

Table of Contents

Unit	Contents	Page.no.	Month
HISTORY			
1	Advent of the Europeans	01	June
2	From Trade to Territory	11	June
3	Rural Life and Society	26	July
4	People's Revolt	35	August
5	Educational Development in India	47	October
6	Development of Industries in India	58	November
7	Urban changes during the British period	67	November
8	Status of Women in India through the ages	76	January
GEOGRAPHY			
1	Rocks and Soils	85	June
2	Weather and Climate	95	July
3	Hydrologic Cycle	104	July
4	Migration and Urbanisation	112	August
5	Hazards	122	October
6	Industries	132	October
7	Exploring Continents Africa, Australia and Antarctica	139	November & December
8	Map Reading	156	January

CIVICS			
1	How the State Government Works	169	June
2	Citizens and Citizenship	177	July
3	Understanding Secularism	182	August
4	Human Rights and UNO	189	October
5	Road Safety Rules and Regulations	198	November
6	Defence & Foreign Policy	208	January
7	The Judiciary	217	February
ECONOMICS			
1	Money, Savings and Investments	226	August & September
2	Public and Private Sectors	238	February



E - book



Assessment



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HISTORY

Unit - 1

Advent of the Europeans



Learning Objectives

- ▶ To know about the kinds of sources of modern India
- ▶ To understand the Portuguese trade interests in India
- ▶ To understand the impact of Portuguese and Dutch presence in India
- ▶ To know the colonial settlements of Denmark
- ▶ To know the arrival and settlement of English and French East India Companies



Introduction

Many of the foreign travellers, traders, missionaries and civil servants who came to India in the 18th and 19th centuries have left accounts of their experiences and their impressions of various parts of the country. To know the events of modern period, we have abundant sources at the international, national, and regional level.

Sources of Modern India

The sources for the history of modern India help us to know the political, socio-economic and cultural developments in the country. From the very beginning, the Portuguese, the Dutch, the French, the Danes, and the English recorded their official transactions in India on state papers. Well preserved records are very valuable to know about their relations in India. The archives at Lisbon, Goa, Pondicherry and Madras were literally store



houses of precious historical informations. All these sources must, however, be critically evaluated before they are used for historical writing.

Kinds of Sources

We can write history with the help of sources like written sources and material sources.

Written Sources

After the advent of the printing press, numerous books were published in different languages. Hence, people began to acquire knowledge easily in the fields like art, literature, history and science. The



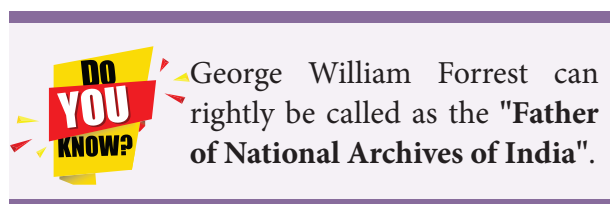
Ananda Rangam

Europeans came to know about the immense Wealth of India from the accounts of Marco Polo and similar sources. The wealth of India attracted Europeans to this country.

Ananda Rangam is a name to conjure with in the annals of Tamil history. He was a Dubash (Translator) in Pondicherry to assist French trade in India. He recorded the events that took place in French India. His diaries contain the daily events from 1736 to 1760, which are the only written secular record available during that period. His diaries reveal his profound capacity for political judgement, and is a most valuable source of history. Written sources include Literatures, Travel Accounts, Diaries, Auto Biographies, Pamphlets, Government Documents and Manuscripts.

Archives

This is the place where historical documents are preserved. The National Archives of India (NAI) is located in New Delhi. It is the chief storehouse of the records of the government of India. It has main source of information for understanding past administrative machinery as well as a guide to the present and future generations related to all matters. It contains authentic evidence for knowing the political, social, economic, cultural and scientific life and activities of the people of India. It is one of the largest Archives in Asia.



Tamil Nadu Archives

The Madras Record Office, presently known as Tamil Nadu Archives (TNA) is located in Chennai. It is one of the oldest and largest document repositories in Southern India. The most of the records in the Tamil Nadu archives are in English. The collections include series of administrative records in Dutch, Danish, Persian and Marathi. Few documents are in French, Portuguese, Tamil and Urdu.



Tamil Nadu Archives

Tamil Nadu Archives has 1642 volumes of Dutch records which relate to Cochin and Coromandal coast. These records cover the period from 1657 – 1845. The Danian records cover the period from 1777 – 1845. Dodwell prepared with great effort and the first issue of the calendar of Madras records was published in 1917. He was highly interested in encouraging historical researches. He opened a new chapter in the History of Tamil Nadu Archives.

Material Sources



St. David Fort (Cuddalore)

Many paintings and statues are the main sources of modern Indian history. They give us a lot of information and the achievement of national leaders and historical personalities. Historical buildings like St. Francis Church at Cochin, St. Louis Fort at Pondicherry, St. George Fort in Madras, St. David Fort in Cuddalore, India Gate, Parliament House, President House in New Delhi, etc are different styles and techniques of Indian architecture. Other objects and materials of religious, cultural and historical value are collected and preserved in Museums. These museums help

to preserve and promote our cultural heritage. The national museum in Delhi is the largest museum in India which was established in 1949.

Coins are a good source to know about administrative history. The first coinage in modern India under the crown was issued in 1862. Edward VII ascended after Queen Victoria and the coins issued by him bore his model. The Reserve Bank of India was formally set up in 1935 and was empowered to issue Government of India notes. The first paper currency issued by RBI in January 1938 was 5 rupee notes bearing the portrait of King George VI.



The Turks penetrated into North Africa and the Balkan Peninsula. It became imperative on the part of the European nations to discover new sea routes to the East.

Audio-visual means possessing both a sound and a visual component, such as slide-tape presentations. Audio-visual service providers frequently offer web streaming, video conferencing and live broadcast services. Television, films, internet are called 'Audio-visual media'.

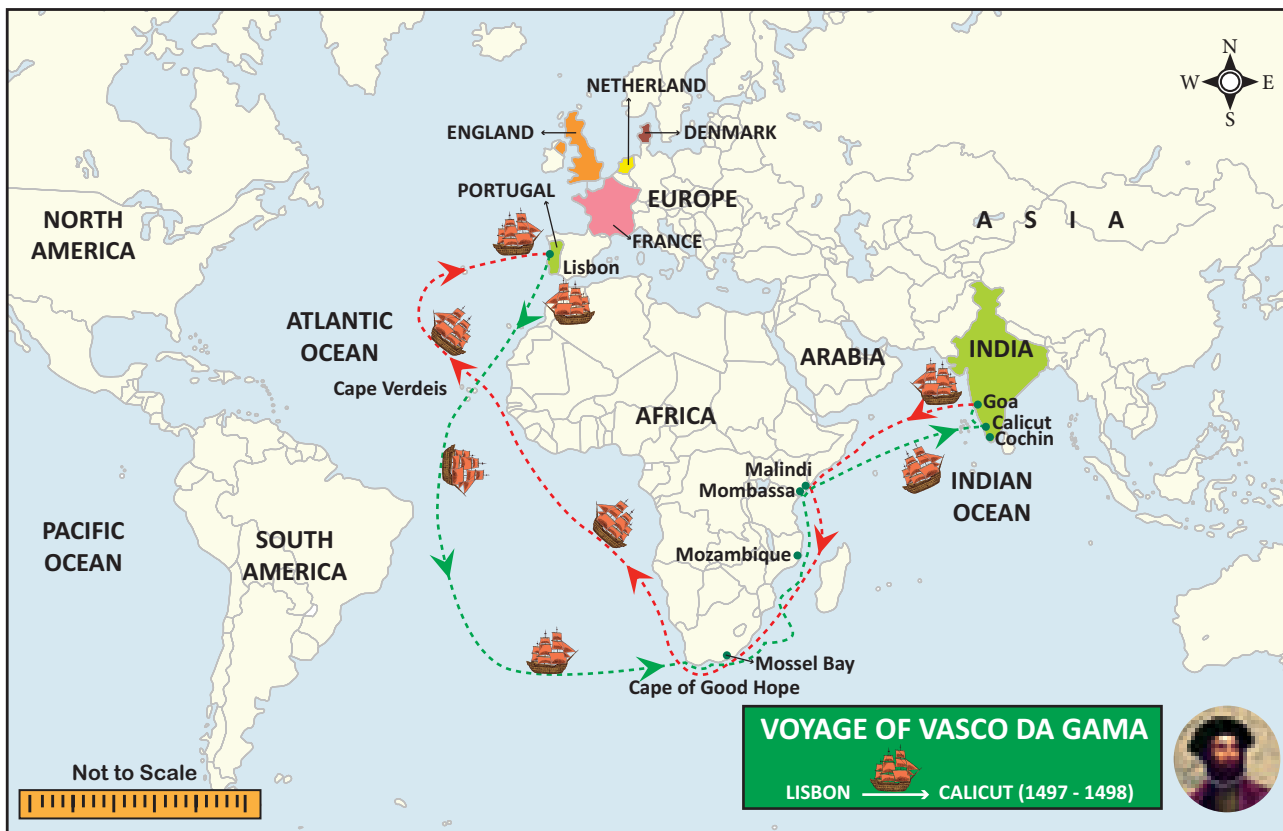
DO YOU KNOW? In 1690, Fort St. David was built by the British in Cuddalore.

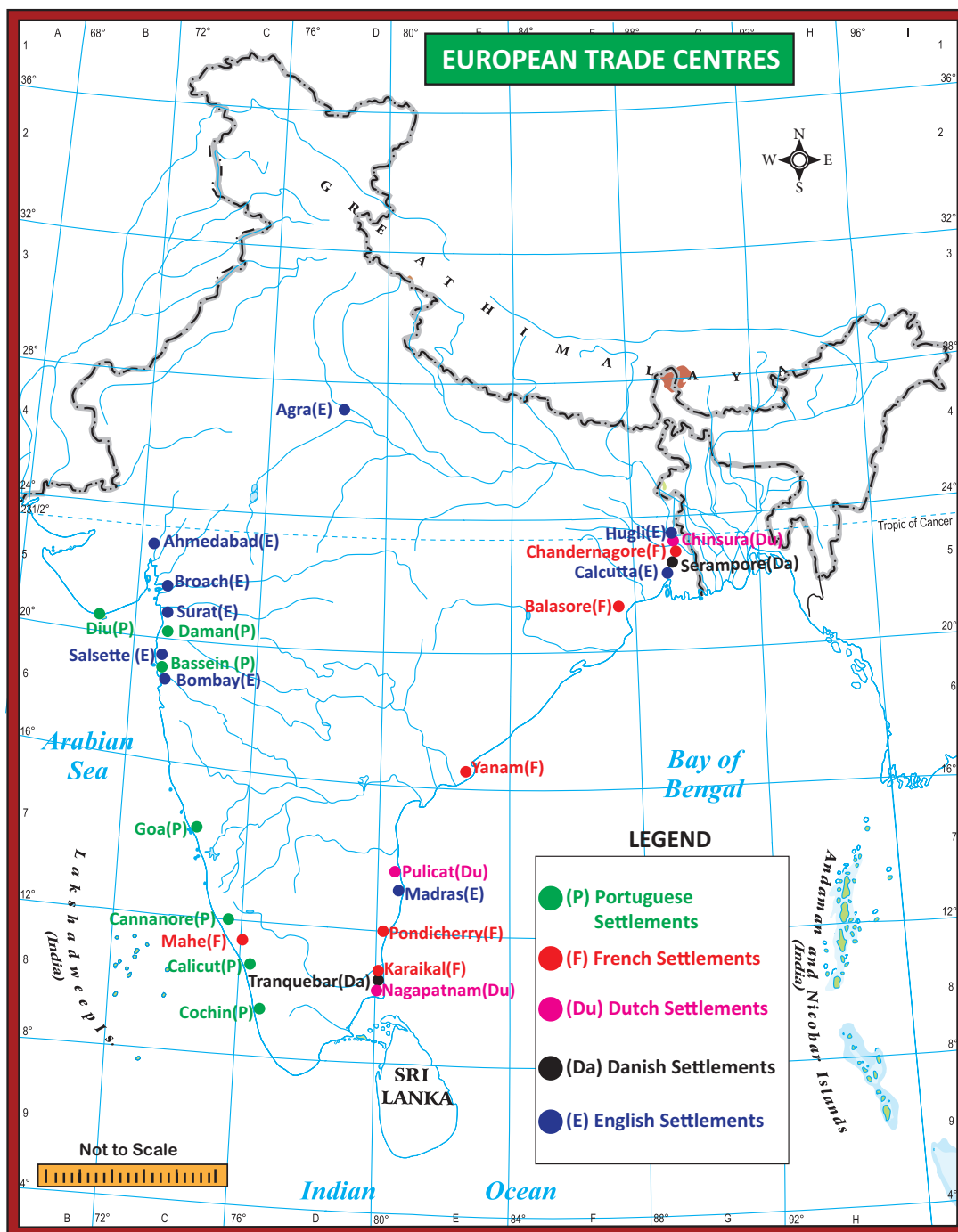
Advent of the Europeans

After the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in A.D. (C.E.) 1453, the land route between India and Europe was closed.

Portugal

Amongst the entire European nations Portugal was the foremost to make a dynamic attempt to discover a sea route to India. Prince Henry of Portugal, who is commonly known as the "Navigator", encouraged his countrymen to take up the adventurous life of exploring the unknown regions of the world. Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese sailor reached the southern-most point of Africa in 1487. He was patronized by the King John II.





Vasco da Gama

Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese sailor reached the southern-most point of Africa and he continued his journey to Mozambique from where he sailed to India with the help of an Indian pilot.



Vasco da Gama

In A.D. (C.E.) 1498, he reached Calicut, where he was cordially received by King Zamorin, the ruler of Calicut. A second Portuguese navigator, Pedro Alvares Cabral, sailed towards India, following the route discovered by Vasco da Gama with 13 ships and a few hundred soldiers in 1500. On his arrival at Calicut, there arose conflicts between the Portuguese and king Zamorin.

Vasco da Gama came to India for the second time in 1501 with 20 ships and

founded a trading centre at Cannanore. One after another, they established factories at Calicut and Cochin. King Zamorin attacked the Portuguese in Cochin, but was defeated. Cochin was the first capital of the Portuguese East India Company. The third voyage of Vasco da Gama was in 1524. He soon fell ill, and in December 1524 he died in Cochin.

Francisco de Almeida (1505-1509)

In 1505, Francisco de Almeida was sent as the first Governor for the Portuguese possessions in India. Almeida had the aim of developing the naval power of the Portuguese in India. His policy was known as the “Blue Water Policy”.

As Portuguese tried to break the Arab's monopoly on Indian Ocean trade, it negatively impacted on the trade interests of Egypt and Turkey. Sultans of Bijapur and Gujarat were also apprehensive of the expansion of Portuguese control of ports which led to an alliance between Egypt, Turkey and Gujarat against Portuguese invaders. In a naval battle fought near Chaul, the combined Muslim fleet won a victory over the Portuguese fleet under Almeida's son who was killed in the battle. Almeida defeated the combined Muslim fleet in a naval battle near Diu, and by the year 1509, Portuguese claimed the naval supremacy in Asia.

Alfonso de Albuquerque (1509-1515)

The real founder of the Portuguese power in India was Alfonso de Albuquerque. He captured Goa from the Sultan of Bijapur in November 1510. In 1515, he established the Portuguese authority over Ormuz in Persian Gulf. He encouraged the marriages of the Portuguese with Indian women. He maintained friendly relations with Vijayanagar Empire.

Nino de Cunha (1529-1538)

Governor Nino de Cunha moved capital from Cochin to Goa in 1530. In 1534, he acquired Bassein from Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.

In 1537, the Portuguese occupied Diu. Later, they wrested Daman from the local chiefs of Gujarat. In 1548, they occupied Salsette.

Thus during the 16th century, Portuguese succeeded in capturing Goa, Daman, Diu, Salsette, Bassein, Chaul and Bombay on the western coast, Hooghly on the Bengal coast and Santhome on the Madras coast and enjoyed good trade benefits. The Portuguese brought the cultivation of tobacco to India. Due to the influence of Portuguese Catholic religion spread in certain regions on India's western and eastern coasts. The printing press was set up by the Portuguese at Goa in 1556. A scientific work on the Indian medicinal plants by a European writer was printed at Goa in 1563. In 17th century, the Portuguese power began to decline to the Dutch and by 1739 the Portuguese pockets became confined to Goa, Diu and Daman.

The Dutch

The Dutch followed the Portuguese into India. In 1602, the United East India company of Netherlands was formed and it received the sanction of their government to trade in East India. After their arrival in India, the Dutch founded their first factory in Masulipatnam, (Andhra Pradesh) in 1605. This company captured Amboyna from the Portuguese in 1605 and established its supremacy in the Spice Islands. They captured Nagapatnam near Madras from the Portuguese and made this place as their strong hold in South India. At first, Pulicat was their headquarters. Later, they shifted it to Nagapatnam in 1690.

The most important Indian commodities traded by the Dutch were silk, cotton, indigo, rice and opium. They monopolized the trade in black pepper and other spices. The important factories in India were Pulicat, Surat, Chinsura, Kasim bazar, Patna, Nagapatnam, Balasore and Cochin.

The English East India Company remained engaged in rivalry with the

Portuguese and the Dutch throughout the 17th century. In 1623, the Dutch cruelly killed ten English traders and nine Javanese in Amboyna. This incident accelerated the rivalry between the two Europeans companies. Their final collapse came with their defeat by the English in the Battle of Bedera in 1759. The Dutch lost their settlements one by one to the English and was completely wiped out by the year 1795.

Dutch in Tamil Nadu

The Portuguese who established a control over Pulicat since 1502 were over thrown by the Dutch. In Pulicat, the Dutch built the fort Geldria in 1613. This fort was once the seat of Dutch power.



Geldria Fort (Pulicat)

The Dutch established their settlement at Pulicat in 1610. Diamonds were exported from Pulicat to the western countries. The other Dutch colonial forts and possessions were Nagapattinam, Punnakayal, Porto Novo, Cuddalore and Devanampatinam.

The British

On 31st December 1600, Elizabeth, the Queen of England granted a charter to the governor and company of Merchants of London to trade with East Indies. The Company was headed by a Governor and a court of 24 directors. Captain Hawkins visited Jahangir's court in 1608 to get certain concessions for the company. He secured permission to raise

a settlement at Surat. However, the Emperor cancelled the permission under pressure from the Portuguese.

In 1612, the English Captain Thomas Best, inflicted a severe defeat over the Portuguese in a naval battle near Surat. The Mughal Emperor Jahangir permitted the English to establish their factory in 1613 at Surat, which initially became the headquarters of the English in western India. Captain Nicholas Downton won another decisive victory over the Portuguese in 1614. These events enhanced the British prestige at the Mughal court. In 1615, Sir Thomas Roe was sent to Jahangir's court by King James I of England. He remained at Agra for three years and succeeded in concluding a commercial treaty with the emperor. Before the departure of Sir Thomas Roe, the English had established their trading centres at Surat, Agra, Ahmadabad and Broach.

On the coastline of the Bay of Bengal, the English established their first factory in 1611 at Masulipatam, an important port in the territory of the kingdom of Golconda. In 1639, the English merchant, Francis Day, obtained Madras as a lease from Chennappa Nayaka, the ruler of Chandragiri. The East India Company built its famous factory known as 'Fort St. George' in Madras, which became their headquarters for the whole of the eastern belt and first fort built by British.

King Charles II of England received the island of Bombay as a part of his dowry from the Portuguese King, on the occasion of his marriage with Catherine. In 1668, the East India Company acquired the island at an annual rent of £ (pounds) 10 from Charles II.

In 1690 a factory was established at Sutanuti by Job Charnock. The Zamindari of the three villages of Sutanuti, Kalikata and Govindpur was acquired by the British in 1698. These villages later grew into the city of Calcutta. The factory at Sutanuti was fortified in 1696 and this new fortified settlement was named as 'Fort William' in 1700.

After the Battle of Plassey in 1757 and the Battle of Buxar in 1764, the Company became a political power. India was under the East India Company's rule till 1858 after it came under the direct administration of the British Crown.

Danish

On March 17, 1616 the King of Denmark, Christian IV, issued a charter and created a Danish East India company. They established settlement at Tranquebar (Tamilnadu) in 1620 and Serampore (Bengal) in 1676. Serampore was their headquarters in India. They failed to strengthen themselves in India and they sold all their settlement in India to the British in 1845.

DO YOU KNOW? Danish called Tranquebar as Danesborg. The king of Denmark sent Ziegenbalg to India. Ziegenbalg set up a printing press at Tranquebar (Tarangambadi).



Tranquebar Danish Fort

The French

The French East India Company was formed in 1664 by Colbert, a Minister of King Louis XIV. In 1667, a French expedition came to India under Francois Caron. France was the last European country to come India as traders. Caron founded the first French factory in India at Surat. In 1669, Marcara founded second French factory at Masulipatam by securing a patent from the Sultan of Golkonda.

In 1673, the settlement of Pondicherry was founded by Martin under a grant from Sher Khan Lodi, the ruler of Bijapur. Pondicherry became the most important and prosperous French settlement in India. A fort known as St. Louis was built by Francois Martin in Pondicherry. In 1673, the French obtained permission from Shaista Khan, the Mughal Subedar (governor) of Bengal to establish a township at Chandranagore, near Calcutta.



Colbert

The French East India Company established factories in different parts of India, particularly in the coastal regions such as Mahe, Karaikal, Balasore and Kasim Bazar. These were a few important trading Centers of the French East India Company.

The vision of the French power in India was further reinforced by the appointment of Joseph Francois Dupleix as the Governor of the French East India Company in 1742. He succeeded Dumas as the French governor of Pondicherry.

DO YOU KNOW? **The Swedish** The Swedish East India Company was founded in Gothenburg, Sweden, in 1731 for the purpose of conducting trade with the Far East. The venture was inspired by the success of the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company.

Conclusion

Since the Portuguese were eliminated by the Dutch and the later extinguished by the English, the French were left to face the English for control over trade and territory. The French neglected trade and entangled themselves in wars with Indian and other

European powers. The three “Carnatic wars” ruined the French and rejuvenated the English to embark on a systematic territorial expansion. The comparative success of the British over the Portuguese, the Dutch, the Danish, and the French was largely due to their commercial competitiveness, spirit of supreme sacrifice, government support, naval superiority, national character and their ascendancy in Europe.

Recap

- Ananda Rangam is a name to conjure with in the annals of Tamil history.
- The Madras Record Office, known as Tamil Nadu Archives (TNA) is located in Chennai.

- Prince Henry of Portugal, is commonly known as the “Navigator”.
- The “Blue Water Policy” was followed by Almeida.
- The Mughal Emperor Jahangir permitted the English East India Company to establish their factory in 1613 at Surat.
- French East India Company was formed in 1664 by Colbert.
- Pondicherry became the most important and prosperous French settlement in India.

GLOSSARY

Missionaries	religious missions	சமயப்பரப்பு குழுவினர்
Pamphlets	a small booklet	பிரசுரங்கள்
Archives	the place where historical documents and records are kept	ஆவணக்காப்பகம்
Manuscripts	handwritten books or documents	கையெழுத்து பிரதிகள்
Repository	a person or thing regarded as a store of information	களஞ்சியம்
Voyage	a long journey especially by ship	கடற்பயணம்
Monopoly	exclusive control or possession of something	முற்றூரிமை
Navigator	in earlier times, a person who explored by ship	கடல்வழி வல்லுநர்/மாலுமி



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

1. Who laid the foundation of Portuguese power in India?
 - a) Vasco da Gama
 - b) Bartholomew Diaz
 - c) Alfonso de Albuquerque
 - d) Almeida



2. Which of the following European Nation was the foremost attempt to discover a sea route to India?
 - a) Dutch
 - b) Portugal
 - c) France
 - d) Britain
3. In 1453 Constantinople was captured by _____ .
 - a) The French
 - b) The Turks
 - c) The Dutch
 - d) The British
4. Sir William Hawkins belonged to _____ .
 - a) Portugal
 - b) Spain
 - c) England
 - d) France

5. The first fort constructed by the British in India was _____.
a) Fort William b) Fort St. George
c) Agra Fort d) Fort St. David
6. Who among the following Europeans were the last to come India as traders?
a) The British b) The French
c) The Danish d) The Portuguese
7. Tranquebar on the Tamilnadu coast was a trade centre of the _____.
a) The Portuguese b) The British
c) The French d) The Danish

II Fill in the blanks

1. National Archives of India (NAI) is located in _____.
2. Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese sailor was patronized by _____.
3. The printing press in India was set up by _____ at Goa in 1556.
4. The Mughal Emperor _____ permitted the English to trade in India.
5. The French East India Company was formed by _____.
6. _____ the King of Denmark issued a charter to create Danish East India company.

