



# ALAGAPPA UNIVERSITY

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**KARAIKUDI – 630 003**

**DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

**M.A HISTORY**

**Second Year – Third Semester**

**HISTORY OF INDIA FROM 1707 to 11947 A.D.**

**32131**

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**Author:**

**Dr.AR. Sarvanakumar**

Head i/c.,  
Department of History  
Alagappa University  
Karaikudi

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**Reviewer:**

**Dr. S. Rajavelu**

Adjunct Faculty  
Department of History  
Alagappa University  
Karaikudi

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## INTRODUCTION

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The period between 1707 and 1947 is extremely crucial in the history of India.

The advent of the Europeans for the purpose of trading later led to the invasion of the British in India who ruled over India for a long time. During the reign of the British,

India was exploited for its economic resources to a great extent. However, their rule also led to various reforms in the social, educational, commercial and judicial spheres in India. The World War I and World War II played an important role in arousing the spirit of nationalism among people.

Various freedom fighters fought for the Independence of the country in their own way. Finally, India became independent on 15<sup>th</sup> August 1947 and became a Republic on 26<sup>th</sup> January 1950 when the Constitution on India was enforced.

This book, History of India (From 1707 to 1947 AD), is written keeping the distance learning student in mind. It is presented in a user-friendly format using clear, lucid language. Each unit contains an Introduction and a list of Objectives to prepare the student for what to expect in the text. At the end of each unit are a Summary and a list of Key Words, to aid in recollection of concepts learnt. All units contain Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises, and strategically placed Check your progress questions so the student can keep track of what has been discussed.

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# **BLOCK - I**

## **ESTABLISHMENT OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA**

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*Establishment of  
British settlements in  
India*

*Notes*

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### **UNIT-1 ESTABLISHMENT OF BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA, ANGLO-FRENCH RIVALRY, THE CARNATIC WARS – CAUSES AND RESULTS**

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- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Establishment of British Settlements in India
- 1.4 Anglo- French Rivalry
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#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

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

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

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

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

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## **1.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Explain the arrival of the establishment in India
- Explain the reasons for the Anglo–French rivalry
- Discuss to the Carnatic Wars – Causes and results

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## **1.3 ESTABLISHMENT OF BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA**

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The East Indian Company came to India on 31 December 1600. Queen Elizabeth I provided a charter to the Governor and Company of merchants of London to trade with the Indies. The East India Company made two voyages to the Spice Islands. In 1608, the third voyage arrived at Surat in India. In 1609 Captain William Hawkins arrived to the court of Jahangir with a letter from James I for trade concessions. In 1613 Jahangir permitted the British to set up a factory at Surat. In 1615 Thomas Roe got concessions to set up trading stations. In 1619 the British factories were set up at Agra, Ahmedabad and Broach. In 1661 the British got Bombay as part of dowry from the Portuguese. In 1668 Bombay was given to the East India Company for an annual rent of 10 dollars. In 1611 the British established a factory at Masulipatam in the south. In 1639 it got Madras from Raja of Chandragiri. A factory was erected at Fort St. George.

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## **1.4 Anglo-French Rivalry**

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England and France were traditional enemies and that political rivalry spread to India also. The commercial rivalry between the two Companies reached the boiling point on the eve of the First Carnatic War. With the arrival of Dupliex, the policy of the French assumed a political

colour. India presented a bewildering spectacle of a house divided against itself on the eve of the Anglo French struggle.

### **First Carnatic War (1746–1748)**

In 1740 the War of the Austrian Succession broke out in Europe. Great Britain was drawn into the war in 1744, opposed to France and its allies. The trading companies of both countries maintained cordial relations in India while their parent countries were bitter enemies on the European continent. Dodwell writes, "Such were the friendly relations between the English and the French that the French sent their goods and merchandise from Pondicherry to Madras for safe custody." Although French company officials were ordered to avoid conflict, British officials were not, and were furthermore notified that a Royal Navy fleet was en route. After the British initially captured a few French merchant ships, the French called for backup from as far afield as Isle de France (now Mauritius), beginning an escalation in naval forces in the area. In July 1746 French commander La Bourdonnais and British Admiral Edward Peyton fought an indecisive action off Negapatam, after which the British fleet withdrew to Bengal. On 21 September 1746, the French captured the British outpost at Madras. La Bourdonnais had promised to return Madras to the English, but Dupleix withdrew that promise, and one to give Madras to Anwar-ud-din after the capture. The Nawab then sent a 10,000-man army to take Madras from the French but was decisively repulsed by a small French force in the Battle of Adyar. The French then made several attempts to capture the British Fort St. David at Cuddalore, but the timely arrivals of reinforcements halted these and eventually turned the tables on the French. British Admiral Edward Boscawen besieged Pondicherry in the later months of 1748, but lifted the siege with the advent of the monsoon rains in October.

With the termination of the War of Austrian Succession in Europe, the First Carnatic War also came to an end. In the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), Madras was given back to the British in exchange for the French fortress of Louisbourg in North America, which the British had captured. The war was principally notable in India as the first military experience of Robert Clive, who was taken prisoner at Madras but managed to escape, and who then participated in the defence of Cuddalore and the siege of Pondicherry.

### **Second Carnatic War (1749–1754)**

The Siege of Arcot (1751) was a major battle fought between Robert Clive and the combined forces of the Mughal Empire's Nawab of the Carnatic, Chanda Sahib, assisted by a small number of troops from the French East India Company. Though a state of war did not exist in Europe, the proxy war continued in India. On one side was Nasir Jung, the Nizam and his protege Muhammad Ali, supported by the English, and on the other

was Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jung, supported by the French, vying to become the Nawab of Arcot. Muzaffar Jung and Chanda Sahib were able to capture Arcot while Nasir Jung's subsequent death allowed Muzaffar Jung to take control of Hyderabad. Muzaffar's reign was short as he was soon killed, and Salabat Jung became Nizam. In 1751, however, Robert Clive led British troops to capture Arcot, and successfully defend it. The war ended with the Treaty of Pondicherry, signed in 1754, which recognised Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah as the Nawab of the Carnatic. Charles Godeheu replaced Duplex, who died in poverty back in France.

### **Third Carnatic War (1756–1763)**

The outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe in 1756 resulted in renewed conflict between French and British forces in India. The Third Carnatic War spread beyond southern India and into Bengal where British forces captured the French settlement of Chandernagore (now Chandannagar) in 1757. However, the war was decided in the south, where the British successfully defended Madras, and Sir Eyre Coote decisively defeated the French, commanded by Comte de Lally at the Battle of Wandiwash in 1760. After Wandiwash, the French capital of Pondicherry fell to the British in 1761.

The war concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which returned Chandernagore and Pondichéry to France, and allowed the French to have "factories" (trading posts) in India but forbade French traders from administering them. The French agreed to support British client governments, thus ending French ambitions of an Indian empire and making the British the dominant foreign power in India.

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## **1.5 The Carnatic wars- Casus and Results**

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The Carnatic Wars (also spelled Karnatic Wars) were a series of military conflicts in the middle of the 18th century in India. The conflicts involved numerous nominally independent rulers and their vassals, struggles for succession and territory, and included a diplomatic and military struggle between the French East India Company and the British East India Company. They were mainly fought within the territories of Mughal India with the assistance of various fragmented polities loyal to the "Great Moghul". As a result of these military contests, the British East India Company established its dominance among the European trading companies within India. The French Company was pushed to a corner and was confined primarily to Pondicherry. The East India Company's dominance eventually led to control by the British Company over most of India and eventually to the establishment of the British Raj. In the 18th century, the coastal Carnatic region was a dependency of Hyderabad. Three Carnatic Wars were fought between 1746 and 1763.

The Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb died in 1707. He was succeeded by Bahadur Shah I, but there was a general decline in central control over the empire during the tenure of Jahandar Shah and later emperors. Nizam-ul-Mulk established Hyderabad as an independent kingdom. A power struggle ensued after his death between his son, Nasir Jung, and his grandson, Muzaffar Jung, which was the opportunity France and England needed to interfere in Indian politics. France aided Muzaffar Jung while England aided Nasir Jung. Several erstwhile Mughal territories were autonomous such as the Carnatic, ruled by Nawab Dost Ali Khan, despite being under the legal purview of the Nizam of Hyderabad. French and English interference included those of the affairs of the Nawab. Dost Ali's death sparked a power struggle between his son-in-law Chanda Sahib, supported by the French, and Muhammad Ali, supported by the English.

One major instigator of the Carnatic Wars was the Frenchman Joseph François Dupleix, who arrived in India in 1715, rising to become the French East India Company's governor in 1742. Dupleix sought to expand French influence in India, which was limited to a few trading outposts, the chief one being Pondicherry on the Coromandel Coast. Immediately upon his arrival in India, he organized Indian recruits under French officers for the first time, and engaged in intrigues with local rulers to expand French influence. However, he was met by the equally challenging and determined young officer from the British Army, Robert Clive.

"The Austrian War of Succession in 1740 and later the war in 1756 automatically led to a conflict in India...and British reverses during the American War of Independence (1775-1783) in the 1770s had an impact on events in India."

### **Brief Story of all First, Second and Third Carnatic Wars**

- The ambition of controlling the trade and political power in India were the primary causes of the contest between the French and the English which resulted in three Carnatic wars.
- The immediate cause of the first Carnatic war was the beginning of the war of Austrian succession in Europe in which Britain and France fought with each other.
- The war started in India in 1746 when the British navy destroyed some French ships with a view to destroying French trade in India.
- La Bourdonnais, the French naval commander at Mauritius captured Madras but, instead of handing it over to the governor Dupleix, took bribe from the English and turned back.
- Dupleix then captured Madras.

- Andwar-ud-din, the Nawab of Karnataka desired Madras for himself and, when Dupleix refused to oblige, sent an army to capture it.
- The French defeated the army of the Nawab at St. Thome.
- The French failed to capture the English fort of St. David while the English failed to capture Pondicherry.
- The treaty of Aix la Chapelle, signed between France and Britain in 1748, restored peace in India, and Madras was returned to the English in exchange of Lubar in America to France.
- Though the war brought no material gains either to the French or the English, yet, both came to know the geographical features of the territories around the centres of their power and also the military weakness of the Indian rulers which aroused their cupidity for territorial expansion.
- The second Carnatic war began in 1749 when the British and the French interfered in the wars of succession in Karnataka and Hyderabad.
- The French supported Muzaffar Jang and Chanda Sahib to capture the throne of Hyderabad and Karnataka respectively while the English, in turn, supported Nasir Jang and Muhammad Ali.
- Initially, Nasir Jang succeeded in Hyderabad and Chanda Sahib in Karnataka.
- But in 1750, Nasir Jang was murdered by his nobles and Muzaffar Jang became the Nizam of Hyderabad.
- Muzaffar Jang accepted Chanda Sahib as the Nawab of Karnataka and the French officer, Bussy, as his adviser at Hyderabad.
- The English, under the command of Clive, captured Arcot, the capital of Karnataka, in 1751 and then defeated it also for 53 days against the French.
- That saved Muhammad Ali who was besieged by the French at Trichinopoly.
- Finally, Chanda Sahib fled to Tanjore where he was murdered and Muhammad Ali was accepted as the Nawab of Karnataka after the recall of Dupleix in 1754.
- The peace was signed between the two in 1754 and left the English and the French influential in Karnataka and Hyderabad respectively.



- When the Seven Years' War started in Europe in 1756, England and France again started fighting with each other and that resulted in the third Carnatic War in 1758.
- Count de Lally, the French governor, captured the fort of St. David, called Bussy from Hyderabad but failed to capture Madras.
- The French were defeated decisively at the battle of Wandiwash in January, 1760.
- Finally, the British captured Pondicherry in March 1761 and imprisoned Lally.
- When Peace of Paris was signed in Europe in 1763, Chandranagar and Pondicherry were returned to the French but they were not allowed to raise fortifications there.
- The third Carnatic war left the British alone, among European powers, to contest the native rulers for the sovereignty of India.

#### Check Your Progress

1. When establishment in British rule in India?
2. Explain the Anglo French Rivalry?
3. Why started the Carnatic War?
4. What was the causes and results in Carnatic War?

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### **1.6 Answers to Check your Progress Questions**

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1. The East Indian Company came to India on 31 December 1600
2. Queen Elizabeth I provided a charter to the Governor and Company of merchants of London to trade with the Indies. The East India Company made two voyages to the Spice Islands.
3. In 1608, the third voyage arrived at Surat in India.
4. In 1609 Captain William Hawkins arrived to the court of Jahangir with a letter from James I for trade concessions.
5. In 1613 Jahangir permitted the British to set up a factory at Surat. In 1615 Thomas Roe got concessions to set up trading stations.

6. India presented a bewildering spectacle of a house divided against itself on the eve of the Anglo French struggle.
7. The first Carnatic War of Austrian Succession in Europe, the First Carnatic War also came to an end. In the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748)
8. The Second Carnatic War On one side was Nasir Jung, the Nizam and his protege Muhammad Ali, supported by the English, and on the other was Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jung, supported by the French, vying to become the Nawab of Arcot.
9. The Third Carnatic War spread beyond southern India and into Bengal where British forces captured the French settlement.

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## **10. 1.7 SUMMARY**

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- Compagnie des Indes was the first French company to establish trading relations with India.
- Louis XIV, the then king of France, granted authority for this company in 1664.
- The Company named ‘The Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading in the East Indies’ was granted a royal charter by Queen Elizabeth.
- From 1746 to 1763, English East India Company and French East India Company fought with each other in India. These wars are known as Carnatic wars.
- The First Carnatic War was directly linked to the events in Europe. The English and French were fighting on the issue of Austria’s succession (1740–48).
- In 1717, the Mughal emperor issued a farman by which it granted special benefits to the English East India Company, namely, exemption of taxes on goods imported and exported from Bengal.
- To punish the highhandedness of the Company, Siraj-ud-Daulah retaliated by striking Calcutta on 16 June 1756 and bringing it under his sway by 20 June 1756.

- According to Sir Jadunath Sarkar, an eminent historian, 23 June 1757, marked the end of the medieval period in India and the beginning of the modern period.
- In Bengal's history, the treaty of Allahabad (1765) is extremely significant as it ushered in a new administrative mechanism, which laid down the foundation of the British administrative system in India.
- The Battle of Buxar (1764) was fought between the forces under the command of the British East India Company led by Hector Munro, and the combined armies of Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal; Shuja- ud-Daula the Nawab of Awadh; and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.

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## **1.8 KEY WORDS**

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- **Subedar:** Subedar is a historical rank in the Nepal Army, Indian Army and Pakistan Army, ranking below British commissioned officers and above non-commissioned officers.
- **Dual Government:** The dual government of Bengal was a double system of administration, which was introduced by Robert Clive. The British East India Company obtained the actual power; whereas the responsibility and charge of administration was entrusted to the Nawab of Bengal.
- **Sepoy:** It refers to an Indian soldier serving under British or other European orders.
- **Diwani Rights:** They were the rights granted to British East India Company to collect revenues and decide the civil cases.

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## **1.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### **Short Answer Questions**

1. Which was the first French company that succeeded in establishing permanent trade relations in India?
2. When did the Third Carnatic War begin?
3. What were the reasons that encouraged the British to come to India?
4. What were the features of the Dual government?
5. What were the causes the Carnatic War?

## Long Answer Questions

1. How did the British establish factories in India?
2. Give a detailed account of the British-French rivalry.
3. Give a detailed explanation of the Battle of Carnatic War?
4. Describe the British settlements?
5. Explain the Anglo French Rivalry?

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## 1.10 FURTHER READINGS

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*Establishment of  
British settlements in  
India,*

*Notes*

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# **UNIT-2 COMPANY’S ASCENDANCY IN BENGAL, BATTLE OF PLASSEY, BATTLE OF BUXAR, ROBERT CLIVE AS THE GOVERNER OF BENGAL, DOUBLE GOVERNMENT**

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*Company’s ascendancy in  
Bengal, battle of plassey,  
battle of buxar, robert  
clive as the governer of  
bengal, double  
government*

## **2.1 Introduction**

## **2.2 Objectives**

## **2.3 Company’s ascendancy in Bengal**

## **2.4 Battle of Plassey**

## **2.5 Battle of Buxar**

## **2.6 Robert Clive as the Governer of Bengal**

## **2.7 Double Government**

## **2.8 Answers to Check your Progress Questions**

## **2.9 Summary**

## **2.10 Keywords**

## **2.11 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises**

## **2.12 Further Readings**

*Notes*

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## **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The Bengal Presidency (1757–1912), later reorganized as the Bengal Province (1912–1947), was once the largest subdivision (presidency) of British India following the dissolution of the Mughal Bengal, with its seat in Calcutta (now Kolkata). It was primarily centred in the Bengal region. At its territorial peak in the 19th century, the presidency extended from the present-day Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan in the west to Burma, Singapore and Penang in the east. The Governor of Bengal was concurrently the Viceroy of India for many years. Most of the presidency's territories were eventually incorporated into other British Indian provinces and crown colonies. In 1905, Bengal proper was partitioned, with Eastern Bengal and Assam headquartered in Dacca and Shillong (summer capital).

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British India was reorganised in 1912 and the presidency was reunited into a single Bengali-speaking province.

The Bengal Presidency was established in 1765, following the defeat of the last independent Nawab of Bengal at the Battle of Plassey in 23 June 1757, and the Battle of Buxar in 22 October 1764. Bengal was the economic, cultural and educational hub of the British Raj. During the period of proto-industrialization, Bengal made direct significant contributions to the Industrial revolution in Britain, although it was soon undertaken by the Kingdom of Mysore ruled by Tipu Sultan as South Asia's dominant economic power. It was the centre of the late 19th and early 20th century Bengali Renaissance and a hotbed of the Indian Independence Movement.

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## **2.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Company's ascendancy in Bengal
- Explain the causes and results battle of Plassey and Buxar
- Discuss to the double government

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## **2.3 Company's ascendancy in Bengal**

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The revolution of 1757 had established military supremacy of the English in Bengal. Their French rivals had been ousted and they had become the real power behind the throne. The last attempt made by Mir Qasim to retrieve the position of the Nawab of Bengal had ultimately failed with his defeat at the battle of Buxar, 1764. Mir Jafar whom the English had placed on the Bengal Masnad for a second time died early in 1765 which gave the Company yet another opportunity to establish their supremacy in Bengal on a more definite basis.

Mir Jafar's son Najm-ud-daulah was allowed to succeed to the Nawabship of Bengal in terms of a treaty (Feb. 20, 1765) which laid down that the entire management of the affairs of the state should be left in the hands of a minister called Deputy Subahdar, who would be nominated by the English and could not be removed from office except with the consent of the English. Thus, for all practical purposes the control of the Nawab's administration passed into the hands of the English and the Nawab was reduced to a powerless show piece. Such was the situation in Bengal when Robert Clive, now raised to the peerage, came as the Governor of Bengal for a second time (May, 1765). He had been the governor of Bengal from 1757-60 and left for home in 1760. When the news of the English success at Buxar (1764) reached England the question of consolidation of the newly acquired territories in India naturally arose.

The authorities of the Company in England thought that no body other than Clive, now Lord Clive, was more suited for the task and appointed him Governor of Bengal for a second time and also combined the post of the Commander-in-Chief with that of Governor. During the Years 1760-64 the political and administrative situation in India had undergone a great change for the worse. The problem of Political Settlement with the Nawab of Oudh, Emperor as well as the Nawab of Bengal needed immediate handling. The lust for money had debased the general character of the Company's servants which brought the Company's affairs into utter disorder.

The Company's servants had become thoroughly demoralised and bribery and corruption reigned supreme, their participation in private trade had reduced the Company's profit. Thus, when Clive arrived in Bengal he was faced with several intricate problem that needed his immediate attention.

Between the first and the second governorship of Clive Vansittart was the Governor of Bengal. It was during his time that Major Hector Munro had defeated confederate forces of Mir Qasim, Suja-ud-daulah and Shah Alam II at the battle of Buxar (October 22, 1764). The prevailing idea among the English servants of the Company in Bengal was restoration of the power of the Emperor Shah Alam who was a fugitive in Oudh, with the English help so that the Company might take the fullest advantage of the Emperor's name and authority to enhance their status and increase their interests. It was with this end in view Vansittart had already promised Oudh to Shah Alam.

The nature of the regime which had achieved so marked a success was one so discreditable to the English that Sir Alfred Lyall described "these years as the only period which throws grave unpardonable discredit on the English government". According to Clive "such a scene of anarchy, confusion, bribery, corruption and extortion was never seen or heard of in any country but Bengal, nor such and so many fortunes acquired in so unjust and rapacious manner."

As V. A. Smith points out: "It was, however, Clive himself who had started the moral collapse of the Bengal' civilians." Before 1757 despite the blows inflicted on the Mughal government by the Persians, Marathas and the Afghans, the power of the local governor —the Nawab kept the activities of the merchants both native and European within bounds. But the events of 1757 transformed the plodding English merchants into the arbiters of Bengal politics thereby removing the restraints exercised on them by the Nawab.

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The English merchants all on a sudden found avenues of undreamt of wealth open before them and as they lacked inner restraint there was no sense of moderation of justice in them. "The First step was taken by Clive". (Smith). He received a reward (a bribe?) of £ 234,000 and a jagir worth £ 30,000 per year. By irony of fate it was Clive himself on whom fell the task of retrieving the English servants of the Company in Bengal from the slough of Corruption, bribery and insubordination, and his remarks about the prevailing condition on his arrival as the governor for a second time make a curious reading.

Clive came with immense power to deal with the affairs of the Company in India. He was empowered to nominate a Select Committee of his own should he think that he could not function with the existing Council. Within two days of his arrival he nominated his Select Committee of four members Verelst, Carnac, Sykes and Sumner. The former two were already in Bengal and latter two came with him.

He found on his arrival that the immediate crisis which led to his appointment, namely, the danger of the Emperor's enmity was already over. Vansittart had promised Oudh to the Emperor Shah Alam, who offered to come under the English protection, the relation with Suja-ud-daulah had remained unsettled. In February 1765 died Mir Jafar. His son Najm-ud-daulah was placed on the masnad and Reza Khan was appointed his Deputy by the English.

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## **2.4 Battle of Plassey**

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The famous battle, in which the 39th Foot (later the Dorset Regiment) played such a prominent part, was fought on the 23rd June 1757 and effectively marked the beginning of 200 years' British rule in India. Universally known as Plassey, after the village near which the action took place, the battlefield is located north of Calcutta in the region known as Bengal and is now near the north eastern border of India with Bangladesh. As has been the case in many other instances, the military action was a comparatively straightforward matter compared to the politics, rivalry, greed, treachery, bribery, 'spin' and general skulduggery which led up to it.

Historically, the British began trading with India in the early 17th Century through the British East India Company and became more and more influential, effectively ruling many districts. Although the Company used mostly locally-enlisted troops (sepoys) they had small detachments of the British Army 'under command.' Any form of British rule was obviously unpopular with some local rulers, including the Nawab of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, who in 1756 captured a British fort in Calcutta and imprisoned 146 members of the garrison in a tiny building. Many of the captives died of heat exhaustion in what became known as the Black Hole of Calcutta.



In February 1757 the Nawab agreed to sign a peace treaty with the British, but at about the same time news filtered through to India of the war which had broken out between Britain and France the previous year. Lieutenant Colonel Robert (later Lord) Clive, who was commanding the British forces in Bengal, foresaw that the French and the Nawab might unite forces against them, so he decided to take the initiative and test the Nawab's intentions. He therefore asked him for permission to attack Chandernagore where there was a French settlement. Despite the Treaty, the Nawab refused permission, but Clive still marched on the town and captured it on the 23rd March.

Clive and his masters in the East India Company decided that they could not trust the Nawab, whose army was assembled at Plassey and was therefore a threat to Calcutta. Anxious that there should be no repetition of The Black Hole incident, they decided to depose the Nawab and replace him with Mir Jafar, Commander-in-Chief of the Nawab's army. William Watts, who spoke the local dialect, was sent secretly to negotiate with Mir Jafar who, along with other nobles, offered his support to the British. It was at this moment that a messenger arrived from Calcutta with a letter purporting to come from the chieftain of Berar, containing an offer to bring 120,000 men into Bengal to co-operate with the British against the Nawab.

Clive initially thought this might be a trick by the Nawab to find out the true feelings of the British towards him. So he sent the letter to the Nawab as an outward mark of his confidence in him, and at the same time asked him to remove his army from Plassey. This Surajah did, bringing it back to Murshidabad, the capital, twenty-two miles further north, away from Calcutta. Thinking the British were now on his side he began threatening his nobles where before he had been afraid of them. His first intended victim was Mir Jafar, who shut himself up in his palace and defied his master, at the same time sending word to the British begging them to begin operations at once. The agreement between the British and Mir Jafar, by which the latter was to

This spelling is an anglicized version of the local name Palashi, from the palash tree, which used to abound in the vicinity. The palash tree is known as the Flame of the Forest because of its bright red flowers. Past rulers of Bengal played changan (a version of hockey) at night using burning balls made from the wood of this tree because it was light and burned for a long time.

The Black Hole of Calcutta incident undoubtedly took place, but it seems likely that there was a degree of exaggeration in subsequent colonial literature in order to make the Indians appear less civilized than Europeans. The original story was that 146 prisoners were kept overnight in a room measuring 18 by 15 feet and that only 23 survived. The exact details have been disputed by historians ever since.

The story goes that Watts, dressed as a local veiled lady, met Mir Jafar in Jaffarganj, a village near Murshidabad. The gate through which Watts is supposed to have entered the village is still called Nemaq Haramer Deori (Traitor's Gate). Watts was later rewarded with a gift of £114,000 for his efforts. He was placed on the throne of the Nawab in return

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for co-operation in the field, had by now been signed, and there was no point in delaying.

### **Preliminary Moves**

On the 13th June 1757 Clive left Chandernagore for Murshidabad, and the following day he sent a letter to the Nawab which amounted to a declaration of war. Surajah, thoroughly scared, now tried to placate Mir Jafar and the other nobles. They all swore allegiance to him, and again he became full of confidence, little realising that they were still in league with the British. His army was once more ordered forward to an entrenched camp at Plassey. By the 21st of June, the force was in position.

Clive, advancing from Chandernagore, had reached Palti, a town on the western bank of the River Bhagirathi, on the 16th. The following day he sent a force composed of 200 Europeans and 500 sepoys with one field gun and one small howitzer, all under the command of Major Eyre Coote of the 39th Foot, against Katwa, a town and fort about twelve miles away. Katwa surrendered after a very short resistance and the same evening Clive arrived with the rest of the force. An immense supply of grain was captured as well as a considerable quantity of stores. The next day the rainy season broke with great violence, but luckily the troops were under cover in the huts and houses of the town.

Only a few miles and the River Bhagirathi now lay between Clive and the Nawab's forces, but the situation was uncertain because a letter dated the 16th was received from Mir Jafar announcing his reconciliation with the Nawab but also, strangely, his intention of carrying out his agreement with the British. This was followed, on the 20th, by another letter from the same source, merely Soldier 39th of Foot – 1757 saying that he was on the point of setting out, that he was to be posted on one flank of the army, and would send further information later. There was no specific suggestion of co-operation between him and the British. Clive was undecided as to what he should do in view of the uncertainty of Mir Jafar's attitude. Dare he, with an army consisting of 3,000 men of whom only about one-third were Europeans, cross the river and attack a force of 50,000, relying on the uncertain promises of the commander of less than one-third of that force that he would join him during the action? There seemed to be three alternatives: he could fortify himself at Katwa and wait for the rains to end; he could return to Calcutta; or he could attack. Clive called a Council of War on the 21st to help him decide.

### **Clive's Council of War**

Twenty officers, all those above the rank of subaltern, attended the Council. Among them were two majors: Grant and Eyre Coote, both of the 39th Foot. Clive explained the options and initially recommended that they should fortify Katwa until the rainy season was over. He then called for votes in order of seniority. Major Eyre Coote was the fourth to record his opinion, and was the first to declare for immediate action, explaining that so far the British had met with nothing but success, which had naturally raised the spirits of the force,

and he feared any delay might be bad for morale. Furthermore he suggested that communication with Calcutta would be cut off owing to the great distance, and therefore there could be no question of getting resupplies and this would mean privation and distress for the force throughout the rainy season. Opinion was against him to the extent of thirteen votes against seven, but Clive was impressed. Dismissing the Council, he strolled to a clump of trees, and sitting down again, considered all the arguments. A bold man himself, he saw the logic of Eyre Coote's reasoning and at the end of an hour he returned to his quarters determined to give battle, and dictated his Orders for the advance.

### **The Opposing Forces**

Deducting the sick and wounded and a small guard to be left at Katwa, the force with which he was about to march against the Nawab consisted of 750 European infantry; 200 men of mixed Portuguese and native blood, armed and equipped as Europeans; 100 European artillery; 50 British sailors and 2,100 native troops. The artillery consisted of eight 6-pounders and 2 small howitzers. The Nawab's army amounted to about 18,000 cavalry, 35,000 infantry and about 53 guns, some worked by a party of 40-50 French, who had escaped from Chandernagore. These guns were mostly of heavy calibre - 32, 24 and 18 pounders. The infantry was generally not well trained or armed, but the cavalry were well mounted and armed with swords or long spears. The odds against Clive were thus enormous.

### **The Battle**

At sunrise on the 22nd June, the British crossed the Bhagirathi. There was no opposition, and by 4 pm the force was safely on the eastern bank. At sunset Clive and his army marched the 15 miles to Plassey, following the winding bank of the river. It was an exhausting march, as owing to recent floods the water was often above waist height, while the rain was falling in torrents. It was not until one o'clock in the morning on the 23rd that they reached their destination. Passing through the village, the exhausted troops bivouacked north of it, in the large mango grove which was about 800 yards in length and 300 yards in breadth, surrounded by an earth bank and ditch. This was an early indication of Major Eyre Coote's talent which was to stand him in good stead throughout his military career – he retired as a Lieutenant General.

The nearby encampment occupied by the Nawab had in its southern face a redoubt (marked A on the Plan) in which cannon were mounted. Three hundred yards east of it, and in front of the entrenchments, was a hillock covered with jungle (B) and about eight hundred yards to the south was a reservoir of water. A hundred yards still further to the south was a larger tank (C). Both these tanks were surrounded by large banks of earth. Just north of the mango grove and on the Bhagirathi was a hunting box (D) belonging to the Nawab, surrounded by a masonry wall. Clive had taken the precaution on reaching the grove of sending out a force of 200 Europeans and 300 Sepoys with two guns to hold this enclosure. Outposts were also placed all round the force.

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Soon after daybreak on the 23rd June, the Nawab's army was seen to be advancing in two lines towards the mango grove as if to surround it. In front was the party of French with four guns, and they proceeded to take up a position at the larger of the two tanks, about half a mile from the British line. Between this party and the river were two heavy guns under a native officer. Immediately to the rear of the French and supporting them was a picked body of 5,000 cavalry and 7,000 infantry, commanded by the Nawab's faithful general Mir Mudin Khan. From the left rear of this force the rest of the army formed a curve towards Plassey, reaching to within about eight hundred yards of the south-east corner of the mango grove. Mir Jafar's forces were on the far left flank.

Clive drew up his troops in one line just north of the grove with his left resting on the hunting box. In the centre he placed his Europeans, consisting of detachments of the 39th Foot and Bombay, Madras and Bengal European regiments, flanked on either side by three 6-pounders. On the right and left flanks he posted his native troops. At the same time he sent a small party with two 6-pounders and two howitzers to occupy some brick kilns about two hundred yards in front of his left flank. A glance at the map will show how dangerous his position was, threatened both in front and on the right flank.

The battle opened at 6 am or shortly afterwards with a shot from one of the French guns which killed one and wounded another man of the 39th. This seemed to be the signal for a heavy bombardment by all of the Nawab's guns. The British guns replied but because they were of smaller calibre they made little impression. Luckily most of the enemy's shots went high, but even so, after thirty minutes Clive had suffered about thirty casualties and he decided to withdraw all the force except the two detachments at the brick kilns and the hunting box behind the bank which bordered the mango grove. What appeared to be a withdrawal encouraged the enemy, who brought their guns much nearer and kept up an even more vigorous rate of fire. The British, however, now had the advantage of good cover, and sheltered by the bank they suffered few casualties. Clive ordered some of the men to cut holes in the bank for his guns to fire through, and they were then able to successfully engage the opposing gunners.

This stalemate continued until late morning, by which time there had been no indication that Mir Jafar had any intention of changing sides. Being completely outnumbered, Clive had no real offensive option, so he decided to maintain his present position until midnight and then to attack the Nawab's camp, hoping for Mir Jafar's help. It was at this point, at about noon, that nature intervened. A violent rain storm sprang up and lasted for about an hour. The British had tarpaulins ready to cover their ammunition and suffered little or no inconvenience. The enemy was not as well prepared and consequently their rate of fire initially slackened and then dwindled away almost completely, as their powder was soaked. Mir Mudin, however, thinking that the British would be in a similar plight, advanced towards the grove with a body of cavalry to take advantage of the situation. His

party was received with a storm of grape shot which drove it back, mortally wounding the leader.

This proved to be the decisive moment of the battle, but Clive could not have anticipated that such a seemingly minor skirmish would lead to the Nawab's retreat. He re-entered the hunting box which he had made his headquarters and laid down to rest, giving orders that he was to be roused if there was any sign of enemy activity.

We must now turn for a moment to events in the Nawab's army. The death of Mir Mudin deprived the Nawab of his most faithful general. He sent for Mir Jafar and begged him to remain loyal and to defend him. Taking off his turban, he threw it on the ground in front of his uncle exclaiming in humble tones: 'Jafar, that turban thou must defend.' Mir Jafar played his deceitful part admirably and promised to use every effort, meaning all the time to betray the Nawab as soon as possible. Immediately the interview was finished he galloped back to his troops and sent a letter to Clive telling him what had happened and urging him to push on at once or in any case not to delay the attack. Clive did not get this letter in time to profit by it.

The Nawab also appealed to his Prime Minister, Rajah Dulab Ram, who strongly advised him to withdraw the army behind the entrenchment and then to quit the battle-field, entrusting everything to his generals. The Nawab, by now thoroughly bewildered and incapable of thinking coherently, did so; mounting a camel, he rode with about 2,000 horsemen to Murshidabad. It was now about 2 pm and the enemy generals had matters in their own hands. They began falling back as the Nawab had ordered them. But the French gunners were made of sterner stuff and refused to leave their position, recognising that if the British were to move forward and occupy the water tank they would be in a perfect position to fire onto the flank of the Nawab's withdrawing troops.

Among the British officers at the battle was Major Kilpatrick, who had already distinguished himself in southern India and who was commanding the troops of the East India Company. Seeing the French gunners' determined stand and recognising the importance of the position they held, he decided to attack them. He sent word to Clive and advanced with two companies and two guns. The messenger is said to have found Clive asleep, but he was quickly aroused and, furious that an important manoeuvre was being made without his agreement, ran out and reprimanded Kilpatrick. A quick glance at the situation, however, convinced him of the soundness of the latter's plan which he himself would have ordered had he been on the spot. He therefore sent Kilpatrick back for the rest of the force and continued to lead the advance himself. The French, seeing that their position was hopeless, withdrew to the corner of the entrenchment, and prepared to bring their guns into action again.

While the British force was following the retreating enemy it was seen that the troops commanded by Mir Jafar were moving more slowly than the rest of the enemy and were beginning to drop behind. When the rearmost files were about level with the northern end of the

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grove the whole group wheeled to the left and marched in that direction. Not knowing that they were the troops of Mir Jafar, and thinking this might be a raid on his baggage, Clive despatched a party of Europeans with a gun to check them. The fire soon stopped them but they made no efforts to rejoin the Nawab's army.

Meanwhile, Clive had reached the tank just evacuated by the French and opened heavy cannon fire against the enemy behind the entrenchment. The majority of the Nawab's officers and the troops knew nothing about the treachery that was going on and were still faithful to Surajah Dowlah and therefore, seeing that they were superior to the attacking force left the entrenchment and opened a heavy fire on the British troops. The position was one which might become dangerous. Clive moved up closer to the entrenchment, and posted half his infantry and artillery on the bank surrounding the smaller of the two tanks. Most of the remainder were placed on rising ground to the left whereupon he opened heavy and sustained artillery and musket fire on the enemy, causing considerable casualties. Even so, with the French artillery still effective, vastly superior numbers, and plenty of cavalry, the enemy retained the upper hand.

While these events were taking place, Clive noticed that the enemy on his right, which he thought were trying to attack his baggage, had made no move and were taking no part in the battle. It dawned on him that this force must be under the command of Mir Jafar and he was relieved that there was no longer a danger to his rear. Despite his much smaller force, Clive decided to force an end to the battle by making a major effort to carry the redoubt held by the French and the hillock to the east of it. He therefore formed two strong detachments and sent them simultaneously against the two objectives, supporting them with the main body in the rear. The hill was taken first, without a shot being fired, and the French realized that their position was outflanked and no longer tenable so they withdrew. Effectively this marked the end of the battle and by 5 pm Clive was in control of the whole area. The victory of Plassey was complete. Judged purely from a military standpoint the action was little more than a skirmish, but the effect of Clive's victory was to gain control over the provinces of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa for the British.

### **Casualties**

The precise numbers of the 39th Foot present at the battle are not recorded, but were probably about 350 men with the following officers: Majors Archibald Grant and Eyre Coote, Lieutenant (temporary Captain) John Corneille, and Ensigns Joseph Adnett and Martin Yorke. The casualties on the British side were absurdly small. Accounts vary as to the actual figures, but all put them as between 22 and 24 killed; and between 43 and 50 wounded. The losses to the Nawab's army could only be estimated, but they were considered to be about 1,000 killed and wounded. In addition, more than 40 guns fell into the hands of the British.

## **Primus in Indis**

In the words of The Historical Record of the 39th of Foot:

'The motto Primus in Indis and the word Plassey, borne by Royal authority on the regimental colour of the Thirty-ninth are proud memorials of its having been the first King's regiment which served in India and of the gallantry displayed in this battle.'

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## **2.5 Battle of Buxar**

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**Name of the Battle: The Battle of Buxar**

**Venue: Near Buxar. Then within the territory of Bengal, Buxar, presently, is one of the 38 districts of Bihar in India**

**Date and Year: 23rd October, 1764**

The Battle of Buxar, a significant battle in the history of India, was fought between British East India Company and the combined forces of Nawabs and the Mughal Emperor. While the East India Company's force was led by Hector Munro, the Indian force was led by the Mughal rulers of three princely states - Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal, Shuja-ud-Daulah, the Nawab of Awadh and Shah Alam II, the Mughal Emperor. Both the Nawabs were governors under the Mughal Emperor. This historic battle was fought on 23rd October, 1764. The battle was fought at a place called Buxar, which was in Bengal during that time and later on it became a part of Bihar, as it was just 130 km west of Patna.

### **The reasons that led to the Battle**

The seeds of the Battle of Buxar were sown after the Battle of Plassey, when Mir Qasim became the Nawab of Bengal. The primary cause was the conflict between the English and Mir Qasim. Mir Qasim was an independent ruler and was the strongest and ablest of all Nawabs. He undertook some reformation, under which there was a reduction in expenditure on administration and palaces; fire locks and guns were manufactured, there was regular payment of salaries, new taxes were imposed and the capital was shifted from Monghyar to Murshidabad, which annoyed the British nobles and officers. The English wanted Mir to remain as a puppet in their hands. But, he always wanted to keep himself away from the British influence. This led to a number of conflicts between him and the English. He was defeated in three successive battles (between June to September 1763) before the Battle of Buxar, which eventually compelled him to flee to Allahabad where he met Shuja-ud-Daulah. In the meantime, after the acquisition of power as the Mughal Emperor, Shah Alam II also wanted to combine several states as one physically stronger empire, which included Bengal (Bengal+Bihar+Orissa). But, he also could not overpower the British and was under the shelter of Shuja-ud-Daulah who always wanted to destroy the English supremacy in Bengal. Thus, one of the main causes of hostility between the English and the three rulers was the share of Bengal. Mir Qasim, Shuja-ud-Daulah and Shah Alam II joined hands to fight against the English to establish their

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sovereignty over the whole of Bengal and reduce the power of the British. They declared war against the English on 23rd October, 1764 at the battleground Katkauli, 6 kilometres from Buxar. This was a war which was fought for just few hours but marked as one of the most significant wars in Indian History.

### **The Strength of Warring Forces**

In the Mughal force, there were 40,000 men in the battle of Buxar, while the English East India Company's Hector Monro's forces included 10,000 men, out of which 7000 were from British Army (857 European soldiers and 6213 sepoys). The Britishers had formed a stone memorial at Katkauli after the war. In the Battle of Buxar, 847 were killed and wounded from the English forces while on the Indian side, more than 2,000 officers and soldiers were killed.

### **Aftermath of the battle: Winner and Loser**

#### **Winner: Hector Munro**

#### **Losers: Combined armies of Nawab Mir Qasim, Nawab Shuja-ud-Daulah & Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II**

The historic battle fought between the British and the Indian forces resulted in victory for the British. The three combined army forces of Mir Qasim (Bengal), Shuja-ud-Daulah (Awadh), and Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II met with a crushing defeat under the hands of Major Munro. After the war, Mir Kasim fled to the North-West and died. Shah Alam II left Shuja-ud-Daulah and sought shelter in the British camp. Shuja-ud-Daulah tried to defeat the British till 1765 but was not successful. He later fled to Rohilkhand. According to historical reports and studies, the main cause of defeat of the Mughals was the lack of co-ordination among the various Mughal forces.

### **The Larger Implications of the Battle**

The significant outcomes of this battle were as follows:

- It led to the signing of the Allahabad Treaty in 1765 by Lord Robert Clive with Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.
- With the defeat of Mir Kasim, the rule of Nawabs came to an end.
- Diwani rights or fiscal rights were secured which meant that the British would administer and manage revenues of large areas which included the present-day West Bengal, Jharkhand, Bihar, and Uttar Pradesh, as well as of Bangladesh. The British became the masters of the people of these places.
- In return of this right, the British would give Rs 26 lakh to the Mughal emperor Shah Alam II.



- After the Buxar victory, the English armies moved towards Awadh and established their control over Banaras and Allahabad.
- Shuja-ud-Daulah would pay Rs 50 lakh immediately to the company as expenses of war. He also needed to pay later Rs 25 lakh in instalments.
- The treaty legalised the East India Company's control over the whole of Bengal. Thus, the British established their control in the eastern part of the country.
- Ghazipur and its adjacent area were handed over to the East India company.
- The Allahabad fort became the home of the emperor and he would be protected by few men of the company's army.
- A vakil of the English would remain in the court of Shah Alam II. But he was not allowed to interfere in the administration of the country.

The Battle of Buxar paved the way for a more concrete British Empire in India. Though the initial foundation of the British rule in India was laid after the Battle of Plassey by Clive, it became more strengthened after the Battle of Buxar. The East India Company, after the battle of Buxar, gained dominance over entire Bengal. The revenues collected by Shah Alam II from the princely states of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, went into the hands of the company. The Mughal emperor came fully under the control of British. All duties and revenues from the most prosperous Indian province went to the company. It also gained administrative power by controlling the army, finances, and revenues. The responsibility of collecting revenues went to the Nawabs but they had no power while the British East India Company had all the authority to control and also gain benefits from the Nawabs. With the wealth of Bengal, the British could conquer other regions of India. The supremacy of the British was established in the Eastern parts of India. British historian Ramsay Muir had rightly said that Buxar finally riveted the shackles of company's rule upon Bengal.

The battle of Buxar was, indeed, a decisive battle in the Indian history which led to the beginning of the British colonial rule that lasted for almost two centuries, leading to unending exploitation of India. The battle led to the establishment of British sovereignty. It was also served as an eye opener to the political weaknesses and military shortcomings of the Mughal Empire.

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## 2.6 Robert Clive as the Governor of Bengal

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The revolution of 1757 had established military supremacy of the English in Bengal. Their French rivals had been ousted and they had become the real power behind the throne. The last attempt made by Mir Qasim to retrieve the position of the Nawab of Bengal had ultimately failed with his defeat at the battle of Buxar, 1764. Mir Jafar whom the English had placed on the Bengal Masnad for a second time died early in 1765 which gave the Company yet another opportunity to establish their supremacy in Bengal on a more definite basis.

Mir Jafar's son Najm-ud-daulah was allowed to succeed to the Nawabship of Bengal in terms of a treaty (Feb. 20, 1765) which laid down that the entire management of the affairs of the state should be left in the hands of a minister called Deputy Subahdar, who would be nominated by the English and could not be removed from office except with the consent of the English. Thus, for all practical purposes the control of the Nawab's administration passed into the hands of the English and the Nawab was reduced to a powerless show piece.

Such was the situation in Bengal when Robert Clive, now raised to the peerage, came as the Governor of Bengal for a second time (May, 1765). He had been the governor of Bengal from 1757-60 and left for home in 1760. When the news of the English success at Buxar (1764) reached England the question of consolidation of the newly acquired territories in India naturally arose.

The authorities of the Company in England thought that no body other than Clive, now Lord Clive, was more suited for the task and appointed him Governor of Bengal for a second time and also combined the post of the Commander-in-Chief with that of Governor. During the Years 1760-64 the political and administrative situation in India had undergone a great change for the worse. The problem of Political Settlement with the Nawab of Oudh, Emperor as well as the Nawab of Bengal needed immediate handling. The lust for money had debased the general character of the Company's servants which brought the Company's affairs into utter disorder.

The Company's servants had become thoroughly demoralised and bribery and corruption reigned supreme, their participation in private trade had reduced the Company's profit. Thus, when Clive arrived in Bengal he was faced with several intricate problem that needed his immediate attention.

Between the first and the second governorship of Clive Vansittart was the Governor of Bengal. It was during his time that Major Hector Munro had defeated confederate forces of Mir Qasim, Suja-ud-daulah and Shah Alam II at the battle of Buxar (October 22, 1764). The

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prevailing idea among the English servants of the Company in Bengal was restoration of the power of the Emperor Shah Alam who was a fugitive in Oudh, with the English help so that the Company might take the fullest advantage of the Emperor's name and authority to enhance their status and increase their interests. It was with this end in view Vansittart had already promised Oudh to Shah Alam.

The nature of the regime which had achieved so marked a success was one so discreditable to the English that Sir Alfred Lyall described "these years as the only period which throws grave unpardonable discredit on the English government". According to Clive "such a scene of anarchy, confusion, bribery, corruption and extortion was never seen or heard of in any country but Bengal, nor such and so many fortunes acquired in so unjust and rapacious manner."

As V. A. Smith points out: "It was, however, Clive himself who had started the moral collapse of the Bengal' civilians." Before 1757 despite the blows inflicted on the Mughal government by the Persians, Marathas and the Afghans, the power of the local governor —the Nawab kept the activities of the merchants both native and European within bounds. But the events of 1757 transformed the plodding English merchants into the arbiters of Bengal politics thereby removing the restraints exercised on them by the Nawab.

The English merchants all on a sudden found avenues of undreamt of wealth open before them and as they lacked inner restraint there was no sense of moderation of justice in them. "The First step was taken by Clive". (Smith). He received a reward (a bribe?) of £ 234,000 and a jagir worth £ 30,000 per year. By irony of fate it was Clive himself on whom fell the task of retrieving the English servants of the Company in Bengal from the slough of

Corruption, bribery and insubordination, and his remarks about the prevailing condition on his arrival as the governor for a second time make a curious reading.

Clive came with immense power to deal with the affairs of the Company in India. He was empowered to nominate a Select Committee of his own should he think that he could not function' with the existing Council. Within two days of his arrival he nominated his Select Committee of four members Verelst, Carnac, Sykes and summer. The former two were already in Bengal and latter two came with him.

He found on his arrival that the immediate crisis which led to his appointment, namely, the danger of the Emperor's enmity was already over. Vansittart had promised Oudh to the Emperor Shah Alam, who offered to come under the English protection, the relation

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with Suja-ud-daulah had remained unsettled. In February 1765 died Mir Jafar. His son Najm-ud-daulah was placed on the masnad and Reza Khan was appointed his Deputy by the English.

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## **2.7 Double Government**

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**Clive's mission had a double purpose:**

(1) To establish such relations with the native powers as would put an end to ceaseless wars; and

(2) To suppress the insubordination, corruption, bribery and all that pervaded all branches of the Company's government.

The problems were not easy of solution for on one side there was nothing to stop if he would march up to Delhi, put the fugitive Emperor on the Delhi throne and made the English Company the imperial Wazir, on the other side to take statesmanlike decision of consolidation of what was within the 'grip rather than of expansion. Clive decided for the former course and the wisdom of his policy is now generally recognised.

He abandoned the policy of Vansittart and decided to limit the Company's influence to Bengal and Bihar, leaving Oudh as a buffer State friendly to the English, between the Company and the Marathas. Therefore Emperor's claim on Oudh was discountenanced. But the spirit of Vansittart's earlier offer was retained.

The Emperor Shah Alam was given Korah and Allahabad. Oudh was restored to Shuja-ud-daulah on payment of a compensation of 50 lakhs, and a defensive alliance concluded with him by the terms of which the security and defence of his territories were guaranteed by the Company, and the Nawab Shuja-ud-daulah was to pay the expenses of necessary troops. "Shuja-ud-daulah", rightly remarks Smith "did not realise that his new friends would eventually prove more deadly than his supposed enemies. This treaty provided for a model for the system which Wellesley later developed by which the Indian princes saved themselves from their enemies at the price of enmeshing themselves in the threads of the Company's spider's web."

Emperor Shah Alam who was a supplicant at the door of the English and in return for his rehabilitation in Korah and Allahabad, he by a farman formally granted Diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the East India Company on condition of payment of a tribute 26 lakhs per year. The Diwani, i.e. revenue collection and civil justice, was granted on August, 12, 1765.

The grant of Diwani conferred on the Company the momentous power of collecting revenues, to mete out civil justice, to defray the

charges of the government and to pay the Emperor the annual tribute of 26 lakhs. But Clive fixed the sum of the expenses of the Nawab's household and Government to 53 lakhs per year. The amount was reduced to 41 lakhs in 1766 and 32 lakhs in 1769.

Clive then turned to set his house in order. He firmly checked abuses of the private trade and acceptance of presents by the Company's servants. He arrived with 'Covenants' which the Company's servants were to sign agreeing not to engage in inland trade or accept presents.

The Company's servants at first thought, remembering as they did the past record of Clive himself, that he could not be malignantly determined to prevent others from amassing fortune that he himself had done. But Clive showed no sign of relenting. Some resigned, others were forced to resign and vacancies filled in from Madras. Eventually recalcitrant officers had to submit. With equal vigour and determination Clive dealt with the military batta, i.e. allowance. Batta was an extra allowance that was paid to the soldier for field service away from the garrison.

This practice began during the French war at Madras, when the Nawab subsidised the British troops by such payment. The practice spread to Bengal; the British troops were paid double batta. Even when there was no field service rendered, the military drew double batta. Clive allowed officers in cantonment to draw half batta, those in field service within Bengal full batta and those who would be required to serve outside Bengal borders double batta.

This rationalisation of the allowance was not liked by the military. Encouraged by Brigadier Commander Sir Robert Fletcher a mutinous movement was set on foot. Clive met this opposition with a strong hand and the opposition gradually died down. Clive left India for good in 1767 (February). Dyarchy, system of double government introduced by the Government of India Act (1919) for the provinces of British India. It marked the first introduction of the democratic principle into the executive branch of the British administration of India. Though much-criticized, it signified a breakthrough in British Indian government and was the forerunner of India's full provincial autonomy (1935) and independence (1947). Dyarchy was introduced as a constitutional reform by Edwin Samuel Montagu (secretary of state for India, 1917–22) and Lord Chelmsford (viceroy of India, 1916–21).

The principle of dyarchy was a division of the executive branch of each provincial government into authoritarian and popularly responsible sections. The first was composed of executive councilors,

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appointed, as before, by the crown. The second was composed of ministers who were chosen by the governor from the elected members of the provincial legislature. These latter ministers were Indians.

The various fields, or subjects of administration were divided between the councilors and the ministers, being named reserved and transferred subjects, respectively. The reserved subjects came under the heading of law and order and included justice, the police, land revenue, and irrigation. The transferred subjects (i.e., those under the control of Indian ministers) included local self-government, education, public health, public works, and agriculture, forests, and fisheries. The system ended with the introduction of provincial autonomy in 1935.

