EUROPEAN PENETRATION AND BRITISH CONQUEST OF INDIA

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• Vasco da Gama visited India for a second time in 1502.

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• In 1501, Portuguese established Cochin as their first trading station in India, it was the early capital of Portuguese in India.

• In 1505, Franchise De Almedia (1502-09) was sent as first Portuguese governor to India to establish Portuguese naval supremacy in this region.

• He was followed by Alfonso de Albuerque in 1509 who was the real founder of Portuguese power in India. In 1510, Albuquerque captured Goa from ruler of Bijapur, and also controlled over parts of Rajouri and Dabhol thereby bringing Bijapur naval trade at stand still. Albuquerque encouraged his countrymen to marry Indian women and abolished Sati.

• Nino-da-Cunha transferred the Portuguese capital from Cochin to Goa in 1530 and acquired Diu in 1535 and Daman in 1559.

• The famous Jesuit Saint Francisco Xavier came to India with the governor Martin Alfonso De Souza.

• The Portuguese power witnessed a decline by the end of the 16th century as they lost Hugli in 1631 after being driven out by Qasim Khan, a Mughal noble. They lost Hormuz in 1622 to the British. The Marathas captured Salsette and Bassein in 1739. Ultimately the Portuguese were left only with Goa, Daman and Diu, which they retained till

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1961. The naval monopoly of Portuguese was shattered by the Dutch.

• In 1661, the Portuguese king gave Bombay to Charles II of England as dowry for marrying his sister.

• The Portuguese made spice trade particularly (pepper trade) a monopoly.

• The Portuguese had armed vessels plying in the Indian Ocean and Arabian Sea.

• Ships carrying commodities which were not given passes (cartage) by the Portuguese officials were confiscated by them. The cartage was first issued in 1502, which was available at their custom house. The booty thus obtained yielded a sizeable source of income which was again invested in trade. In cartage, it was specifically mentioned that certain items like pepper,

horses, ginger, coir, ship, pitch, sulphur, lead, saltpeter, cinnamon, etc. were not to be loaded on others ships.

British

The Growth of the East India Company's Trade and Influence (1600-1740)

• John Mildenhall, a merchant adventurer was the first Englishman who arrived in India in 1599 by overland route ostensibly for the purpose of trade with Indian merchants.

• The English East India Company was formed by a group of merchants known as 'Merchant Adventures' in 1599. The company was given a Charter by Queen Elizabeth-I on 31 December 1600, giving it the monopoly of Eastern trade for fifteen years.

• In 1608, the company decided to open a factory (the name given to a trading depot) at Surat. The English ambassador Captain Hawkins arrived at Jahangir's Court to seek permission for trade with India. He was granted a Mansab of 400 zat.

• In 1611, as a result of Portuguese intrigue, he was expelled and had to leave Agra for Surat, where he met Henry Middleton head of three big English ships.

• In 1612, two English naval ships under Captain Best reached Surat, defeated a Portuguese naval squadron at Cwally near Surat and again in 1615 by Nicholas Downtown.

• A firman was issued by Jahangir permitting the English to build a factory at Surat (1613) under Thomas Aldworth and also on the west coast.

• Sir Thomas Roe came to India as ambassador of James to Jahangir's court in 1615, received imperial firman to trade and establish factories in different parts of India.

• In 1619, by the time Sir Thomas Roe left India, English had already set up factories in different parts of India.

• Captain Bust succeeded in getting a royal firman to open factories in Surat, Cambaya, Ahmedabad and Goa in 1613.

• In South, factories were established at Masulipatnam in 1611 and at Armagaon (near Pulicat) in 1626.

• Francis Day obtained the site of Madras from the Raja of Chandragiri with permission to build a fortified factory (1639) which was named Fort St. George. All the English settlements in Eastern India (Bengal, Bihar and Orissa) and their command were placed under the control of the president and council of Fort St. George in 1661. • The company acquired Bombay from Charles II on lease of 10 pounds annually. Gerald Aunger was the first governor from 1669 to 1677. Later, Bombay replaced Surat as headquarters of the company on west coast.

• In Eastern India, English company had opened its first factories in Orissa at Hariharpur (1633), and also opened factories at Patna, Balasore (1633), Decca and other places in Bengal and Bihar.

• The Sultan of Golkunda issued the company the Golden Firman allowing them to trade within the parts of the kingdom freely on payment of duties worth 500 pagodas a year (1632).

• The English East India company got a nishan from Sultan Shuja in 1651 which they received trading privileges in return for a fixed annual payment of Rs 3,000.

• By another nishan the English company was exempted from custom dues in 1656.

• In 1689, English under Sir Joseph Child captured two Mughal ships, which prompted Aurangzeb to order Siddis to block Bombay.

• English factories at Surat Masulipatnam, Vizagpatnam were seized and their fort at Bombay besieged.

• On Sir John Childs plea Aurangzeb granted them permission to trade on payment of Rs 1,50,000 as compensation.

• The company acquired zamindari of Sutanati, Kalikata and Govindpur (1698), which later grew into the city of Calcutta.

• The factory at Sutanati was fortified and named Fort William (1700) and all settlements in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa were placed under Fort William (1700).

• Dr. William Hamilton, a member of Surman commission, cured Farrukhsiyar of a painful disease. Farrukhsiyar granted a firman in 1717 for duty free trade. The firman also gave British the right to rent additional territory around Calcutta. In return for an annual payment of sum of Rs 10,000 it was exempted from payment of all dues at Surat.

• The company's coins minted at Bombay were allowed currency throughout Mughal Empire.

• Bombay was fortified in 1720 by Charles Boon.

• The company's superior body court of directors was based in London while its subordinate body was in Asia.

• Each factory was administrated by a Governor-inCouncil. The governor was the President of Council with no extra privileges. Everything was decided in council by majority votes. The members of the council consisted senior merchants of the company.

• The Court of directors was the supreme authority in framing policies for the country.

• No non-member was allowed to trade with East or to share its high profits.

• Many English merchants continued to trade in Asia inspite of monopoly of East India Company.

• They called themselves Free Merchants and the company called them 'interlopers'.

• In 1694, Parliament passed a resolution that all citizens of England had equal rights to trade in the East.

• The rivals of the company founded another company known as 'New Company' and was consequently granted monopoly of trade with East.

• Old company refused to give up its profitable trade. After long drawn conflict, both the companies agreed to join hands and a new company. 'The Limited Company of Merchant of English trading to the East India' was formed in 1708.

Dutch

• Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602; its chief administrative centre was Batavia.

• In 1595, first Dutch expedition under Cornelis de Houliman crossed the Cape of Good Hope to reach Sumatra and Bantam (1596).

• Dutch Company was governed through 17 directors commonly known as the Gentleman XVII.

• The main interest of the Dutch was in the Indonesian archipelago and the Spice Islands, but later they broke the Portuguese monopoly in India.

• They popularized textile trade and also exported indigo, saltpetre and raw silk.

• In 1639, Dutch encircled Goa, in 1641 captured Malaysia, in 1658 Ceylon (Sri Lanka) the largest Portuguese settlement was captured by the Dutch.

• They had two factories in the interior of the Golkunda territories.

• They got the right to mint coins at Pulicat in 1657.

• By firman of 1676, the Golkunda ruler granted the Dutch complete freedom from tariffs in Golkunda.

• In Bengal region two more factories were established by the Dutch in Khanakul in 1689 and in Malda in 1676 but both had to close down soon.

• The Dutch succeeded in getting firman from the Mughal Emperor Jahangir for trading along the West-coast.

• They were exempted from tolls from Burhanpur to Combay and Ahmedabad.

• Shah Alam granted total exemption to the company from paying transit throughout the Mughal Empire.

• Aurangzeb confirmed all privileges granted by Shahjahan to the Dutch in Bengal in 1662.

• Jahandar Shah confirmed all the privileges granted by Aurangzeb in Coromandel in 1712.

• Dutch commercial activities began to decline by the beginning of 18th century and with the Battle of Bedera with the English in 1759 came to an end.

• By 1795, the English succeeded in expelling the Dutch completely.

• In 1667, Dutch agreed to leave alone English settlements in India, while English gave up all claims to Indonesia.

French

• French East India Company was formed under state patronage by Colbert in 1664 under the reign of Louis XIV.

• The French company was created, financed and controlled by the State and it differed from the English company which was a private commercial venture.

• In 1667, a French group under Francois Caron reached India and in 1668, he set up the first French factory at Surat.

• Later, Maracara set up a factory at Masulipatnam in 1669 by securing a patient from the Sultan of Golkunda.

• In 1672, Admiral De La Haye defeated Sultan of Golkunda and Dutch, to capture San Thome.

• In 1673, two French (Francious Martin and Bellanger De Lesp-iniary) acquired from the Muslim governor of Valikoinda-puram, Sher Khan Lodi a small village.

- The village developed into Pondichery and its first governor was Francois Martin.
- They acquired Chandernagore in Bengal from Mughal governor Shayista Khan in 1690.

• In 1693, Dutch snatched Pondicherry from French but was restored in 1697 by treaty of Ryswick.

• In 1706, population of Pondichery was 40,000 while population of Calcutta was only 22,000 - which shows the prosperity of Pondichery.

• Pondicherry (Fort Louis) was made the headquarters of all French settlements in India and Francois Martin became the governor general of French affairs in India.

• In 1720, the company was reconstituted as Perpetual Company of the Indies.

• The French power in India was revived under Lienor and Dumas (who were governors between 1720 and 1742).

• They occupied Mauritius in 1721, Calicut in 1739, Male in 1725 and Yanam, in Coromandal and Karaikal in 1739.

• Duplex was an important French governor in India (1742). His coming saw the beginning of AngloFrench conflict (Carnatic wars) resulting in their final defeat in India.

• The French maintained close ties with Dost Ali, the Nawab of Carnatic.

• On recommendation of Dost Ali, the Mughal emperor Muhammad Shah issued a firman granting permission to the French to mint and issue gold and silver currency bearing the stamp of Mughal emperor and the name of the place of minting.

• The Dutch blocked the French commercial activities at Hugli.

• They seized San Thome near Madras in 1672 but were soon defeated by the combined forces of Sultan of Golkunda and the Dutch. Later, the Dutch established their control over San Thome.

• In Dutch-French rivalry, the Dutch were always supported by the English.

• After 1742, the French governor Duplex began the policy of extending territorial empire in India and started political occupations, leading to series of conflicts with English.

• They fought a decisive battle at Wandiwash against the East India Company in 1760 and lost almost all their possessions in India.

• Final settlement of the French with that of English was done by the treaty of Paris (1763), by which Pondicherry and some other French settlements were returned to the French.

Danish

• The Danish formed an East India Company and arrived in India in 1616.

• They established settlements at Tranquebar (Tamil Nadu) in 1620 and at Serampore (Bengal) in 1676. Serampore was their headquarter in India.

• At one time the Danish and Swedish East Asia companies together imported more tea to Europe than the British did.

• They could not establish their position in India and eventually sold all their Indian settlements to the English in 1845.

• They were more concerned with missionary activities than trade. They established their factories at Masulipatnam and Porto Novo.

• During the 18th century the English and the French succeeded in ousting the Dutch and the Portuguese traders from the Indian soil and became fiercely competitive. Soon after the death of Aurangzeb, the political stability of the subcontinent dwindled leading to the interference of the English and the French in the affairs of the country.

MAJOR BATTLES

The Carnatic Wars

Reminiscent of European hostilities of the eighteen century, Anglo-French rivalry beginning with the outbreak of the Austrian War of Succession and ending with the conclusion of the Seven Years War, resonated in India in the animosity between the English and the French East India Companies; which issued the British expansion in South India. The French settlement was headquartered at Pondicherry with subordinate factories at Masulipatnam, Karaikal, Mahe, Surat and Chandernagore. The principal settlements of English included Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.

First Carnatic War (1746-1748)

Causes

• The Anglo-French animosity in India ensued as a sequel to the state of affairs in Europe with the breakout of the Austrian War of Succession in March 1740 in which the English and the French were on opposite sides.

• This animosity was fuelled by the trading rivalry of the companies which climaxed with the arrival of Dupleix (who wanted to strengthen the French position) as the French Governor of Pondicherry in 1742.