III Match the following

1	The Dutch	-	1664
2	The British	-	1602
3	The Danish	-	1600
4	The French	-	1616

IV State true or false

1. Auto biography is one of the written sources.
2. Coins are one of the material sources.
3. Ananda Rangam was a translator served under British.
4. The place where historical documents are preserved is called archives.

V Consider the following statements and tick (✓) the appropriate answer

- i) Governor Nino de Cunha moved Portuguese capital from Cochin to Goa.
 - ii) Portuguese were the last to leave from in India.
 - iii) The Dutch founded their first factory at Surat.
 - iv) Sir Thomas Roe was sent to Jahangir's court by King James I of England.
- a) i & ii are Correct.
b) ii & iv are Correct.
c) iii is correct.
d) i, ii & iv are correct.

Find out the wrong pair

- a) Francis Day - Denmark
b) Pedro Cabral - Portugal
c) Captain Hawkins - Britain
d) Colbert - France

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. Give a short note on Archives.
2. Write about the importance of Coins.
3. Why Prince Henry is called 'Henry the Navigator'?
4. Name the important factories established by the Dutch in India.
5. Mention the trading centres of the English in India.

VII Answer the following in detail

1. Give an account of the sources of Modern India.
2. How did the Portuguese establish their trading centres in India?
3. How did the British establish their trading centres in India?

VIII Map skill

1. On the river map of India, mark the following trading centres of the Europeans.

- | | |
|------------|----------------|
| 1) Calicut | 2) Cochin |
| 3) Madras | 4) Pondicherry |
| 5) Surat | 6) Chinsura |
| 7) Pulicat | 8) Calcutta |

IX HOTs

1. How did the fall of Constantinople affect the European nations?

X Student Activity

1. Prepare a chart on the kinds of sources of Modern India.

**REFERENCE BOOKS**

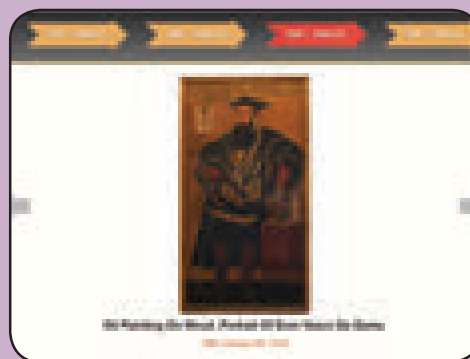
1. Bipan Chandra - History of Modern India, Orient Blackswan Private Limited 2018
2. Sumit Sarkar, Modern India 1885-1947, Laxmi Publications; Reprint edition (2008)
3. Ishita Banerjee-Dube - *A History of Modern India*, Cambridge University Press 2014

**INTERNET RESOURCES**

- www.india.gov.in
- www.historynet.com
- www.ducksters.com

**ICT CORNER****Advent of the Europeans**

Through this activity you will visualize the Sources of Indian History

**Steps**

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on Timeline, go to left side menu and Select any one (Ex. Paintings)
- Drag the Time line bar to appropriate period (Ex.1500-1600 A.D)

Website URL:

<http://museumsofindia.gov.in/repository/home>



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Unit - 2

From Trade to Territory



Learning Objectives

- ▶ To know the rise of the Political Power of English East India Company
- ▶ To know the events and impact of Battle of Plassey and Buxar
- ▶ To know the Carnatic wars and Mysore wars
- ▶ To know the Anglo-Maratha wars
- ▶ To understand the growth of colonial army and civilian administration
- ▶ To understand the principles of Subsidiary Alliance and Doctrine of Lapse



Introduction

In the 15th Century, Europe witnessed an era of geographical discoveries through land and sea routes. In 1498, Vasco Da Gama of Portugal discovered a new sea route from Europe to India. The main motive behind those discoveries was to maximize profit through trade and to establish political supremacy. The rule of East India Company in India became effective after the conquest of Bengal. The main interest of the company in India was territorial and commercial expansions.

Establishment of Political Power by the English East India Company

Battle of Plassey (1757)

Alivardi Khan, the Nawab of Bengal died in 1756 and his grandson Siraj-ud-daula ascended the throne of Bengal. The British taking advantage of the New Nawab's weakness and unpopularity seized

The Black Hole tragedy (1756)

There was a small dungeon room in the Fort William in Calcutta, where troops of the Nawab of Bengal Siraj-ud-daula, held 146 British Prisoners of war for one night. Next day morning, when the door was opened 123 of the prisoners found dead because of suffocation.

power. So, Siraj-ud-daulah decided to teach them (British) a lesson by attacking over their political settlement of Calcutta. The Nawab captured their factory at Kasimbazar. On 20th June 1756, Fort William surrendered but Robert Clive recovered Calcutta.

On 9th February 1757, Treaty of Alinagar was signed, where by Siraj-ud-daulah conceded



Battle of Plassey (1757)



practically all his claims. British then captured Chandranagore, the French settlement, on March 1757. The battle of Plassey took place between the British East India Company and the Nawab of Bengal and his French allies.

It was fought on 23 June 1757. The English East India Company's forces under Robert Clive defeated the forces of Siraj-ud-daulah. After the collapse of Bengal, the company gained a huge amount of wealth from the

treasury of Bengal and used it to strengthen its military force. The beginning of the British political sway over India may be traced from the Battle of Plassey. It was the most decisive battle that marked the initiation of British rule in India for the next two centuries.

Battle of Buxar (1764)

After the Battle of Plassey in 1757, the company was granted undisputed right to have free trade in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. It received the place of 24 parganas in Bengal. Mir Jafar (1757 to 1760) the Nawab of Bengal however fell into arrears and was forced to abdicate in favor of his son in law, Mir Qasim.

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



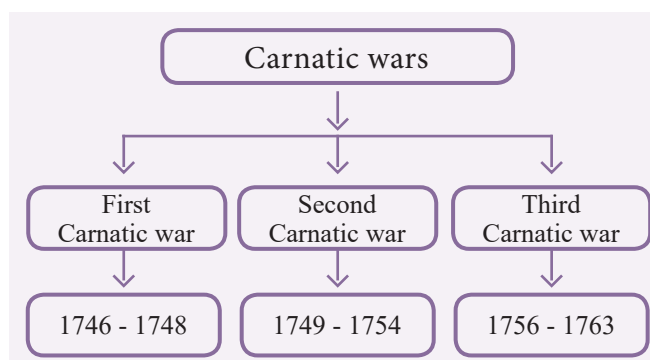
Battle of Buxar (1764)

The Battle was fought on October 22, 1764 at Buxar, a “small fortified town” within the territory of Bihar, located on the banks of the Ganges river about 130 kilometers west of Patna. It was a decisive victory for the British East India Company. Shuja-ud-daulah, Shah Alam and Mir Qasim were defeated by General Hector Munro. Mir Jafar was again placed on the throne. On Mir Jafar’s death, his son Nizam-ud-daulah was placed on the throne and signed Allahabad Treaty on 20th February 1765 by which the Nawab had to disband most

of his army and to administer Bengal through a Deputy Subedar nominated by the company. Robert Clive concluded two separate treaties with Shuja-ud-daula and Shah Alam II. Dual System of government started in Bengal.

Carnatic wars

In the 18th century, three Carnatic wars were fought between various Indian rulers, British and French East Indian Company on either side. Traditionally, Britain and France were rival countries in Europe. Their rivalry continued in India over trade and territories. It resulted in a series of military conflicts in the south known as the Carnatic wars which spanned from 1746 to 1763. These wars resulted in establishment of political supremacy of British East Indian Company.



First Carnatic war (1746 - 48)

On the outbreak of the Austrian war of succession in Europe the English and the French were on opposite camps increased the hostility between these two forces. The echo of this war was felt in India.

Battle of Adayar (1746)

The First Carnatic War is remembered for the battle of Santhome (Madras) fought between the French forces and the forces of Anwar-ud-din, the Nawab of Carnatic, who appealed the British for help. A small French army under Captain Paradise defeated the strong Indian army under Mahfuz Khan at Santhome on the banks of the River Adayar. This was the first occasion when the superiority of the well-trained and

well-equipped European army over the Indian army was proved beyond doubt.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748)

The war was ended by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle which brought the Austrian War of Succession to an end. Under the terms of this treaty, Madras was returned back to the English, and the French, in turn, got their territories in North America.

Second Carnatic War (1749 - 54)

The main cause of this war was the issue of succession in Carnatic and Hyderabad. Anwaruddin Khan and Chanda Sahib were the two claimants to the throne of Carnatic, whereas Nasir Jang and Muzaffar Jang were claimants to the throne of Hyderabad. The French supported Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jang, while the British supported the other claimants with the objective of keeping their interest and influence in the entire Deccan region.

Battle of Ambur (1749)

Finally Dupleix, Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jang formed a grand alliance and defeated and killed Anwar-ud-din Khan, the Nawab of Carnatic, on 3 August 1749 in the Battle of Ambur. Muhammad Ali, the son of Anwar-ud-din, fled to Trichinopoly (Trichirappalli). Chanda Sahib became the Nawab of Carnatic and rewarded the French with the grant of 80 villages around Pondicherry.

In the Deccan, too, the French defeated and killed Nasir Jang and made Muzaffar Jang as the Nizam. The new Nizam gave ample rewards to the French. He appointed Dupleix as the governor of all the territories in south of the river Krishna. Muzaffar Jang was assassinated by his own people in 1751. Salabat Jang, brother of Nasir Jang was raised to the throne by Bussy. Salabat Jang granted the Northern Circars excluding the Guntur District to the French. Dupleix's power was at its zenith by that time.

Battle of Arcot (1751)

In the meantime, Dupleix sent forces to besiege the fort of Trichy where Muhammad Ali had taken shelter. Chanda Sahib also joined with the French in their efforts to besiege Trichy. Robert Clive's proposal was accepted by the British governor, Saunders, and with only 200 English and 300 Indian soldiers, Clive was entrusted the task of capturing Arcot. His attack proved successful.

Robert Clive defeated the French at Arni and Kaveripak. With the assistance of Major General Stringer Lawrence, Chanda Sahib was killed in Trichy. Muhammad Ali was made the Nawab of Arcot under British protection. The French Government recalled Dupleix to Paris.



Robert Clive

Treaty of Pondicherry (1755)

Dupleix was succeeded by Godeheu who agreed the treaty of Pondicherry. According to it, both the powers agreed not to interfere in the internal affairs of the native states. They were to retain their old positions. New forts should not be built by either power. The treaty made the British stronger.

The second Carnatic war also proved inconclusive. The English proved their superiority on land by appointing Mohammad Ali as the Nawab of Carnatic. The French were still very powerful in Hyderabad. However, the predominant position of the French in the Deccan peninsula was definitely undermined in this war.

Third Carnatic War (1756 - 63)

The outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe led to the third Carnatic war in India. By this time, Robert Clive established the British power in Bengal by the Battle

of Plassey which provided them with the necessary finance for the third Carnatic war.

Count de Lally was deputed from France to conduct the war from the French side. He easily captured Fort St. David. He ordered Bussy to come down to the Carnatic with his army, to make a united effort to push the British out of the Carnatic. Taking advantage of Bussy's departure, Robert Clive sent Colonel Forde from Bengal to occupy the Northern Circars (parts of Andhra Pradesh and Odhisha).

Battle of Wandiwash (1760)

The decisive battle of the third Carnatic war was fought on January 22, 1760. The English army under General Eyre Coote totally routed the French army under Lally. Within a year the French had lost all their possessions in India. Lally returned to France where he was imprisoned and executed.

Treaty of Paris (1763)

The Seven Years' War was concluded by the treaty of Paris. The French settlements including Pondicherry were given back to the French. But they were forbidden from fortifying those places. They were not allowed to gather armies. The French dominance in India practically came to an end.

Mysore and its Resistance to British Expansion

The state of Mysore rose to prominence in the politics of South India under the leadership of Haider Ali (1760-82). He and his son Tipu Sultan (1782-99) played a prominent role against the expansion of British Empire in India. Both of them faced the English with undoubted courage. In 1761, he became the de facto ruler of Mysore. He also proved to be the most formidable enemy of the English in India.

The First Anglo-Mysore War (1767 - 69)

Causes

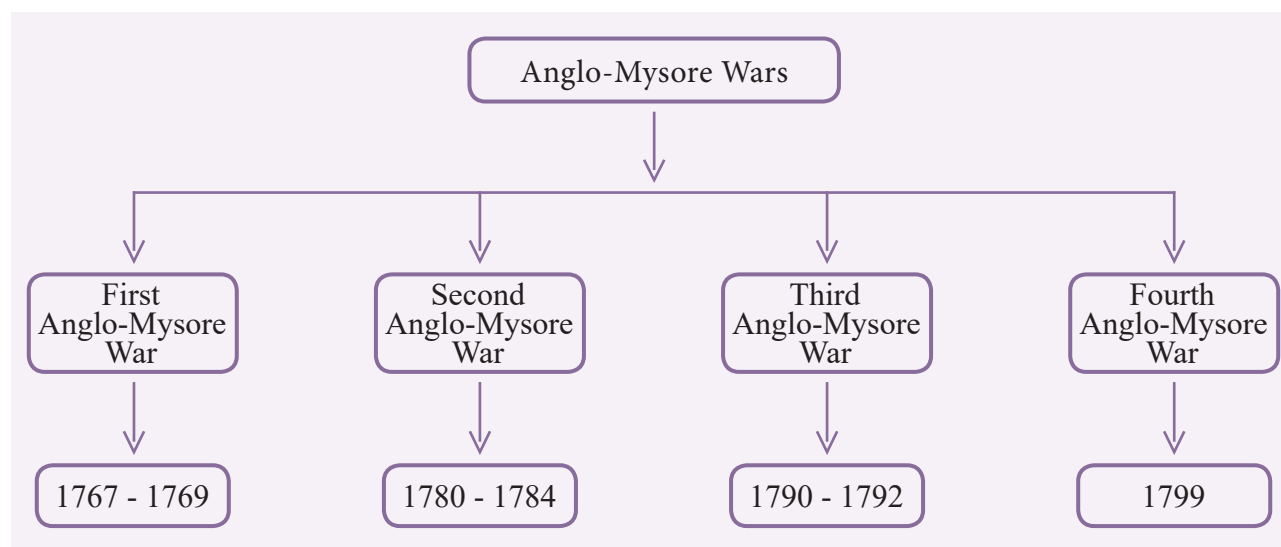
- Haider Ali's growing power and his friendly relations with the French became a matter of concern for the English East India Company.
- The Marathas, the Nizam and the English entered into a triple alliance against Haider Ali.

Course

The Nizam, with the help of British troops under General Joseph Smith, invaded Mysore in 1767. Haider Ali defeated English and captured Mangalore. In March 1769, he attacked Madras and forced the English to sign a treaty on 4 April 1769.

Treaty of Madras (1769)

At the end of the war, the Treaty of Madras was signed between Haider Ali and



British East India Company. Both the parties returned the conquered territories and promised to help each other in case of any foreign attack on them.

The Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-84)

Causes

- The English did not fulfill the terms of the treaty of 1769, when Haider's territories were attacked in 1771 by Marathas, Haider did not get help from the British.
- British captured Mahe, a French settlement within Haider's Jurisdiction. It led to the formation of an alliance by Haider with the Nizam and Marathas against the English in 1779.

Course

In 1781, the British General Sir Eyre Coote defeated Haider Ali at Porto Novo. The Mysore forces suffered another defeat at Solinger. Haider Ali died of cancer during the course of the war. After the death of Haider Ali in 1782, his son Tipu Sultan, continued the war against the English.

Tipu captured Brigadier Mathews, the supreme commander of the British forces along with his soldiers in 1783. It was a serious loss to Tipu.

Treaty of Mangalore (1784)

On 7th March 1784 the treaty of Mangalore was signed between the two parties. Both agreed to return the conquered territories and also the prisoners of war.

Thus, Warren Hastings saved the newly-established British dominion from the wrath of powerful enemies like Marathas and Haider Ali. When the British lost their colonies in America and elsewhere, Warren Hastings lost nothing in India. Instead, he consolidated the British power in India.

The Third Anglo-Mysore War (1790-92)

Causes

- Tipu was trying to seek alliance of foreign powers against the English and for that

purpose he had sent his ambassadors to France and Turkey.

- Tipu attacked on Travancore in 1789 whose ruler was an ally of the British.
- The English, the Nizam and the Marathas entered into a "Triple Alliance" against Mysore.

Course

Tipu fought alone which continued for two years. It was fought in three phases. The attack of the English under General Medows failed. Therefore, in December 1790, Cornwallis himself took the command of the army. Cornwallis captured all the hill-forts which obstructed his advance towards Srirangapatam and reached near its outer wall. Tipu felt desperate and opened negotiations with the English. Cornwallis agreed and the treaty of Srirangapatnam was concluded in 1792.

Treaty of Srirangapatnam (1792)

- Tipu surrendered half of his kingdom to the allies.
- Tipu agreed to pay 3.6 crore of rupees to the English as war indemnity and surrendered two of his sons as hostages to the English.
- The English acquired Malabar, Coorg, Dindigul and Baramahal (Coimbatore and Salem).

The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (1799)

Tipu Sultan did not forget the humiliating treaty of Srirangapatnam imposed upon him by Cornwallis in 1790.

Causes

- Tipu sought alliance with foreign powers against the English and sent ambassadors to Arabia, Turkey, Afghanistan and the French.
- Tipu was in correspondence with Napoleon who invaded Egypt at that time.
- The French officers came to Srirangapatnam where they founded a Jacobin Club and planted the Tree of Liberty.

Course

Wellesley declared war against Tipu in 1799. The war was short and decisive. As planned, the Bombay army under General Stuart invaded Mysore from the west. The Madras army, which was led by the Governor-General's brother, Arthur Wellesley, forced Tipu to retreat to his capital Srirangapatnam. On 4th May 1799 Srirangapatnam was captured. Tipu fought bravely and was killed finally. Thus ended the fourth Mysore War and the whole of Mysore lay prostrate before the British.

Mysore after the War

- The English occupied Kanara, Wynad, Coimbatore, Darapuram and Srirangapattinam.
- Krishna Raja Odayar of the former Hindu royal family was brought to the throne.
- Tipu's family was sent to the fort of Vellore.

Anglo-Maratha Wars

The Marathas managed to overcome the crisis caused by their defeat at Panipat and after a decade recovered their control over Delhi. However the old Maratha Confederacy controlled by the Peshwa had given way to five virtually independent states. Peshwa at Pune, Gaikwads at Baroda, Bhonsle at Nagpur, Holkars at Indore, and Scindias at Gwalior. The Peshwa's government was weakened by internal rivalries, and the other four leaders were often hostile to one another. Despite this, the Marathas were still a formidable power. The internal conflict among the

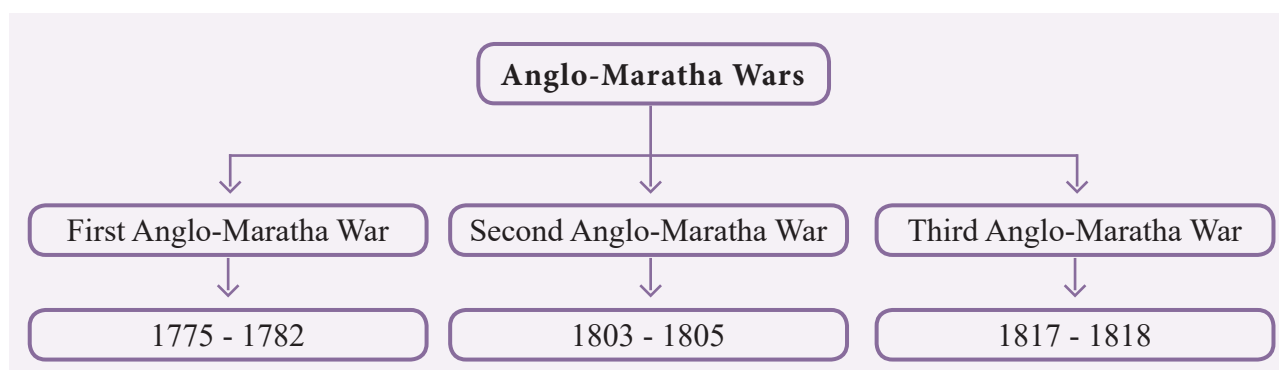
Marathas was best utilized by the British in their expansionist policy.

The First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-82)**Causes**

In the case of the Marathas, the first British intervention was at the time of dispute over succession to the Peshwaship following the death of Narayan Rao. After the death of Narayan Rao, Raghunath Rao (Raghoba) became the Peshwa, but his authority was challenged by a strong party at Poona under Nana Phadnavis. The party recognised the infant born posthumously to Narayan Rao's wife, Ganga Bai, as the Peshwa and set up a council of regency in his name. Having failed in his bid to capture power, Raghunath Rao approached the British for help. The Treaty of Surat between the English and Raghunath Rao was concluded in 1775. However, the majority of the Supreme British Council in Calcutta was opposed to the Surat treaty, although Warren Hastings himself had no objection to ratifying the treaty. The council sent Colonel Upton to Poona to negotiate a peace with the Poona regency. Accordingly, Upton concluded the Treaty of Purandhar in 1776. The treaty, however, did not take effect due to opposition from the English government in Bombay.

Course

In 1781, Warren Hastings dispatched British troops under Captain Popham. He defeated the Maratha chief, Mahadaji Scindia, in a number of small battles and captured Gwalior. Later on 17th May 1782, the Treaty of Salbai was signed between Warren Hastings and Mahadaji Scindia.



Results

- Raghunath Rao was pensioned off and Madhav Rao II was accepted as the Peshwa.
- Salsette was given to the British.
- The Treaty of Salbai established the British influence in Indian politics. It provided the British twenty years of peace with the Marathas.

The internal affairs of the Marathas

The internal affairs of the Marathas deteriorated further after the close of the first Maratha War. Nana Fadnavis grew fond of power, jealous of Mahadaji Scindia and became progressively inclined to seek the support of the English. The young Peshwa, Madhava Rao II, tried to improve the affairs but could not check the rivalry of the Maratha chiefs. Mahadaji Scindia died in 1794 and was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulat Rao Scindia. His death left Nana Fadnavis supreme at Poona and the English to expand their influence in north India. Peshwa Madhav Rao II committed suicide in 1795, and BajiRao II, worthless son of Raghunath Rao, became the Peshwa. The death of Nana Phadnavis in 1800 gave the British an added advantage.

Jaswant Rao Holkar and Daulat Rao Scindia were fighting against each other. The Peshwa supported Scindia against Holkar. The Peshwa and the Scindia agreed to help each other. Holkar marched against the Peshwa. The combined forces of Scindia and the Peshwa were utterly defeated in 1802 and captured the city. BajiRao II approached Lord Wellesley, the then Governor-General of India, for help. Lord Wellesley welcomed the Peshwa and made him sign the Treaty of Bassein, in other words, the Treaty of Subsidiary Alliance, accepting the status of a British subsidiary in 1802. As an immediate to the Treaty of Bassein, the British troops marched under the command of Arthur Wellesely towards Poona and restored the Peshwa to his position. The forces of Holkar vanished from the Maratha capital.

The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1803-05)

Causes

After accepted the subsidiary alliance by the Peshwa, Daulat Rao Scindia and Raghoji Bhonsle attempted to save Maratha's independence. But the well prepared and organised army of the English under Arthur Wellesely defeated the combined armies of Scindia and Bhonsle at Assaye and Argaon.

Course

The English forced them to conclude separate subsidiary treaties namely the Treaty of Deogaon and the Treaty of Surji-Arjungaon respectively in 1803. But, Yashwant Rao Holkar (also called as Jaswant Rao Holkar) was yet undefeated. He had not participated in the war so far. Holkar plundered the territory of Jaipur and, in 1804, the English declared war against him. Yashwant Rao Holkar made an attempt to form a coalition of Indian rulers to fight against the British. But his attempt proved unsuccessful. The Marathas were defeated, reduced to British vassalage and isolated from one another.

Results

- The Maratha power was gradually weakened.
- The English East India Company started becoming the paramount power in India.

The Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-18)

Causes

The Third Anglo-Maratha War was the final and decisive conflict between the British East India Company and the Maratha Empire in India. It began with an invasion of the Maratha territory by British East India Company troops. The troops were led by the Governor General Hastings and he was supported by a force under General Thomas Hislop.

Course

The Peshwa Baji Rao II's forces, followed by those of Mudhoji II Bhonsle of Nagpur and Malhar Rao Holkar III of Indore, rose against the British. Daulat Rao Scindia of Gwalior remained neutral. The Peshwa was defeated in the battles of Khadki and Koregaon and several minor battles were

fought by the Peshwa's forces to prevent his capture. Bhonsle was defeated in the battle of Sitabaldi and Holkar in the battle of Mahidpur.