### **Check Your Progress**

5. What was the outcome of the dual government?
6. Identify the warring sides in the Battle of Buxar.
7. Outline the political implications of the Battle of Buxar.
8. What were the consequences of the Battle of Buxar?

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## **2.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. Company ascendancy in Bengal
2. The Battle of Plassey was a decisive victory of the British East India Company over the Nawab of Bengal and his French [1] allies on 23 June 1757, under the leadership of Robert Clive which was possible due to the defection of Mir Jafar Ali Khan.
3. Robert Clive bribed Mir Jafar, the commander-in-chief of the Nawab's army, and also promised him to make him Nawab of Bengal. Clive defeated Siraj-ud-Daulah at Plassey in 1757 and captured Calcutta.[
4. The Battle of Buxar (1764) was fought between the forces under the command of the British East India Company led by Hector Munro, and the combined armies of Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal; Shuja- ud-Daula the Nawab of Awadh; and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.

5. The Battle of Buxar established British control over Bengal. Buxar revealed the political and military shortfalls of the Indian rulers and the decadence of the Mughal Empire.

6. Dual Government means double system of administration. The system of Dual Government was introduced in Bengal by Robert Clive of British East India Company.

7. Diwani being the right to collect revenue was given to East India Company and Nizamat (administrative responsibility) was entrusted to Bengal Nawab.

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## 2.9 SUMMARY

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- British company ascendancy in Bengal
- Battle of Plassey and its results
- Battle of Buxar and its results
- Robert Clive and dual government establishment and implementation
- In Bengal's history, the Treaty of Allahabad (1765) is extremely significant as it ushered in a new administrative mechanism, which laid down the foundation of the British administrative system in India.
- The Battle of Buxar (1764) was fought between the forces under the command of the British East India Company led by Hector Munro, and the combined armies of Mir Qasim, the Nawab of Bengal; Shuja-ud-Daula the Nawab of Awadh; and the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II.

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## 2.10 KEY WORDS

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- Subedar: Subedar is a historical rank in the Nepal Army, Indian Army and Pakistan Army, ranking below British commissioned officers and above non-commissioned officers.
- Dual Government: The dual government of Bengal was a double system of administration, which was introduced by Robert Clive. The British East India Company obtained the actual power; whereas the responsibility and charge of administration was entrusted to the Nawab of Bengal.
- Sepoy: It refers to an Indian soldier serving under British or other European orders.
- Diwani Rights: They were the rights granted to British East India Company to collect revenues and decide the civil cases.

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## **2.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### Short Answer Questions

1. When was the company ascendancy in Bengal?
2. When did the Battle of Plassey begin?
3. What were the reasons that encouraged the British to come to India?
4. What were the features of the Dual government?
5. What were the causes that led to the Battle of Buxar?

### Long Answer Questions

1. How did the company ascendancy in Bengal?
2. Give a detailed account of the Double government?
3. Give a detailed explanation of the Battle of Buxar, its political implications and consequences.
4. Describe the Battle of Plassey and its consequences.
5. Explain that the Robert Clive?

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## **2.12 FURTHER READINGS**

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# **UNIT-3 GROWTH OF BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY THROUGH ACTS, REGULATING ACT, PITT’S INDIA ACT, CHARTER ACT OF 1813, 1833 & 1853**

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- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Objectives
  - 3.3 Growth of British East India Company through Acts
- 3.4 Regulating Act
- 3.5 Pitt’s India Act
- 3.6 Charter Act of 1813, 1833 & 1853
- 3.7 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 3.8 Summary
- 3.9 Keywords
- 3.10 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.11 Further Readings

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## **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The East India Company began as a joint-stock enterprise incorporated by royal charter; established a trading monopoly with East Asia, Southeast Asia, and India; and became progressively involved in both domestic and international politics. It played a vital role in securing Britain's hegemony over maritime shipping and was instrumental in the foundation of the British Empire in India. With settlements in the Indian coastal cities of Bombay, Surat, Calcutta, and Madras, the Company exported cotton and silk piece goods, indigo, saltpeter, and spices in exchange for bullion, eventually expanding its trade to the Persian Gulf, parts of Southeast Asia, and East Asia, including China, in the nineteenth century. Merging in 1708 with its main competitor to form an exclusive monopoly, the Company was run by twenty-four directors elected annually by a Court of Proprietors, who also exerted powerful influence in the British Parliament.

In India the Company obtained a Mughal charter of duty-free trade (1717), and invested heavily in local manufacture, especially textiles, operating from Fort William, Calcutta, and Fort Saint George,

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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o *Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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Madras, on the eastern seaboard. Company servants became involved in lucrative internal and coastal trade for their own private investments, leading to friction with local authorities. In Bengal, private trade in salt, betel nut, tobacco, and saltpeter; the fortification of Calcutta; and connections with indigenous traders ill-disposed toward the Nawab (Sirajud-Dawlah, c. 1729–1757) resulted in conflict, Robert Clive's (1725–1774) victory at the Battle of Plassey (1757), and the installation of "puppet" rulers. One of them, Mir Kasim, (r. 1760–1763) protested the flagrant abuse of trading privileges by Company servants, which led to the decisive Battle of Baksar (1764) in which Kasim, the Nawab of Awadh, and the Mughal emperor Shah Alam II (r. 1759–1806) joined forces, only to be routed by the Company's superior Bengal Native Army. The Mughal emperor, in exchange for a yearly tribute, made the Company the collector (Diwan) of revenues of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, an annual gain of approximately £6 million, which solved its investment and currency problems. However, revenue collection proved difficult and administrative negligence coupled with drought led to crop failure and the famine of 1770, in which millions perished.

In southern India the East India Company was involved in a protracted military and diplomatic contest with the Marathas, the Nizam's dominion of Hyderabad, kingdom of Mysore ruled by Hyder Ali (1722–1782), and the French. The Company was successful in stalling the French, who were led by François Dupleix (1697–1763), but the conflict escalated during the Seven Years' War (1756–1763) leading eventually to an end of the French challenge at Wandiwash (1760). Soon after, both Arcot and Tanjore came under indirect British rule. Mysore provided stiff resistance until the defeat of Tippu Sultan (1749–1799) in 1799. The Marathas, divided into various ruling houses, their forces depleted by the confrontation with the Afghans (1761), finally succumbed to the British after 1803. The Sikhs of Punjab were humbled in the 1840s and other princely states accepted the suzerainty of the Company, which had emerged as the most formidable fiscal-military state in the subcontinent.

Company affairs, especially mismanagement in Bengal, led to parliamentary inquiry into Indian affairs. Through the Regulating Act (1773) and Pitt's India Act (1784) a Board of Control responsible to Parliament was established, ending the undue influence of shareholders in Indian policy. Warren Hastings (1732–1818), the first governor-general of India (1772–1785), sought to restructure the fiscal and military affairs of the Company, but was charged with corruption by Parliament (led by Edmund Burke [1729–1797]), impeached (1788), and much later acquitted. Significant changes took place in British India by the early nineteenth century: the revenue system was restructured with new property rights vested in land; marketplaces,

custom, and police were overhauled; an extensive cartographic survey of India was initiated; a new civil service trained at Haileybury College was put in place; strict limits were placed on all concourse between Britons and Indians; English education was gradually promoted; and modern technologies, including railways, steamships, and the telegraph, were selectively introduced.

In the aftermath of the loss of the American colonies, India under Company rule had emerged as a cornerstone of imperial Britain, although as a dependency and not a settler colony, a fact that possibly restricted the direct impact of the Indian imperial venture on British domestic politics. Under the Company Raj, Indian manufacturers declined in the nineteenth century, making way for a vast, largely dependent market for Britain's industrial output. In 1813 the Company forfeited its commercial monopoly, although it remained as the administrative agent in India till the Sepoy Mutiny and popular uprisings of 1857: a brief debacle for British rule in India that set the stage for direct Crown Rule.

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### **3.2 Growth of British East India Company through Acts**

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East India Company, also called English East India Company, formally (1600–1708) Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading into the East Indies or (1708–1873) United Company of Merchants of England Trading to the East Indies, English company formed for the exploitation of trade with East and Southeast Asia and India, incorporated by royal charter on December 31, 1600. Starting as a monopolistic trading body, the company became involved in politics and acted as an agent of British imperialism in India from the early 18th century to the mid-19th century. In addition, the activities of the company in China in the 19th century served as a catalyst for the expansion of British influence there.

The company was formed to share in the East Indian spice trade. That trade had been a monopoly of Spain and Portugal until the defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588) by England gave the English the chance to break the monopoly. Until 1612 the company conducted separate voyages, separately subscribed. There were temporary joint stocks until 1657, when a permanent joint stock was raised.

The company met with opposition from the Dutch in the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) and the Portuguese. The Dutch virtually excluded company members from the East Indies after the Amboina Massacre in 1623 (an incident in which English, Japanese, and Portuguese traders were executed by Dutch authorities), but the company's defeat of the Portuguese in India (1612) won them trading concessions from the Mughal Empire. The company settled

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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down to a trade in cotton and silk piece goods, indigo, and saltpetre, with spices from South India. It extended its activities to the Persian Gulf, Southeast Asia, and East Asia.

Beginning in the early 1620s, the East India Company began using slavelabour and transporting enslaved people to its facilities in Southeast Asia and India as well as to the island of St. Helena in the Atlantic Ocean, west of Angola. Although some of those enslaved by the company came from Indonesia and West Africa, the majority came from East Africa—from Mozambique or especially from Madagascar—and were primarily transported to the company's holdings in India and Indonesia. Large-scale transportation of slaves by the company was prevalent from the 1730s to the early 1750s and ended in the 1770s.

After the mid-18th century the cotton-goods trade declined, while tea became an important import from China. Beginning in the early 19th century, the company financed the tea trade with illegal opium exports to China. Chinese opposition to that trade precipitated the first Opium War (1839–42), which resulted in a Chinese defeat and the expansion of British trading privileges; a second conflict, often called the Arrow War (1856–60), brought increased trading rights for Europeans.

The original company faced opposition to its monopoly, which led to the establishment of a rival company and the fusion (1708) of the two as the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies. The United Company was organized into a court of 24 directors who worked through committees. They were elected annually by the Court of Proprietors, or shareholders. When the company acquired control of Bengal in 1757, Indian policy was until 1773 influenced by shareholders' meetings, where votes could be bought by the purchase of shares. That arrangement led to government intervention. The Regulating Act (1773) and William Pitt the Younger's India Act (1784) established government control of political policy through a regulatory board responsible to Parliament. Thereafter the company gradually lost both commercial and political control. Its commercial monopoly was broken in 1813, and from 1834 it was merely a managing agency for the British government of India. It was deprived of that role after the Indian Mutiny (1857), and it ceased to exist as a legal entity in 1873.

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### 3.3 Regulating Act

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The Regulating Act was passed in the British Parliament in June 1773. It was the first parliamentary ratification and authorization defining the powers and authority of the East India Company with

respect to its Indian possessions. This Act deserves special mention because it was the first act on the part of the British Government to regulate the affairs of the Company in India. The Company, through a Charter, had only been given trading rights by the British Crown. When it acquired territories in India and slowly but surely converted itself into a ruling body, the Parliament could not accept and regularise this development. Moreover, it was believed that whatever lands the Company acquired were in the name of and on behalf of the King. Therefore, the administration of these territories had to be controlled by the Crown.

Again, merchants and traders could hardly equal the task of administration. This was proved by the growing level of corruption and mismanagement of territorial acquisitions: While the shareholders of the Company were looking for bigger dividends because the Company was playing a double role of trading and ruling, the Company was making big losses and had to be bailed out. To tide over a critical period when finances were low because of Indian wars and growing demand for increased dividends, the Company asked the British Parliament for a loan of E 1,400,000. This gave Parliament a long-awaited chance to assert its right to control the political affairs of the East India Company. They granted the loan on condition that administration in India would be according to directions of the British Parliament. Hence, the Regulating Act of 1773 was passed. Changes introduced by the Regulating Act in England the Court of Proprietors of the Company was reformed. Formerly, a shareholder, holding a stock off 500 and over, became a member of the Court of Proprietors.

The Regulating Act raised it to the minimum to E 1000. This made the Court of Proprietors a compact, better organised body to discharge both its duties and responsibilities. Changes were also made in the Board of Directors. It was now to consist of 24 members elected by the Court of Proprietors every 4 years, 6 directors retiring every year - instead of all the Directors being elected every year as before. This gave the Board some continuity and facilitated better management. Changes introduced by the Regulating Act in India The Governor of Bengal was now designated as the Governor-General of Bengal and Governors of other provinces in India were subordinate to him. The Governor-General was to be assisted by a council of four members sent from England.

Decisions were to be taken by majority vote and the Governor-General Warren Hastings had a casting vote. The British territories in India came to be controlled from Bengal and that in turn was subject to control from England. The Regulating Act set up the Supreme Court at Calcutta with Lord Chief Justice and three judges. This was the Supreme Court of Judicature, the highest court in British India. It had

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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power to exercise civil, criminal, admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. It had jurisdiction over British subjects and Company's servants. But its relations with the existing courts were not defined.

Effects of the Regulating Act The changes in the Company's organisation in England made it more effective managing body at headquarters. The Act created a centralised administration in India, making the Bombay and Madras Governors subordinate to the Governor-General of Bengal. There was a felt need for a uniform policy for the whole of British India, thus, avoiding much wasteful expenditure.

The creation of the Supreme Court made for better justice to British subjects. The Regulating Act brought in a system of checks and balances. It made the Governors subordinate to the Governor-General, the Governor-General subordinate to his Council and the Supreme Court effective in its control over the Governor-General in Council.

The Regulating Act laid the foundation of a Central administration and instituted a system of Parliamentary control. It marked the beginning of the Company's transformation from a trading body to a Corporation of a new kind, entirely administrative in its object and subordinate to Parliament.

### **Defects of the Regulating Act**

Though the Act was expected to regulate and centralise administration to provide better justice and bring in a system of checks and balances, it was found to have serious drawbacks in practice. For example, it had the following defects relating to the Supreme Court:

- i) The ambiguity of jurisdiction between the Supreme Council, and the Governor-General in Council was a drawback in the Act of 1773. The Regulating Act entrusted the entire civil and military administration of the diwani provinces to the Governor-General and Council. But the Supreme Court was also authorised to take cognizance of cases not only against British but also native employees of the Company. It could punish all persons who committed acts of oppression either in the exercise of civil jurisdiction or in the collection of revenue. But the Act did not specify whose authority would be final in case of a conflict between the Council and the Court. These difficulties arose because the Company which was the virtual sovereign of the diwani provinces was not declared to be so by Parliament.
- ii) The Regulations passed by the Governor-General in Council had to be registered by the Supreme Court before they were executed as law. Court's refusal to do it could amount to hamper the smooth working of the administration and there was no explanation provided to this effect.

iii) The Act did not clearly specify which law had to be applied while trying cases. The Court applied English law in all cases even where Indians were charged with offences. This was resented by the Indians.

IV) The Provincial and other Courts were not recognised. All these defects did much harm. The British Government corrected these defects through the Amending Act of 1781.

The drawbacks relating to the Governor-General-in-Council included: The Governor-General was answerable to the Directors and was held responsible for all acts pertaining to the administration in India. But he was not given a free hand as he was bound by the majority decisions of his council. Though this is understandable as part of the system of checks and balances, yet it resulted in the Council taking decisions for which the Governor-General alone was held accountable. There was constant friction between the Governor-General and his Council, as a result, administration suffered.

Though the Governors were subordinate to the Governor-General, yet, in actual practice, they acted independently of Bengal. They justified their action by saying, the matter was urgent and decisions could not be delayed. In this way, the idea of unity and uniformity sought by the Act was defeated in practice.

According to the Regulating Act, the East India Company was to supply all correspondence relating to military, administrative and financial matters to the British Government. This indirect control did not work satisfactorily in practice and the Proprietors and Directors followed a policy based on personal considerations rather than administrative need.

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### **3.4 Pitt's India Act 1784**

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The Pitt's India Act, 1784 also called the East India Company Act, 1784 was passed by the British Parliament to correct the defects of the Regulating Act of 1773. This act resulted in dual control of British possessions in India by the British government and the Company with the final authority resting with the government. This act continued in effect until 1858. The act is named after William Pitt the Younger, Britain's Prime Minister when the act was passed.

Pitt's India Act of 1784 brought about two important changes in the constitution of the company, first, it constituted a department of state in England known as Board of Control, whose special function was to control the policy of the Court of Directors. Secondly, the Act reduced the number of members of the Executive Council to three. It also modified the councils of Madras and Bombay on the pattern of Bengal.

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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In the title of the Act, the Company's territories were called 'the British possessions in India'. This was the first clear assertion of the Crown's claim of ownership over the Indian Territory acquired by the company. Here was an unmistakable expression of the fundamental principle that "the acquisition of sovereignty by subjects of the Crown is on behalf of the crown and not in their own right. 1.5.1 Main Provisions In the first instance, a Board of six commissioners was set up, which was popularly known as the Board of control. The Board consisted of the Chancellor of Exchequer, one of the secretaries of state and four privy councillors to be appointed by the crown.

The Board was given the power to superintend, direct and control all civil, military and revenue affairs of the company. Thus, the controlling authority of this Board over the Directors was specially laid down. The Act created a separate department of the British Government in England whose only function was to exercise control over the Directors of the company and the Indian administration. As time passed, the Chancellor of Exchequer, the Secretary of State and the three ordinary councillors stopped attending the meeting of the Board altogether and the president of the Board became all in all. He was invariably, a member of the British cabinet. This system of Government introduced by the Pitt's India Act is often described as the system of Double Government in England. Two sets of functionaries were recognized for controlling the Indian administration from England. On the one hand, there was the Board of Directors which was in immediate charge of the Indian administration. Patronage or appointments as well as the trading activities of the company remained in the hands of the Directors. On the other hand, there were the representatives of the crown i.e., the Board of control, which was to exercise control on all matters of policy over the directors and the Indian administration. The Directors' no doubt, retained their previous status but they were now made subject to the indirect control of the Government of Great Britain. The Board of control was, in a way, an annexed of the Ministry of the day. Its president changed with the change of the cabinet in England. Secondly, a committee of secrecy of not more than three members was appointed out of the twenty-four directors. All secret orders of the Board were to be transmitted to India through this small body. The other members of the court of Directors could thus be ignored in important matters.

Thirdly, the number of councillors of the Governor-General was reduced to three, including the commander in chief. This was done to increase effectiveness of the casting vote of the Governor-General. In a body of four, the Governor-General could have his way by getting only one member on his side. The difficulties experienced by Warren Hastings in his council were thus sought to be approved. The



councilors, henceforth, were to be appointed from the senior servants of the company.

Fourthly, the presidencies of Madras and Bombay were also given the form of Government prevailing in Bengal. A Governor and three councilors, including a commander-in chief was appointed in each of the two presidencies. Fifthly, the power of the Bengal Government to "superintend, direct and control" the affairs of the subordinate presidencies was made more definite and real. Lastly, the court of proprietors were deprived of their control over the Directors who were thus freed from the sinister influence of persons, whose only interest was to get huge dividends.

### **Provisions of the Act**

For political matters, Board of Control was created and for commercial affairs, the Court of Directors was appointed. The Board of Control took care of civil and military affairs. It comprised of 6 people:

- Secretary of State (Board President)
- Chancellor of the Exchequer
- Four Privy Councillors
- In this dual system of control, the company was represented by the Court of Directors and the British government by the Board of Control.
- The act mandated that all civil and military officers disclose their property in India and Britain within two months of their joining.
- The Governor-General's council's strength was reduced to three members. One of the three would be the Commander-in-Chief of the British Crown's army in India.
- The Governor-General was given the right of veto.
- The Presidencies of Madras and Bombay became subordinate to the Bengal Presidency. In effect, Calcutta became the capital of the British possessions in India.

### **Features of the Act**

This act made a distinction between the commercial and political activities of the East India Company. For the first time, the term 'British possessions in India' was used. This act gave the British government direct control over Indian administration.

The Company became subordinate to the British government unlike as in the previous Regulating Act of 1773, where the government only sought to 'regulate' matters and not take over. This act established the British Crown's authority in civil and military administration of its

*o Growth of British East India Company through acts, regulating act, Pitt's India Act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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Indian territories. Commercial activities were still a monopoly of the Company.

The act was deemed a failure because there was no clarity on the boundaries between the company's powers and the government's authority. The Pitt's India Act was thus set up, for the first time, a regular instrument of the British parliament to control the affairs of the East India company. By introducing the committee of secrecy, it made the working of the Directors more efficient. It was a step in the right direction to deprive the proprietors of their power of interference in political matters. It was also good to strengthen the position of the Bengal Government i.e., the Governor-General in Council over the other two presidencies. The system of Double Government introduced by the Pitt's India Act continued right up to the year 1858, when the dual system was scrapped. The Directors and the company were completely wound up and the entire Indian administration was legally and formally placed under the direct charge of the crown.

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### 3.5 THE CHARTER ACT OF 1813

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This Act was preceded by a searching enquiry conducted by a Committee of the House of Commons into the financial affairs of the Company. The Report of the Committee, in the words of liberty, was a standard authority on Indian land tenures, and the best authority on the judicial and police arrangements of the time. Although the Act renewed the Charter for a further period of twenty years, it took away the exclusive privilege of the Company to trade in India. The Indian trade was thrown open to all British subjects except in tea in which the Company was allowed to retain monopoly. The Act also provided for the maintenance of separate accounts for commercial and political activities by the Company. It confirmed the patronage of the Court of Directors subject to the approval of the Crown in the case of higher appointments and of the Board of Control in the case of certain others. It also limited the number of British troops the Company was allowed to maintain in India at its own expenses. Finally, it allowed British subjects to go out to India either as traders or as missionaries and also to settle down there under a system of licences. The Act thus marks the beginning of the ecclesiastical establishment in India. It also provided for the setting apart of Rs. 100,000 and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of sciences among the inhabitants of the British.

## Importance of the Act

The Act of 1813 is not of much constitutional importance like its predecessor but it is not devoid of significance altogether. It abolished the thus reduced to the position of a competitor competing for Indian trade. It resulted in the rise of the British Trade with 13 million pounds in 1813 to 100 million pounds in 1865. Thus the Britishers were in a position to face With the free flow of English capital and enterprise in India, an era of exploitation ushered in. The British factories eclipsed the Indian industries and the British merchants with their cheaper and superior goods ousted their Indian fellow workers. In the approximately begins the ruin of Indian industries, the growing dependence. The Act paved the ways for the spread of Christianity. The English missionaries by establishing missionary schools and colleges at various places in India succeeded in influencing illiterate Indians and making them embrace Christianity. The Act is also quite significant because in its Preamble, it asserted the undoubted sovereignty of the Crown of United Kingdom in and over the territories of the Company.

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### 3.6 THE CHARTER ACT OF 1833

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All the Acts passed by the British Parliament to regulate the affairs of the East India Company, the Charter Act of 1833 stands out as the most comprehensive and far reaching in effect. There were circumstances both in India and England which necessitated the passing of the Act. In India, the policy of intervention and territorial aggrandisement pursued by Wellesley and Hastings had added enormously to the territories of the Company and also to the consequent difficulties in administration. In England, Parliamentary reforms had brought into being a reformed House of Commons where liberalism was as the ascendancy. Further that was a clamour for freedom of trade in India, unrestricted immigration of Europeans into India, reform of Indian laws and also important to mention the influence, among others, of two Liberals who were intimately associated with James Mill. The former, who was then in Parliament, was Secretary to the Board of Control, and the latter was Examiner of Indian Correspondence at India House.

As a result of the Act, the last traces of the commercial monopoly which the Company enjoyed were abolished and all restrictions to European immigration into India were removed. The unhindered flow of Europeans into India made the reform of Indian Law imperative. But the powers exercised by the Governor-General in Council were not sufficient to meet the situation. Such laws were not to be registered with the Supreme Court, but automatically to become Acts of the Governor-General in Council. The three great principles

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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which were to govern such codification, according to where you must Governor-General in Council, a Law Member, an English Barrister, was added -making would override the authority of the Governors of Madras and Bombay who were at the same time deprived of their independent powers of law-making. Macaulay was the first Law Member under the Act and also appointed the President of the Law Commission.

The administration in India, namely, the union of the trader with the sovereign, by ordering the Company to close its commercial business as soon as possible. Another interesting provision of the Act dealt with education and employment territories, nor any natural born subject of His Majesty resident therein, shall be reason only of his religion, place of birth, descent, colour or any of them, be was this clause which, according to Lord Morley, made the Act of 1833 the most important Indian Act passed by Parliament till 1909. Whether the policy initiated in this provision was given effect in practice or not, it certainly reflects indeed a liberal and humanitarian attitude on the part of the British Parliament.

The Act of power is intended to be reserved to Parliament to control, supersede or prevent-General in Council and he said territories and all the inhabitants thereof in as full and ample a manner as if the Act had not been passed. The Act directed the Governor-General in Council to take steps both for the amelioration of slaves in India and to propose measures for the abolition of slavery throughout India.

While the Regulating Act had initiated a process of centralisation by creating the office of the Governor-General, the Act of 1833 marked the culmination of that process by establishing the complete mastery of the Governor-General in Council over the entire British Indian administration. From 1833 to 1861 when the Indian Councils Act was passed, British India was in the grip of this highly centralised system of administration which had its impact on the character of the British Government in India until its disappearance in 1947.

### **Significance of the Act**

The Charter Act of 1833 is deemed to be the most significant measure enacted by the British Parliament during the nineteenth century. Other constitutional measures of the current century pale into insignificance when compared individually with it. Lord Morley truly describes it as "the most extensive measure of the Indian Government between Mr. Pitt's Act of 1784 and Queen Victoria's assumption of the powers of government in 1858." Indeed the Act not only affected changes of far-reaching importance in the Government of India, but

also made such benign declarations and touched at broad humanitarian principles.

Section 87 of the Act embodied excellent sentiments, of the British politicians of the time, towards Indian masses. Fitness henceforth was to be the only criterion of eligibility in matters of higher services. The natives were not to be debarred from holding any office under the Company, simply on the basis of religion, place of birth, descent or colour. Ramsay Muir eulogised this section of the Act by describing it as "an unparalleled declaration which a ruling class can announce in regard to its recently conquered subjects". Macaulay termed it a wise and benevolent and noble clause of the Act. Explaining the significance of Section 87 of the Act, the Despatch observed that its object was 'not to ascertain the qualification but to remove disqualification'.

The gracious declaration was laudable indeed but was not of much practical significance, for despite the views of Munro, Malcolm, Elphinstone, Sheman and Bishop Heber, nothing was done to repeal the provision of the Act of 1793, which excluded any but covenanted servants from occupying places worth over £ 500 a year. In the words of Punniah, "The declaration remained for long in the tantalizing realm of unfulfilled aspirations."1 Dr. Ishwari Prasad remarks that the declaration "was more honoured in the breach than in the observance by those who were entrusted with the governance of India".

Though conflicting opinions have been expressed regarding section 87 of the Act yet the benevolent intentions of its authors cannot be challenged. Moreover, it seemed as an impetus to the leaders of political agitation in the last decades of the 19th century. Inspired by this noble declaration, educated Indians proceeded to England for prosecuting higher studies. They were extremely disappointed when, on their return, they found themselves excluded from all but the subordinate service posts. Thus discontent against the Britishers got aggravated which ultimately intensified the political agitation.

Alterations of vital importance were made in the legislative system of India. The Act aimed at simplification of law, which it sought to obtain by centralization of legislation. Hence, the Governor-General-in-Council was empowered to make laws extended to all places and all things within the territories of the company. It ushered in an era of 'an enlightened and paternal despotism'.

The Act, by abolishing completely the Company's monopoly of the tea trade and trade with China, removed one of the most glaring defects of the Indian administration, i.e., the union of traders and sovereign. The Company ceased to be a commercial body. It was to act

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as an administrative body in future. Till its abolition in 1858, the Company was vested with political functions only. In the words of Keith "Maculay defended this position and the retention of the Company on the ground that it was not desirable to give so much uncontrolled power to the Crown, for Parliament was incapable of exercising effective supervision over Indian Government."

The Act unsealed for the first time the doors of British India to British subjects of European birth. They were entitled to live in the country and even occupy land. This free ingress of Europeans in India promoted their general improvement and prosperity. A few critics however opine those mass exoduses of Europeans to India resulted in the exploitation of Indian people who were the customers for English goods.

The Act constituted a 'Law Commission' with Macaulay as its first President. The Indian Penal Code and the Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure are the outcome of efforts of this Commission, headed as it was by an embodiment of legal acumen and practical sagacity. The codification of laws which were so imperfect and capricious is a commendable contribution of the Act. As already stated, codification of laws facilitated centralization still further.

In the words of Marshman, "The separation now effected of the functions of the State from all commercial speculations served to give a more elevated tone to the views and policy of the Court of Directors and to impart a more efficient character to their administration."<sup>4</sup> Since the Directors were henceforth not to concern themselves with the management of huge commercial establishment, they devoted their attention to the amelioration of the lot of the servants of the Company in India, by passing measures moderate and beneficent in nature.

Thus we can safely conclude that the Act of 1833 was a measure of great constitutional significance. It removed some of the potent defects in the system of administration. It introduced uniformity in the laws of government by establishing the legislative supremacy of the Central Government and doing away with diversities in the laws of different Presidencies. It eradicated the anomalies and the conflicts in the jurisdiction of various courts. It effected uniformity in general administration by concentrating the executive and financial administration in the hands of the Governor-General. It succeeded in establishing the supremacy of the Crown and Parliament in the management of the Indian affairs, by clipping the wings of the Court of Directors.

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### 3.7 THE CHARTER ACT, 1853

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The most significant provision of the Act of 1853 was that it did not renew the Charter for a specified period. Instead, it said that the Indian territories would remain under the government of the Directors to eighteen from twenty four and provided that six of them should be appointed by the Crown. It authorised the appointment of a Lieutenant Governor for Bengal. It also provided for the enlargement of the Executive Council of the Governor-General to cope with its extended functions in law making. Finally it took away the patronage of appointments from the Court of Directors, and the Civil Service of India was thrown open to competition. A year later by a new enactment, the Act of 1854, Parliament provided for the appointment of Chief Commissioners to head minor provinces in India.

#### **Constitutional Importance of the Act**

The Charter Act of 1853 is a measure of constitutional importance. The fact that the Company's Charter was not renewed for any definite period, made it crystal clear that Company's end was fast approaching. The clause, "territories and revenues of India were to be held by the Company in the trust for Her Majesty, her heirs and successors until Parliament shall otherwise provide," clearly indicated that the transfer from the Company to the Crown was apt to take place in the near future. The inevitable happened in 1858.

The Act created a separate Legislative Council. Strictly speaking, it was not a separate Legislative Council. The Executive Council was only enlarged for purposes of legislation. Yet in the words of the authors of Montford Report it was in 1853 that "legislation was for the first time treated as a special function of the government requiring special machinery and special process." Indeed, the Act turned the small legislative body in India into an Anglo-Indian House of Commons, questioning the acts of the Executive.

The Act implemented the high sounding noble declaration contained in section 87 of the Charter Act of 1833. Henceforth, the recruitment was to be made on the basis of merit. A Committee was appointed in 1854, with Lord Macaulay as the President to frame rules and regulations according to which the covenanted civil service was thrown open to competition. Though, practically speaking, the Indians were not benefited substantially by this gracious concession, yet it was a commendable step providing for a further progress in this direction.

The appointment of English Law Commission, to examine and consider the mass of reports and drafts left by the Indian Law Commission, now a defunct body, was a matter of great significance. Its labours bore fruit. Indian Penal Code and Civil and Criminal

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Procedure Codes' were enacted into law. They can be deemed as important contributions of the Act. The Act effected important changes in the administrative structure of India. It was realized that the interests of Bengal had suffered to a great extent for want of a permanent head of the Government. Relieving the Governor General of a great burden by making a provision for a separate Governor for Bengal was, in fact, a great improvement in administrative structure of India.

The Act considerably enhanced the prestige of the President of the Board of Control by placing him on par with the Secretary of State as regards his salary and rank. The Act is considered to be a measure of great constitutional significance as it deprived the Directors totally, of their cherished privilege of making appointments. Reduction of their number from 24 to 18 and also placing six Directors in the pocket of the Crown further reduced their authority, rather dealt a severe blow to the Court of Directors which was already on its last legs. Punniiah remarks "Under these circumstances, there would therefore be no obstacle for the transfer of the Indian territories, to the Crown when Parliament in the natural course of things would come to consider the matter in 1873. The mutiny only accelerated this process."

With all its creditable provisions, the Act was not free from flaws. It did not associate any Indian with the legislative body whereas its English members were not aware of the local conditions. The exclusion of Indians aggravated discontent and proved to be one of the most important reasons for the outbreak of the mutiny. Moreover, caste and religious differences, the heavy expenditure entailed in the competitive examinations and the long distance, still stood in the way of natives aspiring to hold important offices under the Company's administration.

The Act ignored the most important demand of Bengal petitioners who had aspired for a sort of Provincial autonomy. Lastly the most glaring defect of administration, viz., the Double Government still persisted. Though the wings of the Directors were clipped yet they still exercised considerable influence.



### Check Your Progress

1. What was the name of the East Indian company Names?
2. When and where was the Regulating Act in India?
3. When was the growth of Acts in East India Company?
4. Why did Pitt's Indian Act Pssing?
5. Draw on the Charter Act?

*o Growth of british east india company through acts, regulating act, pitt's india act, charter act of 1813, 1833 & 1853*

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### 3.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. East India Company, also called English East India Company, formally (1600–1708) Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading into the East Indies or (1708–1873)
2. United Company of Merchants of England Trading to the East Indies, English company formed for the exploitation of trade with East and Southeast Asia and India, incorporated by royal charter on December 31, 1600.
3. The Act of 1813 is not of much constitutional importance like its predecessor but it is not devoid of significance altogether.
4. The Pitt's India Act, 1784 also called the East India Company Act, 1784 was passed by the British Parliament to correct the defects of the Regulating Act of 1773.
5. This act resulted in dual control of British possessions in India by the British government and the Company with the final authority resting with the government.
6. This act continued in effect until 1858. The act is named after William Pitt the Younger, Britain's Prime Minister when the act was passed.
7. On the eve of the renewal of the Charter Act in 1813 a controversy was raised as to whether the Company should continue to enjoy commercial monopoly in India.

8. The Charter Act of 1833 gave another lease of life for twenty years to the East India Company which was to administer the Indian territories "in trust for His Majesty, his heirs and successors".

9. The Charter Act of 1853 empowered the British East India Company to retain the territories and the revenues in India in trust for the crown not for any specified period as preceding Charter Acts had provided but only until Parliament should otherwise direct.

10. This was framed on the basis of reports made by the select committees of enquiry in 1852.

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### 3.9 SUMMARY

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- Company of Merchants formed for the exploitation of trade with East and Southeast Asia and India, incorporated by royal charter on December 31, 1600.
- East India Company, formally (1600–1708) Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading into the East Indies (1708–1873)
- The Act of 1813 is not of much constitutional importance and Education developments
- The Pitt's India Act, 1784 was passed by the British Parliament to correct the defects of the Regulating Act of 1773.
- This act resulted in dual control of British possessions in India by the British government.
- The Charter Act in 1813 a controversy was raised as to whether the Company should continue to enjoy commercial monopoly.
- The Charter Act of 1853 empowered the British East India Company to retain the territories and the revenues in India and also to provide but only until Parliament should otherwise direct.

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### 3.10 KEYWORDS

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- **The Act of 1813:** It is a Charter Act.
- **The Act of 1853:** It is a one of the important Charter Act
- **The Pitt's India Act :** was passed by the British Parliament in the Lord of Ilaya Pitt

- **East India Company:** there is also called English East India Company

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### 3.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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#### Short Answer Questions

*Notes*

1. Write a note on the discovery of East Indian Company Acts?
2. Discuss the role of the Regulating Act?
3. Briefly discuss Pitt's India Act?
4. Discuss the causes of the Charter Act 1813?
5. Give a brief sketch of the Charter Act 1833?
6. Discuss the causes of the Charter Act 1853?

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss the expansion of the East Indian Company through ActsIndia?
2. What was the role of Charter Act in 1813?
3. How did the Pitt's Act in India? Explain.
4. Explain to breif the Charter Act in 1853?

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### 3.12 FURTHER READINGS

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1. Agarwal R.C- Constitutional History of India and National Movement
2. Vincent A Smith- The Oxford History of India
3. Mahajan V.D- Modern Indian History From 1707 to Present day

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## **UNIT-4 COLONIALISM IN INDIA, GOVERNOR GENERALS AND THEIR POLICIES, PERMANENT SETTLEMENT, SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCE**

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- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Colonialism in India
- 4.4 Governor Generals and their policies
- 4.5 Permanent Settlement
- 4.6 Subsidiary Alliance
- 4.5 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 4.6 Summary
- 4.7 Keywords
- 4.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 4.9 Further Readings

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### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Colonialism, as a historical phenomenon of territorial expansion, is intimately connected with the rise and growth of the modern capitalist world system. So it is entwined with history, economics, politics, etc., of the modern capitalist society. Colonialism is a complex phenomenon of capitalist expansion. In a narrow sense, colonialism refers to the process of control of supplies of raw materials, mineral resources, and markets in underdeveloped and pre--capitalist regions. Such narrow definition of colonialism overlooks a vital aspect of colonialism relating to political activity and the drive for dominance over the daily lives of the people of colonies.

In a modern sense, colonialism is a general description of the state of subjection—political, economic, and intellectual—of a non-European society as a result of the process of colonial organisation. Colonialism deprives a society of its freedom and its earth and, above all, it leaves its people intellectually and morally disoriented.

Colonialism, as a historical phenomenon, refers to foreign domination which implies that the colonised area is regulated in a manner known as 'unequal exchange'. Colonised societies are intended to serve the interests of the ruling country. Thus, by colonialism, we mean a system of political and social relations between two countries—of which one is the ruler and the other is its colony. So colonialism refers to foreign domination in social, economic, and political policies of the colony countries. Obviously, the destiny of the colony is governed by the policies of the foreign country so as to sub-serve the interests of the ruling country.

The economic and social development of a colonial country is completely subordinated to the ruling country. Colonial economy is stripped off all independent economic decisions. The development of agricultural, utilisation of the country's vast natural resources, its industrial and tariff policies, trading relations with foreign countries, and so on are left into the hands of the ruling country.

In summary, economic policies of colonies conform to the interests of the rulers and not of the subjects. Obviously, this unequal relationship between these countries results in a state of underdevelopment of the colony. India was the largest colonial possession of Britain. She was able to exploit India for nearly 200 years—1757 to 1947.

Colonialism in India, as a historical phenomenon, was as modern as industrial capitalism in Britain. Further, colonial Indian economy had been integrated with world capitalism. The historical process that led to colonial integration of India with world capitalist economy inevitably led to the underdevelopment of India, or "the development of underdevelopment." Above all, Indian economy and her social developments were completely tied to the British economy and social development.

According to the wishes and whims of the British State situated in London the Indian economy was managed. The Government was not well fitted to the task of bringing about a favourable change. As soon

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as industrial revolution in England got momentum, Great Britain was transformed into a leading nation of the world. On the other hand, India was transformed in a skilful way into a leading backward colonial country of the world. Of course, these two processes are not independent of each other—at least in terms of cause and effect. In this connection, it is to be pointed out here that the colonial integration with the world capitalist economy occurred during the 19th century on the plea of modernisation, economic development, and trans-plantation of capitalism in India.

To safeguard the interests of the British Government, India was transformed into a chief market for British manufactured articles. India's industrialisation was scrupulously thwarted. India became a rich source of supply of raw materials for Britain's industries. In fact, India was made "supplier of anything and everything, mender, repairer of all things on earth, but maker of none." India became the solid as well as the most remunerative field for investment of British capital.

The claim that Britain was an agency of 'modernisation' had been belied by the all-round British control over the entire transport system, banking and insurance business, industries and mines, foreign trade, and what not. The benefits of all these services flowed to Britain while putting India in a grave situation. Thus, what development took place in India during the British rule was extremely unpalatable to India. What emerges from this discussion is that colonialism is not to be identified only with political control or colonial policy. It is something more than that. It is best seen as a totality or a unified structure.

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## **4.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Examine the Colonialism in India
- Explain the Governor Generals
- Discuss Subsidiary Alliance

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### 4.3 Colonialism in India Portuguese

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Colonial India was the part of the Indian subcontinent which was under the jurisdiction of European colonial powers, during the Age of Discovery. European power was exerted both by conquest and trade, especially in spices. The search for the wealth and prosperity of India led to the colonization of the Americas by Christopher Columbus in 1492. Only a few years later, near the end of the 15th century, Portuguese sailor Vasco da Gama became the first European to re-establish direct trade links with India since Roman times by being the first to arrive by circumnavigating Africa (c. 1497–1499). Having arrived in Calicut, which by then was one of the major trading ports of the eastern world, he obtained permission to trade in the city from Saamoothiri Rajah.

Trading rivalries among the seafaring European powers brought other European powers to India. The Dutch Republic, England, France, and Denmark-Norway all established trading posts in India in the early 17th century. As the Mughal Empire disintegrated in the early 18th century, and then as the Maratha Empire became weakened after the third battle of Panipat, many relatively weak and unstable Indian states which emerged were increasingly open to manipulation by the Europeans, through dependent Indian rulers.

In the later 18th century Great Britain and France struggled for dominance, partly through proxy Indian rulers but also by direct military intervention. The defeat of the formidable Indian ruler Tipu Sultan in 1799 marginalised the French influence. This was followed by a rapid expansion of British power through the greater part of the Indian subcontinent in the early 19th century. By the middle of the century the British had already gained direct or indirect control over almost all of India. British India, consisting of the directly-ruled British presidencies and provinces, contained the most populous and valuable parts of the British Empire and thus became known as "the jewel in the British crown".

Long after the decline of the Roman Empire's sea-borne trade with India, the Portuguese were the next Europeans to sail there for the purpose of trade, first arriving by ship in May 1498. The closing of the traditional trade routes in western Asia by the Ottoman Empire, and rivalry with the Italian states, sent Portugal in search of an alternate sea route to India. The first successful voyage to India was by Vasco da Gama in 1498, when after sailing around the Cape of Good Hope he arrived in Calicut, now in Kerala. Having arrived there, he obtained from Saamoothiri Rajah Permission to trade in the city. The navigator was received with traditional hospitality, but an interview with the Saamoothiri (Zamorin) failed to produce any definitive results. Vasco

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da Gama requested permission to leave a factor behind in charge of the merchandise he could not sell; his request was refused, and the king insisted that Gama should pay customs duty like any other trader, which strained their relations.

Though Portugal presence in India initially started in 1498, its colonial rule ranges from 1505 to 1961. The Portuguese Empire established the first European trading centre at Kollam, Kerala. In 1505, King Manuel I of Portugal appointed Dom Francisco de Almeida as the first Portuguese viceroy in India, followed in 1509 by Dom Afonso de Albuquerque. In 1510, Albuquerque conquered the city of Goa, which had been controlled by Muslims. He inaugurated the policy of marrying Portuguese soldiers and sailors with local Indian girls, the consequence of which was a great miscegenation in Goa and other Portuguese territories in Asia. Another feature of the Portuguese presence in India was their will to evangelise and promote Catholicism. In this, the Jesuits played a fundamental role, and to this day the Jesuit missionary Saint Francis Xavier is revered among the Catholics of India.

The Portuguese established a chain of outposts along India's west coast and on the island of Ceylon in the early 16th century. They built the St. Angelo Fort at Kannur to guard their possessions in North Malabar. Goa was their prized possession and the seat of Portugal's viceroy. Portugal's northern province included settlements at Daman, Diu, Chaul, Baçaim, Salsette, and Mumbai. The rest of the northern province, with the exception of Daman and Diu, was lost to the Maratha Empire in the early 18th century.

In 1661, Portugal was at war with Spain and needed assistance from England. This led to the marriage of Princess Catherine of Portugal to Charles II of England, who imposed a dowry that included the insular and less inhabited areas of southern Bombay while the Portuguese managed to retain all the mainland territory north of Bandra up to Thana and Bassein. This was the beginning of the English presence in India.

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## **Dutch**

### **European settlements in India (1501–1739)**

The Dutch East India Company established trading posts on different parts along the Indian coast. For some while, they controlled the Malabar southwest coast (Pallipuram, Cochin, Cochin de Baixo/Santa

Cruz, Quilon (Coilan), Cannanore, Kundapura, Kayamkulam, Ponnani

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) and the Coromandel southeastern coast. (Golkonda, Bhimunipatnam, Kakinda, Palikol, Pulicat, Parangipettai, Negapatnam) and Surat (1616–1795).

They conquered Ceylon from the Portuguese. The Dutch also established trading stations in Travancore and coastal Tamil Nadu as well as at Rajshahi in present-day Bangladesh, Pipely, Hugli-Chinsura, and Murshidabad in present-day West Bengal, Balasore (Baleswar or Bellasoor) in Odisha, and Ava, Arakan, and Syriam in present-day Myanmar (Burma). Ceylon was lost at the Congress of Vienna in the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars, where the Dutch having fallen subject to France, saw their colonies raided by Britain. The Dutch later became less involved in India, as they had the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) as their prized possession.

## **English and British India**

### **Rivalry with the Netherlands**

At the end of the 16th century, England and the United Netherlands began to challenge Portugal's monopoly of trade with Asia, forming private joint-stock companies to finance the voyages: the English (later British) East India Company, and the Dutch East India Company, which were chartered in 1600 and 1602 respectively. These companies were intended to carry on the lucrative spice trade, and they focused their efforts on the areas of production, the Indonesian archipelago and especially the "Spice Islands", and on India as an important market for the trade. The close proximity of London and Amsterdam across the North Sea, and the intense rivalry between England and the Netherlands, inevitably led to conflict between the two companies, with the Dutch gaining the upper hand in the Moluccas (previously a Portuguese stronghold) after the withdrawal of the English in 1622, but with the English enjoying more success in India, at Surat, after the establishment of a factory in 1613. Fort St. George was founded at Madras in 1639

The Netherlands' more advanced financial system and the three Anglo-Dutch Wars of the 17th century left the Dutch as the dominant naval and trading power in Asia. Hostilities ceased after the Glorious Revolution of 1688, when the Dutch prince William of Orange ascended the English throne, bringing peace between the Netherlands and England. A deal between the two nations left the more valuable spice trade of the Indonesian archipelago to the Netherlands and the textiles industry of India to England, but textiles overtook spices in terms of profitability, so that by 1720, in terms of sales, the

English company had overtaken the Dutch. The English East India Company shifted its focus from Surat—a hub of the spice trade network—to Fort St. George.

### **East India Company rule in India**

In 1757 Mir Jafar, the commander in chief of the army of the Nawab of Bengal, along with Jagat Seth, Maharaja Krishna Nath, Umi Chand and some others, secretly connived with the British, asking support to overthrow the Nawab in return for trade grants. The British forces, whose sole duty until then was guarding Company property, were numerically inferior to the Bengali armed forces. At the Battle of Plassey on 23 June 1757, fought between the British under the command of Robert Clive and the Nawab, Mir Jafar's forces betrayed the Nawab and helped defeat him. Jafar was installed on the throne as a British subservient ruler. The battle transformed British perspective as they realised their strength and potential to conquer smaller Indian kingdoms and marked the beginning of the imperial or colonial era in South Asia.

British policy in Asia during the 19th century was chiefly concerned with expanding and protecting its hold on India, viewed as its most important colony and the key to the rest of Asia. The East India Company drove the expansion of the British Empire in Asia. The company's army had first joined forces with the Royal Navy during the Seven Years' War, and the two continued to cooperate in arenas outside India: the eviction of Napoleon from Egypt (1799), the capture of Java from the Netherlands (1811), the acquisition of Singapore (1819) and Malacca (1824), and the defeat of Burma (1826).

From its base in India, the company had also been engaged in an increasingly profitable opium export trade to China since the 1730s. This trade helped reverse the trade imbalances resulting from the British imports of tea, which saw large outflows of silver from Britain to China. In 1839, the confiscation by the Chinese authorities at Canton of 20,000 chests of opium led Britain to attack China in the First Opium War, and the seizure by Britain of the island of Hong Kong, at that time a minor settlement.

The British had direct or indirect control over all of present-day India before the middle of the 19th century. In 1857, a local rebellion by an army of sepoys escalated into the Rebellion of 1857, which took six months to suppress with heavy loss of life on both sides, although the loss of British lives is in the range of a few thousand, the loss on the Indian side was in the hundreds of thousands. The trigger for the Rebellion has been a subject of controversy. The resistance, although short-lived, was triggered by British East India Company attempts to

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expand its control of India. According to Olson, several reasons may have triggered the Rebellion. For example, Olson concludes that the East India Company's attempt to annex and expand its direct control of India, by arbitrary laws such as Doctrine of Lapse, combined with employment discrimination against Indians, and contributed to the 1857 Rebellion. The East India Company officers lived like princes, the company finances were in shambles, and the company's effectiveness in India was examined by the British crown after 1858. As a result, the East India Company lost its powers of government and British India formally came under direct British rule, with an appointed Governor-General of India. The East India Company was dissolved the following year in 1858. A few years later, Queen Victoria took the title of Empress of India.

India suffered a series of serious crop failures in the late 19th century, leading to widespread famines in which at least 10 million people died. Responding to earlier famines as threats to the stability of colonial rule, the East India Company had already begun to concern itself with famine prevention during the early colonial period. This greatly expanded during the Raj, in which commissions were set up after each famine to investigate the causes and implement new policies, which took until the early 1900s to have an effect.

The slow but momentous reform movement developed gradually into the Indian Independence Movement. During the years of World War I, the hitherto bourgeois "home-rule" movement was transformed into a popular mass movement by Mahatma Gandhi, a pacifist. Apart from Gandhi, other revolutionaries such as Bagha Jatin, Khudiram Bose, Bhagat Singh, Chandrashekar Azad, Surya Sen, Subhas Chandra Bose, and Pradyumn Ananth Pendyala were not against use of violence to oppose the British rule. The independence movement attained its objective with the independence of Pakistan and India on 14 and 15 August 1947 respectively.

Conservative elements in England consider the independence of India to be the moment that the British Empire ceased to be a world power, following Curzon's dictum that, "while we hold on to India, we are a first-rate power. If we lose India, we will decline to a third-rate power."

### **French India**

Following the Portuguese, English, and Dutch, the French also established trading bases in India. Their first establishment was in Pondicherry on the Coromandel Coast in southeastern India in 1674. Subsequent French settlements were Chandernagore in Bengal, northeastern India in 1688, Yanam in Andhra Pradesh in 1723, Mahe in 1725, and Karaikal in 1739. The French were constantly in conflict

with the Dutch and later on mainly with the British in India. At the height of French power in the mid-18th century, the French occupied large areas of southern India and the area lying in today's northern Andhra Pradesh and Odisha. Between 1744 and 1761, the British and the French repeatedly attacked and conquered each other's forts and towns in southeastern India and in Bengal in the northeast. After some initial French successes, the British decisively defeated the French in Bengal in the Battle of Plassey in 1757 and in the southeast in 1761 in the Battle of Wandiwash, after which the British East India Company was the supreme military and political power in southern India as well as in Bengal. In the following decades it gradually increased the size of the territories under its control. The enclaves of Pondichéry, Karaikal, Yanam, Mahé and Chandernagore were returned to France in 1816 and were integrated with the Republic of India in 1954.

### **Danish India**

Denmark–Norway held colonial possessions in India for more than 200 years, but the Danish presence in India was of little significance to the major European powers as they presented neither a military nor a mercantile threat. Denmark–Norway established trading outposts in Tranquebar, Tamil Nadu (1620), Serampore, West Bengal (1755), Calicut, Kerala (1752) and the Nicobar Islands (1750s). At one time, the main Danish and Swedish East Asia companies together imported more tea to Europe than the British did. Their outposts lost economic and strategic importance, and Tranquebar, the last Dano-Norwegian outpost, was sold to the British on 16 October 1868.

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## **4.4 GOVERNOR GENERALS OF INDIA**

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General awareness is an important part of any entrance examination but is often ignored by candidates as they tend to focus more on other subjects like Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Analytical Reasoning. In any competitive examination, around 25% of the paper features questions that are based on General Knowledge. So, if you're aspiring to get an admission into the top colleges across the country or crack any Government job exam, then it is essential to stay abreast of current affairs and General Knowledge topics. Having a firm grip on the General Knowledge topics and questions not only enables you to score higher in lesser time but also gives you an edge over others in Group Discussions and Personal Interviews.

