peace, governor general's decision was considered final above the opinions expressed by the governors of Madras and Bombay. Salaries were augmented if officers showed better merit. Company servants were not permitted to accept presents or bribes and indulge in private trade.
- Only with the prior permission of the home secretary could the governor general in council make rules.
- The governor general in council had the right to issue rules, ordinances and regulations, though they had to be registered in the supreme court.

Important features of the Act

A few important features of this Act are listed below:

- It made it clear that the administration of Indian territories was not a personal affair of the Company servants. The British Parliament was empowered to make amendments.
- This Act initiated the course of territorial integration and administrative centralization in India.
- It started a process of parliamentary control over administrative decisions taken by the Company.
- The Act set up a supreme court of judicature comprising a chief justice and three other members. The Act provided the licence to the British government to have a say in the internal affairs of the Company.
- A council of four members was established to help the governor general. Though these members were to hold office for five years, they could only be removed by the British Crown.
- The supreme government was entrusted 'from time to time to make and issue rules, ordinances, and regulations the good order and civil government' of the British territories.
- The Presidency of Bengal was made superior to other presidencies and the governor of Bengal was appointed as governor general. Governors and the councils of Madras and Bombay had to follow the decisions taken by the governor general and council of Bengal.



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The defects of the Regulating Act

The defects of the Regulating Act have been outlined below:

- The governor general did not have any veto power. Hastings often had to struggle with his councillors who could easily thrust their decisions on him by majority voting.
- The jurisdiction of the Supreme Court and its relation with the governor general in council was not specified.
- The presidencies of Madras and Bombay often declared war, without consulting the governor general and council of Bengal. In case of Marathas and Haidar Ali, the Bombay government and Madras council, respectively, chose to decide on their own.
- The reports sent by the governor general in council in India was not considered seriously and was not analyzed systematically.
- The Court of Directors had become 'more or less permanent oligarchy' Also, the court of proprietors enjoyed immunity from any scrutiny based on moral grounds. These privileges gave them allowance to participate in intrigues and create factions plagued the home government internally.

5.4 PITT'S INDIA ACT OF 1784

The British government had passed the Regulating Act in 1773, but this Act was not successful. So, in order to control its defects an Act of Settlement was passed by the British Parliament in 1781. The Act of Settlement of 1781, however, could not cure the defects of the Regulating Act and an agitation for an effective control over the Company's Indian affairs continued. The matter was raised in the Parliament and the Parliament appointed two committees.

The committee recommended for the recall of the Governor-General Warren Hastings and the Chief Justice Sir Elijah Impey. But the Court of Proprietors refused to recall them. This demonstrated the inadequate degree of parliamentary control over the East India Company and its administration. To remedy this situation, the Pitts India Act was passed by the Parliament.

The East India Company Act of 1784, also known as the Pitt's India Act, provided for the appointment of a Board of Control, and a joint government of British India by both the Company and the Crown with the government holding the ultimate authority.

The Act gave veto power to the governor general. This way he held the authority not to allow a few things to be included in the agenda for discussion by the council.

It also called for an inquiry into the real jurisdiction, rights and privileges of zamindars and directed the rehearsal of the grievances of those zamindars who had been unjustly displaced. The Court of Directors suggested that the settlements should be made with the land-holders, but at the same time the rights of all descriptions of persons should be maintained. It also suggested that durable assessment of revenue on the basis of past experience should be made. Thus, during the time of Lord Cornwallis the Decennial Settlement was ordered in 1789 in the agrarian sector of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. It was ultimately made permanent in the year 1793. This

Check Your Progress

4. What did the 1773 Regulating Act do for Hastings?
5. The Regulating Act had made the Court of Directors more or less permanent oligarchy. (True/ False)
6. The _____ was the first instance where Parliamentary Acts deviated from its royal charters.

is known as the Permanent Settlement of revenue for Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and gave birth to zamindari system in these provinces.