Results

- The Maratha confederacy was dissolved and Peshwaship was abolished.
- Most of the territory of Peshwa Bajji Rao II was annexed and became part of the Bombay Presidency.
- The defeat of the Bhonsle and Holkar also resulted in the acquisition of the Maratha kingdoms of Nagpur and Indore by the British.
- The Bajji Rao II, the last Peshwa of Maratha was given an annual pension of 8 lakh rupees.

The British Administrative Organisation in India

The British Indian administration was run by four principal institutions - Civil Services, Army, Police and Judiciary.

Civil Services

The term 'civil service' was used for the first time by the East India Company to distinguish its civilian employees from their military counterparts. Translating law into action and collecting revenue were the main jobs of the civil service. The civil service was initially commercial in nature but later it was transformed into a public service. In the beginning, the appointment to these services was the sole prerogative of the Court of Directors of the Company. But the nominated civil servants indulged in corruption, bribery and illegal private trade. So, Cornwallis who came to India as Governor-General in 1786, enforced the rules against private trade. He also raised the salary of the Company's servants who became the highest paid civil servants in the world.

Lord Wellesley, who came to India as Governor-General in 1798, introduced the idea of suitable training for the civil servants

in India. In 1800, he established the College in Fort William at Calcutta to provide training in literature, science and languages. However, the directors of the Company disapproved of his action and replaced it by their own East India College, established at Haileybury in England in 1806.

The idea of competition for recruitment was introduced first by the Charter Act, 1833. But the system of competition was these not nominated by the Court of Directors were not eligible to write the competitive examination. Hence, the system was called as nomination-cum-competition system. The system of recruitment on the basis of open competitive examination was introduced in 1853. This system was confirmed by the Government of India Act of 1858. The maximum age for competitors was fixed at 23. Subsequently, East India College at Haileybury was abolished in 1858, and recruitment to civil services became the responsibility of the civil service commission. By the Regulation of 1860 the maximum age was lowered to 22, in 1866 to 21 and in 1876 to 19.

The Indian Civil Service Act of 1861 passed by the British Parliament exclusively reserved certain categories of high executive and judicial posts for the covenanted civil service which was later designated as the Indian Civil Service. Due to the lowering of age limit and holding of examination in London it could be possible only for a very few wealthy Indians to appear at the I.C.S. examination. In 1869, three Indians - Surendra Nath Banerje, Ramesh Chandra Dutt and Bihari Lal Gupta became successful in the I.C.S. examination.



Satyendranath Tagore, the elder brother of poet Rabindranath Tagore, was the first Indian to pass the I.C.S. Examination in 1863.

Later on, the Indians demanded to increase the age limit and to establish centre for examination in India instead of England.

In 1892, the minimum age limit for appearing for the Civil Service Examination was raised to 21 and the maximum to 23. In 1912, a Royal Commission on Public Service was appointed. Chaired by Lord Islington, this commission had two Indian members - G.K. Gokhale and Sir Abdur Rahim - besides four Englishmen. The Commission published its report in 1917. Islington commission's recommendations partly fulfilled the demand for the Indianisation of Civil Service.

In 1918, Montague and Lord Chelmsford recommended that 33% Indian should be recruited in Indian Civil Services and gradually the number should be increased. In 1923, a Royal Commission on Public Services was appointed with Lord Lee of Fareham as chairman. This commission recommended that recruitment to all-Indian services like the Indian Civil Service, the Indian Police Service and the Indian Forest Service should be made and controlled by the Secretary of State for India. The Lee Commission recommended the immediate establishment of a Public Service Commission.

The Act of 1935 also made provisions for the establishment of a Federal Public Service Commission at the Centre and the Provincial Public Service Commissions in the various provinces. Provision was also made for a Joint Public Service Commission in two or more Provinces. Although, the main aim of this measure was to serve the British interests, it became the base of the civil service system in independent India.

Army

The army was the second important pillar of the British administration in India. The East India Company started recruiting its own army, which came to be known as the sepoy (from sipahi or soldier) army. That sepoy army was trained and disciplined according to European military standards and was commanded by European officers in the



battlefield. During the early stage of British rule, three separate armies had been organised in three Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras. Army had a great contribution in the establishment and expansion of British rule in India. Indian soldiers were given less salaries and allowances than English soldiers. In 1857, the Indians constituted about 86 percent of the total strength of the Company's army. However, the officers of the army were exclusively British. For example, in 1856, only three Indians in the army received a salary of 300 rupees per month. The highest rank an Indian could ever reach was that of a subedar.

Strength of British Army

- Plassey war (1757): 1950 European infantry, 100 European artillery, 50 English sailors, and 2,100 Indian sepoys, an English army of 6000 troops was maintained in Bengal.
- In 1857, the strength of the army in India was 3,11,400 of whom 2,65,900 were Indians. Its officers were British.

After the revolt of 1857, the important changes were made in the Indian army services in 1858. They increased British troops and reduced Indian troops. Also, only English were appointed in artillery.

Police

When the East India Company took over the diwani in 1765, the Mughal police system was under the control of faujdars, who were in charge of their 'sarkars' or rural districts. The kotwals were in charge of towns, while the village watchmen were paid and controlled by the Zamindars.

The police system was created by Lord Cornwallis. He relieved the Zamindars from police functions and established a regular police force in 1791. Cornwallis established a system of circles or 'thanas' each headed by a 'daroga'. The authority of the daroga extended to village watchmen who performed the police duties in the villages. The hereditary

village police became 'chowkidars'. In the big cities, the old office of kotwal was, however, continued, and a daroga was appointed to each of the wards of a city. The daroga system was extended to Madras in 1802.

Before the post of district superintendent of police was created, all the thanas were under the general supervision of the district judge. In 1808, a Superintendent of Police was appointed for each division. Later, the district collector was entrusted with the task of controlling the police force in the districts. The main task of the police was to handle crime and to prevent conspiracy against the British rule.

Judicial system

In 1772, the Dual Government was abolished and the Company took over the direct responsibility for the collection of revenue as well as the administration of justice. Consequently a Diwani Adalat and Faujdari Adalat were established. By the Regulating Act of 1773, a Supreme Court was set up in Calcutta. This court consisted of a chief justice and three puisne judges who were appointed by the Crown. This court decided civil, criminal, ecclesiastical and admiralty cases. On the model of the Supreme Court of Calcutta, a Supreme Court was established in Madras in 1801 and in Bombay in 1823. In 1832, William Bentinck started jury system in Bengal. A Indian Law Commission was established to compile the laws. A rule of law was established for the whole empire. According to the Indian High Courts Act, 1861, three High Courts were set up in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in place of the old Supreme Courts.



Sir Elijah Impey was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Fort William in Bengal.

Sir Thiruvarur Muthusamy was the first Indian Chief Justice of the Madras High Court.

The Subsidiary Alliance

Lord Wellesley introduced the system of Subsidiary Alliance to bring the princely states under the control of the British. It was the most effective instrument for the expansion of the British territory and political influence in India. The princely state was called 'the protected state' and the British came to be referred as 'the paramount power'. It was the duty of the British to safeguard the state from external aggression and to help its ruler in maintaining internal peace.

Main Features of Subsidiary Alliance

- An Indian ruler entering into this alliance with the British had to dissolve his own armed forces and accept British Forces.
- A British Resident would stay in his capital.
- Towards the maintenance charges of the army, he should make annual payments or cede some territory permanently to the Company.
- All the non-English European officials should be turned out of his state.
- The native ruler should deal with foreign states only through the English Company.
- The British would undertake to defend the state from internal trouble as well as external attack.

Merits for the British

- The British Company maintained a large army at the expense of the Indian rulers.
- All Frenchmen in the service of native rulers were dismissed, and the danger of French revival was completely eliminated.
- The British Company began to control the foreign policy of the Princely States.
- Wellesley's diplomacy made the British the paramount power in India. He transformed the British Empire in India into the British empire of India.

Defects of the Princely states

The Subsidiary Alliances made the Indian rulers weak, oppressive and irresponsible. Protected by British arms, they neglected their duty towards their subjects and even exploited them.

The first Indian state to accept the Subsidiary Alliance was Hyderabad (1798). It was followed by Tanjore (1799), Awadh (1801), Peshwa (1802), Bhonsle (1803), Gwalior (1804), Indore (1817), Jaipur, Udaipur and Jodhpur (1818).

Doctrine of Lapse

Lord Dalhousie was one of the chief architects of the British Empire in India. He was an imperialist. He adopted a new policy known as Doctrine of Lapse to extend British Empire. He made use of this precedent and declared in 1848 that if the native rulers adopted children without the prior permission of the Company, only the personal properties of the rulers would go to the adopted sons and the kingdoms would go to the British paramount power. This principle was called the Doctrine of Lapse. It was bitterly opposed by the Indians and it was one of the root causes for the great revolt of 1857.

By applying the Doctrine of Lapse policy, Dalhousie annexed Satara in 1848, Jaipur and Sambalpur in 1849, Baghat in 1850, Udaipur in 1852, Jhansi in 1853 and Nagpur in 1854.

Factors for the success of the British

- greater naval power.
- development of textile.
- scientific division of labour.
- economic prosperity and skilful diplomacy of the British.
- feelings of insecurity among the Indian merchants.
- the inequality and ignorance of the Indian kings.

Conclusion

The Battle of Plassey was the foundation of British dominion in India. The company's administration was not for the interests of people. It was imperialistic, expansionist and exploitative. It brought more Indian territories under British domain through subsidiary Alliance and Doctrine of Lapse. This policy led to a South Indian rebellion (1800-01), Vellore Rebellion (1806) and the Great Rebellion (1857).

Recap

- Siraj-ud-daula ascended the throne of Bengal.
- On 9th February 1757, Treaty of Alinagar was signed.
- The Carnatic wars which spanned from 1746 to 1763.
- Tipu agreed to pay 3.6 crore of rupees to the English as war indemnity.
- Wellesley declared war against Tipu in 1799.
- Cornwallis established a system of circles or 'thanas' each was headed by a 'daroga'.
- Sir Elija Impey was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Fort William in Bengal.
- Lord Wellesley introduced the system of Subsidiary Alliance to bring the princely states under the control of the British
- Lord Dalhousie was one of the chief architects of the British Empire in India.

GLOSSARY

Confederacy	a league or alliance	கூட்டமைப்பு
Ecclesiastical	relating to the Christian Church or its clergy	திருச்சபை தொடர்பான
Entrust	assign the responsibility	ஒப்படைப்பு
Hostility	opposition	எதிர்ப்பு
Negotiation	discussion aimed at reaching an agreement	பேச்சுவார்த்தை
Paramount	supreme	தலையாய
Predominant	the most powerful	மிகுந்த வலிமை



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

- The ruler of Bengal in 1757 was _____.
a) Shuja-ud-daulah
b) Siraj - ud - daulah
c) Mir Qasim
d) Tipu Sultan
- The Battle of Plassey was fought in _____.
a) 1757 b) 1764 c) 1765 d) 1775
- Which among the following treaty was signed after Battle of Buxar?
a) Treaty of Allahabad
b) Treaty of Carnatic
c) Treaty of Alinagar
d) Treaty of Paris
- The Treaty of Pondichery brought the _____ Carnatic war to an end .
a) First b) Second
c) Third d) None
- When did Hyder Ali crown on the throne of Mysore?
a) 1756 b) 1761 c) 1763 d) 1764



- Treaty of Mangalore was signed between _____.
a) The French and Tipu Sultan
b) Hyder Ali and Zamorin of Calicut
c) The British and Tipu Sultan
d) Tipu Sultan and Marathas
- Who was the British Governor General during Third Anglo-Mysore War?
a) Robert Clive b) Warren Hastings
c) Lord Cornwallis d) Lord Wellesley
- Who signed the Treaty of Bassein with the British?
a) Bajirao II
b) Daulat Rao Scindia
c) Sambhaji Bhonsle
d) Sayyaji Rao Gaekwad
- Who was the last Peshwa of Maratha empire?
a) Balaji Vishwanath b) Baji Rao II
c) Balaji Baji Rao d) Baji Rao
- Who was the first Indian state to join the subsidiary Alliance?
a) Awadh b) Hyderabad
c) Udaipur d) Gwalior

II Fill in the blanks

- The Treaty of Alinagar was signed in _____.
- The commander in Chief of Sirajuddaulah was _____.
- The main cause for the Second Carnatic war was _____.
- _____ adopted the policy of Doctrine of Lapse to extend the British Empire in India.
- Tipu Sultan was finally defeated at the hands of _____.
- After the death of Tipu Sultan Mysore was handed over to _____.
- In 1800, _____ established a college at Fort William in Calcutta.

III Match the following

1.	Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle	The First Anglo Mysore War
2.	Treaty of Salbai	The First Carnatic War
3.	Treaty of Paris	The Third Carnatic War
4.	Treaty of Srirangapatnam	The First Maratha War
5.	Treaty of Madras	The Third Anglo Mysore War

IV State true or false

- After the death of Alivardi Khan, Siraj-ud-daulah ascended the throne of Bengal.
- Hector Munro, led the British forces in the battle of Plassey.
- The outbreak of the Austrian war of succession in Europe was led to Second Carnatic War in India.
- Sir Elijah Impey was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Fort William in Bengal.
- The Police system was created by Lord Cornwallis.

V Which one of the following is correctly matched?

- Battle of Adayar – 1748
- Battle of Ambur – 1754
- Battle of Wandiwash – 1760
- Battle of Arcot – 1749

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

- Write a short note on Black Hole Tragedy.
- What were the benefits derived by the English after the Battle of Plassey?
- Mention the causes for the Battle of Buxar.
- What were the causes for the First Mysore War?
- Bring out the results of the Third Maratha War.
- Name the states signed into Subsidiary Alliance.

VII Answer the following in detail

- Write an essay on second Carnatic war.
- Give an account of the Fourth Anglo Mysore war.
- Describe the policy adopted by Lord Dalhousie to expand the British empire in India.
- How did Lord Wellesley expand the British power in India?

VIII HOTs

- Explain the causes for the success of the English in India.

IX Mark the following on the River map of India

- Plassey
- Buxar
- Purandhar
- Arcot
- Wandiwash

X Life skill

- Collect pictures, stories, poems and information about Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan.

XI Project and Activity

1. Organize a discussion in your class on the reasons for the defeat of the Indian rulers at the hands of the British.

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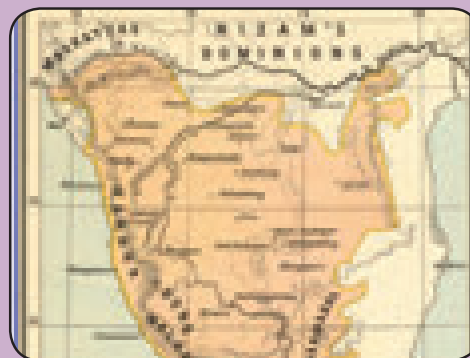
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ICT CORNER

From Trade to Territory

Through this activity you will know about the maps of India (Colonial Period)



Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Scroll down, click any period (ex. COLONIAL MAPS)
- Click the topics one by one and explore the maps (ex. Historical maps, c.1750 to 1800)

Website URL:

<http://ektara.org/magazine/histmaps.html>



Unit - 3

Rural Life and Society



Learning Objectives

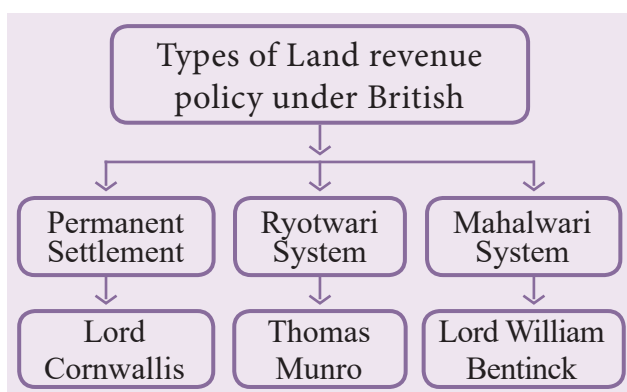
- ▶ To know the land revenue policy under the British Rule
- ▶ To understand the Merits and Demerits of the land revenue policy
- ▶ To know the agrarian crisis and revolts



Introduction

In the pre-colonial period, Indian economy was predominantly an agrarian economy. Agriculture was then the primary occupation of the people and even industries like textiles, sugar, oil, etc. were dependent on it. The British Government in India did not adopt a pro-Indian agriculture and land revenue policy. British Government introduced three major land revenue and tenurial systems in India, namely, the Permanent Settlement, the Mahalwari system and the Ryotwari system. The economic exploitation of the peasants led to the revolt in future.

The Land Revenue Policy under the British



Permanent Settlement

When Robert Clive obtained the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa in 1765, there used to be an annual settlement (of land revenue). Warren Hastings changed it from annual to quinquennial (five-yearly) and back to annual again. During the time of Cornwallis, a ten years' (decennial) settlement was introduced in 1793 and it was known Permanent Settlement.

Permanent settlement were made in Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Varanasi division of U.P., and Northern Karnataka, which roughly covered 19 percent of the total area of British India. It was known by different names like Zamindari, Jagirdari, Malguzari and Biswedari.



Lord Cornwallis

Salient Features of the Permanent Settlement

- The Zamindars were recognised as the owners of land as long as they paid the revenue to the East India Company regularly.
- The Zamindars acted as the agent of the Government for the collection of revenue from the cultivators.

- The amount of revenue that the Zamindars had to pay to the Company was firmly fixed and would not be raised under any circumstances.
- They gave 10/11 of the revenue collected by them from the cultivator to the Government.
- The Zamindars would grant patta (written agreements) to the ryots. The ryots became tenants since they were considered the tillers of the soil.
- All judicial powers were taken away from the Zamindars.

Merits

- Under this system many of the waste lands and forests became cultivable lands.
- The Zamindars became the owner of the land.
- The Zamindars were made free from the responsibility of providing justice.
- The Zamindars remained faithful to the British Government.
- This system secured a fixed and stable income for the British Government.

Demerits

- The British Government had no direct contact with the cultivators.
- The rights of the cultivators were ignored and they were left at the mercy of the Zamindars.
- The peasants were almost treated as serfs.
- This system was made the Zamindars lethargic and luxurious.
- Many conflicts between the Zamindars and the peasants arose in rural Bengal.

Ryotwari system

Ryotwari system was introduced by Thomas Munro and Captain Read in 1820. Major areas of introduction of Ryotwari system included Madras, Bombay, parts of Assam, and Coorg provinces of British India. By Ryotwari system the rights of ownership was handed over

to the peasants. British government collected taxes directly from the peasants. Initially, one-half of the estimated produce was fixed as rent. This assessment was reduced to one-third of the produce by Thomas Munro. The revenue was based on the basis of the soil and the nature of the crop.



Thomas Munro

Rents would be periodically revised, generally after 20 to 30 years. The position of the cultivators became more secure. In this system the settlement was made between the Government and the Ryots. Infact, the Government later claimed that the land revenue was rent and not a tax.

Salient Features of the Ryotwari system

- Revenue settlement was done directly with the ryots.
- Measurement of field and an estimate of produce was calculated.
- Government fixed the demand at 45% to 55% of the produce.

Effects of the Ryotwari Settlement

- In most areas the land revenue fixed was excessive; the ryots were hardly left with bare maintenance even in the best of seasons.
- Under this system the government exploited the farmers instead of Zamindars.

Mahalwari system

Mahalwari system, a brain child of Holt Mackenzie was modified version of the Zamindari settlement introduced in the Ganga valley, the North-West Province, parts of the Central India and Punjab in 1822. Lord William Bentinck was to suggest radical changes in



Lord William Bentinck

the Mahalwari system by the guidance of Robert Martins Bird in 1833. Assessment of revenue was to be made on the basis of the produce of a Mahal or village. All the proprietors of a Mahal were severally and jointly responsible for the payment of revenue. Initially the state share was fixed two-thirds of the gross produce. Bentinck, therefore, reduced to fifty percent. The village as a whole, through its headman or Lambardar, was required to pay the revenue. This system was first adopted in Agra and Awadh, and later extended to other parts of the United Provinces. The burden of all this heavy taxation finally fell on the cultivators.

Salient Features of the Mahalwari Settlement

- The Lambardar acted as intermediaries between the Government and the villagers.
- It was a village-wise assessment. One person could hold a number of villages.
- The village community was the owner of the village common land.
- The village land belonged to the village community.

Effects of the Mahalwari Settlement

- The Lambardar enjoyed privileges which was misused for their self-interest.
- This system brought no benefit to the cultivators.
- It was a modified version of the Zamindari system and benefited the upper class in villages.

Impact of the British land revenue system on the cultivators

- A common feature of all the settlements was the assessment and the maximize income from land. It resulted in increasing land sales and dispossession.
- The peasants were overburdened with taxation. Due to the tax burden and famines, in general, the people suffered in poverty and burdened with debts. They had to seek the moneylenders who became rich and acquired lands from the peasants.

- The Zamindars, money-lenders and lawyers exploited the poor peasants.
- The stability and continuity of the Indian villages was shaken.
- Cottage industries disappeared on account of the import of British goods and the peasants had nothing to supplement their income.
- The old body of custom was replaced by new apparatus of law, courts, fees, lawyers and formal procedures.
- The British policy proved advantageous only to the government of a privileged section of the society at the cost of the cultivators who were the rightful owners of their lands and claimants of the larger share of the produce.

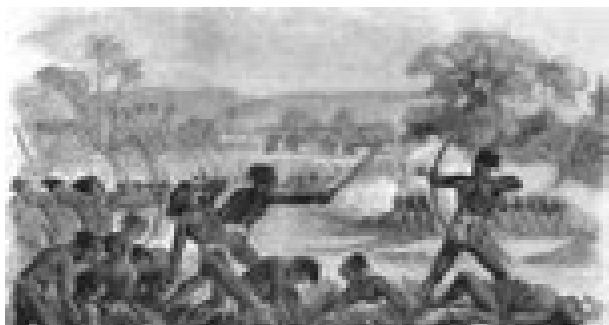
Peasants Revolts

The British rule in India brought about many changes in the agrarian system in the country. The old agrarian system collapsed and under the new system, the ownership of land was conferred on the Zamindars. They tried to extract as much as they could from the cultivators of land. The life of the peasants was extremely miserable. The various peasant movements and uprisings during the 19th and 20th centuries were in the nature of a protest against of the existing conditions under which their exploitation knew no limits.

The Santhal Rebellion (1855-56)

The first revolt which can be regarded as peasants' revolt was the Santhal Rebellion in 1855-56. The land near the hills of Rajmahal in Bihar was cultivated by the Santhals. The landlords and money-lenders from the cities took advantage of their ignorance and began grabbing their lands. This created bitter resentment among them leading to their armed uprising in 1855. Consequently, under the belief of a divine order, around 10,000 Santals gathered under two Santhal brothers, Siddhu and Kanhu, to free their country of the foreign oppressors and set up a government of their own. The rebellion assumed a formidable shape

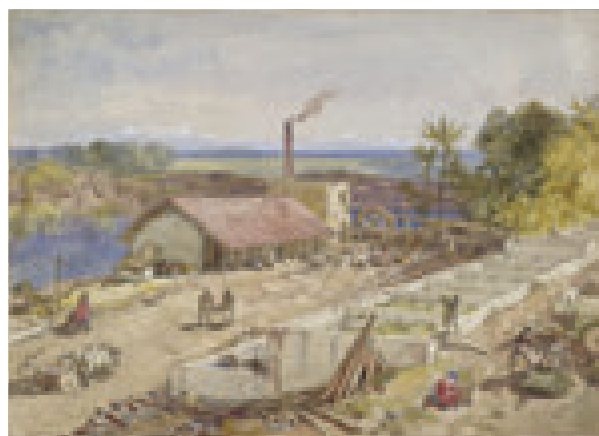
within a month. The houses of the European planters, British officers, railway engineers, zamindars and money-lenders were attacked. The rebellion continued till February 1856, when the rebel leaders were captured and the movement was put down with a heavy hand. The government declared the Parganas inhabited by them as Santhal Parganas so that their lands and identity could be safeguarded from external encroachments.



Santhal Rebellion

Indigo Revolt (1859-60)

The Bengal indigo cultivators strike was the most militant and widespread peasant uprisings. The European indigo planters compelled the tenant farmers to grow indigo at terms highly disadvantageous to the farmers. The tenant farmer was forced to sell it cheap to the planter and accepted advances from the planter that benefitted the latter. There were also cases of kidnapping, looting, flogging and burning. Led by Digambar Biswas and Bishnu Charan Biswas, the ryots of Nadia district gave up indigo cultivation in September 1859. Factories were burnt down and the revolt spread. To take control of the situation, the Government set up an indigo commission in 1860 whose recommendations formed part of the Act VI of 1862. The indigo planters of Bengal, however, moved on to settle in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. The newspaper, Hindu Patriot brought to light the misery of the cultivators several times. Dinabandhu Mitra wrote a drama, Nil-Darpan, in Bengali with a view to draw the attention of the people and the government towards the misery of the indigo-cultivators.



