

## THE COMING OF THE EUROPEANS

Europeans reached the Indian shores in search of wealth and power. In 1498, Portuguese traders became the first to discover the sea route to India when a Portuguese voyager arrived at Calicut on the western coast of India. The Dutch followed them in 1595, the English in 1600 and at last, the French in 1664. All these Europeans came to India for free trade.

The European nations established various commercial companies, such as the East India Company in England founded in 1600 and Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie-the United East India Company in the Netherlands-founded in 1602. These companies were formed to capture the spice trade by breaking the monopoly of Portuguese in Asia.

### Rise of Autonomous States

In the eighteenth century, when the Mughal Empire declined, autonomous states were established such as in Bengal Murshid Quil Khanj, Oudh Awadh (under Sadat Khan Mulkj, Hyderabad (under Nizam-Mulk, Asaf Jah), (under Saadatullah Khan), Mysore (under Hyder Ali), under chairman and Sarajmal) and the Sikhs (under Singh).

### THE PORTUGUESE

In 1498, Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese voyager, became the first European to discover the sea route to India. He arrived at Calicut on 27 May 1498. To secure the trade of spices and to look for probable Christian converts, the Portuguese challenged Arab supremacy in the Indian Ocean. They fitted their galleons with powerful cannons and established a network of strategic trading posts along the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf. They soon set up political supremacy along the west coast of India. After Vasco da Gama, Captain General Alfonso de Albuquerque captured Goa in 1510 and made Goa as the centre of their commercial and political power. Goa was under their control for about four and a half centuries.

### THE DUTCH

The first Dutch fleet reached India in the year 1595. They formed Dutch East India Company in 1602, but they could not maintain their influence for very long period. However, they had a large supply-of capital and support from their government with which they ousted the British from the East Indies (Indonesia). They also managed to establish trading factories along the Indian coast. They established their first factory in Masulipatnam (1605), followed by factories in Pulicat (1610), Surat (1611), Bimlipatnam (1641), Karaikal (1645), Chinsura (1653), kasimbazar (1658), Baranagore (1658), Patna and Balasore (both 1658) and Cochin (1663). These became the centres of international trade in spices, cotton, sugar, raw silk, calico and indigo. They were welcomed by the Indian rulers in order to put them against the Portuguese. In 1619, they were granted permission by the Mughal emperor Jahangir to trade at Surat on the west coast and Hoogly in the east. The Dutch supremacy ended with their defeat at the hands of the English in the Battle of Bedera in 1759.

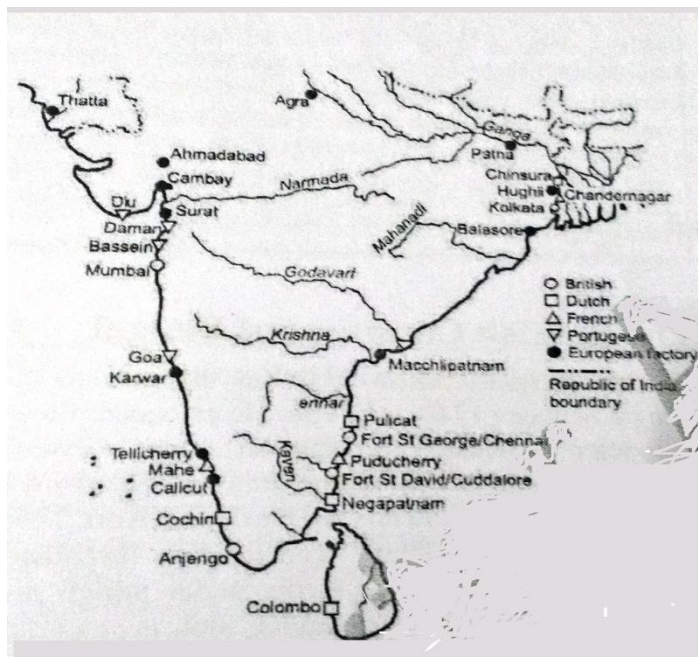
### THE ENGLISH

In 1600, the English East India Company was established through a charter signed by Queen Elizabeth I in 1600. The charter granted the company the permission to trade with India. In 1608, Captain Hawkins visited the court of Jahangir but he was denied any trading rights. However, in 1619, when Sir Thomas Roe visited the court, they were allowed to set up their first factory in Surat. Gradually, the company was successful in setting up its factories at other places also such as Mumbai, Kolkata and Chennai.

The agents of the English company soon became familiar with Indian customs and languages. They learnt Persian, the official language of the Mughals. The English agents of this period lived like Indians, intermarried Indians, and most of them settled here permanently'. All this gave the English an edge over their other European rivals.

The English set up their factories in Masulipatnam (1611), Agra, Ahmedabad, Baroda,

Broach (1619), Arrmagaon near Pulicat (1626), Hariharpur and Balasore (1633), Patna, Dakha, Kasimbazar (1835), Fort St George in Chennai (1639), Hoogli (1651), settlements in Bihar, Bengal and Orissa (1658), Mumbai (1668) and Sutanuti (1690), Kalikota and Govindpur (1698) Later they founded the city of Kolkata which included the regions of Sutanuti, Kalikota and Govindpur. In 1700, they fortified the factory at Sutanati and named it Fort William. In 1686, the English fought war against the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb. They lost all their control over the settlements and factories in India to the Mughals. They were pardoned when they surrendered in 1690. In 1691, they were granted a Farman by the Mughal emperor. They exempted from paying customs duties in Bengal through the Furman.



**MAP 3.1 Locations of Various Colonies in India**

In 1717 the Mughal emperor, Farukhsiyar (1713 - 1719), granted the British another farman, thus extending the privilege to British in Gujarat and Deccan - who by then had already established themselves in the south and the west - a grant of 38 villages near Kolkata, acknowledging their importance to the continuity of international trade in the Bengal economy. As the Dutch and the French, the British also brought silver bullion and copper to pay for transactions, helping the smooth functioning of the Mughal revenue system and increasing the benefits of

local artisans and traders. The fortified warehouses of the British brought extraterritorial status, which enabled them to administer their own civil and criminal laws and offered numerous employment opportunities as well as asylum to foreigners and Indians.

The British factories successfully competed with their rivals as their size and population grew. The original clusters of fishing villages (Chennai and Kolkata) and the series of islands (Mumbai) became the headquarters of the British administrative zones or presidencies as they generally came to be known. The factories and their immediate environs, known as the white town, represented the actual and symbolic pre-eminence of the British in terms of their political power as well as their cultural values and social practices. Meanwhile, their Indian collaborators lived in the 'black town' separated from the factories by several kilometres.

### ★ Spread of British on East and West Coast of India during the Seventeenth Century

Anglo-Dutch hostilities from 1652 to 1654 drew the English and the Portuguese closer on the western coast of India. According to a secret article in the marriage treaty of 1661 with Portugal, the Portuguese possessions in the East were guaranteed by England against the Dutch, and the island of Mumbai was included as a part of dowry of Catherine of Braganza, the new queen of Charles II. In 1668, Charles II transferred Mumbai to the East India Company on an annual payment of 10 pounds. Mumbai gradually rose to prosperity during the administration of Sir George Oxenden (1662-1669), Gerald Aungier (1669-1677) and Sir John Child (1682-1690). In 1687, the seal of the western Presidency was shifted from Surat to Mumbai. In 1611; the English started a factory in the southeast at Masulipatnam. In 1632, they obtained Golden farman from Sultan of Golconda and in 1639 were permitted to build a fortified factory in Chennai, known as Fort St George, which later superseded Masulipatnam as the headquarters of the English in the East coast.

### THE FRENCH

The French commercial interest - Compagnie des Indes Orientales (East India Company, founded in

1664) - came late but the French also established themselves in India, emulating the precedents set by their competitors, as they founded their enclave at Pondicherry (Puducherry) on the Coromandel Coast. In 1664, they set up centres near Chennai and Chandernagore on the Hooghly to trade with India. They also established naval bases in the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius in the Indian Ocean. Initially, they flourished till 1706 but afterwards declined until 1720. After 1720, it was because of Governors Lenoir and Dumas that the French regrouped in India. However, during 1742, the French Governor Duplex started repulsing English power, which resulted in the Carnatic wars and eventually the defeat of the French.

### **THE DANISH AND THE AUSTRIANS**

Besides the presence of the Portuguese, Dutch, British and French there were two lesser but noteworthy colonial groups. In 1616, the East India Company of Denmark reached Indian coasts and established settlements in Tranquebar in Tamil Nadu (1620) and Serampore in Bengal (1676). Danish entrepreneurs established themselves at several ports on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, in the vicinity of Kolkata and inland at Patna, between 1695 and 1740. Austrian enterprises were set up in the 1720s in the vicinity of Surat, in south eastern Gujarat. As with the other non-British enterprises, the Danish and Austrian enclaves were taken over by the British between 1765 and 1815.

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## **BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY AND THE BRITISH RULE**

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On arriving in India, the East India Company had to face the Dutch and the French opposition as they were the main contestants for economic supremacy over India. But the British were successful in destabilizing them and soon the Company's functions expanded into political ambitions. While the British company employed sepoys-European-trained and European-led Indian soldiers - to protect its trade, local rulers sought their services to settle scores in regional power struggles. South India witnessed the first open confrontation between the British and the French, whose forces were led by Robert Clive and Francois Duplex, respectively. Both companies desired to place

their own candidate as the Nawab of Arcot, an area near Chennai. At the end of a protracted struggle from 1744 to 1763, when the Peace of Paris was signed, the British gained an upper hand over the French and installed their man in power, supporting him further with arms and lending large sums of money as well. The French and the British also backed different factions in the succession struggle for Mughal viceroyalty in Bengal, but Clive intervened successfully and defeated Nawab Sirajud-Daulah in the Battle of Plassey (about 150 km north of Kolkata) in 1757. Clive was supported by a combination of vested interests that opposed the existing nawab which

comprised disgruntled soldiers, landholders and influential merchants whose commercial profits were closely linked to British fortunes.

### **The Third Battle of Panipat (1761)**

By the middle of eighteenth century, Marathas had established their influence over Haryana and most of the North India. They were ably led by the Peshwas. The expedition of Afghans under the leadership of Ahmed Shah Abdali in India resulted in the third Battle of Panipat in 1761. The Afghans forces defeated the Marathas and ended Maratha supremacy. The humiliation of the Marathas, fall of the Mughal Empire after Aurangzeb's death, gave the British a chance to consolidate their power. The Marathas were comprehensively defeated in the battle because they did not have able allies. Though their infantry was prepared and trained on European pattern, they failed to find allies in the North India. They had intervened in internal matters of Rajput states. They had imposed heavy taxes and fines on them. They had also made large territorial and monetary claims upon Avadh. They had also conducted raids in the sikh territories angering sikh chiefs. They did not have mutual trust. Above all, the important Marathas chiefs constantly quarreled with one another. Each one of them was very ambitious and hoped of carving out their independent state. They did not have interest in fighting against a common enemy.

### **The English Conquest of Bengal**

Nawab Alivardi Khan was the independent ruler of Bengal between 1740 and 1756. He extended protection to European merchants carrying on trade. Alivardi Khan nominated his grandson (daughter's son) Siraj-ud-Daulah as his heir since he had no son. He died in April 1756. In the meantime, the Company constructed fortifications at Kolkata and violated the terms under which they were allowed to trade. Siraj-ud-Daulah took prompt action and occupied an English factory at Kasimbazar and later captured Kolkata in June 1756.

### **The First Carnatic War (1746)**

The French and British companies clashed at Carnatic. Dupleix was then the chief official of the French Company at Pondicherry. The French opened

hostilities by sacking Fort St George and expelling all Englishman. The Nawab of Carnatic, Anwar-ud-din, sent an army but was defeated by the French in the battle of Adyar (also known as battle of St Thomas), near Chennai. Later, the French tried to force the English to surrender St David but failed. The English counterattacked to capture Pondicherry but were defeated by stiff resistance from the French forces. The first Carnatic war was ended with the Treaty of Aix La Chappelle (1748) in Europe. According to this treaty; the English got back Chennai and the French the Louisburg region in North America. But Dupleix was not happy to lose Chennai and did not keep its promise of returning it, which became the basis of the second Carnatic war.

### **Second Carnatic War (1748-1754)**

The British were able to consolidate themselves by taking hold of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. However, they could not digest the growing hold of the French in the Carnatic. The French had already joined hands with Chanda Sahib, the Nawab of Arcot. Muzzafar Jung claimed the throne of Carnatic with the help of the French and Chanda Sahib by defeating Anwar-ud-din in the battle of Ambur. The English entered into an agreement with Muzzafar Jung's uncle, Nasir Jung, and helped him to defeat Muzzafar Jung and Chanda Sahib in 1750. Later, Chanda Sahib was defeated and killed and the entire Carnatic fell into the hands of the English. In the second battle between the French and the British, the French were defeated. In 1754, Dupleix was sent back to France and succeeded by General Godeheu. Godeheu went to the English with a peace proposal, the Treaty of Pondicherry (1754) which the English accepted. Later, as per the Treaty of Tiruchirapalli (1755), the French had to return all that they had captured and both nations retained their old positions. However, the English negotiated hard to get the northern Circar area also.

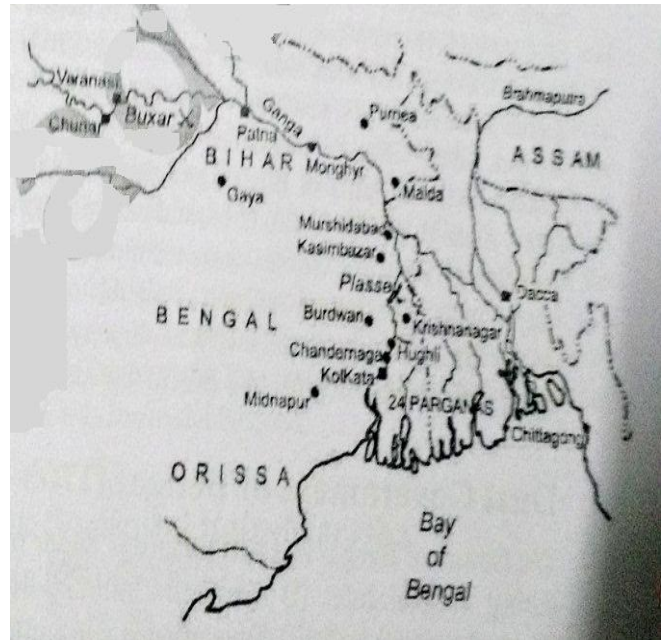
### **Growing British Monopoly in Trade**

Even before the acquisition of Diwani of Bengal in 1765, the East India Company had begun to exercise considerable political influence in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, which led to the ruin of Indian industry and oppression of weavers. While the foreign trade of Bengal, which was the richest part of India at that time, became the monopoly of the company, the internal trade in more important commodities like raw

material was monopolized by superior servants of the company in their personal capacity. The monopoly of trade in raw materials helped to raise the prices to the manufacturers, while monopoly of purchase (monopsony) of finished products tended to lower the prices of the manufacturers. These restrictive practices together with providing the company's investments or purchasing goods in the interior through the agency of 'gumashtas' ruined the weavers and other artisans. But things did not stop there. The scales were heavily weighted against Indian manufacturers in two other ways, the first was the system of inland duties which offered protection to foreign products and the other was bringing many other products in the ambit of duty structure which were earlier duty-free.