General Knowledge can cover a variety of topics like the Physical Geography, the Indian and World Geography & History, Everyday Science, International Organizations, Awards & Honors, Everyday

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Science, Indian Economy & Politics, The Constitution of India, Current Affairs, etc. Today, in this article, we're focusing on one important aspect of the Indian History that usually finds its way in the entrance exams i.e. the Governor General and Viceroy of India.

On this page, you can find all the important and relevant information about the Governor Generals of India, their achievements, and the important events that took place during their tenure as the Governor Generals of India.

Warren Hastings was an English statesman and the first Governor of the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), the head of the Supreme Council of Bengal, and thereby the first de facto Governor General of India.

Hastings brought the Dual Government system to an end by enforcing the Regulating Act of 1773. The Zamindars were given judicial powers and civil and criminal courts were established in each district during his tenure as the Governor General of India. Warren Hastings founded the Calcutta Madrasa for the promotion of Islamic studies in 1781 and founded the Asiatic Society of Bengal with William Jones in 1784. Hastings was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in 1801.

Sir John Macpherson temporarily held the position of the Governor General of India. He was the acting Governor-General of Bengal from 1785 to 1786.

### **Lord Cornwallis**

Lord Cornwallis enjoyed the confidence of the British Government and was knighted in 1786. In the same year he was appointed as the Governor-General of India and the Commander-in-chief of India.

Lord Cornwallis enacted various significant reforms within the East India Company and its territories, including the Cornwallis code, part of which was responsible for implementing a number of significant land taxation reforms known as the Permanent Settlement of Bengal (also known as the Zamindari system). The settlement was an agreement between the East India Company and the then Bengali landlords to fix revenues to be raised from land. He was the pioneer of the Police reforms according to which each district was divided into 400 square miles and placed under a police superintendent. Lord Cornwallis also introduced Civil Services in our country and established lower courts and appellate courts. From 1789 to 1792, he led the British and Company forces in the Third Anglo-Mysore War to defeat Tipu Sultan, the ruler of Mysore.

Sir John Shore succeeded Lord Cornwallis as the Governor General of India in 1793. The period of Sir John Shore's rule as the governor-general of India was comparatively uneventful as he followed the policy of non-intervention.

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Sir John Shore introduced the Charter Act of 1793. The attack of the Marathas on the Nizam was the important event that happened during his tenure as the Governor General of India.

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- Established lower courts and appellate courts
- Sanskrit College established by Jonathan Duncan
- Permanent Settlement in Bihar and Bengal in 1793
- Introduction of Cornwallis Code
- Introduction of Civil Services in India
- 3rd Anglo-Mysore War (defeat of Tipu and the Treaty of Serinagpatanam, 1792).

### **Lord Wellesley**

Lord Wellesley became the Governor General of India at a time when the British were involved in a life and death struggle with France all over the world. He soon realized that the political conditions in India were favorable for the expansion of the British Empire in India.

Lord Wellesley adopted the policy of Subsidiary Alliance to keep the Indian rulers under control and to further strengthen the British Empire in India. He opened a college to train the Company's servants in Calcutta and is known as the Father of Civil Services in India. Lord Wellesley founded the Fort William College in Calcutta, which was a training center for those who would be involved in governing India. The important events that took place during Lord Wellesley's tenure as the Governor General of India were the fourth Anglo-Mysore War (1799) and the second Anglo-Maratha War (1803-1805).

Sir George Barlow served as the Acting Governor General of India from 1805 to 1807 until the arrival of Lord Minto in 1807. He is perhaps the only Governor General of India who diminished the area of British territory because of his passion for economy and retrenchment.

It was during the tenure of Sir George Barlow that the Mutiny of Vellore took place in 1806 in which the Indian soldiers killed many English officials.

Lord Minto was a well-trained politician and had been engaged for many years in the management of public affairs.

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Lord Minto concluded the treaty of Amritsar with Maharaja Ranjit Singh in 1809. He also introduced the Charter Act of 1813.

Lord Hastings served as the Governor General of India from 1813 to 1823, a long ten years term. His tenure is known for the policy of intervention and war.

Lord Hastings put an end to the policy of non-intervention which was adopted by John Shore. He abolished the censorship of the press and established the Ryotwari System in Madras and the Mahalwari System in Central India, Punjab, and Western UP. The important events that took place during the tenure of Lord Hastings are Third Anglo-Maratha War (1816-1818), the treaty of Sagauli with Nepal in 1816, and the creation of Bombay Presidency in 1818.

- He adopted the policy of Subsidiary Alliance- a system to keep the Indian rulers under control and to make British the supreme power.
- Fort William College at Calcutta.
- Formation of Madras Presidency in 1801.
- 4th Anglo-Mysore War (1799)-defeat and the death of Tipu Sultan; 2nd Anglo-Maratha War (1803–05)-defeat of the Scindia, the Bhonsle and the Holkar; Treaty of Bassein (1802).

### **Lord Amherst (1823-1828)**

Lord Amherst was the Governor General of India from 1823 to 1828. The principal events of his tenure were the annexation of Assam leading to the first Burmese war of 1824, resulting in the surrender of Arakan and Tenasserim to the British Empire. The mutiny of Barrackpur in 1824 also took place during Lord Amherst's tenure.

- First Anglo Burmese War (1824-26)
- Acquisition of territories in Malay Peninsula; Capture of Bharatpur (1826).

### **Lord William Bentinck (1828-1835)**

Lord William Bentinck is known as the liberal Governor General of India. He is credited with very important social and educational reforms in India including the abolishing of Sati, the suppression of female infanticide and Thuggee, ending lawlessness, human sacrifices.

Lord William Bentinck was instrumental in introducing English as the langue of instruction in India.



- Most liberal and enlightened Governor-General of India; Regarded as the Father of Modern Western Education in India

- He carried out social reforms such as the abolition of Sati Pratha with the help of Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Suppression of Thuggee.

- Annexation of Mysore (1831).

- Passed the Charter Act of 1833, which provided that no Indian subject of Company was to be debarred from holding an office on account of his religion, place of birth, descent and colour.

- On the recommendation of Macaulay Committee made English the medium of higher education in India.

- Established first Medical College in Calcutta.

### **Sir Charles Metcalfe (1835-1836)**

Sir Charles Metcalfe held the office of the Governor-General of India briefly for a year. His tenure is remembered for the carrying out and execution of all the measures that were initiated before him by Lord William Bentinck.

Sir Charles Metcalfe removed the restrictions on the Vernacular Press and repealed the 1823 licensing regulations.

### **Lord Auckland (1836-1842)**

Lord Auckland served as the Governor General of India from 1836 to 1842. As a legislator, he dedicated himself especially to the improvement of native schools and the expansion of the commercial industry of India.

During Lord Auckland's tenure, the first Anglo-Afghan war gave a severe blow to the British Prestige in India.

### **Lord Ellenborough (1842-44)**

- Brought an end to the Afghan War. Annexation of Sindh (1843)

- War with Gwalior (1843).

### **Lord Hardinge I (1844-48)**

- 1st Anglo-Sikh war (1845-46) and the Treaty of Lahore 1846 (marked the end of Sikh sovereignty in India.

- Gave preference to English education in employment

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

James Andrew Ramsay, also known as Lord Dalhousie served as the Governor General of India from 1848 to 1856. During his tenure, the Second Anglo-Sikh War (1849) was fought in which the Sikhs were again defeated and Lord Dalhousie annexed the whole of Punjab to the British administration. He introduced the Doctrine of Lapse and captured Satara (1848), Jaipur and Sambhalpur (1849), Udaipur (1852), Jhansi (1853), and Nagpur (1854).

During Lord Dalhousie's tenure, the first railway line between Bombay and Thane was opened in 1853 and in the same year, Calcutta and Agra were connected by telegraph. In 1854, Wood's Despatch was passed which provided the proper system of education from the School to the University. His other reforms include setting up of P.W.D. and passing of the Widow Remarriage Act (1856). Lord Dalhousie was the one who made Shimla the summer capital of India.

- Shifted the headquarters of Bengal Artillery from Calcutta to Meerut.
- Shimla was made the permanent headquarters of the army & summer capital.
- Formation of Gurkha regiments took place in his reign.
- Youngest Governor-General of India (36 Years), & also known as
- Father of Indian Telegraph
- Father of Indian Railways
- Father of Indian Postal system
- Father of Indian Engineering Services
- Maker of modern India
- Abolished Titles and Pensions, Widow Remarriage Act (1856).
- Introduced the system of Centralized control in the newly acquired territories known as Bon- Regulation system
- Recommended the Thomsonian system of Vernacular education for the whole of the Northwestern Provinces (1853)
- Wood's Educational Despatch of 1854 and opening of Anglo-Vernacular Schools and Government Colleges.

- Started the first railway line in 1853 (connecting Bombay with Thana)
- Started an electric telegraph service.
- Laid the basis of the modern postal system (1854)
- A separate public works department was set up for the first time.
- Started work on the Grand Trunk Road and developed the harbours of Karachi, Bombay and Calcutta.
- Introduced Doctrine of Lapse (Captured Satara (1848), Jaitpur and Sambhalpur (1849), Baghat (1850), Udaipur (1852), Jhansi (1853) and Nagpur (1854); Fought 2nd Anglo-Sikh War (1848–49) and annexed the whole of the Punjab; 2nd Anglo-Burmese War (1852) and annexation of Lower Burma or Pegu; Annexation of Berar in 1853; Annexation of Avadh in 1856 on charges of maladministration.

#### **Lord Canning (1856–58)**

- The last Governor General and first Viceroy of India
- Revolt of 1857; Passed the Act of 1858, which ended the rule of the East India Company.
- Withdrew Doctrine of Lapse.

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### **4.5 Permanent Settlement**

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The Permanent Settlement of Bengal was brought into effect by the East India Company headed by the Governor-General Lord Cornwallis in 1793. This was basically an agreement between the company and the Zamindars to fix the land revenue. First enacted in Bengal, Bihar and Odisha, this was later followed in northern Madras Presidency and the district of Varanasi. Cornwallis thought of this system inspired by the prevailing system of land revenue in England where the landlords were the permanent masters of their holdings and they collected revenue from the peasants and looked after their interests. He envisaged the creation of a hereditary class of landlords in India. This system was also called the Zamindari System.

#### **Background**

Before the British advent in Bengal, there were a class of Zamindars in Bengal, Bihar and Odisha who collected revenue from land on behalf of the Mughal Emperor or his representative, the Diwan.

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After the Battle of Buxar in 1764, the East India Company was granted the Diwani of Bengal. But then the Company found itself not able to collect revenue from the innumerable number of farmers in rural areas. They also did not have a good understanding of local laws and customs.

The severe Bengal famine of 1770 occurred partly due to this neglect by the Company.

Then, Warren Hastings tried to bring in some reforms like the five-yearly inspections. Here, the revenue-collection was awarded through an auction to the person promising the highest revenue. Due to the dangerous implications and effects of such a system, Hastings also experimented with annual settlement of land. But this too did not improve conditions.

Then, Lord Cornwallis under directions from the then British PM, William Pitt, proposed the Permanent Settlement system in 1786. This came into effect in 1793, by the Permanent Settlement Act of 1793.

### **Features of the Permanent Settlement**

Landlords or Zamindars were recognised as the owners of the land. They were given hereditary rights of succession of the lands under them.

The Zamindars could sell or transfer the land as they wished.

The Zamindars' proprietorship would stay as long as he paid the fixed revenue at the said date to the government. If they failed to pay, their rights would cease to exist and the land would be auctioned off. The amount to be paid by the landlords was fixed. It was agreed that this would not increase in future (permanent). The fixed amount was 10/11th portion of the revenue for the government and 1/10th was for the Zamindar. This tax rate was way higher than the prevailing rates in England. The Zamindar also had to give the tenant a patta which described the area of the land given to him and the rent he had to pay the landlord.

### **Merits of the Permanent Settlement**

The responsibility of taking care of farmers fell upon the shoulders of the Indian landlords. Being sons of the soil, they could reach the far corners of the region and also understand local customs very well. Because of the permanent nature of the system, there was a sense of security for everyone. The company knew the amount it would get in revenue. The landlord also was assured of the amount. Finally, the farmers also, in lieu of the patta were certain of their holdings and knew how much rent was to be paid. Since the settlement was of a

permanent nature, the Zamindars would have an interest in the improvement in the land thereby improving the revenue.

### **Demerits of the Permanent Settlement**

The basic demerit of this system was that the efficiency depended upon the nature of the Zamindars. If they were good, the interests of the farmers and the land were looked after very well. They would make improvements in the land which would be beneficial to everyone concerned. But if the landlords were bad, they were negligent of the plight of the farmers and the conditions of the land. This created a class of hereditary landlords forming the upper aristocracy in society who generally led luxurious and extravagant lifestyles.

The Zamindars were generally favourable to the British administration and supported the British even during the freedom struggle. There were exceptions. Land assessment was not done properly and land revenue was fixed arbitrarily. This meant that both productive and unproductive land was expected to furnish revenue at same rates. This created a burden on the farmers of unproductive land. Also, in case of productive land, it was a loss of revenue to the government.

The revenue rates were so high that many Zamindars became defaulters. In time, this system proved to have disastrous effects. In 1811, the British government warned against the imposition of permanent settlement without a proper land survey.

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### **4.6 Subsidiary Alliance**

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Subsidiary Alliance was basically a treaty between the British East India Company and the Indian princely states, by virtue of which the Indian kingdoms lost their sovereignty to the English. It also was a major process that led to the building of the British Empire in India. It was framed by Lord Wellesley, the Governor-General of India from 1798 to 1805. It was actually used for the first time by the French Governor-General Marquis Dupleix.

A subsidiary alliance, in South Asian history, describes a tributary alliance between a Native state and either French India, or later the British East India Company. The pioneer of the subsidiary alliance system was French Governor Joseph François Dupleix, who in the late 1740s established treaties with the Nizam of Hyderabad, and Carnatic.

The methodology was subsequently adopted by the East India Company, with Robert Clive imposing a series of conditions on Mir Jafar of Bengal, following the 1757 Battle of Plassey, and subsequently those in the 1765 Treaty of Allahabad, as a result of the Company's success in the 1764 Battle of Buxar. A successor of Clive, Richard

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Wellesley initially took a non-interventionist policy towards the Native states but later adopted, and refined the policy of forming subsidiary alliances. The purpose and ambition of this change are stated in his February 1804 dispatch to the East India Company Resident in Hyderabad.

His Excellency the Governor-General's policy in establishing subsidiary alliances with the principal states of India is to place those states in such a degree of dependence on the British power as may deprive them of the means of prosecuting any measures or of forming any confederacy hazardous to the security of the British empire, and may enable us to reserve the tranquility of India by exercising a general control over those states, calculated to prevent the operation of that restless spirit of ambition and violence which is the characteristic of every Asiatic government, and which from the earliest period of Eastern history has rendered the peninsula of India the scene of perpetual warfare, turbulence and disorder.

In a subsidiary alliance, princely rulers were not allowed to make any negotiations and treaty with any other ruler. They were also not allowed to have an independent armed force. They were to be protected by the East India Company but had to pay for the subsidiary forces that the company was to maintain for protection. If Indian rulers failed to make the payment, part of their territory was taken away as penalty. For example, the Nawab (ruler) of Awadh was forced to give over half of his territory to the company in 1801, reason provided by British officer was Maladministration. Hyderabad was also forced to cede territories on similar grounds.

By the late 18th century, the power of the Maratha Empire had weakened and the Indian Subcontinent was left with a great number of states, most small and weak. Many rulers accepted the offer of protection by Wellesley, as it gave them security against attack by their neighbours. The alliance was forced upon rulers so their territories could be annexed by the British.

- An Indian ruler entering into a subsidiary alliance with the British would accept British forces within his territory and to pay for their maintenance.
- The ruler would accept a British official (resident) in his state.
- The ruler who entered into a subsidiary alliance would not join any alliance with any other power or declare war against any power without the permission of the British.

- The ruler would dismiss any Europeans other than the British and avoid employing new ones.
- The ruler would let the British rule on any conflict with any other state.
- The ruler would acknowledge the East India Company as the paramount power in India.
- The ruler would have his state be protected by the Company from external dangers and internal disorders.
- If the rulers failed to make the payments that were required by the alliance, part of their territory would be taken away as a penalty.

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Indian rulers under British protection surrendered the control of their foreign affairs to the British. Most subordinate disbanded their native armies and instead maintained British troops within their states to protect them from attack, but that became increasingly unlikely in most parts of India as British power grew.

The Nawab of Awadh was the first to enter into such an alliance after the Battle of Buxar in 1764. Tipu Sultan of the Kingdom of Mysore refused to do so, but after the British victory in the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War, Mysore was forced to become a subsidiary state. The Nizam of Hyderabad was the first to accept a well-framed subsidiary alliance. After the Third Anglo-Maratha War, Maratha ruler Bajji Rao II also accepted a subsidiary alliance.

In this way, the Subsidiary alliance system was in existence even before the Governor Generalship of Lord Wellesley. However, the system developed fully when he added some elements in this system. Indian states were asked to yield some of the territories to the Company if they wanted to sign this treaty. This way, the company succeeded in expanding its empire in India. Let us study the development stages of the policy of Subsidiary Alliance:

Stage 1: The Company offered its army on rent to Indian states. These states were asked to pay cash in return. In 1768, Hyderabad signed this pact

Stage 2: The Company offered that it would keep its army 'near the boundaries of Indian states' in order to 'protect' the states. In lieu of this service, the state was asked to pay an annual fee. In 1784, Sindhia accepted this offer.

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Stage 3: The Company offered that it would keep its army 'inside the boundaries of Indian States' to 'protect' the state. The states were asked to pay annual fee in return. In 1798, Hyderabad agreed to sign treaty with the company.

Stage 4: The Company offered to keep its army inside the boundaries of the Indian states to protect the state. In lieu of this 'service', the company asked the states to give some part of their territory. In 1800, Hyderabad signed this treaty and in 1801, Oudh also signed the treaty with the Company.

### **Features of the Subsidiary Alliance**

Some features of the Subsidiary Alliance were as follows:

- The Company promised to protect the states from outside attack.
- The rulers had to bear the expenses of the British force which was employed for the protection of the state.
- The rulers could not employ any foreigner in their states without the permission of the Company. They could not build diplomatic ties with other States.
- The rulers had to bear the expenses of the British resident which was appointed in their court.
- The Company followed the policy of non-interference as far as the internal matters of the states were concerned.

### **Advantages of the Subsidiary Alliance to the Company**

**The Subsidiary Alliance benefited the Company in the following ways:**

- The Subsidiary Alliance proved advantageous for the Company in many ways.
- With the help of this system, the Company maintained a large army at the expense of the Nawabs. They could use this army in annexing other territories or protect their own empire.
- As per the treaty, the Nawabs were not allowed to employ any foreigner in their states without their permission. This reduced the threat which the Company had from Europeans and the French.
- Since the states were not allowed to build ties with other states, the Company felt secured in India as Indian states could not stand united to rebel against the Company.



- The treaty made Nawabs puppets in the hands of the Company as they had to seek permission from the Company on a number of issues.

- In lieu of the ‘services’, the Company asked for fertile lands of the territories of Nawabs so that they could earn more money with the help of these lands. This way, Nawabs lost a lot of money of the States and this made the states poor.

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### **Check Your Progress**

What is Colonialism?

What are the Governor General policies?

Who introduced the system of subsidiary alliances?

When was Permanent settlement in India?

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## **4.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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- Colonialism, as a historical phenomenon of territorial expansion, is intimately connected with the rise and growth of the modern capitalist world system
- The important and relevant information about the Governor Generals of India, their achievements, and the important events that took place during their tenure as the Governor Generals of India.
- The system of subsidiary alliance was introduced by Dupleix, the French governor by giving his army to Indian rulers on rent.
- The Company promised to protect the states from outside attack.
- The rulers had to bear the expenses of the British force which was employed for the protection of the state.

- The Permanent Settlement of Bengal was brought into effect by the East India Company headed by the Governor-General Lord Cornwallis in 1793.
- This was basically an agreement between the company and the Zamindars to fix the land revenue.

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## **4.8 SUMMARY**

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- The Colonialism, was a historical phenomenon of territorial expansion, is intimately connected with the rise and growth of the modern capitalist world system
- The Colonialism had to bear the expenses of the British force which was employed for the protection of the state.
- To relevant information about the Governor Generals of India, their achievements, and the important events that took place during their tenure as the Governor Generals of India.
- The Treaty of Allahabad (1765) constituted a landmark in the history of Bengal because it led to that administrative transition which prepared the ground for the introduction of British system of administration in India.
- Though the Subsidiary Alliance System was formed in the second half of the eighteenth century, yet the credit of this policy goes to Lord Wellesley as it developed from 1798 to 1805 when Lord Wellesley was the Governor General of India.
- With the help of the subsidiary alliance system, the Company maintained a large army at the expense of the Nawabs. They could use this army in annexing other territories or protect their own empire.
- The Permanent Settlement of Bengal was brought into effect by the East India Company.
- This was essentially an accord between the company and the Zamindars to fix the land revenue.

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## **4.9 KEY WORDS**

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- Subsidiary Alliance: It refers to a tributary alliance between a Native state and either French India, or later the British East India Company in which an Indian ruler entering into a subsidiary alliance with the British had to accept British forces in his territory and also agreed to pay for their maintenance.

- Ryots: It refers to an Indian peasant or tenant farmer.
- Permanent Settlement: It was an agreement between the East India Company and Bengali landlords to fix revenues to be raised from land, with far-reaching consequences for both agricultural methods and productivity in the entire British Empire and the political realities of the Indian countryside.

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## **4.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Discuss the two tenures of Cornwallis governorship.
2. Write a short-note on Wellesly's reforms in public services.
3. What were the causes of the Permanent Settlement?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the various reforms undertaken by Cornwallis?
2. Describe the features and defects of the Permanent Settlement?
3. Examine the Subsidiary system in detail.

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## **4.11 FURTHER READINGS**

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## **BLOCK II**

# **REFORMS IN INDIA AND INDIAN REVOLT**

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## **UNIT -5 REFORMS OF BENTINCK, DOCTRINE OF LAPSE, IMPACT OF DOCTRINE OF LAPSE, ANGLO- MYSORE WAR**

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5.1 Introduction

5.2 Objectives

5.3 Reforms of Bentinck

5.4 Doctrine of Lapse

5.5 Impact of Doctrine of Lapse

5.6 Anglo-Mysore War

5.7 Answers to Check your Progress Questions

5.8 Summary

5.9 Keywords

5.10 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

5.11 Further Readings

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### **5.1 Introduction**

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Acts by British were designed to cover every sphere of life as each act was department specific. Among these, the more significant acts were those that were created to regulate education, land revenue, indigo plantation and press. The underlined purpose of each act was to consolidate the supremacy of the East India Company in India. To ensure a seamless delegation of power in India, the British had their representatives in the form of Governor Generals and viceroys. These expansionist policies were seen as instruments of introducing change in British Acts in India.

In 1765, the year Clive arrived in India can be said to begin a new era in the history of British India. Many scholars have reflected upon the Mughal nature of Hastings' rule. Far from being English, the nature of this new regime was rather like the dying Mughal Empire and could be critiqued as private dominion of the East India Company. In other words, it was hardly a colony of the British as the administrative structure was largely Mughal (not British) and its officials were Indians (not Europeans). During the thirteen year tenure of Warren Hastings (not to be confused with the other governor- general Warren Hasting), his internal administration, his dealings with his council, and his foreign policy were noteworthy. Bentinck and Dalhousie were other notable Governor-Generals. We will study each of them in turn.

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## **5.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Describe the reforms introduced by Lord Bentinck
  - Discuss the doctrine of lapse
  - Explain the doctrine of lapse
  - Explain some of the Anglo Mysore War
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## **5.3 Reforms of Bentinck**

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The appointment of Lord William Bentinck as the Governor-General of India marked the dawn of a new era in the annals of British rule in India. He continued as Governor-General from 1828 to 1835 in India. Bentinck was a man of peace, discipline and of economy. He was a liberal reformist who took active part in the reform movement of England. He had a firm faith in the programme of peace retrenchment and reform. Macauley in the eulogistic language describes him, "Bentinck infused into oriental Despotism the spirit of British freedom; who never forgot that the end of the government is the welfare of the governed."

### **Administrative Reforms:**

Lord Bentinck was a great reformer. He was the first Governor-General who was sympathetic towards the Indian people and also tried to remove difficulties of the Indians. After Cornwallis it was Governor-General Lord William Bentinck who paid attention to any new administrative reforms and introduced some changes in the sphere of administration.

He started the practice of appointing Indians in Company's service. Cornwallis had stopped appointing Indians in administrative service as he had low opinion about the character, ability and integrity of the

Indian people. So he sought to reserve all higher posts for the Europeans.

It offended the Indians very much. But Bentick gave up that policy in order to establish closer contact between the ruler and the ruled. Therefore, Bentick appointed Indians in government service. Now the educated Indians were also appointed to the post of Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector. Thus Bentick took a remarkable step towards the Indianization of the government service.

Bentick had introduced land revenue settlement in the North Western province. Taking ten years to complete, its principle was that of a semi-permanent settlement for thirty years which would both encourage the tenants to make improvements and enable the state to get some of the benefits. After a proper survey of the land the settlement was made with large land holders, cultivators or village communities according to the locality. Due to this arrangement the revenue of the state increased.

The Presidency of Bengal was divided into twenty divisions. A commissioner was appointed over each division. The Commissioner also decided the cases which were previously dealt by the judges of the courts of appeal and circuit in the provinces. They had also the right to supervise the working of the District Magistrates and Judges.

### **Judicial Reforms:**

The Provincial Courts of appeal and circuit had been largely responsible for the huge arrears of cases. The judicial procedure followed in these courts often resulted in delays and uncertainties. Bentick abolished these courts. He established different grades of courts to avoid delay in the trial of cases. He established a Supreme Court in Agra. The civil and criminal appeals were heard in this court.

In 1829 magistrates were empowered to award punishment up to two years. A separate Sadar Diwani Adalat and Sadr Nizamat Adalat were set up at Allahabad for the convenience of the people of Delhi and Upper Provinces. Bentick also reduced the severity of the punishment. The system of beating a man with whips was abolished by Bentick.

So far, Persian had been the language of the court. Both the public and the Judges were ignorant of Persian. So Bentick ordered the use of vernacular language in place of Persian. In higher courts Persian was replaced by English as the court language. Qualified Indians were appointed as Munsiffs and Sadar Amins.

### **Financial Reforms:**

The Burmese war had depleted the treasury of the company. Due to the reduced income and increase in the expenditure, the company was

facing a deficit of about one crore. So Bentick's first duty was to economize. His economies measures were extensive and severe.

Bentick appointed two committees, one Military and one civil to enquire into the increased expenditure of the company. According to the recommendations of the Committee, Bentick reduced the high salary of the civil Servants. He also reduced the allowances of both the civil and military officials. He made provision for the reduction of bhatta by 50% at all stations within four hundred miles of Calcutta. As a result of this measure a saving of £ 20,000 a year was effected.

During those days opium was produced in Central India and was sent to China from Karachi. Bentick changed the route of the trade from Karachi to Bombay which gave the company a share in the profits in the form of duties.

Public institutions and individuals enjoyed rent free land in Bengal since the acquisition of Diwani. Bentick ordered the collectors to make inquiries into the rights of those who held free grants of land. It was found that in most cases the title deeds were forged.

The Government resumed the management of these rent free lands in Bengal and Bombay. This step of Bentick also increased the revenue of the company. The land revenue settlement of North Western Provinces also yielded more revenue.

Bentick also enhanced the income of the company by appointing Indians in administrative posts. The Indians were paid less salaries in comparison to their European Counterparts. The result of these economic measures was that the deficit of one crore per year was converted into a surplus of 2 crores per year.

### **Educational Reforms:**

Bentick's great achievement was his intellectual reform. Charter Act of 1813 had provided one lac of rupees annually for the revival and promotion of education in India. But this money went on accumulating as no proper arrangement could

Prior to the arrival of Bentick a great controversy was going on regarding the medium of education in the schools and colleges. Was it to be given through the Indian language or through English language? The orientalist led by Heyman Wilson and H.T. Princes expressed their opinion in favour of Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian as the medium of education. The Angliasts led by Sir Charles Trevelyan supported by Indian liberals like Raja Rammohan Ray expressed their views in favour of English Language.

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Lord Macauley, the law member of the Council gave a definite shape to the controversy. On his recommendations the decision was taken that the amount which was kept for education should be spent on the education of the Indians and the education be imparted through English medium.

Macauley's proposals were accepted by Bentick and embodied in a resolution of March 7, 1835, which declared that, "His Lordship in council is of opinion that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India and that all the fund appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone." Schools and colleges were established to provide English education. English language also became the official language and it helped the people of India for exchange of ideas.

### **Social Reforms:**

William Bentinck is famous for his social reforms in Indian. By the abolition of the systems of 'Sati' and human sacrifice he freed the society from two of the worst superstitions. By the suppression of the system of Thuggee he freed the people from one of their worst fears. By the end of 1834 Thuggee System was completely stopped.

From some remote past the system of sati or the burning of the widow on the funeral pyre of her husband prevailed in the Hindu Society as a deep rooted superstition. With deep desire to enjoy heaven as Sati many widows died on the funeral pyre of their husbands willingly.

But in some cases they had also to die against their will in order to escape public criticism. On one side there was the fear of death on the other-side there was the fear of the society. At some places the ignorant relatives forced the widows to die in order to uphold their own social prestige.

There were also the shameless motives of greed of collecting valuable ornaments of the widows of rich families. Among various ceremonies rituals and hymns that inhuman act was committed. On observing these evils Bentinck wanted to abolish this system to save the lives of many widows and therefore abolished the system of Sati by the proclamation of a regulation.

Raja Rammohan Ray the great Indian reformer supported this pioneering Venture of Bentinck. He even wants to England to plead in favour of the abolition of the system before the British Government. The next achievement of Bentinck was the abolition of the system of human sacrifice prevailing among hill tribes.



Bentick left India in 1835 AD. He holds the highest rank among all the Governor-Generals in India due to his various reforms. His seven years rule came to be known as an “Age of Reforms”. Dr. Ishwari Prasad writes, “Bentick’s glories were the glories of peace. His reign stands in sharp contrast to the years that proceeded or those that followed it.”

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## **5.4 Doctrine of Lapse**

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Doctrine of lapse was the policy of Dalhousie, the then Governor General, to annexed the independent Indian States in 1848 A.D.

This doctrine was based on the idea that in case a ruler of dependent state died childless, the right of ruling over the State reverted or ‘lapsed’ to the sovereign.

This position, however, was complicated by adoption. Hindus, including Hindu rulers, attached great importance to the performance of their funeral rites by their sons and if they died without a male issue, they resorted to adoption. An adopted son was allowed to inherit private property but the political rights of ruling a State were different.

This involved the welfare of millions of people. Before 1818 A.D., the East India Company was not really sovereign over India and did not interfere in matters of succession of other Indian States.

The Company agreed to adoptions in States dependent upon itself as a matter of course between 1818 and 1834 A.D. In 1834 A.D., however, the Company came to a resolution that adoption was permissible as a matter of grace and not right and that previous permission of the Company was required for this. By 1841 A.D., the Company had resolved that adoption was not to be granted as a rule because all opportunities for the extension of British territory were to be welcomed.

By applying the doctrine of lapse, Dalhousie annexed the States of Satara (1848 A.D.), Jaipur (1849 A.D.), Sambhalpur (1849 A.D.), Bahat (1850 A.D.), Udaipur (1852 A.D.), Jhansi (1853 A.D.), and Nagpur (1854 A.D.). Annexation by lapse of ‘Karauli’ was disallowed by the Court of Directors. The Doctrine of Lapse was an annexation policy followed widely by Lord Dalhousie when he was India’s Governor-General from 1848 to 1856.

### **Features of Doctrine of Lapse**

According to this, any princely state under the direct or indirect (as a vassal) control of the East India Company where the ruler did not have a legal male heir would be annexed by the company. This was not introduced by Lord Dalhousie even though it was he who documented it, and used it widely to acquire territories for the British.

As per this, any adopted son of the Indian ruler could not be proclaimed as heir to the kingdom. The adopted son would only inherit his foster father's personal property and estates. The adopted son would also not be entitled to any pension that his father had been receiving or to any of his father's titles. This challenged the Indian ruler's long-held authority to appoint an heir of their choice.

### **States annexed by the Doctrine of Lapse**

In 1824, before the time of Dalhousie, the princely state of Kittur was acquired by the East India Company by this doctrine. Other states were also annexed in 1830's and 1840's through this doctrine. After Dalhousie became the Governor-General, in 1848, Satara was acquired as per this doctrine.

Other major states annexed by the British as per the Doctrine of Lapse:

Jaipur – 1849

Sambhalpur – 1849

Udaipur – 1852

Jhansi – 1853

Nagpur – 1854

It was as per this policy that Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the Maratha Peshwa Baji Rao II was denied his titles and pension.

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### **5.5 Impacts of Doctrine of Lapse**

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Many Indian states lost their sovereignty and became British territories. This led to a lot of unrest among the Indian princes. A lot of people were unhappy with the 'illegal' nature of this doctrine and this was one of the causes of the Indian Revolt of 1857.

Nana Sahib and the Rani of Jhansi had grievances against the British because the former's pension was stopped by the British after his foster father died, and the Rani's adopted son was denied the throne under the doctrine of lapse.

Dalhousie returned to Britain in 1856. After the Indian Revolt broke out in 1857, his governance was widely criticised as one of the causes of the rebellion.

The Anglo–Mysore Wars were a series of wars fought in over the last three decades of the 18th century between the Kingdom of Mysore on the one hand, and the British East India Company (represented chiefly by the Madras Presidency), and Maratha Confederacy and the Nizam of Hyderabad on the other. Hyder Ali and his successor Tipu

Sultan fought a war on four fronts with the British attacking from the west, south and east, while the Marathas and the Nizam's forces attacked from the north.[1] The fourth war resulted in the overthrow of the house of Hyder Ali and Tipu (who was killed in the final war, in 1799), and the dismantlement of Mysore to the benefit of the East India Company, which won and took control of much of India.

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## **5.6 Anglo-Mysore War**

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Hyder Ali in 1762, incorrectly described as "Commander in Chief of the Marathas. At the head of his army in the war against the British in India". (French painting)

First Anglo-Mysore War

Second Anglo-Mysore War

Third Anglo-Mysore War

Fourth Anglo Mysore War

### **First Anglo-Mysore War**

The First Anglo-Mysore War (1767–69) saw Hyder Ali gain some measure of success against the British, almost capturing Madras. The British convinced the Nizam of Hyderabad to attack Hyder, but the Nizam changed sides, supporting Hyder. That was temporary however, and the Nizam signed a new treaty with the British in Feb. 1768. Hyder did contend with a British Bombay army attacking on the west and a Madras army attacking from the northeast. However, Hyder's attack towards Madras resulted in the Madras government suing for peace, and the resultant Treaty of Madras.

### **Second Anglo-Mysore War**

The Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780–84) witnessed bloodier battles with fortunes fluctuating between the contesting powers. Tipu defeated Baillie at the Battle of Pollilur in Sept. 1780, and Braithwaite at Kumbakonam in Feb. 1782, both of whom were taken prisoner to Seringapatam. This war saw the rise of Sir Eyre Coote, the British commander who defeated Hyder Ali at the Battle of Porto Novo and Arni. Tipu continued the war following his father's death. Finally, the war ended with signing of a treaty on the 11 March 1784 Treaty of Mangalore, which restored the status quo ante bellum. The Treaty of Gajendragad in April 1787 ended the conflict with the Marathas.

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### **Third Anglo-Mysore War**

In the Third Anglo-Mysore War (1790–92), Tipu Sultan, the ruler of Mysore and an ally of France, invaded the nearby state of Travancore in 1789 which was a British ally. British forces were commanded by Governor-General Cornwallis himself. The resultant war lasted three years and was a resounding defeat for Mysore. The war ended after the 1792 Siege of Seringapatam and the signing of the Treaty of Seringapatam, according to which Tipu had to surrender half of his kingdom to the British East India Company and its allies.

### **Fourth Anglo Mysore War**

The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War (1798–99) saw the death of Tipu Sultan and further reductions in Mysorean territory.[1] Mysore's alliance with the French was seen as a threat to the East India Company and Mysore was attacked from all four sides. Tipu's army were outnumbered 4:1 in this war. Mysore had 35,000 soldiers, whereas the British commanded 60,000 troops. The Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas launched an invasion from the north. The British won a decisive victory at the Siege of Seringapatam (1799). Tipu was killed during the defence of the city. Much of the remaining Mysorean territory was annexed by the British, the Nizam and the Marathas. The remaining core, around Mysore and Seringapatam, was restored to the Indian prince belonging to the Wodeyar dynasty, whose forefathers had been the actual rulers before Hyder Ali became the de facto ruler. The Wodeyars ruled the remnant state of Mysore until 1947, when it joined the Union of India.

After the Battles of Plassey (1757) and Buxar (1764), which established British dominion over East India, the Anglo-Mysore Wars (1766–1799), the Anglo-Maratha Wars (1775–1818), and finally the Anglo-Sikh Wars (1845–1849) consolidated the British claim over South Asia, resulting in the British Empire in India, though resistance among various groups such as the Afghans and the Burmese would last well into the 1880s.

### **Mysorean rockets**

The Mysorean rockets used by Tipu Sultan during the Battle of Pollilur were much more advanced than any that the British East India Company had previously seen, chiefly because of the use of iron tubes for holding the propellant. This enabled higher thrust and a longer range for the missile (up to 2 kilometres (1.2 mi)). After Tipu Sultan's eventual defeat in the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War and the capture of a number of Mysorean iron rockets, they were influential in British

rocket development, inspiring the Congreve rocket, which was soon put into use in the Napoleonic Wars.

*Reforms of Bentinck,  
doctrine of lapse, impact  
of doctrine of lapse,  
anglo-mysore war*

### **Check Your Progress**

What are the reforms in Bentinck?

What were Dalhousie's three distinct categories of Indian States?

List one social reform brought by Lord Dalhousie?

Casuses of the Anglo Mysore wars?

*Notes*

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## **5.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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- Lord Bentinck was the British governor-general of Bengal (1828–33) and of India (1833–35)
- Lord Dalhousie made three distinct categories for Indian States:
- British Charter created states: If there was no biological heir then the British Empire would annex the state.
- Subordinate States: Permission of the East India Company was needed to validate the heir in case of adoption.
- Dalhousie enacted the Widow Remarriage Act. And also amended the conversion laws of Hindus which made it possible for Hindus who converted into other religion to inherit.
- Dalhousie returned to Britain in 1856. After the Indian Revolt broke out in 1857, his governance was widely criticised as one of the causes of the rebellion.
- The Anglo–Mysore Wars were a series of wars fought in over the last three decades of the 18th century between the Kingdom of Mysore on the one hand, and the British East India Company (represented chiefly by the Madras Presidency), and Maratha Confederacy and the Nizam of Hyderabad on the other.
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## **5.8 SUMMARY**

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- Lord William Bentinck served as Governor General of India between 1828 to 1835. His tenure is known for the social reforms such as Abolition of Sati in 1829, Suppression of Thugi, and Suppression of Infanticide
- Lord William Bentinck became Governor General of India in 1828. He took a number of steps to suppress sati system. In 1806, he was appointed as the Governor of Madras.
- William Bentinck did not interfere in the affairs of many of the Indian states. For instance, he did not interfere in the affairs of Jaipur even when the British resident, appointed in the state, was attacked during anarchical situation in the state.
- It was not easy to tackle social problems of the Indian society as the social norms were related to the religion of the people. Many Governor Generals wanted to eliminate social evils but they did not do so as they did not want people to be discontented with the British.
- The youngest Governor General of British India was Lord Dalhousie. He is best known for annexing regional Indian states into the British Raj in India on the basis of superfluous reasons.
- The rulers of Indian princely states had the right to adopt a child and make that child the successor. The British government agreed to this and made this right official by declaring, 'Every ruler, under Hindu laws, is free to nominate his successor, real or adopted son. The Company's government is bound to accept this right'. In 1831, the Company declared, 'The Government may accept or reject, according to the situation, the application of Indian rulers to nominate his adopted son as his heir.'
- The Marathas attacked Mysore in 1771. As a result, Hyder Ali's territories were taken by the Marathas. This angered Hyder Ali who started hating the British. When the English attacked Mahe, a French possession under Hyder Ali's dominion, he declared war on the English in 1780.

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## 5.9 KEY WORDS

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- Sati: It refers to a former practice in India whereby a widow threw herself on to her husband's funeral pyre.
- social reforms such as Abolition of Sati in 1829
- Female Infanticide: It refers to the deliberate killing of new-born female children.
- Hyder Ali who started hating the British
- Many Governor Generals wanted to eliminate social evils but they did not do so as they did not want people to be discontented with the British.

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## 5.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on the doctrine of lapse.
2. Why was Lord William Bentinck removed as Governor General?
3. Discuss the educational reforms introduced by William Bentinck.

### Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the reforms introduced by Lord William Bentinck?
2. Discuss the features of the doctrine of lapse?
3. Examine the Anglo–Mysore Wars?

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## 5.11 FURTHER READINGS

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*Reforms of Bentinck,  
doctrine of lapse, impact  
of doctrine of lapse,  
anglo-mysore war*

*Notes*

*Reforms of Bentinck,  
doctrine of lapse, impact  
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anglo-mysore war*

*Notes*

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## **UNIT-6 ANGLO–MARATHA WAR, ANGLO BUSMESE WAR, ANGLO SIKH WARS**

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*Notes*

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Anglo–Maratha War
- 6.4 Anglo Busmese war
- 6.5 Anglo Sikh Wars
- 6.6 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 6.7 Summary
- 6.8 Keywords
- 6.9 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 6.10 Further Readings

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### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The first, second, and third Anglo-Maratha wars were fought between the army of the British East India Company, which after 1757 was de facto ruler of Bengal and of other provinces in North East India, and the Maratha Empire, or confederacy, in the south of India. The Moghul Empire was already effectively under British control but its power had never extended far into the South, where the French—defeated in the North at the Battle of Plassey (1757)—still vied with the British for dominance. The wars started in 1777 and ended with British victory in 1818. This left the British in control, directly or indirectly via treaties with Princely states, of a vast proportion of India, making India the jewel in the crown of the British Empire. Typically, the British divided and ruled by benefiting from conflict between different Indian rulers, such as that between the ruler of Indore, and the Maratha overlord, or Peshwa and by neutralizing others. What had started as a commercial enterprise was now a full-blown imperial project. Making a profit for the mother-land was still the bottom line but the concept of the British race as destined to rule others, for their eventual benefit, was now rapidly developing. As Rudyard Kipling, the India-born novelist and poet of Empire would put later it, it was ‘the

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white man's burden' to shed light into dark places to 'seek another's profit and work another's gain.' Though the more cynical Mary Henrietta Kingley, the African explorer, described empire as the 'blackman's burden' for its often wonton destruction of other cultures. The Province of Bengali, under British control from 1757—white line indicates current political border between present Day West Bengal (India) and Bangladesh.

India's cultures were never quite as despised as those of Africa but they were regarded as decadent and immoral, and thus in need of correction. If at the start of the Maratha wars men such as Warren Hastings (Governor-General 1773-1785) valued Indian culture and thought more of partnership than domination, at the end of the Maratha wars, India was ready to be possessed, mapped, defined and 'owned' in its entirety in true, full bodied Orientalist style. This feeling of ownership was further consolidated after the failure of the 1857 First War of Indian Independence or Mutiny when governmental responsibility was transferred to Westminster, and was finally sealed (May 1, 1876) when Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

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## **6.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Examine the rise and fall of the Maratha Empire
- Describe the Anglo-Busmese War
- Discuss to the Anglo- Sikh Wars

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## **6.3 ANGLO–MARATHA WAR**

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Name of the Battle: Anglo-Maratha Wars

Venue: Pune, Central India, Maharashtra and neighbouring areas

Year: 1775-82, 1803-05, 1817-18

The three conflicts or wars fought between British East India Company and the Maratha confederacy or the Maratha Empire in India are referred to as the great Maratha Wars or the Anglo-Maratha Wars. The wars started in 1777 and ended in 1818, with the victory of the British and the destruction of the Maratha Empire in India.

### **The reasons that led to the battle**

When the Marathas were defeated in the battle of Panipat, the third Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao could not bear the defeat and died on 23 June 1761. After his death, his son Madhav Rao succeeded him. He was an able and efficient leader who maintained unity among his nobles and

chiefs and soon was successful in retrieving the lost power and prestige of the Marathas. The growing importance of the Marathas made the British become more cautious and they wanted to destroy their re-establishment. In 1772 when Madhav Rao died, it opened the doors of the British to attack the Marathas.

## **Background**

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After the death of Madhavrao Peshwa in 1772, his brother Narayanrao became Peshwa of the Maratha Empire. Narayan Rao (10 August 1755 – 30 August 1773) was the fifth Peshwa or ruler of the Maratha Empire from November 1772 until his murder by his palace guards in August 1773. Narayanrao's widow, Gangabai, gave birth to a posthumous son, who was legal heir to the throne. The newborn infant was named 'Sawai' Madhavrao (Sawai means "One and a Quarter"). Twelve Maratha chiefs, led by Nana Phadnavis directed an effort to name the infant as the new Peshwa and rule under him as regents.

Raghunathrao, unwilling to give up his position of power, sought help from the British at Bombay and signed the Treaty of Surat on 6 March 1775. According to the treaty, Raghunathrao ceded the territories of Salsette and Bassein to the British, along with part of the revenues from Surat and Bharuch districts. In return, the British promised to provide Raghunathrao with 2,500 soldiers.

The British Calcutta Council condemned the Treaty of Surat, sending Colonel Upton to Pune to annul it and make a new treaty with the regency. The Treaty of Purandhar (1 March 1776) annulled that of Surat, Raghunathrao was pensioned and his cause abandoned, but the revenues of Salsette and Broach districts were retained by the British. The Bombay government rejected this new treaty and gave refuge to Raghunathrao. In 1777, Nana Phadnavis violated his treaty with the Calcutta Council by granting the French a port on West coast. The English retaliated by sending a force towards Pune.

## **Initial stage and Treaty of Purandar (1775 - 1776)**

British troops under the command of Colonel Keating left Surat on March 15 1775 for Pune. But they were checked by Haripant Phadke at Adas and were totally defeated on May 18, 1775.[4]:11 Casualties for Keating's force, accompanied by Raghunathrao, included 96 killed. The Marathas casualties in the Battle of Adas (Gujarat) included 150 killed.[5]:53-56

Warren Hastings estimated that direct actions against Pune would be detrimental. Therefore, the Supreme Council of Bengal condemned the Treaty of Surat, sending Colonel Upton to Pune to annul it and

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make a new treaty with the regency. An agreement between Upton and the ministers of Pune called Treaty of Purandar was signed on March 1, 1776. The Treaty of Purandhar (1 March 1776) annulled that of Surat, Raghunath Rao was pensioned and his cause abandoned, but the revenues of Salsette and Broach districts were retained by the British.

### **Wadgaon**

Following a treaty between France and the Poona Government in 1776, the Bombay Government decided to invade and reinstate Raghoba. They sent a force under Col. Egerton reached Khopoli and made its way through the Western Ghats at Bhor Ghat and onwards toward Karla, which was reached on 4 Jan. 1779 while under Maratha attacks. Finally the British were forced to retreat back to Wadgaon, but were soon surrounded. The British were forced to sign the Treaty of Wadgaon on 16 Jan. 1779, a victory for the Marathas.

Reinforcements from northern India, commanded by Colonel (later General) Thomas Wyndham Goddard, arrived too late to save the Bombay force. The British Governor-General in Bengal, Warren Hastings, rejected the treaty on the grounds that the Bombay officials had no legal power to sign it, and ordered Goddard to secure British interests in the area.

Goddard with 6,000 troops stormed Bhadra Fort and captured Ahmedabad on February 15, 1779. There was a garrison of 6,000 Arab and Sindhi infantry and 2,000 horses. Losses in the fight totalled 108, including two British. Goddard also captured Bassein on December 11, 1780. Another Bengal detachment led by Captain Popham captured Gwalior and assisted by the Rana of Gohad, captured Gwalior on August 4, 1780, before Mahadji Scindia could make preparations. Skirmishes took place between Mahadji Scindia and General Goddard in Gujarat, but indecisively. Hastings sent yet another force to harass Mahadji Shinde, commanded by Major Camac.

### **Central India and the Deccan**

A Vijay Stambh (Victory Pillar) erected to commemorate Maratha victory over British. The pillar is located at Vadgaon/Wadgaon Maval, close to the city of Pune, India. A mural depicting the British surrender during the First Anglo-Maratha War. The mural is a part of the Victory Memorial (Vijay Stambh) located at Vadgaon Maval (Off NH-4, Malinagar, Vadgaon Maval, Pune). An information plaque describing the Maratha victory over British. The plaque is located at Vadgaon/Wadgaon Maval, close to the city of Pune, India.

After capturing Bassein, Goddard marched towards Pune. But he was routed at Borghat – Parshurambha in April 1781 by Haripant Phadke and Tukoji Holkar. In central India, Mahadji stationed himself at Malwa to challenge Camac. Initially, Mahadji had an upper hand and British forces under Camac, being harassed and reduced, had to retreat to Hadur.

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In February 1781 the British beat Shinde to the town of Sipri, but every move they made after that was shadowed by his much larger army, and their supplies were cut off, until they made a desperate night raid in late March, capturing not only supplies, but even guns and elephants. Thereafter, the military threat from Shinde's forces to the British was much reduced. The contest was equally balanced now. Where Mahadji scored a significant victory over Camac at Sironj, the latter avenged the loss through the Battle of Durdah on March 24, 1781.

Colonel Murre arrived with fresh forces in April, 1781 to assist Popham and Camac. After his defeat at Sipri, Mahadji Shinde got alarmed. Finally, he decisively crushed the forces of Murre on July 1, 1781. Mahadji seemed to be too powerful to be defeated now.

### **Treaty of Salbai**

This treaty, known as the Treaty of Salbai, was signed on 17 May 1782, and was ratified by Hastings in June 1782 and by Nana Phadnavis in February 1783. The treaty ended the First Anglo-Maratha War, restored the status quo, and established peace between the two parties for 20 years.

The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1803–1805) was the second conflict between the British East India Company and the Maratha Empire in India.

### **Background**

The British had supported the "fugitive" Peshwa Raghunathrao in the First Anglo-Maratha War, continued with his "fugitive" son, Baji Rao II. Though not as martial in his courage as his father, the son was "a past master in deceit and intrigue". Coupled with his "cruel streak", Baji Rao II soon provoked the enmity of Malhar Rao Holkar when he had one of Holkar's relatives killed.

After the fall of Mysore in 1799–1800, the Marathas were the only major power left outside British control in India. The Marathas were the largest and most dominant power in the subcontinent. The Maratha Empire at that time consisted of a confederacy of five major chiefs: the Peshwa (Prime Minister) at the capital city of Poona,

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the Gaekwad chief of Baroda, the Scindia chief of Gwalior, the Holkar chief of Indore, and the Bhonsale chief of Nagpur. The Maratha chiefs were engaged in internal quarrels among themselves. Lord Mornington, the Governor-General of British India had repeatedly offered a subsidiary treaty to the Peshwa and Scindia, but Nana Fadnavis refused strongly.

In October 1802, the combined armies of Peshwa Baji Rao II and Scindia were defeated by Yashwantrao Holkar, ruler of Indore, at the Battle of Poona. Baji Rao fled to British protection, and in December the same year concluded the Treaty of Bassein with the British East India Company, ceding territory for the maintenance of a subsidiary force and agreeing to treaty with no other power. The treaty would become the "death knell of the Maratha Empire".

## War

Battle of Assaye 1st Battalion 8th Regiment of Native Infantry charge at the cannon, led by Captain Hugh Macintosh. This act on the part of the Peshwa, their nominal overlord, horrified and disgusted the Maratha chieftains; in particular, the Scindia rulers of Gwalior and the Bhonsale rulers of Nagpur and Berar contested the agreement.

The British strategy included Wellesley securing the Deccan Plateau, Lake taking Doab and then Delhi, Powell entering Bundelkhand, Murray taking Badoch, and Harcourt neutralizing Bihar. The British had available over 53,000 men to help accomplish their goals.