Indigo Revolt

Pabna Revolt (1873-76)

Pabna Peasant Uprising was a resistance movement by the peasants against the oppression of the Zamindars. It originated in the Yusufshahi pargana of Pabna in Bengal. It was led by Keshab Chandra Roy. The zamindars routinely collected money from the peasants by the illegal means of forced levy, abwabs, enhanced rent and so on. Peasants were often evicted from land on the pretext of non-payment of rent.

Large crowds of peasants gathered and marched through villages frightening the zamindars and appealing to other peasants to join with them. Funds were raised from the ryots to meet the costs. The struggle gradually spread throughout Pabna and then to the other districts of East Bengal. Everywhere agrarian leagues were organized. The main form of struggle was that of legal resistance. There was very little violence. It occurred only when the zamindars tried to compel the riots to submit to their terms by force. There were only a few cases of looting of the houses of the zamindars. A few attacks on police stations took place and the peasants also resisted attempts to execute court decrees. Hardly zamindars or zamindar's agent were killed or seriously injured. In the course of the movement, the riots developed a strong awareness of the law and their legal rights and the ability to combine and form associations for peaceful agitation.



Deccan Riots (1875)

In 1875, the peasants revolted in the district of Poona, that event has been called the 'Deccan Riots'. The peasants revolted primarily against the oppression of local moneylenders who were grabbing their lands systematically. The uprising started from a village in Poona district when the village people forced out a local moneylender from the village and captured his property. Gradually, the uprising spread over 33 villages and the peasants looted the property of Marwari Sahukars. The uprising turned into violent when the Sahukars took help of the police. It was suppressed only when the army was called to control it. However, it resulted in passing of the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act' which removed some of the most serious grievances of the peasants.

Punjab Peasant Movement (1890-1900)

The peasants of the Punjab agitated to prevent the rapid alienation of their lands to the urban moneylenders for failure to pay debts. The British India did not want any revolt in that province which provided a large number of soldiers to the British army in India. In order to protect the peasants of the Punjab, the Punjab Land Alienation Act was passed in 1900 "as an experimental measure" to be extended to the rest of India if it worked successfully in the Punjab. The Act divided the population of the Punjab into three categories viz., the agricultural classes, the statutory agriculturist class and the rest of the population including the moneylenders. Restrictions were imposed on the sale and mortgage of the land from the first category to the other two categories.

Champaran Satyagraha (1917-18)



Champaran Satyagraha

The European planters of Champaran in Bihar resorted to illegal and inhuman methods of indigo cultivation at a cost which was wholly unjust. Under the Tinkathia system in Champaran, the peasants were bound by law to grow indigo on 3/20 part of their land and send the same to the British planters at prices fixed by them. They were liable to unlawful extortion and oppression by the planters. Mahatma Gandhi took up their cause. The Government appointed an enquiry commission of which Mahatma Gandhi was a member. The grievances of the peasants were enquired and ultimately the Champaran Agrarian Act was passed in May 1918.

Kheda (Kaira) Satyagraha (1918)

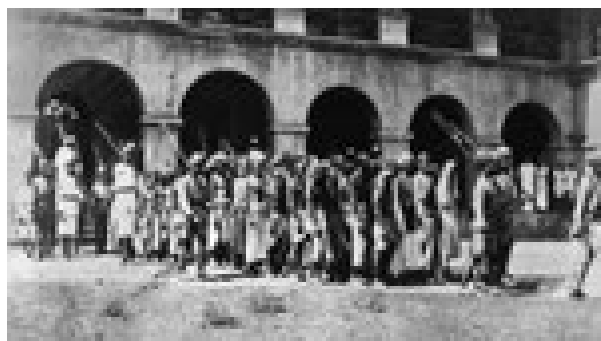
In the Kheda District of Gujarat, due to constant famines, agriculture failed in 1918, but the officers insisted on collection of full land revenue. The local peasants, therefore, started a 'no-tax' movement in Kheda district in 1918. Gandhi accepted the leadership of this movement.

Gandhiji organised the peasants to offer Satyagraha and opposed official insistence on full collection of oppressive land revenue despite the conditions of famine. He inspired the peasants to be fearless and face all consequences. The response to his call was unprecedented and the government had to bow to a settlement with the peasants. Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel emerged as an important leader of the Indian freedom struggle during this period.

Moplah Rebellion (1921)

The Muslim Moplah (or Moplah) peasants of Malabar (Kerala) was suppressed and exploited by the Hindu zamindars (Jenmis) and British government. This was the main cause of this revolt.

The Moplah peasants got momentum from the Malabar District Conference, held in April 1920. This conference supported the tenants' cause, and demanded legislations for regulating landlord-tenant relations. In August 1921, the Moplah tenants rebelled against the oppressive zamindars. In the initial phase of the rebellion, the Moplah peasants attacked the police stations, public offices, communications and houses of oppressive landlords and moneylenders. By December 1921, the government ruthlessly suppressed the Moplah rebellion. According to an official estimate, as a result of government intervention, 2337 Moplah rebels were killed, 1650 wounded and more than 45,000 captured as prisoners.



Moplah prisoners

Bardoli Satyagraha (1929-30)

In 1928, the peasants of Bardoli (Gujarat) started their agitation under the leadership of Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, in protest against the government's proposal to increase land revenue by 30 percent. The peasants refused to pay tax at the enhanced rate and started no-tax campaign from 12 February 1928. Many women also participated in this campaign.

In 1930, the peasants of Bardoli rose to a man, refused to pay taxes, faced the auction sales and the eventual loss of almost all of their lands but refused to submit to the Government.

However, all their lands were returned to them when the Congress came to power in 1937.



Bardoli Satyagraha

Recap

- The British Government in India did not adopt a pro-Indian agriculture and land revenue policy.
- Lord Cornwallis introduced Permanent Settlement in 1793.
- Ryotwari system was introduced by Thomas Munro and Captain Read in 1820.
- Mahalwari system was a brain child of Holt Mackenzie.
- The land near the hills of Rajmahal in Bihar was cultivated by the Santhals.
- Dinabandhu Mitra wrote a drama, Nil-Darpan, in Bengali.
- In 1875, the peasants revolted in the district of Poona, that event has been called the 'Deccan Riots'.
- The Punjab Land Alienation Act was passed in 1900.
- In August 1921, the Moplah tenants rebelled against the oppressive Zamindars.
- The peasants of Bardoli (Gujarat) started their agitation under the leadership of Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel.

GLOSSARY

Apparatus	new system	புதிய அமைப்பு
Claimants	a person making a claim	உரிமை கோருபவர்
Cultivator	a person who cultivates the land	விவசாயி
Encroachment	intrusion on	ஆக்கிரமிப்பு
Moneylender	a person who lends money to people, at a high rate of interest	கடன் தருபவர்
Predominantly	mainly	முக்கியமாக
Tenants	a person who occupies land rented from a land lord	குத்தகையாளர்/ குடியிருப்பவர்



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

1. Which system was called by different names like Jagirdari, Malguzari and Biswedari etc.?
 - a) Mahalwari
 - b) Ryotwari
 - c) Zamindari
 - d) None of these



2. Under which Governor General did the permanent settlement implemented in Bengal.
 - a) Lord Hastings
 - b) Lord Cornwallis
 - c) Lord Wellesley
 - d) Lord Minto
3. What was the Mahal in the Mahalwari system?
 - a) House
 - b) Land
 - c) Village
 - d) Palace

4. In which region was the Mahalwari system imposed?
 - a) Maharashtra b) Madras
 - c) Bengal d) Punjab
5. Who among the following Governors introduced Mahalwari system?
 - a) Lord Hastings
 - b) Lord Cornwallis
 - c) Lord Wellesley
 - d) Lord William Bentinck
6. In which region was the Ryotwari system not introduced by the British?
 - a) Bombay b) Madras
 - c) Bengal d) None of these
7. The Indigo revolt was led by whom?
 - a) Mahatma Gandhi
 - b) Keshab Chandra Roy
 - c) Digambar Biswas and Bishnu Biswas
 - d) Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel
8. The Bardoli Satyagraha was led by whom?
 - a) Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel
 - b) Mahatma Gandhi
 - c) Digambar Biswas
 - d) Keshab Chandra Roy

II Fill in the Blanks

1. _____ is the modified version of the Zamindari system.
2. The Mahalwari system was a brain child of _____.
3. Indigo Revolt took place in _____.
4. Moplah Rebellion was held in _____.
5. The Champaran Agrarian Act was passed in _____.

III Match the following

1.	Permanent Settlement	Madras
2.	Mahalwari Settlement	Misery of the Indigo cultivators
3.	Ryotwari System	North west province
4.	Nil Darban	Bengal
5.	Santhal Rebellion	First Peasant revolt

IV State true or false

1. Warren Hastings introduced quinquennial land settlement.
2. Ryotwari system was introduced by Thomas Munro.
3. Pabna revolt originated in the Yusufshahi pargana in Gujarat.
4. The Punjab land alienation Act was passed in 1918.

V Consider the following statement and tick (✓) the appropriate answer

1. Which of the following statements is not true about the Zamindari system?
 - (a) This settlement was introduced in 1793.
 - (b) The Zamindars became the owners of the land.
 - (c) This system secured a fixed and stable income for the cultivators.
 - (d) This practice was applicable to the area of 19% of India.
2. Which of the following statements is correct about the Peasants' revolt in India?
 - (a) The Santhal rebellion was held in Bengal.
 - (b) Dinabandhu Mitra wrote a drama called Nil Darban.

- (c) The Deccan riots started from a village at Pune in 1873.
- (d) The Moplah peasants rebellion was held in Tamil Nadu.

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. List out any two salient features of the Permanent settlement?
2. What were the salient features of the Ryotwari system?
3. Bring out the effects of the Mahalwari settlement.
4. What was the cause of Indigo Revolt in 1859 – 60?
5. What was the contribution of Mahatma Gandhi on Champaran Satyagraha.
6. Mention the role of Vallabhai Patel in Bardoli Satyagraha.

VII Answer the following in detail

1. Discuss the merits and demerits of the Permanent settlement.
2. What were the impacts of the British Land Revenue system on the cultivators?
3. Write a paragraph about the Moplah Rebellion?

VIII HOTS

Apart from the exploiting through taxes, how did the British further exploit the land?

IX Project and Activity

1. Point out the influence which shaped Gandhiji's ideas on Ahimsa and Satyagraha.
2. Organize exhibition in your school on the peasants conditions highlight the similarities between past and present.



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2. R.C. Majumdar - *An Advance History of India* Macmillan and Co., Limited London 1953.
3. Vincent .A. Smith - *The Oxford History of India - From the Earliest Times to the end of 1911 - 1919* - Oxford At The Clarendon press



INTERNET RESOURCES

- <https://www.britannica.com>
- <https://www.ducksters.com/>
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Permanent_Settlement
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ryotwari>
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mahalwari>

Unit - 4

People's Revolt


 Learning Objectives

- ▶ To know the Palayakkarar (Poligar) system in Tamil Nadu
- ▶ To understand the role of PuliThevar and Kattabomman in the anti-British uprising
- ▶ To know about the South Indian Rebellion
- ▶ To know the causes and effects of Vellore Mutiny
- ▶ To understand the causes and impacts of Revolt of 1857



Introduction

The establishment of political and economic dominance by the British over many parts of India after the Battle of Plassey, 1757 disrupted the political, social and economic order of the country. This led to the divesting many landlords and chieftains of their power and estates. Naturally, many of them revolted against the British. The English assumed the right of collecting the annual tribute from the Palayakkarar. The first resistance to the British was offered by the Puli Thevar. Since then there had been rebellions by Palayakkarar such as the Veerapandiya Kattabomman, Oomathurai, Marudu brothers and Dheeran Chinnamalai.

Origin of Palayam

The Vijayanagar rulers appointed Nayaks in their provinces. The Nayak of Madurai in turn appointed Palayakkarar. Viswanatha became the Nayak of Madurai in 1529. He noticed that he could not control the chieftain who wanted more powers in their provinces.

So with the consultation of his minister Ariyanatha Mudaliyar, Viswanatha instituted Palayakkarar system in 1529. The whole country was divided into 72 Palayams and each one was put under a Palayakkarar. Palayakkarar was the holder of a territory or a Palayam. These Palayams were held in military tenure and extended their full co-operation to be need of the Nayaks. The Palayakkarars collected taxes, of which one third was given to the Nayak of Madurai another one third for the expenditure of the army and rest was kept for themselves.

Early revolts of South India

Revolt of the Palayakkarars

During the 17th and 18th centuries the Palayakkarars played a vital role in the politics of Tamil Nadu. They regarded themselves as independent. Among the Palayakkarars, there were two blocs, namely the Eastern and the Western blocs. The Eastern Palayams were the Nayaks ruled under the control of Kattabomman and the Western palayams



were the Maravas ruled under the control of Puli Thevar. These two palayakkarars refused to pay the kist (tribute) to the English and rebelled.

The early struggle between the Palayakkaras and the East India Company had a strong political dimension. By the Carnatic treaty of 1792, consolidated the English power over the Palayakkars. The English got the right to collect taxes. The result was the outbreak of the revolt of Palayakkars.

Puli Thevar

Puli Thevar was the pioneer in Tamil Nadu, to protest against the English rule in India. He was the Palayakkarar of the Nerkattumseval, near Tirunelveli. During his tenure he refused to pay the tribute neither to Mohammed Ali, the Nawab of Arcot nor to the English. Further he started opposing them. Hence, the forces of the Nawab of Arcot and the English attacked Puli Thevar. But the combined forces were

defeated by Puli Thevar at Tirunelveli. Puli Thevar was the first Indian king to have fought and defeated the British in India. After this victory Puli Thevar attempted to form a league of the Palayakkars to oppose the British and the Nawab.

In 1759, Nerkattumseval was attacked by the forces of Nawab of Arcot under the leadership of Yusuf Khan. Puli Thevar was defeated at Anthanallur and the Nawabs forces captured Nerkattumseval in 1761. Puli Thevar who lived in exile recaptured Nerkattumseval in 1764. Later, he was defeated by Captain Campbell in 1767. Puli Thevar escaped and died in exile without fulfilling his purpose, although his courageous trail of a struggle for independence in the history of South India.

Virapandya Kattabomman

The Ancestors of Kattabomman belonged to Andhra. They migrated to Tamil country during the 11th century. As a feudatory under Pandyas, Jagaveerapandiaya Kattabomman ruled Virapandyapuram. Panchalankurichi was its capital. He later became a Poligar during the rule of Nayaks. He was succeeded by his son Veerapandya Kattabomman. His wife was Jakkammal and his brothers were Oomathurai and Sevathaiah.



Virapandya Kattabomman

Nawab of Arot

After the decline of the Vijayanagar empire, the mughals established their supremacy in the south. The Nawabs acted as their representatives in Karnataka. Panchalamkuruchi palayam was acted as an ally to the Nawab of Arcot. Hence it paid tribute to the Nawabs. But in 1792, the political condition had completely changed. Based on the Carnatic treaty of 1792, the company gained the right to collect taxes from Panchalamkuruchi. The collection of tribute was the main cause for the rivalry between the English and Kattabomman.

Kattabomman met Jackson

In 1798, Colin Jackson, the collector of Ramanathapuram wrote letters to Kattabomman asking him to pay the tribute arrears. But Kattabomman replied that he was not in



a position to remit the tribute due to the famine in the country. Colin Jackson got angry and decided to send an expedition to punish Kattabomman. However, the Madras government directed the collector to summon the Palayakkarar at Ramanathapuram and hold a discussion.

In 1798, Kattabomman and his minister Siva Subramaniam met the Collector at Ramanathapuram. Upon a verification of accounts, Colin Jackson was convinced that Kattabomman had cleared most of the arrears leaving only 1080 pagodas as balance. During this interview Kattabomman and his Minister, Sivasubramaniam, had to stand before the arrogant collector for three hours. The Collector insulted them and tried to arrest Kattabomman and his minister. Kattabomman tried to escape with his minister. Oomathurai suddenly entered the fort with his men and helped the escape of Kattabomman. But unfortunately Sivasubramaniam was taken as prisoner.

Edward Clive and Kattabomman

After his return to Panchalamkuruchi, Kattabomman wrote a letter to the Madras Council narrating the behaviour of the Collector Colin Jackson. Edward Clive, the Governor of Madras Council ordered Kattabomman to surrender. The Madras Council directed Kattabomman to appear before a Committee. Meanwhile, Edward Clive dismissed the Collector for his misbehaviour and released SivaSubramania. Kattabomman appeared before the Committee, and found Kattabomman was not guilty. S.R. Lushington was appointed collector in the place of Colin Jackson, who was eventually dismissed from service.

The confederacy of Palayakkarars

During that time, Marudu Pandyan of Sivaganga formed the South Indian Confederacy of rebels against the British, along with the neighbouring Palayakkarars. This confederacy declared a proclamation which came to be known as Tiruchirappalli Proclamation. Kattabomman was interested in this confederacy. He tried to establish his influence over Sivagiri, who refused to join with alliance of the rebels. Kattabomman advanced towards Sivagiri. But the Palayakkar of Sivagiri was a tributary to the Company. So the Company considered the expedition of Kattabomman as a challenge to their authority. So the Company ordered the army to march to Panchalamkuruchi.

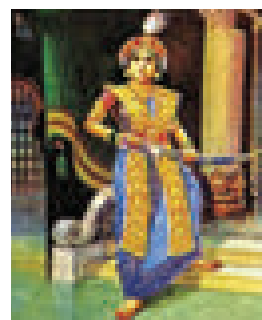
Fall of Panchalamkuruchi

Major Bannerman moved his army to Panchalamkuruchi on 5th September. They cut off all the communications to the Fort. In a clash at Kallarpatti, Siva Subramaniam was taken as a prisoner. Kattabomman escaped to Pudukottai. Vijaya Ragunatha Tondaiman, Raja of Pudukottai, captured Kattabomman from the jungles of Kalapore and handed over to the Company. After the fall of Panchalamkuruchi, Bannerman brought the prisoners to an assembly of the Palayakkarars and after trial sentenced them to death. Sivasubramania was executed at Nagalapuram. On the 16th October Vira Pandya Kattabomman was tried before an assembly of Palayakkarar, summoned at Kayathar. On 17th October 1799, Kattabomman was hanged at Kayathar. Kattabomman's heroic deeds were the subject of many folk ballads which kept his memory alive among the people.

Velu Nachiyar

Velu Nachiyar was a queen of Sivagangai. At the age of 16, she was married to Muthu Vaduganathar, the Raja of Sivagangai. In 1772, the Nawab of Arcot and the British troops invaded Sivagangai. They killed Muthu Vaduganathar in Kalaiyar Koil battle. Velu Nachiyar escaped with her daughter Vellachi Nachiyar and lived under the protection of Gopala Nayaker at Virupachi

near Dindigul. During this period she organised an army and employed her intelligent agents to find where the British stored their ammunition. She arranged a suicide attack by a faithful follower Kuyili, a commander of Velu Nachiyar. She recaptured Sivagangai and was again crowned as queen with the help of Marudu brothers. She was the first queen to fight against the British colonial power in India. She is known by Tamils as Veeramangai and also known as 'Jhansi Rani of South India'.



Velu Nachiyar

Marudu Brothers

Marudu brothers were the sons of Mookiah Palaniappan and Ponnathal. The elder brother was called Periya Marudu (Vella Marudu) and the younger brother Chinna Marudu. Chinna Marudu was more popular and was called Marudu Pandiyan. Chinna Marudu served under Muthu Vaduganatha Peria Udaya Devar (1750-1772) of Sivaganga. In 1772 the Nawab of Arcot laid siege of Sivaganga and captured it. Muthu Vaduganatha Peria Udaya Devar, died in battle. However after a few months Sivaganga was re-captured by Marudu Brothers and Periya Marudu was enthroned as the ruler. Chinna Marudu acted as his adviser. Due to the terrorist activities against British, he was called as "Lion of Sivaganga". In the later half of the eighteenth century the rebellion against the British was carried by Marudu Brothers in South India.



Marudu Brothers

Causes for the conflict

Kattabomman was hanged to death and his brother Umaithurai and others fled to Sivaganga, where Marudu Pandya gave protection to them. The merchants of

Sivaganga did not like the interference of the company in their internal politics. The company waged war against Sivaganga for these two causes.

The South Indian Rebellion (1800-1801)

In February 1801 the brothers of Kattabomman, Oomathurai and Sevathaiah escaped from Palayamkottai prison and reached Kamudhi. Chinna Marudu took them to Siruvayal, his capital. They reconstructed their ancestral fort at Panchalamkuruchi. The British troops under Colin Macaulay retook the fort in April and the Palayakkarar brothers sought shelter in Sivaganga. The English demanded Marudu Pandyas to hand over the fugitives, the latter refused. Col. Agnew and Colonel Innes marched against them.

The Palayakkarar War assumed a much broader character than its predecessor. It was directed by a confederacy consisting of Marudu Pandiar of Sivaganga, Gopala Nayak of Dindigul, Kerala Varma of Malabar and Krishnappa Nayak and Dhoondaji of Mysore. The English declared war against the confederacy.

The Tiruchirappalli Proclamation (1801)

The Marudu Pandyas issued a proclamation of Independence called Tiruchirappalli Proclamation in June 1801. The Proclamation of 1801 was the first call to the Indians to unite against the British. A copy of the proclamation was pasted on the walls of the Nawab's palace in the fort of Tiruchi and another copy was placed on the walls of the Vaishnava temple at Srirangam. Thus Marudu brothers spread the spirit of opposition against the English everywhere. As a result many Palayakkarars of Tamil Nadu went on a rally to fight against the English. Chinna Marudu collected nearly 20,000 men to challenge the English army. British reinforcements were rushed from Bengal, Ceylon and Malaya (Malaysia). The rajas of Pudukkottai, Ettayapuram and Thanjavur stood by the British. Divide and rule policy followed by the English spilt the forces of the Palayakkarars.

English annexed Sivagangai

In May 1801, English attacked the rebels in Thanjavur and Tiruchi areas. The rebels went to Piranmalai and Kalayarkoil. They were again defeated by the forces of the English. In the end, the superior military strength and the able commanders of the British army won the battle. The rebellion failed and English annexed Sivagangai in 1801. The Marudu brothers were executed in the Fort of Tirupathur in Ramanathapuram District on 24 October 1801. Oomathurai and Sevathaiah was captured and beheaded at Panchalamkuruchi on 16 November 1801. Seventy three rebels were sentenced to Penang in Malaya, then called the Prince of Wales Island. Though they fell before the English, they were the pioneers in sowing the seeds of nationalism in the land of Tamil.

Thus the South Indian Rebellion is a landmark in the history of Tamil Nadu. Although the 1800-1801 rebellion was to be categorized in the British records as the Second Palayakkarar War. Under the terms of the Karnataka Treaty on 31 July 1801, the British assumed direct control over Tamil Nadu. The Palayakkarar system was abolished.

Dheeran Chinnamalai

Dheeran Chinnamalai was born at Melapalayam in Chennimalai near Erode. His original name was Theerthagiri. He was a palayakkarar of Kongu country who fought the British East India Company. The Kongu country comprising Salem, Coimbatore, Karur and Dindigul formed a part of the Nayak kingdom of Madurai but had been annexed by the Wodayars of Mysore. After the fall of the Wodayars, these territories along with Mysore were controlled by the Mysore Sultans. After the third and fourth Mysore wars the entire Kongu region passed into the hands of the English.

Dheeran Chinnamalai was trained by French military in modern warfare. He was along the side Tipu Sultan to fight against the British East India Company and got victories against the British. After Tipu Sultan's death Chinnamalai settled down at Odanilai and constructed a fort

there to continue his struggle against the British. He sought the help of Marathas and Maruthu Pandiyar to attack the British at Coimbatore in 1800. British forces managed to stop the armies of the allies and hence Chinnamalai was forced to attack Coimbatore on his own. His army was defeated and he escaped from the British forces. Chinnamalai engaged in guerrilla warfare and defeated the British in battles at Cauvery, Odanilai and Arachalur. During the final battle, Chinnamalai was betrayed by his cook Nallapan and was hanged in Sankagiri Fort in 1805.

Vellore Revolt (1806)

The family members of Tipu were imprisoned at Vellore fort after the fourth Mysore war. Some three thousand ex-servants and soldiers of Hyder and Tipu had also been moved to the vicinity of Vellore and their property in Mysore confiscated. It was quite natural that they were all unhappy and they hated the English.