Course/Events

• The English navy under Barnett took the offensive and captured French ships. Dupleix, the French Governor General, appealed to La Bourdonnais, the French Governor of Mauritius (Isle of France) for help and the latter responded with a squadron of over 3000 men; defeating the English fleet, and reaching the Coromandal coast on 7 July 1746.

• Madras besieged by the French both by land and the sea capitulated to the French on 21st September 1746. However, it was restored to the English by La Bourdonnais for a ransom of £ 4,00,000 without the consent of Dupliex who later recaptured Madras but was unsuccessful in capturing Fort St. David.

• The Battle of St. Thome, on the banks of the River Adyar followed in which the French fought and defeated the Indian forces of Anwar-ud-din, the

Nawab of Carnatic for the custody of Madras after its reduction in 1746.

• The First Carnatic came to an end after the conclusion of hostilities in Europe with signing of the Treaty of Aix-La-Chappelle in 1848 which also concluded the 18-month long siege over Fort St. David. Results

• The Treaty of Aix-La-Chappelle that concluded the war mandated the return of Madras back to the English company in exchange of Louisburg in North America to France.

• The First Carnatic war demonstrated the importance of naval power in the Anglo-French conflict and the superiority of the small, welldisciplined and relatively modern European army against the much larger, loose Indian civvies.

Second Carnatic War (1748-1754)

• Though the Anglo-French rivalry ended in Europe, it continued in India; where encouraged by his success against the Nawab's forces, Dupleix sought to increase his power and the French political influence in Southern India by interfering in local dynastic disputes in a bid to outmaneuver the English. Causes

• On 21st May 1748 Subedar of Deccan i.e. the Nizam of Hyderabad Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah died, which resulted in a war of succession between his second son Nasir Jang and the Nizam's grandson/the former's nephew Muzaffar Jang on the ground that he was appointed by the Mughal Emperor as the Subedar of Deccan.

• In Carnatic, the right of Nawab Anwaruddin was disputed by Chanda Sahib, son in law of former Nawab Dost Ali.

• The two conflicts were merged into one and alliances formed as Muzzaffar Jang and Chanda Sahib joined under French support while Nasir Jang and Anwaruddin aligned together with the English help. Thus the disputes over the thrones of Hyderabad and Carnatic became the cause of the war.

Course/Events

• The combined armies of Muzaffar Jang, Chanda Sahib and French defeated and killed Anwa ruddin at the battle of Ambur near Vellore in August 1749.

• Anwaruddin's son Muhammad Ali fled to Trichinopoly and Chanda Sahib became Nawab of Carnatic while Muzaffar Jang became Subedar of Deccan after the encounter death of Nasir Jung in 1750.

• Dupleix was appointed Governor of all the Mughal territories south of river Krishna. Some districts in Northern Circars were also surrendered to the French, including famous market town of Masulipatam. In return Bussey with a French army was stationed at Hyderabad.

• In 1750, the situation changed with the appointment of Saunders as Madras Governor; who decided to assist Muhammad Ali and on the suggestion of Robert Clive, the British under the former captured Arcot, the capital of Carnatic in a bid to divert pressure on Trichinopoly in August 1751, successfully sustaining the siege for fifty three days (September 23 to November 14) and demoralizing the French.

• Subsequently, the British under Major Stringer Lawrence relieved Trichinopoly defeating the French forces and Chanda Sahib in Arni and Kaveripakkam in 1752. Chanda Sahib was treacherously killed by Raja of Tanjore.

• However, Dupleix not one to give up, won over Morari Rao, the Maratha chief of Mysore and secured the neutrality of Raja of Tanjore, thereby renewing the siege of Trichinopoly in December 1752 which continued for more than one year, both sides succeeding alternatively.

• Dupleix failure to capture Trichinopoly along with his political ambitions and ruinous expenses sealed his fate as he was recalled by the Directors of French Company in 1754. With his recall the second Carnatic war came to an end. Results

• In August 1754, Godeheu replaced Dupleix as Governor-General of French possessions in India and reopened negotiations with the British; concluding a provisional peace treaty - the Treaty of Pondicherry in January 1755 according to which each party was left in possession of the territories that it actually occupied at the time of the treaty.

Thus, Godeheu and his incompetent Generals Astru and Maisi lost those territories which Dupleix had won.

• The English emerged victorious and Muhammad Ali was appointed Nawab of Carnatic.

• In Hyderabad, the French General, Bussy maintained a steady ascendency of the French with a grant of the Northern Sarkars by Subedar Salabat Jung (Muzaffar Jang had been killed in accidental skirmish in Feb, 1751) consisting of the districts of Mustafanagar, Ellore, Rajahmundry and Chicacole, generating annual revenue of more than Rs 30 lakhs to meet expense of maintaining the French army.

Third Carnatic War (1756-1763)

Causes

• The third Carnatic war was an echo of the outbreak of the Seven Years War in Europe and ended the short peace between the European Companies in India.

Course/Events

• In 1757, The British under Clive defeated Sirajuddaula and captured Bengal. Clive and Watson also won Chandernagar, the French possession in Bengal, thus capacitating the British finances.

• The French government sent Count-de-Lally as the Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the French possessions in India, who soon after his arrival attacked and captured Fort St. David in 1758. The French military effort could not be sustained in Tanjore and on Indian waters due to lack of naval cooperation, shortage of finances and ammunition, mutual distrust, etc.

• However, Lally continued to challenge the British and called Bussy from Hyderabad, leaving the French forces under the incompetent Commander Corntla. Seizing the opportunity, Clive

sent Colonel Ford from Bengal to Northern Circars and occupying Rajahmundry and Masulipatnam, the English concluded a favourable treaty with Salabat Jang, the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1759.

• The decisive battle of the third Carnatic War was fought at Wandiwash on 22 January, 1760 where Sir Eyre Coote defeated Lally.

• Bussy was taken prisoner; Lally retreated to Pondicherry and signed a treaty with Haider Ali. However, Pondicherry after a blocade of eight months was surrendered to the English on 16 January, 1761. Mahe, Jinji were lost by French in quick succession.

Results

• The third Carnatic war came to an end in 1763 by the Treaty of Paris.

• Pondicherry, Karaikal and some other French settlements were returned to the French by the Treaty but these were never to be fortified.

• This sealed the French ambitions in India and with the English conquest of Bengal and the significant disposal of resources; it furthered the growth of British power in Bengal.

Growth of British Power in Bengal

• The first English factory in Bengal was established at Hugli in 1651 under permission from Sultan Shuja, Subedar of Bengal, the second son of Emperor Shah Jahan.

• In 1651, much pleased with services of Mr. Boughton in curing a royal lady the Subehdar granted the company the privilege of free trade throughout Bengal, Bihar and Orissa for nominal a lumpsum payment of Rs. 3,000.

• In 1689, the English obtained from Subedar Azimus-Shan the zamindari of three villages Sutanati, Kalikata and Govindpur, the present site of Calcutta on payment of Rs. 1,200 to previous proprietors.

• In 1700, Murshid Quli Khan was appointed Diwan of Bengal and started administering as real ruler.

• There were three rebellions during Murshid Quli Khan's reign. First by Sitaram Ray, Uday Narayan and Ghulam Mohammad. Second, by Shujat Khan and third and last by Najat Khan.

• In 1705, Aurangzeb appointed Murshid Quli Khan as Governor of Bengal and later placed Orissa under his authority. He shifted his capital from Dacca to Murshidabad and after Aurangzeb's death, founded an independent kingdom.

• Murshid Quli Khan was succeeded by his soninlaw Shuja-ud-daula Khan who added Bihar to his dominions, where he appointed Alivardi Khan as his deputy.

 In 1717, Emperor Farukhsiyar confirmed the trade privileges granted by earlier Subedar of Bengal, besides according permission to the company to rent additional territory around Calcutta.
 Shuja died in 1739 and was succeeded by his son Sarfaraz Khan.

• In 1741, Alivardi Khan, Deputy Governor of Bihar under Nawab Sarfaraz Khan rose in revolt killed Nawab and became Subedar of Bengal, got

confirmation from Emperor Mohammad Shah by paying a huge amount.

Battle of Plassey, 1757

Causes

• On Alivardi Khan's death in 1756, Siraj-ud-daula, his grandson became the Nawab of Bengal at 24. Soon after his accession to the throne, the Nawab came into conflicts with the English in Bengal.

• Siraj prevented the English from fortifying Fort William. However the English refused to stop the new fortification which prompted the Nawab to attack their factory at Cassim Bazar.

• The Nawab captured Fort William, taking 146 Englishmen prisoners. Holed up in a very small room 123 died on 20th June, 1756 out of suffocation and only 23 survived. English historians describe this incident as the Black Hole Tragedy.

• This incident instigated the English at Chennai to send a relieving force under Robert Clive alongwith Admiral Watson to Bengal. And Clive entered into a conspiracy with Mir jafar, the Commander-inChief of Siraj-ud-daulah. Course/Events

• Clive marched towards Plassey on 23rd June, 1757; which was near the Nawab's capital of Murshidabad.

• As agreed earlier, Mir Jafar, the Commander-inchief of Siraj-ud-daula did not take up arms against the English army and on the other hand the Nawab's soldiers fled from the battlefield.

• Later the Nawab was killed by Miran, Mir Jafar's son and the latter was made the Nawab of Bengal as promised by Clive.

• The conspirators against Siraj, besides Mir Jafar included Manick Chand, the office-in-charge of Calcutta, Amichand, a rich merchant, Jagat Seth, the biggest banker of Bengal and Khadim Khan, who commanded a large number of the Nawab's troops.

• Mir Madan and Mohan Lal, loyal to the Nawab fought bravely but were killed due to treachery of Mir Jafar and Rai Durlabh. Results

• The battle of Plassey was merely a skirmish but in its results was one of the most decisive battles in Indian history as it paved the way for the foundation of the English rule in India.

• The English acquired a large sum of money from the new Nawab - the first installment of wealth paid to the Company being a sum of £ 8,00,000, all paid in coined selve. Jafar granted the English, zamindari of 24 Parganas and a personal gift of 2,34,000 pound to Clive.

• Mir Jafar became a puppet in the hands of Clive and could not satisfy the demands of the English. He was forced to resign in 1760.

• His son-in-law, Mir Kasim succeeded him but in due course of time he too failed to satisfy the growing demands of the English.

Battle of Buxar, 1764

Causes

• Mir Kasim was a young, energetic and ambitious ruler. Wanting to be independent he shifted his capital to Monghyr, a place far away from Calcutta. He also employed foreign experts to train his army.

• Mir Qasim took a drastic step to abolish all inland duties, thus placing the Indian merchants on the same as the English. The English decided to overthrow him and war broke out between Mir Kasim and the Company in 1763.

• Mir Qasim escaped to Oudh to organise a confederacy with Shuja-ud-daula, the Nawab of Oudh and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II in a final bid to oust the English from Bengal. The Combined armies of the three powers numbering between 40,000 to 60,000 met the English army of 7,072 troops commanded by Major Munro in the battle of Buxar on October 22, 1764. Course/Events

• The combined armies were defeated by the British. Mir Qasim fled from the battle and the other two surrendered to the English. Results

• Clive was sent out to India as Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the British possession in Bengal in 1765 and he made political settlements with Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh and Emperor

Shah Alam II concluding the Treaty of Allahabad (16 August 1765) which ended the Battle of Buxar.

By the Treaty Shuja-ud-Daulah was confirmed in his possessions on the following conditions:
(i) The Nawab surrendered Allahabad and Kara to Emperor Shah Alam; (ii) He agreed to pay Rs.
50 lakh to the Company as war indemnity;

(iii) He confirmed Balwant Singh, Zamindar of Benares in full possession of his estate; While also being forced to maintain English troops for the defence of the state.

• Fugitive Emperor Shah Alam was taken under the Company's protection and was to reside at Allahabad where he was assigned Allahabad and Kara ceded by the Nawab of Awadh. The Emperor in turn issued a firman on 12 Aug 1765 granting to the Company in perpetuity the Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa in return for the Company making an annual payment of Rs. 26 lakhs to him and providing for expenses of Nizamat of said provinces which was fixed at Rs. 53 lakhs.

• The Battle of Buxar made the English virtually the masters of Bengal as it also proved their military superiority and unchallenged power.