In September 1803, Scindia forces lost to Lord Gerard Lake at Delhi and to Arthur Wellesley at Assaye. On 18 October, British forces took the pettah of Asirgarh Fort with a loss of two killed and five wounded. The fort's garrison subsequently surrendered on the 21st after the attackers had erected a battery.[citation needed] British artillery pounded ancient ruins used by Scindia forces as forward operating bases, eroding their control. In November, Lake defeated another Scindia force at Laswari, followed by Wellesley's victory over Bhonsale forces at Argaon (now Adgaon) on 29 November 1803. The Holkar rulers of Indore belatedly joined the fray and compelled the British to make peace. The Maratha army was completely wiped out.

On December 17, 1803, Raghoji II Bhonsale of Nagpur signed the Treaty of Deogaon in Odisha with the British after the Battle of Argaon and gave up the province of Cuttack (which included Mughalbandi/the coastal part of Odisha, Garjat/the princely states of Odisha, Balasore Port, parts of Midnapore district of West Bengal).

On 30 December 1803, the Daulat Scindia signed the Treaty of Surji-Anjangaon with the British after the Battle of Assaye and Battle of Laswari and ceded to the British Rohtak, Gurgaon, Ganges-Jumna Doab, the Delhi-Agra region, parts of Bundelkhand, Broach, some districts of Gujarat and the fort of Ahmmadnagar.

The British started hostilities against Yashwantrao Holkar on 6 April 1804. The Treaty of Rajghat, signed on 24 December 1805, forced Holkar to give up Tonk, Rampura, and Bundi.

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## **6.4 ANGLO BUSMESE WAR**

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Anglo-Burmese Wars, (1824–26, 1852, 1885), three conflicts that collectively forced Burma (now Myanmar) into a vulnerable position from which it had to concede British hegemony in the region of the Bay of Bengal. The First Anglo-Burmese War arose from friction between Arakan in western Burma and British-held Chittagong to the north. After Burma's defeat of the kingdom of Arakan in 1784–85, Arakanese refugees went north into British territory and from their sanctuaries in Bengal formed armed contingents and recrossed the border, attacking Burmese garrisons in Arakan. At one point, Arakanese patriots recaptured the provincial capital of Mrohaung. In retaliation, Burmese forces crossed into Bengal, withdrawing only when challenged by Bengal authorities.

Lord Dalhousie, detail of an oil painting by Sir John Watson-Gordon, 1847; in the National Portrait Gallery, London. In 1852 commercial disputes in Rangoon (now Yangon) prompted new hostilities between the British and the Burmese, a conflict that became...

In 1823 Burmese forces again crossed the frontier; and the British responded in force, with a large seaborne expedition that took Rangoon (1824) without a fight. The British hope of making the Burmese submit by holding the delta region and threatening the capital failed as Burmese resistance stiffened. In 1825 the British Indian forces advanced northward. In a skirmish south of Ava, the Burmese general Bandula was killed and his armies routed. The Treaty of Yandabo (February 1826) formally ended the First Anglo-Burmese War. The British victory had been achieved mainly because India's superior resources had made possible a sustained campaign running through two rainy seasons. But in the fighting the British-led Indian troops had suffered more than 15,000 fatalities.

After 25 years of peace, the British Indian government sent a naval officer, Commodore Lambert, to Rangoon to investigate British merchants' complaints of extortion. When Lambert seized a ship that belonged to the Burmese king, another war began.

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By July 1852 the British had captured the ports of Lower Burma and had begun a march on the capital. Slowly but steadily the British-Indian forces occupied the central teak forests of Burma. The new king Mindon Min (ruled 1853–78) requested the dispersal of British forces. The British were unreceptive but were hesitant to advance farther northward; with both sides at an impasse, the fighting simply ceased. The British now occupied all Lower Burma but without formal recognition of the Burmese court.

Mindon tried to readjust to the thrust of imperialism. He enacted administrative reforms and made Burma more receptive to foreign interests. To offset the British, he entertained envoys from France and sent his own emissaries there. Those moves aroused British suspicions, and Anglo-Burmese relations once again worsened. During the reign of Thibaw (1878–85), the British were willing to ignore Upper Burma and to concentrate on French moves in Laos, Vietnam, and Yunnan.

The ensuing Anglo-French tension was the result not so much of French design as of Burmese initiative. A letter to the French premier from the Hludaw (ministerial council) suggesting a bilateral treaty posed a direct threat to British teak monopolies in Lower Burma. Meanwhile, the Hludaw fined the Bombay Burmah Trading Corporation for underreporting its extractions of teak from Toungoo. That action provoked British forces to strike. The annexation of Upper Burma was announced on Jan. 1, 1886, ending the Konbaung dynasty and Burmese independence. The Third Anglo-Burmese War formally ended before it had even developed, but resistance to British rule continued for another four years.

### **THE FIRST ANGLO-BURMESE WAR OF 1824-1826**

From the end of the eighteenth century the Burmese king Bodawpaya (r. 1782-1817), steadily expanded his realm westward. At the same time the British gained territorial control over Bengal and elsewhere in India. In 1784 Bodawpaya attacked and annexed the kingdom of Arakan on the coast of the Bay of Bengal and brought his frontier to what would become British India. Arakanese rebels operating from within British territory created a tense situation on the Anglo-Burmese border, resulting in frequent border clashes. The Burmese threatened invasion if the British failed to stop rebel incursions from their territory.

From the late eighteenth century the kingdom of Assam to the North of British Bengal was in decline. The kingdom covered the Brahmaputra valley from the Himalayas to the entry of the river into the plains of Bengal. Rival groups at the Assamese court turned both to the British and the Burmese for assistance, leading to a British expedition in 1792.



In 1817 turmoil at the Assamese court led to another request for assistance and this time Bodawpaya sent an invading army. The Assamese were defeated and a pro-Burmese premier was installed.

Two decades earlier Bodawpaya had invaded Manipur, a kingdom set in a small valley to the west of the Chindwin River, and installed a puppet prince. In 1819 the Manipur Prince asserted his autonomy from the Burmese court by not attending the coronation of Bagyidaw, Bodawpaya's successor. The Burmese invaded again and stationed a permanent garrison in Manipur. Manipur would now form a base from which further Burmese military expeditions into Assam would be conducted. In 1821, following years of local unrest, Bagyidaw sent general Mahabandula with a 20,000-person-strong army across the mountains to consolidate Burmese rule in Assam. In 1823, with Assamese resistance largely broken, Mahabandula set up his base at Rangpur and began his attacks on Cachar and Jaintia. The British in turn declared Cachar and Jaintia a protectorate. British Bengal was now hemmed in on its northern and eastern borders by the Burmese Empire.

In January 1824 Mahabandula assumed command in Arakan and started on a campaign against Chittagong with the ultimate goal to capture Bengal. In response, on March 5, 1824, the British declared war on Burma from their headquarters at Fort William in Calcutta. The British plan was to draw away Mahabandula's forces from the Bengal frontier by performing a large-scale sea-borne invasion of Lower Burma. The attack on Rangoon, led by Sir Archibald Campbell, completely surprised the Burmese and the city was taken on May 10, 1824 without any loss to the invaders. The news of the fall of Rangoon forced Mahabandula to a quick retreat. The British force in Rangoon had meanwhile been unable to proceed upcountry because it did not have adequate river transports. After having been resupplied after the monsoon Campbell continued the operations and in 1825 at the battle of Danubyu Mahabandula was killed and the same year Arakan, Lower Burma, and Tenasserim were conquered.

After a second battle the way to the Burmese capital, Amarapura, lay wide open. Campbell now possessed adequate river transport and rapid progress was made up the Irrawaddy. British peace terms were so staggering that not until the British army arrived at Yandabo, a few days' march from the Burmese capital, did the Burmese accept the terms. After the peace of Yandabo the Burmese had ceded to the British Arakan, Tenasserim, Assam, and Manipur. An indemnity in rupees, equal to 1 million pound sterling, was paid to guarantee removal of British troops from Lower Burma.

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## **THE SECOND ANGLO-BURMESE WAR OF 1852**

The inglorious defeat of the Burmese in the first war did not provoke a change in attitude toward the British. Successive Burmese kings went so far as to revoke the treaty of Yandabo and treated representatives of the governor-general with contempt. After quelling rebellions in Lower Burma in 1838 and 1840, King Tharrawaddy staged on a visit to Rangoon in 1841 a military demonstration that caused great alarm with the British in Arakan and Tenasserim. King Pagan, who had succeeded Tharrawaddy in 1846, concentrated his energy on his religious obligations and left the day-to-day government to his ministers. In Rangoon this meant that an unbending Burmese administration combined with profit-hungry British traders created a volatile atmosphere. In 1851 tension erupted and a minor incident between the governor of Rangoon and two British traders resulted in the Governor-General Dalhousie sending three warships with a request for reparations to Rangoon.

King Thibaw and Queen Supayalat of Burma. The king and queen of Burma are pictured along with the queen's sister at their palace in Mandalay, Burma, in the 1800s. Thibaw reigned from 1878 to 1885, when the British forced him from the throne.

Although the Burmese complied with Dalhousie's demands, the situation in Rangoon spiraled out of control when the British commodore leading the naval squadron felt the new governor of Rangoon had treated him unjustly. The commodore blockaded the port, destroyed all warships in the vicinity of Rangoon, and took a ship belonging to the Burmese Crown. War was now imminent. Dalhousie sent the Burmese a further ultimatum demanding compensation for the preparations for war. When the ultimatum expired on April 1, 1852, the British had already landed in Lower Burma.

This time the British arrived well prepared, with adequate supplies and sufficient river transports. In a few days 'time Rangoon and Martaban were taken. When the Burmese offered no further resistance

Dalhousie decided to occupy large areas of Lower Burma, mainly comprised of the former province of Pegu, in an effort to link up Arakan and Tenasserim and create a stable and viable new colony. Without waiting for a formal treaty with the Burmese, Dalhousie proclaimed the annexation of Lower Burma on December 20, 1852. At the Burmese court a peace party overthrew King Pagan, and a few months following the annexation of Lower Burma a new king, Mindon, was crowned. In peace talks King Mindon tried in vain to recover the rich teak forests that had been taken by the British.

## THE THIRD ANGLO-BURMESE WAR OF 1885

*Anglo-maratha war, anglo  
busmese war, anglo sikh wars*

During the late 1870s, at a time when France was consolidating its hold over Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, politicians and officials in Britain and India began considering intervention in what was left of the Burmese kingdom. They feared French influence in Burma and viewed with suspicion Burmese missions to European capitals. At the same time the British became increasingly interested in the possibility of trading with China via Burma. Some officials even viewed Burma as a "highway to China." The Burmese economy, once jealously guarded by mercantilist kings, was laid open to British trade.

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The unbridled expansion of British commerce meant, however, that Burmese concessions to British merchants never went fast and far enough. British traders developed great interests in the trade of rubies, teak, and oil from northern Burma. In commercial treaties of 1862 and 1867 an informal empire was imposed in Burma. The Burmese Crown, in the last years before the start of the third war, adopted a policy aimed at developing friendly relations with Britain's European rivals, including France and Italy. In 1878, following the death of King Mindon, his son Thibaw succeeded to the throne. After another commercial dispute in 1885 and amidst fears of growing French influence in Burma, Lord Randolph Churchill, secretary of state for India, decided to invade Upper Burma and depose Thibaw. The war began on November 14, 1885, and a fortnight later, after an almost bloodless campaign, the capital Mandalay was surrounded and the king surrendered. Thibaw was sent into exile in India and the British took control of Burma.

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### 6.5 ANGLO SIKH WARS

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Name of the Battle: Anglo-Sikh War

Venue: In Punjab in the Northwest of India

Year: 1848-49

There were two Anglo-Sikh Wars or campaigns between the British and the Sikhs. The first conflict took place in 1845-1846 and the second in 1848-1849. The first Sikh war led to a partial control of the Sikh kingdom by the British. However, it was the second Anglo-Sikh War which was considered to be a major one in the history of India as it was this Sikh war, which for the first time annexed the whole of Punjab to British India and the fall of the Sikh empire. This Sikh war was a major war fought between the British East India Company and the Sikh empire.

### **The reasons that led to the battle**

The Punjab Sikh kingdom was expanded by Maharaja Ranjit Singh during the nineteenth century, especially in the earlier part. During the same period, the territories of British East India Company had also been expanded till the areas adjacent to the Punjab. Ranjit Singh tried maintaining an uneasy relation with the East India Company, and at the same time the military strength of the Sikh army or the Khalsa army was enhanced. This army tried to obstruct British aggression against his state. Ranjit Singh also expanded Sikh territory to the north and northwest, including areas from Afghanistan and Kashmir. After the death of Ranjit Singh, the Sikh kingdom began to fall. Many short-lived rulers came to power at the central court or the Durbar after his death. This led to an increased tension between the Khalsa and the Durbar. Meanwhile, the British East India Company began to strengthen its military strength on the Punjab borders. The first Anglo Sikh war took place which ended in defeat for the Khalsa. At the end of the war, the Sikh empire surrendered some territories of Punjab to the British. Also the Sikhs were compelled to hand over Kashmir as a fine to the British. This was later sold to Maharaja Gulab Singh of Jammu for 10 Lakh Pounds.

In January 1848, Lord Dalhousie took office of the British East India Company as the Governor General and was faced with a fresh crisis just within three months of joining his office in Punjab. Diwan Mulraj of Multan revolted against the British. This was in the month of April in 1848. He was in financial trouble as a result of which he was forced to resign in March 1848 and Sardar Khan Singh was appointed as the new Diwan by the new British Resident Fredrick Currie. Sardar Singh was sent to Lahore to take charge and he was accompanied by two British officers, Vans Agnew and Lieutenant Anderson, who were murdered on 20 April 1848. The people of Multan rose in protest. The Second Sikh war, thus began with the revolt of Mulraj, Governor of Multan.

### **Maharaja Ranjit Singh (Reign: 1801 – 1839)**

Born in 1780 to the leader of the Sukerchakia misl of the Sikh confederacies in Pakistani Punjab. United 12 Sikh misls and subjugated other local kingdoms to become the 'Maharaja of Punjab' in 1801. Successfully resisted many Afghan invasions and also captured areas under them like Lahore, Peshawar and Multan. Earned the title 'Sher-i-Punjab' (Lion of Punjab). After occupying Lahore in 1799, it became his capital.

His Sikh Empire included lands to the north of the Sutlej River and South of the north-western Himalayas. His Empire included major

towns like Lahore, Multan, Srinagar (Kashmir), Attock, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, Jammu, Sialkot, Amritsar and Kangra.

He maintained friendly relations with the British. He had men from different races and religions in his army. He maintained an army very efficient in warfare, logistics and infrastructure.

After his death in 1839, there was a struggle for succession among his many relatives. This marked the process of disintegration of the Empire. He was succeeded by his eldest legitimate son Kharak Singh.

### **First Anglo-Sikh War (1845 – 1846)**

Major Broad was placed in Amritsar as the East India Company's agent in 1843. The British were closely watching the developments in the Punjab political front and had territorial ambitions there as in other parts of the subcontinent.

The Sikh forces crossed the Sutlej in December 1845 and took offensive positions against the English forces. Subsequently, battles were fought in different places and the English victory at Sobraon led to the signing of the Lahore Treaty in 1846 which ended the war.

### **Treaty of Lahore, 1846**

Maharaja Duleep Singh, who was the ruler of Punjab was to remain its ruler with his mother Jindan Kaur as regent. The Sikhs had to cede the Jalandhar Doab to the British.

The Sikhs were also asked to pay a very huge war indemnity to the English. But since they could not pay all of it, part of it was paid and to make up for the remaining, Kashmir, Hazarah and all territories between the Beas and the Indus Rivers were given to the English. The Sikhs were to limit their army to a certain number. Also, a British Resident, Sir Henry Lawrence was appointed to the Sikh court. The second Anglo-Sikh war was fought between 1848 and 1849. This war led to the complete control of Punjab by the British. This area was later to become the North-Western Frontier Province.

### **Causes of the Second Anglo Sikh War**

The humiliation caused by the first Anglo-Sikh war wherein the Sikh Empire had lost some territories to the British East India Company. The Sikh regent, Maharani Jindan Kaur was not treated properly by the British. She was removed from Lahore on conspiracy charges against the British resident in Lahore. Multan was a part of the Sikh Empire when Maharaja Ranjit Singh had captured it in 1818.

Multan was governed by Dewan Mulraj. He resented the Lahore Court's (capital of the Sikh Empire but controlled by the British

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resident since the first Anglo-Sikh war) demand for increased tax assessment and revenues. The British Resident at that time was Sir Frederick Currie. He undermined Mulraj and imposed another governor Sardar Kahan Singh along with a British agent Patrick Vans Agnew.

In 1848, Vans Agnew and another officer who arrived in Multan to take charge were murdered by Mulraj's troops. This news led to unrest in Punjab and many Sikh soldiers joined the rebel forces against the British.

### **Course of the Second Anglo-Sikh War**

Battles were fought in Ramnagar and Chilianwala. The battle at Ramnagar was indecisive whereas the Sikhs won at Chilianwala. The final battle was fought at Gujrat near Chenab (not the present Indian state Gujarat) in 1849. This was won by the British forces. The Afghan forces under Dost Mohammad Khan had joined the Sikhs' side.

### **Results of the Second Anglo-Sikh War**

Punjab was annexed by the British in March 1849 (under Lord Dalhousie) as per the Treaty of Lahore. The eleven-year-old Maharaja, Duleep Singh was pensioned off to England. Jind Kaur was separated from her son the Maharaja and taken to Ferozpur. Her allowance was reduced to a meagre amount and her jewels and money confiscated.

Sir John Lawrence was appointed as the first Chief Commissioner of Punjab to take care of the administration. Dalhousie was recognised for his role in the annexation of Punjab to the British and was made a Marquis.

The famous Koh-i-Noor diamond went into British hands. It was in possession of Maharaja Ranjit Singh who had willed it to the Puri Jagannath Temple of Odisha but his will was not executed by the British. They say it was acquired as part of the Treaty of Lahore after the second Anglo-Sikh war.

#### **Check Your Progress**

What were the causes of the Anglo-Maratha war?

When did the Burmese War take place?

What is the purpose of the Anglo Sikh War?

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## 6.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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*Anglo-maratha war, anglo burmese war, anglo sikh wars*

1. Baji Rao was considered the greatest exponent of guerrilla tactics after Shivaji and Maratha power reached its zenith under him.
2. The causes of the third Anglo-Maratha war were as follows:
3. Resentment of the Marathas against the loss of their freedom to the British
4. Rigid control exercised by the British residents on the Marathas chiefs
5. There were how many Anglo-Sikh Wars or campaigns between the British and the Sikhs.
6. Anglo-Burmese Wars why collectively forced Burma (now Myanmar)

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## 6.7 SUMMARY

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- The First Anglo-Sikh War was fought at Mudki on 18 December 1845 and the Sikhs were defeated.
- Baji Rao, the eldest son of Balaji Viswanath, succeeded him as peshwa at the young age of twenty. He was considered the greatest exponent of guerrilla tactics after Shivaji and Maratha power reached its zenith under him.
- The first Anglo-Maratha War started when Raghunath Rao, after killing Peshwa Narayan Rao, claimed the post of Peshwa.
- The third Anglo-Maratha War was partly related with the British imperialistic design in India and partly with the nature of the Maratha state.
- The forces led by Ahmad Shah Durrani came out victorious after destroying several Maratha flanks.
- Lord Dalhousie, detail of an oil painting by Sir John Watson-Gordon, 1847; in the National Portrait Gallery, London.

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- In 1852 commercial disputes in Rangoon (now Yangon) prompted new hostilities between the British and the Burmese, a conflict that became...
- There were two Anglo-Sikh Wars or campaigns between the British and the Sikhs. The first conflict took place in 1845-1846 and the second in 1848-1849.
- This Sikh war was a major war fought between the British East India Company and the Sikh empire.

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## 6.8 KEY WORDS

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- Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao; when the Marathas were defeated in the battle of Panipat, the third Peshwa Balaji Baji Rao could not bear the defeat and died on 23 June 1761.
- Nawab: It refers to a native governor during the time of the Mogul empire.
- Maharaja Ranjit Singh: Born in 1780 to the leader of the Sukerchakia misl of the Sikh confederacies in Pakistani Punjab.
- Bodawpaya: From the end of the eighteenth century the Burmese king Bodawpaya (r. 1782-1817), steadily expanded his realm westward.

Espionage: It means the practice of spying or of using spies, typically by governments to obtain political and military information.

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## 6.9 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Discuss the causes of the First Anglo-Maratha War.
2. Describe the various Anglo-Sikh Wars.
3. What were the consequences of the Anglo Sikh War?



## Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss the rise of the regional kingdoms of Maratha.
2. Examine the causes for Burmese War.
3. Explain the rise of the Anglo Sikh War.

*Anglo-maratha war, anglo  
busmese war, anglo sikh wars*

*Notes*

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## 6.10 FURTHER READINGS

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## **UNIT-7 ANGLO AFGHAN WARS, THE REVOLT OF 1857, CAUSES, COURSE, RESULTS**

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*Notes*

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Anglo Afghan Wars
- 7.4 The Revolt of 1857
- 7.5 Causes
- 7.6 Course
- 7.7 Results
- 7.8 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 7.9 Summary
- 7.10 Keywords
- 7.11 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 7.12 Further Readings

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### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

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A series of wars between Afghan rulers and British India. The first occurred (1838-42) when Britain, concerned about Russian influence in Afghanistan, sent an army to replace Dost Muhammad with a pro- British king, Shah Shuja al- Mulk. Resistance to Shuja's rule culminated in an uprising (1841), which led to the destruction of the British Indian forces in Kabul during their withdrawal to Jalalabad (1842). Kabul was reoccupied the same year, but British forces were withdrawn from Afghanistan. The second (1878–80) was also fought to exclude Russian influence. By the Treaty of Gandamak (1879) Britain acquired territory and the right to maintain a Resident in Kabul, but in September of the same year the Resident, Sir Louis Cavagnari, was killed in Kabul and further campaigns were fought before the British withdrawal. The third war was fought in 1919, when the new amir of Afghanistan, Amanullah, attacked British India and, although repulsed, secured the independence of Afghanistan through the Treaty of Rawalpindi (1919).

The Revolt of 1857 began as a mutiny of sepoy's of the East India Company's army on 10 May 1857, in the town of Meerut, and soon escalated into other mutinies and civilian rebellions largely in the upper Gangetic plain and central India, with the major hostilities confined to the present states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, northern Madhya Pradesh, and the Delhi region. The rebellion posed a considerable threat to Company power in that region, and was contained only with the fall of Gwalior on 20 June 1858. The rebellion is also known as India's First War of Independence, the Great Rebellion, the Indian Mutiny, the Revolt of 1857, the Uprising of 1857, the Sepoy Rebellion and the Sepoy Mutiny. The Mutiny was a result of various grievances. However the flashpoint was reached when the soldiers were asked to bite off the paper cartridges for their rifles which they believed were greased with animal fat, namely beef and pork. This was considered to be sacrilegious and went against the religious sentiments of Hindus and Muslims respectively.

Other regions such as Bengal, the Bombay Presidency, and the Madras Presidency remained largely calm. In Punjab, the Sikh princes backed the Company by providing soldiers and support. The large princely states of Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore, and Kashmir, as well as the smaller ones of Rajputana, did not join the rebellion. In some regions, such as Oudh, the rebellion took on the attributes of a patriotic revolt against European presence. Maratha leaders, such as Lakshmibai, the Rani of Jhansi, became folk heroes in the nationalist movement in India half a century later; however, they themselves generated no coherent ideology for a new order. The rebellion led to the dissolution of the East India Company in 1858. It also led the British to reorganize the army, the financial system and the administration in India. The country was thereafter directly governed by the crown as the new British Raj.

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## **7.2 OBJECTIVES**

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After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Scrutinize to the Anglo Afghan War
- Examine the Causes and Impact of the Revolt of 1857
- Discuss the Emergence of Nationalism in India

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## 7.3 Anglo Afghan Wars

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### First Anglo-Afghan War

Following a protracted civil war that began in 1816, the Bārakzay clan became the ruling dynasty of Afghanistan, with its most powerful member, Dōst Moḥammad Khan, ascending the throne in 1826. With Great Britain and Russia maneuvering for influence in Afghanistan, Dōst Moḥammad was forced to balance his country between the two great powers. The British, feeling that Dōst Moḥammad was either hostile to them or unable to resist Russian penetration, moved to take a direct role in Afghan affairs. First they negotiated unsatisfactorily with Dōst Moḥammad, and then an invasion of Afghanistan was ordered by the governor-general of India, Lord Auckland, with the object of restoring exiled Afghan ruler Shah Shojā to the throne.

In April 1839, after suffering great privations, the British army entered Kandahār, and Shojā was then crowned shah. Ghazna (now Ghaznī) was captured the following July, and in August Shojā was installed at Kabul. The Afghans, however, would tolerate neither a foreign occupation nor a king imposed on them by a foreign power, and insurrections broke out. Dōst Moḥammad—who had escaped first to Balkh and then to Bukhara, where he was arrested—escaped from prison and returned to Afghanistan to lead his partisans against the British. In a battle at Parwan on November 2, 1840, Dōst Moḥammad had the upper hand, but the next day he surrendered to the British in Kabul. He was deported to India with most of his family.

Outbreaks continued throughout the country, and the British eventually found their position untenable. Terms for their withdrawal were discussed with Akbar Khan, Dōst Moḥammad's son, but Sir William Hay Macnaghten, the British political agent, was killed during a parlay with the Afghans. On January 6, 1842, some 4,500 British and Indian troops, with 12,000 camp followers, marched out of Kabul. Bands of Afghans swarmed around them, and the retreat ended in a bloodbath. Shojā was killed after the British left Kabul. Although in the summer of that same year British forces reoccupied Kabul, the new governor-general of India, Lord Ellenborough, decided on the evacuation of Afghanistan, and in 1843 Dōst Moḥammad returned to Kabul and was restored to the throne. Everything has to have a beginning and like in many other conflicts the spark which eventually led to the Second Anglo-Afghan War occurred far away from the territory of either protagonist. It began in a small remote village in Herzegovina. A rebellion broke out there in 1875 and soon the Balkans were ablaze with revolt. The initial revolt was caused by the rapacity and greed of local landlords, who were mostly Christian, but Herzegovina was a province of the Ottoman Turkish

Empire and as unrest spread it rapidly became a movement seeking the end of Turkish rule. Within a year Bosnia, Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria were affected by anti-Turkish rebellions and the Turkish response was, as always, savage. In May of 1876, bashi-bazouks, fierce Turkish irregular troops, massacred between ten and fifteen thousand Christians in Bulgaria and a storm of protest swept all Europe. For the British government of Prime Minister Disraeli, this was an extreme embarrassment. A central part of Disraeli's foreign policy was the need to maintain the integrity of the Ottoman Empire as a bulwark against Russian expansion in the eastern Mediterranean and Asia Minor. Sitting astride the overland route from Europe to India, it was essential to Britain that the Ottoman Empire not collapse. Should such a collapse occur the Russians would rush in to fill the resulting vacuum and their ability to threaten British interests would be immeasurably enhanced? Disraeli dismissed the first reports of Turkish massacres in the Balkans as 'coffee-house rumours. There was no such embarrassment in St. Petersburg. For two centuries the Russians had dreamed of hoisting their flag over Constantinople and replacing the decaying Ottoman Empire with their own. So constant and single-minded was this desire that some have suggested the initial uprisings in the Balkans in 1875 were not spontaneous but the result of Russian machinations.

This has never been satisfactorily proved. What is certain is that Tsar Alexander welcomed the chance for the Russians to again take up their self-appointed role as 'protectors' of Balkan Christianity and, riding a wave of popular fury at Turkish barbarism, sent his armies south into Bulgaria in the spring of 1877. Everyone in Europe expected a swift Russian victory for her armies were larger, better trained and equipped and marched with the zeal of liberators. They were rudely surprised at the siege of Plevna, in Bulgaria, where a determined Turkish army held out against a combined Russo-Rumanian force. Five months and 40,000 Russian and Rumanian lives later, the defences of Plevna were breached and the town fell. The Russian armies pushed south and Turkish resistance rapidly fell away. In the late winter of 1877 the Tsar's troops halted a mere two days march from Constantinople and as the Russian advance guard looked down into the waters of the Dardenelles, they saw to their horror, the masts of the Royal Navy's Mediterranean Fleet. It had been sent by Disraeli to protect the capital of the Ottoman Sultan, and therefore British interests in the Levant. The message was stark and simple, "Go no further, or risk war with Great Britain.

The Russians, having been beaten by the British just over twenty years before in the Crimean War, climbed down and brought the fighting with Turkey to an end. They had, however, in the discussions which

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ended the war, secured large parts of Eastern Anatolia for themselves and forced the Turks to recognize the independence of Bulgaria. This was unacceptable to Britain who feared that an independent Bulgaria would become, in effect, a Russian satellite and provide the Tsar's armies with a direct land route to the Mediterranean and the ability to menace Britain's communications with India. The British government moved troops from India to Malta and with the support of Austria-Hungary (who had her own reasons for opposing Russian influence in the Balkans) prepared for a war to force Russian withdrawal. War was only averted by the calling of a great congress that was held in Berlin in 1878 under the supervision of the German Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck. The Congress of Berlin swiftly revised the treaty Russian power had earlier imposed on the Turks and everyone seemed to be happy with the new revisions - everyone but the Russians. Most of the territory the Turks had lost was returned to them, Austria-Hungary was given control of Bosnia-Herzegovina and Britain awarded Cyprus. Russia made limited territorial gains. The Russians, understandably, felt cheated.

A thousand miles to the east of Constantinople General Kaufman, the Russian military governor of Turkestan, had found both his anglophobia and ambition stimulated by the events in the Balkans. As the war against Turkey proceeded, Kaufman had foreseen the possibility of British intervention and had begun to gather his forces. He assembled an army of over 30,000 men, the largest force ever assembled by the Russians in Central Asia, and planned to lead it in an invasion of British India as soon as war broke out between Russia and Britain. His planned invasion route was to advance into Afghanistan, march to Kabul and then over the Khyber Pass into the valley of the Indus and the fertile plains of the Punjab. In order to facilitate the passage of his troops through Afghanistan a military mission commanded by Major-General Nikolai Stolietov was to proceed to Kabul and, if not induce the Amir of Afghanistan into signing a treaty, at least get his co-operation in the Russian attack on India.

With the end of the Russo-Turkish War, Kaufman's planned invasion was cancelled but, even as the Congress of Berlin was debating the future of the Balkans, he allowed Stolietov's mission to go ahead anyway. Why he did this is uncertain. Perhaps he felt such a venture would provide information that might prove useful in the future. More likely he simply wished to irritate the British, who had just shown once again their ability to thwart Russian ambitions. Whatever the reason, Stolietov and his staff set off with an escort of 250 cossack cavalrymen and after an uneventful journey reached Kabul, capital of Sher Ali, the Amir of Afghanistan. The Afghans later claimed to have tried to halt

Stolietov at the border, but had been threatened with dire consequences if they refused him permission to enter. Sher Ali's favourite son had just died, another unfavoured son, Yakub Khan, was under house arrest in Kabul and a nephew, Abdur Rahman, was living under Russian protection in Turkestan. The Amir was bluntly told that if he refused to accede to Russian demands, they would actively support Abdur Rahman's claim to the throne. Stolietov stayed in Kabul until August, concluded his business and then returned to Tashkent, leaving behind a promise that 30,000 Russian troops would come to the Amir's aid if he experienced 'difficulties' with the British.

The British were not amused. All their nightmares of Russian hordes pouring through the Khyber Pass and into India seemed to be coming true. To counter this new Russian influence in Kabul and secure India's vulnerable north-west frontier, the Viceroy of India, Lord Lytton, decided to send a similar British mission to Kabul and undo the supposed mischief of Stolietov. Major Louis Cavagnari was chosen to lead the mission and escorted by 250 troopers of the Corps of Guides set out for the Afghan border post of Torkham. Cavagnari was refused permission to enter Afghanistan and this rebuff confirmed the British in their belief that the Russians were intent on controlling Kabul as a prelude to an invasion of India. An ultimatum was sent to Sher Ali. It was ignored and in November three columns of British troops invaded Afghanistan; for the second time in 40 years.

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## **7.4 THE REVOLT OF 1857**

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In 1857, the British completed hundred years of stay in India since the Battle of Plassey. During this time the Indian rulers were unhappy for the loss of former glory and the peasants were discontent at having been reduced to serfs. The traditional craftsmen and artisans were robbed of their livelihoods. And now the colonial powers had all control over trade, commerce, and industries. This was leading to a steady outflow of India's wealth. This period saw a lot of aggressiveness from the British government in consolidating the princely states and strengthening the power of the Colonial rulers.

Dalhousie was responsible for the rising discontent among native states. Lord Canning, who succeeded him shortly before the revolt, could read the writing on the wall and said grimly, 'we must not forget that in the sky of India, serene as it is, a small cloud may arise, at first no bigger than a man's hand, but which, growing larger and larger, may at last threaten to burst and overwhelm us with ruin'.

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## 7.5 CAUSES OF THE REVOLT OF 1857

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**The following are the causes of the Revolt of 1857.**

### 1. Political Causes

One of the main causes of the Revolt was the Doctrine of Lapse. The arbitrary ways in which adopted sons were not allowed to succeed led to much resentment. The states which were affected were Satara (1848), Jaitpur, Sambhalpur (1849), Baghat (1850), Udepur (1852) Jhansi (1853) and Nagpur (1854). The annexation that caused the most controversy was that of Awadh in 1856. Even though the Nawab of Awadh, Wajid Ali Shah was loyal to the British he was accused of mis-governance. The company's soldiers were now upset as they were loyal to the Nawab and the annexation of Awadh meant that the soldiers and their relatives would have to pay higher taxes. A new land revenue act was introduced and this meant higher taxes for the landowners. The Zamindars also were against their lands being confiscated.

The company also stopped the annual pension of Nana Sahib, the adopted son of last Peshwa Baji Rao II. He proved to be a deadly enemy of the British.

There was unemployment also because the people who did not know English lost their jobs since now Persian and Urdu were no longer acceptable in government jobs. These people were called Ashrafs and held posts in the judicial and revenue department and they joined the revolt as they wanted to get back their jobs and prestige.

### 2. Military Causes

The soldiers or sepoy of the British Army revolted mainly because the cartridges used in the guns were coated with grease made from cow and pig fat. Soldiers who belonged to the upper caste among Hindus protested for the cow fat and the Muslims for the pig fat. Earlier also many sepoy had shown resentment over having to cross the sea to go to Burma as that was considered against some Hindu ritual. They were also unhappy with the pay structure as some high ranking Hindu soldier would get less than a low ranking English soldier. There were bleak chances of getting promoted also. Many spend all their service life in the same post. Then there were rumours of sepoy being forcibly converted to Christianity.

### 3. Religious Causes

The large number of conversion being made by Christian missionaries were also cause of concern for the majority of Hindus and Muslims. There were news of humiliation by British on Hinduism and Islam. The efforts of some reformists were also seen as conspiracy against Hindu



religion and interference in the internal matters of Hindus. Then a law was enacted in 1850, which also enabled those who converted into Christianity to inherit ancestral property. This was really opposed by the majority.

#### **4. Administrative and Economic Causes**

The complete monopoly of the British on trade and commerce of the country also led to a lot of resentment. The native trade, handicraft, and other livelihoods were being destroyed by the monopoly of the British traders. The revenue system was also breaking the back bone of the local economy. With the annexation of Indian states consumers for local Indian goods and industry was not patronized and British goods were promoted and this led to large scale unemployment. And all these people also joined the revolt.

#### **Nature of the Revolt**

The real nature and cause of the revolt is debatable. Each historian has his own interpretation. The most well-known and acceptable one being the story of Mangal Pandey, a sepoy of 34th native infantry of Bengal Army. When he fired at a Sergeant Major at Barrackpore on March 29, 1857 (Bengal), he did not realize that he was creating history. He was later executed but this led to wide spread revolts in Meerut where soldiers killed English officers and started marching towards Delhi.

Many historians like Ear Stanley, T.R Homes. Forest, Innes and Sir John Lawrence stated the greased cartridges as the cause of the mutiny and called it a barbaric act. Some like Sir James Outram and W. Taylor described it as a conspiracy by Hindus and Muslims. Some called it a national revolt.'

Sir Sayyed Ahmed Khan, described it as a resentment for not having political organization in his book *Asbab-i-Baghawat-i-Hind* (causes of the revolt of India). V.D. Savarkar in his book *War of Indian Independence* called it the first war of independence. Even though the revolt began in the army it soon spread to other areas as well. Some historians were of the view that this sowed the seeds of the cry for independence. Yet, there are the following contrarian views:

#### **Events of the Revolt**

From Meerut the Sepoys marched to Delhi and declared Bahadur Shah Zafar as the Emperor of India. Then they attacked Daryaganj near Chandni Chowk area. Here large number of English lived. Soon Delhi was a battle ground. In Delhi the leaders failed to lead well and soon the battle in Delhi was losing ground.

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The revolt spread to different parts of the country after the outbreak in Delhi. Kanpur, Bareilly, Lucknow, Allahabad, Banaras, Faizabad, Jhansi, Jagdishpur (Arrah), Danapur and Patna were raging. In Lucknow, the revolt was led by Begum Hazrat Mahal who declared Birjis Qadar, her son, as the Nawab of Awadh. The British Resident Henry Lawrence was killed. Sir Colin Campbell tried to save the Europeans with the help of the Gorkha regiment.

From Kanpur, Nana Saheb with the support of Tatya Tope led the movement. Sir Hugh Wheeler, the commander of garrison surrendered on June 27, 1857. When Sir Campbell captured Kanpur, Tantia Tope escaped and joined Rani Laxmibai.

Rani Laxmibai, the ruler of Jhansi was a victim of the Doctrine of Lapse and revolted since her adopted son was not allowed to ascend to the throne and her state was being annexed by the British. She was declared ruler of Jhansi by the soldiers. Tatya Tope and Rani Jhansi together attacked Gwalior.

The Indian soldiers were with them but the ruler of Gwalior, Scindia, was loyal to the British. He escaped to Agra. Gwalior fell in June 1858. Rani died fighting on June 17, 1858. Tope was arrested and executed. At Jagdishpur (Bihar) Kunwar Singh led the revolt and defeated the British forces near Arrah.

At Bareilly, Khan Bahadur Khan led the revolt and in Faizabad, it was led by Maulvi Ahmadullah and in Patna by Maulvi Pir Ali. They were also part of the Wahabi movement and were against British so they joined the revolt.

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## **7.6 COURSE OF THE REVOLT**

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### **1. Delhi**

It was recaptured by General John Nicholson in September, 1857. However, he later died of his wounds. Lt. Hodson killed the Mughal Emperor's sons and a grandson. Bahadurshah was later sent to Burma on exile.

### **2. Kanpur**

Sir Hugh Wheeler fought against Nana's forces. Many Englishmen, women and children were killed. Major General Havelock on 17th July defeated Nana and recaptured Kanpur after a tough battle. Many Indian were killed by Brigadier General Neill. After this Sir Colin Campbell he became the new commander in chief of the Indian Army in August 1857.

### 3. **Lucknow**

Death of Sir Henry Lawrence on 2nd July 1857; arrival of Havelock, Outram and Neill with reinforcements (25th September ) and death of Neill; relief of the besieged British by Sir Colin Campbell on 17th November, death of Havelock in December 1857, and its occupation by Tope; its final reoccupation by Campbell on 21st March, 1858.

### 4. **Jhansi and Gwalior**

Jhansi's recaptured by Sir Hugh Rose on 4th April, 1858 and the escape of Rani Laxmibai; capture of Gwalior (whose soldiers revolted and drove out their ruler, Scindia) by Rani, death of Rani on 17th June, 1858 and recapture of Gwalior by Rose on 20th June.

### 5. **Bareilly**

Recaptured by Campbell on 5th May 1858.

### 6. **Arrah**

Suppression of the Bihar movement under Kunwar Singh by William Taylor and Vincent Eyre temporarily in August, 1857; escape of Kunwar to Awadh and his return to Bihar in April, 1858, to fight his last battle (he died on 9th May).

### 7. **Banaras and Allahabad**

Recaptured by Neill in June 1857.

### 8. **Central India**

The whole of central India and Bundelkhand was brought under British control by Sir Hugh Rose in the first half of 1858. But Tope, after losing Gwalior, escaped to Central India and carried on guerrilla war for 10 months.

Finally, he was betrayed by Man Singh (a feudatory of Scindia) and was executed by the British on 18th April 1859. Nana Saheb, Begum of Awadh and Khan Bahadur escaped to Nepal in December 1858 and died there. Bakht Khan went to Awadh after the fall of Delhi, and died fighting the British on 13th May, 1859. Maulavi Ahmadullah was treacherously murdered by Raja of Puwain in June 1858.

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## **7.7 RESULTS OF THE REVOLT**

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The main reasons why the revolt failed were as follows:

1. The revolt was not a national event and hence failed to leave an impact. The revolt had no effect on the southern states of India. The sepoys of Madras were loyal to the British Sepoys of Punjab, Sindh,

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Rajputana and east Bengal did not join the mutiny and the Gorkhas were loyal allies of the British.

2. The British had very talented officers to lead the counter attack, some

of them being Nicholson, Outram, Edwards etc.

3. Only the rulers who had lost their throne and state joined the revolt. Many remained loyal. Sir Dinkar Rao of Gwalior and Salar Jung of Nizam did not support the rebellion in fact they suppressed it. The British remained grateful to the Nizams for a long time for this.

4. The battle was lopsided towards the British as they had more resources.

5. Lack of leadership and proper strategies led to the failure of the revolt. There was no proper coordination. Bahadur Shah Zafar was a coward and was concerned about his own safety. He proved to be the weakest link. There was no faith in him.

6. There was no larger vision or goal for the revolt. It was led by feudal lords who did not have any game plan but to secure their own selfish interests. They hardly had anything new to challenge the mighty British rule.

7. Since the survival of the Zamindars and moneylenders depended on the British economy, they did not support the revolt.

8. The educated middle class was not part of the revolt. The number of such people was small and they had not much say. And many of them were for British rule as they saw it as a means for the country's modernization.

### **Impact of the Revolt**

The base of the company's hold on India was shaken by the Revolt of 1857. Thereafter a stronger mechanism and administrative policy was placed in order to strengthen the British rule in India. The reactionary and vested interests were well protected and encouraged and became pillars of British rule in India. Since then the British adopted the divide and rule policy to weaken the back bone of India. Key positions in civil and military administration were now in the control of the British.

### **The various effects of the Revolt of 1857 may be summarized as follows:**

- The revolt of 1857 marked the end of British imperialism. A new policy was passed by the Queen of England which announced that the Indian States would no longer be annexed. The Nizam, Rajput,

Maratha and Sikh Chiefs were applauded for their loyalty and rewarded by certificates and Sanad.

- The number of Europeans in the Army was increased from 40,000 to 65,000 and that of Indian soldiers was reduced to 1.4 lakhs from 2.38 lakhs. The ratio of Indian to English soldiers in the Bengal army was made 1:2 and in Madras to 1:3.
- After the Revolt of 1857, the British pursued the policy of divide and rule.
- The Doctrine of Lapse was withdrawn.
- In August 1858, the British Parliament passed an Act, which put an end to the rule of the Company. The control of the British government in India was transferred to the British Crown. A 15-member council of India headed by Secretary of State for India was formed. The Secretary of State was made responsible for the Government of India.
- The British Governor-General of India was now also given the title of Viceroy, who was also the representative of the Monarch.
- Total expense of the suppression of the Revolt was borne by Indians.
- The Revolt of 1857 led to the rapid growth of nationalism among the literate Indians. The formation of various political associations, such as the East India Association (1866), Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1867), Indian League (1875), Indian Association (1876), Madras Mahajan Sabha (1884) and Bombay Presidency Association (1885), and finally the Indian National Congress (1885) was the result of growing national consciousness.
- The Revolt of 1857 saw for the first time unity among Hindus and Muslims. So in that sense it was a historic movement.

*Anglo afghan wars, the revolt of 1857, causes, course, results*

*Notes*

**Check Your Progress**

When was the started Anglo Afghan War?

List one main political cause of the Revolt of 1857.

Why did the soldiers or sepoys of the British Army revolt?

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## 7.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

### QUESTIONS

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1. The main reason for the Anglo Afghan War.
  2. One of the major causes of the Revolt was the Doctrine of Lapse.
  3. The soldiers or sepoy of the British Army revolted mainly because the cartridges used in the guns were coated with grease made from cow and pig fat.
  4. Soldiers who belonged to the upper caste among Hindus protested for the cow fat and the Muslims for the pig fat.
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### 7.9 SUMMARY

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- The first occurred (1838-42) when Britain, concerned about Russian influence in Afghanistan, sent an army to replace Dost Muhammad with a pro- British king, Shah Shuja al- Mulk.
- Resistance to Shuja's rule culminated in an uprising (1841), which led to the destruction of the British Indian forces in Kabul during their withdrawal to Jalalabad (1842).
- In 1857, the British completed hundred years of stay in India since the Battle of Plassey. During this time the Indian rulers were unhappy for the loss of former glory and the peasants were discontent at having been reduced to serfs.
- One of the main causes of the Revolt was the Doctrine of Lapse. The arbitrary ways in which adopted sons were not allowed to succeed led to much resentment.
- The soldiers or sepoy of the British Army revolted mainly because the cartridges used in the guns were coated with grease made from cow and pig fat.
- The complete monopoly of the British on trade and commerce of the country also led to a lot of resentment.
- The revolt was not a national event and hence failed to leave an impact.
- The revolt had no effect on the southern states of India.
- The base of the company's hold on India was shaken by the Revolt of 1857. Thereafter a stronger mechanism and

administrative policy was placed in order to strengthen the British rule in India.

- The presence of the British in India can be divided into two phases. One phase was between 1772 and 1858, during which the East India Company traded with help from British army and the second phase was from 1858 to 1947, when the British Crown ruled.
- Till the revolt the Charter Act of 1853 allowed the East India Company to rule India. After the Revolt of 1857 the British Empire ended the company's rule and proclaimed India to be part of the British crown.
- The first phase of the Indian freedom struggle can be thought to have begun with the germination of nationalist thought among the Indian people. There is no specific date or decade to signify the origin of Indian nationalism.

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## 7.10 KEY WORDS

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- **The Revolt:** The Indian Rebellion of 1857 was a major, but ultimately unsuccessful, uprising in India in 1857–58 against the rule of the British East India Company.
- **Government of India Act 1858:** The British Governor-General of India was now also given the title of Viceroy, who was also the representative of the Monarch.
- **Nationalism:** It is a political, social, and economic ideology and movement characterized by the promotion of the interests of a particular nation, especially with the aim of gaining and maintaining the nation's sovereignty (self-governance) over its homeland. .
- **Colonialism:** It refers to the policy or practice of acquiring full or partial political control over another country, occupying it with settlers, and exploiting it economically.
- **Lord Canning:** statesman and governor-general of India during the Indian Mutiny of 1857.

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## 7.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. How did the started Anglo Afghan War?
2. Discuss the nature of the Revolt of 1857.
3. What was the Government of India Act, 1858?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the causes of the Revolt of 1857.
  2. Why did the Revolt of 1857 fail? What was the impact of the revolt?
  3. Describe the causes of the Anglo Afghan War?
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## 7.12 FURTHER READINGS

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## **Block- III: TRANSITION POWER AND VICEROYS ADMINISTRATION**

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*Transition of power to crown,  
the age of viceroys, lord  
canning, lord lytton, lord ripon*

*Notes*

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### **UNIT-8 TRANSITION OF POWER TO CROWN, THE AGE OF VICEROYS, LORD CANNING, LORD LYTTON, LORD RIPON**

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8.1 Introduction

8.2 Objectives

8.3 Transition of Power to Crown

8.4 The Age of Viceroys

8.5 Lord Canning

8.6 Lord Lytton

8.7 Lord Ripon

8.8 Answers to Check your Progress Questions

8.9 Summary

8.10 Keywords

8.11 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

8.12 Further Readings

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#### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Since the uprising of 1857 came as a shock to the British, they took to maintaining a safe distance from Indians. ... A little after the British were declared victors, the British Parliament passed the Government of India Act on 2nd August 1858 transferring power from the British East India Company to the British Crown. In August 1858, the British parliament passed an act that set an end to the rule of the company. The control of the British government in India was

transferred to the British crown. At this time, Victoria was the queen of Britain.

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## **8.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Discuss to the Transition of Power Crown
  - Examine the the Age of Viceroys
  - Discuss to the Lord Canning
  - Explain the Lord Lytton and Ripon
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## **8.3 TRANSITION OF POWER TO CROWN**

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On 2nd August 1858 the Parliament passed a bill to take over the administration of India from the East Indian Company by the British Crown. The title of Viceroy was introduced for the supreme representation of the British Government in India. The provision of this bill called for the dissolution of the British East India Company that was ruling India under the patronage of the Parliament and transfer of that power to the British Crown. The then Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, Lord Palmerston, introduced this bill, which would transfer power from the East India Company to the Crown, citing shortcomings in their administration of India.

This bill was passed in 1858, the year following the first war of Independence in India (or what the British referred to as the Indian Rebellion) to calm down the after effects of the uprising. Right till the nineteenth century nothing threatened the rule of the British in the Indian sub-continent, until the first Indian war of Independence in 1857. The British East India Company which was essentially a British Joint Stock Company established to engage in trade with the Indian sub-continent and the North-West Frontier Provinces and Balochistan, was completely unprepared for this sudden and violent uprising, which caused large scale devastation in India. The East India Company was condemned by the British Government for their lack of control and allowing this event to take place. To further avoid such a disaster, The East India Company had to surrender all their power to the British Crown. Eventually, the East India Company was nationalized and lost all its administrative powers to the Crown, which ushered in a new age of the British Raj.

The uprising of 1857 was absolutely unexpected and shook the foundation of British rule in India. British newspapers carried gruesome reports of the ghastly atrocities of the Indians upon the British, drastically changing the impression the British had of Indians.

Native Indians, who were earlier thought of being simple minded people, now appeared as bloodthirsty and capable of killing the British who ruled them. This worried the British immensely, though they were still not willing to give up India that easily. Reason being that India was an important colony for the British Empire, being a source of notable wealth. Also, unlike other British dependents, India did not require any subsidies from London, because of the land taxes.

Following the uprising of 1857, the British Government realized that their rule in India wasn't flawless, something which needed immediate rectification. Realising how vulnerable they were in India at that point, the British began working on some major reforms. This began with the reorganizing of the army. It was recommended that the number of European troops necessary for the security of the British Empire in India would be 80,000. It was also decided that the number of native troops would be reduced. Apart from this it was also decided that the sepoy troops would be recruited from different parts of the country, especially areas which were neutral to the British and spoke different languages, to prevent sepoy unity, leading to another uprising. The power of the commanding officer in the military to punish was also increased.

Apart from military reforms, the British took other steps for their security in India. This was seen in the passing of the Indian Police Act, which called for uniform police service across the Indian sub-continent. The act also required that each Indian district should have a British Superintendent, who would be assisted by a Deputy Superintendent and an inspector (who could be a native).

Another critical step taken by the British to ensure their safety in India was the passing of an Act in 1859 to disarm the local population. This act gave the local magistrate the power to enter homes and search for arms and if there was a suspicion that arms were hidden in a village, a person's personal possessions were confiscated until the arms were handed over. Those found in the possession of arms without a license would be fined Rs. 500 and could additionally also be sentenced to seven years on prison or corporal punishment.

Since the uprising of 1857 came as a shock to the British, they took to maintaining a safe distance from Indians. The British began by moving out into new suburbs constructed on the outskirts of towns and cities which were all white neighbourhoods, with minimal contact with the natives, whom they had begun to view with suspicion.

Another target of British mistrust was the Muslim community, whom the British believed were the ones solely responsible for the 1857 uprising. The British had come to believe that the Muslim community

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was the only community which would have benefited from the 1857 uprising. Elsewhere in India political changes were occurring. The last of the Mughal Empire was wrapped up by the British who captured Delhi and arrested the last Mughal Bahadur Shah II and his two sons. The Emperor's sons were found guilty of murder and were executed and the aged Bahadur Shah was sent to exile in Burma, where he later died in 1862.

A little after the British were declared victors, the British Parliament passed the Government of India Act on 2nd August 1858 transferring power from the British East India Company to the British Crown. The image of the East India Company was so terribly blemished because of the events of 1857 that they lost the right to rule the Indian sub-continent forever.