### Black-Hole Tragedy (1756)

It is said that 146 English prisoners, held by the nawab of Bengal, were crowded into a small chamber that had a single, tiny window on a hot summer night of 20 June 1756. As a result, several of them died of suffocation and wounds. Only 23 prisoners survived this tragedy. However, historians still treat this tragedy as a myth rather than reality. The news of this tragedy reached Chennai and it aroused the indignation of Englishmen in India. In December 1756, Colonel Clive and Admiral Watson reached Bengal from Chennai to take revenge for the black-hole tragedy. The English captured Kolkata but later restored relations with Siraj-ud-Daulah who restored all privileges to the English and allowed them to fortify Kolkata. However, to Clive it was a pact made for appearances. In order to take revenge for the black-hole tragedy, he provoked Mir Jafar (commander-in-chief of the Nawab), Rai Durlab (treasurer of the Nawab) and Jagat Seth (a rich banker of Bengal) to conspire against the Nawab. Mir Jafar, brother-in-law of Alivardi Khan, had a secret pact with Clive who promised him the state of Bengal. Mir Jafar, nevertheless, also assured his support to Siraj-ud-Daulah against the English.



**Map 3.2 The British in Bengal During 1756 - 1765**

### Battle of Plassey (1757)

Robert Clive led the Company's forces against Siraj-ud-Daulah's army on 23 June 1757 and defeated them with the help of his behind-the-scenes agreement with Mir Jafar. This proved to be the first step towards territorial supremacy and paved the way for the British conquest of Bengal and eventually the whole country. The Nawab was captured and executed and Mir Jafar was installed as the Nawab of Bengal. He ceded zamindari rights of 24 Parganas and got 1,67,00,000 as compensation. This was the first British acquisition on Indian soil. The victory in the Battle of Plassey is not a remarkable one from a military point of view. The conspiracy of the Nawabs and the commanders helped the English to win an easy victory. But its results were far reaching and they opened a new era in the history of India. This battle added to the strength and prestige of the British company and also exposed the corrupt politicians of Bengal.

### Third Carnatic War (1756-1763)

The soft stance of General Godeheu gave the English the necessary confidence which propelled them to consolidate their position further. With the advent of the Seven Year's War in Europe,\* the relations between the English and the French became

hostile in India as well. France appointed Count Lally as Commander-in-Chief and Governor of India. He posed a stiff challenge to the English and made an unsuccessful attempt to capture Chennai. Lally was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote in the Battle of Wandiwash in January 1760 which sealed the fate of French in India. In 1761, he surrendered with the fall of Pondicherry. The third war ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which foiled the dreams of the French to have an empire in India.

### **Battle of Buxar (1764)**

At the instigation of Mir Qasim, successor of Mir Jafar, this battle was fought by Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh and Shah Alam II (Mughal) on the one side and the English forces led by Clive on the other side, on 23 October 1764. Clive's forces were victorious, resulting in the capture of Bihar and Bengal. Later, Clive defeated the Mughal forces at Buxar (Baksar, west of Patna in Bihar), and the Mughal emperor (Shah Alam II, r. 1759-1806) conferred administrative rights over Bengal, Bihar and Orissa—a region of roughly 25 million people with huge annual revenue - on the company. The imperial grant virtually established the company as a sovereign power and Clive became the first British Governor of Bengal.

### **Dual Government of Bengal (1765-1772)**

The Nawab of Bengal had two functions under his domain during Mughal rule: (i) Nazamat (military control and criminal justice) and (ii) Diwani (revenue collection and civil justice). The Company was able to claim the nazamat of Bengal from the Nawab during February 1765, and later Shah Alam, the emperor, ceded the diwani also to the Company during August 1765. This double governance established by Clive did not work; although they were given the control over the province, the officials did not show any responsibility towards the administration and were not held accountable for any misdeed. Their lack of responsibility towards the people of the province was exposed during the famine of 1770 in which thousands of people died. This dried up revenues for the company also. The evil of the system made the company financially sick; however, the directors of the company found out that the Englishmen who served the company in India were

returning home with rich fortunes. In 1772, the company abolished the dual governance system and appointed Warren Hastings (1772-1785) as Governor-General to discipline the proceedings in Bengal. He carried out a large number of administrative, judicial, revenue and commercial reforms.

### **Sanyasi Rebellion**

In late eighteenth century, in Bengal (India), the activities of Sanyasis were known as the Sanyasi Rebellion. Three different events in Indian history are called the Sanyasi revolts or rebellion. The first one refers to a major chunk of Hindu fakirs who travelled from North India to different parts of Bengal to visit shrines. During the journey, these Sanyasis or fakirs took a religious tax from the headman and regional landlords. In good times, they generally paid the taxes. But when East India Company started levying the taxes these landlords and headman were unable to pay both the ascetics and the English at a time. Moreover, the famine which killed approximately one crore people in Bengal aggravated the situation. During the period of 1771-72, nearly 145 saints were put to death without any valid reason. Due to this, the distress prevailed which led to the violence. Many historians argue that Sanyasis did not gain people's support ever.

The other two Sanyasi movements had the involvement of Hindu ascetics. These Hindu Sanyasis which were known as the Dasnami Naga, visited Bengal on pilgrimage mixed with money lending opportunities.

The Sanyasi rebellion was the first of a series of revolts and rebellions in the Western districts of the province including the Chuar Revolt of 1799 and the Santhal revolt of 1855-56.

### **The Regulating Act of 1773**

The British Parliament enacted a series of laws to curb the company trader's unrestrained commercial activities and to bring about some order in territories under company control. The most important among which is the ordinance prescribing certain rules for the company. Thus, this is called the Regulating Act of 1773. This Act aimed to limit the company charter to periods of 20 years, subject to review upon renewal;

the 1773 Act gave the British government supervisory rights over the Bengal. Mumbai and Chennai presidencies. Bengal was given pre-eminence over the rest because of its enormous commercial vitality and because it was the seat of British power in India (at Kolkata), and its Governor was elevated to the new position of Governor-General. Warren Hastings was the first incumbent (1773-1785). The Act was aimed at maintaining a sort of balance in the company's administration, but in practice it failed its basic objective due to certain loopholes in the Act itself. Two new government organizations were set up to help the Governor-General to administer effectively: the British Supreme Court of Kolkata and the Kolkata Council. The relationship between the Governor-General and these new government offices was not specified clearly in terms of law. Warren Hastings had to wrestle for his powers with both the Supreme Court and the Council on many occasions. He was condemned by the Council on the Rohilla War and for his decisions against the Begum of Awadh. These organizations reverted many of his administrative decisions which brought them in open conflict with the company. In 1781 an Amending Act was passed, which greatly reduced the powers of these organizations and allowed the company to assert its powers efficiently.

### ★ Conquest of Sind (1843)

In September 1842, Sir Charles Napier was sent to Sindh as commander of British Forces with full civil, political and military powers. He told the 'Amirs' that he was convinced that the charges of disloyalty against them during the Afghan war were founded. So the treaty with them must be revised and that would mean cession of territory, provision of fuel for steamers on the Indus and the loss of right to coinage. Before Amirs could indicate their assent to these terms, Napier acted as if they had refused them and razed the fortress of Imambarh to ground. Under the threat of 'war', the Amirs hastened to accept the demands, but their patience was exhausted and they rose in revolt. Defeated at Miani in February 1843, they were exiled and Sind was annexed.

### ★ The Anglo-Nepalese War (1814-1816)

The Anglo-Nepalese War which was caused largely by frontier incidents lasted from 1814 to 1816. The British victory at Makwanpur in February 1816 led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Sugauli. The Nepal ruler gave up his claim to Sikkim, ceded the disputed Terai tracts and received a residence at Kathmandu. Thus, the Northern frontier was given settled limits. This also marked the British sovereignty in internal India with only Punjab frontier open.

### **First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-1782)**

The First Anglo-Maratha war took place during the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings. After the third battle of Panipat, the Marathas began to rise again; the weak Mughal rulers granted them certain special privileges which made them strong under Peshwa Madhava Rao. The English could not tolerate their growth and crushed the Marathas, violating the Treaty of Banaras. The Peshwa Madhava Rao was killed and a war of succession emerged between Raghunatha Rao (Ragobha) and Narayana Rao. Narayana Rao finally succeeded in becoming the Peshwa but was soon toppled by Raghunatha. Later, in a coup for succession, Nana Fadnavis ousted Raghunatha Rao and made Madhva Rao II, the Peshwa. In 1775, Raghunatha Rao made the Treaty of Surat with the British at Mumbai. As per this treaty, the British were to support him in becoming the Peshwa; in return he was to give Salsette and Bahssein to the British. The events that led to the Anglo-Maratha conflicts emerged from the failure of the 1775 Treaty of Surat. The British Governor of Bengal did not approve this treaty and another treaty was made with the Peshwa Madhava Rao II - the Treaty of Purander (1776). Raghunatha Rao and the British Governor at Mumbai were on the one side and the Peshwa Madhava Rao and G. G. Hastings (British Governor at Bengal) were on the other. The British Governor of Mumbai complained to the Board of Directors against the attitude of the Bengal Governor. The Board honoured the contract made with Raghunatha Rao, also known as the Convention of Vadangaon, and once again the Mumbai Governor began the war to restore him to power. The British were defeated and as per the Treaty of Vadangaon,

Raghunatha Rao was handed over to the Peshwa Madhva Rao.

### **Salbai Treaty (1782),**

Warren Hayings refused to ratify the convention and advanced towards Poona and Gwalior (capital of Scindia). In 1779, a confederacy was formed against the English, which included the Nizam of Oudh, Hyder Ali and the Marathas. The English, in their term, bribed the Raja of Nagpur and befriended Mahadji Scindia to strengthen their power in the region. However, the war ended with the Treaty of Salabai (1782) and status quo was restored. The Maratha were beaten and the British got control over Salsette. Raghunatha Rao was given a pension and Madhav Rao II was made the Peshwa.

### **The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1802-1806)**

After the Treaty of Salbai in 1782, for the next 20 years, the British and Marathas were at peace. During this period, Nana Fadnavis emerged as an influential administrator. He kept a check on advances by Mahadji Scindia, who had by now completed his conquest of Gwalior and Gohad. After the death of Peshwa Madhav Rao II in 1795, Bajji Rao II became the next Peshwa. He was under the influence of Mahadji Scindia and subdued Nana Fadnavis, who later died in 1800. The other Maratha leaders, like Daulat Rao Scindia of Gwalior and Yashwant Rao Holkar of Indore, wanted to teach Bajji Rao II and Mahadji Scindia a lesson. Holkar challenged Mahadji Scindia and defeated the combined forces of the Peshwa and Mahadji Scindia and besieged Poona. Bajji Rao II fled Poona and signed the Treaty of Bessein (1802) with the British. This treaty helped the Marathas to flush out Holkar from Poona but the terms of the treaty made the Second Anglo-Maratha war inevitable. A confederacy of Maratha rulers - Scindia, Holkar and Peshwa - emerged, but the Marathas were still not united and Peshwa and Holkar gave little support to the confederacy. It was Scindia who joined hands with Bhonsle of Nagpur and led their armies against the British provinces. However, the British, under Governor-General Wellesley, defeated the Marathas and subdued Bhonsle by signing the Treaty of Dedgaon and the Scindia by the treaty of Surji-

Anjangaon. Thus, the results of the Second Anglo-Maratha War benefited the British more than the first war. But the British government was still not satisfied with the Governor-General's dealing of the Marathas and, therefore, further curtailed the powers of the Maratha rulers. Thus, after the Second Anglo-Maratha War the Maratha rulers were reduced to the status of puppets in the hands of the British.

### **The Third Maratha War (1817-1819)**

After the Second Anglo-Maratha War, the Maratha confederacy was constituted of weak states. Only a few of them were powerful. Scindia at Gwalior, Bhonsle at Nagpur, Holkar at Indore, Gaekwad at Baroda and the Peshwa had some strength left. The Peshwas were the head of the confederacy but all others were independent. The Peshwa Bajji Rao II wanted to overcome the Treaty of Bassein, which was leading to the downfall of Marathas. He wanted to rejuvenate the Maratha confederacy. The Gaekwad of Baroda was still friendly to the British and he used to bully his other member rulers in the confederacy. The Peshwa, Bajji Rao II cut him to size by seizing Amhedabad from him. The Gaekwad resorted to the British for help. The British entered into the Treaty of Poona (1817) with the Peshwa and urged him to return Ahmedabad. After this, the Peshwa was just a feudatory of the British and was no longer the leader of the Maratha confederacy. Later, the Peshwa tried to recollect the support of Maratha rulers under the confederacy against the British. But he was let down by the other Maratha rulers and was defeated by the British General, Elphinston, in the Battle of Kirki (1818). With this, the Maratha rulers lost almost all their privileges, which led to the downfall of the Maratha power.

### **The First Mysore War (1787-1769)**

Mysore was a powerful state under the Sarvadhikari of Mysore, HyderAli (1722-1782), and almost the whole of Carnatic was under him. In 1769, the first Anglo-Mysore War was fought in which the British forces were defeated. Hyder Ali Virtually dictated the terms of the peace and entered into the Treaty of Chennai (1769) with the English. This treaty with the English was in favour of Hyder Ali as he was always in danger of attack from Maratha rulers. In



1770; The Marathas under the Peshwa Madhav Rao invaded Mysore and Hyder Ali turned to the English for aid as per the treaty. As the neutral stance of the English at the moment of crisis forced Hyder Ali to conclude a treaty with the Peshwas, but he now considered the English as his enemy.

### **The Second Mysore War (1780-1782)**

After the first Mysore War, Hyder Ali joined the confederacy of native kings who were against the English. He inflicted defeat on British in the battle of Pollilur. In 1780 he later annexed Arcot from the British. However, in 1781, Hyder Ali was defeated at Porto Novo. His son, Tipu Sultan, marched towards Tanjore and defeated the English forces. Hyder Ali eventually died in 1782, fighting the English forces in Chittoor, which led to the end of the Second Anglo-Mysore War in 1782. The Treaty of Mangalore (1784) was signed between the two parties by which only the prisoners of war were released from both sides.