Some of the important features of this Act were as follows:

- The Act distinguished between commercial and political functions of the Company.
- The Court of Directors was allowed to manage commercial affairs of the Company, but for political affairs, Board of Six Commissioners, known as Board of Control, was appointed to control such affairs.
- The Commissioners were appointed by the King and were to hold office during his pleasure.
- The Board was empowered to superintend, direct and control all operations of the civil and military governments of the British possessions in the East India. But the Court of Directors were still strong, they had retained their vast patronage and had a right to appoint and dismiss their servants in India, initiating policies and receiving all information from India.
- The function of Board of Control was merely to revise and control over the doings of Directors.

This Act too failed due to the realization that the demarcation between government's control and company's power were subjective. Compartmentalization of responsibilities among the Board of Control, Court of Directors and the Council of the Governor General could not stand due to the same reasons. Moreover, corruption was breeding in all quarters, and the Board of Control, which comprised corrupt people, were alleged for nepotism.

Did You Know

William Pitt or Pitt the younger was the prime minister of Britain during the French Revolution and Napoleonic wars. He was elected to the British Parliament at the age of 21 and became the youngest man to become a prime minister at 24.

5.5 CHARTER ACTS OF 1813 AND 1833

The Charter Act of 1793 had renewed the Charter of the Company for twenty years. When the time for the renewal of the Charter arrived, there was a lot of agitation. The people demanded the ending of the commercial monopoly of the Company. They were determined to have a share in the trade with India. They pointed out four advantages which the abolition of monopoly would bring, viz., the extension of British commerce and industry, the prevention of the diversion of Indian trade to other countries of Europe or America, the reduction in the cost of trade, especially in transportation and warehousing charges, and the cheapening of the Indian raw imports into Britain. Stalwarts like Warren Hastings, Malcolm and Munro defended the monopoly of the Company. Ultimately, the Charter Act of 1813 was passed after many changes.

NOTES

Check Your Progress

7. What was done to remove the defects of the Regulating Act?
8. What is the other name of Pitt's India Act?
9. The Pitt's India Act distinguished between commercial and political functions of the Company. (True/False)
10. The Pitt's India Act gave the Governor-General _____.

5.5.1 Charter Act of 1813

(1) The Act of 1813 renewed the Charter of the East India Company for 20 years. The Company was deprived of its monopoly trade with India, but she was to enjoy her monopoly of trade with China for 20 years. The Indian trade was thrown open to all British merchants, although they had to work under certain limitations. The Directors were to grant licences to those Englishmen who applied for permission to trade with India. Licences were also to be given to persons who wanted to come to India for the purpose of enlightening or reforming the Indians or for other lawful purposes. If the Directors refused to issue a licence, the Board of Control could be approached for the same purpose. The persons who tried to go to India without a licence were to be regarded as interlopers and were liable to punishment.

(2) The Act laid down certain rules for the application of the Indian revenues. Maintenance of forces was to be the first charge on the revenues of the Company, payment of interest was the second charge, and the maintenance of the civil and commercial establishment was the third charge. Provision was also made for the reduction of the debt of the Company. The Company was required to keep its commercial and territorial accounts separately.

(3) It was provided that not more than 29 thousand troops were to be maintained out of the revenues of the Company.

(4) The Company was authorized to make laws, regulations and articles of war for the Indian troops. It was also authorized to provide for the holding of Court-Martial's.

(5) The powers of superintendence and direction of the Board of Control were not only defined but also enlarged to a very great extent.

(6) The local governments in India were empowered to impose taxes on persons, and punish those who did not pay them. These powers were to be exercised by the local governments subject to the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

(7) The Act provided for the religious learning and education of the people of India. A sum of ₹100,000 a year was to be set 'apart and applied to the revival and to the improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and for the introduction and promotion of knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British Territories in India'.

(8) The Act also made provision for the training of the civil and military servants of the Company. The College at Haileybury and military school at Adiscombe were to be maintained and brought under the authority of the Board of Control. The colleges at Calcutta and Madras were also to work according to the regulations of the Board of Control.

(9) The Act provided for the appointment of a bishop and three archdeacons for the religious welfare of the Europeans in India.