Vellore Fort

The Vellore fort consisted of large majority of Indian troops, a good part of it recently been raised in Tirunelveli after the Palayakarar uprising of 1800. Many of the trained soldiers of the various Palayams were admitted into the English army. Thus the Vellore fort became the meeting ground of the rebel forces of South India.

In 1803, William Cavendish Bentinck became Governor of Madras. During his period certain military regulations were introduced in 1805-06 and were enforced by the Madras Commander-in-Chief Sir John Cradock. But the sepoy felt that these were designed to insult them.

Causes for the revolt

- The strict discipline, new weapons, new methods and uniforms were all new to the sepoys.
- The sepoys were asked to shave the beard and to trim the moustache.
- The wearing of religious mark on the forehead and the use of ear-rings were also banned.
- The English treated the Indian sepoys as their inferior. There was the racial prejudice.

Immediate Cause

In June 1806, military General Agnew introduced a new turban, resembling a European hat with a badge of cross on it. It was popularly known as 'Agnew's turban'. Both the Hindu and Muslim soldiers opposed it. So the soldiers were severely punished by the English.

Course of the Revolt

The Indian soldiers were waiting for an opportunity to attack the English officers. Tipu's family also took part. Fettah Hyder, the elder son of Tipu, tried to form an alliance against the English. On July 10th in the early morning the native sepoys of the 1st and 23rd Regiments started the revolt. Colonel Fancourt, who commanded the garrison, was their first victim. The fort gates were closed. Meantime, the rebels proclaimed Futteh Hyder, as their new ruler. The British flag in the fort was brought down. The tiger-striped flag of Tipu Sultan was hoisted on the fort of Vellore.

Suppression of the Revolt

Major Cootes who was outside the fort rushed to Ranipet and informed Colonel Gillespie. Col. Gillespie reached Vellore fort. He made an attack on the rebel force. The revolt was completely suppressed and failed. Peace was restored in Vellore. On the whole, 113 Europeans and about 350 sepoys were killed in the uprising. The revolt was suppressed within a short period. It was one of the significant events in the history of Tamil Nadu.

Effects of the Vellore Revolt

- The new methods and uniform regulations were withdrawn.
- The family of Tipu as a precautionary measure was sent to Calcutta.
- William Cavendish Bentinck was removed from his service.

Causes for the failure of the Revolt

- There was no proper leadership to guide the soldiers properly.
- The rebellion was also not well organised.
- Divide and Rule policy of the English, split the unity of the Indians.

V.D. Savarkar calls the Vellore revolt of 1806 as the prelude to the first War of Indian Independence in 1857.

The Revolt of 1857

The early uprisings did not succeed in threatening the British in India. It took the Revolt of 1857 to bring home to the Company and the British thought that their rule was not accepted to a large section of the population. The Revolt of 1857 was a product of the character and the policies of colonial rule. The cumulative effect of British expansionist policies, economic exploitation and administrative innovations over the years had adversely affected the positions of all rulers of Indian states.



Causes of the Revolt

- The most important cause of revolt 1857 was a popular discontent of the British policy of economically exploiting India. This hurt all sections of society. The peasants suffered due to high revenue demands and the strict revenue collection policy.
- Policies of doctrine of lapse, subsidiary alliance and policy of Effective Control created discontentment among people. Annexation of Awadh (Oudh) proved that even the grovelling loyalty can't satisfy British greed for territories.

- The conversion activities of Christian missionaries were looked upon with suspicion and fear. The priests and the maulavis showed their discontent against the British rule.
- Abolition of practices like sati, female infanticide, support to widow remarriage and female education were seen by many as interference in their Indian culture by the Europeans.
- The Indian sepoys were looked upon as inferior beings and treated with contempt by their British officers. They were paid much less than the British soldiers. All avenues of the promotion were closed to them as all the higher army posts were reserved for the British.

Immediate cause

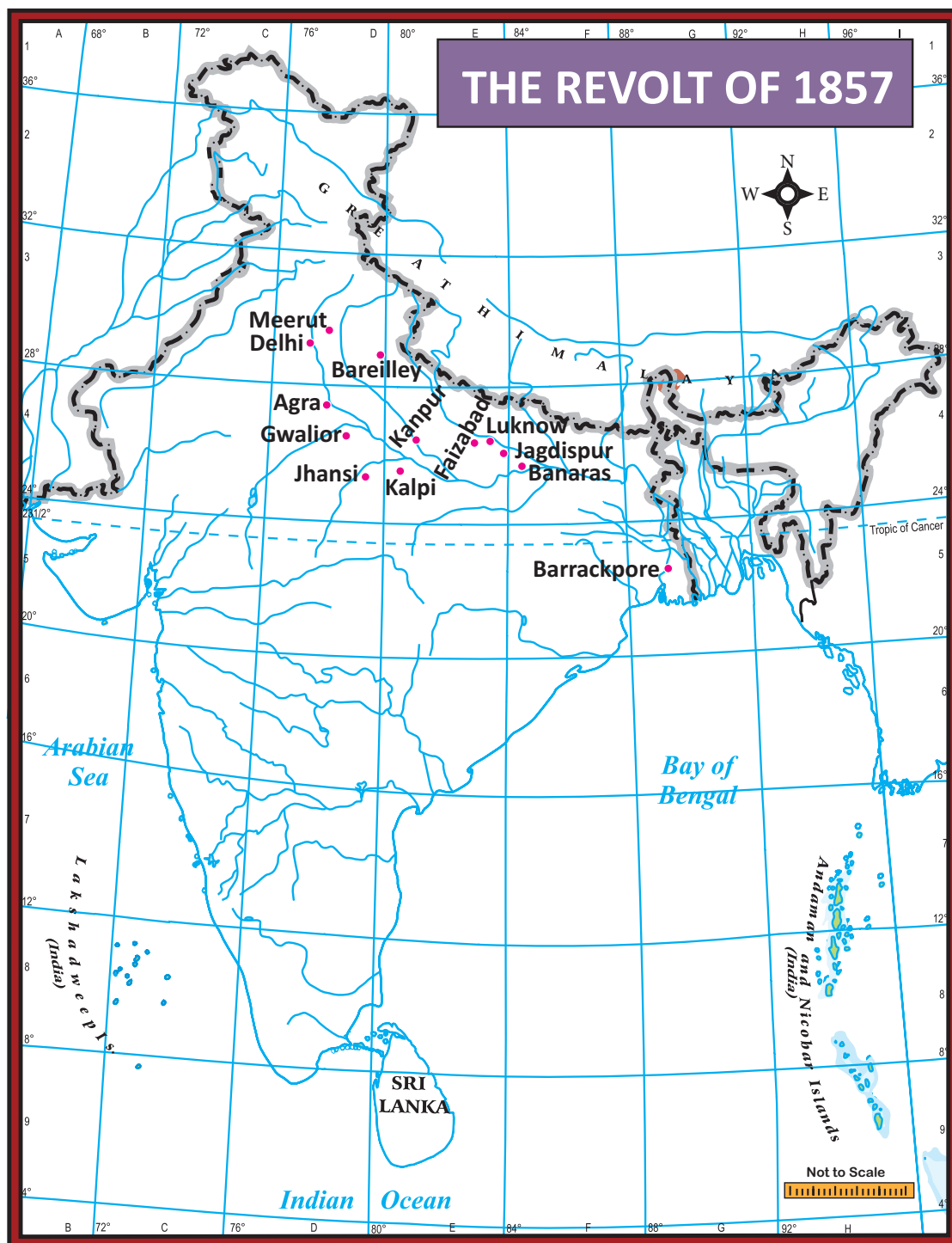
The immediate cause was the introduction of new Enfield Rifles in the army. The top of the cartridge of this rifle was to be removed by the mouth before loading it in the rifle. The cartridges were greased by the fat of pig and the cow. The Indian sepoys believed that the British were deliberately attempting to spoil the religion of both the Hindus and the Muslims because while the Hindus revered the cow, the Muslims hated the pig. The soldiers, therefore, determined to refuse their service and, ultimately revolted. Thus, the primary and the immediate cause of the revolt was the use of the greased cartridges.

The Outbreak of the Revolt

On 29 March 1857 at Barrackpur (near Kolkata) Mangal Pandey, a young Sepoy from Bengal Regiment, refused to use the greased cartridge, and shot down his sergeant. He was arrested, tried and executed. When this news spread many sepoys revolted.



Mangal Pandey



Course of the Revolt

On 10 May 1857, the Sepoys of the third cavalry at Meerut openly revolted by swarming the prisons and releasing their comrades. They were immediately joined by the men of the 11th and 20th Native Infantries, and they murdered some English officers and then marched to Delhi. The arrival of Meerut sepoys at Delhi on 11th May and declared of Bahadur Shah II as the Emperor of India.

Delhi became the centre of the Great Revolt and Bahadur Shah, its symbol.

The revolt spread quickly. There were mutinies at Lucknow, Kanpur, Jhansi, Bareilly, Bihar, Faizabad, and many other places in north India. Many of them found that it was a good opportunity to burn the papers of their landlords. Many others whose titles and pensions were abolished by the British who participated in it, in order to take revenge.



In Central India the revolt was guided by Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi. She was one of the greatest patriots of India. Sir Hugh Rose occupied Jhansi. Rani Lakshmi Bai fled from Jhansi and joined hands with Tantia Tope who had assumed the leadership of the rebel army at Gwalior. But the British captured Gwalior in June 1858. Rani was killed in the battle. Tantia Tope fled away but was captured and later executed. According to the British historians, present at the time of revolt, Rani Lakshmi Bai was the best and the bravest among the leaders of the Revolt of 1857.

Suppression of the Revolt

Lord Canning, the governor-general took immediate steps to suppress the revolt. He collected the forces of Madras, Bombay, Sri Lanka and Burma. On his own initiative, he called the British army which was deputed to China by Britain to Calcutta. He ordered the loyal Sikh army to proceed to Delhi immediately. The British regained their lost positions very soon.

Delhi was recaptured by General John Nicholson on 20 September, 1857 and deportation of Bahadur Shah II to Rangoon where he died in 1862. Military operations with the recovery of Kanpur were closely associated with the recovery of Lucknow. Sir Colin Campbell occupied Kanpur. Nana Saheb was defeated at Kanpur and escaped to Nepal. His close associate Tantia Tope escaped to central India, was captured and put to death while asleep. The Rani of Jhansi had died in the battle-field. Kunwar Singh, Khan Bahadur Khan were all dead, while the Begum of Awadh was compelled to hide in Nepal. The revolt was finally suppressed. By the end of 1859, British authority over India was fully re-established.

Places of Revolt	Indian Leaders	British Officials who suppressed the revolt
Delhi	Bahadur Shah II	John Nicholson
Lucknow	Begum Hazrat Mahal	Henry Lawrence
Kanpur	Nana Saheb	Sir Colin Campbell
Jhansi & Gwalior	Lakshmi Bai, Tantia Tope	General Hugh Rose
Bareilly	Khan Bahadur Khan	Sir Colin Campbell
Bihar	Kunwar Singh	William Taylor

The Causes for the Failure of the Revolt

Various causes were responsible for the failure of the revolt.

- Lack of organisation, discipline, common plan of action, centralised leadership, modern weapons and techniques.
- The rebel leaders were no match to the British Generals. Rani Lakshmi Bai, Tantia Tope and Nana Saheb were courageous but they were not good generals.
- Non-participation of Bengal, Bombay, Madras, western Punjab and Rajputana.
- The modern educated Indians did not support the Revolts as they believed that only British rule could reform Indian society and modernize it.
- The British managed to get the loyalty of the Sikhs, Afghans and the Gurkha regiments. The Gurkhas actually helped the British in suppressing the revolt.
- The British had better weapons, better generals, and good organisation.

Consequences of the Revolt

- The Revolt of 1857 marked a turning point in the history of India. It led to changes in the system of administration and the policy of the Government.
- The administration of India was transferred from the East India Company to the British Crown through the 'Queen's Proclamation' in 1858.

- The governor general was given the title of viceroy.
- The Board of Directors and the Board of Control were replaced by the Council of 15 members headed by the Secretary of State to supervise Indian affairs.
- The Indian Army was thoroughly reorganised. More Britishers were employed in the army.
- The British military policy came to be dominated by the idea of 'divide and counterpoise'.

Infact, the Revolt of 1857 played an important role in bringing the Indian people together and imparting them the consciousness of belonging to one country. The Revolt paved the way for the rise of the modern national movement. It was at the beginning of the twentieth century that the 1857 Revolt came to be interpreted as a "planned war of national independence", by the Historian V.D. Savarkar in his book, 'First War of Indian Independence'.

Recap

- The Vijayanager ruers appointed Nayaks in their provinces.
- The Nayak of Madurai in turn appointed Palayakkarar.
- The English got the right to collect taxes and the result was the outbreak of the revolt of Palayakkarars.
- The collection of tribute was the main cause for the rivalry between the English and Kattabomman.
- Marudu brothers were the sons of Mookiah Palaniappan and Ponnathal.
- Dheeran Chinnamalai was trained by French military in modern warfare.
- Tipu Sultan fought against the British East India Company.
- Rani Lakshmi Bai was the best and the bravest among the leaders of the Revolt of 1857.

GLOSSARY

Beheaded	hanged to death	தூக்கிலிடு
Betrayed	give away information about somebody	காட்டிக்கொடு
Cartridge	bullet	தோட்டா
Eventually	in the end	முடிவாக
Infantry	an army unit consisting of soldiers who fight on foot	காலாட்படை
Tribute	payment made periodically by one state	கப்பம்
Swarm	crowd	கூட்டம்



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

1. The Palayakkarar system was instituted in
 - a) 1519
 - b) 1520
 - c) 1529
 - d) 1530



2. Which of the following Palayakkarar of Tamil Nadu was the pioneer against the English rule
 - a) Puli Thevar
 - b) Yusuf Khan
 - c) Kattabomman
 - d) Marudu brothers
3. Colin Jackson was the collector of
 - a) Madurai
 - b) Tirunelveli
 - c) Ramanathapuram
 - d) Tuticorin

4. Veera Pandiya Kattabomman was hanged at
 - a) Panchalamkurichi b) Sivagangai
 - c) Tiruppathur d) Kayathar
5. Velu Nachiyar was a queen of
 - a) Nagalapuram b) Sivagiri
 - c) Sivagangai d) Virupachi
6. Tiruchirapalli proclamation was issued by
 - a) Marudu Pandiyars
 - b) Krishnappa Nayak
 - c) Velu Nachiyar
 - d) Dheeran Chinnamalai
7. Which of the following place was associated with Dheeran chinnamalai
 - a) Dindigul b) Nagalapuram
 - c) Pudukottai d) Odanilai
8. Rani Lakshmi Bai led the revolt at
 - a) Central India b) Kanpur
 - c) Delhi d) Bareilly

II Fill in the Blanks

1. The Eastern Palayms were ruled under the control of _____.
2. Vishwanatha Nayakar instituted the Palayakarar system with the consultation of his minister _____.
3. The ancestors of Kattabomman belonged to _____.
4. _____ was known by Tamils as Veera mangai and Jhansi Rani of south india.
5. _____ was called as 'lion' of sivagangai.
6. _____ was described the revolt of 1857 as First War of India Independence.

III Match the following

1.	Delhi	Kunwar singh
2.	Kanpur	Khan Bahudar Khan
3.	Jhansi	Nana Saheb
4.	Bareilly	Lakshmi Bai
5.	Bihar	Bahadur Shah II

IV State true or false

1. The Vijayanagar rulers appointed Nayaks in their provinces.
2. Sivasubramania was the minister of Marudu pandiyas.
3. Kattabomman was hanged on 17th October 1799.
4. Fettah Hyder was the elder son of Tipu Sultan.

V a) Consider the following statements and tick (✓) the appropriate answer

- i) The Vellore revolt was held in 1801.
 - ii) The family members of Tipu were imprisoned at Vellore fort after the fourth Mysore war.
 - iii) At the time of Vellore revolt, the Governor of Madras was Lord William Bentinck.
 - iv) The victory of revolt of Vellore against British was one of the significant event in the history of India.
- a) i & ii are Correct
 - b) ii & iv are Correct
 - c) ii & iii are correct
 - d) i, ii & iv are correct

b) Find out the wrong pair

- a) Marudu Pandiyar - Ettayapuram
- b) Gopala Nayak - Dindigul
- c) Kerala Varma - Malabar
- d) Dhoondaji - Mysore

c) Find out the odd one

- a) Kattabomman b) Oomaithurai
c) Sevathaiah d) Tipu Sultan

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. What do you know about the Palayakarars? Name some of them.
2. What was the part of Velu Nachiyar in the Palayakkarar revolt?
3. Who were the leaders of Palayakkarar confederacy in the south Indian rebellion?
4. What was the importance of Tiruchirappalli proclamation?
5. Bring out the effects of the Vellore revolt.
6. What was the immediate cause of the Revolt of 1857?

VII Answer the following in detail

1. What do you know about the Puli Thevar?
2. Explain the events that led to conflict between Dheeran Chinnamalai and the British.
3. What were the causes for the Great revolt of 1857?
4. What were the causes for the failure of the Revolt of 1857?

VIII HOTs

Prove that there was no common purpose among the leaders of the Great revolt of 1857.

IX Map skill

On the River map of India mark the following centres of the revolt of 1857.

- 1) Delhi
- 2) Lucknow
- 3) Meerut
- 4) Barrackpore
- 5) Jhansi
- 6) Gwalior
- 7) Kanpur

X Project and Activity

collect pictures of Palayakkarars and prepare an album.

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**INTERNET RESOURCES**

- <https://www.britannica.com>
- <https://www.ducksters.com/>
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vellore_mutiny
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Unit - 5

Educational Development in India


 Learning Objectives

- ▶ Know the ancient system of education in India
- ▶ Understand the development of education in medieval and modern India
- ▶ Analyse the educational development during the British Rule
- ▶ Discuss the importance of National Education Policy
- ▶ Understand the educational development in Tamil Nadu



Knowledge is the third eye of man.

Introduction

Education is a continuous process of acquiring and sharing of knowledge, skills and values. Education is recognised as the foundation of a progressive society. It plays a vital role in shaping responsible people. The world we live is constantly changing and developing. So, to meet the challenges and overcome the obstacles we need to be well educated and to know the role of the education in the human development process. Let us learn the development of education in India through the ages.

Education in Ancient India

The historical sources provide the information that from very early times, the tradition of teaching and learning had been in vogue in India. The concept of Education might have originated from the Vedas. The literal meaning



the Sanskrit word 'Veda' is knowledge and the word derived from the word Vid, which means 'to know'. Our ancient education system evolved over many centuries and focused on the holistic development of the individual by taking care of both the innate and latent capacities. It emphasised on values such as humility, truthfulness, discipline, self-reliance and respect for all creations.

Sources of Learning

You must have heard the names of Panini, Aryabhata, Katyayana and Patanjali. Their writings and the medical treatises of Charaka and Sushruta were also some of the sources of learning. Various disciplines such as history, logic, interpretation, architecture, polity, agriculture, trade, commerce, animal husbandry and archery were taught. Physical education too was an important curricular area and pupils participated in games and recreational activities. The Gurus and their students worked conscientiously together to become proficient in all aspects of learning.

In order to assess students' skills, literary debates were organised. Students at an advanced stage of learning guided younger students. A system of peer learning was also practiced, like you have group/peer work.

Ancient Education System in India: A Way of Life



Gurukula System

In ancient India, both formal and informal education existed. Indigenous education was imparted at home, in temples, patashalas, and gurukulas. There were people in homes, villages and temples who guided young children in imbibing pious ways of life. Temples played a vital role in imparting education and served the centres of learning. Students went to viharas and universities for higher studies. Teaching was oral and students remembered and meditated upon what was taught in the Gurukulas. Many of these Gurukulas were named after the sages. Situated in forests, in serene and peaceful surroundings, hundreds of students used to learn together in Gurukulas. During the early period education was imparted by the teacher (Guru/Acharya) to the pupils who gathered around him and came to live in his house as members of his family. This was known as Gurukula system of education.

During that period, the gurus and their shishyas (pupils) lived together helping each other in day-to-day life. The main objective was to have complete learning, leading a disciplined life and realising one's inner potential. Students lived away from their

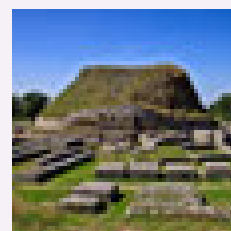
homes for years together till they achieved their goals. The gurukula was also the place where the relationship between the guru and student strengthened with time.

Many monasteries and viharas were set up for monks and nuns to meditate, debate and discuss with the learned for their quest for knowledge during this period. Around these viharas, other educational centres of higher learning developed, which attracted students from China, Korea, Tibet, Burma, Ceylon, Java, Nepal and other distant countries.

Viharas and Universities Buddhist Period



Taxila was an ancient Indian city, which is now in north-western Pakistan. It is an important archaeological site and the UNESCO declared it as a world heritage site in 1980. Its fame rested on the university where Chanakya is said to have composed his Arthashastra. Archaeologist Alexander Cunningham discovered its ruins in the mid-19th century.




The Jataka tales, accounts given by Hiuen Tsang and I-Tsing (Chinese scholars), and other sources tell us that kings and society took an active interest in promoting education. Through monasteries and Viharas Buddhist scholars carried out the educational work. As a result, many famous educational centres came into existence. Among the most notable universities that emerged during that period were situated at Taxila, Nalanda, Valabhi, Vikramshila, Odantapuri and Jagaddala. These universities developed in connection with the viharas. Those at Benaras and Kanchi developed in relation with temples and became centres of community life in the places where they were situated. These institutions catered to the needs of advanced level students. Such students joined


the centres of higher learning and developed their knowledge by mutual discussions and debates with renowned scholars. Not only that, there was also occasional summoning by a king to a gathering in which the scholars of the various viharas and universities would meet, debate and exchange their views.

Role of the Teacher

Teachers had complete autonomy in all aspects from selection of students to designing their syllabi. When the teacher was satisfied with the performance of the students, the course concluded. He would admit as many students as he liked and taught what his students were keen to learn. Debate and discussions were the primary methods of teaching. Teachers were assisted by their advanced level students.



The ancient Nalanda University was a centre of learning from the 5th century AD (CE) to 12th century AD (CE). Located in present-day Rajgir, Bihar. Nalanda was one of the oldest universities of the world and UNESCO declared the ruins of Nalanda Mahavihara a world heritage site. The new Nalanda University is envisaged as a centre of inter-civilisational dialogue.



Education in Medieval India

Medieval period witnessed a radical transformation with introduction of Muslim education in the Indian subcontinent. The country was invaded by various foreign rulers and several traders from different part of the world. The tradesmen and the invaders brought with them their own cultures and intermingled with the people of the country. Besides, religion, society and culture, education in medieval India also experienced a new perspective. The aim of education during Muslim period (medieval) was

the illumination and extension of knowledge. In the eleventh century, the Muslims rulers established elementary and secondary schools. Education developed with a fresh aspect during that period as there was an excellent interaction between Indian and Islamic traditions in all fields of knowledge like theology, religion, philosophy, fine arts, painting, architecture, mathematics, medicine and astronomy.

However before the arrival of the Muslims in India, a developed system of education was already in place. Muslim rulers promoted urban education by bestowing libraries and literary societies. They founded primary schools (*maktabs*) in which students learnt reading, writing, and basic Islamic prayers. And secondary schools (*madrasas*) were established to teach advanced language skills. Several *madrasas* were set up by the Sultans, and nobles. The main objective of these *madrasas* was to train and educate the scholars who would become eligible for the civil service. Iltutmish was the first ruler to establish a *madrasas* at Delhi during his rule. Gradually many *madrasas* came into existence.

The system of education in medieval India was under the control of Ulema. During those days, education was related to religious training. However, various subjects such as medicine, Arabic literature, grammar and philosophy were also taught. History states that Arab and Central Asian people brought Muslim educational models to India in both the medieval and early modern periods. Women education in India was prevalent during the medieval period.

Raja Jai Singh of Jaipur encouraged learning of scientific subjects. Besides, many institutions were started by private individuals as well. Madrasa of Ghaziuddin in Delhi, and the *madrasa* of Maulana Sadruddin at Shahjahanabad.

In the later medieval era, the British came to India and introduced English education. With the coming of the European missionaries, Western education made firm advances in the country. Various universities and thousands of colleges were formed and popularity of education increased.



The medieval period saw the founding of many religious mutt or monasteries which also took up the cause of education. The Ahobila mutt in Srirangam was one among them where Sri Ramanuja has made distinctive contribution to the cause of education. Besides mutts, Jain pallis and Buddhist vihars played a vital role in educating people where ever the existed. They had large libraries of books in all branches of learning.