### **The Pitt's India Act of 1784**

In order to rectify some defects in the India Bill of 1773, King George V passed an ordinance that came to be known as the Pitt's India Act, sometimes described as the half-loaf system, as it sought to mediate between the Parliament and the company directors. However, it enhanced the Parliament's control by establishing the Board of Control, constituting six members selected from the cabinet itself. They were the Secretary for Finance, Secretary of State for India and four Privy Councillors of State for India. The new Act did not interfere with the business aspect of the company. The company directors still had the power to look to the administrative matters and appointments. However, the Board of Control had the power to appoint the Governor-General. The Governor-General now had to take permission from the Board of Control before entering into any treaty or declaring war against native kings. Thus, there was dual governance in the country, which continued till 1858.

### **The Third Mysore War (1790-1792)**

King of Travancore was an ally of the English and when Tipu Sultan invaded Travancore, Lord

Cornwallis declared the Third Anglo-Mysore War against Tipu Sultan in 1790. The English formed a confederacy with the Marathas and the Nizam. The British defeated Tipu Sultan in the battles of Mangalore and Srirangapatnam and captured Bangalore in 1791. Tipu Sultan had to surrender half of his kingdom to the British as per the humiliating Treaty of Srirangapatnam (1792). The British levied a huge compensation of RS 3 crore on Tipu Sultan and took his two sons as hostage until he paid his dues.

#### **Tipu Sultan (1782-1799)**

Tipu Sultan was the son of Hyder Ali; he was born on 20 November 1753. He was an astute ruler who followed his father's policy. After Hyder Ali, the war was carried on by Tipu Sultan. He was a man of ambition and known as the 'Tiger of Mysore'. He was a learned ruler who knew Kannada, Persian, English as well as French. At the age of 16, he began helping his father to fight the English forces. He is remembered for his brave efforts in the Battle of Pollilur and later annexure of Tanjore in 1782. He was coronated on 4 May 1783, after the death of Hyder Ali. Later he fought the Third and Fourth Anglo-Mysore Wars. He died 16 years later on the same date (4 May 1799) trying to defend the fort of Srirangapatnam from the English.

### **The Fourth Mysore War (1799)**

After the humiliating defeat of the Third Mysore War, Tipu Sultan started venturing out for help from France, Turkey, Mauritius and Afghanistan. Lord Wellesley suggested Tipu Sultan to end his manoeuvres and threatened Tipu Sultan with terrible consequences. However, Tipu Sultan was not to be bogged down and Lord Wellesley invaded the fort of Srirangapatnam in 1799. Tipu Sultan was killed defending the fort in 1799, and later Mysore was divided by the British into four parts. While the English kept three parts, the fourth part was awarded to the Wodeyar of Mysore, who became a British ally.

#### **The Statute of 1813 on Education**

In the year 1813, the British government passed a Charter for the expansion of education in India. The

government reserved a grant of one lakh for it. Two schools of thoughts—Orientalists and the Anglicists—appeared for the appropriation of funds. The Orientalists were of the opinion that the most appropriate medium of education is the local language, whereas the Anglicists supported in favour of education in the English language. Astonishingly, the reserved funds were not used for the next 27 years, till a committee which was established under the leadership of Lord Macaulay recommended in 1830, that the funds as per Charter of 1813, should be utilised for encouraging English literature, western science, philosophy and art.

### The Charter Act of 1813 (the Lease Act)

The Charter of 1793 permitted the East India Company to extend its commercial activities in Eastern countries. It was valid for 20 years. Therefore, the British parliament renewed it and named it the Charter Act in 1813, valid for the next 20 years. The new charter recognized British moral responsibility by introducing just and humane laws in India, foreshadowing future social legislation and outlawing a number of traditional practices such as sati and thuggee (robbery coupled with ritual murder). Through this Charter, Indian trade was thrown open to all the British merchants, thus, ending the commercial monopoly of the East India Company. The Act clearly upheld the British queen's sovereignty over the company's territories in India. It also had a special statute that provided funds for the development of education in India.

### The Charter Act of 1833

The next review of the Charter Act of 1813 was to be made in the year 1833. The British merchant lobby was putting pressure on the British Parliament to take responsibility of running the Indian administration because the East India Company was putting hurdles before the new companies that wished to establish business in India. However, some political constraints forced the Parliament to renew the Charter Act for another 20 years. The British Parliament persisted with the practice of running the Indian administration

through the Board of Control of the Company, but it put an end to the company's monopoly in tea trade with India and general trade with China. Now new companies were allowed to settle in Indian territories and even purchase properties, The procedural barriers and the licensing system that had been in place for new traders were removed. This Act shifted the company's role from merely commercial to administrative and political. The Governor of Bengal was made the Governor-General of India and a new Presidency of Agra was created. The presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta came under the direct control of the Governor-General. The most significant event was the common, civil and criminal procedure codes by the law commission, presided by Macaulay, which were prepared for the entire country.

### ★ First Anglo-Burmese War (1824-1826)

The Government of India under Lord Amherst (1823-1828) was alarmed at the Burmese conquest of Assam and Manipur. In September 1823, the Burmese attacked Chittagong and Bengal territories which were under the control of the company. Lord Amherst declared war in February 1824. The war continued for more than 2 years as Rangoon fell in May 1824 and Prome (the capitol of lower Burma) in April 1825. Hostilities were ended by the Treaty of Yandaboo concluded in February 1826 by which the king of Ava agreed to cede many provinces to the company.

### The First Anglo-Afghan War (1839)

In order to bring down Dost Muhammad from the throne of Afghanistan, the English Governor-General, Lord Auckland, formed a triple alliance with Maharaja Ranjit Singh and Shah Shuja. The English forces defeated Dost Muhammad in the First Anglo-Afghan War in 1839 captured Kabul and helped Shah Shuja to occupy the throne. As Shah Shuja was not an able administrator, the English lost their importance in Afghanistan thereafter. Dost Muhammad, along with his supporters, reclaimed the throne, trapping the English. Lord Auckland's policy on Afghanistan met severe criticism and he was recalled to England. Later, Lord Lawrence (1864-1869). Lord Mayo (1869-1872)

and Lord North Brooke (1872-1876) followed a policy of neutrality in the case of Afghans.

### The Charter Act of 1853

When the Act of 1833 expired, another review of this Act was undertaken in 1853. The most striking point of this Act was that the validity period of the Charter Act of 1833 was not determined. This Act considerably reduced the powers of the East India Company. It allowed the company to run the administration of the Indian territories in the name of the crown. However, the approval of the British Parliament for every decision was made mandatory. The Parliament also provided for the examination of the rules and regulations, reports and drafts prepared by the law commission. This Charter Act is also regarded as the final link in the chain of such enactments. Earlier, the Indian nationals were not considered for the appointment in the Indian Civil Services. The Court of Directors made recommendations for making appointments in the civil services. The Charter of 1853 ended this practice and the Charter began the practice of selecting civil servants through competitive examination.

### Second Anglo-Burmese War (1852) ★

Under Lord Dalhousie (1848-1856), the Second Anglo-Burmese War was fought in sharp contrast to the first war. The first war was the result of Burma's aggressive policy of expansion. The second war was due to ill treatment of some English merchants at Rangoon and insults heaped on the captain of the British frigate, who had been sent to remonstrate. Lord Dalhousie's thorough-going preparations for the campaign yielded good results. The lower valley of Irrawaddy, from Rangoon to Prome, was occupied in a few months as the king of Ava referred to enter into negotiation, it was annexed by proclamation in December 1852, under the name of 'Pegu'

### The Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878)

After the death of Dost Muhammad, the problem of succession started over the Afghan throne. The English were happy to keep the Russians away from Indian frontiers by being neutral to the internal problems of Afghanistan. But as the presence of the

Russians in Central Asia became strong in 1874, the Secretary to state of India, Lord Salisbury, suggested the appointment of a British representative in Afghanistan. This was not appreciated by the Viceroy Lord North Brooke, who tendered his resignation. He was replaced by Lord Lytton (1876-1880) as the Viceroy of India. Lord Lytton reversed the British Policy of neutrality and invaded Afghanistan in 1878, starting the Second Anglo-Afghan conflict. The English completed a remarkable victory and entered into the Treaty of Gandamak (1879) with the Afghans.

### The Third Anglo-Afghan War

This is also remembered as the Panjdeh Incident of 1884. The Russians captured Panjdeh and the English prepared to wage a war against the Russians in Afghan territory. But the Ameer of Afghanistan, Sher Ali, did not want his territory to become a battleground between the English and the Russians. With the arbitration of the King of Denmark, Lord Dufferin was able to resolve the issue by demarcating a boundary line between the Russian-occupied regions and Afghan-controlled states. Later, in 1901, the new Ameer of Afghanistan, Amanullah, declared war against the British. But the British defeated the Afghan forces thoroughly and occupied Jallalabad and Kabul. The Third Anglo-Afghan War came to an end with the Treaty of Rawalpindi (1921).

### Governors between Clive and Hastings ★

John Zephaniah Holwell succeeded Robert Clive as Governor of Bengal in 1760. But he was replaced by Henry Vansittart in the same year. Vansittart officiated as Governor till 1765, till the return of Robert Clive's health deteriorated in 1765, he was succeeded by Harry Verelst (1767-1769) and then John Cartier (1769-1772) before Warren Hastings was sent to India in 1772.

### BRITISH GOVERNORS UNDER COMPANY RULE (1758-1857)

A multiplicity of motives underlay British penetration into India: commerce, security and a purported moral uplift of the people. The 'expansive

force' of private and company trade eventually led to the conquest or annexation of territories in which spices, cotton and opium were produced. British investors ventured into the unfamiliar interior landscape in search of opportunities that promised substantial profits. British economic penetration was aided by Indian collaborators such as the bankers and merchants who controlled intricate credit networks. British rule in India would have been a frustrated or halt-realized dream had their Indian counterparts not provided connections between rural and urban centres.

External threats, both real and imagined, such as the Napoleonic Wars (1796-1815) and the Russian expansion towards Afghanistan (in the 1830s), as well as the desire for internal stability, led to the annexation of more territories in India. Political analysts in Britain wavered initially as they were uncertain of the costs or the advantages of undertaking wars in India, but by 1810, as the territorial aggrandisement eventually paid off, opinion in London welcomed the absorption of new areas. Occasionally the British Parliament witnessed heated debates against expansion, but arguments justifying military operations for security reasons always won over even the most vehement critics.

The British soon forgot their own rivalry with the Portuguese and the French and permitted them to stay in their coastal enclaves, which they kept even after Indian independence in 1947. The British, however, continued to expand vigorously well into the 1850s.

A number of aggressive Governor-Generals undertook relentless campaigns against several Hindu and Muslim rulers. Among them were Richard Colley Wellesley (1798-1805), William Pitt Amherst (1823-1828), George Eden (1836-1842), Edward Law (1842-1844) and James Andrew Brown Ramsay (1848-1856), who is also known as the Marquess of Dalhousie. Despite desperate efforts at salvaging their tottering power and keeping the British at bay, many Hindu and Muslim rulers lost their territories: Mysore (1799, but later restored), the Maratha Confederacy (1818) and Punjab (1849). British success in large measure was the result not only of their superiority in tactics and weapons but also of their ingenious relations with Indian rulers through the 'subsidiary alliance' system,

introduced in the early nineteenth century. Many rulers bartered away their real responsibilities by agreeing to uphold British paramountcy in India, while they retained a fictional sovereignty under the rubric of Pax Britannica. Later, Dalhousie espoused the Doctrine of Lapse and annexed outright the estates of deceased princes of Satara (1848), Udaipur (1852), Jhansi (1853), Tanjore (1853), Nagpur (1854) and Oudh (1856).

European perceptions of India and those of the British especially, shifted from unequivocal appreciation to sweeping condemnation of India's past achievements and customs. Imbued with an ethnocentric sense of superiority, British intellectuals, including Christian missionaries, spearheaded a movement that sought to bring Western intellectual and technological innovations' to Indians. Interpretations of the causes of India's cultural and spiritual 'backwardness' varied, as did the solutions. Many argued that it was Europe's mission to civilize India and hold it as a trust until the Indians proved themselves competent for self rule.

The immediate consequence of this sense of superiority was to open India to more, aggressive missionary activity. The contributions of three missionaries based in Serampore (a Danish enclave in Bengal) — William Carey, Joshua Marshman and William Ward — remain unequalled and have provided inspiration for future generations of missionaries. The missionaries translated the Bible into local languages, taught company officials the local languages, and, after 1813, gained permission to proselytise in the company's territories. Although the actual number of converts remained negligible, except in rare instances when entire groups embraced Christianity, such as the Nambuthiris in the south or the Nagas in the north-east, the missionary impact on India through publishing, schools, orphanages, vocational institutions, dispensaries and hospitals was unmistakable.

**Robert Clive**

The English force were led by Robert Clive to capture Arcot and other regions in the south and was instrumental in laying the foundation of the British Empire in India. In the Carnatic Wars between the French and the English, the latter finally defeated the French in the Battle of Wandiwash to gain control over South India. In 1758, the East India Company appointed Clive as the first Governor of Bengal. He had served two terms: as Governor of Bengal during 1758-1760 (3 years) and 1765-1769 (5 years). Clive is remembered as the founder of the British Empire in India. Clive remained in England from 1760 to 1765 and on his return in 1765, the emperor ceded the diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the company. He is also credited with the ruin of the people of Bengal as he introduced a dual system of governance (1765—1772) in Bengal. But Clive is best remembered for rectifying the structural defects of the British governance system and for permanently settling affairs with the Mughal emperor. Contemporary historians consider him to be the first British administrator who envisaged a definite governance policy, for the East India Company.

### Warren, Hastings (1772-1785)

Warren Hastings reached India in 1772 as Governor of Bengal and became the first Governor-General of India in 1774. He introduced several reforms, established civil and criminal courts, and courts of appeal. During his tenure, the British Parliament passed the Regulating Act, 1773, giving a legalized working constitution to the company's dominion in India. It envisaged a Council of Ministers headed by the Governor-General. He is best remembered for the revenue, judicial and trade reforms he brought to the system.

### Sir John Macpherson (1775-1786)

Warren Hastings was succeeded by Macpherson in 1775. Macpherson remained at the helm of company's affairs in India from almost 12 years, till 1786. The Pitt's India Act of 1784 was also passed during his tenure, which placed the Company's affairs in permanent, centralized control of the British Parliament, during his time.

