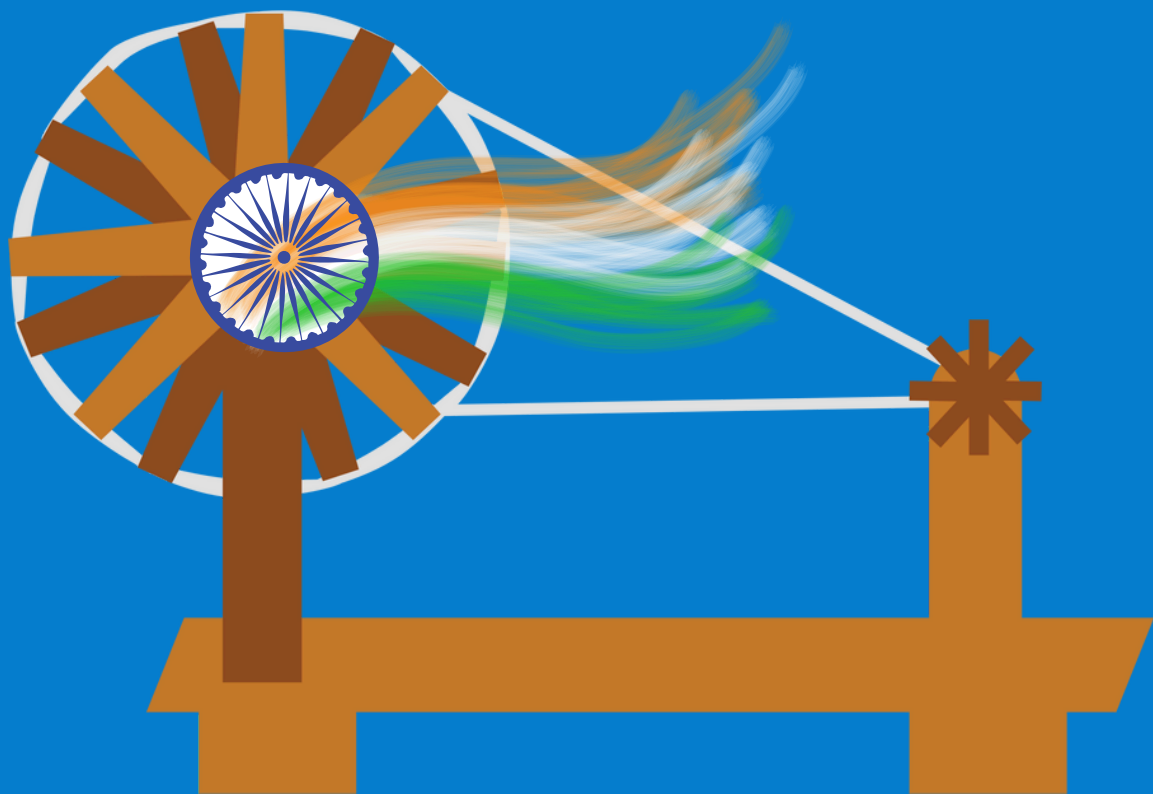


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MODERN HISTORY

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PREVIOUS YEAR QUESTIONS

Q) What were the events that led to the Quit India Movement? Point out its results. (Answer in 150 words) [10 Marks] **[2024]**

Q) How far was the Industrial Revolution in England responsible for the decline of handicrafts and cottage industries in India? (Answer in 250 words) (15 Marks) **[2024]**

Q) What was the difference between Mahatma Gandhi and Rabindranath Tagore in their approach towards education and nationalism? [Answer in 150 words] [10 Marks] **[2023]**

Q) How did colonial rule affect the tribal in India and what was the tribal response to colonial oppression? [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2023]**

Q) Why did the armies of the British East India Company—mostly comprising of Indian soldiers—win consistently against the more numerous and better equipped armies of the Indian rulers? Give reasons. [Answer in 150 words] [10 Marks] **[2022]**

Q) Why was there a sudden spurt in famines in colonial India since the mid-eighteenth century? Give reasons. [Answer in 150 words] [10 Marks] **[2022]**

Q) Bring out the constructive programmes of Mahatma Gandhi during Non-Cooperation Movement and Civil Disobedience Movement. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2021]**