(10) The Act made special provisions for the administration of justice in cases in which the Britishers and Indians were involved. Special penalties were provided for theft, forgery and coinage offences.

5.5.2 Charter Act of 1833

The Charter of the Company was renewed in 1833. There was a lot of controversy before the Charter was actually renewed. The Englishmen were opposed to the

continuance of the monopoly of the Company and consequently one of the provisions of the new Charter was that the monopoly of the Company was to be abolished.

Administ
East

(1) While the commercial functions of the Company ended, its political functions were to continue. The Government of India was to pay the debts of the Company. The shareholders of the Company were guaranteed a dividend of 10½ per cent per annum out of the Indian revenues for the next 40 years. The Indian possessions of the Company were declared to be held by the Company in trust for the British Crown.

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(2) The Charter Act restricted the patronage of the directors. It was provided that nominations to seats in the Haileybury College were to be double the number of vacancies in the services. Nominated persons were to join the college and the top-most candidates among them were to be selected to fill the vacancies. This provision was amended in 1834 in favour of the directors and continued up to 1853.

(3) President of the Board of Control became the Minister for Indian affairs. His colleagues disappeared both in fact and in name. The minister was to have two assistant commissioners who were to be assistants and not colleagues. The secretary of the minister occupied a position of great importance on account of his presence in Parliament and he spoke for his chief when the latter sat in the House of Lords.

(4) The Charter Act centralized the administration of the English Company in India. Governor-General in Bengal became the Governor-General of India. Governor-General-in-Council was given the power to control, superintend and direct the civil and military affairs of the Company in India. Presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Bengal and the other possessions were placed under the control of the Governor-General-in-Council. All revenues were to be raised under the authority of the central government. The central government was to have complete control over expenditure. So far as the presidencies were concerned, they were permitted to expand only that amount which was approved for them by the central government. The creation of any new office which carried a pension was to require the sanction of the central government. Governor-General-in-Council could suspend any member of the governments of Madras and Bombay who disobeyed him. If the provincial government failed to carry out the orders of the central government it could be superseded. When the governor general went to a presidency he was to supersede the governor and exercise the right of over-riding the local council.

(5) The Charter Act also brought about the legislative centralization of India. Formerly, the Presidencies could make their own laws and consequently there was a lot of confusion in the laws of the country. With a view to set up a uniform system of laws for the whole of the country, the Presidencies of Bombay and Madras were deprived of their law-making powers. In future, the Governor-General-in-Council alone was to make laws. He could make laws on all subjects. Those laws were to apply to all things and to all persons in British India. Those laws were enforceable by all the courts in the country and no one could refuse to enforce them. Governor-General-in-Council was authorized to make 'articles of war' and 'code of military discipline' and provide for the administration of justice. The power of making laws included also the power of making, repealing, amending or altering any laws and regulations in force in India. However, there were certain limitations on the law making power. Governor-General-in-Council could not alter the constitution of the Company or amend the Charter itself. It should not alter the Mutiny Act. It could not pass laws against the laws of England. The laws passed by the Government of India were to be called Acts. Before 1833, they were known as regulations.

Self-Instruction
Material



(6) The Charter Act added a new member to the executive council of the governor general known as the law member. His work was purely legislative. He attended meetings of the executive council of the governor general by special invitation. He was not given any vote. Neither the presence nor the concurrence of the law member was necessary either for the consideration of the bill or for its passage. The quorum of the executive council was fixed at three for legislative work and two for administrative work.

(7) The number of the members of the councils of the governors of Bombay and Madras was reduced to two.

(8) Bombay and Madras were to keep their separate armies under their commanders-in-chief, but they were to be under the control of the central government.