### Lord Cornwallis (1786-1793)

Lord Cornwallis succeeded Macpherson in 1787. As Governor-General of India for nearly 8 years, Charles Cornwallis (the Marquis of Cornwallis) professionalised, bureaucratised and Europeanised the company's administration. He also outlawed private trade by company employees, separated the commercial and administrative functions, and remunerated company servants with generous graduated salaries. He created the Civil Services of India. He introduced a new revenue system under the Permanent Settlement of Bengal, In 1793 with a view to stabilizing land revenue and creating a loyal contented class of zamindars, and the East Indian Company acted as overlord over them. This led to an increase in the number of litigations. This abolished periodic auction of zamindari rights and established permanent zamindari rights to collect land revenue from tenants and pay a fixed amount to the government treasury every year.

**REVENUE REFORMS** Because revenue collection became the company's most essential administrative function. Cornwallis made a pact with Bengali zamindars, who were perceived as the Indian counterparts to the British landed gentry. The Permanent Settlement system, also known as the zamindari system, fixed taxes in perpetuity in return for ownership of large estates, but the state was excluded from agricultural expansion, which came under the purview of the zamindars. In Chennai and Mumbai, however, the ryotwari (peasant) settlement system was set in motion. In this system, the government surveyed and assessed the land before taxing them, pattas were given to the Ryots and the rent was paid directly by the peasants to the government.

In the long run, neither the zamindari nor the ryotwari systems proved effective because India was integrated into an international economic and pricing system over which the company had no control, while an increasing number of people subsisted on agriculture due to the lack of other employment^ Millions of people involved in the heavily taxed Indian textile industry also lost

their markets as they were unable to compete successfully with cheaper textiles produced from Indian raw materials in Lancashire's mills.

**JUDICIAL REFORMS** Beginning with the Mayor's Court, established in 1727, for civil litigation in Mumbai. Kolkata and Chennai, justice in the interior came under the company's jurisdiction. In 1772, an elaborate judicial system, known as *adalat*, established civil and criminal jurisdictions along with a complex set of codes or rules of procedure and evidence. Both Hindu pandits and Muslim qazis (sharia court judges) were recruited to aid the presiding judges in interpreting their customary laws, but in other instances. British common and statutory laws became applicable. In extraordinary situations where none of these systems was applicable, the judges were enjoined to adjudicate on the basis of 'justice, equity and good conscience. The legal profession provided numerous opportunities for educated and talented Indians who were unable to secure positions in the company, and, as a result, Indian lawyers later dominated nationalist politics and reform movements.

### ★ Notable Rulers in India (1720-1949)

Saadat Khan Burhan-ul-Mulk (1722-1739) - Awadh, Safdar Jung (1739-1754) - Awadh; Shuja-ud-daulah (1754-1775) - Awadh; Asaf-ud-daulah (1775-1797) - Awadh; Wazir Ali (1797-1798) - Awadh; Nizarm-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah (1724-1748) - Hyderabad; Nasir Jung (1748-1750) - Hyderabad; Muzaffar Jung (1750-1751) - Hyderabad; Salabat Jung (1751-1760) - Hyderabad; Nizam Ali (1760-1803) - Hyderabad; Sikandar Jah (1803-1829) - Hyderabad; Nasir-ud-daulah (1829-1857) Hyderabad Afjal-ud-daulah (1857-1869) - Hyderabad; Mahabat Ali Khan (1869-1911) - Hyderabad; Osman Ali Khan (1911-1949) - Hyderabad, Hyder Ali (1761-1782) - Mysore, Tipu Sultan (1782-1799) - Mysore, Ranjit Singh (1792-1839) - Punjab.

### **Land Revenue Administration And Land Reforms**

Permanent Land Settlement at Zamindari System. As per the prevailing land revenue administration system during the tenure of Warren Hastings, the collection of land revenue was entrusted to the highest bidder who was to pay a fixed amount to the government and

in turn, could collect as much as they could from the farmers. The government remained the owner of the andland. The bid system was devised to give the company a regular source of income with minimum administrative effort, but this actually led to fluctuation in revenues as many bidders used to run away when they were not elite to pay the revenue to the government. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis supported by his advisor Sir John Shore introduced the Permanent Land Settlement. The zamindar (or landlord) was made the owner of the land and he could sell, pledge or divide land between his family members. In return, he was to give a fixed amount of revenue to the government every year, and in case of inability to pay the revenue, the government could revoke the right of the zamindar and entrust the same to some other person. To start with, each zamindar was given land on a 10 year lease and the zamindars who paid regular revenues were made the ultimate owners of the land. This new system helped zamindars to increase productivity and at the same time reap more profits as the land revenue was fixed. But later the zamindars became autocrats and started exploiting the farmers and the land. As the miseries of the farmers increased the system was abolished in Bengal by passing the West Bengal Land Acquisition Act, 1855.

**Mirasdari System** In the Chennai Presidency, the Palegar system was prevalent during the early years of nineteenth century. The palegars were the landlords who exercised judicial powers and also possessed military powers. They were allowed by the British to collect land revenue to the tune of 50 per cent of the annual production. In 1855, the Governor of Chennai, Sir Thomas Monroe, abolished the palegar system, by curtailing their legal and military powers and reducing them to the states of mere revenue collectors. These palegars were called Mirasdars. The eldest landlord became the mirasdar. He was not necessarily the owner of the land coming under his mirasdari. The farmers were the actual land owners and had to pay regular revenue. The defaulters, even in case of famine or drought, were penalized and after 30 years of introducing the mirasdar system, the government had to replace it with the ryotwari system.

**Ryotwari System** The ryotwari system was first introduced in the Chennai Presidency during the

Munroe period. The ryots (or the cultivators), whose condition had reached the lowest during the Bengal famine, were helped greatly by this new system. The ryots, who had become slaves to the zamindars and mirasdars were able to improve their hereditary land under this system. This system established a direct link between the government and the ryots or farmers. There were no zamindars and now in this case government acted as zamindars. The twofold advantage that the government benefitted from implementing this system was that the government was getting extra revenue from the land as more and more ryots has become enthusiastic because of their improving economic condition. This increased the productivity from the land and also led the ryots to cultivate more land, which used to be lying idle. Also, the government started getting support from the ryots as the system had freed them from the authority of the zamindars. However, the biggest defect of this system was that it proved unfavourable to the ownership of private property, fairness of royal life and co-existence.

**Mahalwari System** This was a scientific land revenue settlement implemented by Lord Bentinck. He got the land records surveyed and divided the land into mahals on the basis of village communities, with separate estates. The settlement for 30 years on each estate was given to the village chief or elders. These states were further divided among cultivators according to the measurements of the detailed survey. The rights of cultivators were safeguarded in this system and the government kept a paid servant, called patwari, to manage land revenue as well as land administration accounts. The patwaries from a group of villages used to report to the talukdars, who were established landlords with good past records.

### ★ The Nawabs of Bengal (1717-1772)

Murshid Quli Khan (1717-1727); Shuja-ud-din (1727-1739); Sarfraz Khan (1739-1740); Alivardi Khan (1740-1756); Sirajud Daulah (1756-1757), Mir Jafar (1757-1760); Mir Qasim (1760--1763); Mir Jafar (1763-1765), Najm-ud-daulah (1765-1772).

### Sir John Shore (1793-1798)

He succeeded Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General in 1793. He was a stern believer in the policy of

neutrality. Just after his resuming the office of Governor-General, he was approached by the Nizam to help him fight the Marathas in the Battle of Khurdla in 1793. As Shore remained neutral, the Nizam lost the war and turned towards the French. This brought resentment among the European officers in his ranks and they rebelled against him. After this, Shore started taking active interest in the internal affairs of the kings. After the death of the Nawab of Oudh, he took active interest in bringing the rightful heir to the throne. He returned to England in 1798.

### Lord Wellesley (1798-1805)

In 1798, Lord Wellesley succeeded Sir John Shore with the aim of establishing British supremacy in India and to put an end to French conspiracy. During the Governor-Generalship of Lord Wellesley, the Fourth Mysore War (1799) was fought. This was the last Mysore war. Tipu Sultan, after regaining lost strength, set out again on his plan to oust the British from India with the help of Napoleon and the Persian king. Lord Wellesley, visualizing danger, sought an alliance with the Nizam and the Marathas and defeated and killed the valiant Tipu Sultan in 1799, besides war. Wellesley depended on a system of subsidiary alliances to expand British territories, whereby the ruler of an aligning state was compelled to accept permanent stationing of a British force within his territory and pay subsidy for its maintenance. Sometimes a territory was added in lieu of payment. A ruler also had to accept a British resident. They were not allowed to employ any European without British approval nor negotiate with any Indian ruler without consulting the Governor-General. Thus subsidiary lost sovereignty in external matters, while the British resident interfered in internal administration, thereby causing the rulers to lose control over their territories.

### ★ Governor-Generals between Lord Wellesley and Lord Francis Hastings

Some records say that lord Wellesley was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis who took over as Governor-General in 1805. He wanted to reverse the neutrality policy adopted by Wellesley but his health did not allow him to officiate and he died within 6 months. In 1805, he was succeeded by Sir George Barlow. Barlow made Treaty of Gwalior and Gohad with Scindia and Treaty of Lahore with

Ranjit Singh in 1805. He is remembered for withdrawing to Rajput kingdoms. He was replaced with Lord Minto in 1807; Minto had a difficult time suppressing the rebellions at Chennai and Travancore in his initial years. He started expanding the British establishment further and was able to get the rights for the areas east of Sutlej from Ranjit Singh after Treaty of Amritsar. The Charter Act of 1813 was passed during his tenure.

### Lord Francis Hastings (1813-1823)

Under the governorship of Lord Hastings, Nepal was defeated in 1814, resulting in Nepal ceding Gharwal and Kumaon to the British. In 1818, the Marathas made a last attempt to regain their independence. This led to the Third Anglo-Maratha War in which the Marathas were completely crushed. During Hastings' tenure, various reforms were initiated such as the ryotwari settlement according to which direct settlement was made between the government and the ryots (cultivators). The revenue was fixed for a period not exceeding 30 years, on the basis of the quality of the soil. Half the net value of the crop was to be given to the government. During this period, special attention was paid to education, building roads, bridges and canals. Lord Hastings became the first Governor-General to resign from the post on charges of bribery and corruption. He returned to England in 1823.

### Lord William Bentinck (1828-1835)

Bentinck was famous for the social reforms he introduced, such as the abolition of sati (1820), suppression of thuggee, suppression of female infanticide and human sacrifices. English was introduced as the medium of higher education on the advice of his council member, Thomas Babington Macaulay. Lord Bentinck also made a pact with Maharaja Ranjit Singh, the ruler of Punjab. By the Charter Act of 1833, the company ceased to be a trading company and became an administrative power. He also adopted some corrective measures in the civil services. However, it was Cornwallis who founded the British Civil Service in India.

**EDUCATION REFORMS** Education for the most part was left in the charge of Indians or with private agents who imparted instruction in the

vernacular languages. But in 1813, the British became convinced of their duty to awaken the Indians from intellectual slumber by exposing them to British literary traditions, earmarking a party sum for the cause. Controversy between two groups of Europeans - the Orientalists and Anglicists - over the money was to be spent prevented them from formulating any consistent policy until 1835 when William Cavendish Bentinck, the Governor-General from 1828 to 1835; finally broke the impasse by resolving to introduce the English language as the medium of instruction, English replaced Persian in public administration and education.

**JUDICIAL REFORMS** The judicial system saw rapid reforms during his tenure. All provincial and circuit courts were abolished as they were not functioning satisfactorily. Instead, Bentinck divided Bengal into 20 districts and appointed a commissioner in each district, who carried out the functions of the judges of provincial courts. He also established one more civil court, Sadar Diwani Adalat and one criminal court, Sadar Nizamut Adalat at Allahabad. Indians were appointed as deputy magistrates and jurors. The courts also adopted the regional languages and the use of Persian was discontinued in courts. The most significant occurrence was the proper compilation and indexing of laws for the first time, which made the legal procedure simpler and dispensation of justice swifter.

**SOCIAL REFORMS** The Company's educational policies in the 1830s tended to reinforce existing lines of socio-economic division in society rather than bringing general liberation from ignorance and superstition. Whereas the Hindu English-educated minority spearheaded many social and religious reforms, either in direct response to government policies or in reaction to them, Muslims as a group initially failed to do so, a position they endeavoured to reverse. The western-educated Hindu elite sought to rid Hinduism of its much criticized social evils: idolatry, the caste system, child marriage and sati. Religious and social activist Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772-1833), who founded the Brahma Samaj (Society of Brahma) in 1828, displayed a attainments and skilful use of the press by these early reformers enhanced the possibility of effecting broad reforms



without compromising societal values or religious practices.

**PUBLIC WELFARE REFORMS** Many roads, bridges and canals were built during Bentinck's tenure, the most significant being the Grand Trunk Road between Kolkata and Delhi and the road from Agra to Mumbai. He was also pivotal in the development of a structured canal system in the north-eastern frontier. He also permitted the use of steam boats in the Ganges and in other rivers.

### Governor-Generals between Lord Bentinck and Lord Dalhousie

Lord Bentinck resigned from his post in 1835 and was replaced by Lord Charles Metcalf. Lord officiated as an acting Governor-General. He is remembered for removing restrictions on the press and media. After a few months, he was replaced by Lord Auckland in 1836. During the tenure of Lord Auckland, the English incurred heavy losses in the first Afghan War. He was recalled to England in 1842 and was replaced by Lord Elenborough (1842-1844). During his tenure, the First Sikh War (1845) was fought between the Sikhs and the British. The Sikhs were defeated and were brought under British control. He is remembered for reducing the price of salt by abolishing the octroi duty on it. He also permitted the appointment of English-speaking Indians in some crucial government positions. Henry Hardinge was the Governor-General from 1844 to 1848.

### **Lord Dalhousie (1848-1856)**

Lord Dalhousie succeeded Lord Hardinge in 1848. During his tenure, the Second Sikh War (1848-1849) was fought, in which the Sikhs were defeated again and Dalhousie was successful in annexing the whole of Punjab to the British dominion. The Doctrine of Lapse was introduced by Lord Dalhousie, whereby it, the absence of a natural heir, the sovereignty of Indian states was to lapse to the British and such rulers were not permitted to adopt a son to inherit their kingdoms.

**INFRASTRUCTURAL REFORMS** The 1850s witnessed the introduction of the three engines of social improvement that the British illusion of

permanence in India. They were the railroad, the telegraph and the uniform postal service. inaugurated during Dalhousie's tenure as Governor General.

**Railways** The first railroad lines were built in 1850, from Howrah (Haora, across the Hoogly River from Kolkata) inland to the coalfields at Raniganj, Bihar, a distance of 240 km. But this was not used as public transport. The first railway line, for public use between Mumbai and Thane, was opened in 1853.