Modern System of Education

The beginning of the modern system of Indian education can be traced to the efforts of the Christian missionaries who arrived in India in the wake of European occupation. As a result of their efforts, many institutions were established across India. These institutions imparted Western as well as Indian education.

Role of Christian Missionaries

Europeans came to India for trade and established trading companies. They acquired lands and constructed fortresses. Later they wanted to spread their culture and religion among Indians.



Francis Xavier

The Europeans thought that they could make Indians understand the administration and religious theories better if they could impart education to the local population in their own method. So they started educational institutions. The Portuguese were the first Europeans who started modern system of education in India. Francis Xavier, a Jesuit, started a university at Cochin. They started many primary schools. The first college offering degrees on a completion of a

course was started in Goa in 1575 where Christianity, logic, grammar and music were taught. John Kiernander was one of the most zealous pioneers and was perhaps the first missionary in India to introduce education for non-Christian children as an evangelistic agency. In 1812, Dr. C.S. John established 20 free reading schools in Tranquebar.

Followed by the Portuguese, the French opened their institutions for all the Indians where education was imparted



Ziegenbalg

by Indian teachers through local languages. They started higher secondary schools where French language was taught. Two German Bishops, named Ziegenbalg and Plustscham, started schools and a training college for teachers in Travancore. After the arrival of English East India Company in 1600 AD(CE), institutions were established for imparting instruction in English. Gradually Sanskrit colleges were opened in Madras and Benaras. The first Bishop of Calcutta, the Revered Dr. Middleton, started a missionary college at Calcutta, which became famous as the Bishop's College. Mountstuart Elphinstone was actually a strong advocate of vernacular education, but on his retirement in 1827, his admirers collected funds and established a college offering English classes, named the Elphinstone College at Bombay. Missionaries made a good deal of attempt for the propagation of education in India. Due to their efforts many institutions were established. These institutions imparted Western education as well as Indian education.

Education in the British Rule

History of education in British rule can be divided into four periods: (i) from the early days of the British rule up to 1813; (ii) period from 1813–1853; (iii) period from 1854–1920 and (iv) period from 1921–1947.

(i) From the early days of the British rule up to 1813

During its early days, the East India Company followed a policy of indifference and non-interference towards education as this sector did not form a part of its programme. The Company's charter was renewed in 1813, which compelled the Company to assume responsibility for the education of Indians, though on a very limited scale. Besides missionaries, non-missionaries like Raja Ram Mohan Roy of Bengal, Pachyappar of Madras, W. Frazer of Delhi contributed to the cause of education.



In 1813, the East India Company was compelled to assert the responsibility for the education of the Indians.

Charter of Act of 1813 made a provision for an annual grant of a sum of 1 lakh rupees for the promotion of education in India.

(ii) Period from 1813–1853

The second period was also marked by great educational controversies concerning the issues of educational policy, medium of instruction and method of spreading education. First, there were the orientalist who supported the preservation of Oriental learning and the use of Sanskrit and Persian as the media of instruction. They were opposed by the Anglicists who advocated dissemination of Western knowledge through English. A third section believed in the use of Indian languages as the media of instruction.

These controversies were partially set at rest by Macaulay's Minutes of 1835. Higher education was de-orientalised, encouraging English education for the upper classes. Each province was allowed to follow



Macaulay

its own education policy. But even then, the controversies continued till 1854.

(iii) Period from 1854–1920

The third phase of British-influenced education may be called the period of an All-India Educational Policy. It commenced with Sir Charles Wood's Despatch in 1854. Hunter Education commission started in 1882, gave emphasis to Primary Education.

The Wood's Despatch (1854) is called the 'Magna Carta' of English education in India because it was the first declaration of British education policy for educating the masses at all levels. But it resulted in the complete control on state education, divorcing it from Indian ideals and culture.

(iv) Period from 1921–1947

The fourth phase may be called the period of provincial autonomy. The Act of 1935 ushered a new era of educational advancement through the country. The new programmes were hit hard by the worldwide economic depression in 1929. The introduction of complete provincial autonomy by the Government of India Act of 1935 further strengthened the position of the provincial ministers of education. After the Second World War, a very important



Wardha Scheme of Education (1937)

In 1937, Gandhiji evolved a scheme popularly known as the Wardha Scheme of Basic National Education. The principle of non-violence was the basis of Gandhiji scheme of Basic Education. Through this scheme he wanted to develop those qualities in future citizens of India which he considered necessary for building a non-violent society. His system of Education wanted to root out exploitation and centralization in society and create a non-violent social order.

EDUCATIONAL CENTRES



plan for educational development, known as the Sergeant Report (1944) was prepared. This blueprint had a powerful influence on contemporary education, both in thought as well as in practice.

Educational Development of Independent India

The new epoch-making era in the history of education was ushered with the attainment of independence in 1947. It brought a new hope, a new vision, a new future for the Indians. In 1948, Dr. Radhakrishnan



Dr. Radhakrishnan

Commission was appointed to present a report on University education. In pursuance of the Commission's recommendations, University Grants Commission was constituted to determine the standard of higher education. One of the most important events that have taken place in the field of secondary education was the appointment of Secondary Education Commission in 1952–53. It suggested new organisational patterns, improvement in quality of textbooks, curriculum and methods of teachings. An education commission under the chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari was appointed by the Government of India in 1964. Free and compulsory primary education for all children up to the age of 14 years and uniform educational structure of 10+2+3 pattern were its main recommendations.

National Policy on Education

The first National Education Policy of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of



Education remained a state subject till December 1976. But now the education is in the concurrent list.

education in post-independent India. It aimed to promote national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture and to strengthen national integration. In 1986, the Government of India introduced a New Education Policy. The aim of New Education Policy was to transfer a static society into a vibrant one with a commitment to development and change. It emphasised on equal opportunities for marginalised sections of the country and the removal of disparity through scholarships, adult education and open universities, especially for rural India. The New Education Policy called for a child-centred approach in primary education and launched Operation Blackboard to improve primary schools nationwide.

The New Education Policy was revised again in 1992. It envisaged the formulation of a National Curriculum Framework, emphasis on in-service education, improvement of facilities and streamlining of the evaluation system at the secondary stage.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA)

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is the Government of India's flagship programme that was launched in 2000-01 to achieve Universal Elementary Education (UEE). SSA is now the primary vehicle for implementing the provisions of the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009) (RTE). Right To Education (RTE) provides for free and compulsory education to all the children from the age of 6 to 14 years. The SSA initiates a variety of innovation and activities related to schools. Some important activities include providing the Mid-Day Meals and stipends for students, the setting up of School Management Committees (SMCs) and provision of teaching-learning materials for classrooms.

Rastriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) is a centrally sponsored scheme for universalisation of access and improvement of quality education at the secondary stage,



which was implemented during Eleventh Five-Year Plan period. The goal of RMSA is to make secondary education qualitative, available, accessible and affordable to all young students in the age group 15–16 years. Science lab, libraries, in-service training for teachers, computer-aided education, co-curricular activities and teaching-learning aids are provided by the Government of India through RMSA scheme at the school level.

The Union Budget 2018–19 proposed to give school education holistically without segmentation from Pre-School to Class XII. Samagra Siksha, and to be prepared with the broaden goal of improving school effectiveness, measured in terms of equal opportunities and equable learning outcomes. It subsumes the schemes: SSA, and RMSA. In 2017, a committee was constituted by the Ministry of Human Resources Development to draft the National Education Policy. This committee submitted its report in 2019.

Educational Development in Tamil Nadu

The pattern of education in Tamil Nadu was not merely reading and understanding of books but listening to learned persons. The Thirukkural stresses the need for education and warns the dangers of illiteracy. In ancient times, the school was called 'Palli' and the teacher was a 'Kanakkayar'.

A significant development took place in the field of education during the Pallava period. Ghatika was an educational institution. The Pallava kings supported those educational institutions through endowments. The Vaishnava and Saiva mutts provided boarding and lodging facilities to all students and teachers.

Hiuen Tsang gives a graphic picture about Kanchi Buddhist centre and Kanchi, was considered as the main centre of learning.

The Chola period was the most brilliant and creative period in the Tamil literature. Tamil education enjoyed a greater connection with religion and temple. Free education was given to people. The curriculum and syllabi had a theoretical background. From the inscription of that period, we can now gain knowledge about the qualification of teacher, method of teaching, salary of teachers, food provided to the students and the land given to the schools etc. Rajaraja Chaturvedimangalam was the famous seat of a Vedic college (Ennayiram in Former South Arcot district). At Tirubuvanai (in Pondicherry) Vedic college flourished. The Tiruvidaikkalai inscription mentions a library. Tiruvaduthurai inscription of Virarajendra refers to a medical school.

The Pandya kings patronised Sanskrit in an exemplary way. It is revealed in the copper plates. The educational institutions of that period were called as Ghatigai, Salai and Vidhyasathana.

Lands were given to teachers. They were known as Salabhogam (e.g. Vallabha Perunchalai at Kanyakumari). The famous college during the Pandya regime was Kandhalur Salai. Mutts occupied a significant place in the promotion of education. Learning flourished under the Vijayanagar rule. Many educational institutions were established under their patronage. Thinnappalli Koodam was established during the Nayak rule.

Education in Modern period

Fernandez, who came to Madurai during the time of Veerappa Nayak, established a primary school. The Maratha ruler Sarfoji II collected the old records and kept them in the Saraswathi Mahal library, Tanjore. He also had a printing press with Devanagari type, located there.

Sir Thomas Munro the Governor of Madras Presidency (1820-27) was highly responsible for the introduction of Western education in



Sarfoji II



Sir Thomas Munro

Madras Presidency. He appointed a committee to conduct a statistical survey of the condition of education. The Education Commission of Munro recommended the creation of two principal schools (Collectorate and Tahsildare schools) in each district. In 1835 Lord William Bentinck passed a resolution favouring the introduction of western system of education in India. Wood's Despatch of 1854 introduced the Department of Public instruction in Madras Presidency. Grant-in-aid was given to all schools. The Madras University was founded in 1857. It was the first University in Tamil Nadu under the British rule. In 1882 the Local Boards Act was passed. The Board was empowered to open new schools and to get grants from the government. By 1938, all subjects except English were taught in Tamil in schools.

The Annamalai University was founded at Chidambaram in 1929. This was the next step in the development of higher education

Education since independence

Free education at the secondary school level was introduced in 1964 - 65.

The Gandhigram Rural College was established in 1975. Since 1971, Distance education has also been introduced in Tamilnadu to educate those who could not go to colleges.

In 1956, Midday Meal Programme was introduced in schools. Later, it was extended as Nutrition Meal Scheme in 1982 to avoid drop-outs in schools.

Since 1986 several changes have taken place to meet the changing dynamics of the society, in keeping with the National Policy of Education.



Recap

- Education is recognised as the foundation of a progressive society
- Indigenous education was imparted at home, in temples, patashalas and gurukulas
- Medieval period witnessed a radical transformation with the introduction of muslim education
- In the later medieval era the British came to India and introduced English education.
- The first National Education Policy of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of education in post – independent India.
- Free education at the secondary school level was introduced in 1964 -65

GLOSSARY

monasteries	a building in which monks live and worship	புத்த மடாலயங்கள்
illumination	lightning	ஒளியூட்டல்
madrassa	islamic religious institution	இஸ்லாமிய பாடசாலை
oriental	eastern	கீழ்த்திசைக்குரிய
Anglicists	specialist in English linguistics	ஆங்கிலசார்பு கோட்பாட்டுவாதிகள்
dissemination	dispersing	பரப்புதல்



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer



- The word 'Veda' is derived from _____.
a) Sanskrit b) Latin
c) Prakrit d) Pali
- Which of the following was an important centre for the learning in the ancient period?
a) Gurukula b) Viharas
c) Palli d) All of these
- Nalanda, the oldest university in India was located in
a) Uttar Pradesh b) Maharashtra
c) Bihar d) Punjab
- When did the UNESCO declare Takshashila as world heritage site?
a) 1970 b) 1975 c) 1980 d) 1985
- Which European country were the first to start Modern System of Education in India?
a) British b) Danish
c) French d) Portuguese
- Which of the following Charter Act made a provision for an annual grant one lakh Rupees for the promotion of Education in India?
a) Charter Act of 1813
b) Charter Act of 1833
c) Charter Act of 1853
d) Charter Act of 1858
- Which of the following Commission recommended to constitute the University Grants Commission?
a) Sergeant Report, 1944
b) Radhakrishnan Commission, 1948
c) Kothari Commission, 1964
d) National Education Policy, 1968

- In which year the New Education Policy was introduced in India?
a) 1992 b) 2009 c) 1986 d) 1968

II Fill in the blanks

- The word 'Veda' means _____.
- Taxila ruins were discovered by _____.
- _____ was the first ruler to establish a *madrasa* at Delhi.
- The New Education Policy was revised in _____.
- _____ is the primary vehicle for implementing the provisions of the Right to Education Act of (RTE) 2009.
- Mid-day meal program was introduced in schools in _____.

III Match the following

1. I - Tsing	-	Saraswathi mahal
2. Francis Xavier	-	Magnacarta of Indian Education
3. Wood's Despatch	-	Western Education in Madras
4. Sarafoji II	-	University at Kochin
5. Sir Thomas Munro	-	Chinese scholar

IV State True or False

- The writings of Charaka and Sushruta were the sources of learning of medicine.
- Temples were the centers of learning and played an active role in the promotion of knowledge.
- The Jataka tales tell us that the kings and society took an active interest in promoting education.
- Women education in India was not prevalent during the medieval period.
- The RMSA scheme was implemented during tenth Five Year Plan.

V Consider the following statements and tick (✓) the appropriate answer

- The Nalanda University was founded in fifth century C.E
 - In ancient India teachers had complete autonomy in all aspects from selection of students to designing their syllabi

- iii) In ancient times the teacher was called Kanakkayar.
- iv) The famous college during the Chola period was Kandhalur salai.
- a) i and ii are correct b) ii and iv are correct
- c) iii and iv are correct d) i, ii and iii are correct

2. Find out the Correct Pair

a)	Maktabs	-	Secondary School
b)	Macaulay's Minutes of 1835	-	English education
c)	Operation Blackboard	-	Secondary Education Commission
d)	Salabhogam	-	Lands were given to temples

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. Write about the importance of Gurukulas.
2. Name the most notable universities that evolved in ancient India.
3. Write a short note on Taxila.
4. Mention the education centres flourished in Cholas period.
5. Expand SSA and RMSA.
6. What do you know about RTE?

VII Answer the following in detail

1. What were the sources of education in ancient India?
2. Write a paragraph about the education under the British rule.
3. Describe the National Policy on Education.
4. Give a detailed account on education under Cholas.

VIII HOTS

1. How does the flagship programme of SSA achieve Universal Elementary Education?

IX Mark the following places on the outline map of India

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. Nalanda | 7. Lucknow |
| 2. Taxila | 8. Allahabad |
| 3. Valabhi | 9. Cochin |
| 4. Kanchi | 10. Calcutta |
| 5. Vikramshila | 11. Madras |
| 6. Delhi | 12. Chidambaram |

X Project and Activity

1. Collect the pictures of ancient educational centres and prepare an album.
2. Find out the historic importance of Nalanda, Taxila and prepare a power point presentation on it.



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INTERNET RESOURCES

- www.ugc.ac.in
- samagra.mhrd.gov.in
- www.sarasvatimahal.in



ICT CORNER

Educational Development in India

- Step – 1** Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Step – 2** Type 'Education in India' in the search box
- Step – 3** Explore the Timeline Events with Pictorial Descriptions.

Web URL: <https://www.timetoast.com/categories>

*Pictures are indicatives only.

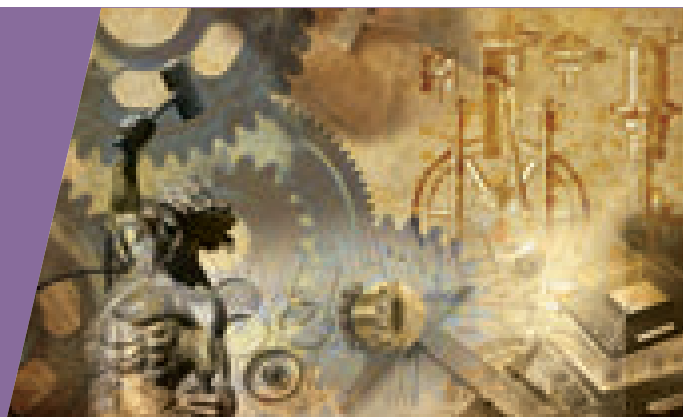
*If browser requires, allow Flash Player or Java Script to load the pag



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Unit - 6

Development of Industries in India



Learning Objectives

- ▶ Acquit with the traditional crafts of India.
- ▶ Analyse the causes for the decline of Indian industries.
- ▶ Understand the beginning of modern industries.
- ▶ Know the aim of five-year plans.
- ▶ Understand the phases of industrial development in India.



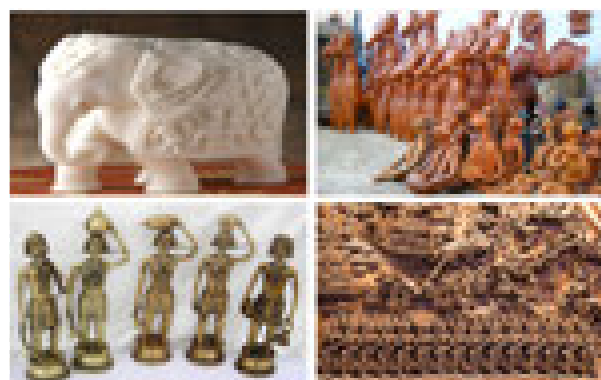
Introduction

The history of Indian industry perhaps dates back to the history of humankind. India's traditional economy was characterised by a blend of agriculture and handicrafts. According to Edward Baines, 'The birthplace of cotton manufacture is India where it probably flourished long before the dawn of authentic history.' Bernier, who visited India during the reign of Mughal emperor Shah Jahan, marvelled at the incredible quantity of manufactured goods. Tavernier, a French traveller, admired the peacock throne, carpets of silk and gold as well as mini carvings.

Traditional Crafts of India

The crafts in India has a rich history. Crafts were an integral part in the life of the people. Before arrival of mechanised industry, the production of Indian handicrafts was the second largest source of employment in rural India next to agriculture. The traditional Indian industry was known in the fields of textiles, woodwork, ivory, stone cutting, leather,

fragrance wood, metal work and jewellery. The village artisans such as potters, weavers, smiths produced articles and utensils for domestic use. But some specialised goods were produced for domestic and international markets. Some such specialised goods produced were cotton textiles, muslin, wool, silk and metal articles. India was famous for its fine quality of cotton and silk clothes. There are references made in many scholarly works to the professions of the weaver, the tailor and the dyer. Certain centres of metal industry were quite well known. For example, Saurashtra was known for bell metal, Vanga (Bengal) for tin industry and Dacca was identified with muslin clothes.



The muslin of Dacca

Mummies in Egyptian tombs dating from 2000 BC(BCE) were found wrapped in Indian muslins of the finest quality.

A 50metres of this thin fabric could be squeezed into a match box.

Decline of Indian Industries

a. Loss of Royal Patronage

The British conquest transformed Indian economy (self-reliant) into colonial economy.

As the British conquered the Indian territories one after another, the native rulers, the nobles and the landlords lost their power and prosperity. The demand for the fine articles to be displayed in durbars and other ceremonial occasions disappeared. As a result, the craftsman who were patronised by these rulers lost their importance and became poor. For generations, these craftsmen had been practicing their craft, and they did not possess any other skills. So they had to work as labourers in fields to meet their daily needs. This change resulted in increased pressure on agriculture and there was large-scale under-employment in agriculture. The substitution of commercial food crops in agriculture ruined the Indian agro-based industry. The splendid period of indigenous handicraft industries came to an end as the political influence of the East India Company spread over various parts of the country.

b. Transition from producer to exporter of raw materials

Indian handicrafts that had made the country famous, collapsed under the colonial rule. This was mainly due to the competition posed by the machine-made goods that were imported from Britain by the British rulers. The ruling British turned India as the producer of raw materials for their industries and markets for their finished products. Moreover, the railways and roadways introduced by the British facilitated the movement of finished products to reach the remotest parts of India and the procurement of raw materials from these parts.



Steam Engine

c. Competition of Machine-Made Goods

Textile was the oldest industry in India. The highly specialised skills of Indian weavers and the low production cost gave a tough competition to the European manufactures. It led to the invention of cottongin, flying shuttle, spinning jenny and steam engine in England, which made the production of textiles on large scale. India became the market for the finished products of Britain. As a result, peasants who had supplemented their income by part-time spinning and weaving had to now rely only on cultivation. So they lost their livelihood. Moreover, the Indian goods made with primitive techniques could not compete with industrial goods made in England.

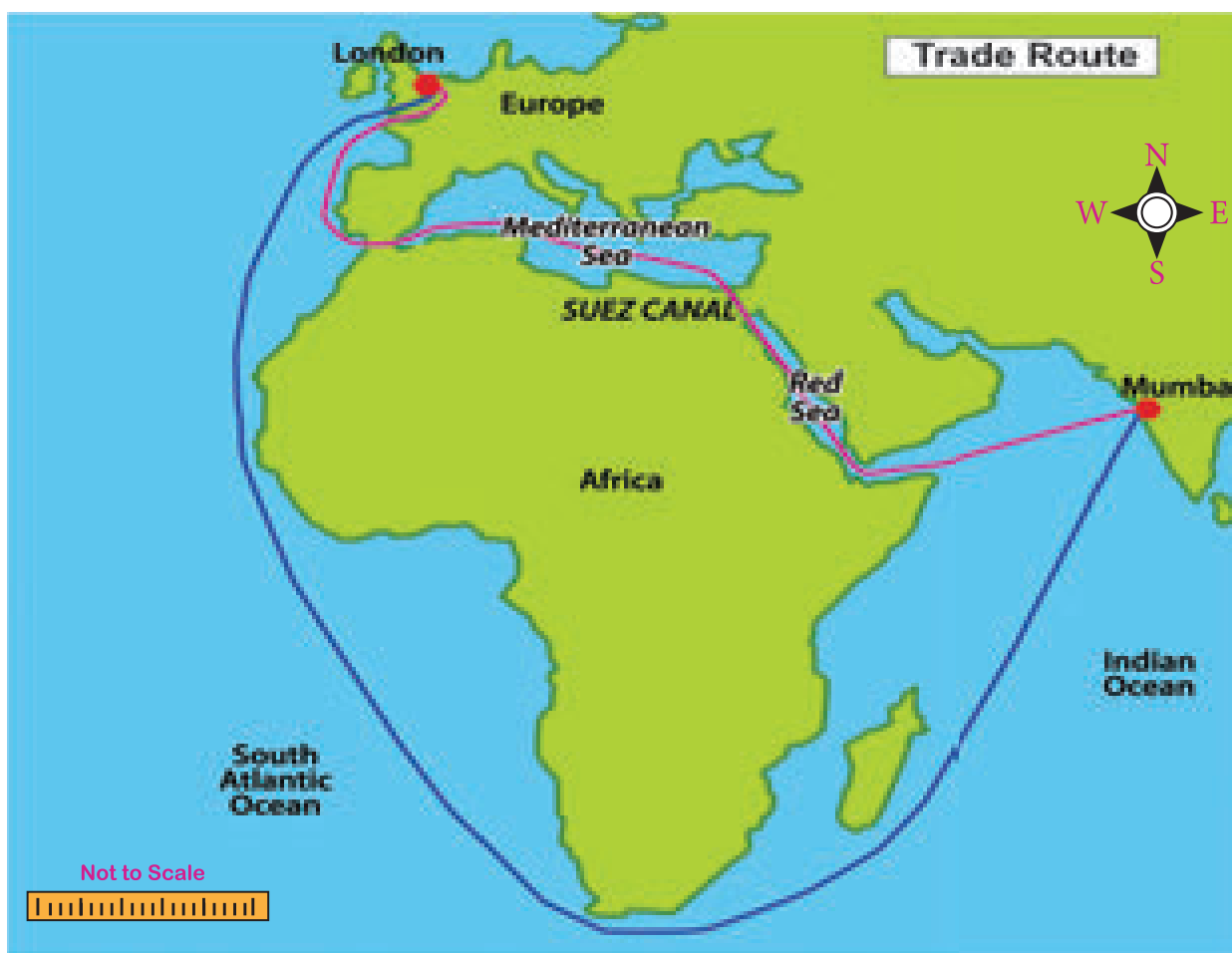


Textile industry

The Drain Theory of Dadabai Naoroji

Dadabai Naoroji was the first to acknowledge that the poverty of the Indian people was due to the British exploitation of India's resources and the drain of India's wealth to Britain.





d. Trading policy of the British

All the policies implemented by the British government in India had a deep impact on India's indigenous industries. Free trade policy followed by the East India Company compelled the Indian traders to sell their goods below the market prices. This forced many craftsmen to abandon their ancestral handicraft talents. East India Company's aim was to buy the maximum quantity of Indian manufactured goods at the cheapest price and sell them to other European countries for a huge profit. This affected the traditional Indian industry. The British followed the policy of protective tariffs that was much against the trading interests of India. Heavy duties were charged on Indian goods in Britain, but at the same time, the English goods entering India were charged only nominal duties.

e. De-Industrialisation

During the first half of 19th century western countries were experiencing industrialisation, India suffered a period of industrial decline.