(9) The Act provided for the codification of laws in India. Provision was made for the appointment of a law commission for that purpose. It was recognized that there was a lot of confusion and uncertainty in the laws in force in the country. The laws varied from presidency to presidency. What was legal at one place was illegal at another. What was considered to be a trivial offence at one place, was considered to be a serious one at another. To quote the Law Commission, 'The British regulations having been made by three different legislatures, contained, as might be expected, very different provisions. Thus, in Bengal, serious forgeries were punishable with imprisonment for a term double of the term fixed for perjury. In the Bombay presidency on the contrary perjury was punishable with imprisonment for a term double of the Madras presidency. There were many more and equal glaring discrepancies. The result was utter chaos and confusion in administering the law of crimes.'

Referring to the confusion and uncertainty of the law, the judges of the Supreme Court of Calcutta stated that 'no one could pronounce an opinion or form a judgment, however sound, upon any disputed right of persons respecting which doubt and confusion may not be raised by those who may choose to call it in question; for very few of the public persons in office, at home not even the law officers, can be expected to have so comprehensive and clear a view of the present Indian system, as to know readily and familiarly the bearings of each part of it on the rest. There are English Acts of Parliament specially provided for India, and others of which it is doubtful whether they apply to India, wholly, or in part or not at all. There is the English common law and constitution of which the application, in many respects, is still more obscure and perplexed; Mohammedan law and usage, Hindu law, usage and scripture; Charters and Letters Patent of the Crown; Regulations of the Government, some made declaredly under Acts of Parliament particularly authorizing them, and others which are founded, as some say, on the general power of government entrusted to the Company by the Parliament and others assert on their rights as successors of the old native government; some regulations require registry in the supreme court, others do not; some have effects generally throughout India, others are peculiar to one Presidency or two.'

According to Campbell, 'Our criminal law is very much a patch-work... engrafted at all times and seasons on a ground nearly covered and obliterated. The general result is that all the worst and most common crimes are satisfactorily provided for by special enactments; but that there is very great want of definition, accuracy and uniformity as to the miscellaneous offences. ... We have the main points of a tolerable system; but it wants remodeling, classification and codification.'



Regarding the condition of the local system at that time, another writer has remarked, 'At this time, each of the three presidencies enjoyed equal legislative powers; though the governor general possessed the right of veto over the legislation of the subordinate governments, it had in fact been little exercised. There had come into existence three series of regulations, as these enactments were called frequently ill-drawn, for they had been provided by inexperienced persons with little skilled advice; frequently conflicting in some cases as a result of varying conditions but in others merely by extant; and in all cases enforceable only in the Company's courts, because that had been submitted to and registered by the King's Court.'

No wonder, Section 53 of the Charter Act, 1833, provided thus, 'And whereas it is expedient . . . that such laws as may be applicable in common to all classes of the inhabitants of the said territories, due regards being had to the rights, feelings and peculiar usages of the people should be enacted and that all laws and customs having the force of law within the same territories should be ascertained and consolidated as occasion may require amended. Be it therefore enacted . . . and the said Commission shall fully inquire into the jurisdiction, powers and rules of the existing courts of justice and police establishments in the said territories and all existing forms of judicial procedure and into nature and operation of all laws whether civil or criminal, written or customary, prevailing and in force in any part of the said territories and where to any inhabitants of the said territories whether Europeans or others are now subject; 'and the said Commission shall from time to time make reports in which they fully set forth result of their said enquiries and shall from time to time suggest such alterations as may in their opinion be non-officially made in the said courts of justice and police establishments, forms of judicial procedure and laws, due regard being had to the distinction of castes, difference of religion and the manners and' opinions prevailing, among different races and in different parts of the said territories.'

(10) Section 87 of the Act declared that no Indian subject of the Company in India was to be debarred from holding any office under the Company 'by reason of his religion; place of birth, descent and colour'. This was a declaration of very great importance. It is true its immediate effect was very little, but it was to have far-reaching effects in the long run.

(11) Europeans were allowed to come to India and settle. However, they were required to get themselves registered on their landing on the Indian soil. Governor-General-in-Council was empowered to take measures to protect Indians from insult and outrage with regard to their person, religion, and opinions at the hands of Europeans.

(12) The Bishops of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta were to be appointed for the benefit of Christians in India.

(13) The Government of India was required to take measures for the abolition of slavery and betterment of slaves.