**Telegraph** In 1851, the first electric telegraph line was laid in Bengal and soon Agra, Mumbai, Kolkata, Lahore, Varanasi and other cities were linked.

**Postal system** In 1854, the three different presidencies or regional postal systems merged to facilitate uniform methods of communication at an all India level. With uniform postal rates for letters and newspapers one-half anna and one anna, respectively (sixteen annas equalled one rupee) - communication between the rural and the metropolitan areas became easier and faster. The increased ease of communication and the opening of highways and waterways accelerated the movement of troops, the transportation of raw materials and goods to and from the interior, and the exchange of commercial information.

The railroads did not breakdown the social or cultural distances between various groups but tended to create new categories in travel. Separate compartments in the trains were reserved exclusively for the ruling class, separating the educated and wealthy from ordinary people. Similarly, when the Sepoy Rebellion was quelled in 1858, a British official exclaimed that 'the telegraph saved India'. He envisaged of course that British interests in India would continue indefinitely. Other reforms include setting up of the Public Work Department and passing of the Widow Remarriage Act. 1856.

### Doctrine of Lapse

Lord Dalhousie followed vigorously the policy of annexing feudatory states by what is commonly known as 'Doctrine of Lapse'. He was convinced that British administration was better for the people than the rule of Indian kings. Accordingly he regarded them as anomalies, to be abolished by every possible means. He further believed that good faith must be

kept with rulers on the throne and with their legitimate heirs while no sentiment should save the dynasties which had fortified sympathies by generations of misrule or preserve those that had no hereditary successor. The Doctrine of Lapse was that outcome of these principles, complicated by the Hindu law and practice of adoptions. Dalhousie held that state of ruler could not pass to a son adopted without the consent of the suzerain (the company in this case). Such consents, at the same time, could not be easily given. The Doctrine of Lapse, which had been recognized as early as 1834, thus became a powerful instrument in Dalhousie's hands for hastening the process of political unifications and the administrative consolidation of the country under the British rule.

### **ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE BRITISH RULE**

British colonialism established its firm roots in India in three stages, each stage representing a different pattern of subordination of colony and consequently different colonial policies, ideologies, impact and the response of colonial people.

**Period of Mercantilism (1757-1813)** The objectives of the British during this time were monopoly of trade and direct appropriation of revenue. The main features were as follows: very strong element of plunder and direct seizure of power, absence/of large-scale import of British goods, no basic changes in the colony's administration, judiciary, culture, and economy and so on.

**Period of Laissez. Faire (1813-1860)** The main features of this period were determination of the administrative policies and economic structure of the colony by the interests of the industrial bourgeoisie of the metropolis making colony a subordinate trading partner which would export raw materials and import manufactured goods, transformation of the colony's economy, polity, administration, society, culture and ideology under the guise of development and modernization in order to exploit for furthering British interests.

**Finance Imperialism (1860-1947)** This period was marked by the intense struggle for new, secure and exclusive markets and sources of raw materials among the industrialized countries, the consequent export of

capital by these countries to the colonies, replacement of liberal policies by reactionary ones in the administration of colonies.

### **Drain of Wealth**

The British, very systematically, took away resources and wealth from India. Economists like R. C. Dutt, Dadabhai Naoroji and others have termed this systematic act of the British as Economic Drain or the drain of wealth. The Theory of Drain was propounded by the nationalist thinkers of India. Their objective was to study the main causes of poverty in India. The term Drain implied to 'the unrequited surplus of exports over imports that was transferred to England'. The colonial rule was typically characterized by drain. The movement of resources from India to England either without offering anything in return or offering only a small part of such movement of resources can be described as the Drain of resources from India. Dadabhai Naoroji in his book Poverty and Un-British Rule in India (1871) drew the attention of the masses towards this trend. He tried to explain the causes of the drain, to assess the amount of the drain and to trace the impacts of such drain; through his book he tried to bring out the fact that the existing mass poverty in India was the result of the drain of resources from India to England.

### **Forms of Drain of Wealth**

As per Dadabhai Naoroji, the following were the forms of drain of wealth:

1. Payments to England by Europeans, for the support of families and education of children.
2. Payments of savings by employees of company, since most employees preferred to Invest at home.
3. Payments for purchase of British goods to the consumption of British employees as well as purchases by them of British goods.
4. Government expenditures for purchase of stores produced in Britain.
5. Charges of interest on public debt held in Britain.
6. The government of the India had to make: huge expenses for maintaining political, administrative and commercial connections established between India and England.

Such commitments made were known as Home.They included interest on public debt raised.

They included interest on public debt raised in

England at comparatively higher rates, annuities on account of railway and irrigation works, payment in connection with civil departments where Englishmen were employed, India Office expenses including pensions to retired officials who had worked in India or who had worked for India in England and retired there, and pensions to army and naval personnel and their payments.

### Commercialization of Agriculture

Commercial agriculture that is the production of crops for sale rather than for own consumption, grew because of a variety of reasons. One basic reason was the constant need of the peasants under the new land systems to find ways of getting money to meet the mounting demand put upon them by the state. The peasants started growing only specific crops. The land in groups of villages was solely used, because of its special suitability, for the cultivation of a single agricultural crop such as cotton, jute, wheat, sugarcane and oil seeds. Another basic reason for the rapid growth in the cultivation of cash crops was that the British government of India encouraged this. With the rise of modern industries in England, the necessity of raw materials for those industries grew. The British government in India pursued economic policies which expanded the area for growth of such raw materials as needed by the British industries. The government gradually improved the means of transport which made commerce in agriculture more widespread. Thus, the government accelerated the commercialization and specialization of Indian agriculture.

Results of the commercialization and specialization of agriculture also disrupted the unity of agriculture and industry in the traditional Indian village. Thus the older rural framework of India, weakened by the new land system, was shattered by the spread of commercial agriculture

Commercialization adversely affected even the economic position of the agriculturist. As he now started produce for the Indian and world market, he became subject to all vicissitudes of erratic market. He had to compete with, formidable international rivals like the big agrarian truisis, of America, Europe and Australia which produced on a mass scale by means of all modern agricultural machinery, while Indian

agriculturist has to cultivate his small strip of land by means of the labour power of bullocks and the primitive plough. Further, the commercialization made him dependent, for the sale of his product, on the middlemen, the merchants. The merchant by his superior economy position took full advantage of the poverty of the peasant. The poor peasant had to sell his product to the middleman at the harvest time to meet the revenue claims of the Mate and also the claims of the moneylender. This transaction originating in sheer necessity brought a less amount to the peasant than it would have if he waited. The middleman thus appropriated a very large share of the profit.

### Deindustrialization

The industries which were worst affected by the policies of the British were the cotton weaving and spinning industries, silk and woollen industries, pottery, glass, paper, metal, shipping, oil-pressing, tanning and dyeing industries. The poor state of the Indian handicraft industry can be ascribed to the following causes;

1. Influx of foreign goods with the adoption of the policy of one-way free trade by the British.
2. The construction of railways which enabled the British manufacturers to reach the remotest villages of the country
3. The oppression practiced by the East India Company and its servants on the craftsmen in forcing them to sell their goods below the prevailing wage.
4. The loss of European markets to Indian manufacturers due to the imposition of high import duties and other restrictions on the import of Indian goods.
5. The gradual disappearance of Indian rulers and their courts, who were the main customers of town handicrafts.
6. Rise in the prices of raw materials due to the British policy of exporting raw materials.

The downslide in Indian industries resulted in the following;

- Depopulation and ruin of towns and cities which were famous for their manufactures.

- Increase in unemployment due to the absence of the growth of modern industries.
- Breaking of the union between agriculture and domestic industry in the countryside which in turn led to the destruction of the self-sufficient village economy.
- Overcrowding of agriculture by the ruined artisans, thus adding to the general pressure on land.

## SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS MOVEMENTS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

### INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the British as a power to reform within India, by the start of the nineteenth century. Western influence became more evident in Indian culture too. There was quite a reformation in Indian society and religion. Indian culture was liberalized of some of the social and religious conventions, and its new outlook now contained a more westernized, logical and scientific approach, rationality of thought, self-introspection and a sense of nationalism. Many leaders and religious societies came into being and some of the most prominent ones are-discussed in the following sections.

#### Dr Atmaram Panduranga and the Prarthna Samaj

The activities of the Paramahansa forum were confined to social reforms only. It was the Prarthna Samaj which came into being in 1867 under Dr Atmaram Panduranga and had prominent followers like M. G. Ranade, Bhandarkar and Pandita Ramakrishna Paramahansa (1836-1886), Ramabai who fought against superstitions and casteism. It condemned child marriage and encouraged educating women. The administration of this society brought out a paper called Subodha Patrika to spread its philosophy.

#### Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Brahma Samaj

Ram Mohan Roy lived during the nineteenth century. He was a religious and social reformer and founder of the Brahma Samaj (1829). Through this society, he abolished idol worship, caste system and several complicated rites and rituals. He was fluent in Bengali, Arabic; Sanskrit and English. His earliest brush with social reform came when he wrote an article in a Bengali magazine condemning idol worship. His father Ramakant Roy, was annoyed with his outburst against religious conventions and told him to leave

home. He joined the East India Company in 1805, and during his 10 years of service, he was exposed to the Western culture and Christianity. He retired in 1815, settled in Kolkata and- became an active social activist, He was instrumental in getting an ordinance prohibiting Sati passed in 1828, during Bentinck's tenure. He knew that an armed rebellion against the British was not possible and so strived hard to bring a socio-political awakening in the people of India. Understanding the need of learning the English language and Western sciences, he toiled hard to create opportunities for Indians. In 1823, he agitated against the government, protesting the imposition of a ban on printing presses and newspapers. He started his own paper called 'Lotus of Enlightenment' (Sambad Kaumudi). He was conferred with the title 'Raja' and sent to England on pension; by the Mughal emperor, Akbar II, in 1831 as an ambassador from his court. Raja Ram Mohan Roy worked hard convince the British government to think of the Welfare of Indian society and secured many privileges for Indians. He died in Bristol in 1833. Brahma Samaj was later renamed as Adi Brahma Samaj under the leadership of Devendranath Tagore, and Sadharan Brahma Samaj, under the leadership of Keshab Chandra Sen, in 1836.

#### Ramakrishna, Vivekananda and the Ramakrishna Mission

Ramakrishna Paramahansa (1836-1886), a priest at a temple in Dakshineswar near Kolkata, emphasized that there are many roads to God and salvation and that service to man was service to God. His great disciple, Swami Vivekananda (1863-1902) popularized his religious message by travelling all over India. He founded the Ramakrishna Mission in 1896, a centre for religious and spiritual guidance that has attracted people from all walks of life.

#### Swami Dayananda Saraswati and the Arya Samaj

The Arya Samaj was founded in 1875 by Swami Dayananda Saraswati in order to reform Hindu religion in North India. He was born in Tankargaon in Gujarat. His early name was Mula Shankur and he became an atheist after a series of deaths in his family. He later came in contact with Swami Veerajnanda Saraswati who gave him the name Dayananda Saraswati. He believed that there was only one God and that God should be worshipped in spirit and not in the form of idols and images. He also wrote Satyarth Prakash. The Arya Samaj mooted a slogan 'Go back to the Vedas' and emphasized that the Hindu religion can be improved if it relied solely upon the principles of the Vedas. He established the Arya Samaj in Mumbai and Lahore that later attracted many followers from all over India. His followers started many schools and colleges that became centres to inculcate the spirit of nationalism among people and paved the way for Indian independence. The Arya Samaj believed in celibacy, asceticism, a casteless society and social service. It introduced several reforms to eradicate untouchability, child marriage and illiteracy. Lala Lajpat Rai and Swami Sharadananda contributed to Arya Samaj towards the end.

### Sir Syed Ahmed Khan and the Muslim Movements

In India two major reform movements came into being for bringing about a spiritual reawakening among the Muslims - the Aligarh Movement, which started in Arabia with the Wahabi Movement, and the Deoband Movement, which came into being at Deoband in Saharanpur District, in Uttar Pradesh. The Aligarh Movement can be classified into four different movements, which were named after their leaders: (i) Shah Abdul Aziz (Delhi), (ii) Sir Syed Ahmed Khan (Bareilly), (iii) Sheikh Karamat Ali (Jaunpur) and (iv) Hazi Sheriatullah (Faridpur). Among them Sir Syed Ahmed Khan (1817-1898) is of prime significance. He stressed upon English education among Muslims. In 1875, he opened the Anglo-Oriental College in Aligarh.

#### The Wahabi Movement

Abdul Wahab started a movement in Arabics which was called the Wahabi Movement. A similar movement was carried on in India against the English, the Sikhs and the Hindus between 1820 and 1870. It was under the able leadership of Haji Shariatulla (from Faridpur in Bengal) that the movement started gaining momentum. He brought about sense of oneness among the various Muslim ryots and zamindars and cultivated a sense of nationalism among them. The Wahabis declared that land belonged to God and British did not have the right to collect taxes. The agitated against the Sikh

and Hindu rulers also. Towards the end, the Wahabi Movement got able support from Bahadur Shah (Delhi), Amir Khan (Tanka in Rajasthan), Nawabs of Kurnool and Rampur and Muslim leaders of Bangalore and Peshawar. Viceroy Mayo was killed in Andaman by a Wahabi activist Sher Ali. However, in 1870, the movement met a grim end at the hands of the British who captured their leaders and sentenced them to rigorous imprisonment.

The Deoband Movement began in 1867, with an aim of uniting all Muslims, to preach the basic principles of Islam and the philosophy of Shavaliulla (a great theologian) and to educate Muslims. The prominent leaders of this movement are Rashid Ahmed Ganguli (1882-1905) and Muhammad Qasim, Nanuutavi (1837 -1880). They opened many schools and colleges in the Saharanpur district. The difference between the Aligarh and the movements is that the Deoband agitation patronized the Congress agitation, but the Aligarh Move stayed away from the national agitation and argued that the Muslims have to cooperate with the English in their own interest.

### Indian National Social Conference

The Indian National Social Conference was founded by Mahadev Gobind Ranade and Raghunath Kao. It held first session in 1887. Its main focus was on the abolition of polygamy and kulinism and it encouraged inter-caste marriages. The conference is sometimes referred as the social reform cell of the Indian National congress. Through social conference movement, Ranade and Raghunath Rao directed their social reform efforts against child marriage, the shaving of widows' heads, and heavy expenditures in marriages and other social functions. Both of them rigorously advocated and supported widow remarriage and female education. They also encouraged the acceptance of change, believing traditional social structures like the caste system should accommodate change, thereby preserving India's ancient heritage.