The process of disruption of traditional Indian crafts and decline in national income has been referred to as de-industrialisation.

The Indian domestic industry could not have withstood foreign competition, which was backed by a powerful industrial organisation, big machinery, large-scale production. The difficulties in Indian industries was complicated further by the construction of Suez Canal, because of which transport cost was reduced, which made the British goods cheaper in India. The main cause for the decline of handicraft industry was the greater employment opportunities and income-generating effect of the modern factory.

Beginning of Modern Industries

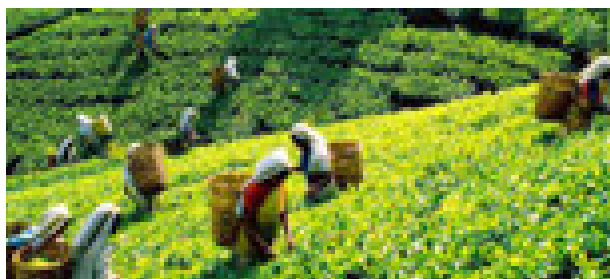
The process of industrialisation started in India from the mid-19th century. The beginning of modern industry is associated with the development in mainly plantations like jute, cotton and also steel. There was a limited development of mining, especially coal. The accelerated industrialisation began with the development of railways and roadways. This growth greatly influenced the economic and social life of people in the country. The two World Wars gave an impetus to the development of number of industries such as chemical, iron and steel, sugar, cement, glass and other consumer goods. Most mills were setup by wealthy Indian businessmen. Initially this development was confined to the setting up of cotton and jute textile mills.



a. Plantation Industries

The plantation industry was the first to attract the Europeans. The plantation industry could provide jobs on a large scale, and in reality, it could meet the increasing demands for tea, coffee and indigo by the British society. Therefore, plantation industry was started early on. The Assam Tea Company was founded in 1839. Coffee plantation also started simultaneously. As the tea plantation was the most important industry of Eastern India, coffee plantation became the centre of activities in South India. The third important plantation, which gave birth to factory, was jute. All these industries were controlled by the many former employees of the British East India Company.

b. Machine-based Industries



Tea plantation

In India, modern industrial sector in an organized form started with the establishment of cotton textile industry in Bombay in 1854. In 1855, jute industry was started in the Hooghly valley at Rishra near Calcutta. The first paper mill was started in Ballygunj near Calcutta in 1870. The cotton mills were dominated by Indian enterprises and the jute mills were owned by the British capitalists. Cotton mills were opened in Bombay and Ahmedabad, and jute mills proliferated on the Hooghly river banks. The woollen and leather factories became prominent in Kanpur.

c. Heavy Industries

The heavy industries included the iron and steel industry, Steel was first manufactured by modern methods at Kulti in 1874. Iron and steel industries began rooted in the Indian soil in the beginning of 20th century. However, the credit for the development of large-scale manufacture of steel in India goes to Jamshedji Tata. The Tata Iron and Steel Company (TISCO) was setup in 1907 at Jamshedpur. It started producing pig iron in 1911 and steel ingots in 1912.



TISCO - Jamshedpur

Growth of Modern Industries

The length of railways increased from 2,573 km in 1861 to 55,773 km in 1914. Opening of the Suez Canal also shortened the distance between Europe and India by about 4,830 km. This reduced distance facilitated further industrialisation of India. As a result of Swadeshi Movement, the cotton mills increased from 194 to 273 and jute mills from 36 to 64. The British had consolidated the power in India and thereby attracted large number of foreign

entrepreneurs and capital particularly from England. Foreign capitalists were attracted to Indian industry as it held the prospect of high profit. Labour was extremely cheap. Raw materials were cheaply available. India and its neighbours provided a ready market.

Confederation of Indian Industry (CII)



The Confederation of Indian Industry is a business association in India. CII is a non-government, not-for-profit, industry-led and industry-managed organisation. It was founded in 1985. It has over 9,000 members from the private as well as public sectors, including small and medium enterprises (SME) and multinational corporations (MNCs).

Industrial Growth in India

To realise the dream of development of industries, Indian Government adopted certain industrial policies and Five-Year Plans. One of the most important innovations in the industrial field after Independence has been the introduction of the Five-Year Plans and the direct participation in industry by the government as expressed in the Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948. This Resolution delineated the role of the state in the industrial development both as an entrepreneur and as an authority. As per the Industrial Policy Resolution 1956, industries were classified into three categories:

Schedule A: Only the Government can handle these industries. Some of these are atomic energy, electrical, iron and steel and others.

Schedule B: These comprise road and sea transportation, machine tools, aluminium, chemicals including plastics and fertilisers, ferro alloys and certain types of mining.

Schedule C: Under this category, the remaining industries are left to the private sector.

Classification of Industries

- On the basis of raw materials used, industries can be classified into agro-based and mineral-based. According to their role it can be classified into basic and key industries.
- On the basis of ownership it can be classified into public sector, private sector, joint sector and co-operative sector.

Phases of Industrial development in India

a. Industrial development during 1950s to 1965

During this phase, a majority of consumer goods were produced in India. The industrial sector was underdeveloped with weak infrastructure. Technical skills were in short supply. The first three Five-Year Plans were very important because their aim was to build a strong industrial base in independent India. These plans mostly focused on the development of capital goods sector. As a result, this phase witnessed a strong acceleration in the growth rate of production.

b. Industrial development during 1965–1980

As the first three Five-Year Plans mostly focused on the development of the capital goods sector, the consumer goods sector was neglected. The consumer goods sector is the backbone of rural economy. As the result, there was a fall in the growth rate of industrial production. So this period is marked as the period of structural retrogression.

c. Industrial Development during 1980s till 1991

The period of the 1980s can be considered as the period of the industrial recovery. This period witnessed quite a healthy industrial growth.

d. Industrial Development Post 1991 Reforms

The year 1991 ushered a new era of the economic liberalisation. India took major decision to improve the performance of the



industrial sector. The Tenth and Eleventh Five-Year Plans witnessed a high growth rate of industrial production. The abolition of industrial licensing, dismantling of price controls, dilution of reservation of small-scale industries and virtual abolition of monopoly law enabled Indian industry to flourish. The new policy welcomes foreign investments.

Modernisation

India has now a large variety of industries producing goods of varied nature, which shows a high degree of modernisation. Some modern industries have really grown and they are competing effectively with the outside world. This has reduced our dependence greatly on foreign experts and technologists. On the contrary, India is exporting trained personnel to relatively less developed countries.

The term information technology includes computer and communication technology along with software. Along with three-sector model of primary, secondary and tertiary industries, a fourth sector, information-related industries, has emerged. The knowledge economy depicts the automation of labour-intensive manufacturing and service activities as well as growth in new service industries such as health care, distance education, software production and multimedia entertainment.

Self-Reliance

Another positive aspect of industrial growth is the attainment of the goal of self-reliance. We have achieved self-reliance in machinery, plant and other equipment. Today, the bulk of the equipment required for industrial and infrastructural development is produced within the country.

The Indian road network has become one of the largest in the world. Government efforts led to the expansion of the network of National Highways, State highways and major district roads, which in turn has directly contributed to industrial growth.

As India needs power to drive its growth engine, it has triggered a noteworthy improvement of availability of energy. After almost seven decades of independence, India has emerged as the third largest producer of electricity in Asia.

Conclusion

Industrialisation is an important component of economic growth. India's industrial expansion over the plan period presents a mixed picture. Compared to the pre-independence level, industrial growth during the Five-Year plan periods is phenomenal.

Recap

- The history of Indian Industry dates back to the history of human kind.
- The crafts in India has a rich history.
- Indian handicrafts that had made the country famous, collapsed under the Colonial rule.
- The process of Industrialisation started in India from the mid of 19th Century.
- In India modern industrial sector in an organised form started with the establishment cotton textile Industry.
- Confederation of Indian Industry is a non-government, not-for-profit, industry-led and industry-managed Organisation.

GLOSSARY

incredible	unbelievable	நம்பமுடியாத
indigenous	native	உள்நாட்டு
acceleration	increasing the speed	விரைவுப்படுத்துதல்
swadeshi	produced with in this country	உள்நாட்டு உற்பத்திப்பொருள்
entrepreneur	businessman	தொழில் முனைவோர்
retrogression	to return to older	பின்னோக்கிச் செல்லுதல்



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

- Which of the following activities of the people will not come under handicraft?
 - Carving statues out of stone
 - Making bangles with glass
 - Weaving silk sarees
 - Smelting of iron
- The oldest industry in India was _____ industry.
 - Textile
 - Steel
 - Electrical
 - Fertilizers
- The woollen and leather factories became prominent in _____.
 - Bombay
 - Ahmadabad
 - Kanpur
 - Dacca
- What was the aim of first Three Five year Plans of India?
 - To control population growth
 - To reduce illiteracy rate
 - To built a strong industrial base
 - To empower the women
- What was not the reason for the decline of Indian Industries?
 - Loss of royal patronage
 - Competition of machine made goods
 - Industrial policy of India
 - Trading policy of British



II Fill in the blanks

- _____ was the integral part in the life of the people.
- Industrial revolution took place in _____.
- The Assam Tea Company was founded in _____.
- Jute industry was started in the Hoogly Valley at _____ near Calcutta.
- _____ shortened the distance between Europe and India.

III Match the following

- | | | |
|--------------------|---|------------------|
| 1. Tavernier | - | Drain Theory |
| 2. Dacca | - | Paper mill |
| 3. Dadabai Naoroji | - | Artisan |
| 4. Ballygunj | - | Muslin |
| 5. Smiths | - | French traveller |

IV State True or False

- India was famous for cotton and silk cloths.
- The railway was introduced in India by the British.
- Steel was first manufactured by modern methods at Jamshedpur.
- The industrial policy of 1948, brought mixed economy in industrial sector.
- The tenth and eleventh five year plans witnessed a high growth rate of Agricultural production.

V Consider the following the statements and tick (✓) the appropriate answer

- Which of the following statements are correct?
 - According to Edward Baines, 'The birth place of cotton manufacture is in England.'
 - Before mechanised industry handicrafts was the second largest source of employment in rural India.
 - Saurashtra was known for tin industry.
 - Construction of Suez Canal made the British goods cheaper in India.
 - i and ii are correct
 - ii and iv are correct
 - iii and iv are correct
 - i, ii and iii are correct

2. **Assertion (A):** Indian handicrafts collapsed under the colonial rule.

Reason (R): British made India as the producer of raw materials and markets for their finished products.

- a) A is correct R is correct explanation of A
 b) A is correct and R is not the correct explanation of A
 c) Both A and R is correct
 d) Both A and R is wrong
3. Which one of the following is wrongly matched?
- a) Bernier - Shajahan
 b) Cotton mill - Ahmadabad
 c) TISCO - Jamshedpur
 d) Economic Liberalisation - 1980

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. What are the traditional handicrafts industries of India?
2. Write about the drain theory.
3. Name the inventions which made the production of textiles on large scale.
4. Write a short note on Confederation of Indian Industry.
5. What is de-industrialisation?

VII Answer the following in detail

1. How was the trading policy of British caused for the decline of the Indian Industries?
2. Write in detail about the plantation industries.
3. Explain Industrial development after 1991 reforms.

VIII HOTs

1. How do handicraft products differ from machine made products?

IX Mark the following places on the outline map of India

- | | |
|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Bombay | 6. Ahmadabad |
| 2. Calcutta | 7. Kanpur |
| 3. Dacca | 8. Kulti |
| 4. Jamshedpur | 9. New Delhi |
| 5. Rishra | 10. Assam |

X Project and Activity

1. Name the industries in your state and divide them into Agro based metal based and forest based.
2. Prepare a project on air, water, and land pollution due to the industrial development in India.
3. Make a power point presentation on the industrial development of India and highlight the main features of those developments.



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INTERNET RESOURCES

- <http://www.suezcanal.gov.eg>
- <http://www.cii.in>

Unit - 7

Urban changes during the British period



Learning Objectives

- ▶ Understand the growth and development of towns in ancient and medieval - periods
- ▶ Analyse the nature and feature of urbanization under the British period
- ▶ Learn about the emergence of new urban centres such as Cantonments, hill stations and port cities
- ▶ Trace the origin and growth of Madras (Chennai)



Introduction

The evolution of towns (urban settlements) has occurred in different ways and in different stages. Towns flourished since pre-historic times in India. Towns in India can be classified into ancient towns, medieval towns and modern towns.

Ancient Towns

In ancient times, towns emerged in and around of residential places of kings and its location easily accessible to sea and rivers for trade. Most of them developed as administrative, religious and cultural centres. Harappa, Mohenjadaro, Varanasi, Allahabad and Madurai are well-known ancient towns.

Medieval towns

During medieval times most of the towns developed as headquarters of principalities and kingdoms. They functioned either fort city or port city. Important among them are Delhi, Hyderabad, Jaipur, Lucknow, Agra and Nagpur.

Modern towns

With the arrival of Europeans brought about new changes in the development of towns. They first developed some coastal towns such as Surat, Daman, Goa and Pondicherry. The British after consolidated their power in India developed three main cities - Mumbai, Chennai and Kolkatta as the administrative headquarters and trading centres. With the extension of domination they developed new towns, depending on its location, purpose and resources. The newly developed towns are known differently as hill towns, industrial towns, court towns, railway station towns, cantonments and administrative towns.

Unique features of urbanisation under the British

I. De-industrialisation

In the beginning of eighteenth century, the policies of the British proved harmful to the process of urbanisation. Later, the economic policies followed by the British led to the rapid transformation of India's economy into a colonial economy and development of cities.

With the help of one-way free trade predominance of British, Indian manufacturing industries were destroyed. The effect of this wholesale destruction of the Indian manufacturing industries, led to the ruin of the millions of artisans and craftsman. There was a sudden collapse of the urban handicrafts industry which had for centuries made India's name in the markets of the entire civilised world.

Towns and cities long famed for their specialized products gazed continually shrinking market. As a result, old populous manufacturing towns such as Dacca, Murshidabad, Surat and Lucknow lost their previous importance. The entire industrial structure crashed down under stiff competition of imported goods.

The traditional industrial base of Indian cities, made by the indigenous handicraft production was destroyed by Industrial revolution. The high import duties and other restrictions imposed on the import of Indian goods into Britain and Europe led to the decline of Indian industries. Thus, India became the agricultural colony of Britain.

II. De-urbanisation

The transformation of India's economy into a colonial one – a market for the manufactures and source for the supply of the raw materials to her industries hit hard the industrial and commercial base of a number of towns.

The gradual erosion of king's power led to the demise of towns associated with their rule. Agra once an imperial city in the first quarter of 19th century was surrounded by extensive ruins all around. The native rulers lost their kingdom to the British by means of various policies of the colonial power.

Another factor which contributed to the decline of the urban centres of the pre-British period was the introduction of the network of railroads in India since 1853. The introduction of the railways resulted in the diversion of trade routes and every railway station became a point of export of

raw materials. The railways enabled British manufactures to reach every nook and corner of the country and uprooted the traditional industries in the villages of the country.

III. The Growth of New Urban Centres

British developed new centres of trade like Calcutta, Madras and Bombay on the eastern and western coastal areas. Madras (1639) Bombay (1661) and Calcutta (1690), cities which the British largely created and fortified. All those were earlier fishing and weaving villages. Here they built their homes, shops and churches as well as their commercial and administrative headquarters.

From the mid-eighteenth century, there was a new phase of change. As the British gradually acquired political control after the Battle of Plassey in 1757, and the trade of English East India company expanded.

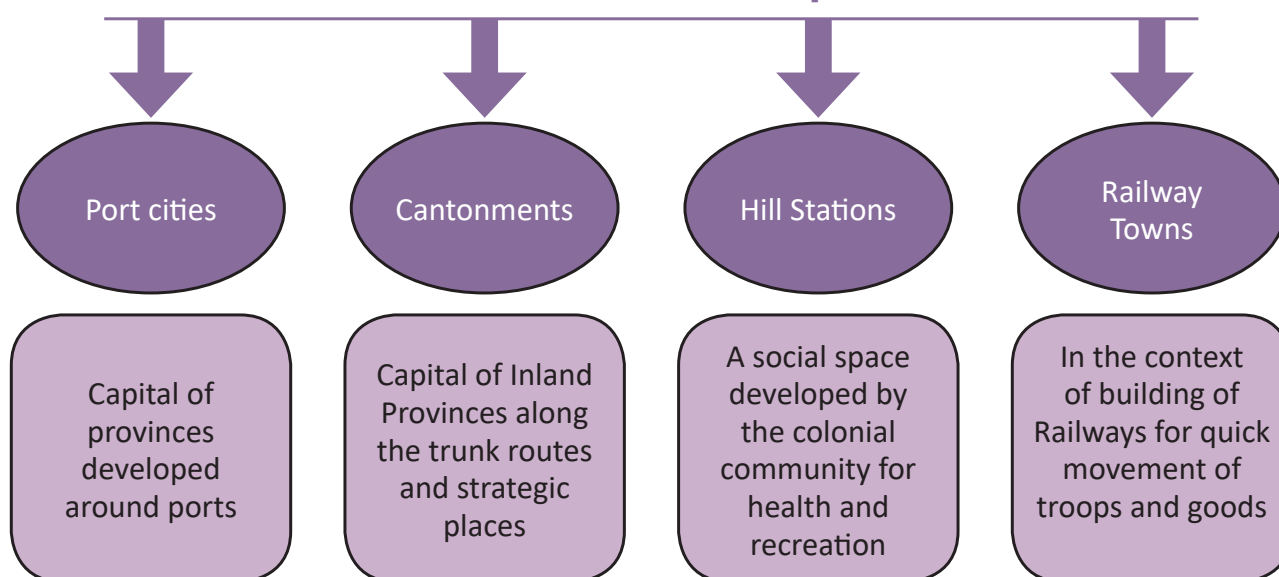
A new trend of urbanisation began in the latter half of the nineteenth century as a result of the opening of Suez Canal, introduction of steam navigation, construction of railways, canals, harbours, growth of factory industries, coal mining, tea plantation, banking, shipping and insurance. Changes in the networks of trade were reflected in the development of urban centres.

An urban area is one that has a high population density engaged in occupations other than food production, living in a highly built environment.

a. Port cities

The British arrived in India for trading. Madras, Calcutta and Bombay became the important ports. They played important role in trade. These cities became the prominent commercial areas with tall European – styled buildings. The English East India Company built its factories and fortified them for the protection for their settlement. Fort St. George in Madras and Fort William in Calcutta were the best examples.

Colonial Urban Development



Fort William in Calcutta

b. Cantonment towns

The British occupied the Indian territory and political power by their military force. So they needed strong military camps and established the cantonments. The cantonments were thus an entirely new kind of urban centres. Army people began to live in these places and gradually they were grown up a city. For e.g. Kanpur, Lahore.

c. Hill stations

Hill stations were distinctive features of colonial urban development. Although Hill stations were not unknown, prior to their founding by the British in India, they were few and had a small population and were often visited for specific purpose. For e.g. Srinagar was

a Mughal recreational centre, Kedarnath and Badrinath were Hindu religious Centres. The British coming from a cool temperate climate, found the Indian summer season inhospitable. So the cool climate of Indian hills was seen as protective and advantage. It protected the Europeans from hot weather and epidemics. So they built up the alternative capitals in cool areas, like Darjeeling was the alternative of Calcutta, Dehradun was the alternative of Delhi. Hill stations became strategic places for billeting troops, guarding frontiers and launching campaigns. Hill stations were developed both in North and South India, e.g. Simla, Nainital, Darjeeling, Ootacamund and Kodaikanal. Simla (Shimla) was founded during the Gurkha war (1814-16). Darjeeling was wrested from the rulers of Sikkim in 1835. These hill stations were also developed as Sanatoriums (places for soldiers for rest and recovery from illness). The introduction of railways made hill station more accessible.

d. Railway towns

Railway towns were also a type of urban settlements and were established in 1853 after the introduction of railways by the British. By the nature of railway transport, all the towns were located on the plains. Eg. Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkatta.

Creation of Municipalities and Corporation

The development of local government in the British India may be traced in three distinct phases.

a. First phase (1688-1882)

Municipal government in India has been in existence since 1688 with the formation of Madras Municipal Corporation with a Mayor. Sir Josiah Child, one of the Directors of the East India Company was responsible for the formation of the Corporation. The Charter Act of 1793, established Municipal administration in the three presidency towns. According to the provisions of the Act of 1850, municipalities were formed in North Western Frontier provinces, Oudh and Bombay. Lord Mayo's famous Resolution of 1870 intended to afford opportunities for the development of self-government.

b. Second phase (1882-1920)

Ripon's Resolution on local Self – Government was a landmark in the history of local self-government. So Ripon is rightly regarded as the Father of Local Self – Government in India and his Resolution as the Magna–Carta of Local Self-Government.

c. Third phase (1920-1950)

The Government of India Act of 1919 introduced Dyarchy in the provinces. The Government of India Act of 1935 introduced Provincial Autonomy. With the attainment of Independence in 1947 India had the unique opportunity of making and moulding local government to meet the needs of the free nation.

Administration of the Presidency Towns

Towards the close of eighteenth century, a Parliamentary statute authorized the Governor General to appoint justices of the peace in these towns. After various trials a system of government was evolved for the three presidency towns which had the

essential features like a large corporation with elected members, a strong independent executive authority with adequate safeguards for checking accounts and statutory provision for the performance of essential duties such as sanitation and water supply and collection of revenue etc.

Origin and Growth of Madras

The beginning of the city of Madras goes back to the earliest stages of British commercial enterprise in India. The English East India Company was started in 1600 A.D(C.E). Twelve years later, a Factory was set up at Surat on the West coast. Subsequently the search for textiles brought British merchants to have port on the east coast.

Presently Fort St. George is the power centre of Tamil Nadu State Government, extending across 172 sq. KM (66 sq. miles)

The English, after some efforts secured the privilege of building a factory at Masulipatnam. It was well protected from the monsoon winds. But then Masulipatnam was in the throes of a famine. In spite of every assurance of protection, English trade did not thrive at that place.

Then the English traders looked for a new site. Francis Day, the member of the Masulipatnam council and the chief of the Armagon Factory, made a voyage of exploration in 1637 with a view to choose a site for a new settlement. At last, he was given the offer to choose Madrasapatnam. Francis Day inspected the place and found it favourable to set up factory.

The official grant for the land was given by Damarla Venkatapathy Nayak, the deputy of the Raja of Chandragiri (12km west of Tirupathi). Damarla gave British a piece of land between Cooum river and the Egmore. In 1639 the deed was signed by English East India Company's Francis Day accompanied by his interpreter Beri Thimmappa and superior Andrew Cogan. By this Francis Day and



Fort St. George

Andrew Cogan (the chief of the Masulipatnam Factory), was granted permission to establish a factory – cum - trading post and a fort at Madrasapatnam in 1639. This fortified settlement came to be known as Fort St. George settlement. It is otherwise referred to as the White Town. While the nearby villages inhabited by local population was called as Black Town. Collectively the White Town and the Black Town were called Madras.

Madrasapatnam

Damarla Venkatapathy gave the English the grant of Madrasapatnam. He was under the control of Venkatapathy Rayalu, the Rajah of Chandragiri. Venkatapathy was succeeded by Srirangarayalu in 1642. He issued a new grant to English in 1645 called Srirangarayapatnam. Venkatapathy desired that the name Chennapatnam should be given to the new Fort and settlement of the English after his father Chennappa Nayak. But the English preferred to call the two united towns by the name of Madrasapatnam.

Making of Chennai

Chennai was once a group of villages set amidst palm fringed paddy fields until two English East India Company merchants visited there. Raja Mahal in Chandragiri palace, where Sir Francis Day of the East India Company was granted land in 1639 in order to set up factory which later came to be known as Madras. This first factory was completed on St. George's Day, 23 April 1640 and named Fort St. George. Day and Cogan

The first building to be seen on entering the Fort through the Sea Gate is the seat of the Government of Tamil Nadu. These impressive buildings built between 1694 and 1732 are said to be among the oldest surviving British Construction in India.

were jointly responsible for the construction of Fort St. George. This was the East India Company's principal settlement until 1774.