• As a result of his success in Bengal, Robert Clive was appointed the first Governor General of Bengal and he consolidated the British power both in Bengal and in the Deccan.

• The Company acquired Diwani functions from Emperor Shah Alam II (12th August 1765) and Nizamat functions from Subedar of Bengal. For the exercise of Diwani functions, the company appointed two Deputy Diwans, Mohammad Reza Khan for Bengal and Raja Shitab Roy for Bihar. Md. Reza Khan acted as deputy Nizam. This arrangement was known as Dual Government wherein the administration of Bengal was carried out by two heads with the Nawab of Bengal being the nominal head and the Company, as the Diwan controlled the revenue as well as police and judicial powers. In time, the Company authorities in England stopped sending money from England to purchase Indian goods, instead they purchased goods from revenues of Bengal and sold them abroad. Clive compelled servants of the Company to sign 'covenants' prohibiting acceptance of presents and forbade 'servants' of the Company from indulging in private trade and made payment of internal duties obligatory. A Society of Trade was formed in August 1765 with monopoly of trade in salt, betelnut and tobacco, but he abolished it in January1765. Clive issued an order with effect from 1st January 1766 according to which double allowance would be paid only to officers on service outside frontiers of Bengal and Bihar.

The Mysore Wars

Haider Ali, born in 1721 was the son of a faujdar of the Mysore army. He started his career as an ordinary soldier. Though unlettered his hardwork, determination, keen intellect, admirable courage and commonsense took him to the post of Commander inchief of the army. When the ruler of Mysore died he proclaimed himself the ruler and became the Sultan of Mysore.

First Mysore War (1767-1769)

Causes

• Hyder Ali strengthened his army by including French soldiers into his service. In 1755, established modern arsenal in Dindigul with French help. He extended his territories by conquering many areas in South India including Bidnur, Sunda, Sera, Canara, and Malabar to gain access to Indian Ocean.

• His rapid rise fuelled the jealousy of the Marathas, the Nizam of Hyderabad and the English who joined together and formed a triple alliance and declared war on Hyder Ali.

Course/Events

• By his diplomacy Hyder Ali cleverly won over the Marathas and the Nizam but under the leadership of the English General, Smith, Hyder Ali was defeated at Changam and Tiruvannamalai in 1767.

• At the same time Tipu Sultan, son of Hyder Ali advanced towards Madras and the English were forced to enter into an agreement.

Results

• The war ended by the Treaty of Madras in 1769

• Territories conquered during the war were restored to each other.

• The English agreed to help Hyder Ali in case of an attack by his enemies, the Nizam and the Marathas.

Second Mysore War (1780-1784)

Causes

• Mysore was attacked by the Marathas in 1771. In violation of the Treaty of Madras, the English did not help Hyder Ali. This angered the latter who wanted an opportunity to strike at the English.

• When Mahe, a French possession in the dominion of Hyder Ali was attacked by the English, he declared war on the English in 1780.

Course/Events • In the Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-89), Hyder formed a common front with the Nizam and the Marathas against the English.

• Hyder Ali defeated Colonel Braithowaite in Arcot and made the English surrender. He occupied almost the whole of Carnatic.

• But the English under Sir Eyre Coote, defeated Hyder Ali at Porto Novo in 1781. In the meantime Hyder Ali died in 1782.

• But his son Tipu Sultan continued the war with the British for two more years.

Results

- The war came to an end with an agreement signed in 1784 called the treaty of Mangalore.
- Both sides agreed to exchange the captured territories and war prisoners.
- Thus the second Mysore war came to an end without any tangible results.

Third Mysore War (1786-1793) Causes

- The English started improving their relationship with the Nizam and the Marathas.
- Tipu Sultan on the other hand improved his resources with the French help.

• He attacked Travancore in 1789, a friendly state of the British which prompted Lord Cornwallis who had been made the Governor General of Bengal and the Commander-in-Chief of the English army in 1786; to declare a war on Tipu in 1790.

• Both the sides were victorious and defeated alternately and the war came to an end in 1792.

Results • Tipu Sultan signed the Treaty of Srirangapatnam with the British according to which he had to give half of his kingdom to the English. The English got Malabar, Coorg, Dindugal and Baramahal (now Salem and Erode areas).

• He was also compelled to pay a huge war indemnity of over three crore rupees and had to surrender two of his sons as hostages to the English until he paid the indemnity.

Fourth Mysore War (1799) Causes

• The Treaty of Srirangapatnam failed to bring peace between Tipu Sultan and the British.

• Tipu refused to accept the subsidiary alliance of Lord Wellesley and instead wanted to take his revenge on the English.

• He sent emissaries to Kabul, Constantinople, Arabia and France to get their support - the knowledge of which instigated the British to declare war on him once again in 1799.

Results

• Tipu Sultan suffered defeat at the hands of General Stuart and General Harris. Wellesley himself besieged Srirangapatnam and Tipu Sultan died in battle while his family was deported first to Vellore and later to Calcutta.

• His territories were divided between British and the Nizam of Hyderabad.

• A boy of a royal family (Wodeyar) was installed on the Mysore throne, and the subsidry alliance signed.

• Lord Wellesley, the Governor General of Bengal (1798-1805) after the Mysore war furthered the expansion of the East India Company from a trading corporation into a supreme power in India by using the method of Subsidiary Alliance apart from wars and conquests and annexation of territories.

Subsidiary Alliance System

The Indian rulers were persuaded by Wellesley to sign a friendly treaty with the British according to which they would have to follow certain conditions: 1. The states had to accept the English as a supreme power. 2. A British Resident and British subsidiary forces had to be stationed inside the state. 3. The states had to cede territories to the company for the maintenance of the subsidiary forces. 4. The natives could not entertain any other Europeans other than the English. 5. The states were not allowed to negotiate with any other kingdom without the permission of the governor-General. 6. In return the English promised them protection against any external attacks and non-interference in their internal matters. States which entered into the Subsidiary Alliance

• The Nizam of Hyderabad was the first to accept the subsidiary alliance system. He handed over Cuddappah, Bellary, Anantapur and Carnool.

• After the death of Tipu Sultan, his kingdom was handed over to Krishna Raja Wadiar who accepted the scheme.

• The Nawab of Oudh accepted the pact and surrendered Rohilkhand and Southern districts of Doab region.

• Peshwa Baji Rao II and many Rajput rulers also entered into this alliance.

The Maratha Wars

The Third Battle of Panipat fought between Ahmad Shah Abdali and the Marathas on 14th January 1762 weakened the Maratha power.

First Maratha War (1775-1782)

Causes

• After the third Battle of Panipat, the fourth Peshwa Madhaw Rao had reorganised the Maratha power under him. However, after his death in 1772 internal dissensions among Marathas left them weakened.

• His younger brother, Peshwa Narayan Rao succumbed to the intrigues of his ambitious uncle Raghunath Rao, another claimant for the gaddi.

• Raghunath Rao was opposed by a strong party at Poona under Nana Phadnavis who proclaimed Narayan Rao's posthumous son as Peshwa.

• This drove Raghunath Rao to point of desperation and he signed Treaty of Surat (1775) with Bombay Government hoping to gain the gaddi with the help of English subsidiary troops. By this Treaty, Raghunath agreed to hand over the islands of Salsette and Bassein to the English in return for their help to get Peshwaship.

• However, this was done without the knowledge of Warren Hastings, the Governor-General of Bengal and the supreme head of the English in India, who rejected the treaty.

Course/Events

• Thus the English were involved in a long drawn war with the Marathas which lasted from 1775 to 1782.

• In the beginning, the Marathas defeated British at Talegaon and forced them to sign convention of Wadgaon by which English renounced all their conquest and gave up the cause of Raghunath Rao.

• Nana Phadnavis signed the Treaty of Purandhar in 1776 with the English, raised his position and defeated Raghunath Rao.

• But then all Maratha Chiefs were united behind Peshwa and his Chief Minister Nana Phadnavis while on the other hand, the British were led by Governor-General Warren Hastings.

• A British force under Goddar marched across Central India and after series of victorious engagement reached Ahmedabad which he captured in 1780.

• Mahadji Scindhia did not want confrontation with British and Treaty of Salbai was signed in 1782 by which status quo was maintained, was ratified by Nana Phadnavis in 1785. This ended the war and gave the British respite from Maratha menace.

Results

• British possession of Salsette was confirmed and Madhaw Rao Narayan was recognised and ratified Peshwa.

• Raghunath rao was granted a pension of three lakh rupees a year.

• Treaty of Salbai enabled British to exert pressure on Mysore as Marathas promised to help them in recovering territories from Hyder Ali.

Second Maratha War (1803-1805)

Causes

• Nana Phadnavis died in March 1800 "with him", remarked Colonel Palmer "departed all wisdom and moderation of the Maratha Government."

• Maratha Empire at this time consisted of confederation of five big chiefs, Peshwa at Poona, Gaikwad at Baroda, Scindhia at Gwalior, Holkar at Indore and Bhonsle at Nagpur, Peshwa being nominal head. After Nana Phadnavis' death war broke out among the Maratha chiefs.

• Yashwant Rao Holkar vs Daulat Rao Scindhia and Peshwa Baji Rao II on other side were locked in a mortal combat and in April 1801. Peshwa brutally murdered Vithuji, the brother of Jaswant Rao Holkar.

• On 25th October 1802, on the occasion of Diwali day, Jaswant Rao Holkar defeated the combined armies of Peshwa and Scindhia at Hadaspar near Poona, placing Vinayak Rao, son of Amrit Rao on the gaddi of Peshwa.

• Peshwa approached Wellesley for help thereby providing the British, the much wanted opportunity to intervene and accepted the subsidiary alliance and signed the treaty of Bassein on 31st December 1802.

• The Peshwa agreed to receive from the Company a permanent regular Native Infantry stationed in his territories, to cede in perpetuity territories yielding an income of Rs 26 lakhs. The territories surrenderd were in Gujarat, South of Tapti, between Tapti and Narmada and some Territory near Tungabhadra. He also surrendered Surat and agreed to give up all claims of Chauth on Nizam's dominions and agreed not to resort to arms against Gaikwad.

Course/Events

• Thus coming to the call of the Peshwa for help, in South, the British armies led by Arthur Wellesley defeated the combined armies of Scindhia and Bhonsle at Assaye in Sept. 1803, Aragon in November 1803.

• In North, Lord Lake routed Scindhia's army at Laswari on first November and occupied Aligarh, Delhi and Agra.

• The two chiefs accepted humiliating treaties and signed the Subsidiary Alliance.

Results

• By Treaty of Deogaon (17th Dec 1803) the Bhonsle Raja ceded to the Company province of Cuttack and the entire territory west of River Warda.

• Scindhia concluded the Treaty of Sarji-I-Arjangaon (December 30, 1803), surrendered territories between Jamuna and Ganges, all territories north of principalities of Jaipur, Jodhpur and Gokul besides the fort of Ahmadnagar, harbour of Broach and his possessions between Ajanta Ghat and River Godavari were surrendered to British.

• Raja of Bharatpur, Holkar's ally, fought British armies to a stand- still and inflicted heavy losses on Lord Lake who unsuccessfully attempted to storm his fort.

• Wellesley was called back from India. It was Sir George Barlow who concluded with Holkar the treaty of Rajpurghat (25th Dec 1805) whereby the Maratha Chief gave up all claims to places North of Chambal, Bundelkhand and over Peshwa and other allies of the Company while the latter got back greater part of his territories.

Third Anglo Maratha War (1817-1818) Causes

• Final phase of struggle began with coming of Lord Hastings as Governor General in 1813.

• Hastings moved against Pindaris, transgressed the sovereignty of Maratha Chiefs and two parties were drawn into war.

• Hastings forced humiliating treaties on the Raja of Nagpur (27th May 1816) on Peshwa (13th June 1817) and Scindhia (05th Nov 1817).

• Refusing to sign the humiliating treaty, the Peshwa made a last bid to throw off the British yoke in course of the third Maratha War and attacked British Residency at Poona in Nov 1817.

Course/Events

• Appa Sahib of Nagpur attacked Residency at Nagpur and Malhar Rao Holkar made preparation for war.

• Peshwa was defeated at Khirki in November 1817, Bhonsle army routed at Sitabaldi and Holkar army crushed at Mahidpur.