### Dayal Das and the Sikh Movement

In 1890, the Khalsa College was established in Amritsar by Dayal Das who led the Sikh Movement. It opposed child marriage and Devadasi system. It condemned idol worship and other superstitions. The Sikhs who did not participate in the mutiny were propelled to join the Indian army



### Dr Annie Besant and the Theosophical society

In 1875, the Theosophical Society was founded in New York by Madam H. P. Blavatsky (Russian) and Henry Olcott (American). The society, which emphasized on the importance of human values like justice, morality, piety and charity, played an active role in Indian spiritual spheres. It opened its first branch in Adyar in Chennai in 1882. Dr. Annie Besant (1846-1933) was an English citizen, who came to India in 1893, and involved herself in the Hindu revival movement, under the Theosophical Society. In 1916 she actively participated in the Home Rule Movement and through her writings tried to kindle political awareness among the Indians. The Theosophical Society became very popular under her leadership.

## VICEROYS OF INDIA

### Lord Canning (1856-1862)

Immediately after Queen Victoria's proclamation Lord Canning was appointed the first viceroy of British India. During his tenure the Indian Penal Code came into force in 1860 and the Indian Council Act of 1861 was passed by the British Parliament for setting up of legislative councils in the provinces, with Indians as members. This act strengthened the Viceroy's authority over his executive council substituting 'portfolio' or departmental system for corporate functioning. In the field of education, the universities of Kolkata, Chennai and Mumbai were established.

### Lord Elgin I (1862-1863)

Lord Elgin succeeded Lord Canning in 1862. During his regime, the Wahabis, a Muslim sect, revolted on the north-western frontiers but were suppressed. His untimely death brought Lord Lawrence to India as the next viceroy of India.

### Sir John Lawrence (1864-1869)

Lawrence's tenure witnessed a war with Bhutan and famine in Orissa. Friendly relations were developed with the Afghans. He was severely defeated by the Bhutanese who were a constant source of trouble to the British in the frontier region.

### Lord Mayo (1869-1872)

During his regime, the government was decentralized. He introduced several reforms in the

administration and cut down many useless government expenses. The Mayo College in Ajmer was established in his honour. He improved the Andaman jail administration and made systems for the welfare of the prisoners. He was killed by a Wahabi prisoner in the Andaman jail premises.

### Lord North Brooke (1872-1876)

During North Brooke's time, import duties were lowered and export duties were abolished in a bid to improve trade. His position of neutrality in Afghan matters led the Russians to gain an upper hand in the central Asian region. The Secretary of State, Lord Salisbury overruled the viceroy's decision to be neutral in Afghan matters and appointed a British advisor to the Afghan Ameer. Viceroy Brooke did not take this lightly and resigned from the post and returned to England in 1876.

### Lord Lytton (1876-1880)

Lytton held a Durbar in Delhi, proclaiming Queen Victoria as the Empress of India. The Second Afghan War fought during his tenure aroused discontent because of the high cost involved and the situation was worsened by a severe famine in the Deccan. Earlier the government used to collect famine relief fund only during the time of famines, but Lytton regularized the fund. The present provincial famine code is based upon the Famine Committee reports to Lytton's tenure. In 1878, the Vernacular Press Act restricted the freedom of the press.

**Lord Ripon (1880-1884)**

During Ripon's period, there was a phase of progress with the Factories Act, 1881, which tried to improve the position of factory workers; it restricted the working hours of both women and children and allowed the local government to propose rules. Freedom of the press was restored by repealing Vernacular Press Act. The first census of India took place in 1871.

**Lord Dufferin (1884-1888)**

Lord Dufferin succeeded Lord Ripon as the viceroy of India. During his regime, Burma (now Myanmar) was invaded in 1895 and as a result was annexed to the British Empire in 1889. The Indian National Congress was also formed during this time. Dufferin appointed the Public Service Commission in 1886. The Tenancy Act, 1887, was passed during his tenure to safeguard the interest of farmer.

**Lord Lansdown (1888-1894)**

During Lansdown's tenure, the Second Indian Council Act of 1892 was passed. He had formerly served as the Deputy Secretary in the Defence Department. The boundary line, as per the Durand Treaty, was drawn up between British India and Afghanistan; it was known as the Durand Line after Sir Mortimer Durand who defined the demarcation. Kashmir was returned to its king in 1905, during Lansdown tenure.

**Lord Elgin II (1894-1899)**

Lokmanya Tilak was imprisoned and released during Elgin's viceroyalty. The great famine struck India in 1896, during this period. Elgin formed the Opium Committee to preach the ill effects of opium addiction to people. He retired in 1899 and was succeeded by Lord Curzon.

**Lord Curzon (1899-1905)**

During Curzon's period, Queen Victoria died in 1901 and was succeeded by Edward VII who was declared King Emperor of India. The Swadeshi Movement and Partition of Bengal (1905-1911) were

crucial events that took place during his tenure. Curzon is remembered for his Police reforms under the guidance of Sir Andrew Frazer. He brought about education reforms by setting up the Raleigh Commission. Curzon passed the Ancient Monument Protection Act, 1904, and the Punjab Land Act, 1905.

**Lord Minto II (1905-1910)**

Minto II's term saw a lot of discontentment among people. The Muslim League, formed in 1906, supported the Partition of Bengal and opposed the Swadeshi Movement and this led to major differences between Hindus and Muslims. The Indian Council Act (the Minto-Morley Reforms) was passed in 1909.

**Lord Harding II (1910-1916)**

Notable events during Harding II's tenure were the visit of King George V and Queen Mary in December 1911, to celebrate the accession of King George V. a Great Durbar was held in Delhi in their honour. Further, the capital of India was shifted from Kolkata to Delhi. The Partition of Bengal was annulled during his term. The First World War broke out and the Indian National Congress led by Mahatma Gandhi supported the government in fighting the war.

**Lord Chelmsford (1916-1922)**

Important events during Chelmsford's term were as follows: (i) the August Declaration of 1917, whereby control over the Indian government would be gradually transferred to the Indian people; (ii) the Government of India Act, 1919, (Montague-Chelmsford Reforms) was passed; (iii) the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre that took place on 13 April 1919; (iv) organization of Mahatma Gandhi's non-cooperation movement called satyagraha and (v) the Rowlatt Act of 1919. Agitation began all over the country against the Rowlatt Act.

**Lord Reading (1922-1926)**

Lord Chelmsford resigned and was succeeded by Lord Reading, in 1922, who suppressed the non-cooperation movement. Other significant events of his term were as follows: (i) the Ahmedabad Session of 1921; (ii) Formation of Swaraj Party; (iii) Communal riots of 1922 and (iv) Prince of Wales visit to India. The Khilafat Movement and Non-cooperation Movement were at their peak during his tenure.

### **Lord Irwin (1926-1931)**

The Simon Commission was appointed during Lord Irwin's term. The Gandhi-Irwin Pact, 1931, was signed and political prisoners were released. The Congress passed the independence resolution in 1929 and Mahatma Gandhi began his Dandi March (1930) and the Civil Disobedience Movement (1930). The First Round Table Conference held in England in 1930 was attended by Mahatma Gandhi.

### **Lord Willingdon (1931-1936)**

The viceroyalty of Lord Willingdon saw the holding of Second Round Table Conference. The Communal Award August 1932, by Ramsay MacDonald, assigned seats different religious communities. Mahatma Gandhi went on a fast unto death in protest against this division. The Third Round Table Conference took place and the Government of India Act, 1935, was passed.

### **Lord Linlithgow (1936-1943)**

During Linlithgow's viceroyalty, provincial autonomy and Congress ministries were established. The Muslim League leader, Jinnah, demanded the state of Pakistan for the Muslims. The Cripps Mission of 1942 was a failure and the Quit India Resolution was passed by the Congress. Its leaders were thrown into prison. The Second World War broke out in 1939.

### **Lord Wavell (1944-1947)**

The Cabinet Mission Plan (1946) provided for an interim government and laid down the procedure for framing the Indian Constitution. The observance of Direct Action Day in Kolkata, by the Muslim League, led to riots and bloodshed. On 20 February 1947, the Prime Minister of England, Clement Attlee, announced that the transfer of power would take place before June

1948. Riots and disturbances continued vigorously in demand for the partition of India.

### **Lord Mountbatten (March 1947-August 1947)**

Lord Mountbatten was the last Viceroy and the first Governor-General of free India. The partition of India was decided by the June 3rd Plan, and the Indian Independence Act, 1947, was passed, which made India an independent nation on 15 August 1947, and Pakistan a free nation on 14 August 1947. Lord Mountbatten retired in June 1948 and was succeeded by C. Rajagopalachari, who became the first Indian Governor-General of independent India.

### **Causes of Revolt of 1857**

★ The Revolt of 1857, also known as the First War of Independence, was the most dramatic event in India's struggle against foreign rule. But it was not an event that occurred all of a sudden. It was the peak of many decades of long tradition of severe popular resistance to British rule. The consolidation of British power in India was a lengthy process of piecemeal conquest and the colonization of the economy and society.



## INDIAN FREEDOM STRUGGLE

### FIRST WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

The uprising, which seriously threatened British rule in India, has been called by many names by historians, including the Sepoy Rebellion, the Great Mutiny and the Revolt of 1857; however, many prefer call it India's first war of independence. Undoubtedly, it was the culmination of mounting Indian resentment toward, British economic and social policies over many decades. Until the rebellion the British had succeeded in suppressing numerous and 'tribal' wars or in accommodating them through concessions till the Great Mutiny in the summer of 1857 during the viceroyalty of Lord Canning.

#### Important Leaders Connected with the Revolt

The heroine of this war of independence was Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi who died on 17 June 1858, while fighting the British forces. Other notable leaders were Ahmadullah of Awadh, Nana Sahob of Konpur and his loyal commander Tantia Tope, Rao Singh, Azimullah Khan, Kunwar Singh of Jagdishpur, Firuz Shah, Maulwi Ahmed Shah of Firozabad; the Begum of Awadh (Hazrat Mahal), Khan Bahadur Khan of Bareilly and Maulawi Ahmadullah of Faizabad. The nominal leader of the

revolt, Bahadur Shah II, and General Bakht Khan, who led the revolt of sepoys at Delhi have their own places in the history of 1857 revolt. Supporters of the English in the revolt were, the Mumbai and Chennai armies that remained loyal to them; the Rojas of Patiala, Jind, Gwalior, Hyderabad and Nepal helped them to suppress the revolt.

### The Beginning of the Revolt

On 29 March 1857, an Indian sepoy of the 34 Regiment, Mangal Pandey, killed two British officers on parade at Barrackpore. The Indian soldiers present then refused to obey orders and arrest Mangal Pandey. However, he was arrested later on, tried and hanged. The news spread like wildfire to all cantonments in the country and very soon a countrywide sepoy revolt broke out in Lucknow, Ambala, Berhampur and Meerut.

On 10 May 1857, soldiers at Meerut refused to touch the new Enfield rifle cartridges. The soldiers, along with other civilians, went on a rampage shouting maro firangi ko. They broke open jails, murdered European men and women, burnt their houses and marched to Delhi. Next morning, in Delhi the soldiers signalled the local soldiers by marching, who in turn revolted, seized the city and proclaimed the 80-year-old Bahadur Shah Zafar, as the Emperor of India.

### Popular Movements And Revolts Upto 1857

Year	Movement/Mutiny
1764	Mutiny of sepoys in Bengal
1766	Chuar and Ro rising in Chhotanogpur and Singbhum regions where the Chaur. He and Munda tribes revolted till 1772 due to famine, enhanced demands and economic privation
1770	Sanyasi Revolt
1806	Vellore Mutiny
1817	Bhil movement in the Western Ghats
1822	Romosi rising under the leadership of Chittar Singh
1824	Mutiny of sepoys of the 47th Regiment at Barrackpore
1828	Ahams Revolt against the company for non-fulfilment of pledges after the Burmese War 1829. First Koli rising against dismantling of forts of independent Koli tribes
1831	Kol rising of Chhotanagpur against the transfer of land from heads of Kol tribesmen to outsiders
1833	Khasi Rising in the hilly region of Jaintia and Garohills. The revolt was lead by Tirath Singh, the ruler of Nunklow and resented by Khasis in the region
1838	FARAIZI Movement under the leadership of Titu Mirit later merged into the Wahabi Movement
1839	Second Koli rising
1844	Third Koli rising
1844	Surat Salt Agitation against raised salt duty
1844	Mutiny of the 34th Native Infantry
1844	Kolhapur and Savantvadi Revolts
1849	Mutiny of the 22nd Native Infantry
1850	Mutiny of the 66th Native Infantry
1852	Mutiny of the 37th Native Infantry
1855	Santhal rebellion in the Rajmahal hills region of Bihar
1857	Revolt of sepoys of 3rd Cavalry at Meerut and later mutinies in Punjab, Mathura, Lucknow, Bareilly, Shahjahanpur, Kanpur, Banaras, Jhansi, Allahabad and many other places in North India

Within a month of the capture of Delhi, the revolt spread to different parts of the country: Kanpur, Lucknow, Banaras, Allahabad, Bareilly, Jagdishpur and Jhansi. In the absence of any leader from their own ranks, the insurgents turned to traditional leaders of Indian society. At Kanpur, Nana Saheb - the adopted son of last Peshwa, Baji Rao II - led the forces. Rani Lakshmi Bai in Jhansi, Begum Hazrat Mahal in

Lucknow and Khan Bahadur in Bareilly were the others in command. However, apart from a commonly shared hatred for alien rule, the rebels had no political perspective or a definite vision of the future. They were all prisoners of their own past, fighting primarily to regain their lost privileges.

Unsurprisingly, they proved incapable of ushering in a new political order, John Lawrence rightly remarked that had a single leader of ability arisen among them (the rebels) we would have been lost beyond redemption'.



### Failure of The Revolt

The rebels were dealt a powerful blow when the British captured Delhi on 20 September 1857 and imprisoned Emperor Bahadur Shah. The British military then dealt with the rebels in each centre, by term. The Rani of Jhansi died fighting on 17 June 1858. Nana Saheb refused to give in and finally escaped to Nepal in January 1859, hoping to renew the struggle, Kunwar Singh died in May 1858, trying to escape from the British, and Tantia Tape, who successfully carried out guerrilla warfare against the British until April 1859, was betrayed by a fellow rebel and was captured and put to death by the British, thus re-establishing British authority over India.

#### Causes of Failure of the Revolt

- (i) Disunity of Indians and poor organization.
- (ii) Lack of complete nationalism - Scindia, Holkors, the Nizam and others actively helped the British.
- (iii) Lack of coordination between sepoys, peasants, zamindars and other classes.
- (iv) All participants had different motives for participating in the revolt.