It is interesting to note that the uprising of 1857 was not the only reason why the East India Company lost their power. Prior to 1857 there was simmering fury in Britain against the misrule of the Company which upset the British Government greatly. The British Government was looking for ways through which they could take away India from the hands of what they called a "trading company". An opportunity presented itself in the form of the uprising of 1857 which allowed authorities in London to take appropriate action against the East India Company.

After the rule of the Company in India came to an end, the British Government set up a new system of rule in India. A position of "Secretary of State for India" was created which was responsible for managing Indian affairs from London. Also, the Governor-General of India in Kolkata (then Calcutta) was given the new title of Viceroy of India, who would be the personal representative of the Monarch. The position of the Viceroy was so critical that by the end of the 19th Century it was held by some of the most prominent leaders in Britain; a reflection of how important India was to London.

### **Government of India Act, 1858**

The presence of the British in India can be divided into two phases. One phase was between 1772 and 1858, during which the East India Company traded with help from British army and the second phase was from 1858 to 1947, when the British Crown ruled.

Till the revolt the Charter Act of 1853 allowed the East India Company to rule India. After the Revolt of 1857 the British Empire ended the company's rule and proclaimed India to be part of the British crown. The East India Company was held responsible for the revolt. Even though the company tried to show how it had been of great service to the Empire, the Empire did not pay heed.

The British Empire was convinced that rule of the company had to go and hence, Lord Palmerston, the British Prime Minister, introduced the Bill for Better Government of India, in February 1858. In an addressing to the House of Commons, he said, ‘the principle of our political system is that all administrative functions should be accompanied by ministerial responsibility to parliament but in this case the chief function in the government of India are committed to a body not responsible to parliament, not appointed by the crown, but elected by persons who have no more connection with India than consists in the simple possession of so much India Stock’.

After pointing out the drawbacks of the company and showing how this was leading to more confusion convinced the crown of its defects and the Parliament passed the Bill for a Better Government of India on August 1858.

### **Provisions**

1. The rule of the East India Company was stopped by the Government of India Act of 1858 and the British parliament became responsible for all matters regarding India. A Viceroy was appointed as the representative of British Empire in India. Army and land erstwhile held by the company became part of the British Crown.

2. A council of 15 members was formed and the powers of the Court Director and the Board of Control were handed over to the Secretary of State for India. The task of administration and control was invested in the Secretary of State. He was also allowed to sit in the parliament.

Out of the 15 members of the council the British crown appointed 8 and the Court Directors appointed 7. It was mandatory that at least 9 members of the council must have served in India for not less than three years and they must not have been away from India for more than ten years at the time of their appointment. The members got £1200 per annum from India’s exchequer.

3. The secretary of the state had powers to take decisions in the following areas and also the following duties like:

(i) He had the power of veto against the decision of council.

(ii) He had also the power of casting vote.

(iii) He had to honour the decision of council in the matters of revenue, appointments, purchase, mortgage and sale of properties of the Government of India.

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(iv) He was permitted to write secretly to the Viceroy without informing the council.

(v) He had the power to make new rules for Indian Civil Services in which now Indians were allowed.

4. The British Crown had the power to appoint the Viceroy and Governor- General and governors of Bombay and Madras Presidencies. And the Viceroy had the power to appoint the Lieutenant Governor with the permission of the British Government.

5. It was the task of the secretary of state to make reports on Revenue, Law, Railways and Construction before the House of Commons, the lower house of British Parliament. The permission of the Parliament was needed to use the revenue for military expeditions outside India. The secretary of state was answerable to the British Parliament and the parliament had the right to remove him.

Lord Canning announced Queen Victoria's proclamation on 1st November 1858, at Allahabad. This proclamation used the term Viceroy for the first time. The proclamation also assured that no more annexation would be done of states, no one would be converted to Christianity and proper qualifications were laid out for employment to the government jobs. It was assured that laws enacted would take into account Indian traditions and culture. The ownership of properties and succession would be protected. The peasants were also promised rights on proper payment of taxes. Age of Viceroys.

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#### **8.4 LORD CANNING (1856-57)**

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The most significant event during his administration was the outbreak of the Sepoy Revolt of 1857. He suppressed it and the Parliamentary Act of 1858.

By the Proclamation of the Queen, the East India Company's rule ended and the Crown of England took over the government of India. Though he meted out punishment to those who had taken part in the uprising, yet he avoided indiscriminate vengeance on the Indians as far as possible and thus earned the title of 'Clemency Canning'. He restored law and order in an effective way and introduced a new system of administration. In April 1859 he received thanks of both Houses of Parliament for his great services during the mutiny.

He reorganized the British Indian army and restored financial stability by introducing income tax, a uniform tariff of ten percent and a convertible paper currency. To remove certain grievances of the cultivators of Bengal under the Permanent Settlement passed the Bengal Rent Act in 1859 to give better security to the tenants. The

British started tea and coffee plantations. The recommendations of Charles Wood on education made in 1854 were given effect and the three universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were founded in 1857. He appointed a commission to enquire into the grievances of the peasants of Bengal and Bihar against the European Indigo-planters.

It is important for Civil Services aspirants to have a good understanding of the events that took place under Lord Canning, who became the first Viceroy of India, under the Government of India Act, 1858. The events that immediately preceded the appointment of Lord Canning as Governor-General of India, and his tenure in general, is important for an IAS aspirant in both the Civil Services (Prelims) and Civil Services (Mains) Examination. British rule in India under Lord Canning came during a time when tensions between the ruling elite and the Indian people reached its lowest ebb, which ultimately resulted in the revolt of 1857. This period in Indian history is very important to civil services aspirants, as it had a profound impact on Indian history, and influenced the course of her freedom struggle.

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- He implemented many reforms in India, and as a Viceroy, he abolished the 'Doctrine of Lapse', and read the Queens Proclamation Act, on 1st Nov 1858 from Allahabad, in which it was said that the Queen of England is the Queen of India and many declarations of the Queen were thus formulated in India.
- Also, the council of the Viceroy was extended, and now onwards, this council was known as the 'Imperial Legislative Council'. The members of the Legislative council were allocated portfolios, i.e. different departments to handle. This was known as the 'Canning model of Business'.
- To this extent, Canning was an innovator and a consolidator of British rule over India. The Secretary of State became the highest governing body of India in London.
- The last President of the Board of Control, 'Sir Charles Wood', became the first Secretary of State for India. Thus the structure of the Government had changed, but the function of the Government had remained almost the same.
- Lord Canning also abolished the 'Doctrine of Lapse', and from now Indian princes were allowed to adopt a successor in order to carry forward their rule. This decision was taken keeping in mind that in the revolt of 1857, many rulers of the native Indian

states participated because they were not allowed to adopt their heirs.

- Thus the British governing system wanted to pacify the ruling elite of India.

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## **8.5 LORD LYTTON (1876-80)**

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British poet and diplomat Edward Robert Bulwer-Lytton (1831–91) was viceroy of India between 1876 and 1880. He was appointed by Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, a Conservative, at a time of intense competition between Britain and Russia over control of Central Asia. During his viceroyalty Lytton worked to improve the Indian administration and supervised his government's much-criticized response to the Great Famine of 1876–78. Lytton was also widely criticized for his assertive, "forward" policy toward Afghanistan, which in the view of his detractors was responsible for provoking the Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878–80). Presented here is *The History of Lord Lytton's Indian Administration, 1876 to 1880*, a narrative of Lytton's viceroyalty, compiled by his daughter, Lady Betty Balfour, from private and official documents. Lytton had requested in his will that his wife "endeavour to obtain the assistance of some statesman or writer" to produce a complete record of his administration. The family first chose Lytton's close friend and colleague Sir John Strachey to write it, but when Strachey's health made it impossible for him to continue the work the task fell to Lytton's daughter. Published in 1899, the book is a straightforward account of the events of Lytton's administration, presented in chronological order. It is comprised of 12 chapters, and covers such issues as the Delhi Assemblage of 1877 that proclaimed Queen Victoria as Empress of India, the frontier negotiations of 1877, the famine of 1876–78, the 1878 Russian mission to Kabul, and the negotiations conducted and treaties concluded with the rulers of Afghanistan. One chapter is devoted to Lytton's controversial Vernacular Press Act, which restricted the freedom of India's non-English newspapers. The book concludes with a fold-out map of India and surrounding territories, which shows the land gained from Afghanistan by British India after 1786. Lady Betty Balfour later became known for her support of the suffrage movement and female education.

He was a nominee of the conservative government of Benjamin Disraeli. He was very reactionary and repressive in Indian affairs passed the Vernacular Press Act, Arms Act etc.

**The Royal Titles Act 1876 and great famine of 1876-78.** The British passed the royal titles act, investing Queen Victoria with the title Of Kaisf-I-Hind or Queen Empress of India. A magnificent durbar was



held on Delhi on January 1, 1877, to proclaim it to the people and the chief of India. Millions of rupees were spent on this show, while countless number of Indian people were dying of starvation and hunger due to a severe famine ranging in different parts of India. But this durbar proved to be a blessing in arousing national consciousness.

**The vernacular press act 1878.** On the account of widespread famine and government's apathy to people's sufferings there was several agrarian from gang robberies and attacks on moneylenders, which were highlighted by the vernacular press. To gag the press, the vernacular press act was passed which empowered a magistrate to call upon the printer and publisher of any vernacular newspaper to enter into an undertaking not to publish anything likely to create disaffection against the government. This act was nicknamed the gagging act.

**The arms act 1878.** This act made it a criminal offence to keep, hearing traffic in arms without license. The act was mainly resented on the ground that it smacked of racial discrimination because the European, Anglo- Indians and some other categories of government officials were escaped from the operation of this act

**The Statutory Civil Services.** The charter act of 1833 had provided for the holding of a competitive examination in London for recruitment to higher service under the company. The British bureaucracy in India was opposed to the entry of Indians into the civil services. Lord Lytton was also of the same and wanted to close the doors of covenanted service to the Indian altogether. Having failed to do so, he took steps calculated to discourage Indians from competing for the said examination by lowering the maximum age from 21 to 19 years. "Throughout this was regarded as a deliberate attempt to blast the prospects of Indian candidates for the Indian Civil Services"

**Second afghan war,** 1878 Lytton provoked a senseless war with the Afghan with a view to establish a scientific frontier towards north - west. This wild adventure proved to be a failure, while the government squandered millions extorted from the poor Indians.

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## **8.6 LORD RIPON (1880-84)**

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History : Lord Ripon (1880-84)

Lord Ripon was a staunch Liberal democrat with faith in self-government. He was appointed as the Viceroy of India by Gladstone, the Liberal Party Prime Minister of England. Ripon was instructed to reverse the Afghan policy of Lytton.

Lord Ripon was a staunch Liberal democrat with faith in self-government. He was appointed as the Viceroy of India by Gladstone,

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the Liberal Party Prime Minister of England. Ripon was instructed to reverse the Afghan policy of Lytton. Therefore, as soon as he came to India, peace was made with Afghanistan without affecting the British prestige. The proposal of appointing a Resident in Kabul was dropped. He was also responsible for the rendition of Mysore to its Hindu ruler. Moreover, he repealed the Vernacular Press Act and earned much among Indians. Then, he devoted himself to task of liberalising the Indian administration.

### **Introduction of Local Self-Government (1882)**

Ripon believed that self-government is the highest and noblest principles of politics. Therefore, Ripon helped the growth of local bodies like the Municipal Committees in towns and the local boards in taluks and villages. The powers of municipalities were increased. Their chairmen were to be non-officials. They were entrusted the care of local amenities, sanitation, drainage and water-supply and also primary education. District and taluk boards were created. It was insisted that the majority of the members of these boards should be elected non-officials. The local bodies were given executive powers with financial resources of their own. It was perhaps the desire of Ripon that power in India should be gradually transferred to the educated Indians. He also insisted on the election of local bodies as against selection by the government. In all these measures, Ripon's concern was not so much for efficiency in administration. Instead, Ripon diffused the administration and brought the government closer to the people. This was his most important achievement. It was Ripon who laid the foundations of the system which functions today.

### **Educational Reforms**

Like Lord William Bentinck, Lord Ripon was a champion of education of the Indians. Ripon wanted to review the working of the educational system on the basis of the recommendations of the Wood's Despatch. For further improvement of the system Ripon appointed a Commission in 1882 under the chairmanship of Sir William Hunter. The Commission came to be known as the Hunter Commission. The Commission recommended for the expansion and improvement of the elementary education of the masses. The Commission suggested two channels for the secondary education-one was literary education leading up to the Entrance Examination of the university and the other preparing the students for a vocational career. The Commission noted the poor status of women education. It encouraged the local bodies in the villages and towns to manage the elementary education. This had resulted in the extraordinary rise in the number of educational institutions in India.

### **First Factory Act (1881)**

Lord Ripon introduced the Factory Act of 1881 to improve the service condition of the factory workers in India. The Act banned the appointment of children below the age of seven in factories. It reduced the working hours for children. It made compulsory for all dangerous machines in the factories to be properly fenced to ensure security to the workers.

### **Ilbert Bill Agitation (1884)**

Lord Ripon wanted to remove two kinds of law that had been prevalent in India. According to the system of law, a European could be tried only by a European Judge or a European Magistrate. The disqualification was unjust and it was sought to cast a needless discredit and dishonour upon the Indian-born members of the judiciary. C.P. Ilbert, Law Member, introduced a bill in 1883 to abolish this

### **Educational Reforms**

Like Lord William Bentinck, Lord Ripon was a champion of education of the Indians. Ripon wanted to review the working of the educational system on the basis of the recommendations of the Wood's Despatch. For further improvement of the system Ripon appointed a Commission in 1882 under the chairmanship of Sir William Hunter. The Commission came to be known as the Hunter Commission. The Commission recommended for the expansion and improvement of the elementary education of the masses. The Commission suggested two channels for the secondary education-one was literary education leading up to the Entrance Examination of the university and the other preparing the students for a vocational career. The Commission noted the poor status of women education. It encouraged the local bodies in the villages and towns to manage the elementary education. This had resulted in the extraordinary rise in the number of educational institutions in India.

### **First Factory Act (1881)**

Lord Ripon introduced the Factory Act of 1881 to improve the service condition of the factory workers in India. The Act banned the appointment of children below the age of seven in factories. It reduced the working hours for children. It made compulsory for all dangerous machines in the factories to be properly fenced to ensure security to the workers.

### **Ilbert Bill Agitation (1884)**

Lord Ripon wanted to remove two kinds of law that had been prevalent in India. According to the system of law, a European could be tried

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only by a European Judge or a European Magistrate. The disqualification was unjust and it was sought to cast a needless discredit and dishonour upon the Indian-born members of the judiciary. C.P. Ilbert, Law Member, introduced a bill in 1883 to abolish this discrimination in judiciary. But Europeans opposed this Bill strongly. They even raised a fund of one lakh fifty thousand rupees and established an organisation called the Defence Association. They also suggested that it was better to end the English rule in India than to allow the English to be subjected to the Indian Judges and Magistrates. The press in England joined the issue. Hence, Ripon amended the bill to satisfy the English in India and England.

The Ilbert Bill controversy helped the cause of Indian nationalism. The Ilbert Bill Controversy is a high watermark in the history of Indian National Movement. Ripon was totally disillusioned and heartbroken and he tendered his resignation and left for England. The immediate result of this awakening of India was the birth of the Indian National Congress in 1885, the very next year of Ripon's departure.

### **Estimate of Lord Ripon**

Lord Ripon was the most popular Viceroy that England ever sent to India. The Indians by and large hailed him as 'Ripon the Good', because he was the only Viceroy who handled the Indian problems with compassion and sympathy. His attempt to remove racial distinction in the judiciary, the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, the rendition of Mysore and the introduction of the Local-Self Government increased his popularity among Indians. His resignation was deeply regretted by Indians who cherished his memory with gratitude.

#### Check Your Progress

What is the Transition of Power Crown?

List one The Age of Viceroys?

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## **8.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. The system of Transition of Power Crown to path of 1858 Act.
2. Lord Canning was the Viceroys of India from 1858 to 1862.

3. Lord Lytton British poet and diplomat Edward Robert Bulwer-Lytton (1831–91) was viceroy of India between 1876 and 1880. He was appointed by Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, a Conservative, at a time of intense competition between Britain and Russia over control of Central Asia.
4. Lord Lytton (AD 1872-76): Known as the 'Viceroy of Reverse Character' Royal Titles Act of 1876 and the assumption of the title of 'Empress of India' by Queen Victoria, the Delhi Durbar in January 1877.
5. Repeal of Vernacular Press Act: Lord Ripon opposed the Vernacular Press Act passed by Lord Lytton, in order to provide freedom to the newspapers published in vernacular languages.
6. The Factory Act: The first factory was passed by Lord Ripon. Economic Reform: Lord Ripon was a follower of financial decentralization.
7. Lord Ripon is known as Father of Local Self Government in India. This was not enacted by any act; it was a resolution that was passed in 1882.

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## **8.8 SUMMARY**

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- The Government of India Act 1858 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Queen's Principal Secretary of State received the powers and duties of the Company's Court of Directors.
- The Crown also assumed the responsibilities of the Company as they related to treaties, contracts, and so forth.
- After Lord Canning became the viceroy, the doctrine of lapse was withdrawn.
- Three universities were established in Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay.
- After the Indian council act came in action, the imperial legislative council came into existence after the act.
- Benjamin Disraeli was the PM of Britain and Lytton was the Viceroy. As a result of this act, the people were banned from

possessing weapons. . The Arms Act of 1878 (passed during the viceroyship of Lord Lytton) prevented the Indians to keep arms without appropriate license. Its violation would be a criminal offence.

- Lord Ripon is known to have granted the Indians first taste of freedom by introducing the Local Self Government in 1882. ... He led a series of enactments in which larger powers of the Local self government were given to the rural and urban bodies and the elective people received some wider rights

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## **8.9 KEY WORDS**

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- Portfolio system: Lord Canning, who was the Governor-General and Viceroy at the time, introduced the portfolio system. In this system, each member was assigned a portfolio of a particular department.
- ICS: Lytton, Viceroy of India in his tenure from 1876 to 1880, reduced the age from 21 to 19 for the Indian Civil Services (ICS).
- Lord Ripon: The Factory Act: The first factory was passed by Lord Ripon. ... Economic Reform: Lord Ripon was a follower of financial decentralization.

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## **8.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on the Transition Power?
2. Whoes the Viceroys in India?
3. Discuss the portfolio system?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the reforms introduced by Lord Rippon?
2. Discuss the features of the Vernacular Press Act?

3. Examine the Transition of Power Crown?

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**8.11 FURTHER READINGS**

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*Transition of power to crown,  
the age of viceroys, lord  
canning, lord lyton, lord ripon*

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## **UNIT-9 CURZON, IRWIN, LOUIS MOUNTBATTEN, RELATIONS WITH NATIVE STATES, THE ACT OF 1861, 1892, 1909, 1919, 1935**

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- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Curzon
- 9.4 Irwin
- 9.5 Louis Mountbatten
- 9.6 Relations with Native States
- 9.7 The Act of 1861, 1892, 1909, 1919, 1935
- 9.8 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 9.9 Summary
- 9.10 Keywords
- 9.11 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 9.12 Further Readings

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### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Except in so far as it had a direct influence on economic development or on humanitarian problems, Lord Curzon, during his Indian Viceroyalty, showed no marked interest in scientific research. Science did not appeal to him as a branch of culture comparable to history and literature. It is true that, four years before he was appointed Viceroy, he had made a distinct mark as an explorer in the Pamirs, when he solved the problem of the source of the Oxus; but this diversion to physical geography was rather an accidental byproduct in a journey mainly devoted to the political aspects of geography and sport. Still, the recognition of this work by the Royal Geographical Society left him with the impression that geography at any rate was a science, and, so far as one could guess from his official and personal activities in India, it gave him the impression also that science was geography. Workers in other branches he seemed to regard as having a limited usefulness in solving political and economic problems, and sometimes



in assisting his remarkable work in restoring respect for India's unappreciated relics of archaeological and historical value. His action in dispersing the fine collection of fishes (which had been prepared by Col. Alcock in the Calcutta Museum), to provide an opportunity for a preliminary display of the historical collections designed for the Victoria Memorial, revealed his want of appreciation of the claims of those forms of culture that had had no part in his earlier education. Fortunately, no other science workers offered obstacles to his activities, and so they could not share to the full the resentment displayed by the zoologists.

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native states, the act of 1861,  
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## 9.2 OBJECTIVES

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

- Describe the reforms introduced by Lord Curzon
- Examine the Relation with Native States
- Discuss the Irwin and Mountbatten
- Explain the Act of 1861, 1892, 1909, 1919

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## 9.3 CURZON

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George Nathaniel Curzon, 1st Marquess Curzon of Kedleston, KG, GCSI, GCIE, PC, FBA (11 January 1859–20 March 1925), who was styled as Lord Curzon of Kedleston between 1898 and 1911, and as Earl Curzon of Kedleston between 1911 and 1921, and was known commonly as Lord Curzon, was a British Conservative statesman who served as Viceroy of India from 1899 to 1905, during which time he created the territory of Eastern Bengal and Assam, and as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs from 1919 to 1924.

Despite his illustrious success as both Viceroy and Foreign Secretary, especially at the recent Conference of Lausanne, in 1923 Curzon was denied the office of Prime Minister. This was partly because Curzon was a member of the House of Lords, and partly because Lord Davidson to whom Baldwin was loyal and Sir Charles Waterhouse falsely claimed to Lord Stamfordham that the resigned Prime Minister Bonar Law had recommended that George V appoint Baldwin, not Curzon, as his successor. Curzon had been the candidate for Prime Minister preferred by the 4th Marquess of Salisbury, the son of the former Prime Minister, the 3rd Marquess.

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Winston S. Churchill, one of Curzon's main rivals, accurately contended that Curzon "sow[ed] gratitude and resentment along his path with equally lavish hands". However, even contemporaries who envied Curzon, such as Stanley Baldwin, conceded that Curzon was, in the words of his biographer Leonard Mosley, 'a devoted and indefatigable public servant, dedicated to the idea of Empire'. Sir David Gilmour, in his biography *Curzon: Imperial Statesman* (1994), contends that the insuperable extent of Curzon's efforts for the British Empire was forever unrecompensed by the British polity subsequent to his retirement from the office of Viceroy of India, including after his brilliance as Foreign Secretary at the Conference of Lausanne.

Lord Curzon, in full George Nathaniel Curzon, Marquess Curzon, also called (1898–1911) Baron Curzon of Kedleston or (1911–21) Earl Curzon of Kedleston, (born January 11, 1859, Kedleston Hall, Derbyshire, England died March 20, 1925, London), British statesman, viceroy of India (1898–1905), and foreign secretary (1919–24) who during his terms in office played a major role in British policy making.

### **Early Life**

Curzon was the eldest son of the 4th Baron Scarsdale, rector of Kedleston, Derbyshire. His early development was strongly influenced by the benign neglect of his parents and the dominating character of his governess (whom he termed "a brutal and vindictive tyrant") and of his first preparatory schoolmaster (a firm believer in corporal punishment). At Eton, where he proved a wayward and emotional pupil, he clashed with his tutors but developed an extraordinary gift for assimilating the contents of books; by studying hard in private, he surprised everyone by winning more prizes (for French, Italian, and history, among other subjects) than had ever been carried off before.

Just before entering Oxford in 1878, he was struck down by a devastating pain in his back, the aftermath of a riding accident of four years previous. He refused to accept medical advice to rest and instead donned a leather harness, which he wore for the rest of his life. The back pain was to plague him from that time on, robbing him of sleep, forcing him to take drugs, and often making him querulous and unbalanced at some of the most vital moments in his career and in the affairs of the British Empire. It should be added that the pain sharpened his mind and never kept him from achieving remarkable feats of physical and mental endurance.

Curzon was elected president of the Oxford Union in 1880 and made a fellow of All Souls College in 1883. He had a gift for making friends in high places, and this was apt to be resented by his contemporaries. About this time a verse was circulated at Oxford of which he was to

write later: "Never has more harm been done to one single individual than that accursed doggerel has done to me." It went as follows:

(Blenheim is the residence of the dukes of Marlborough.) Two years later he was dining even more frequently at Hatfield House, ancestral home of Lord Salisbury, Conservative leader in the House of Lords, for whom he was now doing research and drafting speeches. His reward was Salisbury's recommendation of Curzon to the Tories of Southport, Lancashire, who agreed to adopt him as their candidate at the next election. It was a safe Tory seat, and in 1886 Curzon became a Member of Parliament for the first time. With Salisbury's approval he neglected his parliamentary duties to embark on a world tour and came back infatuated with Asia. From this and subsequent journeys emerged three books: *Russia in Central Asia* (1889); *Persia and the Persian Question* (1892), by far the most successful of his works; and *Problems of the Far East* (1894).

### **Rise to Political Eminence**

On November 10, 1891, Curzon took his first step up the political ladder by accepting Salisbury's invitation to become under secretary of state for India in the Tory government. The financial worries that beset him at the time (for he had developed extravagant tastes) were solved when he married Mary Victoria Leiter, daughter of Adolphus (Levi) Leiter, a Chicago millionaire. The marriage took place in Washington, D.C., on April 22, 1895, and the union involved marriage settlements of several millions of dollars. There was also a present from Lord Salisbury: the newly married couple returned from their honeymoon to find him waiting with an offer to Curzon of the job of under secretary of state, Salisbury having just been appointed foreign secretary. Curzon accepted on the condition that he was also to be made a privy councillor, and on June 29, 1895, he was duly sworn in by Queen Victoria at Windsor Castle. From this moment his rise to political eminence was swift.

### **Viceroy of India (1899–1905)**

Curzo procession to Sanchi Tope, 28 November 1899. Curzon and Madho Rao Scindia, Maharaja of Gwalior, pose with hunted tigers, 1901. Curzon and his wife and staff on tour of the Persian Gulf in 1903. In January 1899 he was appointed Viceroy of India. He was created a Peer of Ireland as Baron Curzon of Kedleston, in the County of Derby, on his appointment. This peerage was created in the Peerage of Ireland (the last so created) so that he would be free, until his father's death, to re-enter the House of Commons on his return to Britain. Reaching India shortly after the suppression of the frontier risings of 1897–98, he paid special attention to the independent tribes of the

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north-west frontier, inaugurated a new province called the North West Frontier Province, and pursued a policy of forceful control mingled with conciliation. The only major armed outbreak on this frontier during the period of his administration was the Mahsud–Waziri campaign of 1901.

In the context of the Great Game between the British and Russian Empires for control of Central Asia, he held deep mistrust of Russian intentions. This led him to encourage British trade in Persia, and he paid a visit to the Persian Gulf in 1903. Curzon argued for an exclusive British presence in the Gulf, a policy originally proposed by John Malcolm. The British government was already making agreements with local sheiks/tribal leaders along the Persian Gulf coast to this end. Curzon had convinced his government to establish Britain as the unofficial protector of Kuwait with the Anglo-Kuwaiti Agreement of 1899. The Lansdowne Declaration in 1903 stated that the British would counter any other European power's attempt to establish a military presence in the Gulf. Only four years later this position was abandoned and the Persian Gulf declared a neutral zone in the Anglo-Russian Agreement of 1907, prompted in part by the high economic cost of defending India from Russian advances.

At the end of 1903, Curzon sent a British expedition to Tibet under Francis Younghusband, ostensibly to forestall a Russian advance. After bloody conflicts with Tibet's poorly armed defenders, the mission penetrated to Lhasa, where a treaty was signed in September 1904. No Russian presence was found in Lhasa.

During his tenure, Curzon undertook the restoration of the Taj Mahal and expressed satisfaction that he had done so. Within India, Curzon appointed a number of commissions to inquire into education, irrigation, police and other branches of administration, on whose reports legislation was based during his second term of office as viceroy. Reappointed Governor-General in August 1904, he presided over the 1905 partition of Bengal, which roused such bitter opposition among the people of the province that it was later revoked (1911).

### **Indian Army**

Curzon also took an active interest in military matters. In 1901, he founded the Imperial Cadet Corps, or ICC. The ICC was a corps d'elite, designed to give Indian princes and aristocrats military training, after which a few would be given officer commissions in the Indian Army. But these commissions were "special commissions" which did not empower their holders to command any troops. Predictably, this was a major stumbling block to the ICC's success, as it caused much resentment among former cadets. Though the ICC closed in 1914, it

was a crucial stage in the drive to Indianise the Indian Army's officer Corps, which was haltingly begun in 1917.

Military organisation proved to be the final issue faced by Curzon in India. It often involved petty issues that had much to do with clashes of personality: Curzon once wrote on a document "I rise from the perusal of these papers filled with the sense of the ineptitude of my military advisers", and once wrote to the Commander-in-Chief in India, Kitchener, advising him that signing himself "Kitchener of Khartoum" took up too much time and space, which Kitchener thought petty (Curzon simply signed himself "Curzon" as if he were a hereditary peer, although he later took to signing himself "Curzon of Kedleston"). A difference of opinion with Kitchener, regarding the status of the military member of the council in India (who controlled army supply and logistics, which Kitchener wanted under his own control), led to a controversy in which Curzon failed to obtain the support of the home government. He resigned in August 1905 and returned to England.

### **Last Years**

There were disappointments in politics too. Curzon had decided that the one lesson he must learn from his bitter experience in India was: never to resign. But in his case, it was a poor one. In the postwar government led by Lloyd George, he was appointed foreign secretary, a position for which he was eminently fitted. But time and again he was overruled or pushed aside by his boisterous leader, and his carefully planned policies thwarted. It was a time when resignation might well have gained him the overwhelming support of the Tories (who despised the Liberal coalition leader, Lloyd George) and taken him to the top. Instead, he clung to office, and it was not until Tories took over in 1922 that he came into possession of the full powers of his office. He served with distinction until 1923, painstakingly dealing with the chaotic problems of postwar Europe and the Near East. When the Tory Prime Minister Bonar Law, a dying man, prepared to relinquish office, Curzon had good reason to believe that his efforts would be rewarded by the premiership that he felt he so richly deserved. It was not to be. Backstairs political intrigue (and the fear that a premier in the House of Lords would be "out of touch") resulted in the appointment of a House of Commons man, Stanley Baldwin, as prime minister. It was a bitter blow to Curzon's hopes, but he insisted on presiding at the meeting at which Baldwin was elected to the job for which he was so much better equipped. He hung on to his job as foreign secretary until 1924, when Baldwin replaced him with Austen Chamberlain.

He had been created a marquess in 1921, and more than ever he hoped for a son to inherit his title, but in this too he was to be frustrated. On March 9, 1925, he was operated on for an internal condition, and he

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died of complications less than two weeks later. With him died his marquessate and his earldom. The viscountcy subsequently passed to his nephew and the barony of Ravensdale to his eldest daughter, Lady Irene Curzon.

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## **9.4 Irwin**

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IRWIN, LORD (1881–1959), the first baron Irwin, first earl of Halifax, viceroy and governor-general of India (1926–1931). Edward Frederick Lindley Wood was a respected Conservative Member of Parliament (1910–1925) who served as president of the Board of Education (1922) and minister of Agriculture (1923) before being raised to the peerage as Lord Irwin and named to succeed Lord Reading as viceroy of India. From the outset of his viceroyalty, Irwin was not unsympathetic to Indian political aspirations, and he admired the religious spirit that animated Mahatma Gandhi's politics: that both men were devout helped smooth their subsequent face-to-face negotiations.

On 31 October 1929, with the tacit approval of the home government and over some resistance from of his own council, Irwin announced that "the natural issue of India's constitutional progress was the attainment of Dominion status," and that a Round Table Conference in London would follow the Report of the Simon Commission to lay the groundwork for further political devolution of power to Indians. Without Indian representation, however, the Simon Commission was greeted with black flags and boycott wherever it went in India. India's National Congress responded by boycotting the first Round Table Conference, calling for purna swaraj (complete independence) on 30 January 1930. On 6 April at Dandi, Gandhi launched his famous march to the sea against the salt tax, which turned world opinion against the Raj. That action had been preceded on 2 March by Gandhi's direct appeal to Irwin, announcing his intention to resist the salt tax and urging the viceroy to act to remove the manifold inequities of British rule that left Indians no choice but civil disobedience. Irwin, however, would not countenance violations of the law, even in the furtherance of a cause he respected. His arrest of Gandhi, the Congress's entire Working Committee, and over ninety thousand Indians during the subsequent Satyagraha (nonviolent resistance campaign) led to widespread violence and brutal police atrocities.

British prime minister J. Ramsay MacDonald, recoiling from the damage the satyagraha and its subsequent repression had done to British prestige, expressed the hope that Congress would attend a second "all-party" conference in London, something Congress leaders could hardly do from prison. Accordingly, Irwin released Gandhi, and the two met eight times beginning on 17 February 1930. Winston

Churchill decried the "nauseating and humiliating spectacle of this once inner-temple lawyer [Gandhi], now seditious fakir, striding half-naked up the steps of the viceroy's palace there to negotiate and parley on equal terms with the representative of the King Emperor." But the meeting of "the two Mahatmas," as Sarojini Naidu, the Indian poet and nationalist, referred to these encounters, proved amicable. The resultant Gandhi-Irwin Pact, agreed to on 5 March 1931, was the subject of much debate. It ended the civil disobedience campaign in return for minor British political concessions, but it did allow Gandhi to attend the Second London Round Table Conference. His insistence on serving as the sole representative of India's National Congress, however, proved to be a serious strategic mistake.

Irwin left India in April 1931 and held increasingly responsible posts, culminating in 1938 with his appointment as foreign secretary. His association with Britain's failed policy of appeasement toward Hitler's Nazi regime, however, damaged his reputation. He ultimately accepted appointment as ambassador to the United States, and his wartime service there earned him an earldom in 1944.

Louis Mountbatten, 1st Earl Mountbatten, original name Louis Francis Albert Victor Nicholas, prince of Battenberg, (born June 25, 1900, Frogmore House, Windsor, Eng.—died Aug. 27, 1979, Donegal Bay, off Mullaghmore, County Sligo, Ire.), British statesman, naval leader, and the last viceroy of India. He had international royal-family background; his career involved extensive naval commands, the diplomatic negotiation of independence for India and Pakistan, and the highest military defense leaderships.

He was the fourth child of Prince Louis of Battenberg, afterward Marquess of Milford Haven, and his wife, Princess Victoria of Hesse-Darmstadt, granddaughter of Britain's Queen Victoria. He entered the Royal Navy in 1913 and had various naval assignments before becoming aide-de-camp to the Prince of Wales (1921). In 1922 he married Edwina Ashley (who died in 1960 in North Borneo while on tour as superintendent-in-chief of the St. John Ambulance Brigade). In 1932 he was promoted to captain and the next year qualified as an interpreter in French and German. In command of the destroyer Kelly and the 5th destroyer flotilla at the outbreak of World War II, he was appointed commander of an aircraft carrier in 1941. In April 1942 he was named chief of combined operations and became acting vice admiral and a de facto member of the chiefs of staff. From this position he was appointed supreme allied commander for Southeast Asia (1943–46), prompting complaints of nepotism against his cousin the king. He successfully conducted the campaign against Japan that led to the recapture of Burma (Myanmar). As viceroy of India (March–August 1947) he administered the transfer of

power from Britain to the newly independent nations of India and Pakistan at the partition of the subcontinent that took effect at midnight Aug. 14–15, 1947. As governor-general of India (August 1947–June 1948) he then helped persuade the Indian princes to merge their states into either India or Pakistan. He was created viscount in 1946 and earl in 1947.

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## **9.5 Louis Mountbatten**

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A British statesman and naval officer, Louis Francis Albert Victor Nicholas Mountbatten was a man of honor. Born with the title His Serene Highness Prince Louis of Battenburg in the international royal family background, he went on to become Lord Louis Mountbatten. Over his life, he held the titles of The Right Honourable the Viscount Mountbatten of Burma and The Earl Mountbatten of Burma. Informally known as Lord Mountbatten, he achieved great heights during his life. Mountbatten's career involved extensive naval commands, the diplomatic negotiation of independence for India and Pakistan, and the highest military defence leaderships. Initially starting off as an officer cadet in the Royal Navy, through his intense hard work, dedication and commitment, he raised on to the most coveted position of the British Royal Navy, Admiral of the Fleet. Other than his service at the Navy, Lord Mountbatten assisted in the Britain's exit from India and the latter's emergence as one of the independent nations of the world. For the same, Lord Mountbatten was made the last Viceroy of British India and later held the chair of the Governor General of independent India, being the first to do so. For his exceptional contribution in the Royal Navy, Lord Mountbatten was honoured and decorated by British and other countries of the world.

### **Childhood & Early Life**

Born to Prince Louis of Battenberg and his wife Princess Victoria of Hesse, Louis Francis Albert Victor Nicholas Mountbatten was the youngest of the four children of the couple. He had two sisters, Princess Andrew of Greece and Denmark and Queen Louise of Sweden and a brother George Mountbatten, 2nd Marquess of Milford Haven. Since his birth, he was popularly known by the title His Serene Highness Prince Louis of Battenberg.

Mountbatten received his education at home for the first ten years of his life after which he was sent to Lockers Park School in Hertfordshire. Thereafter, he shifted to the Royal Naval College, Osborne in 1913.



## **Formative Years**

After completing his education, Mountbatten joined the Royal Navy in 1916. He served on-board the 'HMS Lion' and 'HMS Elizabeth'.

At the end of the First World War in 1919, Mountbatten was promoted to sub-lieutenant and attended Christ College, Cambridge where he took a course in engineering.

In 1920, he was promoted to the Lieutenant posted to the battle cruiser 'HMS Renown'. For his immense capability and hard work, he was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant in 1920. Following year, he was transferred to 'HMS Repulse' and accompanied Prince Edward on the latter's tour to India and Japan.

Amidst his naval career, Mountbatten did not let go of his education. He enrolled himself at the Portsmouth Signals School in 1924 to pursue his interest in technological development and gadgetry. Thereafter, he studied electronics at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich. He also enlisted himself as a Member of the Institution of Electrical Engineers.

Mountbatten served as the Assistant Fleet Wireless and Signals Officer of the Mediterranean Fleet for the battleship 'HMS Centurion' in 1926. Two years henceforth, he was promoted to the position of a Lieutenant-Commander.

In December 1932, he was promoted as a Commander and was posted to the battleship 'HMS Resolution'. Mountbatten's first command posting was to the destroyer 'HMS Daring' in 1934. In 1937, he was promoted to the rank of Captain.

## **Role in the Second World War**

In June 1939, Mountbatten was given the command of the battleship Kelly. During Second World War as commander of the 'HMS Kelly' he successfully executed several daring operations. He was also part of the Norwegian campaign. During the war Kelly suffered a lot of wreckage and was finally sunk deep into the water by German dive bombers off the coast of Crete on 23 May 1941.

In 1941, he was appointed captain of an aircraft carrier 'HMS Illustrious'. Since he was the blue-eyed boy of Winston Churchill, he achieved success early in life and rose to important positions and ranks.

By the October of 1941, Mountbatten replaced Roger Keyes as Chief of Combined Operations and was promoted to the rank of Commodore. His profile included planning commando raids across the English Channel and inventing new technical aids to assist with opposed landings.

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Mountbatten also had an important role to play in the disastrous Dieppe Raid in 1942, which caused casualties in great numbers and made Mountbatten a controversial figure among the Canadians. Apart from this failure, Mountbatten had quite a remarkable technical achievements, these include: the construction of an underwater oil pipeline from the English coast to Normandy, an artificial harbour constructed of concrete caissons and sunken ships, and the development of amphibious tank-landing ships

In 1943, Mountbatten was appointed Supreme Allied Commander South East Asia Command (SEAC). Working along with General William Slim, he directed the summoning up of Burma and Singapore from the Japanese. The SEAC was disbanded in 1946 after which Mountbatten returned home with a rear-admiral rank by his side.

### **Role in India**

In 1947, Mountbatten was appointed as the Viceroy of India. He mainly administered the British withdrawal from India with minimal reputation damage and the transition from British India to independent states of India and Pakistan.

Though Mountbatten emphasized on the united, independent India, he could not influence Mohammad Ali Jinnah, who demanded a separate Muslim state of Pakistan, despite being aware of the difficulties that would arise while meeting the demands.

Unable to sway away Jinnah from his modus operandi of a separate Muslim state, Mountbatten adapted himself to the changing situation and concluded that his vision for a united India was an unachievable dream. He then resigned himself to a plan for partition, creating the independent nations of India and Pakistan.

He worked towards setting a fixed date for the transfer of power from British India to the Indians. At the stroke of midnight on August 14-15, 1947, India and Pakistan attained independence. While most of the British officers evacuated the country, Mountbatten remained in New Delhi, the capital of independent India and served as the country's first Governor General for ten months until June 1948.

### **Later Years**

Mountbatten resumed his naval services in 1949. He served as the commander of the 1st cruiser squadron in the Mediterranean Fleet, after which he was promoted as the Second-in-Command of the Mediterranean Fleet in April 1950. Same year, Mountbatten became the Fourth Sea Lord at the Admiralty.

In 1952, he was made the Commander-in-Chief for the Mediterranean Fleet and later on promoted to the ranks of full admiral.

From 1955-59, Mountbatten served as the First Sea Lord and Chief of the Naval Staff at the Admiralty.

In his last years, Lord Mountbatten served as chief of the United Kingdom Defence Staff and chairman of the Chiefs of Staff Committee from 1959 to 1965. During his term as the Chief of Defence, Mountbatten was able to consolidate the three service departments of the military branch into a single Ministry of Defence.

He became Governor of the Isle of Wight in 1965 and then Lord Lieutenant of the Isle of Wight in 1974.

From 1967 until 1978, Mountbatten served as the president of the United World Colleges Organisation

### **Awards & Achievements**

Lord Mountbatten, in his life, was lauded with a long list of medals including British War Medal, Victory Medal, Atlantic Star, Africa Star, Burma Star, Italy Star, Defence Medal, War Medal, Naval General Service Medal, King Edward VII Coronation Medal, King George V Coronation Medal, King George V Silver Jubilee Medal, King George VI Coronation Medal, Queen Elizabeth II Coronation Medal, Queen Elizabeth II Silver Jubilee Medal and Indian Independence Medal

Different countries across the globe recognized the contribution of Lord Mountbatten and decorated him with numerous titles. While Spain honoured him with the Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Isabella the Catholic, Romania presented the Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown and Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Romania. Greece decorated him with a War Cross and Knight Grand Cross of the Order of George I title.

America bestowed upon Mountbatten the Chief Commander of the Legion of Merit, Distinguished Service Medal Asiatic-Pacific Campaign Medal and Bronze Star Medal. On the other hand, China decorated him with the Special Grand Cordon of the Order of the Cloud and Banner.

For his merited contribution, France honoured him with the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour and War Cross title. Other countries and their honors include Grand Commander of the Order of the Star of Nepal (Nepal), Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the White Elephant (Thailand), Knight Grand Cross of the Order of the Netherlands Lion (Netherlands), Knight Grand Cross of the Order of Aviz (Portugal), Knight of the Royal Order of the Seraphim (Sweden), Grand

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Commander of the Order of Thiri Thudhamma (Burma), Grand Commander of the Order of the Dannebrog (Denmark), Grand Cross of the Order of the Seal of Solomon (Ethiopian) and Order of Polonia Restituta (Poland)

### **Personal Life & Legacy**

Mountbatten tied the nuptial knot with Edwina Cynthia Annette Ashley, daughter of Wilfred William Ashley on July 18, 1922.

The two shared a cordial relationship and were blessed with two children, both daughters, Lady Patricia Mountbatten, Countess Mountbatten of Burma, sometime lady-in-waiting to the Queen, and Lady Pamela Carmen Louise (Hicks) sometime lady-in-waiting to the Queen.

Since Mountbatten had no male heir, he created Viscount Mountbatten of Burma of Romsey in the County of Southampton and Earl Mountbatten of Burma and Baron Romsey in the County of Southampton, according to which since he left no sons or issue in the male line, the titles could pass to his daughters, in order of seniority of birth, and to their heirs, male respectively.

On 27 August 1979, Mountbatten was assassinated by IRA, while he was holidaying at his summer home in Mullaghmore, County Sligo.

In 1984, Lord Mountbatten's eldest daughter initiated the Mountbatten Internship Programme in his memory. It was developed to allow young adults the opportunity to enhance their intercultural appreciation and experience by spending time abroad.

### **Trivia**

Not many know that the first Earl Mountbatten of Burma shared an intense liking for polo as like many other members of the royal family. In his lifetime, he even received U.S. patent 1,993,334 in 1931 for a polo stick. He not only introduced the game to the Royal Navy but is also known to have written a book on it.

During his visit to the Imperial Court of Russia at St Petersburg, he became intimate with the doomed Russian Imperial Family, harbouring romantic feelings towards Grand Duchess Maria Nikolaevna. He kept her photograph at his bedside for the rest of his life.

Due to the anti-German sentiments which strongly emerged after the First World War, his Royal family stopped using their German names and titles and adopted British names and titles. As such, Battenburg turned to Mountbatten.

His nickname, Dickie was given by his great-grandmother Queen Victoria, who suggested that his former nickname Nicky was common as many of the youngsters in the Russian Imperial family shared that nickname.

He was made the Viceroy of India and was in-charge with the transition of power from British India to the newly independent states of India and Pakistan. He went on to become the first Governor General of India.

From 1954 until 1959, he was the First Sea Lord, a position that had been held by his father, Prince Louis of Battenberg, some forty years ago. The duo created history in the Royal Navy by being the only father-son pair to attain such high ranks.

### **Top 10 Facts You Did Not Know About Lord Mountbatten**

Prince Charles, Prince of Wales, is Lord Mountbatten's grand-nephew and the two had a close relationship.

Notorious for having numerous affairs over the course of his marriage, he was also rumored to have a sexual interest in men.

His wife Edwina Mountbatten and Jawaharlal Nehru were said to be deeply in love, fuelling talks of an affair.

Mountbatten tried to persuade Jinnah of a united India before the partition but was unsuccessful.

He was granted a patent for a system for maintaining a warship in a fixed position relative to another ship in 1939.

The date of India's independence was chosen to satisfy Mountbatten's vanity. He chose 15 August 1947 because it was the second anniversary of Japan's surrender.

Along with Gandhi and Nehru, he was also cheered on for the ceremonies relating to the transfer of power on 15 August 1947!

Mountbatten remained in New Delhi for ten months after India had achieved independence while most of the other British officers had returned to England.

In 1969, he participated in a 12-part autobiographical television series 'Lord Mountbatten: A Man for the Century'.

He was the first member of the Royal Family to appear on the TV guest show 'This Is Your Life'.

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## 9.6 Relations with Native States

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Before 1857, British had availed themselves of every opportunity to annex princely states. The Revolt of 1857 led the British to reverse their policy towards the Indian States. Most of the Indian princes had not only remained loyal to the British but had actively assisted in suppressing the Revolt. Canning declared in 1862 that “the Crown of England stood forward, the unquestioned Ruler and Paramount Power in all India.” Princes were made to acknowledge Britain as the paramount power.

In 1876, Queen Victoria assumed the title of the ‘Empress of India’ to emphasize British sovereignty over the entire Indian subcontinent. Lord Curzon later made it clear that the princes ruled their states merely as agents of the British Crown. The princes accepted this subordinate position and willingly became junior partners in the Empire because they were assured of their continued existence as rulers of their states.

As the paramount power, the British claimed the right to supervise the internal government of the princely states. They not only interfered in the day to day administration through the Residents but insisted on appointing and dismissing ministers and other high officials.

After 1868, the Government recognized the adopted heir of the old ruler and in 1881, the state was fully restored to the young Maharajah. In 1874, the ruler of Baroda, Malhar Rao Gaekwad, was accused of misrule and of trying to poison the British Resident and was deposed after a brief trial.

The British attitude towards India and, consequently, their policies in India changed for the worse after the revolt of 1857, they now consciously began to follow reactionary policies. The view was now openly put forward that the Indians were unfit to rule themselves and that they must be ruled by Britain for an indefinite period. This reactionary policy was reflected in many fields.

The Indian Councils Act 1861 made several changes to the Council's composition. The council was now called the Governor-General's Legislative Council or the Imperial Legislative Council. Three members were to be appointed by the Secretary of State for India, and two by the Sovereign. (The power to appoint all five members passed to the Crown in 1869.) The Governor-General was empowered to appoint an additional six to twelve members. The five individuals appointed by the Indian Secretary or Sovereign headed the executive departments, while those appointed by the Governor-General debated and voted on legislation.

# INDIAN COUNCIL ACT

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## 9.7 INDIAN COUNCIL ACT OF 1861

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Indian Council Act of 1861 was institutionalized to serve the necessities of cooperation of Indians in the administration of the country. The act restored the power of the Government and the composition of the Governor General's council for executive legislative Purposes.

Indian Council Act of 1861 was institutionalized to serve the necessities of cooperation of Indians in the administration of the country. The act restored the power of the Government and the composition of the Governor General's council for executive & legislative Purposes. It was the first instance in which the portfolio of Council of Governor-General was incorporated. Raja Sir Deo Narayan Singh of Benaras (Jan 1862-1866)

### Provisions of the Indian Councils Act 1861

- For the executive functions of the Council, a fifth member was added. Now there were five members for home, military, law, revenue and finance. (A sixth member for public works was added in 1874.)
- Lord Canning, who was the Governor-General and Viceroy at the time, introduced the portfolio system. In this system, each member was assigned a portfolio of a particular department.
- For legislative purposes, the Governor-General's Council was enlarged. Now, there were to be between 6 and 12 additional members (nominated by the Governor-General).
- They were appointed for a period of 2 years. Out of these, at least half of the additional members were to be non-official (British or Indian).
- Their functions were confined to legislative measures.
- Lord Canning nominated three Indians to the Council in 1862 namely, the Raja of Benares, the Maharaja of Patiala and Sir Dinkar Rao.
- Any bill related to public revenue or debt, military, religion or foreign affairs could not be passed without the Governor-General's assent.
- The Viceroy had the power to overrule the council if necessary.

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- The Governor-General also had the power to promulgate ordinances without the council's concurrence during emergencies.
- The Secretary of State for India in Britain could also dissolve any act passed by the Governor-General's Council.
- This Act restored the legislative powers of the Governor-in-Councils of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay (which was taken away by the Charter Act of 1833).
- The legislative council of Calcutta had extensive power to pass laws for the whole of British India.
- There was provision made for the formation of legislative councils in other provinces. New provinces could also be created for legislative purposes and Lieutenant Governors be appointed for them. Legislative councils were formed in other provinces in Bengal in 1862, North West Frontier Province in 1886 and Punjab and Burma in 1897.

**Assessment of the Indian Councils Act 1861**

- The legislative council had limited role. It was chiefly advisory. No discussion on finance was permitted.
- Even though Indians were nominated, there was no statutory provision for the inclusion of Indians in it.
- It allowed for the decentralisation of administration with the vesting of legislative power to the presidencies of Bombay and Madras.
- The power of ordinance given to the governor-general gave him absolute powers.

**Conclusion**

The Indian Council Act of 1861 fulfilled the aspiration of associating Indians, provided the defective system of law making in India and defined the powers of the legislative councils. Hence, in short the act laid the foundation of administrative system in India which lasted till the end of British rule India.



## **Indian Council Act 1892**

The Indian Council Act of 1892 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom that empowered legislative councils in British India by increasing their size which laid the foundation of Parliamentary system in India and considered as the landmark in the constitutional development of India. The Indian Council Act of 1892 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom that empowered legislative councils in British India by increase their size which laid the foundation of Parliamentary system in India. Before this act, the Indian National Congress put forth with some demand during its session of 1885-1889.

### **Background**

- The Indian National Congress (INC) was formed in 1885. There was a growing feeling of nationalism and this led the INC to put forth some demands to the British authorities.
- One of their demands was the reform of the legislative councils.
- They also wanted the principle of election instead of nomination.
- The INC also wanted the right to hold discussions on financial matters which was hitherto not allowed.
- The Viceroy at the time Lord Dufferin set up a committee to look into the matter. But the Secretary of State did not agree to the plan of direct elections. He, however, agreed to representation by way of indirect election.

### **Provisions of the Indian Councils Act 1892**

The act increased the number of additional or non-official members in the legislative councils as follows:

- Central Legislative Council: 10 – 16 members
- Bengal: 20 members
- Madras: 20 members
- Bombay: 8 members
- Oudh: 15 members
- North Western Province: 15
- In 1892, out of 24 members, only 5 were Indians.