• Peshwa, however, continued to fight but was defeated at the battle of Korgaon and Ashi in January-February, 1818.

Results

• The Peshwa was dethroned and pensioned off at Bithur near Kanpur, Maratha confederacy dissolved and Peshwaship abolished.

• Peshwa's territories were annexed and Presidency of Bombay came into existence.

- Holkar accepted subsidiary forces by the Treaty of Mandasor.
- The British occupied Bhonsle's territory but a small part was given to Raghoji's son to rule.

• The small kingdom of Satara was founded out of Peshwa's land and given to a descendant of Shivaji, Pratap Singh. Thus all Maratha chiefs were reduced to a subordinate position under the English.

Pindari War (1817-1818)

• Hastings assembled a large force to round up and exterminate the seemingly lawless Pindaris and their chiefs - Karim Khan, Wasil Muhammad and Chintu.

• Karim Khan submitted and was offered an estate at Gawashpur. Wasil Muhammad was forced to lay down arms and died in captivity. Chintu was defeated and not heard of again.

Anglo-Sikh Wars

First War (1845-1846)

• Anarchy in Punjab after the death of Ranjit Singh; murder of three rulers (Kharak Singh, Nao Nihal Singh and Sher Singh) within six years (18391845); succession of Dalip Singh (5 year old son of Ranjit Singh in 1845) and the absence of any control over the army (Khalsa) contributed to the weakening of the Sikh power.

• The British pursued the policy of encirclement of Punjab from 1833 onwards (occupation of Ferozepur in 1835 and Sikharpur in 1836, and appointment of British Residents in Ludhiana and in Sindh in 1838) and their military preparations (increase of their army from 2500 in 1836 to 14000 in 1843) fuelled the animosity between the British and the Sikhs.

• Confirmations of the suspicions of the Sikh army were exacted by the annexation of Sindh by the British in 1843 and the first Anglo-Sikh War started soon after in 1845.

Course/Events

• The Sikh army was soon defeated under Lal Singh (P.M.) by Sir Hugh Gough at Mudki in 1845.

• The British also defeated the Sikh army under Tej Singh, Commander-in-Chief at Ferozepur in 1845.

• However, the British under Harry Smith suffered a blow at the hands of Ranjur Singh Majhithia at Buddewal in 1846.

• Finally the Sikhs were defeated by Smith at Aliwal and Sobroan (1846) on the crossing of the Sutlej and occupation of Lahore by the British.

• The War ended with the Treaty of Lahore in 1846.

Results • Jullundar Doab was ceded to the British and payment of a war indemnity of Rs. 1.5 crore imposed on the Sikhs. But they were able to pay only half of this amount and for the rest the British got Kashmir which they sold to Gulab Singh.

• A British resident, Sir Henry Lawrence was appointed at Lahore and Dalip Singh was recognized as the ruler of Punjab with Rani Jindan as his regent.

• The Sikh army was reduced and its ruler prohibited from employing any European without the prior consent of the British. Also, the British troops were permitted to pass through Sikh territory whenever the need arose.

• Soon after the Treaty of Bhairowal was signed in December 1846 which resulted in:

• Removal of Rani Jindan and setting up of a Council of Regency for Punjab (consisting of 8 Sikh Sardars and presided over by Sir Henry Lawrence.)

- Stationing of British forces at Lahore for which the Sikhs had to pay Rs. 22 Lakhs.
- Power to the governor general of India to take and garrison any fort in Punjab.

Second War (1848-1849) Causes

• Desire of the Sikh army to avenge their humiliation of the first war and the discontentment of the Sikh Sardars with the British control over Punjab.

• Treatment of Rani Jindan by the British - her transportation to Shaikpur first and then to Benaras and the drastic reduction in her pension fuelled the second Anglo-Sikh War.

Course/Events

• The Revolt of Mulraj, Governor of Multan ensued and two English officers, Vans Agnew and Lt. Anderson who were sent to take over the administration in Multan were murdered.

• Sher Singh, sent to suppress the revolt of Mulraj, himself joined the revolt against the British leading to an outbreak of general rebellion by the Sikh army and the Sardars.

• The Battle of Ramnagar between Sher Singh and Lord Gough in 1848 and the Battle of Chillianwala in 1849 between the two ended without any result.

• Lord Gough captured Multan and Mulraj surrendered who was deported for life.

• The Sikhs were finally defeated by Gough in the Battle of Gujarat (1849) and Sher Singh and other Sikh chiefs surrendered.

Results • Punjab was annexed by Lord Dalhousie and Dalip Singh disposed and pensioned off to England along with Rani Jindan.

• A Board of Three Commissioners consisting of the Lawrence brothers - Henry and John and Charles G. Mansel was constituted in 1849 to administer Punjab.

• Soon afterwards the Board was abolished and a Chief Commissioner for Punjab, Sir John Lawrence was appointed in 1853.

Annexation of Sindh

Sindh in the 18th Century was ruled by Kallora Chiefs. In 1783, Mir Fateh Ali Khan leader of Talpura established complete hold over Sind and Kallora prince was exiled. When Fath Ali Khan died in 1800, brothers popularly known as 'Char Yar' divided the kingdoms among themselves calling themselves Amirs or Lords of Sind. The Amirs extended dominion on all sides, took Amarkot from Raja of Jodhpur, Karachi from chief of Luz, Shikarpur and Bukkar from Afghans and established three branches with head-quarters at Hyderabad, Khairpur and Mirpur.

Early relations between Sindh and the British

• In 1775, East India Company had established factories at Thatta and had commercial relations with Sindh which were abandoned in 1792 due to political unrest.

• Fear of the French design prompted Lord Minto to send British mission to Kabul, Persia, Lahore and Sind and a treaty of 'eternal friendship' was signed with the Amirs in 1809 providing for mutual intercourse through envoys, and Amirs promised not to allow the French to settle in Sindh.

• The Treaty was renewed in 1820 with an additional article which excluded Americans from Sindh.

• Punjab under Ranjit Singh became powerful and planned to conquer Sindh, with this intention met Lord William Bentinck in 1831 at Ropar with proposal of jointly conquering Sindh and dividing it between them but, Bentinck refused it.

• In pursuance of commercial motives in 1831, Alexander Burnes under order from Lord Ellenborough was sent to explore Indus under pretence of carrying presents to Ranjit Singh at Lahore.

• In 1832, William Bentinck sent Col. Pottinger to Sindh to sign a new commercial treaty with Amirs and Lieutenant Del Host was sent to survey course of Lower Indus.

• Terms of treaty signed between Pottinger and Amirs of Sindh were: (i) A free passage for English travellers for merchants through Sind for use of Indus for commercial pursuits; (ii) No English merchant was to settle in Sindh, travellers and visitors were required to have Passports; (iii) Tariff rates were to be announced and no military dues or toll be demanded and tariffs could be altered if high; (iv) Amirs to put down border robbers of Cutch in concert with Raja of Jodhpur; (v) Old treaties of friendship were confirmed.

• Details of tariff rates were settled by a supplementary commercial treaty of 1834. Colonel Pottinger was stationed as the Company's political agent in Sind.

• Pottinger was sent to Hyderabad to negotiate a new Subsidiary Treaty in 1838 by which Amirs accepted mediation in their dispute with Sikhs and secondly accepted a British Resident at Hyderabad who could move freely.

• Auckland brought Ranjit Singh, Shah Shuja and Amirs to sign a tripartite treaty in June 1838 whereby Ranjit Singh accepted British mediation for his disputes with Amirs and Shah Shija agreed to relinquish his sovereign rights on Sindh against receiving arrears of tribute.

• Under threat of superior military force of British, Amirs accepted a treaty in February 1839 by which British subsidiary force was to be stationed at Shikarpur and Bukkar and Amir of Sind to pay Rs 3 lakh annually for its maintenance.

• Amirs were not to negotiate with foreign states without the Company's knowledge, were to provide a store room at Karachi for military purposes abolish all tolls on Indus and furnish an auxillary for Afghan war it needed. The British, in turn, were not to meddle in internal affair of Sindh. • The Amirs even helped the British in the Afghan War (1839 - 1842).

Causes • Conquest of Sindh was result of growing AngloRussian rivalry in Europe, to counter Russia, British Government decided to increase its influence in Afghanistan and Persia.

• This policy could be successful if Sindh was under British control. Commercial possibilities were an additional attraction.

• In 1842, Lord Ellenborough succeeded Auckland as Governor-General, he made plan to annex Sindh. To regain prestige of English, suffered in Afghan War.

• In September 1842, Sir Charles Napier replaced Major Outram as Company's Resident at Sind with full civil and military authority and was placed in charge of all the troops of upper and lower Sind.

• He got the pretext when Amir Rustum of Khairpur was charged with entering into a secret offensive and defensive alliance against the Company.

• As a punishment, Lord Ellenborough imposed a new treaty on the Amirs in 1843 and Outram was sent to negotiate the details. By this treaty, the Amirs were required to cede important territories like Karachi, Thatta, Bhakkar, Rohri in lieu of tribute to provide fuel to steamers of Company navigating the Indus and surrender right of coining money.

• A dispute of succession rose at Khairpur which gave Napier the opportunity to interfere. Napier supported claims of Ali Murad, brother of old Mir Rustum, in preference to Mir Rustum's son whom he had abdicated and taken to flight.

• Napier prior to Treaty of 1843 had destroyed the fort of Imamgarh at Khairpur and Hyderabad in January 1843.

Course/Events • Baluchis attacked Major Outram on 15th February, 1843 and declared war.

• In February 1843, Napier defeated a Baluchi army at Miani and won another victory at Dabo in March, 6 miles from Hyderabad the following month.

- By April, the whole of Sindh had capitulated; Amirs were captured and banished from Sindh.
- In August 1843, Sindh was formally annexed to English Empire.

Results

• Napier was appointed as the first Governor of Sindh and received 7 lakh rupees as prize money and Outram offered 3000 pounds.

THE GREAT REVOLT OF 1857

The revolt of 1857 was though a regional manifestation yet the causes and the events that instigated the revolt were surely having a Pan-Indian characteristic. In fact, the revolt of 1857 was the outburst of people's feelings against, social, economic and political exploitation and hence participants from almost every field i.e. social, economical (represented by peasants) and political (deposed rulers) participated in the revolt. Prior to this revolt also, the resentment of the Indians were expressed in both violent mutinies as well as peaceful protests. The mutiny at Vellore (1806), at Barrackpore (1824), at Ferozpur (1842), mutiny of the 7th Bengal cavalry, mutiny of 22nd N.I. in 1849, Revolt of the Santhals (1855-56), Kol uprising (1831-32) etc. were among the high degree of protests by the people that culminated in the revolt of 1857.

Causes of Revolt

Following were the causes of the great revolt of 1857:

• Political Causes:

The English Company's policy of 'effective control' and gradual extinction of the Indian Native States was facilitated by the subsidiary alliance system that culminated with the 'Doctrine of Lapse' of Dalhousie. While the Punjab, Pegu, Sikkim had been annexed by the 'Right of Conquest', Satara, Nagpur, Jhansi, Udaipur, Sambhalpur, Baghat and Jaitpur were annexed by Dalhousie's doctrine of lapse policy. The pretext of 'good governance' was adopted for the annexation of Awadh. Moreover, the announcement of the Lord Canning, that the successors of Faqir-ud-Din would have to leave and renounce regal title and ancestral Mughal Palace (Lal Quila) had grievously hurted the Muslim sentiments who thought that the English wanted to destroy the house of Timur. The 'absentee sovereignty ship' of the British rule in India also worked against the British that disbanded the Pindaries, Thugs and irregular soldiers forming the bulk of native armies that transformed as rebels in the revolt of 1857.

• Administrative and Economic Causes:

The annexation of Indian states deprived the native aristocracy of power and position. The new administrative set-up tended to reserve all high posts, civil and military to the Europeans. The chances of promotion to the Indians appointed to these services were few. Moreover, the administrative machinery of the English Company was inefficient and insufficient. The land revenue policy was equally unpopular. Many Taluqdars, the hereditary landlords, were deprived of their position and gains. Large estates were confiscated and sold by public auction. The Inam Commission, appointed in 1852 in Bombay, alone confiscated as many as 20,000 estates. The Taluqdars of Awadh were the hardest hit. Peasants were forced to leave their agricultural land due to rise in revenue, the handicrafts and industry workers were forced to earn livelihood through beggary. The economic policies worked against the traditional Indian handicrafts and industry. The ruined Indian industry and trade increased the pressure on agriculture and land which lopsided development in turn resulted in the pauperization of the country in general.