### **Spread of the Revolt**

The rebellion soon engulfed much of North India, including Awadh and various areas that were once under the control of Maratha princes. The capture of Delhi and the proclamation of Bahadur Shah as the Emperor of Hindustan (Shahenshah-e-Hindustan) gave a positive, meaning to the revolt and provided a rallying point for the rebels by recalling the past glory of the imperial city. The revolt at Meerut and the capture of Delhi were the precursors to a widespread

mutiny by the sepoys and rebellion almost, over North India, as well as in central and western parts of the country. The south remained quiet and Punjab and Bengal were only marginally affected. Almost half of the company's sepoy strength of 2,32,224 opted out of loyalty to their regimental colours and overcame the ideology of the army, which had been meticulously constructed over a period of time through discipline. Isolated mutinies also occurred at military posts in the centre of the subcontinent. Initially, the rebels, although divided and uncoordinated, gained the upper hand, while the unprepared British were terrified, and even paralysed, without replacements for the casualties. The Result of 1857, an unsuccessful but heroic effort to eliminate foreign rule, had begun. The civil war inflicted havoc on both the Indians and the British as each exited its fury on the other, each community suffered humiliation and triumph in battle as well, although the final outcome was victory for the British. The last major sepoy rebels surrendered on 21 June 1858, at Gwalior (Madhya Pradesh), one of the

principal centres of the revolt. A final battle was fought at Sirwa Pass on 21 May 1859 and the defeated rebels fled to Nepal.

The spontaneous and widespread rebellion later fired the imagination of the nationalists who would debate the most effective method of protest against the British rule. For them; the rebellion represented the first Indian attempt at gaining independence. This interpretation, however, is open to serious question.

### Significance of the Revolt

The important element in the revolt lays in Hindu-Muslim unity. People exhibited patriotic sentiment without the touch of communal feelings. All rebels, irrespective of their religion, recognized Bahadur Shah as their emperor. It no doubt began as a mutiny of soldiers but soon turned into a revolt against the British rule in general.

## SUBLTERN MOVEMENTS OF NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

**TABLE 3.1 Tribal Movements in Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries**

Name of the Movement	Area Affected	Year	Leader(s)	Course of the Movement and Consequence
<b>Chuars</b>	Nanbhum and Barabhum (West Bengal)	1768, 1832	Not available	Defiance of the British authority by Chuars; suppression of the revolt by the British through use of force as well as conciliatory measures
<b>Bhils</b>	Khandesh (Maharashtra)	1818, 1848	Not available	Beginning of revolt of Bhils with the British occupation of khandesh and their defiance of the British for 30 years; final suppression through military operations combined with conciliatory measures
<b>Hos</b>	Singhbhum and Chota Nagpur	1820, 1822, 1832	Not available	Occupation of Singbhum by the British and revolt of the Hos, its suppression after extensive military operations; their revolt again in 1832
<b>Kolis</b>	Sahyadri Hills (Gujarat and Maharashtra)	1824, 1828, 1839, and 1844-1848	Not available	Repeated revolts of kolis and their final suppression after the capture of all their leaders
<b>Khasis</b>	Khasi Hills (Assam and Meghalaya)	1829-1832	Tirut Singh and Bar Manik (Chiefs of Nounklow)	Unsuccessful attempts of the khasis to drive away the British from their territory

			and Molim, respectively)	
<b>Singphos</b>	Assam	1830-1839	Not available	Suppression of 1830 revolt by Captain Neufville; murder of Colonel White (British political Agent of Assam) by Singhphos in 1839 but ultimately defeated by the British
<b>Kols</b>	Chota Nagpur (Jharkand)	1831-1832	Buddoo Bhagat	Suppression of the revolt after extensive military operations by the British and death
<b>Koyas</b>	Rampa Region (Chodavarn in Andra Pradesh)	1840, 1845, 1848, 1861-1862, 1879-1880	Alluri Sitaramaraju	Repeated revolts of the koyas the major ones being the 1879-1880 and 1922-1924 revolts; capture and execution of Raju by the British in May 1924
<b>Khonds</b>	Khondmals (Orissa)	1846-1848	Chakra Bisayi	The first two revolts led by Bisayi were suppressed with great difficulty by the British
<b>Santhals</b>	Rajmahal Hills (Bihar)	1855-1856	Sidhu and Kanhu	Revolt of Santhals and establishment of their own government (July 1855); defeat of the British under Major Burrough by Santhals transfer of the disturbed area to the military and final suppression of the revolt by the end of 1856: creation of separate district of Santhal Paragans to prevent Santhals from revolting again in future
<b>Naikdas</b>	Panch Mahals (Gujarat)	1858-1859, 1868	Rupsing and Joria Bhagat	Revolt of Naikdas under Rupsingh in 1858 and conclusion of peace between the British and Rupsing in 1859; their revolt again in 1868 and establishment of a kingdom with Joria as the spiritual head and Rupsing as temporal head; suppression of the revolt after the capture and execution of Rupsing and Joria
<b>Kacha Nagas Mundas</b>	Cacher (Assam) Chota Nagpur	1882, 1899-1900	Sambhudan Birsa Munda	Foundation of a new religious sect by Birsa, with Singh Bonga as the only true God. The British fears over Birsa's preachings among Mundas and arrest and imprisonment of Birsa. Release of Birsa and revival of his doctrine; revolt of Mundas and their attack on churches and police stations (1899); defeat of Mundas by the British (jan 1900), and capture of Birsa (he died of cholera in jail in June 1900)
<b>Bhils</b>	Banswara and Dungapur (southern Rajasthan)		Govind Guru	It began as a purification movement but later developed into a political movement; failure of their attempts to set up a Bhil Raj due to British armed intervention
<b>Oraons</b>	Chotanagpur	1913	Jatra Bhagat	
<b>Thadoe Kukis</b>	Manipur	1914-1718	Jadonang and Rani Gaidinliu	
			1917-1719	

TABLE 3.2 Caste and Peasant Movements

Name	Year	Area	Leader
Nair Movement	1891-1919	Travancore	C. V. Raman Pillai and K. Ramakrishna Pillai

Nadar Movement	1910	Tamil Nadu	-
Justice Movement	1915-1916	South India	C. N. Mudaliyar, T. M. Nair and P. T. Chetti
Self Respect Movement	1925	Tamil Nadu	E. V. Ramaswami Naicker (Periya)
Ezhava Movement	1928	Kerala	Nanu Asan (Narayan Guru)
Satyashodhak Movement	1872	Maharashtra	Jyotiba Phule
Mahar Movement	1920	Maharashtra	B. R. Amberkar
Kaivartas	1897	Midnapur (Bengal)	NA
Namshudras	1901	Faridpur (Bengal)	NA
Indigo Movement	1859-1860	Bengal	Dina Bandhu Mitra
Pabna Movement	1872-1885	East Bengal	Keshab Chandra Roy and Sambhunath Pal
Deccan Riots	1875	Maharashtra	
Punjab Peasant Movement	1890-1900	Punjab	-
Champaran Movement	1917	Bihar	Gandhi, Rajendra Prasad, A. N. Sinha, J. B. Kriplani, Mazhar-ul Haq and Mahadev Desai

**TABLE 3.3 Non-Tribal Movement**

Name the Movement	Area affected	Year	Leader(s)	Main Cause(s)	Course of the Movement and Consequence
Revolt of Kattabomman	Tirunelveli	1792-1799	Veerapandya Kattabomman (Ruler of Panchalakurichi)	Attempts of the British to force Kattabomman to accept their suzerainty and his refusal. British occupation of Orissa. (1803); resentment of the Paiks (a militia class occupying rent-free lands 'under the zamindars) against British land and land revenue policies	Defiance of the British by Kattabomman for 7 years; his final capture and execution by the British (1799); annexation of his territory by the British (1799)
Rebellion of	Orissa	1804-	First under the	The British	Unsuccessful attempt of the Raja

the Paiks		1806	Raja of Khurda and later under Jagabandhu	occupation of Orissa (1803); resentment of the Paiks (a militia class occupying rent-free lands under the zamindars) against the British land revenue policies	of Khudra to organise a rebellion with the help of the Paiks and confiscation of his territory by the British (1804); continuous unrest among the Paiks between 1804 and 1806; rise of the Paiks under Jaga-bandhu and their occupation of puri after defeating the British force (1817); final suppression of the movement by force and conciliatory measure by the British
Revolt of velu Thambi	Travancore	1808-1809	Velu Thambi (Diwan of Travancore)	Financial burden imposed on the state by the British through the subsidiary system; the high handedness of the British resident there and the British demand for the removal of Dewan	Beginning of the war between the two sides (December 1808); fall of Trivandrum (capital of Travancore) to the British (February 1809); death of Velu Thambi in forest due to serious injuries
Revolt of Rao Bharmal	Kutch and Kathiawar	1861-1819	Rao Bharmal (ruler of Kutch)	Anti-British feeling due to the British expansionist - policy and their interference in internal affairs of Kutch	Final defeat and deposal of Rao Bharmal; imposition of Subsidiary Treaty on Kutch
Revolt of Ramosis	Poona	1822-1829	Chittur Singh and Umaji	The British annexation of Peshwa's territory (1818), resulting in large-scale unemployment among Ramosis (under the Peshwa, they served in lower ranks of police)	Revolt of the Ramosis under Chittur Singh (1822-24); establishment of peace by the British by pardoning all the crimes of the Ramosis and granting them lands and recruiting them as hill police
Kittur Rising	Kittur (near Dharwar in Karnataka)	1824-1829	Channamma and Rayappa	Death of Shjivalinga Rudra Desai	Revolt of channammrna (widow of late Desai) in 1824 and murder of the English officers including

				(chief) of Kittur (1824), leaving no male to recognize the adopted issue; refusal of the British to accept the son as the Desai and assumption of administration of Kittur by the British	Thackeray (collector of Dharwar); conquest of Kittur and its annexation by the British. Revolt of the people of Kittur under Rayappa who declared independence set up the adopted boy as the Desai (1829); capture and execution of Rayappa by the British and death of Channamma in Dharwar prison.
Sambalpur Outbreaks	Sambalpur (Orissa)	1827-1840	Surendra Sai	Frequent interference of the British in the internal affairs of Sambalpur. such as the issue of succession	Death of Maharaja Sai (ruler) and outbreak of civil war, succession of Mohan Kumari (widow of the late Raja) with die support of the British and revolt of other claimants under Surendra Sai; final imprisonment of Surendra Sai by British (1840)
Satara Disturbances	Satar (Maharashtra)	1840-1841	Dhar Rao Pawar and Narsing Dattatreya Patkar	Deposal and banishment of Praiap Singh, the popular ruler of Satara by the British	Revolt of the people of Satara under Dhar Rao in 1840, their revolt under Narsing and seizure of Badami in 1841; defeat and capture of Narsing by the British (he was transported for life)
Bundela revolt	Sagar and Damoh (Bundelkhand)	1842	Madhukar Sha and Jawahir Singh	Resentment against the British land revenue policy	Revolt of the Bundelas under Shah and Singh; murder of police officers and disruption of the British administration; capture and execution of Madhukar Shah and Singh by the British
Gadkari rebellion	Kolhapur (Maharashtra)	1844-1845	Not available	Assumption of direct administration of kolhapur by British and reforms of D. K. Pandit, resentment of the Gadkaris (a militia class who had earlier held revenue-free lands in return for their services	Revolt of the Gadkaris followed by a popular revolt in the city of kolhapur and all other parts of the state of kolhapur; final suppression of the movement by the British

				to the ruler) against the revenue reforms	
Satavandi Revolt	Satavandi (Maharashtra)	1839-1845	Phond Savant (leading noble and Anna Sahib) (heir apparent)	Deposal of Khen Savant (ruler of satavancli) and appointment of a British officer to administer the state; resentment of the people against the British system of administration	
Raju rebellion	Visakhapatnam (Andhra Pradesh)	1827-1833	Birabhadra Raju	Birabhadra was disposed of his estate by the British in return for a small amount of pension	Revolt of Birabhadra and his defiance of the British authority till he was captured
Palakonda Outbreak	Palakonda (Andhra Pradesh)	1831-1832	Zamindar of Palakonda	Attachment of the property of zamindar for non-payment of revenue as he failed to clear the arrears of revenues to the British	Revolt of the zamindar, suppression of the revolt and forfeiture of Palakonda estate to the British
Parlakimedi Outbreak	Parlakimedi (Orissa)	1829-1835	Jagannath Gajapati Narayan Rao	Attachment of his zamindari for failure to clear the arrears by the British in 1827	Revolt of the zamindar, appointment of Mr Russel as the commissioner, final suppression of the movement after large-scale military campaign in 1837 Revolt of the zamindar followed by a popular rising of the people; final suppression of the movement



## **BRITISH RULE AFTER THE 1857 REVOLT**

### **POST-REBELLION DEVELOPMENTS**

The revolt was an important turning point in the history of modern India. In the month of May 1858, the British banished the last Mughal Emperor Bahadur Shah II (1837-1857) to Burma.

In the same year, the British government abolished the British East India Company. They placed direct rule under the British crown. In announcing the new direct-rule policy to 'the Princes, Chiefs, and Peoples of India', Queen Victoria assured them of equal treatment under British law. However, Indian mistrust of the British rule had become a legacy of the 1857 rebellion. Most of the prevailing economic and revenue policies were left unchanged in the period

following 1857. However, many administrative changes were introduced. To begin with, they created a cabinet post in London, the Secretary of State for India. The Governor-General (the not Viceroy, the direct representative of the British crown) ran the administration in India from his headquarters at Kolkata. He was assisted by executive and legislative councils. Under the Governor-General were placed the provincial governors. They held power over the district officials, who constituted the lower levels of the Civil Service in India. For many decades, the Indian Civil Service remained exclusively reserved for the British-born. The British administrators had a sense of responsibility of running the administration of India, for which they were handsomely paid. They enjoyed



high status and had good opportunities for promotion. During 1910s, when the number of Indians educated in English education system began to rise, the British reluctantly allowed a few of them into their cadre.

In the year 1858, the viceroy declared that the government would respect previous treaties with princely states. They also gave up the Doctrine of Lapse, through which the company had annexed kingdoms of rulers who died without male heirs. Nearly 40 per cent of Indian Territory and 20-25 per cent of the population was under the control of 562 princes, who were religiously (Islamic, Sikh, Hindu and other) and ethnically diverse. Their tendency for pomp and ceremony became well known. However their domains lagged behind the socio-political change that took place elsewhere in the British ruled regions. A complete reorganization was done in the constitution of the army and government finances. Surprised at the solidarity among the Indian soldiers during the rebellion, the government bifurcated the army into the three presidencies. The approach of the British towards Indians moved from relative openness to insularity, even towards those who had remained loyal to them in the past. British kept their families in cantonments situated at a distance from Indian habitations. Private clubs where the British assembled for social interaction turned into symbols of

exclusivity and snobbery. Even after the end of the British rule in India, the sense of superiority associated with private clubs did not die in the year 1883, the Government tried to introduce race equality in criminal jurisdictions by introducing a bill which Empowered Indian judges to adjudicate offenses committed by Europeans. However, the Viceroy, George Robinson. Marquess of Ripen had to reconsider and to modify the bill in wake of protests and criticism in English press. The Bengali Hindu educated people learned an important political lesson from this 'white mutiny': the success of a well-planned protest through demonstrations on the roads and publicity in the media.