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- The members were given the right to ask questions on the budget (which was barred in the Indian Councils Act 1861) or matters of public interest but had to give notice of 6 days for it.
- They could not ask supplementary questions.
- The principle of representation was initiated through this act. The district boards, universities, municipalities, chambers of commerce and zamindars were authorised to recommend members to the provincial councils.
- The legislative councils were empowered to make new laws and repeal old laws with the permission of the Governor-General.

### Assessment of the Indian Councils Act 1892

- It was the first step towards a representative form of government in modern India although there was nothing in it for the common man.
- The number of Indians was increased and this was a positive step.
- However, since the British conceded only a little, this act led indirectly to the rise of militant nationalism in India. Many leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak blamed Congress's moderate policy of petitions and persuasions for a lack of positive developments and called for a more aggressive policy against British rule.

### Indian Council Act of 1909 | Morley- Minto Reforms: Main Features

Indian Council Act of 1909 is also known as Morley- Minto Reform. It was instituted to placate the Moderates (Congress) and introduces separate electorates on the basis of religion. Therefore Lord Minto came to be known as Father of Communal Electorate in India.

A Morley-Minto Reform was another name of Indian Council Act of 1909, AD which was named after the secretary of state and the Viceroy. It was instituted to placate the moderates. According to this act, the membership of the central and provincial legislative councils was enlarged. However, the number of elected members in these councils was less than half of their total membership. It may also be

remembered that the elected members were not elected by the people but by landlords, organizations or traders and industrialists, universities and local bodies. The British also introduced communal electorates as a part of these reforms. This was meant to create disunity between Hindus and Muslims. Some seats in the councils were reserved for Muslims to be elected by Muslim voters.

### **British Empire**

By this the British hoped to cut off Muslims from the nationalist movement by treating them as apart from the rest of the nation. They told the Muslims that their interests were separate from those of other Indians. To weaken the nationalist movement, the British began to consistently follow a policy of promoting communalism in India. The growth of communalism had serious consequences for the unity of the Indian people and the struggle for freedom. The congress at its 1909 session welcomed the reforms but strongly opposed the reforms the creation of separate electorates on the basis of religion.

The Morley-Minto reforms did not introduce any significant change in the powers of the councils. They did not mark and advance towards the establishments of a representative government, much less swaraj. In fact, the Secretary of state frankly declared that he had absolutely no intention of introducing a Parliamentary form of Government. The autocratic form of government that had been introduced after the revolt of 1857 remained unchanged even after the Morley-Minto reforms.

The only change was that the government started appointing some Indians of its choice to certain high positions. Satyendra Prasad Sinha, who later became Lord Sinha, was the first Indian to be made a member of the Governor-General's executive council. Later he was made a governor of a province, the only Indian to occupy such a high office during the entire period of British rule. In 1911, he was presented in an imperial Darbar that was held at Delhi at where British king, George V, and his queen were also present. The Darbar was also attended by Indian princes who displayed their loyalty to the British crown. Two important announcements were made on the occasion. One was the annulment of the partition of Bengal which had been affected in 1905. The other was the shifting of the capital of British India from Calcutta to Delhi.

### **Background**

- Lord Curzon had carried out the partition of Bengal in 1905. After the Bengal uprising following the partition, the British authorities understood the need for some reforms in the governance of Indians.

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- The Indian National Congress (INC) was also agitating for more reforms and self-governance of Indians. The earlier Congress leaders were moderates but now extremist leaders were on the rise who believed in more aggressive methods.
- INC demanded home rule for the first time in 1906.
- Gopal Krishna Gokhale met Morley in England to emphasise the need for reforms.
- Shimla Deputation: A group of elite Muslims led by the Aga Khan met Lord Minto in 1906 and placed their demand for a separate electorate for the Muslims.
- John Morley was a member of the Liberal government and he wanted to make positive changes in India's governance.

**Major provisions of the Morley-Minto reforms**

- The legislative councils at the Centre and the provinces increased in size.
- Central Legislative Council – from 16 to 60 members
- Legislative Councils of Bengal, Madras, Bombay and United Provinces – 50 members each
- Legislative Councils of Punjab, Burma and Assam – 30 members each
- The legislative councils at the centre and the provinces were to have four categories of members as follows:
- Ex officio members: Governor General and members of the executive council.
- Nominated official members: Government officials who were nominated by the Governor-General.
- Nominated non-official members: nominated by the Governor-General but were not government officials.
- Elected members: elected by different categories of Indians.
- The elected members were elected indirectly. The local bodies elected an electoral college who would elect members of the provincial legislative councils. These members would, in turn, elect the members of the Central legislative council.

- The elected members were from the local bodies, the chambers of commerce, landlords, universities, traders' communities and Muslims.
- In the provincial councils, non-official members were in a majority. However, since some of the non-official members were nominated, in total, a non-elected majority was there.
- Indians were given membership to the Imperial Legislative Council for the first time.
- It introduced separate electorates for the Muslims. Some constituencies were earmarked for Muslims and only Muslims could vote their representatives.
- The members could discuss the budget and move resolutions. They could also discuss matters of public interest.
- They could also ask supplementary questions.
- No discussions on foreign policy or on relations with the princely states were permitted.
- Lord Minto appointed (on much persuasion by Morley) Satyendra P Sinha as the first Indian member of the Viceroy's Executive Council.
- Two Indians were nominated to the Council of the Secretary of State for Indian affairs.

#### **Assessment of the Morley-Minto reforms**

- The Act introduced communal representation in Indian politics. This was intended to stem the growing tide of nationalism in the country by dividing the people on communal lines. The culmination of this step was seen in the partition of the country along religious lines. The effects of differential treatment of different religious groups can be seen to this day.
- The act did nothing to grant colonial self-government which was the Congress's demand.
- The Act did increase Indian participation in the legislative councils, especially at the provincial levels.

## **Government of India Act, 1919 | Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms: Main Features Of the Act**

Government of India Act, 1919 also known as Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms which came into force in 1921. It was instituted in the British Indian polity to introduce the Diarchy, i.e., rule of two which means executive councilors and popular ministers. During the World War Britain and her allies had said that they were fighting the war for the freedom of nations. Many Indian leaders believed that after the war was over, India would be given Swaraj. The British government however had no intention of conceding the demands of the Indian people. Changes were introduced in the administrative system as a result of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, called the Government of India Act, 1919.

### **Main provisions of the Government of India Act 1919**

#### **Provincial government**

##### **Executive:**

- Dyarchy was introduced, i.e., there were two classes of administrators – Executive councilors and ministers.
- The Governor was the executive head of the province.
- The subjects were divided into two lists – reserved and transferred.
- The governor was in charge of the reserved list along with his executive councilors. The subjects under this list were law and order, irrigation, finance, land revenue, etc.
- The ministers were in charge of subjects under the transferred list. The subjects included were education, local government, health, excise, industry, public works, religious endowments, etc.
- The ministers were responsible to the people who elected them through the legislature.
- These ministers were nominated from among the elected members of the legislative council.
- The executive councilors were not responsible to the legislature unlike the ministers.

- The Secretary of State and the Governor-General could interfere in matters under the reserved list but this interference was restricted for the transferred list.

### **Legislature:**

- The size of the provincial legislative assemblies was increased. Now about 70% of the members were elected.
- There were communal and class electorates.
- Some women could also vote.
- The governor's assent was required to pass any bill. He also had veto power and could issue ordinances also.

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### **Central government**

#### **Executive:**

- The chief executive authority was the Governor-General.
- There were two lists for administration – central and provincial.
- Provincial list was under the provinces while the centre took care of the central list.
- Out of the 6 members of the Viceroy's executive council, 3 were to be Indian members.
- The governor-general could issue ordinances.
- He could also certify bills that were rejected by the central legislature.

#### **Legislature:**

- A bicameral legislature was set up with two houses – Legislative Assembly (forerunner of the Lok Sabha) and the Council of State (forerunner of the Rajya Sabha).
- Legislative Assembly (Lower House)
- Members of the Legislative Assembly:
  - The nominated members were nominated by the governor-general from Anglo-Indians and Indian Christians.
  - The members had a tenure of 3 years.
- Council of State (Upper House)
- Only male members with a tenure of 5 years.

*Notes*

- Members of the Council of State:
- The legislators could ask questions and also vote a part of the budget.
- Only 25% of the budget was subject to vote.
- Rest was non-votable.
- A bill had to be passed in both houses before it became a law.
- There were three measures to resolve any deadlock between both the houses – joint committees, joint conferences and joint sittings.
- Governor-General
- The governor-general's assent was required for any bill to become a law even if both houses have passed it.
- He could also enact a bill without the legislature's consent.
- He could prevent a bill from becoming law if he deems it as detrimental to the peace of the country.
- He could disallow any question, adjournment motion or debate in the house.

**Who could vote?**

- Franchise was restricted and there was no universal adult suffrage.
- Voters should have paid land revenue of Rs.3000 or have property with rental value or have taxable income.
- They should possess previous experience in the legislative council.
- They should be members of a university senate.
- They should hold certain offices in the local bodies.
- They should hold some specific titles.
- All this narrowed the number of people who could vote to an abysmal number.

**Indian Council**

- There were to be at least 8 and a maximum of 12 members in the council.



- Half of the members should have ten years of experience in public service in India.
- Their tenure was to be 5 years.
- Their salaries were increased from £1000 to £1200.
- There were to be 3 Indian members in the Council.

### **Other salient features**

- This act provided for the first time, the establishment of a public service commission in India.
- The act also provided that after 10 years, a statutory commission would be set up to study the working of the government. This resulted in the Simon Commission of 1927.
- It also created an office of the High Commissioner for India in London.

### **Merits of the Government of India Act 1919**

- Dyarchy introduced the concept of responsible government.
- It introduced the concept of federal structure with a unitary bias.
- There was increased participation of Indians in the administration. They held some portfolios like labour, health, etc.
- For the first time, elections were known to the people and it created a political consciousness among the people.
- Some Indian women also had the right to vote for the first time.

### **Limitations of the Government of India Act 1919**

- This act extended consolidated and communal representation.
- Franchise was very limited. It did not extend to the common man.
- The governor-general and the governors had a lot of power to undermine the legislatures at the centre and the provinces respectively.

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- Allocation of the seats for the central legislature was not based on population but the 'importance' of the province in the eyes of the British.
- The Rowlatt Acts were passed in 1919 which severely restricted press and movement. Despite the unanimous opposition of Indian members of the legislative council, those bills were passed. Several Indian members resigned in protest.

### **Government of India Act 1935**

Government of India Act of 1935 marked the second milestone towards a completely responsible government in India. It ended Diarchy and provided the establishment of All India Federation. This act served some useful purposes by the experiment of provincial autonomy, thus we can say that the Government of India Act 1935 marks a point of no return in the history of constitutional development in India.

On August 1935, the Government of India passed longest act i.e. Government of India Act 1935 under the British Act of Parliament. This act also included the Government of Burma Act 1935. According to this act, India would become a federation if 50% of Indian states decided to join it. They would then have a large number of representatives in the two houses of the central legislature. However, the provisions with regards to the federation were not implemented. The act made no reference even to granting dominion status, much less independence, to India.

### **British Rule**

With regard to the provinces, the act of 1935 was an improvement on the existing position. It introduced what is known as provincial autonomy. The ministers of the provincial governments, according to it, were to be responsible to the legislature. The powers of the legislature were increased. However, in certain matters like the Police, the government had the authority. The right to vote also remained limited. Only about 14% of the population got the right to vote. The appointment of the governor-general and governors, of course, remained in the hands of the British government and they were not responsible to the legislatures. The act never came near the objective that the nationalist movement had been struggling for.

### **Background**

- There was a growing demand for constitutional reforms in India by Indian leaders.

- India's support to Britain in the First World War also aided in British acknowledgment of the need for the inclusion of more Indians in the administration of their own country.
- The Act was based on:
- Simon Commission Report
- The recommendations of the Round Table Conferences
- The White Paper published by the British government in 1933 (based on the Third Round Table Conference)
- Report of the Joint Select Committees

### **Provisions**

- Creation of an All India Federation
- This federation was to consist of British India and the princely states.
- The provinces in British India would have to join the federation but this was not compulsory for the princely states.
- This federation never materialised because of the lack of support from the required number of princely states.

### **Division of powers**

- This Act divided powers between the centre and the provinces.
- There were three lists which gave the subjects under each government.
- Federal List (Centre)
- Provincial List (Provinces)
- Concurrent List (Both)
- The Viceroy was vested with residual powers.

### **Provincial autonomy**

- The Act gave more autonomy to the provinces.
- Diarchy was abolished at the provincial levels.
- The Governor was the head of the executive.
- There was a Council of Ministers to advise him. The ministers were responsible to the provincial legislatures who controlled them. The legislature could also remove the ministers.

- However, the governors still retained special reserve powers.
- The British authorities could still suspend a provincial government.

### **Diarchy at the centre**

- The subjects under the Federal List were divided into two: Reserved and Transferred.
- The reserved subjects were controlled by the Governor-General who administered them with the help of three counsellors appointed by him. They were not responsible to the legislature. These subjects included defence, ecclesiastical affairs (church-related), external affairs, press, police, taxation, justice, power resources and tribal affairs.
- The transferred subjects were administered by the Governor-General with his Council of Ministers (not more than 10). The Council had to act in confidence with the legislature. The subjects in this list included local government, forests, education, health, etc.
- However, the Governor-General had ‘special powers’ to interfere in the transferred subjects also.

### **Bicameral legislature**

- A bicameral federal legislature would be established.
- The two houses were the Federal Assembly (lower house) and the Council of States (upper house).
- Federal assembly had a term of five years.
- Both houses had representatives from the princely states also. The representatives of the princely states were to be nominated by the rulers and not elected. The representatives of British India were to be elected. Some were to be nominated by the Governor-General.
- There were to be separate electorates for the minority communities, women and the depressed classes.

- Bicameral legislatures were introduced in some provinces also like Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Bihar, Assam and the United Provinces.

### **Federal court**

- A federal court was established at Delhi for the resolution of disputes between provinces and also between the centre and the provinces.
- It was to have 1 Chief Justice and not more than 6 judges.

### **Indian Council**

- The Indian Council was abolished.
- The Secretary of State for India would instead have a team of advisors.

### **Franchise**

- This Act introduced direct elections in India for the first time.
- About 10% of the whole population acquired voting rights.

### **Reorganisation**

- Sindh was carved out of Bombay Presidency.
- Bihar and Orissa were split.
- Burma was severed off from India.
- Aden was also separated from India and made into a Crown colony.

### **Other points**

- The British Parliament retained its supremacy over the Indian legislatures both provincial and federal.
- A Federal Railway Authority was set up to control Indian railways.
- The Reserve Bank of India was established as per this Act.
- The Act also provided for the establishment of federal, provincial and joint Public Service Commissions.

## Assessment

- The Act was a milestone in the development of a responsible constitutional government in India.
- The Government of India Act 1935 was replaced by the Constitution of India after independence.
- The Indian leaders were not enthusiastic about the Act since despite granting provincial autonomy the governors and the viceroy had considerable 'special powers'.
- Separate communal electorates were a measure through which the British wanted to ensure the Congress Party could never rule on its own. It was also a way to keep the people divided.

### Check Your Progress

What was the Curzon Code?

List some of the Assessment in Irwin and Mountbatten.

List of the Indian Council Act.

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## 9.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. Curzon was served as Viceroy of India from 1899 to 1905, during which time he created the territory of Eastern Bengal and Assam, and as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs from 1919 to 1924.
2. The 'Gandhi-Irwin Pact' was a political agreement signed by Mahatma Gandhi and Lord Irwin, the then Viceroy of India, on 5 March 1931 before the second Round Table Conference in London. .Gandhi was impressed by Irwin's sincerity.
3. India and Pakistan attained independence at midnight on the night of 14–15 August 1947; Mountbatten remained in New Delhi for 10 months, serving as India's first governor general until June 1948.

4. The Indian Councils Act 1861 was passed by British Parliament on 1st August 1861 to make substantial changes in the composition of the Governor General's council for executive & legislative purposes.

5. The most significant feature of this Act was the association of Indians with the legislation work

6. A Morley-Minto Reform was another name of Indian Council Act of 1909, AD which was named after the secretary of state and the Viceroy.

*Curzon, Irwin, Louis  
Mountbatten, relations with  
native states, the act of 1861,  
1892, 1909, 1919, 1935*

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## **9.9 SUMMARY**

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- Earl Curzon of Kedleston between 1911 and 1921, and was known commonly as Lord Curzon, was a British Conservative statesman who served as Viceroy of India from 1899 to 1905, during which time he created the territory of Eastern Bengal and Assam, and as Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs from 1919 to 1924.
- This pact was signed between Mahatma Gandhi and the then Viceroy of India, Lord Irwin on 5 March 1931.
- As governor-general of India (August 1947–June 1948) he then helped persuade the Indian princes to merge their states into either India or Pakistan. He was created viscount in 1946 and earl in 1947. Louis Mountbatten speaking before the Constituent Assembly, New Delhi, Aug. 19, 1947.
- The Act of 1909 It was instituted to placate the moderates. The British also introduced communal electorates as a part of these reforms. This was meant to create disunity between Hindus and Muslims.
- Salient Features of the Government of India Act 1935 were as follows: Abolition of provincial dyarchy and introduction of dyarchy at centre. Abolition of Indian Council and introduction of an advisory body in its place. Provision for an All India Federation with British India territories and princely states.
- The Filipino people, imploring the aid of Divine Providence, in order to establish a government that shall embody their ideals,

conserve and develop the patrimony of the nation, promote the general welfare, and secure to themselves and their posterity the blessings of independence under a régime of justice, liberty, ..

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## 9.10 KEY WORDS

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- **Duties of police officers (1861 Act):** It shall be the duty of every police-officer promptly to obey and execute all orders and warrants lawfully issued to him by any competent authority; to collect and communicate intelligence affecting the public peace; to prevent the commission of offences and public nuisances; to detect.
- **Legislative:** The Indian Council Act of 1892 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom that empowered legislative councils in British India by increase their size which laid the foundation of Parliamentary system in India. ... Reforms of the legislative council and adoption of the principle of election in place of nomination.
- **Income Tax:** The Government of India Act of 1919, made a provision for classification of the central and provincial subjects. The Act kept the Income Tax as source of revenue to the Central Government. However, for Bengal and Bombay, to meet their objections, a provision to assign them 25% of the income tax was made.

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## 9.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a short-note on the Curzon?
2. Write short-notes on the Irwin?
3. Discuss to the Mountbatten?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the Relations with Native States?



2. Discuss the features of the Indian Council Act 1919?
3. Examine the Government of India Act 1935?

*Curzon, Irwin, Louis  
Mountbatten, relations with  
native states, the act of 1861,  
1892, 1909, 1919, 1935*

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## **9.12 FURTHER READINGS**

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*Notes*

*Rise of national awakening,  
south indian rebellion, 1800-  
1801, vellore mutiny, rise of  
nationalism, causes, birth of  
inc, moderates, extremists*

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## **UNIT-10 RISE OF NATIONAL AWAKENING, SOUTH INDIAN REBELLION, 1800-1801, VELLORE MUTINY, RISE OF NATIONALISM, CAUSES, BIRTH OF INC, MODERATES, EXTREMISTS**

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10.1 Introduction

10.2 Objectives

10.3 Rise of National Awakening

10.4 South Indian Rebellion

10.5 1800-1801

10.6 Vellore Mutiny

10.7 Rise of Nationalism

10.8 Causes

10.9 Birth of INC

10.10 Moderates

10.11 Extremists

10.12 Answers to Check your Progress Questions

10.13 Summary

10.14 Keywords

10.15 Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises

10.16 Further Readings

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### **10.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The early emergence of a popular patriotic nationalism took place in the mid-18th century, and was actively promoted by the British government and by the writers and intellectuals of the time. The very condition of British rule helped the growth of national sentiment among the Indian people. 2. Political, Administrative and Economic Unification of the Country: Nationalist sentiments grew easily among the people because India was unified and welded into a nation during

the 19th and 20th centuries. The public services brought about the administrative unification of the country. The establishment of uniform currency system, common administration, common laws and judicial structure contributed to India's unification which ultimately helped the rise of national consciousness.

*Rise of national awakening, south indian rebellion, 1800-1801, vellore mutiny, rise of nationalism, causes, birth of inc, moderates, extremists*

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## **10.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

Discuss the Rise of National Awakening

Examine the South Indian Rebellion

Describe the features and importance of INC

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## **10.3 Rise of National Awakening**

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The British rule was largely responsible for a new awakening among the Indians. The British exploitation enraged the Indians. Several factors contributed to the rise of Nationalism among the Indians.

### **Political Unification**

India became politically unified under British hegemony. It also brought administrative unity inside the country. Under one rule, one administrative framework, one set of law, judicial court, administrative officers, etc. became same anywhere and everywhere inside the country. It created awareness among Indians that this vast united India belongs to them and by way, created nationalism within them.

### **Development in the means of communication and transport**

Lord Dalhousie made a lasting contribution for Indians by introducing railways, telegraph and new mode of postal system. Roads were connected with India from one end to the other. Though, all these were meant to serve imperial interest, the people of India capitalized it.

The railway compartment reflected a unit<sup>^</sup> India. All persons, from North to South and East to West, rich and poor and master and servant – all were found inside it. It narrowed down gap among them and gave them the feeling that they all belonged to this vast India which was under the grip the British Raj.

### **Impact of Western Education**

The introduction of English education in 1835 was a milestone in the British administration. It was primarily meant to create an education Indian mass that would faithful servants to the British Raj. However,

with the gradual march of time, the English educated Indians became the pioneers in the socio-politic-economical and religious reforms in India.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Swami Vivekananda, Feroz Shah Mehta, Dadabhai Naoroji, Surendra Nath Banarjee championed the course of liberty, equality humanitarianism etc. The role of Mazzini, Garibaldi and Cavour in the unification of Italy, the unification of Germany by Bismark, the French Revolution, and American War of Independence etc. influenced their mind. Thus, gradually, the English educated Indians became the torch-bearers of Indian nationalism and aroused national consciousness in the minds of millions of Indians.

### **Rediscovery of Indian's glorious past:**

The nineteenth century Indian Renaissance created several avenues in the field of oriental studies. Western scholars like Max Muller, Sir William Jones, Alexander Cunningham, etc. translated several ancient Sanskrit texts of this land and established before the people the glorious cultural heritage of India.

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The influence of western education prompted the educated Indians to reflect the idea of liberty, freedom and nationalism through the vernacular literature. They aimed at arousing the mass to oppose British rule being surcharged by the spirit of nationalism. Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyay's 'Anand Math' (which contained the song Vande Mataram) and Dinabandhu Mitra's play 'Nil Darpan' exerted tremendous influence upon the people and created anti-British feelings among them.

Bharatendu Harish Chandra's play 'Bharata Durdasha' reflected the miserable condition of Indian mass under British rule. Besides several

eminent poets and writers in different languages, e.g. Rabindranath Tagore in Bengali. Vishnu Shastri Chipulunkar in Marathi. Laxminath Bazbama in Assamese, Mohammad Hussain Azad and Altaf Hussain Ali in Urdu etc. contributed a lot to rouse nationalism among the local people through their writings.

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## **Press and Newspaper**

Press and magazines played a dominant role in injecting national feelings in the minds of Indian. Raja Ram Mohan Roy was the pioneer of Indian press and journalism. He edited 'Sambad Kaimiudi' in Bengali and 'Mirat-ul-Akhbar' in Persian. Gradually, several newspapers were edited in different parts of the country in several languages. To mention a few notable ones.

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The 'Amritbazar patrika', 'Hindu Patriot', 'Indian Mirror', 'Bengalee'. 'Sanjivani', 'Sudharani', in Bengali; the 'Maratha'; 'Kesari', 'Native Opinion', 'Indu Prakash in Maharashtra'; 'The Hindu', 'Kerala Patrika', 'Andhra Prakashika' in Madras; 'The Tribime', 'Akhbar-i-Am', 'Koh-i-Noor in Punjab' etc. were the important publications that reflected the colonial rule of the Britishers and aroused nationalism in the minds of Indian people.

## **Economic Exploitation of British**

A nation of shop-keepers, the British people paralyzed Indian economy by draining wealth from this country. The industrial revolution in England helped in the productive process and she needed markets all over the world for selling its products and also needed raw-materials for its factories. Indian was robbed away in both the ways i.e. by providing market for the British goods and supplying raw materials for the factories of England.

The creation of absentee landlords by the Britishers and in association with them the local money-lenders exploited the Indian mass and made them poorer and poorer. The adverse effects of British exploitation were reflected in Indian economy.

Dadabhai Naoroji with his theory of agricultural decay; G. V. Joshi and Ranade with their charges against the ruin of Indian Handicrafts brought before the people the exploitative policy of the Britishers which ruined the Indian economy, factory, handicraft etc. and brought untold miseries to the people and made them poor. The hungry bellies became angry against the British.

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## **Racial Antagonism**

The Englishmen considered themselves as superior in all respects than the Indians. They never wanted to offer the Indians higher jobs even though they were qualified and intelligent. The age limit for Indian Civil Service Examination was kept at twenty one and the examination was held at England.

Aurobinda Ghosh was declared disqualified in horse-riding and could not get through that examination, even if he had qualified the written examination. Thus, the colonial rule was well apparent before the educated Indians who became the vanguard in spreading discontent against the British rule among the Indian mass.

## **The Atrocities of Lord Lytton**

The administration of Lord Lytton discharged venom in the minds of Indian people. He celebrated a ceremony at Delhi Durbar when Queen Victoria assumed the title Kaiser-i-Hind (the Empress of India) when the country was famine-stricken.

He imposed heavy tax on the people of India and spent a large chunk of money in the Afghan war. During his time, the Arms Act was passed which prohibited the Indians from keeping arms without license. His Vernacular Press Act infuriated Indians.

## **The Ilbert Bill Controversy**

During the period of Lord Ripon as Viceroy, the Ilbert Bill was passed. It empowered the Indian judges to try the Europeans.

It created hue and cry among the Europeans and their pressure led to reform the bill inserting a clause that an Indian would try a European in the presence of a European witness. This clearly exposed the malafide intention of the British authority and clearly projected their racial antagonism.

## **The memory of the Revolt of 1857**

When nationalism was flaring up in the minds of Indian people, the memory of the Great Revolt of 1857 flashed back before them. The heroic action of Nana Saheb, Tatya Tope, Rani Laxmi Bai and other leaders of the Revolt became fresh in their mind. It inspired the people to cherish with their memory and to give a toe fight to the British.

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## 10.4 SOUTH INDIAN REBELLION 1801

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The victory over Tipu and Kattabomman had released British forces from several fronts to target the fighting forces in Ramanathapuram and Sivagangai. Thondaiman of Pudukottai had already joined the side of the Company. The Company had also succeeded in winning the support of the descendent of the former ruler of Sivagangai named Padmattur Woya Thevar. Woya Thevar was recognised by the Company as the legitimate ruler of Sivagangai. This divisive strategy split the royalist group, eventually demoralizing the fighting forces against the British.

In May 1801 a strong detachment under the command of P.A. Agnew commenced its operations. Marching through Manamadurai and Partibanur the Company forces occupied the rebel strongholds of Paramakudi. In the clashes that followed both sides suffered heavy losses. But the fighters' stubborn resistance and the Marudu brothers' heroic battles made the task of the British formidable. In the end the superior military strength and the able commanders of the British army won the day. Following Umathurai's arrest Marudu brothers were captured from the Singampunary hills, and Shevathiah from Batlagundu and Doraiswamy, the son of Vellai Marudu from a village near Madurai. Chinna Marudu and his brother Vellai Marudu were executed at the fort of Tirupattur on 24 October 1801. Umathurai and Shevathiah, with several of their followers, were taken to Panchalamkurichi and beheaded on 16 November 1801. Seventy three rebels were banished to Penang in Malaya in April 1802.

The Kongu country comprising Salem, Coimbatore, Karur and Dindigul formed part of the Nayak kingdom of Madurai but had been annexed by the Wodayars of Mysore. After the fall of the Wodayars, these territories together with Mysore were controlled by the Mysore Sultans. As a result of the Third and Fourth Mysore wars the entire Kongu region passed into the hands of the English.

Theeran Chinnamalai was a palayakkarar of Kongu country who fought the British East India Company. He was trained by the French and Tipu. In his bid to launch an attack on the Company's fort in Coimbatore (1800), Chinnamalai tried taking the help of the Marudu brothers from Sivagangai. He also forged alliances with Gopal Nayak of Virupatchi; Appachi Gounder of Paramathi Velur; Joni Jon Kahan of Attur Salem; Kumara Vellai of Perundurai and Varanavasi of Erode in fighting the Company.

Chinnamalai's plans did not succeed as the Company stopped the reinforcements from the Marudu brothers. Also, Chinnamalai changed his plan and attacked the fort a day earlier. This led to the Company

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army executing 49 people. However, Chinnamalai escaped. Between 1800 and July 31, 1805 when he was hanged, Chinnamalai continued to fight against the Company. Three of his battles are important: the 1801 battle on Cauvery banks, the 1802 battle in Odanilai and the 1804 battle in Arachalur. The last and the final one was in 1805. During the final battle, Chinnamalai was betrayed by his cook Chinnamalai and was hanged in Sivagiri fort.

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## **10.5 VELLORE REVOLT (1806)**

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Vellore Revolt 1806 was the culmination of the attempts of the descendents of the dethroned kings and chieftains in south India to throw off the yoke of the British rule. After the suppression of revolt of Marudu brothers, they made Vellore the centre of their activity. The organizers of an Anti-British Confederacy continued their secret moves, as a result of which no fewer than 3,000 loyalists of Mysore sultans had settled either in the town of Vellore or in its vicinity. The garrison of Vellore itself consisted of many aggrieved persons, who had been reduced to dire straits as a sequel to loss of positions or whose properties had been confiscated or whose relatives were slain by the English. Thus the Vellore Fort became the meeting ground of the rebel forces of south India. The sepoys and the migrants to Vellore held frequent deliberations, attended by the representatives of the sons of Tipu.

### **Immediate Cause**

In the meantime, the English enforced certain innovations in the administration of the sepoy establishments. They prohibited all markings on the forehead which were intended to denote caste and religious, and directed the sepoys to cut their moustaches to a set pattern. Added to these, Adjutant General Agnew designed and introduced under his direct supervision a new model turban for the sepoys.

The most obnoxious innovation in the new turban, from the Indian point of view, was the leather cockade. The cockade was made of animal skin. Pig skin was anathema to Muslims, while upper caste Hindus shunned anything to do with the cow's hide. To make matters worse the front part of the uniform had been converted into a cross.

The order regarding whiskers, caste marks and earrings, which infringed the religious customs of both Hindu and Muslim soldiers, was justified on the grounds that, although they had not been prohibited previously by any formal order, it had never been the practice in any well-regulated corps for the men to appear with them on parade.



The first incident occurred in May 1806. The men in the 2nd battalion of the 4th regiment at Vellore refused to wear the new turban. When the matter was reported to the Governor by Col. Fancourt, commandant of the garrison, he ordered a band of the 19th Dragoons (Cavalry) to escort the rebels, against whom charges had been framed, to the Presidency for a trial. The 2nd battalion of the 4th regiment was replaced by the 2nd battalion of the 23rd regiment of Wallajahbad. The Court Martial tried 21 privates (a soldier of lower military rank)– 10 Muslims and 11 Hindus–, for defiance. In pursuance of the Court Martial order two soldiers (a Muslim and a Hindu) were sentenced to receive 900 lashes each and to be discharged from service.

Despite signals of protest the Government decided to go ahead with the change, dismissing the grievance of Indian soldiers. Governor William Bentinck also believed that the ‘disinclination to wear the turban was becoming more feeble.’

Though it was initially claimed that the officers on duty observed nothing unusual during the night of July 9, it was later known that the English officer on duty did not go on his rounds and asked one of the Indian officers to do the duty and Jameder Sheik Kasim, later one of the principal accused, had done it. The leaders of the regiment who were scheduled to have a field day on the morning of 10 July, used it as a pretext to sleep in the Fort on the night of 9 July. The Muslim native adjutant contrived to post as many of his followers as possible as guards within the Fort.

Jamal-ud-din, one of the twelve princes of Tipu family, who was suspected to have played a key role in the revolt, kept telling them in secret parleys that the prince only required them to keep the fort for eight days before which time ten thousand would arrive to their support. He disclosed to them that letters had been written to dispossessed palayakkarars seeking their assistance. He also informed that there were several officers in the service of Purniah (Tipu’s erstwhile minister) who were formerly in the Sultan’s service and would undoubtedly join the standard.

### **Outbreak of Revolt**

At 2:00 a.m. on 10 July, the sentry at the main guard informed Corporal Piercy saying that a shot or two had been fired somewhere near the English barracks. Before Piercy could respond, the sepoys made a near simultaneous attack on the British guards, the British barracks and the officers’ quarters in the Fort. In the European quarters the shutters were kept open, as they were the only means of ventilation from the summer heat. The rebels could easily fire the gun ‘through the barred windows on the Europeans, lying unprotected in their beds.’

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Fire was set to the European quarters. Detachments were posted to watch the dwellings of the European officers, ready to shoot anyone who came out. A part of the 1st regiment took possession of the magazines (place where gun powder and ball cartridges stored). A select band of 1st Regiment was making their rounds to massacre the European officers in their quarters. Thirteen officers were killed, in addition to several European conductors of ordnance. In the barracks, 82 privates died, and 91 were wounded.

Major Armstrong of the 16th native infantry was passing outside the Fort when he heard the firing. He advanced to the glacis and asked what the firing meant. He was answered by a volley from the ramparts, killing him instantly. Major Coates, an officer of the English regiment who was on duty outside the Fort, on hearing of the revolt tried to enter the Fort. As he was unable to make it, he sent off an officer, Captain Stevenson of 23rd, to Arcot with a letter addressed to Colonel Gillespie, who commanded the cavalry cantonment there. The letter reached Arcot, some 25 km away, at 6 a.m. Colonel Gillespie set out immediately, taking with him a squadron of the 19th dragoons under Captain Young, supported by a strong troop of the 7th cavalry under Lieutenant Woodhouse. He instructed Colonel Kennedy to follow him with the rest of the cavalry, leaving a detachment to protect the cantonment and to keep up the communication.

When Colonel Gillespie arrived at the Vellore Fort at 9 a.m., he thought it prudent to await the arrival of the guns, since there was continuous firing. Soon the cavalry under Kennedy came from Arcot. It was about 10 o'Clock. The gate was blown open with the galloper guns of the 19th dragoons under the direction of Lieutenant Blakiston. The troops entered the place, headed by a squadron of the cavalry under Captain Skelton.

The Gillespie's men were met by a severe crossfire. In the ensuing battle, Colonel Gillespie himself suffered bruises. The sepoys retreated. Hundreds escaped over the walls of the Fort, or threw down their arms and pleaded for mercy. Then the cavalry regiment assembled on the parade ground and resolved to pursue the fleeing soldiers, who were exiting towards the narrow passage of escape afforded by the sally port. A troop of dragoons and some native horsemen were sent round to intercept the fleeing soldiers. All the buildings in the Fort were searched, and mutineers found in them pitilessly slaughtered. Gillespie's men wanted to enter the building and take revenge on the princes, the instigators of the plot; but Lt. Colonel Marriott resisted the attempt of the dragoons to kill Tipu's sons.

According to J. Blakistan, an eyewitness to Gillespie's atrocity, more than 800 bodies were carried out of the fort. In W.J. Wilson's estimate 378 were jailed for involvement in the revolt; 516 were considered implicated but not imprisoned. Based on depositions before the Court of Enquiry, the Court Martial awarded death punishment and banishment to select individuals, which were carried out by the commanding officer of Vellore on 23 September 1806.

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## 10.6 RISE OF NATIONALISM

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The latter half of the 19th century witnessed the rise and growth of Indian Nationalism and from then onwards an organised national movement started in India. The year 1885 marks the beginning of a new epoch in Indian history. In that year All Indian Political Organization was set on foot under the name of the Indian National Congress. The Indian mind became increasingly conscious of its political position. Indian masses, under the National congress fought one of the longest non-violent (to some extent violent also) struggle to get their freedom on 15th August 1947.

### CAUSES

**The following causes were responsible for the origin and growth of nationalism in India:**

- **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.
- **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.
- **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

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concepts of liberty, equality, freedom and nationalism and sowed the seeds of nationalism.

- **The Role of the Press:** The Indian Press, both English and vernacular, had also aroused the national consciousness.
- **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.
- **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.
- **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.
- **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.
- **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.
- **Raja Ram Mohan Roy** was the first Indian leader to start an agitation for political reforms in India.
- After 1836, there was rise of many political associations in various parts of India.

- All these associations were headed by ‘elites’ and were regional and local.
- What distinguished these new political associations from earlier religions and caste associations of the country were the secular interest that bonded together the new classes.
- They worked for reform of administration, association of Indians with the administration, and spread of education, and sent long petitions, putting forward Indian demands, to the British Parliament.
- The earliest public association in modern India was the Landholders’ Society – an association of the landlords of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, founded in 1837 with the purpose of promoting the class interests of the landlords.
- In 1843, was organised the Bengal British Indian Society to protect and promote general public interests.
- Landholders’ Society and Bengal British Indian Society were merged in 1851 to form the British India Association.
- This association was dominated by members of the landed aristocracy and its primary objective was safeguarding their class interest.
- However, the Association struck a liberal note and when the time came for the renewal of the charter of the East India Company, it sent a petition to the Parliament praying for establishment of a separate legislature of a popular character, separation of judicial and executive functions, reduction in the salaries of higher officers, abolition of salt duty, abkari and stamp duties etc.
- The prayers of the Association were partially met and the Charter Act of 1853 provided for the addition of six members to the governor-general’s council for legislative purpose.
- Similarly, the Madras Native Association and the Bombay Association were established in 1852.
- Similar, though lesser known clubs and associations, such as the Scientific Society founded by Sayyid Ahmad Khan, were established in different towns and parts of the country.

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- The period after 1858 witnessed a gradual widening of the gulf between the educated Indians and the British Indian administration.
- As the educated Indians studied the character of British rule and its consequences for the Indians, they became more and more critical of British policies in India.
- The discontent gradually found expression in political activity and the existing associations no longer satisfied the politically-conscious Indians.
- In 1866, Dadabhai Naoroji organised the East India Association in London to discuss the Indian question and to influence British public men to promote Indian welfare. Later he organised branches of the Association in prominent Indian cities.
- Two other Associations namely National Indian Association, founded by Mary Carpenter in 1867 and Indian Society, founded by Anandmohan Bose in 1872 were also formed in London.
- Justice Ranade and others organised the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha in the 1870. The Poona Sarvajanik Sabha brought out a quarterly journal under the guidance of Justice Ranade. This journal became the intellectual guide of new India particularly on economic questions.
- The Madras Mahajan Sabha was started in 1881 and the Bombay Presidency Association in 1885. The Bombay Presidency Association was organized by the popularly called brothers in law – Mehtas, Telang and Tyabji, representing the three chief communities of Bombay town. These organisations were mainly devoted to criticism of important administrative and legislative measures.
- Sisir Kumar Ghose founded the Indian league in 1875 with the objective of “stimulating the sense of nationalism amongst the people” and of encouraging political education. Within a year of its foundation, the Indian league was superseded by the Indian Association.

## The Indian Association

- The most important of the pre-Congress nationalist organization was 'The Indian Association of Calcutta'.
- The younger nationalists of Bengal had been gradually getting discontented with the conservative and pro-landlord policies of the British India Association. They wanted sustained political agitation on issues of wider public interest.
- Led by Surendranath and Anandamohan Bose, the younger nationalists of Bengal founded the Indian Association in July 1876.
- The Indian Association set before itself the aims of creating a strong public opinion in the country on political questions and the unification of the Indian people on a common political programme.
- In order to attract large numbers of people to its banner, it fixed a low membership fee for the poorer classes.
- The first major issue it took up for agitation was the reform of the Civil Service regulations and the raising of the age limit for its examination, Surendranath Banerjee toured different parts of the country during 1877-78 in an effort to create an all-India public opinion on this question.
- The Indian Association also carried out agitation against the Arms Act and the Vernacular Press Act and in favour of protection of the tenants from oppression by the zamindars.
- During 1883-85 it organised popular demonstrations of thousands of peasants to get the Rent Bill changed in favour of the tenants.
- It also agitated for better conditions of work for the workers in the English-owned tea plantations where conditions of near-slavery prevailed.
- Many branches of the Association were opened in the towns and villages of Bengal and also in many towns outside Bengal.
- The existing organizations had served a useful purpose but they were narrow in their scope and functioning. They dealt mostly

*Rise of national awakening, south indian rebellion, 1800-1801, vellore mutiny, rise of nationalism, causes, birth of inc, moderates, extremists*

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with local questions and their membership and leadership were confined to a few people belonging to a single city or province.

- Even the Indian Association had not succeeded in becoming an all-Indian body.
- The Indian Association sponsored an all-India National Conference at Calcutta in December 1883. This Conference was attended by several leaders from outside Bengal. It adopted a programme very similar to the one adopted by the Indian National Congress with which it merged in 1886.

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## **10.7 BIRTH OF INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS (INC)**

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The credit for organizing the first meeting of the Indian National Congress goes to a retired government servant A.O. Hume. He was on very good terms with Lord Ripon and shared his view that the emergence of the educated class should be accepted as a political reality and that timely steps should be taken to provide legitimate outlets to the grievances of this class and efforts be made to satisfy its ambitions. He got in touch with prominent Indian leaders and organised with their cooperation the first session of the Indian National Congress at Gokul Singh Tejpal Sanskrit School, Bombay in December 1885. It was presided over by W.C. Banerjee and attended by 72 delegates.

### **The aims and objects of the Congress described in the first session as:**

- Promotion of personal intimacy and friendship amongst the countrymen,
- Eradication of all possible prejudices relating to race, creed or provinces,
- Consolidation of sentiments of national unity,
- Recording of the opinions of educated classes on pressing problems of the day, and
- Laying down lines for future course of action in public interest.
- This organization initially fought for reforms in the country, and subsequently for the freedom of India from the foreign yoke.



- The history of the Indian National Movement can be categorized in three important phases:
- The phase of 1885-1904; Phase of moderate nationalism when the Congress continued to be loyal to the British crown.
- The phase of 1905-1917; Swadeshi Movement, rise of militant nationalism and the Home Rule Movement.
- The phase of 1918-1947; Known as the Gandhian era.

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## **10.8 THE MODERATE CONGRESS (1885-1905)**

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The Indian National Congress founded in 1885, provided common platform for the nationalist leaders to meet & voice their grievances & place their demands before the British government. The early leaders of the Indian National Congress were Dadabhai Naoroji, M.G. Ranade, Sir P.M. Mehta, G.K. Gokhale, and W.C. Banerjee & S.N. Banerjee. They were staunch believers in liberalism and Moderate politics. They came from the upper strata and were the product of western education. The moderates had a fascination for British Parliamentary institutions. They were reformers and believed in the British justice. They wanted a balanced and lucid presentation of their needs before the Englishmen and their parliament. They used the methods of constitutional agitation. They believed that their main task was to educate the people in modern politics & arouse national consciousness, create a united public opinion on political questions. They hold public meetings; they passed resolutions setting forth popular demands, and sent petitions to the British authorities in India and to the parliament in England. The moderates believed that the British were unaware of the real conditions of India. They therefore made all efforts to enlighten the British public opinion through memorials, petitions and political propaganda in England. The Moderates considered the coming of the British as beneficial and providential. They wanted to use the British in their attempts to reform contemporary Indian society. The early nationalist leaders did not expect the Congress to function as a political party. A.O. Hume wanted it to function on the model of the Irish Home Rule League, which sought autonomy in internal affairs under the British suzerainty. Thus, the Western concept of self-government was the political goal of the moderates. This goal was to be achieved through a gradual process.

### **Opinion against Economic Exploitation**

- The Moderates linked the poverty in India to the economic exploitation of the country by the British.

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- Dadabhi Naoroji pointed out the root cause of India's poverty & traced it to the drain of India's wealth.
- The Moderates suggested the development of modern industry as a remedy for the eradication of poverty.
- They popularized the concept of swadeshi as a means of promoting Indian industries.
- They carried on agitation for the reduction in land revenue and asked for a radical change in the existing pattern of taxation & expenditure.
- They urged the government to provide cheap credit to the peasants through agricultural banks and to make available large scale irrigation facilities.
- They demanded improvement in the condition of plantation laborers, abolition of salt tax & other taxes.
- They were critical of the high government expenditure on the army that was employed in Asia & Africa.

### **Administrative Reforms**

- The Moderates demanded for increasing Indianization of administrative services; criticized the oppressive & tyrannical behavior of the police & government officials towards the common people and demanded the separation of the executive from the judiciary.
- They opposed the official policy of disarming the people.
- They emphasized the need for the spread of education, extension of medical facilities to the people, improvement of the public system and demanded freedom of speech & abolition of press censorship.

### **Constitutional Reforms**

They were also extremely cautious, lest the Government suppress their activities. From 1885 to 1892 they demanded the expansion and reform of the Legislative councils. The British Government was forced by their agitation to pass the Indian Councils Act of 1892. By this Act the number of members of the imperial Legislative Council as well as the provincial councils was increased. Some of these members could be elected indirectly by Indians, but the

officials' majority remained. The nationalists were totally dissatisfied with the Act of 1892 and declared it to be a hoax. By the beginning of the 20th century, the nationalist leaders advanced further and put forward the claim for swarajya of self-government within the British Empire on the model of self-governing colonies like Australia and Canada. This demand was made from the Congress platform by Gokhale in 1905 and by Dadabhai Naoroji in 1906.

*Rise of national awakening, south indian rebellion, 1800-1801, vellore mutiny, rise of nationalism, causes, birth of inc, moderates, extremists*

### **Weaknesses**

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The Moderates lacked confidence in the masses. They came from the cities and were sympathetic towards the people of the country side but could not keep close contact with them. They did not realize that a prolonged struggle against imperialism could be waged through a mass movement only. The Moderates apprehended that if they led a mass movement, the British Government would easily break the Congress. The Moderates, therefore, did not organize a mass movement on a large scale.

### **Evaluation**

- The Moderates were the most progressive in Indian society at that time and they were true patriots.
- They desired all-round progress and modernization of India and wished the betterment of the Indian society.
- The Moderates succeeded in creating a wide political awakening in India and arousing among the Indians the feeling of belonging to one common nation.
- They popularized the ideas of democracy & civil liberty.
- They also trained a large number of political workers in the art of modern politics.
- In spite of their loyalty to the British crown, they exposed the true character of the British imperialism in India and blamed British rule for the poverty of the Indian people.

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## **10.9 THE EXTREMIST (1905-1920)**

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The younger group of nationalists in the Indian national Congress led by Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai and Bipin Chandra Pal; was known as the Extremist Congress. This group was extremely critical of the ideology and methodology of the Moderate leadership. They believed in radical programmes for the attainment of their demands.

According to the extremists the Moderates with their elitist background did not succeed in making any effective impact on the masses.

### **Reasons for the Rise of Extremists**

- The failure of the Moderates to win any notable success other than the expansion of the legislative councils by the Indian Councils Act (1892).
- The famine and plague of 1896-97 which affected the whole country and the suffering of the masses.
- The economic conditions of the people became worse.
- The ill-treatment of Indians in South Africa on the basis of colour.
- The Russo-Japanese war of 1904-05 in which Japan defeated the European power Russia. This encouraged Indians to fight against the European nation, Britain.
- Other than above mentioned causes the viceroyalty of Curzon & his reactionary policies contributed to the rise of extremist movement.
- Curzon considered that the main objective of his mission was to strengthen the roots of the British Empire in India
- He curtailed the number of Indians in the Calcutta Corporation & increased the official control over the Indian universities in the name of educational reforms.
- He spent Indian money lavishly on foreign missions, the Delhi Durbar and the Tibetan expedition.
- Curzon's highhanded action forcing the partition of Bengal against the will of the people, earned unpopularity & alienated the educated classes from the British rule.

### **Course of Action**

- Consequently, the extremist leaders such as Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal, Lala Lajpat Rai, and Aurobindo Ghosh advocated stronger agitation and mass action.
- The extremists differed in ideology and action from the moderates. They rejected prayer and petition method of moderates.

- The new leadership sought to create a passionate love for liberty, accompanied by a spirit of sacrifice and readiness to suffer for the cause of country.
- They advocated boycott of foreign goods, use of swadesi goods, national education and passive resistance.
- They had deep faith in mass and they planned to achieve swaraj through mass action.
- The leaders of this wing gave up the soft approach of appeals and petitions.
- Instead, they made radical demands and adopted strong ways of political agitation.
- They had no faith in good intentions of the British government. The extremist aimed at achieving 'swaraj' that meant complete independence from British rule.
- They considered that the demand of the moderate leaders for Swaraj was for colonial self government.
- Tilak remarked, 'Swaraj is my birth right and I shall have it'.
- Aurobindo Ghosh said "political freedom is the life breath of a nation".
- The most outstanding leader among the Extremists was Bal Gangadhar Tilak. He started a school & founded two newspapers, the Maratha in English and the Kesari in Marathi. Both the newspapers, by their fearless criticism of the government attained great popularity.
- In 1890, Tilak opposed the Age of Consent Bill, on the ground that a foreign government had no right to interfere with Hindu religion and social matters and in 1893, also sponsored the cow-protection movement.
- Tilak reorganized the festival of Ganapati, and started the Shivaji festival to revive the spirit of adventure & liberate the country from foreign domination.
- Tilak advised the peasants to withhold payment of land revenues when their crops failed because of draught or famine. He called for Swadeshi and boycott of British goods.

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### **Differences between the Moderates and the Extremists**

- The differences between the Moderates & the Extremists were that the moderates were against the idea of boycott as a general political weapon, though they welcomed swadeshi.
- G.K. Gokhale recommended the use of the word swadeshi to describe the anti partition movement.
- These differences centred round two main points, namely the political goal and the method to achieve it.
- As regards the goal, Tilak summed up his idea in one sentence ‘Swaraj is my birth right and I will have it’.
- The Extremists interpreted Swaraj to mean complete autonomy without any dependence on the British rule. But G.K.Gokhale, did not expect that. He said that there was no alternative to British rule, for a long time to come.
- The differences between the Moderates and the Extremists had become irreconcilable and in 1906 the Calcutta Congress proposed the name of Tilak for the Presidents of the Congress. However, the moderates opposed this proposal.
- A split was avoided by choosing Dadabhai Naoroji; under his president ship four compromise resolutions on Swadeshi, boycott, national education, and self-government demands were passed.

### **The Split in the Surat Congress**

- In 1907, the annual session of the Congress proposed to be held at Nagpur, which was considered as the Extremist stronghold. However, due to the Moderates, the venue was shifted to Surat.
- The final showdown between the two factions in the Congress was staged at Surat. The Extremists wanted Lala Lajpat Rai as the president of the Congress. However, the Moderates chose Rashbehari Ghose as the president.
- The Surat Congress of 1907 ended in a split between the Moderates and the extremists led by Gokhale and Tilak respectively.

**Check Your Progress**

When did the Rise of National Awakening?

When did the South Indian Rebellion?

Who can be considered the true founder of militant nationalism in India?

Who was one of the main leaders of the moderate faction of the Indian National Congress?

List one defect of the Moderates?

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**10.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS****QUESTIONS**

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1. His very condition of British rule helped the growth of national sentiment among the Indian people. Political, Administrative and Economic Unification of the Country: Nationalist sentiments grew easily among the people because India was unified and welded into a nation during the 19th and 20th centuries.
2. The suppression of the Polygar rebellions of 1799 and 1800-1805 resulted in the liquidation of the influence of the chieftains. Under the terms of the Carnatic Treaty (31 July 1801), the British assumed direct control over Tamil Nadu.
3. Bal Gangadhar Tilak can be considered the true founder of militant nationalism.
4. Gopal Krishna Gokhale was one of the main leaders of the moderate faction of the Indian National Congress.
5. The Moderates apprehended that if they led a mass movement, the British Government would easily break the Congress. The Moderates lacked confidence in the masses.

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**10.11 SUMMARY**

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- The victory over Tipu and Kattabomman had released British forces from several fronts to target the fighting forces in Ramanathapuram and Sivagangai.
- The Kongu country comprising Salem, Coimbatore, Karur and Dindigul formed part of the Nayak kingdom of Madurai but had

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been annexed by the Wodayars of Mysore. After the fall of the Wodayars, these territories together with Mysore were controlled by the Mysore Sultans.