• Social and Religious Causes:

The English were infected with a spirit of racialism. They described the Hindus as barbarian with hardly any trace of culture or civilization, while Muslims were dubbed as bigots, cruel and faithless. The Religious Disability Act of 1850 modified Hindu customs; a change of religion did not debar a son from inheriting the property of his father. The rumour was that the English were conspiring to convert the Indians to Christianity. Sepoys were promised promotions if they accepted the 'true faith'. Idolatry was renounced and Hindus were dubbed as ignorant and superstitious. The activities of Christian priests and efforts of Dalhousie and Betheme towards women education made Indians feel that through education the British were going to conquer their civilization and so these education offices were styled on 'Saitani Daftars'. Moreover, the abolition of Sati, child marriage etc. were seen as an intrusion into the age-old tradition of the land

• Military Causes:

The ratio of Indians in the British army was much higher than the Europeans. This disproportion took a more serious turn because of the shortage of good officers in the army; most of them were employed on administrative posts in the newly annexed states and

the frontiers. Indian portion of the English army consisted mostly of Brahmans and Rajputs. Moreover, most of them came from Awadh and Bihar, hence the political and social developments of the region equally affected them. The extension of British dominion in India adversely affected the service conditions of the army. They were required to serve in areas far away from their homes without any extra payment or Bhatta and it was this reason that led to the refusal of Bengal regiment in 1844 to move to Sindh. In 1856, Canning passed the General Service Enlistment Act which feared that all future recruits for the Bengal Army would have to give an undertaking to serve anywhere as desired by the government. Also, the the Post Office Act of 1854, withdrew the privilege of free postage so long enjoyed by the Sepoys. Moreover, the disaster of the British Army in Crimean War favoured the idea of a revolt which was triggered with the introduction of greased cartridge of the newly replaced Enfield rifle. The greased cartridge contained

the fat of pig and cow prepared at wool rich arsenal. This was considered by the Sepoys as a deliberate move to defame their religion.

Spread of the Revolt

On 29th March, 1857, the Brahmin sepoy, Mangal Pandey of Barrackpore refused to use the greased cartridge and fired at his adjutant. The 34 Native Infantry was disbanded and sepoys guilty of rebellion were punished. In May 1857, 85 sepoys of 3rd cavalry at Meerut rebelled but were imprisoned. Their fellow Sepoys broke out an open rebellion on 10th May and shot their officer and headed towards Delhi. General Hewitt, the commanding officer at Meerut found himself helpless to stem the rising tide. On 12 May 1857, the rebels seized Delhi and overcame Lieutenant Willoughby, the incharge of the Delhi. Bahadur Shahll was proclaimed the Emperor of India. Very soon the rebellion spread throughout Northern and Central India at Lucknow, Allahabad, Kanpur, Bareilly, Banaras, Jhansi, parts of Bihar and other places. Unfortunately, a majority of Indian rulers remained loyal to the British and the educated Indians and merchants' class kept themselves aloof from the rebels. Revolt was confined to North India only.

Centres of the Revolt

Delhi: A rebellion was led by Bakht Khan. In September 1857, Delhi was recaptured by the English under John Nicholson. The emperor was arrested and his two sons and grandsons were publicly shot by Lieutenant Hudson himself. Kanpur: Nana Saheb was the leader at Kanpur. General Huge Wheeler surrendered on June 27. Nana Saheb was joined by Tantia Tope. Sir Campbell occupied Kanpur on December 6th. Tantia Tope escaped and joined Rani of Jhansi. Lucknow: Rebellion was led by Begum Hazrat Mahal and Ahmaddullah. Henry Lawrence and other Europeans at the British residency were killed by the rebels. The early attempts of Havelock and Outram to recover Lucknow met with no success. It was finally rescued by Colin Campbell in March 1858. Jhansi: Rani Lakshmi Bai led the revolt who was defeated by Huge Rose and she fled to Gwalior and captured it. She was supported by Tantia Tope. Gwalior was recaptured by the English in June 1858 and the Rani of Jhansi died on 17th June 1958. Tantia Tope escaped southward. In April, one of the Sindhia's feudatories captured him and handed to the English who hanged him. Bareilly: Khan Bahadur Khan proclaimed himself the Nawab Nazim of Bareilly, however, the rebellion was crushed by Colin Campbell in May 1858 and Bareilly was recaptured. Arah: Kunwar Singh and his brother Amar Singh led the rebellion. They were defeated by William Taylor and Vincent Ayar. Kunwar Singh was killed on 8th May, 1858. Faizabad: Maulavi Ahmeddullah led the rebellion but was defeated by the English. Allahabad & Banaras: The rebellion at Banaras and adjoining areas was mercilessly suppressed by Colonel Neill who put to death all rebels suspected and even disorderly boys.

Impact of the Revolt

The revolt of 1857 made it clear that the techniques of administering India must change in order to fully achieve the colonial goal. Hence, there were major changes in the policies of the rulers in almost every field-political, economical, social, religious and military. Following were the impact of the revolt of 1857 on Indian polity and society:

1. By the Government of India Act 1858, the control of Indian administration was transferred to the Crown from the Company. Though the Crown had considerable influence over Company's policies through the Board of Control from 1784, the Act of 1858 ended the dualism of control and made the Crown directly responsible to Indian affairs. A Secretary of State of India was appointed who was to be assisted by an advisory council of 5 members, out of which 8 members were to be nominated by the Crown. In India, the same sort of GovernorGeneral and the same military and civil services continued as before. No new policy was inaugurated; rather a continuation of the Company's policies was reiterated.

2. The policy of extension of territorial possession ended and it was promised "to respect the rights, dignity and honour of Native Princes as their own". As these Native Princes acted as 'break waters', to preserve them became of a cardinal principle of British policy. General amnesty was granted to all the offenders, except those involved in killing of English and Europeans. Taluqdars of Awadh were confirmed in their estates subject to the promise of loyalty and future good behaviour.

3. The 1858 proclamation assured the free & impartial admission to offices under Crown without any discrimination of race or creed, provided the Indians qualified for them by their education, ability &

integrity. This was manifested in the Indian Civil Service Act of 1861, which provided for an annual competitive examination to be held in London.

4. Indian-British army was thoroughly reorganised and built on the policy of division and counterpoise. The Army Amalgamation Scheme of 1861 transferred the Company's European troops to the service of the Crown. 'Linked-Battalion Scheme' was started in the army. All big posts in the army and artillery departments were reserved for the Europeans. The ratio of Indian and European soldiers in the army was increased in the favour of the latter. The policy of counterpoise of a native against native was followed.

5. It was increasingly realised that one basic cause for the revolt of 1857 was the lack of contact between the ruler and the ruled. It was believed that this would at least acquaint the rulers with the sentiments and feelings of the Indian and those provide an opportunity for evidence of misunderstandings. The Indian Councils Act of 1861 was a humble beginning in that way.

6. The English attitude towards the religious and social aspects of India changed. They now tried to follow a policy of non-interference in the religoius and social sphere of Indians which had caused resentment among them.

7. The unity of Hindus and Muslims during the revolt was thought problematic to the smooth working of British policies, hence the policy of 'divide and rule' was applied. Muslims were now considered as 'friends' of the English while the Hindus were denounced.

8. Racial bitterness was aggravated. The entire structure of the Indian government was remodeled on the philosophy of white man's burden and civilizing role of English in India was applied.

9. The era of territorial aggrandizement gave place to the era of economic exploitation.

Nature of Revolt

Scholars have held divergent views about the nature of the revolt of 1857. British scholars like Kaye, Trevelyan, Lawrence in addition to many eye witnesses like Munshi Jiwan Lal, Durgadas Bandopadhya, Syed Ahmad Khan etc. have held that it was 'a mutiny'. Other described it as a 'racial struggle'. Still others doubt it as a clash of civilization, while the nationalists call it as the first War of Indian Independence. Following are the major views of scholars. John Lawrence and Seeley thought it to be a Sepoy's mutiny. John Seeley describes the revolt as a 'wholly unpatriotic and selfish Sepoy mutiny with non active leadership and no popular support'. Though it is true that it began as a military rising, yet it was not everywhere confined to the army. Even the army as a whole did not join it and a considerable section fought on the side of the government. In fact, the rebels came from almost every section of the population. In the trials of 1858-59, thousands of civilians, along with the soldiers, were held guilty of the rebellion and were punished. The views of L.E.R. Rees that the revolt was 'a war of fanatic religionists against Christians' is also erring. During the heat of the rebellions, the ethical principles underlying the various religions had little influence on the complaints. Both sides quoted their religious scriptures to cover their cases over the other party. Though the Christians fought the war and won it, but not Christianity. It was also not a 'war of races'. True, all the whites in India, whatever their nationality, were ranged on one side, but not all the blacks. Leaving the noncombatants out of account, there was a high proportion of Indian soldiers in the Company's army that took part in the suppression of the rebellion. To be more correct, it was a war between the black rebels on one side and the white ruler supported by blacks on the other side. T.R. Holmes held that it was 'a conflict between civilization and barbarism'. The explanation smacks of narrow racialism. During the rebellion both the Europeans and the Indians were guilty of excess. Infact, vendettas took the better of men on both sides. No nation or individual which indulges in such horrible atrocities can claim to be civilized. Sir James Outram and W. Tayler described the outbreak as the result of Hindu-Muslim conspiracy. Outram held that 'it was a Mohammedan conspiracy making capital of Hindu grievances'. Early national leaders like V.D. Savarkar in his book, 'The Indian War of Independence', to arouse national consciousness, described it as 'a planned war of national independence'. Later on, national leaders further developed them to cite it as a shining example of the perfect accord and harmony between the Hindus and the Muslims. Dr. R.C. Majumdar and Dr. S.N. Sen agree that the uprising of 1857 was not the result of a careful planning nor were there any masterminds behind it. The mere fact that Nana Saheb went to Lucknow and Ambala in March-April 1857 and the struggle started in May of the same year cannot be regarded as an evidence of planning. During the trial of Bahadur Shah, efforts were made to prove that he was a party to a preplanned conspiracy. Infact, the course of trial made it clear that the uprising was as much surprise to Bahadur Shah as to the British. Also, both of them agree that the Indian nationalism in the middle of the 19th century was in an embroynic stage. India, at that time was not a nation and the leaders of the rebellion were no national leaders. Bahadur Shah was no national king. Infact, self motivation and profit worked as an energizer to the rebel leaders. Different groups participated in the revolt because of reasons. The Taluqdars of Awadh fought for their feudal privileges. Attitudes of the leaders were mutually jealous. The condition of the masses was no better. The majority of the people remained apathetic and neutral. In his book 'the Sepoy Mutiny and the Revolt of 1857', R.C. Majumdar argued that the uprising of 1857 was not a war of independence. He maintained that the revolt took different

aspects in different regions. Somewhere it was a Sepoy mutiny joined later by disgruntled elements eager to take advantage of anarchy, somewhere it was a Sepoy mutiny followed by a general revolt in which, civilians, disposed rulers, tenants and other took part. He also contends that the Sepoys were mostly inspired by the desire of material gains than any political or even religious contradiction. However, he concedes that ultimately these all gave birth to nationalism. On the contrary, Dr. Sen believes it to be a war of independence by arguing that revolutions are mostly the work of a minority, with or without the active sympathy of the masses. He contends that when a rebellion can claim the sympathies of the substantial majority of the population, it can claim a national character. Dr. S.B. Chaudhari, in his book 'Civil Rebellions in the Indian Mutiny 1857-1859' has confined his attention to the detailed analysis of the civil rebellions which accompanied the military insurrection of 1857. He maintains that the revolt of 1857 can be bifurcated into mutiny and rebellion and the outburst of 1857 was the coming together of two series of disturbances. Lala Lajpat Rai in 'Young India' has described the revolt of 1857 as both political as well national. Subhash Chandra Bose also conceded that it was not merely a Sepoy mutiny but a national uprising. Eric Stokes believes that in rural areas the revolt was essentially elitist in character. The mass of the population, appear to have played little part in the fighting or at most timely followed the local leadership. According to them, it was basically an unarmed rebellion.