(14) The Act proposed to divide the Presidency of Bengal into two Presidencies, viz., Presidency of Agra and Presidency of Bengal. However, this provision was suspended by the Act of 1835 which authorized the appointment of a lieutenant-governor for the North Western Provinces. The governor general of India was to continue as the Governor of Bengal.

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Critics point out that the Act of 1833 was passed before 'empty benches and an uninterested audience' of the House of Commons. But the *Calcutta Gazette* of October, 1833, hailed the Charter's renewal by call for a general 'illumination and a display of fireworks,' which were granted, and brought much satisfaction to a populace always agreeably avid for *tamashas*'.

According to Herbert Cowell, 'Thus there was established in India one central legislative authority in place of the three councils which had before existed. The new council was armed with authority to pass laws and regulations for the whole of the British territories in India. It continued to exist with some changes and modifications till 1861, when it again gave way to the prevalent desire for local legislative councils. During that time it passed a considerable number of Acts, some of general application throughout the empire, but the greater portion having a limited and partial operation. Local legislatures had been tried and superseded by an imperial legislature, which in its turn was found inadequate to the political necessities of the country. An attempt was made to increase its usefulness and authority in 1853. But in 1861 a new system was introduced by which local legislatures were re-established not to supersede, but to work in harmony with and to a certain extent in subordination to the legislative council of the Viceroy.'

ACTIVITY

Trace the similarities and dissimilarities in the reforms established by Robert Clive and Warren Hastings.

Check Your Progress

11. What was the immediate effect of the Act of 1813?
12. The Act of 1813 laid down certain rules for the application of the Indian revenues. (True/False)
13. The Act of 1813 made it compulsory for the Company to keep its _____ and _____ accounts separate.
14. The Charter Act of 1833 restricted the patronage of the Directors. (True/False)
15. The _____ centralized the administration of the English Company in India.
16. Bombay and Madras were to keep their separate armies under the Charter Act of 1813. (True/False)

5.6 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt that:

- The East India Company's battles at Plassey in 1757 and Buxar in 1764 laid the foundation of the British rule in India.
- It was uncertain whether the Company's conquests and acquisitions belonged to it or to the crown.
- In 1761, Shah Alam offered Major Carnac the grant of the diwani if the Company guaranteed the payment of the Emperor's share of the revenues.
- Shah Alam's grant of diwani formalized this political revolution.
- Several months before the grant of the diwani, the English had assumed full control over the nawab's revenues through the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula.
- Clive made use of the imperial authority because Shah Alam was then a protégé of the Company.
- Clive had much greater political wisdom than his predecessor's Council.
- Under the Mughal system, the tenure of the provincial dewans was not permanent; but the grant to the Company was 'a free gift' (with an exemption from the payment of the customs of the Dewanny) and 'ultumgau', i.e., near-permanent.
- The functions of the diwani included the collection and management of the revenues as also the administration of civil justice; those of the nizamat included the maintenance of law and order as also the administration of criminal justice.