### **India Under Common Administration for the First Time**

With the Government of India Act, the entire country came directly under the British crown, politically unifying in a country that was always divided into small regions fighting among themselves. The centralized administration started planning for the infrastructure, education and the other administrative works for India as a Union. This resulted in developing a feeling of nationalism among the masses across the country. Many administrative changes were brought about during this period.

## **GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1858**

The mutiny of 1857 was mainly responsible for the enactment of the Government of India Act of 1858. The mismanagement of the East Indian Company was vehemently discussed in the British Parliament and the queen had to take a decisive step to put an end to the affairs of the company. Queen Victoria issued a proclamation on 1 November 1858, placing India under the direct government of the Crown, whereby: (i) a Viceroy was appointed in India; (ii) princes were given the right to adopt a son (abolition of the Doctrine of Lapse); (iii) treaties were honoured; (iv) religious freedom was restored and (v) equal treatment promised to Indians.

### **Salient Features of the Proclamation**

The proclamation was called the Magna Carta or Indian Liberty. British rule in India was strongest between 1858 and 1905. The British also started treating India as its most precious possession and their rule over India seemed set to continue for centuries to come. Because of various subjective and objective factors, which came into existence during this era, the feeling of nationalism started to grow in Indians. The appointment of the Secretary of State and the formation of the Indian Council are the salient features of the proclamation, for the former Court of Directors did not

show much interest in Indian affairs. Now the Governor-General had to report to the Secretary of State. However despite the administrative developments, the proclamation denied political right to the Indian masses. The Mount-Fort report mentions that as per this proclamation the Secretary had become all powerful and the Parliament was only theoretically handling Indian affairs. Even the Indian Council was at the mercy of the Secretary of State who used to override some of the decisions made by the Council. So, the proclamation but not officialdom,

The important developments during this period, which brought significant changes in the attitude of common Indian and urged him to fight for the cause of freedom, are discussed here.

### **Awakening of Masses due to Economic Exploitation by the British**

The British, who came to India as traders, had only one motive and that was to earn riches and accumulate these in Britain. Their purpose gained momentum when India came under their rule. This choked the economic industrial and social growth of India. The revenues levied on landowners hindered the growth of the agricultural sector. Economists of the nation, such as M. G. Ranade, Dadabhai Naoroji and R. C Dutt, pointed out the negative effects of British policies. The discovery of such harsh realities generated the 'swadeshi spirit' among the leaders of social reform and this gained the necessary momentum with the growth of education in India. The tax collected from India was not used for Indian interests and the contributions made by India were called home charges'. India accounted for more than 30 million pounds annual contribution to the British treasury. Such a huge drain of wealth reduced India to the state of beggary. Many historians term till economic exploitation of India by the English as the Drain Volley.

### **Growth of Education**

Indians learnt new concepts such as nationalism and freedom from Western education and started aspiring for self-governance. The barrier of language was demolished with growing usage of the English language among the literate section. This also led to convey Ideas of liberty and equality through media. Literature in native languages, like Bankim Chandra Chatterjee's Anand Math, aroused anti-British feelings. It made the Sanyasi rebellion famous. The press was not far behind in spreading nationalist feelings among the people, despite restrictions imposed upon it during this era. With time, mass opinion was created against the British rule.

### **Socio-Religious Reform Movements**

Such movements aimed to free the human mind from blind faith and other religious convictions. This fostered greater confidence, self-respect and pride in their nation among Indians. Various reform movements found expression in the growth of institutions such as the Brahma Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission and Arya Samaj, which helped many Indians accept modern thoughts and ideas and seek a modern, secular and national outlook. Similar reforms were observed among the other religious sects of the country such as Muslims, Parsis and Sikhs.

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## **ADMINISTRATIVE, SOCIAL AND JUDICIAL SYSTEMS AFTER 1858**

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### **ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS**

#### **City Improvement Acts**

The English suffered huge monetary losses during the mutiny of 1857. During that time the Royal Army Sanitary Commission made certain recommendations towards public health. It was not economically feasible to act on these recommendations by the central authority. So, decentralization became inevitable, and in this environment, the importance of local bodies, which would collect local taxes to meet

the expenses of public services, grew. Therefore, the City Improvement Acts were passed for Chennai, Punjab and other centrally administered provinces.

#### **Mayo's Resolution (1870)**

In 1870, decentralized local governments acquired powers in the spheres of education, public health and financial matters after the resolution passed by Lord Mayo. In 1882, the Municipality Act was issued to organize municipalities and to entrust them with looking after local funds.

### Ripon's Resolution (1882)

Lord Ripon made an important resolution in 1882 for local self-governing bodies by entrusting the responsibility of managing their affairs in the hands of Indians. The Government now controlled the new municipalities and corporations and externally and internally they were administered by the elected Indians. Only control over sanction of funds and execution of work was in the hands of the Government. Ripon's resolution did not bring the desired fruits and it was opposed by the English officials. Lord Curzon had a special dislike for this style of local self-governance. Various moves were made by him to decrease the importance of local self-governing bodies.

### Recommendations of Decentralization Commission (1907)

In 1907, the Decentralization Commission recommended the reduction of government control over local self-governing bodies. It also suggested various programmes for the revival of village panchayats and increasing the income of local self-governing bodies. All the recommendations were accepted by the government but they were not accomplished.

### Harding Resolution (1915)

In 1915, Lord Harding passed a resolution that entrusted the panchayat with civil and judicial powers. It also asked for greater representation of elected members and election for the post of chairman for each governing body. The number of non-official members in district and local bodies were also increased. This resolution paved the way for the 1917 resolution made by the Secretary of State according to which the jurisdiction of local-governing bodies and the government were finally separated and the local bodies received ample freedom in collection and imposition of local taxes, within rules. Minority groups were now given adequate reservation in the governing body set-up and the chairman was elected. Earlier, it was the District Magistrate who acted as the chairman of the local governing bodies.

The Indigo Revolt of 1859-1860 was the most militant and the widespread of the peasant movements. The indigo planter nearly all Europeans, compelled their tenants, to grow indigo which they processed in factories set up in rural areas. Peasants were forced to grow indigo on the best of their land even if they wanted to devote it to other cash crops. The system involved great loss to the cultivators who were deceived with fraudulent contracts, low prices and other enforcements from the government.

Discontent among the indigo growers of Bengal boiled over in the autumn of 1859, with the kar proclamation on this matter. In protest against the enforced cultivation of indigo, the tenants of the Govindpur village of Nadia district (Bengal), under the leadership of Digamber Biswas and Vishnu Biswas, resisted the physical pressure of the planters. Peasant disturbances and indigo strikes spread rapidly to other areas and, by 1860, encompassed all Indigo-growing districts of Bengal. Ultimately, the planters had to bow out of the indigo business and they gradually herein to close their factories. By the end of 1860, the cultivation of indigo was virtually wiped out from Bengal.

The major reason for the success of the Indigo Revolt was the tremendous initiative, cooperation, organization and discipline of the peasants, along with the complete unity of Hindu and Muslim peasants. The leadership also played a vital role as it was provided by the well-off peasants, zamindars, money lenders and ex-employees of the planters. Also outstanding in this respect was the role of Harish Chandra Mukherjee (editor of the newspaper, Hindoo Patriot) Dina Bandhu Mitra (writer of the play, Neel Darpan) and Michael Madhusudan Dutta, the eminent Bengali poet-cum-playwright, who translated Neel Darpan into English.

## REFORMS IN EDUCATION

### The Hunter Commission (1882)

William Hunter was appointed as the Chairman of a special committee on education by Lord Ripon in 1882. The various recommendations made by the Hunter Commission included increased control of local governing bodies its primary schools and educational institutions. It also stressed on uniformity

in fees and conduct of the primary schools, middle schools and colleges. It also proposed special arrangements for patronizing Muslim education in India. The Government accepted most of its recommendations, except the imparting of religious education.

### The Raleigh Commission (1902)

The Raleigh Commission, during the tenure of Lord Curzon, recommended giving more powers to universities to improve education in India. It stressed upon the need for revamping the existing system of governance of universities and the reconstitution of the Senate and the Syndicate in order to give greater importance to higher education.

### The Saddler Commission (1917)

The Saddler Commission was constituted by the government to study the affairs of the Kolkata University. After studying the overall aspect of secondary and collegiate education prevailing in India at that time, the commission recommended that the intermediate courses should be separated from the University and merged with secondary education. It decreed that the Kolkata University should be considered to be the seat of higher education and the appointment of all lecturers and professors should be through the Kolkata University. The university degree was to be limited to a 3-year period only. It also made important recommendations for the medium of education. The local language was to be made the medium of education up to high school and thereafter education was to be imparted in English only. The recommendations were accepted by the government and universities were established at Patna, Mysore, Deccan, Lucknow, Aligarh, Banaras and Hyderabad.

### Other Important Reforms in Education

1. The Indian University Act of 1914 It extended the jurisdiction of universities and empowered them to maintain discipline in affiliated colleges.
2. The Act of 1913 It brought all around development in the field of education in India. Due importance was given to primary

education. However, certain existing privileges of universities were curtailed.

3. Harding Committee of 1915 Inter-University Committees were set up to study the working of different committees and the University Training Corps was established to impart military training to students; the trained students formed the Imperial Cadet Corps (ICC. now called NCC).
4. The Act of 1919 National schools and other educational institutions were set up to impart training to people for basic education, under the Wardha scheme. The Government took control of the higher education and primary education was under the control of the local governing bodies.
5. Wood Abbot Commission of 1935 It recommended reconstitution of the textbook committee and appointment of teachers for primary schools. The recommendations of this commission held prime importance for bringing remarkable progress between 1937 and 1947, under provincial administration.
6. The Sargent Commission of 1944 It recommended compulsory primary education for all children, boys and girls, between 6 and 14 years. It proposed basic education in two stages each of 3 years and limited entry into university through competition only.

### Ilbert Bill (1883)

Lord Ripon passed the Ilbert Bill (1883) in an attempt to pass a law to enable Indian district magistrates to try European criminals. This was vehemently opposed by Europeans. British government ultimately withdrew the bill much to the anger of the Indians. Nationalist Indians realized that they should organize themselves on a national scale and agitate unitedly to get their demands accepted. It paved the way for the foundation of the Indian National Congress.

## THE JUDICIARY REFORMS

### The Ilbert Bill Controversy (1883-1884)

Before 1883, judicial disqualification was based on racial distinction. Indian judges were not

allowed to try European, and especially English, criminals. Ripon appointed Law Member Sir C. P. Ilbert to draft a bill on the principle of equality of humans of all classes and colour distinction before the law. As per the Ilbert Bill, Indian judges were granted the same powers and status as any 'of their European counterparts. The Bill landed in a controversy when the British residing in India severely criticized the Bill and agitated against the viceroy. The controversy dwelled into a very big issue when it received a severe response from the British press and was also criticized in the British Parliament. Resistance to the adoption of the Bill increased as Ripon appointed an Indian judge. Justice Mitra, as acting Supreme Court Judge when the regular judges was on leave. In 1884. Ripon had to make suitable amendments in which he gave special privileges to European criminals, who were to be tried only in special courts that had a majority of European judges.

## SOCIAL REFORMS

### Important Social Reforms under the British

1. The Prohibition of Female Infanticide (1795) The acting Governor-General, Sir John Shore, prohibited female child infanticide in 1795.
2. The Munro Report and Metcalf Policy for Liberal Press (1823) Sir Thomas Munro was appointed by the British Government to send his report on Indian journalism. His harsh recommendations were passed as an Act in 1823, which advocated censorship of papers and books by the Government Charles Metcalf, however, relaxed the restrictions on the Press and made it free. Only during the 1857 Mutiny, were the papers put under temporary scrutiny.
3. The Prohibition of Sati pratha (1828) On 4 December 1828, Lord William Bentinck passed a law prohibition of sati. Nearly 7,000 instances of sati were reported to the Government every year.
4. The Civil Marriage Act (1872) With this Act, marriages were transformed from a mere religious ceremony into a social practice. All the marriages were to be registered and the age of 14 years was fixed as legal age for marriage for females. This paved way to the acceptance of widow remarriage, inter-caste and inter-religion marriages. Child marriage was made illegal with the passing of the Age of Consent Act.
5. Vernacular Press Act (1878) In 1870, an Act pertaining to journalism was passed to penalize papers that instigated the public to conspire against the Government. However, it was Lord Lytton who imposed severe restrictions on the Press in the Vernacular Press Act of 1878. This Act was not applicable to the English Press operating in India, but only to the Vernacular Press. However, these restrictions were taken off in stages with passing of the Acts of 1908 and 1910 and was completely removed by 1919.
6. The Married Women 'v Property Act (1874) With this Act, the women had the right to claim ancestral property and property belonging to their husband. It empowered women to their rights over their own earnings, which used to be their father's, before marriage, and their husband's, after marriage.
7. Justice Miller Committee (1918) Lesley Miller, Justice of the Mysore High Court, was appointed as the President of the Committee for Backward Classes. The Committee's recommendations emphasized on professional education for backward classes and on increasing their representation in the government bodies. The Miller Committee recommended 50 per cent reservation on recruitment to government jobs, for 7 years, for backward classes. Free education, free books and relaxed conditions for admission to government and aided schools for students of backward classes were also recommended. The recommendations were vehemently protested by Brahmin leaders. But % recommendations were implemented with the support of the first non-Brahmin Diwan, Kantharaja Urs, in 1919.
8. Indian Journalism Act (1932) This Act was passed to bring journalism under the control of the Government. Newspapers had started playing a vital role in national politics after the Lahore Congress Session in 1929, Journalists began reporting political leaders in jails, their

sufferings and the harsh attitude of the Government, which sparked off patriotic feelings in the masses. The Government tried to restrict the press by subjecting them to severe censorship through this Act.

### **The Kuka Revolt (1863-1872)**

The Kukas, a tribe in Punjab were implicit followers of Guru Gobind Singh. They hated both Muslims and the English. Their prominent leaders were Bhagat Jawaharmal, Ram Singh and Badan Singh. The agitation was on a full swing after the incident of dumping of cow bones at Amritsar. The other cities of Punjab that became centres of this agitation were Ludhiana deported their leaders to Rangoon and brought an abrupt end to this revolt.

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