The Sepoy Mutiness

1764 : A battalion of Munro's army at the battlefield of Buxar deserted to Mir Kasim. 1806 : Mutiny at Vellore in protest against interference in the social and religious practices of the sepoys. The sepoy unfurled the flag of the ruler of Mysore. 1824 : 47th Native infantry unit mutinied when ordered to proceed to Burma without adequate overseas allowance. 1825 : The Grenadeir Company in Assam mutinied. 1838 : An Indian regiment at Sholapur mutinied for non payment of full batta. 1844 : 34 N.I. and 64th regiment joined by some others refused to proceed to Sindh without old pecuniary benefits. 1849-50 : There was mutinious spirit in the company's army during occupation in the Punjab. The regiment at Govindgarh mutinied in 1850.

Failure of the Revolt

The revolt of 1857 was regional in character and poorly organized. India south of the Narmada remained unaffected. Sindh and Rajasthan remained quiet and Nepal's help proved of great avail in suppressing the revolt. This revolt was mainly feudal in character carrying with it some nationalistic elements. The feudal elements of Awadh, Rohilkhand and some other parts of northern India led the rebellion, other feudal princes like the Rajas of Patiala, Gwalior etc. helped in its suppression. These Indian princess were amply rewarded after the suppression of the rebellion. The revolt was organised poorly. The leader of the rebellion though undoubtely brave, lacked experience, organizing ability and concerted operations. There was no planning and almost all factions acted their own strategy. Surprise attacks and guerilla tactics could not get them their lost independence against the much organised European based English army. The military resources of the British Empire were far superior to those of the rebels. Though a year earlier, the British army was busy in Crimean War and fought on other fronts in the World, but by 1857-58 most of the wars were won by the British. The Indian soldiers had very few guns and muskets

and mostly fought with swords and spears. On the other hand, the English army was equipped with the latest weapons

of war like the Enfield rifle. Also, the new mode of communication like telegraph and railways played a major part in favour of the English. The rebels had no common ideal. Bahadur Shah-II was declared the Emperor at Delhi, Nana Saheb was proclaimed as Peshwa at Kanpur and Gwalior. HinduMuslim differences lay dormant against the common enemy, but were not dead. The peasants and the inferior castes, apart from the educated class and traders, had no active sympathies with the rebels.

Points to Remember

• The revolt was basically anti-imperialist and both the sepoys and the civilians wanted to throw out the imperial rulers.

• In 1856 the government decided to replace the old fashioned musket 'Brown Bess' by the 'Enfield rifle'. The training of the new weapon was to be imparted at Dum Dum, Ambala and Sialkot.

• On March 29, 1857 the sepoys at Barrackpore refused to use the greased cartridge and one Brahmin sepoy, Mangal Pandey, attacked and fired at the adjutant.

• On 10th May, 1857, the sepoys of the 3rd cavalry at Meerut also refused to use the greased cartridge and broke out in open rebellion. They were immediately joined by the 11th and 20th Native infantries.

• On May 12, 1857, Delhi was seized and Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah-II was proclaimed the emperor of India. The real command was in the hands of Bakht Khan who had led the revolt at Bareilly and brought the troops to Delhi.

• In Kanpur the revolt was led by Nana Saheb, who proclaimed himself the Peshwa. He was assisted by Tantia Tope. The Rebels defeated General Windham outside Kanpur. Azimullah Khan also led at Kanpur.

• In Lucknow Begum Hazrat Mahal and Ahmadullah led the revolt. Hazrat Mahal proclaimed Brijis Kadr as the nawab of Awadh against the wishes of the British. Henery Lawrence, the British resident was killed.

- In Jhansi, Rani Laxmibai assumed the leadership of the mutiny.
- In Bareilly Khan Bahadur proclaimed himself as the Nawab and revolted there.
- In Arrah Kunwar Singh led the revolt.
- In Faizabad Maulvi Ahmadullah led the revolt.
- Delhi was suppressed by Colonel Nicholson and Hudson.
- Kanpur was suppressed by Campbell.
- Lucknow was suppressed by Campbell.

- Jhansi was suppressed by Hugh Rose.
- Allahabad and Benaras were suppressed by Colonel Neil.
- Arrah was supressed by William Taylor and Vincent Eyre.
- Bahadur Shah was arrested and deported to Rangoon where he died in 1862.
- Nana Saheb escaped to Nepal.
- The revolt was poorly organised, restricted in its scope and there was no unity among its leaders.

• There was no impact of rebellion beyond Narmada. Even in north Rajasthan, Punjab and Sind remained quiet.

• The Indian princes such as Scindhia of Gwalior, Nizam of Hyderabad, Gulab Singh of Kashmir, prince of Rajasthan remained loyal to the British.

• The Indian intelligentsia class remained aloof.

• The control of the Indian administration was transferred from the East India Company to the crown by the government of India Act, 1858.

• The Indian Civil Services Act was passed which provided for an annual competitive examination to be held in London for recruitment to the covenanted civil services.

• The Army amalgamation scheme of 1861 transferred the company's european troops to the service of crown.

• The general formula followed was that in Bengal presidency, the proportion between the European and Indian troops should be 1:2 while for Bombay and Madras presidency it should be 1:3.

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1885-1905)

Factors Promoting the Growth of Nationalism in India The following causes are responsible for the origin and growth of nationalism in India.

1. Political Unity For the first time, most of the regions in India were united politically and administratively under a single power (the British rule). It introduced a uniform system of law and government.

2. Development of Communication and Transport The introduction of railways, telegraphs and postal services and the construction of roads and canals facilitated communication among the

people. All these brought Indians nearer to each other and provided the facility to organise the national movement on an all India basis.

3. English Language and Western Education The English language played an important role in the growth of nationalism in the country. The English educated Indians, who led the national movement, developed Indian nationalism and organised it. Western education facilitated the spread of the concepts of liberty, equality, freedom and nationalism and sowed the seeds of nationalism.

4. The Role of the Press The Indian Press, both English and vernacular, had also aroused the national consciousness.

5. Social and Religious Movements of the Nineteenth Century The leaders of various organisations like the Brahmo Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission, Arya Samaj, and Theosophical Society generated a feeling of regard for and pride in the motherland.

6. Economic Exploitation by the British A good deal of anti-British feeling was created by the economic policy pursued by the British government in India. The English systematically ruined the Indian trade and native industries. Therefore, economic exploitation by the British was one of the most important causes for the rise of Indian nationalism.

7. Racial Discrimination The Revolt of 1857 created a kind of permanent bitterness and suspicion between the British and the Indians. The English feeling of racial superiority grew. India as a nation and Indians as individuals were subjected to insults, humiliation and contemptuous treatment.

8. Administration of Lytton Lord Lytton arranged the Delhi Durbar at a time when the larger part of India was in the grip of famine. He passed the Vernacular Press Act which curbed the liberty of the Indian Press. His Arms Act was a means to prevent the Indians from keeping arms. All these measures created widespread discontent among the Indians.

9. The Ilbert Bill controversy The Ilbert Bill was presented in the Central Legislature during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon. The Bill tried to remove racial inequality between Indian and European judges in courts. This Bill was opposed by the British residents in India. Ultimately the Bill was modified. Thus various factors contributed to the rise of nationalism and the formation of the Indian National Congress.

Early Political Associations

The British Indian Association – 1851 Bengal The Bombay Association — 1852 Dadabhai Naoroji East India Association 1856 London Madras Native Association 1852 Poona Sarvojanik Sabha— 1870 The Madras Mahajana Sabha—1884 The Indian National Congress (1885) Allan Octavian Hume, a retired civil servant in the British Government took the initiative to form an all-India organization. Thus, the Indian National Congress was founded and its first session was held at Bombay in 1885. W.C. Banerjee was its first president. It was attended by 72 delegates from all over India. Persons attending the session belonged to different religious faiths. They discussed the problems of all the Indians irrespective of their religion, caste, language and regions. Thus Indian National Congress from the start was an all-India secular movement embracing every section of Indian society. The second session was held in Calcutta in 1886 and the third in Madras in 1887. The history of the Indian National Movement can be studied in three important phases: (i)The phase of moderate nationalism (1885-1905) when the Congress continued to be loyal to the British crown. (ii) The years 1906-1916 witnessed- Swadeshi Movement, rise of militant nationalism and the Home Rule Movement. (iii) The period from 1917 to 1947 is known as the Gandhian era. Moderate Nationalism The leading figures during the first phase of the National Movement were A.O. Hume, W.C. Banerjee, Surendra Nath Banerjee, Dadabhai Naoroji, Feroze Shah Mehta, Gopalakrishna Gokhale, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya, Badruddin Tyabji, Justice Ranade and G.Subramanya Aiyar. Surendranath Banerjee was called the Indian Burke. He firmly opposed the Partition of Bengal. He founded the Indian Association (1876) to agitate for political reforms. He had convened the Indian National Conference (1883) which merged with the Indian National Congress in 1886. G. Subramanya Aiyar preached nationalism through the Madras Mahajana Sabha. He also founded the The Hindu and Swadesamitran. Dadabhai Naoroji was known as the Grand Old Man of India. He is regarded as India's unofficial Ambassador in England. He was the first Indian to become a Member of the British House of Commons. Gopal Krishna Gokhale was regarded as the political guru of Gandhi. In 1905, he founded the Servants of India Society to train Indians to dedicate their lives to the cause of the country For a few years the Congress enjoyed the patronage of the British administrators. Between 1885 and 1905, the Congress leaders were moderates. The Moderates had faith in the British justice and goodwill. They were called moderates because they adopted peaceful and constitutional means to achieve their demands. Main Demands of Moderates Expansion and reform of legislative councils. Greater opportunities for Indians in higher posts by holding the ICS examination simultaneously in England and in India. Separation of the judiciary from the executive. More powers for the local bodies. Reduction of land revenue and protection of peasants from unjust landlords. Abolition of salt tax and sugar duty. Reduction of spending on army. Freedom of speech and expression and freedom to form associations Methods of Moderates The Moderates had total faith in the British sense of justice and fair play. They were loyal to the British. They looked to England for inspiration and guidance. The Moderates used petitions, resolutions, meetings, leaflets and pamphlets, memorandum and delegations to present their demands. They confined their political activities to the educated classes only. Their aim was to attain political rights and self-government stage by stage. In the beginning, the British

Government welcomed the birth of the Indian National Congress. In 1886, Governor General Lord Dufferin gave a tea garden party for the Congress members in Calcutta. The government officials had also attended Congress sessions. With the increase in Congress demands, the government became unfriendly. It encouraged the Muslims to stay away from the Congress. The only demand of the Congress granted by the British was the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act of 1892.

Achievements of Moderates

1. The Moderates were able to create a wide national awakening among the people.

2. They popularized the ideas of democracy, civil liberties and representative institutions.

3. They explained how the British were exploiting Indians. Particularly, Dadabhai Naoroji in his famous book Poverty and UnBritish Rule in India wrote his Drain Theory. He showed how India's wealth was going away to England in the form of: (a) salaries,(b)savings, (c) pensions, (d) payments to British troops in India and (e) profits of the British companies. In fact, the British Government was forced to appoint the Welby Commission, with Dadabhai as the first Indian as its member, to enquire into the matter.

4.Some Moderates like Ranade and Gokhale favoured social reforms. They protested against child marriage and widowhood.

5. The Moderates had succeeded in getting the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act of 1892.

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1905-1916)

The period from 1905 was known as the era of extremism in the Indian National Movement. The extremists or the aggressive nationalists believed that success could be achieved through bold means. The important extremist leaders were Lala Lajpat Rai, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh. Causes for the Rise of Extremism 1.The failure of the Moderates to win any notable success other than the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act (1892).

2. The famine and plague of 1896-97 which affected the whole country and the suffering of the masses.

3. The economic conditions of the people became worse.

4. The ill-treatment of Indians in South Africa on the basis of colour of skin. 5. The Russo-Japanese war of 1904-

5 in which Japan defeated the European power Russia. This encouraged Indians to fight against the European nation, Britain.

6. The immediate cause for the rise of extremism was the reactionary rule of Lord Curzon:

He passed the Calcutta Corporation Act, (1899) reducing the Indian control of this local body.