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- The Court of Directors approved the acquisition of the diwani but refused to accept the wide responsibilities involved in it.
- Muhammad Reza Khan, who was functioning as the naib subah or deputy subahdar as the Company's nominee under the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula, was appointed by Clive as the naib dewan to discharge the diwani functions of the Company in Bengal.
- Muhammad Reza Khan, who was functioning as the naib subah or deputy subahdar as the Company's nominee under the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula, was appointed by Clive as the naib dewan to discharge the diwani functions of the Company in Bengal.
- Muhammad Reza Khan, who was functioning as the naib subah or deputy subahdar as the Company's nominee under the treaty with Najm-ud-Daula, was appointed by Clive as the naib dewan to discharge the diwani functions of the Company in Bengal.
- In the 'diwani portion', the resident exercised important judicial functions in addition to the general supervision of revenue affairs.
- The 'pretended nawabs' had, meanwhile, passed into oblivion. Najm-ud-Daula died in May 1766. As he left no issue, his brother Saif-ud-Daula, a boy of sixteen, was proclaimed his successor.
- On 29 August 1771, the Directors recorded their censure of Muhammad Reza Khan who, they observed, had 'abused the trust reposed in him and been guilty of many acts of violence and injustice towards his countrymen.
- The 'presumptuous' giver of the diwani had left the Company's protection, and entered Delhi as a protégé of the Marathas three months before Hastings' assumption of charge at Calcutta.
- In regard to the nawab, however, Hastings was more cautious than he was in the case of the emperor.
- The Majority in the Council (Clavering, Monson, Francis) took the cue from Chambers' observation.
- The British government directed the affairs of the Company through the Regulating Act, 1773.
- The Act reorganized the government in Calcutta and established the Supreme Court there.
- Warren Hastings was formally declared to be as Governor-General of Bengal and he was to be assisted by an executive council comprising four members.
- The British government had passed the Regulating Act in 1773, but this Act was not successful.
- The committee recommended for the recall of the Governor-General Warren Hastings and the Chief Justice Sir Elijah Impey.
- The East India Company Act of 1784, also known as the Pitt's India Act, provided for the appointment of a Board of Control, and a joint government of British India by both the Company and the Crown with the government holding the ultimate authority.
- The Charter Act of 1793 had renewed the Charter of the Company for 20 years. When the time for the renewal of the Charter arrived, there was a lot of agitation.
- Ultimately, the Charter Act of 1813 was passed after many changes and compromises.



- The Act of 1813 renewed the Charter of the East India Company for 20 years.
- The Company was authorized to make laws, regulations and articles of war for the Indian troops. It was also authorized to provide for the holding of Court-Martial's.
- The Charter of the Company was renewed in 1833.
- The Charter Act restricted the patronage of the Directors.
- Governor-General in Bengal became the Governor-General of India.
- The Charter Act also brought about the legislative centralization of India.
- Bombay and Madras were to keep their separate armies under their Commanders-in-Chief, but they were to be under the control of the Central Government.
- The Act proposed to divide the Presidency of Bengal into two Presidencies, viz., Presidency of Agra and Presidency of Bengal.

5.7 KEY TERMS

- **Sanad:** Means deed. In British India, a deed granted to the native princely state confirming them in their states, in return for their allegiance.
- **Subahdar:** The person in-charge of a shuba who would work as the Company's nominee.

5.8 ANSWERS TO 'CHECK YOUR ANSWERS'

1. Clive was afraid that 'so large a sovereignty may possibly be an object too extensive for a mercantile company'.
2. In 1761, Shah Alam offered Major Carnac the grant of the diwani if the Company guaranteed the payment of the Emperor's share of the revenues.
3. The functions of the diwani included the collection and management of the revenues as also the administration of civil justice; those of the nizamat included the maintenance of law and order as also the administration of criminal justice.
4. Through the Regulating Act of 1773, Warren Hastings was formally declared the governor general of Bengal. It also empowered the governor general in council to make rules, ordinances and regulations that were meant to bring order and establish civil government. Through this Act, Hastings was able to convert a trading company into an administrative body that formed the basis of the British empire in India.
5. True
6. Regulating Act
7. To remove the defects of Regulating Act of 1773, an Act of Settlement of 1781 was passed.
8. The Pitt's India Act was also called known as the East India Company Act of 1784.
9. True
10. Veto power

11. The Act of 1813 renewed the Charter of the East India Company for 20 years. The Company was deprived of its monopoly trade with India, but she was to enjoy her monopoly of trade with China for 20 years.

12. True

13. Commercial, territorial

14. True

15. Charter Act of 1833

16. False

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5.9 QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. The Act of 1833 provided for the codification of laws in India. Discuss briefly.
2. Discuss the defects of the Regulating Act.
3. What were the main features of the Pitt's India Act?

Long-Answer Questions

1. What were the main provisions of the Regulating Act of 1773?
2. What were the provisions laid down under the Charter Act of 1813?
3. The question of retaining the Company's monopoly raised a new storm before the Act of 1833 was passed. Discuss.

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