- The immediate causes of the mutiny revolved mainly around resentment felt towards changes in the sepoy dress code, introduced in November 1805. Hindus were prohibited from wearing religious marks on their foreheads while on duty, and Muslims were required to shave their beards and trim their moustaches.
- Bal Gangadhar Tilak can be considered the true founder of militant Nationalism in India.
- Tilak was in many ways a pioneer in the Indian freedom movement. He used religious symbols and festivals like Ganesh festival since 1894, to mobilize people.
- Along with Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal, Lala Rajpat Rai was part of the Indian triumvirate of 'Lal Bal Pal'.
- Gopal Krishna Gokhale was one of the main leaders of the moderate faction of the Indian National Congress.
- Along with his role in securing greater rights for Indians, Gokhale was also an important leader attempted to social reforms.
- Popularly known as the Tamil Helmsman, VO Chidambaram Pillai was a prominent freedom fighter from the state of Tamil Nadu.
- An exceptional organizer and someone who believed in employing all resources to rouse the people towards the freedom struggle, Pillai was one of the most famous students of Bal Gangadhar Tilak.

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## **10.12 KEY WORDS**

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- Allan Octavian Hume: he was a member of the Imperial Civil Service (later the Indian Civil Service), a political reformer, ornithologist and botanist who worked in British India. He was one of the founders of the Indian National Congress.



- Colonel Gillespie: taking up his new post, Gillespie was warned of the Vellore Mutiny of 1806. He immediately collected about twenty dragoons, with galloper guns, and he set out ahead of a relief force within a quarter of an hour of the alarm being raised.
- Bipin Chandra Pal was an Indian nationalist, writer, orator, social reformer and Indian independence movement activist. He was one third of the Lal Bal Pal triumvirate. Pal was one of the main architects of the Swadeshi movement. He stood against the partition of Bengal by the colonial British government.

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### **10.13 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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#### Short Answer Questions

1. How was Bal Gangadhar Tilak a pioneer in the Indian freedom movement?
2. Write a short-note on the activities of Vallinayagam Olganathan Chidambaram Pillai?
3. Write a short-note on South Indian Rebellion?

#### Long Answer Questions

1. Discuss in detail the effects of the Vellore Mutiny?
2. Examine the features of the INC? What were its defects?

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### **10.14 FURTHER READINGS**

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## **BLOCK IV**

# **MOVEMENTS AND INDIAN INDEPENDENCE**

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rule movement, rowlat  
sathyagraha, jallianwala  
bagh massacre*

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## **UNIT-11 THE MUSLIM LEAGUE, HOME RULE MOVEMENT, ROWLAT SATHYAGRAHA, JALLIANWALA BAGH MASSACRE**

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- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 TheMuslim League
- 11.4 Home Rule Movement
- 11.5 RowlatSathyagraha
- 11.6 JallianwalaBagh Massacre
- 11.7 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 11.8 Summary
- 11.9 Keywords
- 11.10Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 11.11 Further Readings

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### **11.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Over the course of history, India has faced several invasions. While most of the invaders made their intentions clear right from the word go, the British managed to bring India under their control through a business venture. It all started with the British East India Company, which started off as a mere joint-stock company, but slowly went about

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spreading its wings and influence, before the British government finally took control of the entire country.

The British company had landed in India in the early seventeenth century as traders, but began interfering in Indian affairs around 1750s. After the battle of Plassey (1757), it began to transform from a trading company to a ruling force. As the British began to spread their tentacles over a large part of India, the exploitation of local resources and people began in full force. The British were concerned just about consolidating their rule and power. The British rule had a damaging effect on the social, economic, cultural and political life of Indians, which gradually forced common masses and rulers to rise in revolt against the British rule. Several agrarian, tribal, and political rebellions broke out against the foreign rule, but it was the rebellion of 1857, which proved as a launch pad for all the subsequent struggles against the British rule. The continuously increasing awareness, contact with the outside world, and the urge to free the motherland, gave rise to an organized movement by the end of the nineteenth century, which uprooted the 200-year-old British rule in 1947.

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## **11.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Analyse the Muslim League
- Discuss the factors of Home Rule Movement
- Examine the Rowlat Sathyagraha
- Discuss the Jallian Walabagh Massaere

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## **11.3 MUSLIM LEAGUE**

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Muslim League, original name All India Muslim League, political group that led the movement calling for a separate Muslim nation to be created at the time of the partition of British India (1947). The Muslim League was founded in 1906 to safeguard the rights of Indian Muslims. At first the league was encouraged by the British and was generally favourable to their rule, but the organization adopted self-government for India as its goal in 1913. For several decades the league and its leaders, notably Mohammed Ali Jinnah, called for Hindu-Muslim unity in a united and independent India. It was not until 1940 that the league called for the formation of a Muslim state that would be separate from the projected independent country of India. The league wanted a separate nation for India's Muslims because it feared that an independent India would be dominated by Hindus.

Jinnah and the Muslim League led the struggle for the partition of British India into separate Hindu and Muslim states, and after the formation of Pakistan in 1947 the league became Pakistan's dominant political party. In that year it was renamed the All Pakistan Muslim League. But the league functioned less effectively as a modern political party in Pakistan than it had as a mass-based pressure group in British India, and hence it gradually declined in popularity and cohesion. In the elections of 1954 the Muslim League lost power in East Pakistan (now Bangladesh), and the party lost power in West Pakistan (now Pakistan) soon afterward. By the late 1960s the party had split into various factions, and by the 1970s it had disappeared altogether.

## **Background**

The communal idea that the Muslims are a separate nation was sown into the Indian political ethos first by Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, a philosopher and Muslim reformist. Although he wanted Muslims to get educated and think in a scientific temper, he suggested aligning with the British rather than rebel against them, as most beneficial for the community. He had founded the Muhammadan Educational Conference in 1886 but this organisation stayed away from politics and desisted from even discussing it as per its own code. On 30 December 1906, around 3000 delegates attended a conference of the Muhammadan Educational Conference at Dhaka in which the ban on politics was removed and a motion was moved to form the AIML. The name was proposed by Nawab Khawaja Sir Salimullah Bahadur and seconded by Hakim Ajmal Khan. The AIML was the first Muslim political party of India.

The idea was that the Congress Party was only catering to the needs of the Hindus. This was an erroneous idea since the Congress always meant to include every community of the country and had many Muslim leaders as members. The founders of the Muslim League were: Khwaja Salimullah, Vikar-ul-Mulk, Syed Amir Ali, Syed Nabiullah, Khan Bahadur Ghulam and Mustafa Chowdhury. The first Honorary President of the League was Sir Sultan Muhammad Shah (Aga Khan III). The AIML was essentially a party of educated elite Muslims, at least in the beginning. The party's chief aim was to promote and secure civil rights for Muslims. It espoused loyalty to the British government as a means to achieve more political and civil rights.

### **The objectives of the league were:**

- To create among Muslims the feelings of loyalty towards the British Government.

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- To safeguard the political rights of the Muslims and to convey the same to the government.
- To prevent the rise of prejudice against other communities of India among the Muslims. Muhammad Ali Jinnah joined the league in 1913.

When the Congress party was opposed to the government and fighting for the gradual establishment of an independent India, the league propounded loyalty to the government. They, in fact, provided the government a tool to fight the growing nationalism in the country. Even though partition of the country was not on the minds of Indian Muslims in the early years of the league, it came into the picture after 1930. Leaders of the league began the propaganda that Hindus and Muslims are not one nation and have separate cultures and identities although they have been cohabitating for centuries.

In 1940, Jinnah gave a speech in Lahore in which he talked of the impossibility of living as one nation. In response to this, some members of the league who were opposed to the Two Nation Theory broke away from the party and formed the All-India Jamhur Muslim League (AIJML). The AIJML later merged with the Congress party. In 1937, the Muslim League was not able to form the government in any province in the provincial elections held that year as per the Government of India Act. Even in the 125 non-general constituencies out of which 59 were reserved for Muslims, the Congress managed to win 25 seats with 15 seats coming from the Muslim dominated North-West Frontier Province.

In 1939, the Congress ministries resigned following the viceroy's declaration that made India a party to the Second World War. The league urged Muslims to celebrate December 22 as Deliverance Day. The party, under Jinnah spearheaded the campaign for Pakistan throughout the 1940s and was successful in its mission of dividing the country. The country was partitioned along communal lines along with independence in 1947. The league was dissolved on 14 August 1947. It continues to exist in various forms as political parties in Pakistan, Bangladesh and India. In India, the Indian Union Muslim League functions as a political party with its base in Kerala and ironically, aligns itself with the Congress Party.

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### **11.4 Home Rule Movement**

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Home Rule League, either of two short-lived organizations of the same name in India established in April and September 1916, respectively, by Indian nationalist Bal Gangadhar Tilak and British social reformer and Indian independence leader Annie Besant. The

term, borrowed from a similar movement in Ireland, referred to the efforts of Indian nationalists to achieve self-rule from the British Indian government.

Tilak's group, founded at Poona (now Pune, Maharashtra), concentrated its efforts mostly in western India, and that of Besant, set up at Madras (now Chennai, Tamil Nadu), had more of an all-India scope. Both, however, worked toward the same objective of mobilizing Indian public opinion largely by peaceful means in favour of self-government, and from the start each worked closely with the other. Pressure by Home Rulers on the British contributed to the drafting of the Montagu Declaration in 1917 by Edwin Samuel Montagu, secretary of state for India, which in turn laid the groundwork for political reforms in India instituted by Britain after World War I. By then, however, the influence of the Home Rule organizations had diminished. Although their role in the Indian independence movement had been modest, they did succeed in helping to sustain the movement's impetus during the war years as manifested in the signing of the Lucknow Pact in December 1916.

The Government of India Act 1909 was dissatisfactory to the aspirations of Indians. The Congress Party's split in 1907 and fiery leader Bal Gangadhar Tilak's imprisonment from 1908 to 1914 meant that there was a lull in the national movement. But Tilak's release and the advent of Annie Besant brought about a revival of the national movement. Annie Besant was an Irish socialist, writer and orator who supported the Irish and Indian home rule movements. She arrived in India in 1893. The leaders in India were divided on whether to support Britain in the war or not. Annie Besant however, declared, "England's need is India's opportunity". Having returned from exile in Mandalay, Tilak understood the need for a revival of nationalist movement in the country. He also understood the growing importance of the Congress Party in India's political scene. So, his first task was to get readmitted into the party. (The extremists led by Tilak had separated from the Congress). In the Congress session of December 1915, it was decided to let the extremists re-join the party largely due to Annie Besant's persuasion. Besant had also recognised the need for Congress approval and the active participation of the extremists in the national struggle. However, Besant and Tilak were not able to convince the Congress to support their decision to set up home rule leagues. Besant managed to convince the Congress to pledge to an educative propaganda and the establishing of local-level committees. It was also agreed upon that if these conditions were not satisfied by September 1916, she would be free to set up a home rule league. Accordingly, she set up her Home Rule League in September 1916. Tilak, however, was not bound by any such condition and so had set up his league in April 1916.

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### **Foundation**

- There were two home rule leagues launched.
- Tilak launched the Indian Home Rule League in April 1916 at Belgaum.
- Annie Besant launched the Home Rule League in September 1916 at Madras.
- They had the common objective of achieving self-government in India.
- There was an informal understanding between both the leagues wherein Tilak's league worked in Maharashtra (except Bombay), Karnataka, Berar and the Central Provinces. Besant's league worked in the rest of the country.
- Tilak's league had its headquarters in Delhi. It had 6 branches. Besant's league had 200 branches and was a looser organisation compared to Tilak's.
- The two leagues worked closely with one another. However, they did not merge to avoid friction between both the leaders.

### **Objectives**

1. To achieve self-government in India.
2. To promote political education and discussion to set up an agitation for self-government.
3. To build confidence among Indians to speak against the government's suppression.
4. To demand for a larger political representation for Indians from the British government.
5. To revive political activity in India while maintaining the principles of the Congress Party.

### **Activities**

1. The leagues organised demonstrations and agitations.
2. There were public meetings in which the leaders gave fiery speeches.



3. They were able to create a stir within the country and alarm the British to such an extent that Annie Besant was arrested in June 1917.
4. This move by the British created a nation-wide protest and now even moderate leaders joined the league. Besant was released in September 1917.

### **Significance**

The Home Rule League functioned throughout the year as opposed to the Congress Party whose activities were confined to once a year.

The movement was able to garner a huge support from a lot of educated Indians. In 1917, the two leagues combined had around 40,000 members.

Many members of the Congress and the Muslim League joined the league. Many prominent leaders like Muhammad Ali Jinnah, Joseph Baptista, G S Kharpade and Sir S Subramanya Iyer were among its members.

The moderates, extremists and the Muslim League were briefly united through this movement.

The movement was able to spread political consciousness to more regions in the country.

This movement led to the Montague Declaration of 1917 in which it was declared that there would be more Indians in the government leading to the development of self-governing institutions ultimately realising responsible governments in India. This Declaration (also known as August Declaration) implied that the demand for home rule would no longer be considered seditious. This was the biggest significance of the movement.

### **Failure and Decline**

- The movement was not a mass movement. It was restricted to educated people and college students.
- The leagues did not find a lot of support among Muslims, Anglo-Indians and non-Brahmins from Southern India as they thought home rule would mean a rule of the upper caste Hindu majority.

*The muslim league, home rule movement, rowlat sathyagraha, jallianwala bagh massacre*

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- Many of the moderates were satisfied with the government's assurance of reforms (as precluded in the Montague Declaration). They did not take the movement further.
- Annie Besant kept oscillating between being satisfied with the government talk of reforms and pushing the home rule movement forward. She was not able to provide a firm leadership to her followers. (Although ultimately she did call the reforms 'unworthy of Indian acceptance').
- In September 1918, Tilak went to England to pursue a libel case against Sir Ignatius Valentine Chirol, British journalist and author of the book 'Indian Unrest'. The book contained deprecatory comments and had called Tilak the 'Father of Indian Unrest.' (Tilak lost the case).
- Tilak's absence and Besant's inability to lead the people led to the movement's fizzing out.
- After the war, Mahatma Gandhi gained prominence as a leader of the masses and the Home Rule Leagues merged with the Congress Party in 1920.

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### **11.5 Rowlatt Act**

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Rowlatt Acts, (February 1919), legislation passed by the Imperial Legislative Council, the legislature of British India. The acts allowed certain political cases to be tried without juries and permitted internment of suspects without trial. Their object was to replace the repressive provisions of the wartime Defence of India Act (1915) by a permanent law. They were based on the report of Justice S.A.T. Rowlatt's committee of 1918.

The Rowlatt Acts were much resented by an aroused Indian public. All nonofficial Indian members of the council (i.e., those who were not officials in the colonial government) voted against the acts. Mahatma Gandhi organized a protest movement that led directly to the Massacre of Amritsar (April 1919) and subsequently to his noncooperation movement (1920–22). The acts were never actually implemented.

#### **Rowlatt Act**

- Officially known as the Anarchical and Revolutionary Crimes Act, 1919.
- Passed in March 1919 by the Imperial Legislative Council.

- This act authorised the British government to arrest anybody suspected of terrorist activities.
- It also authorised the government to detain such people arrested for up to 2 years without trial.
- It empowered the police to search a place without a warrant.
- It also placed severe restrictions on the freedom of the press.
- The act was passed as per recommendations of the Rowlatt Committee chaired by a judge, Sir Sidney Rowlatt.
- The act was widely condemned by Indian leaders and the public. The bills came to be known as ‘black bills’.
- The act was passed despite unanimous opposition from the Indian members of the council, all of whom resigned in protest. These included Mohammed Ali Jinnah, Madan Mohan Malviya and Mazhar Ul Haq.
- In response to this act, a nationwide hartal was called by Gandhiji on 6th April. This was called the Rowlatt Satyagraha.
- The movement was cancelled by Gandhiji when it was marred by rioting in some provinces, particularly in Punjab where the situation was grim.
- The British government’s primary intention was to repress the growing nationalist movement in the country.
- The British were also afraid of a Ghadarite revolution in Punjab and the rest of the country.
- Two popular Congress leaders Satya Pal and Saifuddin Kitchlew were arrested.
- Protest was very intense when the act came into effect and the army was called in Punjab to tackle the situation.

*The muslim league, home rule movement, rowlat sathyagraha, jallianwala bagh massacre*

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## **11.6 Jallianwala Bagh Massacre**

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Jallianwala Bagh Massacre, Jallianwala also spelled Jallianwalla, also called Massacre of Amritsar, incident on April 13, 1919, in which British troops fired on a large crowd of unarmed Indians in an open space known as the Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar in the Punjab region (now in Punjab state) of India, killing several hundred people and wounding many hundreds more. It marked a turning point in India’s modern history, in that it left a permanent scar

on Indo-British relations and was the prelude to Mohandas (Mahatma) Gandhi's full commitment to the cause of Indian nationalism and independence from Britain.

### **Jallianwala Bagh Massacre**

- The situation in Punjab was alarming as there were riots and protests against the Rowlatt Act.
- Punjab was put under martial law which meant that it became unlawful for more than 4 people to assemble at a place.
- The Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab at that time was Michael O'Dwyer. Lord Chelmsford was India's Viceroy.
- On the day of the festival of Baisakhi on 13th April 1919 in Jallianwala Bagh, a public garden in Amritsar, a crowd of non-violent protestors had gathered. Also among the crowd were pilgrims who had come to celebrate Baisakhi.
- General Dyer came there with his troops and blocked the only narrow entrance to the garden.
- Then, without warning, he ordered his troops to fire at the unarmed crowd which included children as well.
- The indiscriminate firing went on for about 10 minutes which resulted in the deaths of at least 1000 people and injured more than 1500 people.
- This tragedy came as a rude shock to Indians and totally destroyed their faith in the British system of justice.
- National leaders condemned the act and Dyer unequivocally.
- However, Dyer was appreciated by many in Britain and the British in India although some people in the British government were quick to criticise it.
- The government set up the Hunter Commission to inquire into the massacre. Although the commission condemned the act by Dyer, it did not impose any disciplinary action against him.
- He was relieved of his duties in the army in 1920.
- In protest against the massacre and the British failure to give due justice to the victims, Rabindranath Tagore gave up his knighthood and Gandhiji relinquished his title 'Kaiser-e-hind'

bestowed on him by the British for his services during the Boer War in South Africa.

- Michael O'Dwyer, the then Lieutenant-Governor of Punjab, who had approved the actions of Brigadier General Dyer, was assassinated by Udham Singh in London in 1940 as revenge against the massacre. Udham Singh is believed to have witnessed the massacre as a child.

*The muslim league, home rule movement, rowlat sathyagraha, jallianwala bagh massacre*

*Notes*

### **Check Your Progress**

When Jinnah did join Muslim League?

List two objectives of the Home Rule League.

Why was the Rowlatt Act passed?

What happened to General Dyer after Jallianwala Bagh?

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## **11.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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- At the beginning Jinnah had avoided joining the All India Muslim League, another political organization of India. Muslims had formed the League in 1906. In 1913, Jinnah became a member of the Muslim League. In 1934, he became the president of the Muslim League.
- It was founded under the leadership of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Annie Besant. The Objectives was to establish self - government for India in British Empire.
- This act effectively authorized the government to imprison, without trial, any person suspected of terrorism living in the Raj. The Rowlatt Acts gave British imperial authorities power to deal with revolutionary activities. ... The Rowlatt Act came into effect in March 1919.
- In 1919, about a month after the Jallianwala Bagh massacre, Dyer served in the Third Anglo-Afghan War. For a few months

in 1919 he was posted to the 5th Brigade at Jamrud. He retired on 17 July 1920, retaining the rank of colonel.

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## **11.8 SUMMARY**

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- Majority of the Muslims were in favour of the partition. The circumstances generated over the partition of Bengal further led to the establishment of the All India Muslim League in 1906, which supported the partition.
- The main aim of the Home Rule League was to ‘attain Home-Rule or self government within the British Empire by all constitutional means and to educate and organise public opinion in the country towards the attainment of the same’.
- Besant had set up a Home Rule League in London in 1914 and ultimately founded a Home Rule League on 15 September 1916.
- Tilak and Besant toured all over India and propagated the message of the Home Rule among the masses.
- This growing unity in the objectives of the Congress and the League culminated in the signing of the Congress–League Pact, popularly called the Lucknow Pact.
- The immediate effect of the developments at Lucknow was wonderful. The unity between the moderate and militant nationalists as well as between the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League created immense political enthusiasm in the country.
- In the year 1917, a sedition committee was appointed with British Judge Sir Sidney Rowlatt, as its President known as Rowlatt Committee.
- Jallianwalla Massacre was the result of the revolt against the Rowlatt Act.
- After the Jallianwala Bagh massacre the proclamation of the Martial law was pertinent in Amritsar, Gujranwala, Sheikhpura and Kasur.
- Great turbulence existed in India during the last year of First World War. The Rowlatt Act, the Jallianwala Bagh massacre,

the Martial Law clamped in the Punjab, breakdown of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms which were pronounced towards the end of 1918 and the dismemberment of Turkey by the British following the Treaty of Sevres in May 1920, created extensive antipathy among all the sections of the people of India.

*The muslim league, home rule movement, rowlat sathyagraha, jallianwala bagh massacre*

*Notes*

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## **11.9 KEY WORDS**

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**Annie Besant:** She was a British socialist, theosophist, women's rights activist, writer, orator, educationist, and philanthropist. Regarded as a champion of human freedom, she was an ardent supporter of both Irish and Indian self-rule.

**Muhammad Ali Jinnah:** He was a lawyer, politician and the founder of Pakistan. Jinnah served as the leader of the All-India Muslim League from 1913 until Pakistan's creation on 14 August 1947, and then as Pakistan's first Governor-General until his death.

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## **11.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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### Short Answer Questions

1. What are the factors responsible for the Muslim League?
2. Why Rowlat Act Passed?
3. Discuss the features of the Jallian Walabagh Massaere.
4. Write a short note on the Home Rule League movement.

### Long Answer Questions

1. What were the main objectives of the Home Rule League in India? Evaluate its significance for the cause of Indian freedom.
2. Explain the Rowlat Act and Causes.
3. Discuss the Effect of Jallian Walabagh Massaere.

*The muslim league, home  
rule movement, rowlat  
sathyagraha, jallianwala  
bagh massacre*

*Notes*

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## **11.11 FURTHER READINGS**

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# **UNIT-12 GANDHIAN ERA, NON- COOPERATION MOVEMENT, CIVIL DIS OBEDIENCE MOVEMENT**

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- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Gandhian Era
- 12.4 Non-Cooperation Movement
- 12.5 Civil Dis obedience Movement
- 12.6 Summary
- 12.7 Keywords
- 12.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.9 Further Readings

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## **12.1 Introduction**

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The Gandhian Era represented a special time in Indian history when Gandhi was preaching for freedom and all of India was behind him in support. In 1919 the British government passed an Act call the Rowlatt Act. This act allowed people to be imprisoned without a trial or conviction in a court of law. This act was strongly protested against by all the Indian people and as a result it broke into a huge massacre in Jallianwala Bagh. The main reason for this protest was to terrorize the people.

Later on in 1920 Gandhi set up and let set up what was known as the non-cooperation movement. This started out when Indians decided they didn't like the way British made them say "sir" as an honorary title. As a result of this boycotts broke out again legislation, elections and any thing relating to the government. Indians began to burn the clothes of the British and soon khadi became a symbol for their freedom. This movment was an overall success. But unfortunatly ended sadly in February of 1922 when a violent attack broke out and Gandhi called the whole movement off. Soon after that Gandhi was put in jail.

*Notes*

Later on during this Era in 1929, the Simon Commission was formed. The purpose was to see if there were any other changes that needed to be made to the government in 1919. But because all the members in this commission were all English the whole thing didn't last and congress decided to boycott it that same year that it started.

In 1929, under Jawaharlal Nehru as president congress started a resolution known as Poorna Swaraj, which means complete Independence. And on January 26 1930 India declared that day as their Independence Day, which would be celebrated every year from then on. After this day many changes occurred for example, all of India got together and together they boycotted foreign goods and refused to pay the taxes to Britain. This whole time period was a very emotional one for India, it was a day that they would all remember. And this was what ended the Gandhian Era.

This Era was named after Gandhi simple because he was a main part in the long struggle for India to gain back its independence from the British. He fought for what he believed in and what was right no matter what the consequences would be. He was a strong influence in India and will be remembered not only by the Indian people themselves but by everyone around the world because of his heroic accomplishments.

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## **12.2 Objectives**

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

- Discuss the Gandhian Era and the non-cooperation movement in detail
  - Examine the Civil Dis obedience Movement
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## **12.3 GANDHIAN ERA**

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The Gandhian Era represented a special time in Indian history when Gandhi was preaching for freedom and all of India was behind him in support. In 1919 the British government passed an Act call the Rowlatt Act. This act allowed people to be imprisoned without a trial or conviction in a court of law. This act was strongly protested against by all the Indian people and as a result it broke into a huge massacre in Jallianwala Bagh. The main reason for this protest was to terrorize the people.

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a result of this boycotts broke out again legislation, elections and any thing relating to the government. Indians began to burn the clothes of the British and soon khadi became a symbol for their freedom. This movement was an overall success. But unfortunately ended sadly in February of 1922 when a violent attack broke out and Gandhi called the whole movement off. Soon after that Gandhi was put in jail.

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### **The Gandhian Era**

- In South Africa (1893-1914)
- 1893-Departure of Gandhi to South Africa.
- 1894-Foundation of Natal Indian Congress.
- 1899-Foundation of Indian Ambulance Corps during Boer Wars.
- 1904-Foundation of Indian Opinion (magazine) and Phoenix Farm, at Phoenix, near Durban.
- 1906-First Civil Disobedience Movement (Satyagraha) against Asiatic Ordinance in Transvaal.
- 1907-Satyagraha against Compulsory Registration and Passes for Asians (The Black Act) in Transvaal.
- 1908-Trial and imprisonment-Johannesburg Jail (First Jail Term).

*Notes*

*Notes*

- 1910-Foundation of Tolstoy Farm (Later-Gandhi Ashrama), near Johannesburg.
- 1913-Satyagraha against derecognition of non-Christian marriages in Cape Town.
- 1914-Awarded Kaisar-i-Hind for raising an Indian Ambulance Corps during Boer wars
- 1915-Arrived in Bombay (India) on 9 January 1915; Foundation of Satyagraha Ashrama at Kochharab near Ahmedabad (20 May). In 1917, Ashrama shifted at the banks of Sabarmati;
- 1916-Abstain from active politics (though he attended Lucknow session of INC held in 26–30 December, 1916, where Raj Kumar Shukla, a cultivator from Bihar, requested him to come to Champaran.)
- 1917-Gandhi entered active politics with Champaran campaign to redress grievances of the cultivators oppressed by Indigo planter of Bihar (April 1917). Champaran Satyagraha was his first Civil Disobedience Movement in India.
- 1918-Cooperation Movement. In February 1918, Gandhi launched the struggle in Ahmedabad which involved industrial workers. Hunger strike as a weapon was used for the first time by Gandhi during Ahmedabad struggle. In March 1918, Gandhi worked for peasants of Kheda in Gujarat who were facing difficulties in paying the rent owing to failure of crops. Kheda Satyagraha was his first Non
- 1919-Gandhi gave a call for Satyagraha against the Rowlatt Act on April 6, 1919 and took the command of the nationalist movement for the first time (First all-India Political Movement), Gandhi returns Kaisar-i-Hind gold medal as a protest against Jallianwala Bagh massacre-April 13, 1919; The All India Khilafat Conference elected Gandhi as its president (November 1919, Delhi).
- 1920-22-Gandhi leads the Non-Cooperation and Khilafat Movement (August 1,

- 1920–February 1922), Gandhi calls off Movement (Feb. 12, 1922), after the violent incident at Chauri-Chaura on February 5, 1922. Non-Co-operation Movement was the First mass based politics under Gandhi.
- 1924-Belgaum (Karnataka) session of INC—for the first and the last time Gandhi was elected the president of the Congress.
- 1925–27-Gandhi retires from active politics for the first time and devotes himself to ‘constructive programme’ of the Congress; Gandhi resumes active politics in 1927.
- 1930–34-Gandhi launches the Civil Disobedience Movement with his Dandhi march/Salt Satyagraha (First Phase: March 12, 1930–March 5, 1931; Gandhi-Irwin Pact: March 5, 1931; Gandhi attends the Second Round Table Conference in London as sole representative of the Congress: September 7-December 1, 1931; Second Phase: January 3, 1932-April 17, 1934).
- 1934–39-Sets up Sevagram (Vardha Ashram).
- 1940–41-Gandhi launches Individual Satyagraha Movement.
- 1942-Call to Quit India Movement for which Gandhi raised the slogan, ‘Do or Die’ (Either free India or die in the attempt), Gandhi and all Congress leaders arrested (August 9, 1942).
- 1942–44-Gandhi kept in detention at the Aga Khan Palace, near Pune (August 9, 1942-May, 1944). Gandhi lost his wife Kasturba (February 22, 1944) and private secretary Mahadev Desai; this was Gandhi’s last prison term.
- 1946-Deeply distressed by theory of communal violence, as a result Muslim League’s Direct Action call, Gandhi travelled to Noakhali (East Bengal-now Bangladesh) and later on to Calcutta to restore communal peace.
- 1947-Gandhi, deeply distressed by the Mountbatten Plan/Partition Plan (June 3, 1947), while staying in Calcutta to restore communal violence, observes complete silence on the dawn of India’s Independence (August, 15, 1947). Gandhi returns to Delhi (September 1947).

- 1948-Gandhi was shot dead by Nathu Ram Godse, a member of RSS, while on his way to the evening prayer meeting at Birla House, New Delhi (January 30, 1948).

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## **12.4 NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT**

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Great turbulence existed in India during the last year of First World War. The Rowlatt Act, the Jallianwala Bagh massacre, the Martial Law clamped in the Punjab, breakdown of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms which were pronounced towards the end of 1918 and the dismemberment of Turkey by the British following the Treaty of Sevres in May 1920, created extensive antipathy among all the sections of the people of India. Gandhi surrendered his Kaisra-e-Hind Gold medal. On the suggestions of Mahatma Gandhi a programme of non-cooperation was collectively accepted by the All Party Conference held at Allahabad on 9 June 1920. As per the resolution of this Conference, a decree supporting the programme of non-cooperation was passed in the special session the Congress at Kolkata in September under the Presidentship of Lala Lajpat Rai. A large number of Muslims also attended this session. Gandhi moved the resolution. Ali brothers and Pandit Motilal Nehru supported it. C. R. Das, Annie Besant and Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya opposed it. The same was adopted in the plenary session at Nagpur in December of the same year.

The word 'non-cooperation' was innovative, but the inspiration came from two sources. David Thoreau had protested against the arrangement of slavery in America and had repudiated to pay his taxes. His approach was ethical. The Irish Sinn Fein Movement has also practiced non- cooperation from the law courts.

Before 1920 the aim of the Congress was to accomplish self-governance by constitutional and lawful means. The new aim of the Congress was attainment of Swaraj by justifiable and nonviolent means. A four anna membership was commenced so that more and more deprived people could join the Congress. A chain of command was created i.e. village level, taluka level and district level committees were created so that Congress reaches to the grassroots. The Provincial Congress Committees was reorganized on linguistic basis. The perception was to bring it close to the masses by using the dialect languages. The numbers of delegates were to be fixed in proportion to the population.

It was a nationwide widespread mass movement. The year 1921-22 observed an unprecedented movement in the nation's history, when there was a widespread turmoil among students. Non-alignment

movement spread all over India: A nationwide expedition was taken up by Mahatma Gandhi and Ali Brothers of Khilafat movement Vallabhai Patel, C R Das. M.R Jayakar, T. Prakasam, Saifuddin Kitchlew (Punjab), Moti Lal Nehru, C. Rajagopalachari, and Asaf Ali left their legal profession and jumped in the full-fledged political affairs of Congress. Many of the students had left government schools and colleges and joined the movement.

*Notes*

Maulana Mehrnud Hasan laid the foundation stone of Jamia Millia Islamia at Aligarh in the year 1920 on 29 October during the meeting of the Foundation Committee of Jamia Millia Islamia. Simultaneously, Bihar Vidyapeeth, Gujarat Vidyapeeth, Bengal Vidyapeeth and National College of Lahore also came into existence. In some provinces such as Bengal and Punjab, there was a complete boycott of education by the foreign rule. The shops which sold foreign clothes were picketed. Charka and Khadi became the icon of national movement. In Bengal, the anti-indigo cultivation by the peasants was led by Someshwar Prasad Chaudhary. Whereas, the peasants of Midnapur (Bengal) led by Birendranath Sasmal geared up for a very effectual no-tax movement. People of different parts of the country blissfully joined the no-tax to Government movement. It was victorious in the Andhra region.

The Tana-Bhagat cult of Chhota Nagpur tribal's (Bihar) boycotted the liquor. Akali Movement in Punjab also got linked up with the non-cooperation movement. The Sikhs formed Shiromani Gurudwara Prabandhak Committee (SGPC) on 13 December 1920 to secure Sikh Gurdwaras from corrupt priests and as a result Akali Dal was formed. The well-known founders were Kartar Singh Jabbar, Master Tara Singh and Baba Kharak Singh.

The non-cooperation movement was frail in the Bombay Presidency, where, the people were grieving on the death of Bal Gangadhar Tilak. In Andhra Pradesh, Alluri Sitaram Raju organized the tribals and linked with the non-cooperation movement. In the Vijaywada session on March 1921 the Congress members were directed to accumulate funds, register more and more members into the party and to give out the Charkhas. Khilafat Conference was called in Karachi on 21 July 1921. In this conference, Maulana Mohammad Ali commenced a resolution that Muslims will not serve in the British Indian army. As a result, Ali brothers were under arrest for treason.

During this time the parallel government came into the picture in the form of Volunteer Corps. The Government of India declared them as an illegal organization under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, as a result large number of volunteers, students and nationalist leaders were arrested. Looking into the political situation of the country Gandhi

wrote a letter to Viceroy Lord Reading to lift a ban on the civil liberties and release the political prisoners but to no avail.

The people were advised to:

- Surrender their titles and honorary offices and resignation from the designated posts in the local bodies.
- Denial to attend Government duties, darbars and other official and semi-official functions held by governmental officials or in their honour.
- Boycott of foreign goods
- Withdrawal of children from schools and colleges and the establishment of national schools and colleges in various provinces.
- Boycott of the elections to be held for councils as per the reforms of 1919.

Prince of Wales visited India on November 1921; he was welcomed with hartals and political meetings marred by panorama of mob violence and police atrocities in Bombay. Congress leaders like C. R. Das and Motilal Nehru was arrested. Lawyers left their job, students boycotted the colleges, liquor and foreign shops were picketed. Mahatma Gandhi gave the slogan of 'Swaraj in one year'. Non-cooperators were mercilessly beaten and their meetings were dispersed with force. Around twenty five thousand people were put behind the bars. Mahatma Gandhi gave a seven days of ultimatum to the then Governor General that if the political prisoners are not released then he will start the Civil Disobedience Movement. However a fatal incident of Chauri Chaura took place. In this incident the mob of three thousand people killed 22 policemen and burnt down the police station at Chauri Chaura, a place near Gorakhpur in Uttar Pradesh. Gandhi was disheartened and as a result he called off the non-cooperation movement. He was bitterly been criticized by Lala Lajpat Rai, Subash Chandra Bose, Motilal Nehru and C. R. Das. Gandhiji was arrested and put behind the bars and was awarded a sentence of six years of imprisonment. Later he was released on health grounds.

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## **12.5 CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT**

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Soon after he was given the responsibility of the Civil Disobedience Movement, Gandhi wrote a letter to Viceroy Irwin seeking the abolishment of salt tax, reduction of military expenditure and the release of political prisoners. However, Lord Irwin chose to not respond to this letter. This formed the crux for the outbreak of the Civil



Disobedience Movement against the British by Gandhi. On 12 March, 1930, Gandhi started a march from Sabarmati ashram to the sea at Dandi accompanied by 72 followers. People cheered the marchers and joined them along the way. As Gandhi walked past them, villager's spun yarn on charkhas as a mark of their solidarity to the movement. On April 6, after Gandhi reached the sea at Dandi, he picked up some salt from the seaside as a mark of breaking the Salt Law. Gandhi had decided to break the law as he believed that salt was a basic necessity of people and salt tax was against the interest of the poor. Inspired by Gandhi, people began manufacturing salt all over the country.

From Madras to Maharashtra, from Bengal and Assam to Karachi, volunteers were recruited on a large-scale for the movement through careful planning and it soon spread like fire. Supporters launched a massive demonstration at Peshawar in the farthest north. This area had been in news due to activism by leaders like Khan Abdul Gaffar Khan and the Khudai Khidmatgars. The British were wary of the movement and arrested leaders, including Jawaharlal Nehru on April 14. Madras, Calcutta and Karachi erupted in protest against the arrest of Nehru. The colonial government was taken by surprise with the reaction of the masses as it had not anticipated such widespread support to the movement. Insecure, it decided to arrest Gandhi in May 1930 but the decision only added much fuel to the fire that the movement had stirred. The most important feature of the Civil Disobedience Movement was the support it received from the youth of the country, especially students and women. Women led groups attacked liquor shops as well as those that sold foreign goods. The government went all out to stop the people and issued orders curbing the civil liberties of citizens. It also decided to ban civil disobedience organizations in the provinces.

In June 1930, the Congress Working Committee was banned and its president, Motilal Nehru, was arrested. By August, even the local Congress committees were banned. All these issues became part of the Civil Disobedience Movement. It was then that the Simon Commission published its report, a time when the government had become a symbol of repression and the national movement was at its peak.

As against expectations, the Simon Report made no mention of giving dominion status to India. With this, many nationalist leaders turned outright against the British. It was followed by the Viceroy's invitation to the leaders to a Round Table Conference to discuss the issue of dominion status. Motilal Nehru and Jawaharlal Nehru were taken to Gandhi to discuss the offer made by the British. But no breakthrough could be made between the government and the Congress leaders. It was in London in November 1930 that the First Round Table Conference was held between the Indian leaders and the British.

*Notes*

However, leaders of the Congress abstained from the meeting. The absence of the leaders of the Congress meant that there would be no negotiations between the Indians and the British. The next conference was scheduled a year later. On 25 January, 1931, the government released Gandhi. Without imposing any conditions, all other members of the Congress Working Committee were also released. However, the Congress leaders were asked to discuss the Viceroy's offer to participate in the next Round Table Conference. After several rounds of discussions, Gandhi was given the responsibility of negotiating with the Viceroy. Discussions between Gandhi and Lord Irwin went on for a fortnight. On March 5, 1931, the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was finally signed. The terms of this Pact were as follows:

- Immediate release of all people arrested for non-violent protests.
- Fines not collected from people to be remitted
- Confiscated land not yet sold off to be returned to peasants
- Government employees who had resigned were to be treated leniently
- Right to make salt to villages along the coast
- Grant of right to peaceful and non-aggressive picketing

The Congress decided to withdraw the Civil Disobedience Movement after the pact was signed. It also confirmed its participation in the next Round Table Conference. However, as per the judgment of many nationalist leaders, this pact was only a temporary truce, even though another section of leaders believed this settlement unnecessary. Due to this difference of opinion, activists launched numerous radical activities in the form of revolutionary secret societies.

In its Karachi session in March 1931, the Congress once again gave the call for purna swaraj. However, the party also supported the pact between Irwin and Gandhi. At Karachi, the Congress started preparing the framework of India's Constitution even though the Pact made no mention of giving independence to India. Resolutions related to the Fundamental Rights and National Economic policy were approved at the session. These resolutions were landmark in the history of the nationalist movement for it was for the first time that issues of civil liberties such as free speech, free press and freedom of association were spoken about for the Indian masses. Other provisions included in this resolution pertained to neutrality in religious matters, equality before law, universal adult franchise, free and compulsory primary education and many others.

For the Second Round Table Conference in August 1931, Gandhi travelled to London. Willington, meanwhile, replaced Lord Irwin. However, the discussions at this Round Table did not go in the favour of India. The new viceroy refused to meet Gandhi after he returned from London in December 1931. The British government refused to recognize the Congress as representatives of the people of India. Moreover, the government went back to its repressive ways by arresting Jawaharlal Nehru and also Abdul Ghaffar Khan who was leading the Khudai Khidmatgars' Movement in the North-West Frontier Province.

*Gandhian era, non-cooperation movement, civil disobedience movement*

*Notes*

Circumstances were thus raised where the Congress had to re-launch the Civil Disobedience Movement, especially after the new viceroy refused to meet Gandhi for any further negotiation. In January 1932, Gandhi was arrested and the government once again curtailed people's civil liberties. The government followed this by giving itself the right to appropriate properties and detains people. With such powers, the government put all prominent leaders of the Congress behind bars. With this, the masses broke out in mass demonstrations to protest against the government's actions; liquor shops were picketed as well as foreign goods' shops. However, the government only reacted with more force. Large number of people was jailed, Congress was banned and the police occupied Gandhian ashrams. Demonstrators were beaten up, those who refused to pay taxes were jailed and their properties seized. Yet, the movement continued for two years. The movement was withdrawn by Gandhi in April 1934 and his call was obeyed by the people of the country.

### **Check Your Progress**

Who established the Non-Cooperation Movement?

Mention one of the terms of the Non-Cooperation Movement?

Who was the leader of the Civil Dis obedience Movement?

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## **12.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

1. Non-cooperation movement, unsuccessful attempt in 1920–22, organized by Mohandas (Mahatma) Gandhi, to induce the

British government of India to grant self-government, or swaraj, to India.

2. The movement was to be nonviolent and to consist of Indians resigning their titles; boycotting government educational institutions, the courts, government service, foreign goods, and elections; and, eventually, refusing to pay taxes.
3. On March 12, 1930, Indian independence leader Mohandas Gandhi begins a defiant march to the sea in protest of the British monopoly on salt, his boldest act of civil disobedience yet against British rule in India

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## **12.7 SUMMARY**

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- Nathuram Godse. Nathuram Vinayak Godse (19 May 1910 – 15 November 1949) was the assassin of Mahatma Gandhi, who shot Gandhi in the chest three times at point blank range in New Delhi on 30 January 1948.
- The first major Gandhian movement all over India was the Non- Cooperation Movement from 1920 to 1922. The movement was withdrawn in 1922 by Gandhi in view of the rise of violence among its followers.
- The most important feature of the Civil Disobedience Movement was the support it received from the youth of the country, especially students and women.
- On the suggestions of Mahatma Gandhi a programme of non-cooperation was collectively accepted by the All Party Conference held at Allahabad on 9 June 1920.
- Before 1920 the aim of the Congress was to accomplish self-governance by constitutional and lawful means. The new aim of the Congress was attainment of Swaraj by justifiable and nonviolent means.
- Civil disobedience is the active, professed refusal of a citizen to obey certain laws, demands, orders or commands of a government. By some definitions, civil disobedience has to be nonviolent to be called 'civil'. Hence, civil disobedience is

sometimes equated with peaceful protests or nonviolent resistance.

*Gandhian era, non-cooperation movement, civil disobedience movement*

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## 12.8 KEY WORDS

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- **Martial Law:** It is the imposition of direct military control of normal civilian functions of government, especially in response to a temporary emergency such as invasion or major disaster, or in an occupied territory.
- **Atrocities:** It means extremely wicked or cruel acts, typically one involving physical violence or injury.
- **Diarchy:** It was a system of government by two independent authorities (especially in India 1919–35).
- **Civil Disobedience:** It means the refusal to comply with certain laws considered unjust, as a peaceful form of political protest.
- **Activism:** It refers to the policy or action of using vigorous campaigning to bring about political or social change.

*Notes*

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## 12.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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### Short Answer Questions

1. What was the strategy of the Swarajists after the end of the non-cooperation movement?
2. What were the terms of the Gandhian Era?
3. Write a short-note on the Civil Disobedience Movement?

### Long Answer Questions

1. Describe the non-cooperation movement in detail.
1. Discuss the Civil Disobedience Movement in detail. What was its impact?

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*Gandhian era, non-cooperation  
movement, civil dis obedience  
movement*

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# UNIT-13 ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES, INDIVIDUAL SATYAGRAHA, QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT

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*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
quit India movement*

*Notes*

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Objectives
- 13.3 Round Table Conferences
- 13.4 Individual Satyagraha
- 13.5 Quit India Movement
- 13.6 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 13.7 Summary
- 13.8 Keywords
- 13.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 13.10 Further Readings

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## 13.1 INTRODUCTION

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In response to the inadequacy of the Simon Report, the Labour Government, which had come to power under Ramsay MacDonald in 1929, decided to hold a series of Round Table Conferences in London. The first Round Table Conference convened from 12 November 1930 to 19 January 1931. Prior to the Conference, M. K. Gandhi had initiated the Civil Disobedience Movement on behalf of the Indian National Congress. Consequently, since many of the Congress' leaders were in jail, Congress did not participate in the first conference, but representatives from all other Indian parties and a number of Princes did. The outcomes of the first Round Table Conference were minimal: India was to develop into a federation, safeguards regarding defence and finance were agreed and other departments were to be transferred. However, little was done to implement these recommendations and civil disobedience continued in India. The British Government realized that the Indian National Congress needed to be part of deciding the future of constitutional government in India.

Lord Irwin, the Viceroy, met with Gandhi to reach a compromise. On 5 March 1931 they agreed the following to pave the way for the Congress' participation in the second Round Table Conference: Congress would discontinue the Civil Disobedience Movement, it would participate in the second Round Table Conference, the Government would withdraw all

ordinances issued to curb the Congress, the Government would withdraw all prosecutions relating to offenses not involving violence and the Government would release all persons undergoing sentences of imprisonment for their activities in the Civil Disobedience Movement.

The second Round Table Conference was held in London from 7 September 1931 to 1 December 1931 with the participation of Gandhi and the Indian National Congress. Two weeks before the Conference convened, the Labour government had been replaced by the Conservatives. At the conference, Gandhi claimed to represent all people of India. This view, however, was not shared by other delegates. In fact, the division between the many attending groups was one of the reasons why the outcomes of the second Round Table Conference were again no substantial results regarding India's constitutional future. Meanwhile, civil unrest had spread throughout India again, and upon return to India Gandhi was arrested along with other Congress leaders. A separate province of Sind was created and the interests of minorities were safeguarded by MacDonald's Communal Award.

The third Round Table Conference (17 November 1932 - 24 December 1932) was not attended by the Indian National Congress and Gandhi. Many other Indian leaders were also absent. Like the two first conferences, little was achieved. The recommendations were published in a White Paper in March 1933 and debated in Parliament afterwards. A Joint Select Committee was formed to analyse the recommendations and formulate a new Act for India. The Committee produced a draft Bill in February 1935 which was enforced as the Government of India Act of 1935 in July 1935.

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## **13.2 OBJECTIVES**

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

- Examine the impact of the Quit India Movement
- Describe the incidents that led to Independence and Partition

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## **13.3 ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES**

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The Round Table Conferences were a series of three conferences conducted by the Labour Party-led British government to deliberate upon and bring about constitutional reforms in British India during 1930 – 32. There were three such conferences. The First Round Table Conference was held between November 1930 and January 1931 at London.

### **Background**

There were increasing demands of granting dominion status to India among a certain section of the British polity. In India, the freedom movement was in full swing with its demand for swaraj or self-rule spearheaded by the charismatic Gandhi.



The conferences were based on the recommendation of Muhammad Ali Jinnah to Lord Irwin, the then Viceroy of India and James Ramsay MacDonald, the then British Prime Minister, and the Simon Commission report. It was for the first time that the Indians and the British were meeting as 'equals'. The first conference started on November 12th, 1930.

*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
quit India movement*

## **Participants in the First Round Table Conference**

*Notes*

- 58 political leaders from British India.
- 16 delegates from the native princely states.
- 16 delegates from the three British political parties.

The Indian National Congress decided not to participate in the conference. Many of the INC leaders were imprisoned due to their involvement in the civil disobedience movement.

Among the British-Indians, the following representatives attended the conference: Muslim League, Hindus, Justice Party, Sikhs, liberals, Parsis, Christians, Anglo-Indians, Europeans, landlords, labour, women, universities, Sindh, Burma, other provinces, and the representatives from the Government of India.

## **Issues discussed in the First Round Table Conference**

Federal structure

Provincial constitution

Provinces of Sindh and NWFP

Minorities

Defence services

Franchise

## **Executive responsibility to the legislature**

Dr B R Ambedkar demanded separate electorates for the 'untouchables'.

Tej Bahadur Sapru moved the idea of an All-India Federation. This was supported by the Muslim League. The princely states also supported this on the condition that their internal sovereignty is maintained.

## **Effects of the First Round Table Conference**

The First Round Table Conference lasted till 19th January 1931.

Although many principles on reforms were agreed upon, not much was implemented and the Congress Party carried on its civil disobedience. The Conference was regarded as a failure.

The British government understood the importance and the need for the Congress Party to make any decision on India's political future.

## **Second Round Table Conference**

When: September – December 1931

Where: London

Attended by: British delegates belonging to various political parties including the British Prime Minister, James Ramsay Macdonald. Indian princely states represented by Maharajas, princes and divans. British Indians represented by: Indian National Congress (INC) – Mahatma Gandhi, Rangaswami Iyengar, Madan Mohan Malaviya Muslims - Md. Ali Jinnah, Aga Khan III, Muhammad Iqbal, etc. Hindus - M R Jayakar, etc. Depressed classes – Dr B R Ambedkar Women – Sarojini Naidu, etc. Liberals, Justice Party, Sikhs, Indian Christians, Parsis, Europeans, Anglo-Indians, industry, labour, landlords, Burma, Sindh and other provinces.

The session started on 7 September 1931.

The major difference between the first and the second conference was that the INC was participating in the second one. This was one of the results of the Gandhi-Irwin Pact.

Another difference was that unlike the previous time, British PM Macdonald was heading not a Labour government, but a National government. The Labour Party had been toppled two weeks before in Britain. The British decided to grant a communal award for representing minorities in India by providing for separate electorates for minority communities. Gandhi was against this.

In this conference, Gandhi and Ambedkar differed on the issue of separate electorates for the untouchables. Gandhi was against treating untouchables as separate from the Hindu community. This issue was resolved through the Poona Pact 1932.

The second round table conference was deemed a failure because of the many disagreements among the participants. While the INC claimed to speak for the whole of the country, other participants and leaders of other parties contested this claim.

## **Third Round Table Conference**

When: November – December 1932

Where: London

Attended by: only 46 delegates in total took part in this conference. The INC and the Labour Party decided not to attend it. (The INC wasn't invited).

Indian princely states were represented by princes and divans. British Indians were represented by the Aga Khan (Muslims), depressed

classes

(Ambedkar), women, Europeans, Anglo-Indians and labour groups. Not much was achieved in this conference also.

The recommendations of this conference were published in a White Paper in 1933 and later discussed in the British Parliament. The recommendations were analysed and the Government of India Act of 1935 was passed on its basis.

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### **13.4 INDIVIDUAL SATYAGRAHA 1940-41**

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#### **Launch**

Individual Satyagraha was direct result of August Offer. August offer was brought during critical period of war by British in 1940. Both Congress and Muslim League rejected August Offer. Congress wished to launch Civil disobedience Movement, but Gandhi saw the atmosphere against such a movement, he didn't want hamper the War efforts. However, Congress Socialist leaders and All India Kisan Sabha were in favour of immediate struggle. Gandhi was convinced that British would not modify their policy towards India. He decided to launch Individual Satyagraha. The Congress was in a confused state again after the August Offer. The radicals and leftists wanted to launch a mass Civil Disobedience Movement, but here Gandhi insisted on Individual Satyagraha. The Individual Satyagraha was not to seek independence but to affirm the right of speech.

#### **The aims of launching individual satyagrahas were:**

- (i) To show that nationalist patience was not due to weakness;
- (ii) to express people's feeling that they were not interested in the war and that they made no distinction between Nazism and the double autocracy that ruled India; and
- (iii) to give another opportunity to the Government to accept Congress' demands peacefully.

The other reason of this Satyagraha was that a mass movement may turn violent and he would not like to see the Great Britain embarrassed by such a situation. This view was conveyed to Lord Linlithgow by Gandhi when he met him on 27 September 1940.

The non-violence was set as the centerpiece of Individual Satyagraha. This was done by carefully selecting the Satyagrahis.

The first Satyagrahi selected was Acharya Vinoba Bhave, who was sent to Jail when he spoke against the war in the village Panaur and he was arrested subsequently. Second Satyagrahi was Jawahar Lal Nehru. Third was Brahma Datt, one of the inmates of the Gandhi's Ashram.