The Universities Act (1904) reduced the elected members in the University bodies. It also reduced the autonomy of the universities and made them government departments.

The Sedition Act and the Official Secrets Act reduced the freedoms of all people.

His worst measure was the Partition of Bengal (1905).

Main Objective of Extremists

Their main objective was to attain Swaraj or complete independence and not just selfgovernment.

Methods of the Extremists

The Extremists had no faith in the British sense of justice and fair play. They pointed out the forceful means by which the British had taken control of India. They believed that political rights will have to be fought for. They had the spirit of self-reliance and selfdetermination.

The methods used by the extremists were:

1.Not cooperating with the British Government by boycotting government courts, schools and colleges.

2. Promotion of Swadeshi and boycott of foreign goods.

3. Introduction and promotion of national education.

Leaders of the Extremists

The extremists were led by Bala Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipinchandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh. Bal Gangadhar Tilak is regarded as the real founder of the popular anti-British movement in India. He was known as 'Lokamanya'.

He attacked the British through his weeklies The Mahratta and the Kesari. He was jailed twice by the British for his nationalist activities and in 1908 deported to Mandalay for six years. He set up the Home Rule League in 1916 at Poona and declared "Swaraj is my birth-right and I will have it." Lala Lajpat Rai is popularly known as the 'Lion of Punjab'. He played an important role in the Swadeshi Movement. He founded the Indian Home Rule League in the US in 1916. He was deported to Mandalay on the ground of sedition. He received fatal injuries while leading a procession against the Simon Commission and died on November 17, 1928.

Bipan Chandra Pal began his career as a moderate and turned an extremist. He played an important role in the Swadeshi Movement. He preached nationalism through the nook and corner of Indian by his powerful speeches and writings.

Aurobinda Ghosh was another extremist leader and he actively participated in the Swadeshi Movement. He was also imprisoned. After his release he settled in the French territory of Pondicherry and concentrated on spiritual activities.

Partition of Bengal and the Rise of Extremism

The partition of Bengal in 1905 provided a spark for the rise of extremism in the Indian National Movement.

Curzon's real motives were: •

To break the growing strength of Bengali nationalism since Bengal was the base of Indian nationalism.

 \cdot To divide the Hindus and Muslims in Bengal. \cdot

To show the enormous power of the British Government in doing whatever it liked.

On the same day when the partition came into effect, 16 October 1905, the people of Bengal orgainsed protest meetings and observed a day of mourning. The whole political life of Bengal underwent a change. Gandhi wrote that the real awakening in India took place only after the Partition of Bengal. The anti-partition movement culminated into the Swadeshi Movement and spread to other parts of India.

The aggressive nationalists forced Dadabhai Naoroji to speak of Swaraj (which was not a Moderate demand) in the Calcutta Session of Congress in 1906. They adopted the resolutions of Boycott and Swadeshi. The Moderate Congressmen were unhappy. They wanted Swaraj to be achieved through constitutional methods. The differences led to a split in the Congress at the Surat session in 1907. This is popularly known as the famous Surat Split. The extremists came out of the Congress led by Tilak and others.

Swadeshi Movement

The Swadeshi Movement involved programmes like the boycott of government service, courts, schools and colleges and of foreign goods, promotion of Swadeshi goods, Promotion of

National Education through the establishment of national schools and colleges. It was both a political and economic movement.

The Swadeshi Movement was a great success. In Bengal, even the landlords joined the movement. The women and students took to picketing. Students refused using books made of foreign paper.

The government adopted several tough measures. It passed several Acts to crush the movement. The Swadeshi volunteers were beaten badly. The cry of Bande Mataram was forbidden. Schools and colleges were warned not to allow their students to take part in the movement or else their, aid would be stopped. Some Indian government employees lost their jobs. Extremist leaders Bala Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipin Chandra Pal and Aurobindo Ghosh were imprisoned and deported.

Achievements of Extremists

The achievements of extremists can be summed up as follows:

1. They were the first to demand Swaraj as a matter of birth right.

2. They involved the masses in the freedom struggle and broadened the social base of the National Movement.

3. They were the first to organize an all-India political movement, viz. the Swadeshi Movement.

Formation of the Muslim League (1906)

In December 1906, Muslim delegates from all over India met at Dacca for the Muslim Educational Conference. Taking advantage of this occasion, Nawab Salimullah of Dacca proposed the setting up of an organisation to look after the Muslim interests. The proposal was accepted. The All-India Muslim League was finally set up on December 30, 1906. Like the Indian National Congress, they conducted annual sessions and put their demands to the British government. Initially, they enjoyed the support of the British. Their first achievement was the separate electorates for the Muslims in the Minto-Morley reforms.

The Lucknow Pact (1916)

During the 1916 Congress session at Lucknow two major events occurred. The divided Congress became united. An understanding for joint action against the British was reached between the Congress and the Muslim League and it was called the Lucknow Pact. The signing of the Lucknow Pact by the Congress and the Muslim League in 1916 marked an important step in the Hindu-Muslim unity.

The Home Rule Movement (1916)

Two Home Rule Leagues were established, one by B.G. Tilak at Poona in April 1916 and the other by Mrs. Annie Besant at Madras in September 1916. The aim of the Movement was to get selfgovernment for India within the British Empire. It believed freedom was the natural right of all nations. Moreover, the leaders of the Home Movement thought that India's resources were not being used for her needs.

The two Leagues cooperated with each other as well with the Congress and the Muslim League in putting their demand for home rule. While Tilak's Movement concentrated on Maharashtra, Annie Besant's Movement covered the rest of the country. The Home Rule Movement had brought a new life in the national movement. There was a revival of Swadeshi. Women joined in larger numbers.

On 20 August 1917, Montague, the Secretary of State in England, made a declaration in the Parliament of England on British Government's policy towards future political reforms in India. He promised the gradual development of self-governing institutions in India. This August Declaration led to the end of the Home Rule Movement.

Revolutionary Movements

In the first half of the 20th century, revolutionary groups sprang up mainly in Bengal, Maharashtra, Punjab and Madras. The revolutionaries were not satisfied with the methods of both the moderates and extremists. Hence, they started many revolutionary secret organizations. In Bengal Anusilan Samiti and Jugantar were established. In Maharashtra Savarkar brothers had set up Abhinava Bharat. In the Madras Presidency, Bharathmatha Association was started by Nilakanta Bramachari.

In Punjab Ajit Singh set up a secret society to spread revolutionary ideas among the youth. In London, at India House, Shyamji Krishna Verma gathered young Indian nationalists like Madan Lal Dhingra, Savarkar, V.V.S. Iyer and T.S.S.Rajan. Lala Hardyal set up the 'Ghadar Party' in USA to organise revolutionary activities from outside India.

THE INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1917-1947)

Advent of Gandhi ji

The third and final phase of the Nationalist Movement [1917-1947] is known as the Gandhian era. During this period Mahatma Gandhi became the undisputed leader of the National Movement. His principles of nonviolence and Satyagraha were employed against the British Government. Gandhi made the nationalist movement a mass movement.

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born at Porbandar in Gujarat on 2 October 1869. He studied law in England. He returned to India in 1891. In April 1893 he went to South Africa and involved himself in the struggle against apartheid (Racial discrimination against the Blacks) for twenty years. Finally, he came to India in 1915. Thereafter, he fully involved himself in the Indian National Movement.

Mahatma Gandhi began his experiments with Satyagraha against the oppressive European indigo planters at Champaran in Bihar in 1917. In the next year he launched another Satyagraha at Kheda in Gujarat in support of the peasants who were not able to pay the land tax due to failure of crops. During this struggle, Sardar Vallabhai Patel emerged as one of the trusted followers of Gandhi. In 1918, Gandhi undertook a fast unto death for the cause of Ahmedabad Mill Workers and finally the mill owners conceded the just demands of the workers.

On the whole, the local movements at Champaran, Kheda and Ahmedabad brought Mahatma Gandhi closer to the life of the people and their problems at the grass roots level. Consequently, he became the leader of the masses.

Rowlatt Act (1919)

In 1917, a committee was set up under the presidentship of Sir Sydney Rowlatt to look into the militant Nationalist activities. On the basis of its report the Rowlatt Act was passed in March 1919 by the Central Legislative Council. As per this Act, any person could be arrested on the basis of suspicion. No appeal or petition could be filed against such arrests. This Act was called the Black Act and it was widely opposed. An all-India hartal was organized on 6 April 1919. Meetings were held all over the country. Mahatma Gandhi was arrested near Delhi. Two prominent leaders of Punjab, Dr Satya Pal and Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew, were arrested in Amritsar.

Jallianwala Bagh Massacre (13 April, 1919)

The Jallianwala Bagh Massacre took place on 13 April 1919 and it remained a turning point in the history of India's freedom movement. In Punjab, there was an unprecedented support to the Rowlatt Satyagraha. Facing a violent situation, the Government of Punjab handed over the administration to the military authorities under General Dyer. He banned all public meetings and detained the political leaders. On 13th April, the Baisakhi day (harvest festival), a public meeting was organized at the Jallianwala Bagh (garden). Dyer marched in and without any warning opened fire on the crowd. The firing continued for about 10 to 15 minutes and it stopped only after the ammunition exhausted. According to official report 379 people were killed and 1137 wounded in the incident. There was a nationwide protest against this massacre

and Rabindranath Tagore renounced his knighthood as a protest. The Jallianwala Bagh massacre gave a tremendous impetus to the freedom struggle.

Khilafat Movement

The chief cause of the Khilafat Movement was the defeat of Turkey in the First World War. The harsh terms of the Treaty of Sevres (1920) was felt by the Muslims as a great insult to them. The whole movement was based on the Muslim belief that the Caliph (the Sultan of Turkey) was the religious head of the Muslims all over the world. The Muslims in India were upset over the British attitude against Turkey and launched the Khilafat Movement.

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, M.A. Ansari, Saifuddin Kitchlew and the Ali brothers were the prominent leaders of this movement. A Khilafat Committee had been formed and on 19th October 1919, the whole country had observed the Khilafat day. On 23 November, a joint conference of the Hindus and the Muslims had also been held under the chairmanship of Mahatma Gandhi. Mahatma Gandhi was particularly interested in bringing the Hindus and the Muslims together to achieve the country's independence. Subsequently, the Khilafat Movement merged with the Non-Cooperation Movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920

Non-Cooperation Movement (1920-1922)

Mahatma Gandhi announced his plan to begin Non-Cooperation with the government as a sequel to the Rowlatt Act, Jallianwala Bagh massacre and the Khilafat Movement. It was approved by the Indian National Congress at the Nagpur session in December, 1920. Programmes

The programmes of the Non-Cooperation Movement were:

Surrender of titles and honorary positions.

Resignation of membership from the local bodies. Boycott of elections held under the provisions of the 1919 Act.

Boycott of government functions.

Boycott of courts, government schools and colleges.

Boycott of foreign goods.

Establishment of national schools, colleges and private panchayat courts.

Popularizing swadeshi goods and khadi.

The movement began with Mahatma Gandhi renouncing the titles, which were given by the British. Other leaders and influential persons also followed him by surrendering their honorary posts and titles. Students came out of the government educational institutions. National schools such as the Kashi Vidyapeeth, the Bihar Vidyapeeth and the Jamia Millia Islamia were set up. All the prominent leaders of the country gave up their lucrative legal practice. Legislatures were boycotted. No leader of the Congress came forward to contest the elections for the Legislatures.

In 1921, mass demonstrations were held against the Prince of Wales during his tour of India. The government resorted to strong measures of repression. Many leaders were arrested. The Congress and the Khilafat Committees were proclaimed as illegal. At several places, bonfires of foreign clothes were organised. The message of Swadeshi spread everywhere. Most of the households took to weaving cloths with the help of charkhas.

But the whole movement was abruptly called off on 11th February 1922 by Gandhi following the Churi Chaura incident in the Gorakpur district of U.P. Earlier on 5th February an angry mob set fire to the police station at Churi Chaura and twenty two police men were burnt to death. Many top leaders of the country were stunned at this sudden suspension of the Non-Cooperation Movement. Mahatma Gandhi was arrested on 10 March 1922.

Significance of the Non-Cooperation Movement

1.It was the real mass movement with the participation of different sections of Indian society such as peasants, workers, students, teachers and women.