The Madras presidency was an administrative sub division which was referred to as the Madras province. The Madras presidency during the British regime covered a vast exopause of the southern part of India that encompasses modern day Tamil Nadu, the Lakshadweep Island, Northern Kerala, Rayalaseema, coastal Andhra, districts of Karnataka and various districts of southern Odisha.

Dalhousie Square in Calcutta and Fort St. George in Madras were close to the central commercial area and had massive buildings which were British variants of Roman styles.

After independence in 1947 the Madras presidency became the state of Madras and the other regions that were a part of the erstwhile presidency were constituted in separate states of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Mysore under the States Reorganisation Act, 1956. Later on in 1969 the State of Madras was rechristened as Tamil Nadu. On 17th July 1996, Madras was officially renamed as Chennai.

Bombay

Bombay was initially seven islands. It was under the control of the Portuguese from 1534 onwards. Portuguese king gave it as a dowry to Charles II of England when he married the former's sister in 1661. King leased it to the East India Company. The city of Bombay began to grow when the East India Company started using Bombay as its main port in Western India. In 1687, the English East India Company

Thus in course of time, administrative headquarters emerged as the most important towns and cities of the country. For example, by the beginning of 20th century, Calcutta, Bombay and Madras had become the leading administrative commercial and industrial cities of India. These cities became the central commercial area with buildings of European style. Sub urban railways, tram car and city buses gave the colonial cities a new look and status.

Recap

■ The evolution of urban settlements has occurred in different ways and in different stages.

- In ancient times towns emerged around king's palaces. During medieval times the towns functioned either fort city or port city.
- With the extension of domination British developed new towns depending on its location, purpose and resources.
- In the late 18th century Calcutta, Bombay and Madras rose as Presidency cities.
- Chennai was once a group of villages. Sir Francis Day of the East India Company was granted land in 1639 to setup factory which later came to be known as Chennai.
- On 17th July 1996, Madras was officially renamed as Chennai.

GLOSSARY

Cantonment	a military station in british India	இராணுவ முகாம்
Urbanisation	the process of making an area more urban	நகரமயமாதல்
Municipality	a town or district that has local government	நகராட்சி
Dyarchy	government by two independent authorities	இரட்டையாட்சி
Rechristened	give a new name to	பெயரிடப்பட்டது
Treasury	a place or building where treasure is stored	கருவூலம்



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

1. Ancient towns are
 - a) Harappa and Mohenjodaro
 - b) Delhi and Hyderabad
 - c) Bombay and Calcutta
 - d) None of the above
2. Coastal towns developed by the British were
 - a) Surat
 - b) Goa
 - c) Bombay
 - d) All of these



3. A new trend of urbanisation began in the latter half of 19th century as a result of
 - a) Opening of Suez Canal
 - b) Introduction of steam navigation
 - c) Construction of railways
 - d) All the above
4. The British arrived India
 - a) for trading
 - b) for preaching their religion
 - c) for working
 - d) for ruling

5. Fort St. George was constructed by the British in
 - a) Bombay
 - b) Cuddalore
 - c) Madras
 - d) Calcutta
6. Which of the following port was the East India Company's principal settlement until 1774?
 - a) Fort William
 - b) Fort St. David
 - c) Fort St. George
 - d) None of these

II Fill in the blanks

1. The network of railroads in India was introduced in _____.
2. _____ rightly regarded as the Father of Local Self - Government in India.
3. The Government of India Act of 1919 introduced _____ in the provinces.
4. _____ was responsible for the formation of the corporation.
5. Francis Day and Andrew Cogan got permission to establish a factory - cum trading post at madrasapatnam in _____.

III Match the following

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Bombay | Religious centres |
| 2. Cantonment towns | hill stations |
| 3. kedarnath | Ancient town |
| 4. Darjeeling | seven island |
| 5. Madurai | Kanpur |

IV State true or false

1. Towns flourished since pre-historic times in India.
2. British acquired political control after the Battle of Plassey.
3. Fort William is in Madras.
4. Army people began to live in cantonments.
5. Madras was officially renamed as Chennai in 1998.

V. Choose the correct statement

1. **Assertion:** India became the agricultural colony of Britain.

Reason: The one-way free trade policy followed by British and the Industrial revolution destroyed Indian indigenous industries.

- a) A is correct and R is Wrong
 - b) A is wrong and R is Correct
 - c) A is correct and R explains A
 - d) A is correct and R does not explain A
2. Which of the following statement(s) is/are not true?
 - i) Srirangarayalu gave the English the grant of Madrasapatnam.
 - ii) Day and Cogan were jointly responsible for the construction of Fort St. George.
 - iii) In 1969 the state of Madras was rechristened as Tamil Nadu.
 - a) i only
 - b) i and ii
 - c) ii and iii
 - d) iii only
 3. **Assertion (A):** British built up their alternative capitals in hilly areas.
Reason (R): They found the Indian summer inhospitable.
 - a) A is correct and R is Wrong
 - b) A is wrong and R is Correct
 - c) A is correct and R explains A
 - d) A is correct and R does not explain A

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. What is an urban area?
2. Hilly areas were distinctive features of colonial urban development. Why?
3. Name the three Presidency cities?
4. State any four reason for the new trend of urbanization in the 19th century.
5. Write short note on Cantonment towns.

6. What were the regions covered in the Madras presidency during British regime?

2. Mark port cities, cantonment towns, hill stations on the outline map of India. (any four places from each)

VII Answer the following in detail

1. Describe the colonial urban development.
2. Trace the origin and growth of Madras.
3. India became an agricultural colony of Britain. How?



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3. *Atlas of the Madras Presidency*, Central Survey Office, Madras, 1921.
4. *India*, Dorling Kindersely Limited, London, 2002.

VIII Project and Activity

1. Make an album – ‘Making of Chennai’ (from early period till now)



ICT CORNER

Urban changes during the British period

Through this activity you will visualize the historical atlas of the world



Step – 1 Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.

Step – 2 Click the play button in left side on the screen

Step – 3 Scroll down to explore the pictorial map with descriptions

Web URL: <https://www.zum.de/whkmla/region/india/xpresbengal.html>



*Pictures are indicatives only.

*If browser requires, allow Flash Player or Java Script to load the pag

Unit - 8

Status of Women in India through the ages



Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- ▶ The position of women in the ancient society
- ▶ Deterioration in the status of women in medieval period
- ▶ The major social evils prevalent in the Indian society
- ▶ The Role of Reformers in the social evils eradication
- ▶ Women emancipation through education
- ▶ Social Legislations and Empowerment



U6W5W5

Introduction

Generally human society is constantly changing with additions, assimilations and omissions from within and outside. Women constitute half of the population. This is imperative to have a historical understanding of the status of women through ages.

The position of women was not uniform in all periods, differed with regional variations. In ancient India particularly early Vedic period women, enjoyed equal rights. But with the passage of time their status in the society found deteriorated as a result of frequent foreign invasions. They were subjected to subjugation and subordination. New social practices, customs and systems which crept into the society in turn put limitations and restrictions on the liberty of women.

During the British Raj, many socio-religious reformers like Raja Rammohan Roy, Dayananda Saraswathi, Keshab Chandra

Sen, Iswara Chandra VidyaSagar, Pandita Ramabai, Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar, Jyoti rao phule, Periyar E.V.R, Dr. Dharmambal were the prominent leaders who fought for the upliftment of women. Raja Rammohan Roy's efforts led to the abolition of sati in 1829. Vidya sagar's crusade for the improvement in the condition of widows, led to the passing of Widow Remarriage Act in 1856. The reformers rightly realized that female education as an emancipating agent in eradicating social evils. So they started girls' schools in various parts of the country, which brought significant changes in the lives of women.

Women played an important part in Indian Freedom struggle. Until independence, there was no radical changes in the status of women. In independent India, last few decades have witnessed the all round development of women. Women are now making their presence felt in every walk of life.

The position of women

a) Ancient Period

In the ancient Indus civilization of India, evidences show the worship of the mother goddess. Hence, the adoration for the mother is evident during that period. During the Rig Vedic period, it is believed that the position of wife was honoured and women's position was acknowledged, especially in the performance of religious ceremonies.

During later Vedic age witnessed a transitional development in the status of women restricting her role in the social life except in the performance of religious sacrifices. Her social and political freedom was restricted. Sati became popular during the later Vedic period where the widows either chose for themselves or were forced to jump into the pyre of their husbands. The patriarchal system became rigid. Women were denied to study Vedic scriptures.

b) Medieval Period

The position of women in the society further deteriorated during the medieval period and they suffered from many social evils such as sati, child marriages, female infanticide, and slavery. Normally monogamy was in practice but among the rich polygamy was prevalent. 'Sati' was in practice particularly among the royal and upper strata of the society. Widow re-marriage was rare. Devadasi system was in practice in some parts of India. Among the Rajputs of Rajasthan, the Jauhar was practiced. The condition of widow became miserable during the medieval period. But we don't ignore the fact that the Mughal ruler Akbar attempted to abolish sati. In fact very little attention was paid to female education.

Jauhar refers to the practice of collective voluntary immolation by wives and daughters of defeated Rajput warriors, in order to avoid capture and dishonour.

In spite of general determination, we can find some exceptions Razia sultana, Queen Durgavati, Chand bibi, Nurjahan, Jahannara, Jijabai and Mira bai.

During medieval times Women's education was not completely ignored, though no regular separate school seems to have existed. Female education was informal. Girls usually had their lessons from their parents in their childhood. The rich appointed tutors to teach their daughters at home. The daughters of Rajput chiefs and Zamindars studied literature and philosophy.

c) British Period

For centuries women in India had been subordinated to men and socially oppressed. The major effect of national awakening in the nineteenth century was seen in the field of social reform. The enlightened persons increasingly revolted against rigid social evils and outdated customs. Numerous individuals, reform societies and religious organisations worked hard to spread education among women, to encourage widow remarriage, to improve the living conditions of widows, to prevent marriage of young children, to enforce monogamy and to enable middle-class women to take up professions or public employment.

In the beginning of nineteenth century female literacy was extremely low when compared to male literacy. The Christian missionaries were the first to set up the Calcutta Female Juvenile Society in 1819. The Bethune school was founded in 1849 by J.E.D. Bethune, who was the president of the council of education in Calcutta.

Charles Wood's despatch on education in 1854 laid a great stress on the need for female education. Indian Education Commission (Hunter) of 1882 recommended to start primary schools for girls and teacher-training institution and suggested special scholarships and prizes for girls. In 1880's Indian women began to enter universities. They were also trained to become doctors and teachers. They

began to write books and magazines. In 1914 the women's medical service did a lot of work in training mid-wives. In the 1890s D.K. Karve established a number of female schools in Poona. Prof. D.K. Karve, Pandita Rama bai, made sincere effort to emancipate women through education was really remarkable. The Indian women's university was started by Prof. D.K. Karve in 1916. It was an outstanding institution imparting education to women. In the same year Lady Harding Medical College was started in Delhi.

Major Social Evils

a) Female infanticide

Female infanticide was another inhuman practice afflicting the nineteenth century Indian society. It was particularly in vogue in Rajputana, Punjab and the North Western Provinces. It was mainly to avoid economic burden.

Factors such as family pride, the fear of not finding a suitable match for the girl child were some of the major reasons responsible for this practice. Therefore, immediately after birth, the female infants were being killed.

The company administration in India took steps to ban this practice by passing the Bengal Regulatory Act XXI of 1795, the Regulating Act of 1802 and the Female Infanticide Act of 1870.

b) Female Foeticide

Female foeticide is also an inhuman practice which cuts across the caste, creed, class and regional boundaries. Whether it is female infanticide or female foeticide the prime motive remained the same. In order to ban the female foeticide and sex-determination the central Government passed various Acts.

c) Child marriage

The practice of child marriage was another social disgrace for the women.

Akbar prohibited child marriage and made it obligatory for the parents to obtain the approval of both the bride and the bridegroom before the marriage. He prescribed 14 years as the age of constant for girls and 16 years for boys.

In 1846, the minimum marriageable age for a girl was only 10 years. The native marriage Act was passed in 1872. It fixed the minimum marriageable age of girls at 14 and boys at 18.

In 1930, the Central Legislative Assembly passed Rai Saheb Harbilas Sarada's child Marriage Bill fixing the minimum marriageable age for boys at 18 and 14 for girls. It was later amended to 18 for girls and 21 for boys according to Hindu Marriage Act 1955.

d) Sati

Sati was social evil that prevailed in Indian society especially among the Rajputs. Earlier it was a voluntary act but later by the relatives forced the widow to sit on the funeral pyre. The Italian traveler, Niccolo Conti, who visited Vijayanagar about the year A.D. (C.E) 1420, notes that 'the inhabitants of this region marry as many wives as they please, who are burnt with their dead husbands'.

In the early years of 19th century, sati was in practice in various Parts of Bengal, western India and southern India. In 1811, Jagan Mohan Roy, brother of Rammohan Roy, passed away and his wife was burnt along with him. Rammohan Roy was moved to the extreme at the sight of it and took an oath that he would have the cruel practice abolished by law. He carried on a continuous agitation through press and platform for the abolition of Sati.

Raja Rammohan Roy published his tracts in 1818-20, making the point that the rite of Sati was not enjoined by the Sastras. This material was used by the Serampore missionaries to shatter the generally accepted view that Sati was an integral part of the Hindu religion. Orthodox

Hindu opinion against the abolition was advocated by Radhakanta Deb, and Bhawani Charan Banerji.

When Lord William Bentinck took up the question of Sati, he found that the abolition had been recommended by the judges of the criminal courts. He passed Regulation XVII on December 4, 1829 'declaring the practice of Sati or burning or burying alive the widow of Hindus, illegal and punishable by Criminal Courts'. Similar legislative measures were enacted soon after in Bombay and Madras.

e) Devadasi System

The word Devadasi (Sanskrit) or Devar adiyal (Tamil) means "servant of God" dancing girl dedicated to the service of god in a temple. Devadasi system was a social evil. There was also tradition of dedicating one daughter to the temple. In addition to taking care of the temple, they learnt and practiced Bharatha Natiyam and other classical traditional Indian arts.

Later on they were ill treated and humiliated. The Devadasis lost their dignity, sense of pride, self-respect and honour.

Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar who was the first woman doctor in India, dedicated herself for the cause of abolishing the cruel practice of Devadasi system from Tamil Nadu. Appreciating her role in the agitation against Devadasi system she was nominated to the Tamil Nadu legislative council in 1929. Periyar E.V. Ramasamy was instrumental in passing the "Devadasi abolition bill". Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar proposed the bill to the Madras legislative council in 1930.

Moovalur Ramamirdham was yet another woman who fought for the emancipation of the Devadasi. With the continuous moral support

The Madras Devadasi Act was a law that was enacted on 9th October 1947. The law was passed in the Madras presidency and gave Devadasis the legal right to marry and made it illegal to dedicated girls to Indian temples.

rendered by Rajaji, Periyar and Thiru.Vi.Ka, she raised slogan against this cruel practice. As a result the government passed the "Devadasi Abolition Act".

Role of Social Reformers

From the second half of the nineteenth century, a number of social reformers and social reform movements sought to promote the upliftment of women by giving



them education, raising their marriageable age and taking care of widows, as well as to remove the rigidity of caste and raise the suppressed class to a status of equality. The reformers who led the movements were the forerunners of modern India.

a) Raja Rammohan Roy

There were some enlightened Indians who supported the British attempt to reform the oppressive social order of India. The first was the abolition of sati by law, on humanitarian grounds. Raja Rammohan Roy, the pioneer of Indian social reform movement was a casteless crusader of sati after having seen this practice in the case of his own sister-in-law. He started his camping against this in human evil practice. Influenced by the ruthless attack of the movement led by Rammohan Roy the British government declared this act as "culpable Homicide". Raja Rammohan Roy is most remembered for helping Lord William Bentinck to declare the practice of Sati a punishable offence in 1829. He also protested against the child marriage and female infanticide. He favoured the remarriage of widows, female education and women's right to property. Thus the evil practice of sati on any scale was wiped out.

b) Ishwar Chandra Vidhyasagar

Ishwar Chandra Vidhyasagar carried on the movement for female education, widow remarriage and abolition of polygamy in Bengal. He submitted petitions to this effect to the Indian Legislative Council and to the passing

of the Hindu Widow Remarriage Act in 1856. His son Narayanachandra set an example to others by marrying a widow of his choice. To promote female education, Vidhyasagar founded several girls' schools in the districts of Nadia, Midnapur, Hugli and Burdwan in Bengal.

c) Kandukuri Veeresalingam

K a n d u k u r i Veeresalingam Pantulu was the earliest champion in South India of women's emancipation. He published a journal viveka vardhani. He opened his first girls' school in 1874 and made widow remarriage and female education the key points of his programme for social reform.



Kandukuri Veeresalingam

d) M.G. Ranade and B.M. Malabari

In Bombay presidency, M.G. Ranade and B.M. Malabari carried on the movement for the upliftment of women. In 1869, Ranade joined the Widow Remarriage Association and encouraged widow remarriage and female education and opposed child marriage. In 1887, he started the National Social Conference, which became a pre-eminent institution for social reform. In 1884, B.M. Malabari, a journalist, started a movement for the abolition of child marriage. He published pamphlets on this subject and appealed to the government to take action.

e) Gopal Krishna Gokhale

In 1905, Gopal Krishna Gokhale started the Servants of India Society which took up such social reform measures as primary education, female education and depressed classes' upliftment. The spread of female education further led to the participation of women in the freedom struggle.



Gopal Krishna Gokhale

f) Periyar E.V.R.

Periyar E.V.R. was one of the greatest social reformers of Tamil Nadu. He advocated women education, widow remarriage and inter-caste marriages and opposed child marriages.

g) Women Reformers

Most of the reform movements like Brahma Samaj (1828), Prarthana Samaj (1867) and Arya Samaj (1875) were led by male reformers who set the limit of the freedom and development of women. Women reformers like Pandita Ramabai, Rukhmabai and Tarabai Shinde tried to extent further. In 1889, Pandita Ramabai opened Sarada Sadan (Home of Learning) for Hindu widows in Bombay. It was later shifted to Poona. Her greatest legacy was her effort, the first in India, to educate widows. Theosophical society was established at Chennai and Dr. Annie Besant who came from Europe and joined it. It also developed general social reform programme.

Dr. S. Dharmambal was another reformer who was very much influenced by the ideas of Periyar. She showed great interest in implementing widow remarriage and women education. Among 'Moovalur Ramamirdham Ammaiyar' raised her voice against Devadasi system along with Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar. In her memory, the government of Tamil Nadu has instituted the "Moovalur Ramamirdha Ammal Ninaivu Marriage assistance scheme", a social welfare scheme to provide financial assistance to poor women as poverty was the root cause for all these evils. Thus women reformers also contributed a lot for winning their own rights.

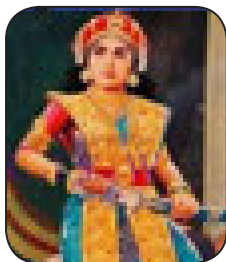


Moovalur Ramamirdham

Leading women realized the need of forming their own associations in order to safeguard their interests. As a result three major national women's organizations – Women's India Association, National Council of Women in India and the All India Women's Conference were founded.

Women in the freedom movement

In the early anti-colonial struggle women played major roles in various capacities. Velunachiyar of Sivaganga fought violently against the British and restored her rule in Sivaganga. Begum Hazrat Mahal, Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi led an armed revolt of 1857 against the British.



In the freedom struggle thousands of women came out of their homes, boycotted foreign goods, marched in processions, defied laws, received lathi charges and Courted jails. Their participation in the struggle added a new dimension of mass character.

Impact of reform movement

- Significant advances were made in the field of emancipation of women.
- It created of national awakening among the masses.

- It created the feeling of sacrifice, service and rationalism.
- The practice of sati and infanticide were made illegal.
- It permitted widow remarriage.

Women in Independent India

Women in India now participate in all activities such as education, politics, medical, culture, service sectors, science and technology.

The constitution of India guarantees (Article 14) equal opportunity and equal pay for equal work.

The National policy for empowerment of women was passed under the National Policy on Education (1986), new programme was launched called Mahila Samakhya, its main focus was on empower of women. Reservation of 33 percent to women envisaged an improvement in the socio-political status of women.

The National Commission for women was set up January 1992. Its main functions is to review women related legislation and intervene in specific individual complaints of atrocities and denial of rights.

The following legislations have enhanced the status of women in matters of marriage adoption and inheritance.

Legislation	Provisions
Bengal regulation of XXI, 1804	Female infanticide was declared illegal
Regulation of XVII, 1829	Practice of sati was declared illegal
Hindus Widow's Remarriage Act, 1856	It permitted widow remarriage
The Native Marriage Act, 1872	The Child Marriage was prohibited
The Sharda Act, 1930	The age of marriage was raised for boys and girls
Devadasi abolition Act, 1947	It abolished Devadasi system

Recap

- The Position of women was not uniform in all periods and differed with regional variations.
- There were many social evils in Indian society
- A number of social reformers and social reform movements sought to promote the upliftment of women by giving them education
- Woman in India now participate in all activities.

GLOSSARY

zamindar	a landowner	பெரு நிலக்கிழார்
manicipation	free from social, or political restriction	விடுதலை
enlightenment	the state of being enlightened	அறிவொளி
polygamy	the custom of being married to more than one person	பலதார மணம்
reformer	a person who makes changes to something in order to improve it	சீர்திருத்தவாதி



Evaluation

I Choose the correct answer

- _____ society is constantly changing with additions, assimilations and omissions from within and outside.
 - Human
 - Animal
 - Forest
 - Nature
- The First women doctor in India was
 - Dharmambal
 - Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar
 - Moovalur Ramamirdham
 - Panditha Ramabai
- The practice of sati was abolished in _____.
 - 1827
 - 1828
 - 1829
 - 1830
- B.M Malabari was a
 - teacher
 - doctor
 - lawyer
 - journalist
- Which of the following was/were the reform movement(s)?
 - Brahma Samaj
 - Prarthana Samaj
 - Arya Samaj
 - all the above



- The Bethune school was founded in _____ by J.E.D. Bethune.
 - 1848
 - 1849
 - 1850
 - 1851
- Which commission recommended to start primary schools for girls in 1882 ?
 - Wood's
 - Welby
 - Hunter
 - Muddiman
- Sarada's child Marriage Bill fixing the minimum marriageable age for girls at _____.
 - 11
 - 12
 - 13
 - 14

II Fill in the blanks

- _____ society was setup by the Christian missionaries in 1819.
- _____ of Sivaganga fought bravely against the British.
- Servants of India Society was started by _____.
- _____ was the one of the greatest social reformer of Tamil Nadu.
- Kandukuri Veeresalingam published a journal called _____.

III Match the following

- Theosophical society - Italian traveler
- Sarada Sadan - Social evil
- Wood's Despatch - Annie Besant
- Niccolo Conti - Pandita RamaBhai
- Dowry - 1854

IV State True or False

1. Women were honoured in Rig Vedic period.
2. Devadasi system was a social evil.
3. Raja Rammohan Roy, was the pioneer of Indian social reform movement.
4. Reservation of 23% to women envisaged an improvement in the socio-political status of women.
5. The age of marriage was raised for boys and girls by the Sharda Act of 1930.

V Choose the correct statement

1. Find out the correct pair.
 - a) Women's university - Prof. D.K. Karve
 - b) Justice Ranade - Arya Samaj
 - c) Widow Remarriage Act - 1855
 - d) Rani Lakshmi Bhai - Delhi
2. Find the odd one out.
 - a) child marriage
 - b) sati
 - c) devadasi system
 - d) widow remarriage
3. Consider the following Statements
 - i) Begum Hazarat Mahal, Rani Lakshmi Bhai led an armed revolt against the British
 - ii) Velunachiyar of Sivaganga, Tamil Nadu fought bravely against the British

Which of the statement (s) given above is/or correct?

- a) i only
 - b) ii only
 - c) i and ii
 - d) neither i nor ii
4. **Assertion (A):** Raja Rammohan Roy is most remembered by all Indians
Reason (R): He wiped out the evil practice of Sati from the Indian Society
 - a) A and R are wrong
 - b) A is correct and R is Wrong
 - c) A is correct and R explains A
 - d) A is correct and R does not explain A

VI Answer the following in one or two sentences

1. Name the prominent leaders who fought for the upliftment of women.
2. List out some social evils.
3. Who were the notable women during the medieval period?
4. Mention the important women freedom fighters of India.
5. Give a note on Sati.

VII Answer the following in detail

1. Trace the role of women in freedom struggle.
2. Explain the contribution of the Social Reformers for the eradication of social evils.
3. Give a detailed account on the Impact of reform movement.

VIII Project and Activity

1. Prepare an information package of the social reformers contributed in the development of women. (Choose any one reformer and collect information related to him).
2. Group Discussion: Participation of Women in Freedom Movement.



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