*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
quit India movement*

*Notes*

They all were sent to jails for violating the Defense of India Act. This was followed by a lot of other people. But since it was not a mass movement, it attracted little enthusiasm and in December 1940, Gandhi suspended the movement. The campaign started again in January 1941, this time, thousands of people joined and around 20 thousand people were arrested.

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### **13.5 QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT**

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On 8 August 1942 at the All-India Congress Committee session in Bombay, Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi launched the 'Quit India' movement. The next day, Gandhi, Nehru and many other leaders of the Indian National Congress were arrested by the British Government. Disorderly and non-violent demonstrations took place throughout the country in the following days.

By the middle of 1942, Japanese troops were approaching the borders of India. Pressure was mounting from China, the United States and Britain to solve the issue of the future status of India before the end of the war. In March 1942, the Prime Minister dispatched Sir Stafford Cripps, a member of the War Cabinet, to India to discuss the British Government's Draft Declaration. The draft granted India Dominion status after the war but otherwise conceded few changes to the British Government Act of 1935. The draft was unacceptable to the Congress Working Committee who rejected it. The failure of the Cripps Mission further estranged the Congress and the British Government.

Gandhi seized upon the failure of the Cripps Mission, the advances of the Japanese in South-East Asia and the general frustration with the British in India. He called for a voluntary British withdrawal from India. From 29 April to 1 May 1942, the All India Congress Committee assembled in Allahabad to discuss the resolution of the Working Committee. Although Gandhi was absent from the meeting, many of his points were admitted into the resolution: the most significant of them being the commitment to non-violence. On 14 July 1942, the Congress Working Committee met again at Wardha and resolved that it would authorise Gandhi to take charge of the non-violent mass movement. The Resolution, generally referred to as the 'Quit India' resolution, was to be approved by the All India Congress Committee meeting in Bombay in August.

On 7 to 8 August 1942, the All India Congress Committee met in Bombay and ratified the 'Quit India' resolution. Gandhi called for 'Do or Die'. The next day, on 9 August 1942, Gandhi, members of the Congress Working Committee and other Congress leaders were arrested by the British Government under the Defence of India Rules. The Working Committee, the All India Congress Committee and the four Provincial Congress Committees were declared unlawful associations under the Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1908. The assembly of public meetings was prohibited under rule 56

of the Defence of India Rules. The arrest of Gandhi and the Congress leaders led to mass demonstrations throughout India. Thousands were killed and injured in the wake of the 'Quit India' movement. Strikes were called in many places. The British swiftly suppressed many of these demonstrations by mass detentions; more than 100,000 people were imprisoned.

The 'Quit India' movement, more than anything, united the Indian people against British rule. Although most demonstrations had been suppressed by 1944, upon his release in 1944 Gandhi continued his resistance and went on a 21-day fast. By the end of the Second World War, Britain's place in the world had changed dramatically and the demand for independence could no longer be ignored.

## **Facts**

It is also known as the India August Movement or August Kranti. It was officially launched by the Indian National Congress (INC) led by Mahatma Gandhi on 9 August 1942. The movement gave the slogans 'Quit India' or 'Bharat Chodo'. Gandhi gave the slogan to the people – 'Do or die'.

In line with the Congress ideology, it was supposed to be a peaceful non-violent movement aimed at urging the British to grant India independence. The Quit India Resolution was passed by the Congress Working Committee on 8 August 1942 in Bombay. Gandhi was named the movement's leader.

The resolution stated the provisions of the movement as: Immediate end to British rule over India. Declaration of the commitment of free India to defend itself against all kinds of imperialism and fascism. Formation of a provisional government of India after British withdrawal. Sanctioning a civil disobedience movement against British rules.

### **Gandhi's instructions to various sections of the public:**

- **Government servants:** do not resign your job but proclaim loyalty to the INC.
- **Soldiers:** be with the army but refrain from firing on compatriots.
- **Peasants:** pay the agreed upon rent if the landlords/Zamindars are anti-government; if they are pro-government, do not pay the rent.
- **Students:** can leave studies if they are confident enough.
- **Princes:** support the people and accept sovereignty of them.
- People of the princely states: support the ruler only if he is anti-government; declare them as part of the Indian nation.

*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
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*Notes*

## Causes of Quit India Movement

The Second World War had started in 1939 and Japan, which was part of the Axis Powers that were opposed to the British in the war were gaining onto the north-eastern frontiers of India.

The British had abandoned their territories in South-East Asia and had left their population in the lurch. This act did not garner much faith among the Indian population who had doubts about British ability to defend India against Axis aggression. Gandhi also believed that if the British left India, Japan would not have enough reason to invade India.

Apart from hearing news about British setbacks in the war, the war-time difficulties such as high prices of essential commodities, fostered resentment against the British government. The failure of the Cripps Mission to guarantee any kind of constitutional remedy to India's problems also led to the INC calling for a mass civil disobedience movement.

## Response

The British government responded to the call of Gandhi by arresting all major Congress leaders the very next day. Gandhi, Nehru, Patel, etc. were all arrested. This left the movement in the hands of the younger leaders like Jayaprakash Narayan and Ram Manohar Lohia. New leaders like Aruna Asaf Ali emerged out of the vacuum of leadership.

Over 100000 people were arrested in connection with this movement. The government resorted to violence in order to quell the agitation. They were mass floggings and lathi charges. Even women and children were not spared. About 10000 people died in police firing in total. There was no communal violence.

The INC was banned. Its leaders were jailed for almost the whole of the war. Gandhi was released on health grounds in 1944. The people responded to Gandhi's call in a major way. However, in the absence of leadership, there were stray incidences of violence and damage to government property. Many buildings were set on fire, electricity lines were cut and communication and transport lines were broken.

Some parties did not support the movement. There was opposition from the Muslim League, the Communist Part of India (the government revoked the ban on the party then) and the Hindu Mahasabha. The League was not in favour of the British leaving India without partitioning the country first. In fact, Jinnah asked more Muslims to enlist in the army to fight the war.

The Communist party supported the war waged by the British since they were allied with the Soviet Union. Subhas Chandra Bose, was by this time, organising the Indian National Army and the Azad Hind government from

outside the country. C Rajagopalachari, resigned from the INC since he was not in favour of complete independence.

In general, the Indian bureaucracy did not support the Quit India Movement. There were strikes and demonstrations all over the country. Despite the communist group's lack of support to the movement, workers provided support by not working in the factories. In some places, parallel governments were also set up. Example: Ballia, Tamluk, Satara. The chief areas of the movement were UP, Bihar, Maharashtra, Midnapore and Karnataka. The movement lasted till 1944.

## Importance of Quit India Movement

### Significance

The Quit India movement called for India's immediate independence and was launched in protest against sending Indians to fight for the British in the Second World War. The movement aimed to force the British Government to come to the negotiating table by holding their war effort hostage.

- Despite heavy-handed suppression by the government, the people were unfazed and continued their struggle.
- Even though the government said that independence could be granted only after the end of the war, the movement drove home the point that India could not be governed without the support of the Indians.
- The movement placed the demand for complete independence at the top agenda of the freedom movement.
- Public morale and anti-British sentiment were enhanced.

### Check Your Progress

What was the purpose of round table conference?

What was the government response to the Quit India Movement?

When did the Quit India resolution pass?

Who was the first Satyagrahi of individual Satyagraha?

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## 13.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

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1. The outcomes of the first Round Table Conference were minimal: India was to develop into a federation, safeguards regarding defence and finance were agreed and other departments were to be transferred.

*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
quit India movement*

*Notes*

2. The talks were a failure. In the AICC meet held on August 8, the historic decision to launch the 'Quit India Movement' was passed. Indians wanted independence, and they wanted it without delay. A lot of deliberation went into the slogan 'Quit India'.
3. After repeated promises by the British government to grant independence, India was still under the colonial rule. Thus, on July 14, 1942, a resolution was passed by the Congress Working Committee declaring the "urgent" need for ending the British rule in India. Despite several leaders opposing the resolution, on 8 August 1942, Quit India resolution was passed at the Bombay session of All India Congress Committee (AICC).
4. On October 17, 1940, the Father of the Nation, Mahatma Gandhi had chosen Acharya Vinoba Bhave as the first satyagrahi (proponent of Satyagraha) to start personal Satyagraha (movement which meant holding to the truth) and Jawaharlal Nehru as the second.

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### **13.7 SUMMARY**

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- The three Round Table Conferences of 1930–32 were a series of conferences to formulate future constitution of India in the light of suggestions given by the Indian Leaders. In Indian Act 1919, it was said that new reforms will be introduced in Indian Act 1929.
- Round Table Conferences, 1930-1932. About: In response to the inadequacy of the Simon Report, the Labour Government, which had come to power under Ramsay MacDonald in 1929, decided to hold a series of Round Table Conferences in London. The first Round Table Conference convened from 12 November 1930 to 19 January 1931.
- All Three Round Table Conferences and Communal Award. Today we will discuss the basic details regarding Three Round Conferences (First, Second and Third) as well as their importance in Modern Indian History.
- Individual Satyagraha. Individual Satyagrah was the resultant of August offer. It was started with the mass Civil Disobedience Movement but M.K Gandhi on Individual Satyagrah. This was movement for not only to seek independence but also to affirm the right of Speech.
- As I understand it Satyagraha means “truth” as coined by Gandhi during the Indian Independence Movement. It is a method of civil resistance



that does not recognize or tolerate violence. Unlike passive resistance Gandhi states it is a weapon of the strong to defeat injustice through truth and love.

- Where the Quit India Movement had the support of the masses, the movement was opposed by several political parties. Parties like Hindu Mahasabha and Communist Party of India opposed the movement and did not rally with the Congress.
- Where on one hand the Quit India Movement was facing opposition at the national level, at the same time the movement was successful at the regional level where at several places locals had already starting rebelling against the British.

*Round table conferences,  
individual Satyagraha,  
quit India movement*

*Notes*

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### **13.8 KEY WORDS**

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**Round table:** This is a form of academic discussion. Participants agree on a specific topic to discuss and debate. Each person is given equal right to participate, as illustrated by the idea of a circular layout referred to in the term round table. ... Round table discussions are also a common feature of political talk shows.

**August Offer:** The August Offer was a proposal made by the British government in 1940 promising the expansion of the Executive Council of the Viceroy of India to include more Indians, the establishment of an advisory war council, giving full weight to minority opinion, and the recognition of Indians' right to frame their own.

**Subhas Chandra Bose:** Subhas Chandra Bose (also called Netaji) is known for his role in India's independence movement. A participant of the noncooperation movement and a leader of the Indian National Congress, he was part of the more militant wing and known for his advocacy of socialist policies.

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### **13.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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Short Answer Questions

1. Write a note on the First Round Table Conference?
2. What was the role of Quit India Movement in Gandhi?

3. What was the significance of Individual Satyagraha?

Long Answer Questions

Examine the Round Table Conferences in detail?

Analyse the importance of the Quit India Movement. Why was it suppressed?

Discuss the events that Individual Satyagraha?

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# UNIT 14    NETAJI AND INA, DIRECT ACTION DAY, PARTITION AND INDEPENDENCE, INDIAN INDEPENDENCE ACT

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*Netaji and ina, direct action day, partition and independence, indian independence act*

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 Netaji and INA
- 14.4 Jinnah and Direct Action Day
- 14.5 Partition and Independence
- 14. 6 Indian Independence Act
- 14.7 Answers to Check your Progress Questions
- 14.8 Summary
- 14.9 Keywords
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- 14.11 Further Readings

*Notes*

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## 14.1 Introduction

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Subhash Chandra Bose was one of the most celebrated freedom fighters of India. He was a charismatic influencer of the youth and earned the epithet ‘Netaji’ by establishing and leading the Indian National Army (INA) during India’s struggle for independence. Although initially aligned with the Indian National Congress, he was ousted from the party due to his difference in ideology. He sought assistance from Nazi leadership in Germany and Imperial forces in Japan during the World War II, to overthrow the British from India. His sudden disappearance post 1945, led to surfacing of various theories, concerning the possibilities of his survival.

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## 14.2 Objectives

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

- Examine the Netaji and INA
- Describe the Jinnah and Partition and Independence

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## **14.3 Netaji and INA**

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### **Childhood & Early Life**

Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose was born on 23 January, 1897 in Cuttack (Orissa) to Janakinath Bose and Prabhavati Devi. Subhash was the ninth child among eight brothers and six sisters. His father, Janakinath Bose, was an affluent and successful lawyer in Cuttack and received the title of "Rai Bahadur". He later became a member of the Bengal Legislative Council.

Subhash Chandra Bose was a brilliant student. He passed his B.A. in Philosophy from the Presidency College in Calcutta. He was deeply influenced by Swami Vivekananda's teachings and was known for his patriotic zeal as a student. In an incident where Bose beat up his professor (E.F. Otten) for his racist remarks, brought him notoriety as a rebel-Indian in eyes of the government. His father wanted Netaji to become a civil servant and therefore, sent him to England to appear for the Indian Civil Service Examination. Bose was placed fourth with highest marks in English. But his urge for participating in the freedom movement was intense and in April 1921, he resigned from the coveted Indian Civil Service and came back to India. In December 1921, Bose was arrested and imprisoned for organizing a boycott of the celebrations to mark the Prince of Wales' visit to India.

During his stay in Berlin, he met and fell in love with Emily Schenkl, who was of Austrian origin. Bose and Emily were married in 1937 in a secret Hindu ceremony and Emily gave birth to a daughter Anita in 1942. Shortly after the birth of their daughter, Bose left Germany in 1943 to come back to India.

### **Political Career**

#### **Association with Indian National Congress**

Initially, Subhash Chandra Bose worked under the leadership of Chittaranjan Das, an active member of the Congress in Calcutta. It was Chittaranjan Das, who along with Motilal Nehru, left Congress and founded the Swaraj Party in 1922. Bose regarded Chittaranjan Das as his

political guru. He himself started the newspaper 'Swaraj', edited Das' newspaper 'Forward' and worked as the CEO of Calcutta Municipal Corporation under Das' stint as Mayor. Subhash Chandra Bose played an important role in enlightening the students, youths and labourers of Calcutta. In his fervent wait to see India as an independent, federal and republic nation, he emerged as a charismatic and firebrand youth icon. He was admired within the congress for his great ability in organization development. He served several stints in prison for his nationalist activities during this time.

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### **Dispute with the Congress**

In 1928, during the Guwahati Session of the Congress, a difference of opinion surfaced between the old and new members of the Congress. The young leaders wanted a "complete self-rule and without any compromise' while the senior leaders were in favour of the "dominion status for India within the British rule".

The differences between moderate Gandhi and aggressive Subhash Chandra Bose swelled to irreconcilable proportions and Bose decided to resign from the party in 1939. He went on to form the Forward Bloc the same year.

Although he voiced his dislike for the British often in his correspondences, he also expressed his admiration for their structured way of life. He met with the leaders of the British Labor Party and political thinkers including Clement Attlee, Harold Laski, J.B.S. Haldane, Arthur Greenwood, G.D.H. Cole, and Sir Stafford Cripps and discussed the possibilities that an independent India might hold.

### **INDIAN NATIONAL ARMY (INA)**

#### **Formation of the INA**

Bose vehemently opposed the Congress decision to support the British during the Second World War. With the aim to initiate a mass movement, Bose called out to Indians for their whole-hearted participation. There was tremendous response to his call "Give me blood and I will give you freedom" and the British promptly imprisoned him. In

jail, he declared a hunger-strike. When his health deteriorated, the authorities, fearing violent reactions, released him but put him under house-arrest.

In January, 1941, Subhash made a planned escape and reached Berlin, Germany via a detour through Peshawar. Germans assured him their full support in his endeavours and he gained allegiance of Japan as well. He took a perilous journey back east and reached Japan where he assumed command over 40,000 soldiers recruited from Singapore and other south East Asian regions. He called his army the 'Indian National Army' (INA) and led the same to capture the Andaman and Nicobar islands from the British and rechristened it as Shaheed and Swaraj Islands. A provisional "Azad Hind Government" started functioning in the captured territories. The INA or the Azad Hind Fauj started for India and crossed Burma Border, and stood on Indian soil on March 18, 1944. Unfortunately, the tide of the World War turned and the Japanese and German forces surrendered which forced him to call off further advancement.

### **Death**

Netaji disappeared mysteriously soon after the retreat. It is said that he went back to Singapore and met Field Marshal Hisaichi Terauchi, head of all military operations in South East Asia who arranged for him a flight to Tokyo. He boarded a Mitsubishi Ki-21 heavy bomber from Saigon Airport on August 17, 1945. The following day the bomber crashed shortly after take-off after a night halt in Taiwan. Witnesses report that Bose sustained intense third degree burns in the process. He succumbed to his injuries on Aug 18, 1945. He was cremated on August 20 in Taihoku Crematorium and his ashes were laid to rest at the Renkōji Temple of Nichiren Buddhism in Tokyo.

Bose's comrades who were stranded in Saigon waiting to be transported never saw his body. Nor did they see any photographs of his injuries. They refused to believe that their hero was dead and hoped that he evaded detection by the British-American forces. They believed whole heartedly that it was just a matter of time that Netaji will gather up his

army and conduct a march towards Delhi. Soon people began to report sighting of the hero and even Gandhi expressed his scepticism about death of Bose. Post-independence, people started to believe that Netaji had adopted an ascetic life and became a Sadhu. The mysteries surrounding Bose's death took upon mythic proportions and perhaps symbolized the hope of the nation.

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The government of India set up a number of committees to investigate the case. First the Figgess Report in 1946 and then the Shah Nawaz Committee in 1956, concluded that Bose had indeed died in the crash in Taiwan.

Later, the Khosla Commission (1970) concurred with the earlier reports, the reports of Justice Mukherjee Commission (2006) said, "Bose did not die in the plane crash and the ashes at Renkoji temple are not his". However, the findings were rejected by the Government of India.

In 2016, following the declassification of a report handed over by the Japanese government to the Indian Embassy in Tokyo in 1956, titled "Investigation on the cause of death and other matters of the late Subhash Chandra Bose" confirmed the Indian National Hero's death in Taiwan on August 18, 1945.

### **Ideology**

Bose's correspondences prove his faith in democracy in Independent India. Bose's primary ideology was always the freedom of his motherland even if meant taking help from fascists like Mussolini or Hitler.

### **Legacy**

Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose has left deep impact on the psyche of his countrymen. His slogan, 'Jai Hind' is still used in reverence to the country. The International airport in Kolkata has been named Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose International Airport to commemorate the charismatic leader.

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## **14.4 JINNAH AND DIRECT ACTION DAY**

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### **Muhammad Ali Jinnah**

#### **Early Life**

Muhammad Ali Jinnah was born in a rented apartment on the second floor of Wazir Mansion in Karachi, Pakistan (then part of India), on December 25, 1876. At the time of his birth, Jinnah's official name was Mahomedali Jinnahbhai. The eldest of his parents' seven children, Jinnah was underweight and appeared fragile at the time of his birth. But Jinnah's mother, Mithibai, was convinced her delicate infant would one day achieve great things. Jinnah's father, Jinnahbhai Poonja, was a merchant and exporter of cotton, wool, grain and range of other goods. As a whole, the family belonged to the Khoja Muslim sect.

When Muhammad Ali Jinnah was 6 years old, his father placed him in the Sindh Madrasatul-Islam School. Jinnah was far from a model student. He was more interested in playing outside with his friends than focusing on his studies. As the proprietor of a thriving trade business, Jinnah's father emphasized the importance of studying mathematics, but, ironically, arithmetic was among Jinnah's most hated subjects.

When Jinnah was nearly 11 years old, his only paternal aunt came to visit from Bombay, India. Jinnah and his aunt were very close. The aunt suggested that Jinnah return with her to Bombay; she believed the big city would provide him with a better education than Karachi could. Despite his mother's resistance, Jinnah accompanied his aunt back to Bombay, where she enrolled him in the Gokal Das Tej Primary School. Despite the change of scenery, Jinnah continued to prove himself a restless and unruly student. Within just six months he was sent back to Karachi. His mother insisted he attend Sind Madrassa, but Jinnah was expelled for cutting classes to go horseback riding.

Jinnah's parents then enrolled him in the Christian Missionary Society High School, hoping he would be better able to concentrate on his studies there. As a teen, Jinnah developed an admiration for his father's business colleague, Sir Frederick Leigh Croft. When Croft offered Jinnah an internship in London, Jinnah jumped at the chance, but Jinnah's mother was not so eager for him to accept the offer. Fearful of being separated from her son, she persuaded him to marry before leaving for his trip. Presumably she believed his marriage would ensure his eventual return.

At his mother's urging, the 15-year-old Jinnah entered into an arranged marriage with his 14-year-old bride, Emibai, in February 1892. Emibai was from the village of Paneli in India, and the wedding took place in her hometown. Following the marriage, Jinnah continued attending the Christian Missionary Society High School until he left for London. He



departed Karachi in January of 1893. Jinnah would never see his wife or his mother again. Emibai died a few months after Jinnah's departure. Devastatingly, Jinnah's mother, Mithibai, also passed away during his stay in London.

*Netaji and ina, direct action day, partition and independence, indian independence act*

### **Attorney**

After disembarking at Southampton and taking the boat train to Victoria Station, Jinnah rented a hotel room in London. He would eventually, however, settle at the home of Mrs. F.E. Page-Drake of Kensington, who had invited Jinnah to stay as a guest.

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After a few months of serving his internship, in June of 1893 Jinnah left the position to join Lincoln's Inn, a renowned legal association that helped law students study for the bar. Over the next few years, Jinnah prepared for the legal exam by studying biographies and political texts that he borrowed from the British Museum Library and read in the barristers' chambers. While studying for the bar, Jinnah heard the terrible news of his wife and mother's deaths, but he managed to forge on with his education. In addition to fulfilling his formal studies, Jinnah made frequent visits to the House of Commons, where he could observe the powerful British government in action firsthand. When Jinnah passed his legal exam in May of 1896, he was the youngest ever to have been accepted to the bar.

With his law degree in hand, in August 1896 Jinnah moved to Bombay and set up a law practice as a barrister in Bombay's high court. Jinnah would continue to practice as a barrister up through the mid-1940s. Jinnah's most famous successes as a lawyer included the Bawla murder trial of 1925 and Jinnah's 1945 defense of Bishen Lal at Agra, which marked the final case of Jinnah's legal career.

### **Statesman**

During Jinnah's visits to the House of Commons, he had developed a growing interest in politics, deeming it a more glamorous field than law. Now in Bombay, Jinnah began his foray into politics as a liberal nationalist. When Jinnah's father joined him there, he was deeply disappointed in his son's decision to change career paths and, out of anger, withdrew his financial support. Fortunately, the two had mended fences by the time Jinnah's father died in April 1902.

Jinnah was particularly interested in the politics of India and its lack of strong representation in British Parliament. He was inspired when he saw Dadabhai Naoroji become the first Indian to earn a seat in the House of Commons. In 1904, Jinnah attended a meeting of the Indian National Congress. In 1906 he joined the congress himself. In 1912, Jinnah attended a meeting of the All India Muslim League, prompting him to join the league the following year. Jinnah would later join yet another political

party, the Home Rule League, which was dedicated to the cause of a state's right to self-government.

In the midst of Jinnah's thriving political career, he met a 16-year-old named Ratanbai while on vacation in Darjeeling. After "Rutti" turned 18 and converted to Islam, the two were married on April 19, 1918. Rutti gave birth to Jinnah's first and only child, a daughter named Dina, in 1919.

As a member of Congress, Jinnah at first collaborated with Hindu leaders as their Ambassador of Hindu Muslim Unity, while working with the Muslim League simultaneously. Gradually, Jinnah realized that the Hindu leaders of Congress held a political agenda that was incongruent with his own. Earlier he had been aligned with their opposition to separate electorates meant to guarantee a fixed percentage of legislative representation for Muslims and Hindus. But in 1926, Jinnah shifted to the opposite view and began supporting separate electorates. Still, overall, he retained the belief that the rights of Muslims could be protected in a united India. At that stage of his political career, Jinnah left Congress and dedicated himself more fully to the Muslim League.

By 1928 Jinnah's busy political career had taken a toll on his marriage. He and his second wife separated. Rutti lived as a recluse at the Taj Mahal Hotel in Bombay for the next year, until she died on her 29th birthday.

During the 1930s Jinnah attended the Anglo-Indian Round Table Conferences in London, and led the reorganization of the All India Muslim League.

### **Independent Pakistan**

By 1939 Jinnah came to believe in a Muslim homeland on the Indian subcontinent. He was convinced that this was the only way to preserve Muslims' traditions and protect their political interests. His former vision of Hindu-Muslim unity no longer seemed realistic to him at this time.

During a 1940 meeting of the Muslim League at Lahore, Jinnah proposed the partition of India and the creation of Pakistan, in the area where Muslims constitute a majority. At this juncture, Jinnah was both displeased with Mohandas Gandhi's stance at the London Round Table Conference in 1939, and frustrated with the Muslim League. Much to Jinnah's chagrin, the Muslim League was on the verge of merging with the National League, with the goal of participating in provincial elections and potentially conceding to the establishment of a united India with majority Hindu rule.

To Jinnah's relief, in 1942 the Muslim League adopted the Pakistan Resolution to partition India into states. Four years later, Britain

sent a cabinet mission to India to outline a constitution for transfer of power to India. India was then divided into three territories. The first was a Hindu majority, which makes up present-day India. The second was a Muslim area in the northwest, to be designated as Pakistan. The third was made up of Bengal and Assam, with a narrow Muslim majority. After a decade, the provinces would have the choice of opting out on the formation of a new federation. But when the Congress president expressed objections to implementing the plan, Jinnah also voted against it. The independent state of Pakistan that Jinnah had envisioned came to be on August 14, 1947. The following day, Jinnah was sworn in as Pakistan's first governor-general. He was also made president of Pakistan's constituent assembly shortly before his death.

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### **Death and Legacy**

On September 11, 1948, just a little over a year after he became governor-general, Jinnah died of tuberculosis near Karachi, Pakistan—the place where he was born.

Today, Jinnah is credited with having altered the destiny of Muslims in the Indian subcontinent. According to Richard Symons, Muhammad Ali Jinnah "contributed more than any other man to Pakistan's survival." Jinnah's dream for Pakistan was based on the principles of social justice, brotherhood and equality, which he aimed to achieve under his motto of "Faith, Unity, and Discipline." In the wake of his death, Jinnah's successors were tasked with consolidating the nation of Pakistan that Jinnah had so determinedly established.

### **DIRECT ACTION DAY**

The Muslim League Council proclaimed 16th August 1946 as 'Direct Action Day' in order to accentuate their demand of a separate Muslim homeland after the British left the Indian subcontinent. Their main aim was to attain a different country with a Muslim majority.

It is believed that when Muhammad Ali Jinnah asked the people to 'suspend all business'; he did not expect the riot to get so violent. Their aim was not to completely drive Hindus out of their nation but to form a nation with a Muslim majority. However, the outcome of this Direct Action Day turned out to be extremely violent and took the lives of hundreds of people in both countries.

### **Background**

- In 1946, the Cabinet Mission was sent to India by the British government to find a resolution to the conflict between the Indian National Congress (INC) and the Muslim League on the issue of

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independence. The two parties were the largest in India's Constituent Assembly.

- The League wanted a separate homeland for the Muslims they called Pakistan while the INC wanted a united India.
- The Mission was not successful since the League and the Congress could not agree on the point of a united India with a strong centre. The Mission had earlier suggested a plan to divide the Muslim-dominated provinces and the Hindu provinces into groups with considerable autonomy which would be under a central administration. This was rejected by the INC.
- Since the Mission failed, the Muslim League announced 16th August as Direct Action Day and called for a general hartal in order to protest the INC's stand and demand vehemently a separate homeland.
- The Chief Minister of Bengal at that time was Huseyn Shaheed Suhrawardy of the Muslim League. The League announced that there was to be a mass rally presided over by Suhrawardy. Processions of people would come from different places and meet at the Ochterlony Monument to attend the rally.
- The rally started at noon, although there were instances of forced closing down of shops, stabbing and stoning from morning itself.
- League leaders gave fiery speeches at the rally which got the massive crowd excited.
- This was followed by large-scale rioting in Calcutta. Around 4000 people were killed on the first day. The riots involved killing, rape, forced conversions and looting.
- Many people blame Suhrawardy for inciting the people and then failing to put an end to the violence as Chief Minister.
- Some also put the blame on the Governor of Bengal, Sir Frederick John Burrows for not taking control of the situation.
- This communal violence soon spread to other parts of northern India particularly Bihar. Noakhali (now in Bangladesh) saw gruesome violence.

- The violence witnessed during and after the Direct Action Day has also been called the Great Calcutta Killings. Some of the places saw rioting on the scale of what can be termed genocide.
- India's independence was overshadowed by thousands of people getting killed or tortured in various riots particularly in eastern, northern and north-west India. The Calcutta killings were the first of such pre-independence rioting.
- All this bloodshed and communal tensions ultimately led to the INC's acceptance of the partition of the country in order to suppress the violence and blood bath.

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## **14.5 PARTITION AND INDEPENDENCE**

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### **Partition of India Background**

In August 1947, when independence was granted to the former imperial domain of British India, it was partitioned into two countries – India and Pakistan. India had been the largest possession of the British and a subject of the British Crown since 1858, when the East India Company's reign had been brought to an end in the wake of the Uprising and Revolt of 1857 against the Company rule.

Attempts to grant self-rule to the Indians was heavily debated since the early 1900s in the public sphere, the early results of which were the Indian Councils Act of 1909 and the Government of India Act of 1919. In 1935, the Government of India Act constituted a number of provinces with their own legislatures where representatives were elected on the basis of a limited franchise. It was planned that British India would be granted dominion status, i.e. self-government supervised by the Crown. If a majority of the princely states chose to join the scheme, India would have a confederate structure with powerful provinces and princely states and a weak center in charge of defence, foreign relations and currency.

This scheme never came into effect because the majority of the princely states refused to accept the 1935 Act and become a part of the proposed dominion. Provincial elections were held in British India in 1937. When war was declared between Britain and Germany in 1939, the British government declared India's involvement in the war without consulting any Indian leaders. In protest against this unilateral decision-making by the British regarding Indian interests, the Congress Governments in the provinces resigned. They demanded full independence in return for Indian cooperation in the war. Under pressure from the

American governments, the British sent the Cripps Mission to India in 1942 to secure full support and cooperation in the war against Germany by trying to negotiate better terms for transfer of power. But the pre-conditions of the Mission were not accepted by the Congress and the Muslim League, both of whom had different priorities and outcomes in mind. The failure of the Cripps Mission led to the Congress launching the Quit India Movement and demanding full independence from British rule. On the morning the Movement was to be launched, all Congress leaders were put behind bars where they were to remain until almost the end of war.

In 1945, the Labour Party came to power in Britain and pledged to grant independence to India. Their plan was developed on the basis of the 1935 Act. Elections were held in all the provinces of British India the results of which were that the Congress won in seven out of eleven provinces and the Muslim League won all the seats reserved for Muslims. In 1946, the British Government sent the Cabinet Mission to India to secure arrangements for a peaceful transfer of power. The Cabinet Mission proposed a confederation as previously detailed in the 1935 Act. It also proposed that provinces could group themselves into regions which would decide how power would be shared amongst them. Three regions were proposed, one comprising the North West provinces of Punjab, Sindh, Baluchistan, and the North West Frontier Province, the second comprising Madras, UP, Central Provinces, Bombay, Bihar & Orissa and the third comprising Assam and Bengal.

It was proposed that the provincial legislatures would elect representatives to a Constituent Assembly which would frame the Constitution of independent India. Although the Congress rejected the proposal for an interim government, they decided to join the Constituent Assembly in order to help frame the Constitution of independent India.

Mohammed Ali Jinnah declared 16 August 1946 as Direct Action Day as a show of force of support from the Muslim community for a separate nation. Riots spread through the cities of Calcutta and Bombay resulting in the death of approximately 5000-10,000 people with 15,000 wounded. On 9 December 1946, the Muslim League which had earlier accepted the proposals of the Cabinet Mission now withdrew its support on the ground that there was no guarantee for proper safeguards of the rights of the Muslim minority in the Assembly.

The demand for a separate nation for Muslims had been raised by various Muslim leaders in the previous decades, most famously by Allama Iqbal at a Muslim League conference at Allahabad in 1930 where he articulated the idea of a Muslim nation within India. The term "Pak-Stan" had been coined by Choudhry Rahmat Ali in the 1930s while he was studying at Cambridge University. On 23 March 1940, at a meeting of the Muslim

League in Lahore, Jinnah had endorsed such a demand, though without naming "Pakistan".

The proposal of the Muslim League resolution, to unite the Muslim majority provinces and carve out a separate nation was resisted by the Congress at the outset. At that time, an interim government was in charge with the Congress and Muslim League sharing ministries and Nehru acting as the de-facto Prime Minister. But soon the arrangement broke down and Lord Mountbatten put forth the proposal to partition India using the three regions as had been suggested by the Cabinet Mission.

The first Partition Scheme was outlined in April 1947. Jawaharlal Nehru was against the idea of Partition itself. The revised scheme was sent to London and came back with the approval of the British Cabinet. On June 4, the scheme to Partition India was announced by Mountbatten and endorsed in speeches by Nehru and Jinnah on the All India Radio.

The Partition scheme, as announced, was largely in line with the proposals of the Cabinet Mission. The North-West region comprising Punjab, Sindh, Baluchistan and the North West Frontier Province was as proposed by the Cabinet Mission. The Eastern region was redrawn without Assam or the North East provinces. East Bengal and the adjoining Sylhet district would be part of Pakistan. Partition came as a great shock to Mahatma Gandhi but the Congress leadership under Jawaharlal Nehru and Vallabhbhai Patel had accepted the proposition. However, the question of the final boundary was still undecided. The two largest provinces Punjab and Bengal had only a marginal superiority of Muslims over Non-Muslims – 53% to 47%. It was decided; therefore that the two provinces would be divided down the middle and the electoral register would be used to apportion some districts to Pakistan and the others to India.

The drawing of the boundary proved to be extremely contentious causing fear, uncertainty and widespread death and destruction. Cyril Radcliffe, KC, a barrister from Lincoln's Inn, London was put in charge of drawing up the boundary with the help of local advisors in Punjab and Bengal.

The negotiations amongst the leaders proved a nightmare for the thousands of families who suddenly found themselves uprooted in a land they had inhabited for generations. Law and order broke down and there was large scale massacre and looting as families left their homeland to trudge across the new, arbitrarily drawn borders. Women were abducted, raped, mutilated and killed along with children, both born and unborn. Families abandoned their ancestral properties and crossed the borders, forced to find a new life as refugees. In the Punjab and Bengal, refugees moved from each side to the other, in search of safety. Many Muslim families left from UP and Bihar to end up as Muhajirs (refugees) in Karachi. The Hindus of Sindh arrived in Gujarat and Bombay.

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The Partition of India was one of the most defining events in the history of the Indian subcontinent. With no accurate accounts of how many died or lost their homes, estimates suggest that perhaps up to 20 million people were affected by the Partition and somewhere between 200,000 – 1 million lost their lives. Yet, several decades after the event, there was a severe lacuna that no museum or memorial existed anywhere in the world to remember all those millions. It is their untold stories which the Partition Museum records and narrates.

### **Punjab**

In 1940, at the Lahore Session, the Muslim League had demanded the Partition of India to create a separate Muslim majority state in the north-west of India. In opposition to this demand, Sir Sikander Hayat Khan of the Unionist Party had forged links with the Sikhs and signed the Sikander-Baldev Singh Pact in March 1942. The pact provided for Jhatka meat in government institutions, the inclusion of Gurmukhi as a second language in schools and guaranteed 20 percent representation of the Sikh Community in the Executive Council supported by the Unionists. This was in strong opposition to Jinnah's demand for a Muslim state. However, the situation changed with the unexpected death of Sikander Hayat Khan in 1942.

The Unionists and the Sikhs were unable to sustain the alliance.

The Akalis drew up a scheme of Azad Punjab which encouraged the creation of a new province of Punjab. Master Tara Singh emphasized that the scheme was conceived to act as an effective counter to the demand of Partition.

In the Punjab elections held in 1946, the Muslim League had won the most number of seats but fell short of a majority. It failed to form a coalition government with any of the other parties, and a coalition government headed by the Punjab Unionist Party's Sir Khizr Hayat Tiwana came to power in Punjab.

In January-February 1947, the Muslim League called for Direct Action in the Punjab Province. This unnerved the Punjab Premier, Sir Khizr Hayat Khan Tiwana, whose coalition ministry included ministers from the Congress as well as Sikh Parties. The coalition fell on 2 March 1947.

On 3 March, Hindu and Sikh leaders met in Lahore where they vowed to oppose the establishment of Pakistan. On 4 March, Hindu and Sikh students came on the streets to protest. Communal clashes broke out in different parts of Lahore. By the evening of 4 March, communal violence broke out in Amritsar and on 5 March, in Multan and Rawalpindi. The governor, Sir Evan Jenkins, imposed Governor's Rule on 5 March 1947 after the League failed to convince him that it had a stable majority in the



Punjab Assembly. Punjab remained under Governor's Rule until power was handed over to the Indian and Pakistani governments on August 14 and 15.

Lord Louis Mountbatten assumed the role of the last viceroy on 24 March 1947. He announced the Partition Plan on 3 June 1947, declaring that the British had decided to transfer power to the Indian and Pakistani governments by mid-August 1947. The announcement resulted in a further increase in violence as uncertainty over the future began the greatest forced migration in history. The Partition of Punjab proved to be one of the most violent acts in the history of humankind.

Between 15-17 Augusts, there was great confusion about the actual boundaries between India and Pakistan. It was widely believed that Gurdaspur District would be given to Pakistan. Consequently, Pakistan dispatched Mushtaq Ahmed Cheema as Deputy Commissioner of Gurdaspur and the Pakistan flag flew over Gurdaspur for those days. Many cities, including Lahore, remained uncertain of their fate.

On 17 August 1947, the Radcliffe Award was made public. Three tehsils of Gurdaspur district on the Eastern bank of the Ravi were given to India while Shakargarh on the Western bank went to Pakistan. Many found themselves on the wrong side of the border suddenly. Lahore was awarded to Pakistan. The mass migration that followed saw the death of millions and displacement of many more. Families were torn apart. People migrating by trains were massacred and butchered. Women were killed, abducted and raped. Many were killed by their own families to 'protect the family honour'. The tumultuous wave of migration largely ended by 1948, but the rebuilding of lives continued for decades.

### **Bengal and Assam**

The movement of people across the border took a different form in Bengal as compared to Punjab. West Bengal had 5 million Muslims in a total of 21 million, while East Bengal had 11 million Hindus in a total of 39 million, almost equal percentages of the minority communities. Initially, cross-border movement was limited, with more Hindus moving westwards than Muslims moving eastwards. The two governments came to an agreement about protecting minorities on each side in April 1948 with the specific aim of preventing violence similar to that seen in Punjab from occurring in Bengal. The flow of migration further reduced. This was also due to a strong Pan-Bengali identity.

However, communal riots later triggered migration a few years after independence. Between February and April 1950, riots led to a million and a half people migrating; 850,000 Muslims moved eastwards, and 650,000

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Hindus moved westwards. Nehru and Liaquat Ali decided to sign a revised agreement to protect minorities on both sides. But the atmosphere had deteriorated. Between April and July 1950, 1.2 million Hindus left East Pakistan and 600,000 Muslims from West Bengal moved eastwards.

Even beyond the riots, fear of discrimination against minorities also led to migration in the 1950s. The language movement of the 1950s made Bengali Hindus uneasy. The issuance of passports in 1952 led to the fear that the option of migration would not be available later. Incoming refugees also led to a scarcity of resources which prompted waves of migration. However, because a lot of migration in Bengal happened after 1947-48, this was viewed as economic migration by the government, reducing the official aid that displaced persons received.

In 1964-65, communal riots following tensions in Kashmir led to an increased flow of Hindus westwards. The final large-scale migration came in 1970-71 on the eve of the formation of Bangladesh.

Mountbatten's Partition plan, announced on 3 June 1947, provided for a referendum to be held in the Sylhet district to decide whether it should remain a part of the Indian province of Assam or become a part of East Pakistan. In a meeting of District Officers convened to decide the dates of the referendum, it was suggested that the first fortnight of July be avoided due to heavy flooding which would curtail the ability of people to reach the voting booths. The British Referendum Commissioner, however, argued that based on the date of final withdrawal there was no negotiation possible with regard to the dates. The Sylhet Referendum was therefore held on 6 July 1947 and the results favoured a merger with Pakistan. Assam thus lost a wealthy district in terms of the thriving tea, lime and cement industries which in turn resulted in a serious loss of revenue.

Partition affected the politics and lives of the people in the North East in several ways. It physically separated them from the rest of the country save for a narrow passage commonly known as the Chicken's Neck, which is only 17 km wide at its narrowest. Partition disrupted the natural channel of riverine communication, and rail and road networks that provided connectivity to this area and had adverse effects on the economy of Assam. It was forced to exist as a landlocked province, as its natural outlet to the sea since 1904 through the port of Chittagong became a part of East Pakistan. The adverse impact of Partition was noted in the Census Report of 1951, which observed that 'the far-reaching effects of this loss will continue to be felt by Assam as well as India'.

Partition also affected the social and economic lives of the various tribal communities in the region. It disrupted the traditional links that tribal communities, such as the Khasis, Jantias and Garos, had with the East

Pakistani districts of Sylhet and Mymensingh, leaving them split between India and Pakistan, based on their place of residence.

## **Sindh**

The experience of Partition in Sindh was different from that of other States. Sindh, unlike Punjab and Bengal, was not partitioned demographically, but rather the entire state went to Pakistan. The State experienced fewer cases of physical violence and more frequently, reports of looting, destruction and distress sale of property. In fact, when Acharya Kripalani, the Congress president visited Sindh three months after Partition, he noted the lack of communal fanaticism and the influence of Sufi and vedantic thoughts among the Sindhis which spread the message of tolerance. Sindhis did not migrate en masse to India in the months shortly after Partition.

However, by November 1947, with the arrival of a large numbers of refugees (Muhajirs) from Bihar and Bengal in Sindh, an atmosphere of fear unsettled the Hindus. These Muhajirs living in crowded refugee camps began to occupy the homes of the Hindu Sindhis. Two major incidents of violence in Hyderabad (Sindh) and Karachi on 17 December 1947 and 6 January 1948, respectively, triggered the decision of the Hindus to leave.

More than the violence, it was the loss of their homeland which had nurtured their culture for centuries that left a deep and lasting impact on the Hindu Sindhis who migrated to India. Partition left them not only without a home but also alienated them from their way of life. In an environment where survival was a major issue, with the well-off Sindhis helping those in more dire conditions, the nurturing of culture was not a priority.

During the first half of 1948, approximately 1,000,000 Sindhi Hindus migrated to India; 400,000 more remained in Sindh. Evacuation continued for three more years, and by 1951 very few Hindu families remained in Sindh - about a scant 150,000 to 200,000. That trickle of migration has continued over the years and remains a continuing process.

On the issue of Sindhi culture and the reconstruction of their lives post-Partition, Saaz Agrawal in her book, "Sindh -- stories from a Vanished Homeland" writes, "The capricious river Indus ran through their lands and it changed course often. One day, you'd be by the river bank, the next, you'd be flooded. Their surroundings created a people prepared for change".

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## **INDEPENDENCE OF INDIA**

Though prominent leaders like Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru were not willing to accept the formula of partition based on religion, but communal clashes between religious groups hastened the creation of Pakistan. The independence cum partition proposal offered by the British Cabinet Mission in 1946 was accepted by the Congress. Sardar Patel convinced Gandhi that it was the only way to avoid civil war and the Mahatma reluctantly gave his consent. The British Parliament passed the famous Indian Independence Act 1947, and on August 14, Pakistan was declared a free nation. Few minutes later at 12:02 am, India became a democratic nation, much to the joy and relief of the entire Indian subcontinent.

After India's independence, Gandhiji focused on peace and unity among the Hindus and Muslims. He began a fast-unto-death in Delhi, asking for all communal violence to be stopped and the payment of Rs. 55 crores, as per the Partition Council agreement, to be made to Pakistan. Ultimately, all political leaders conceded to his wishes.

The Constituent Assembly was given the responsibility of creating the constitution. Headed by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar, the constitution was adopted on 26 November 1949. On 26 January 1950, the Constitution of India came into effect.

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### **14.6 INDIAN INDEPENDENCE ACT**

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The 1947 Indian Independence Act (1947 c. 30 (10 & 11. Geo. 6.) Is an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom that partitioned British India into the two new independent dominions of India and Pakistan? The Act received the royal assent on July 18, 1947, and thus India and Pakistan, comprising West (modern day Pakistan) and East (modern day Bangladesh) regions, came into being on August 15.

The legislature representatives of the Indian National Congress, the Muslim League, and the Sikh community came to an agreement with Lord Mountbatten on what has come to be known as the 3 June Plan or Mountbatten Plan. This plan was the last plan for independence.

#### **Background**

##### **Attlee's announcement**

The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom announced on February 20, 1947, that: The British Government would grant full self-government to British India by June 3, 1948, at the latest, The future of the Princely States would be decided after the date of final transfer is decided.

## Future of the Princely States

Attlee wrote to Mountbatten on March 18, 1947: "It is, of course, important that the Indian States should adjust their relations with the authorities to whom it is intended to hand over power in British India; but as was explicitly stated by the Cabinet Mission His Majesty's Government do not intend to hand over their powers and obligations under paramountcy to any successor Government. It is not intended to bring paramountcy as a system to a conclusion earlier than the date of the final transfer of power, but you are authorised, at such time as you think appropriate, to enter into negotiations with individual States for adjusting their relations with the Crown. The princely states would be free from orders and treaties of British Rule in India. They can either join the two dominions or stay separate"

## Provisions

The Act's most important provisions were:

- Division of British India into the two new dominions of India and Pakistan, with effect from August 15, 1947.
- Partition of the provinces of Bengal and Punjab between the two new countries.
- Establishment of the office of Governor-General in each of the two new countries, as representatives of the Crown.
- Conferral of complete legislative authority upon the respective Constituent Assemblies of the two new countries.
- Termination of British suzerainty over the princely states, with effect from 15 August 1947, and recognised the right of states to remain independent or accede to either dominion.
- Abolition of the use of the title "Emperor of India" by the British monarch (this was subsequently executed by King George VI by royal proclamation on 22 June 1948).
- The Act also made provision for the division of joint property, etc. between the two new countries, including in particular the division of the armed forces.

## Background

- The Indian Independence Act 1947 was an act of the British Parliament that partitioned India into two independent dominions of India and Pakistan.

*Netaji and in, direct action day, partition and independence, indian independence act*

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- The legislation was drafted by the Labour government of Clement Attlee. It was based on the Mountbatten Plan or the 3 June Plan which was formulated after the leaders of the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League agreed to the recommendations of the Viceroy Lord Mountbatten.
- Lord Mountbatten came to India with the specific task of seeing over the handing over of the authority to Indians. But the INC and the League could not agree on the question on partition.
- An initial plan proposed by Mountbatten known as the Dickie Bird Plan was opposed by Nehru. According to this plan, the provinces were to be declared independent and then allowed to join or not join the Constituent Assembly. Nehru opposed this as it would, in his opinion, would lead to the country's balkanisation.
- Then, Mountbatten came up with the last plan known as the 3 June Plan which was accepted by all parties. The INC, which was opposed to any partition of the country, finally accepted it as an inevitable process.
- As per this plan, India would be partitioned into India and Pakistan. The constitution framed by the Constituent Assembly would not be applicable to the areas which would go into Pakistan. These provinces would then decide on a separate constituent assembly.
- The Legislative Assemblies of Punjab and Bengal voted for the partition according to which these provinces were to be divided between the two dominions along religious lines.
- The assembly of Sind was given the choice to join the Indian Constituent Assembly or not. It decided to join Pakistan. In the North Western Frontier Province (NWFP) and Sylhet, a referendum was to be held which would decide the country they were to join.
- The complete legislative authority would be given to the Constituent Assemblies of the new countries.
- The Act decided to grant independence to India and Pakistan with effect from 15th August 1947.
- The new boundaries of the dominions would be demarcated by the Boundary Commission.

- British suzerainty over the princely states was to end. These states could decide to join either India or Pakistan or remain independent. Over 560 states decided to merge with India.
- The British emperor would cease to use the title 'Emperor of India'.
- Until the new dominions' constitutions would become effective, the heads of state would be the respective Governor-Generals who would continue to assent laws passed by the Constituent Assemblies in the name of the king.
- This Act received the royal assent on 18th July 1947 and entered into force.
- Pakistan became independent on 14th August and India on 15th August 1947. Muhammad Ali Jinnah was appointed Pakistan's Governor-General and Lord Mountbatten became India's.

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### **Check Your Progress**

What was the purpose of Direct Action Day?

What was the role of Subhash Chandra Bose?

When did the Indian Partition and Independence?

What was the Indian Independence Act?

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## **14.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS**

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1. Direct Action Day (16 August 1946), also known as the 1946 Calcutta Killings, was a day of widespread communal rioting between Muslims and Hindus in the city of Calcutta (now known as Kolkata) in the Bengal province of British India. The day also marked the start of what is known as The Week of the Long Knives.
2. Subhas Chandra Bose (23 January 1897 – 18 August 1945) was an Indian nationalist whose defiant patriotism made him a hero in India, but whose attempt during World War II to rid India of British rule with the help of Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan left a troubled legacy.

3. The partition was set forth in the Indian Independence Act 1947 and resulted in the dissolution of the British Raj, or Crown rule in India. The two self-governing countries of India and Pakistan legally came into existence at midnight on 14–15 August 1947.
4. The Indian Independence Act 1947 is an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom that partitioned British India into the two new independent dominions of India and Pakistan.

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#### **14.8 SUMMARY**

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- Subhas Chandra Bose (also called Netaji) is known for his role in India's independence movement. A participant of the noncooperation movement and a leader of the Indian National Congress, he was part of the more militant wing and known for his advocacy of socialist policies.
- The Indian national army/ Azad Hind Fauz headquarters were shifted to Rangoon in January 1944 and a sensation was created with the war cry march Chalo Delhi.
- In 1946, Muhammad Ali Jinnah declared 16 August as 'Direct Action Day' and called for Muslims all over the country to 'suspend all business'.
- The partition of India in 1947 was the division of British India into two independent dominion states, the Union of India and the Dominion of Pakistan. The Union of India is today the Republic of India; the Dominion of Pakistan is today the Islamic Republic of Pakistan and the People's Republic of Bangladesh.
- As I understand it Satyagraha means “truth” as coined by Gandhi during the Indian Independence Movement. It is a method of civil resistance that does not recognize or tolerate violence. Unlike passive resistance Gandhi states it is a weapon of the strong to defeat injustice through truth and love.
- Gokhale was an important mentor to Gandhi. Mahatma Gandhi (1869 – 1948) The foremost political leader of the Indian independence movement. For over two decades, Gandhi led a peaceful independence movement, characterised by non-violent protests, such as boycotts and the Salt March.



- India Independence Act 1947 was an Act passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom (UK) that divided the British India into two new independent dominions of India and Pakistan. ... This act came to be known as 3 June Plan or Mountbatten Plan.

*Netaji and ina, direct action day, partition and independence, indian independence act*

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#### **14.9 KEY WORDS**

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*Notes*

**Rash Behari Bose:** The Indian National Army (INA; Azad Hind Fauj; lit.: Free Indian Army) was an armed force formed by Indian nationalist Rash Behari Bose in 1942 in Southeast Asia during World War II. Its aim was to secure Indian independence from British rule.

**3 June Plan:** The British government proposed a plan announced on 3 June 1947 that included these principles: Principle of the Partition of British India was accepted by the British Government. Successor governments would be given dominion status autonomy and sovereignty to both countries.

**Monarchy:** A monarchy is a country that is ruled by a monarch, and monarchy is this system or form of government. A monarch, such as a king or queen, rules a kingdom or empire. In a constitutional monarchy, the monarch's power is limited by a constitution. But in an absolute monarchy, the monarch has unlimited power.

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#### **14.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES**

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##### Short Answer Questions

1. Write a note on the INA?
2. What was the role of Jinnah?
3. What was the significance of Direct Action Day?

##### Long Answer Questions

1. Examine the Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose in detail?
2. Analyse the importance of the Partition of India?
3. Discuss the Indian Independence Act?

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#### **14.11 FURTHER READINGS**

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