2.It witnessed the spread of nationalism to the remote corners of India.

3.It also marked the height of Hindu-Muslim unity as a result of the merger of Khilafat movement.

4.It demonstrated the willingness and ability of the masses to endure hardships and make sacrifices

Swaraj Party

The suspension of the Non-Cooperation Movement led to a split within Congress in the Gaya session of the Congress in December 1922. Leaders like Motilal Nehru and Chittranjan Das formed a separate group within the Congress known as the Swaraj Party on 1 January 1923. The Swarajists wanted to contest the council elections and wreck the government from within. Elections to Legislative Councils were held in November 1923. In this, the Swaraj Party gained impressive successes. In the Central Legislative Council Motilal Nehru became the leader of the party whereas in Bengal the party was headed by C.R. Das.

The Swaraj Party did several significant things in the Legislative Council. It demanded the setting up of responsible government in India with the necessary changes in the Government of India Act of 1919. The party could pass important resolutions against the repressive laws of the government. When a Committee chaired by the Home Member, Alexander Muddiman considered the system of Dyarchy as proper, a resolution was passed against it in the Central Legislative Council. After the passing away of C.R. Das in June 1925, the Swarj Party started weakening.

Simon Commission (1927)

The Act of 1919 included a provision for its review after a lapse of ten years. However, the review commission was appointed by the British Government two years earlier of its schedule in 1927. It came to be known as Simon Commission after the name of its chairman, Sir John Simon. All its seven members were Englishmen. As there was no Indian member in it, the Commission faced a lot of criticism even before its landing in India. Almost all the political parties including the Congress decided to oppose the Commission.

On the fateful day of 3 February 1928 when the Commission reached Bombay, a general hartal was observed all over the country. Everywhere it was greeted with black flags and the cries of 'Simon go back'. At Lahore, the students took out a large anti-Simon Commission demonstration on 30 October 1928 under the leadership of Lala Lajpat Rai. In this demonstration, Lala Lajpat Rai was seriously injured in the police lathi charge and he passed away after one month.

The report of the Simon Commission was published in May 1930. It was stated that the constitutional experiment with Dyarchy was unsuccessful and in its place the report recommended the establishment of autonomous government. There is no doubt that the Simon Commission's Report became the basis for enacting the Government of India Act of 1935.

Nehru Report (1928)

In the meanwhile, the Secretary of State, Lord Birkenhead, challenged the Indians to produce a Constitution that would be acceptable to all. The challenge was accepted by the Congress, which convened an all party meeting on 28 February 1928. A committee consisting of eight was constituted to draw up a blueprint for the future Constitution of India. It was headed by Motilal Nehru. The Report published by this Committee came to be known as the Nehru Report. The Report favoured:

Dominion Status as the next immediate step.

On 9 April, Mahatma Gandhi laid out the programme of the movement which included making of salt in every village in violation of the existing salt laws; picketing by women before the shops selling liquor, opium and foreign clothes; organising the bonfires of foreign clothes; spinning clothes by using charkha fighting untouchability; boycotting of schools and colleges by students and resigning from government jobs by the people. Over and above all these, the programme also called upon the people not to pay taxes to the government.

Soon, the movement spread to all parts of the country. Students, workers, farmers and women, all participated in this movement with great enthusiasm. As a reaction, the British Government arrested important leaders of the Congress and imprisoned them.

Round Table Conference

The British government adopted the strategy of talking to different political parties by convening the Round Table Conferences. The first Round Table Conference was held in November 1930 at London and it was boycotted it by the Congress.

In January 1931 in order to create a conducive atmosphere for talks, the government lifted the ban on the Congress Party and released its leaders from prison. On 8 March 1931 the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed. As per this pact, Mahatma Gandhi agreed to suspend the Civil-Disobedience Movement and participate in the SecondRound Table Conference. In September 1931, the Second Round Table Conference was held at London. Mahatma Gandhi participated in the Conference but returned to India disappointed as no agreement could be reached on the demand of complete independence and on the communal question.

In January 1932, the Civil-Disobedience Movement was resumed. The government responded to it by arresting Mahatma Gandhi and Sardar Patel and by reimposing the ban on the Congress party.

Poona Pact (1932)

By 1930, Dr Ambedkar had become a leader of national stature championing the cause of the depressed people of the country. While presenting a real picture of the condition of these people in the First Round Table Conference, he had demanded separate electorates for them. On 16 August 1932 the British Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald made an announcement, which came to be as the Communal Award. According to this award, the depressed classes were considered as a separate community and as such provisions were made for separate electorates for them. Mahatma Gandhi protested against the Communal Award and went on a fast unto death in the Yeravada jail on 20 September 1932.

Finally, an agreement was reached between Dr Ambedkar and Gandhi. This agreement came to be called as the Poona Pact. The British Government also approved of it. Accordingly, 148 seats in different Provincial Legislatures were reserved for the Depressed Classes in place of 71 as provided in the Communal Award.

The third Round Table Conference came to an end in 1932. The Congress once more did not take part in it. Nonetheless, in March 1933, the British Government issued a White Paper, which became the basis for the enactment of the Government of India Act, 1935.

The Second World War and National Movement

In 1937 elections were held under the provisions of the Government of India Act of 1935. Congress Ministries were formed in seven states of India. On 1 September 1939 the Second World War broke out. The British Government without consulting the people of India involved the country in the war. The Congress vehemently opposed it and as a mark of protest the Congress Ministries in the Provinces resigned on 12 December 1939. The Muslim League celebrated that day as the Deliverance Day. In March 1940 the Muslim League demanded the creation of Pakistan.

Individual Satyagraha

During the course of the Second World War in order to secure the cooperation of the Indians, the British Government made an announcement on 8 August 1940, which came to be known as the 'August Offer'. The August Offer envisaged that after the War a representative body of Indians would be set up to frame the new Constitution. Gandhi was not satisfied with is offer and decided to launch Individual Satyagraha.

Individual Satyagraha was limited, symbolic and non-violent in nature and it was left to Mahatma Gandhi to choose the Satyagrahis. Acharya Vinoba Bhave was the first to offer Satyagraha and he was sentenced to three months imprisonment. Jawaharlal Nehru was the second Satyagrahi and imprisoned for four months. The individual Satyagraha continued for nearly 15 months.

Cripps Mission (1942)

In the meantime, the Viceroy, Lord Linlithgow expanded his Executive Council by including five more Indians into it in July 1941. However, in the midst of worsening wartime international situation, the British Government in its continued effort to secure Indian cooperation sent Sir Stafford Cripps to India on 23 March 1942. This is known as Cripps Mission.

The main recommendations of Cripps were:

o The promise of Dominion Status to India,

o Protection of minorities

o setting up of a Constituent Assembly in which there would be representatives from the Princely States along with those of the British Provinces,

o There would be provision for any Province of British India not prepared to accept this Constitution, either to retain its present constitutional position or frame a constitution of its own.

The major political parties of the country rejected the Cripps proposals. Gandhi called Cripp's proposals as a "Post-dated Cheque". They did not like the rights of the Princely States either to send their representatives to the Constituent Assembly or to stay out of the Indian Union. The Muslim League was also dissatisfied as its demand for Pakistan had not been conceded in the proposal.

Quit India Movement (1942-1944)

The failure of the Cripps Mission and the fear of an impending Japanese invasion of India led Mahatma Gandhi to begin his campaign for the British to quit India. Mahatma Gandhi believed that an interim government could be formed only after the British left India and the Hindu-Muslim problem sorted out. The All India Congress Committee met at Bombay on 8 August 1942 and passed the famous Quit India Resolution. On the same day, Gandhi gave his call of 'do or die'.

On 8th and 9th August 1942, the government arrested all the prominent leaders of the Congress. For once, this pre-planned action of the government left the Indian people without leadership. Mahatma Gandhi was kept in prison at Poona. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Abul Kalam Azad, and other leaders were imprisoned in the Ahmednagar Fort.

At this time, leadership was provided by Ram Manohar Lohia, Achyuta and S.M. Joshi. The role of Jayaprakash Narain in this movement was important. Large number of students also left their schools and colleges to join the movement. The youth of the nation also participated in this movement with patriotism. Strikes, demonstrations and public meetings were organised in various towns and cities. Slowly the movement reached the rural areas. In 1943, as the movement gained further momentum, there were armed attacks on government buildings in Madras and Bengal. In 1944 Mahatma Gandhi was released from jail. Quit India Movement was the final attempt for country's freedom. The British Government ordered for 538 rounds of firing. Nearly 60,229 persons were jailed. At least 7,000 people were killed. This movement paved the way for India's freedom. It aroused among Indians the feelings of bravery, enthusiasm and total sacrifice.

Indian National Army

During the course of the Second World War, armed revolutionary activities continued to take place. The role of Subhas Chandra Bose towards such activities is incomparable. On 2 July 1943, Subhas Chandra Bose reached Singapore and gave the rousing war cry of 'Dilli Chalo'. He was made the President of Indian Independence League and soon became the supreme commander of the Indian National Army. He gave the country the slogan of Jai Hind. The names of the INA's three Brigades were the Subhas Brigade, Gandhi Brigade and Nehru Brigade. The women's wing of the army was named after Rani Laxmibai.

The Indian National Army marched towards Imphal after registering its victory over Kohima. After Japan's surrender in 1945, the INA failed in its efforts. Under such circumstances, Subhas went to Taiwan. Then on his way to Tokyo he died on 18 August 1945 in a plane crash.

The trial of the soldiers of INA was held at Red Fort in Delhi. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, Bhulabhai Desai and Tej Bahadur Sapru fought the case on behalf of the soldiers.

Cabinet Mission (1946)

After the Second World War, Lord Atlee became the Prime Minister of England. On 15 March, 1946 Lord Atlee made a historic announcement in which the right to self-determination and the framing of a Constitution for India were conceded. Consequently, three members of the British Cabinet - Pathick Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps and A. V. Alexander - were sent to India. This is known as the Cabinet Mission.

The Cabinet Mission put forward a plan for solution of the constitutional problem. Provision was made for three groups of provinces to possess their separate constitutions. The Cabinet Mission also proposed the formation of a Union of India, comprising both the British India and the Princely States. The Union would remain in charge of only foreign affairs, defence and communications leaving the residuary powers to be vested in the provinces. A proposal was envisaged for setting up an Interim Government, which would remain in office till a new government was elected on the basis of the new Constitution framed by the Constituent Assembly. Both the Muslim League and the Congress accepted the plan.

Consequently, elections were held in July 1946 for the formation of a Constituent Assembly. The Congress secured 205 out of 214 General seats. The Muslim League got 73 out of 78 Muslim seats. An Interim Government was formed under the leadership of Jawaharlal Nehru on 2 September 1946.

Mountbatten Plan (1947)

On 20 February 1947, Prime Minister Atlee announced in the House of Commons the definite intention of the British Government to transfer power to responsible Indian hands by a date not later than June 1948. Thus, to effect the transference of that power Atlee decided to send Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy to India.

Lord Mountbatten armed with vast powers became India's Viceroy on 24 March 1947. The partition of India and the creation of Pakistan appeared inevitable to him. After extensive consultation Lord Mountbatten put forth the plan of partition of India on 3 June 1947. The Congress and the Muslim League ultimately approved the Mountbatten Plan.

Indian Independence Act 1947

The British Government accorded formal approval to the Mountbatten Plan by enacting the Indian Independence Act on 18 July 1947. The salient features of this Act were:

The partition of the country into India and Pakistan would come into effect from 15 August 1947.

The British Government would transfer all powers to these two Dominions.

A Boundary Commission would demarcate the boundaries of the provinces of the Punjab and Bengal.

The Act provided for the transfer of power to the Constituent Assemblies of the two Dominions, which will have full authority to frame their respective Constitutions.

The Radcliff Boundary Commission drew the boundary line separating India and Pakistan. On 15th August 1947 India, and on the 14th August Pakistan came into existence as two independent states. Lord Mountbatten was made the first Governor General of Independent India, whereas Mohammad Ali Jinnah became the first Governor General of Pakistan. The most tragic incident occurred on 30 January 1948, when Mahatma Gandhi - the father of the nationon his way to a prayer meeting was assassinated by Nathuram Godse.

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