Q) To what extent did the role of the Moderates prepare a base for the wider freedom movement? Comment. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2021]**

Q) Trace the rise and growth of socio-religious reform movements with special reference to Young Bengal and Brahmo Samaj. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2021]**

Q) Evaluate the policies of Lord Curzon and their long-term implication on the national movement. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2020]**

Q) Since the decade of the 1920s, the national movement acquired various ideological strands and thereby expanded its social base. Discuss. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2020]**

Q) The 1857 uprising was the culmination of the recurrent, big and small local rebellions that had occurred in the preceding hundred years of British rule. Elucidate. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2019]**

Q) Examine the linkages between the nineteenth century's 'Indian Renaissance' and the emergence of national identity. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2019]**

Q) Many voices had strengthened and enriched the nationalist movement during the Gandhian phase. Elaborate. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2019]**

Q) Assess the role of British imperial power in complicating the process of transfer of power during the 1940s. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2019]**

Q) Throw light on the significance of the thoughts of Mahatma Gandhi in the present times. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2018]**

Q) Clarify how mid-eighteenth-century India was beset with the spectre of a fragmented polity. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2017]**

Q) Why did the 'Moderates' failed to carry conviction with the nation about their proclaimed ideology and political goals by the end of the nineteenth century? [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2017]**

Q) Examine how the decline of traditional artisan industry in colonial India crippled the rural economy. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2017]**

Q) Highlight the importance of the new objectives that got added to the vision of Indian Independence since the twenties of the last century. [250 Words] [15 Marks] **[2017]**

Q) Explain how the uprising of 1857 constitutes an important watershed in the evolution of British policies towards colonial India. [200 Words] [12.5 Marks] **[2016]**

Q) Discuss the role of women in the freedom struggle especially during the Gandhian phase. [200 Words] [12.5 Marks] **[2016]**

Q) Highlight the differences in the approach of Subhash Chandra Bose and Mahatma Gandhi in the struggle for freedom. [200 Words] [12.5 Marks] **[2016]**

Q) How difficult would have been the achievement of Indian independence without Mahatma Gandhi? Discuss. [200 Words] [12.5 Marks] **[2015]**

Q) Mahatma Gandhi and Dr. B R Ambedkar, despite having divergent approaches and strategies, had a common goal of amelioration of the downtrodden. Elucidate. [200 Words] [12.5 Marks] **[2015]**

Q) Examine critically the various facets of economic policies of the British in India from mid-eighteenth century till independence. [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2014]**

Q) In what ways did the naval mutiny prove to be the last nail in the coffin of British colonial aspirations in India? [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2014]**

Q) What were the major political, economic and social developments in the world which motivated the anti-colonial struggle in India? [150 Words] [10 Marks] **[2014]**

Q) Defying the barriers of age, gender and religion, the Indian women became the torchbearer during the struggle for freedom in India. Discuss. [200 Words] [10 Marks] **[2013]**

Q) Several foreigners made India their homeland and participated in various movements. Analyze their role in the Indian struggle for freedom. [200 Words] [10 Marks] **[2013]**

Q) In many ways, Lord Dalhousie was the founder of modern India. Elaborate. [200 Words] [10 Marks] **[2013]**

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SYLLABUS

- Modern Indian History from about the middle of the eighteenth century until the present- significant events, personalities, issues.
- The Freedom Struggle — its various stages and important contributors/contributions from different parts of the country.

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RISE OF REGIONAL STATES

- The rise of regional states in India during the 18th century is a significant historical development that can be classified into three main categories based on their origins and characteristics.

CATEGORIES OF REGIONAL STATES

SUCCESSOR STATES

- These states emerged from the former Mughal provinces that declared independence as the central authority weakened.
- Notable examples include Awadh, Bengal, and Hyderabad. Although these states were powerful and operated independently, they maintained formal ties with the Mughal emperor, who still held symbolic authority.
- The governors of these provinces established hereditary rule, effectively controlling local administration without challenging the emperor's nominal power.

NEW STATES (INSURGENT STATES)

- This category includes states formed through uprisings against Mughal authority. The Marathas, Sikhs, and Jats are prominent examples of this group.
- These states were characterized by their leaders—often local chieftains or zamindars—who capitalized on the declining Mughal influence to assert their independence through military action and political maneuvering.
- The Marathas, for instance, expanded their territory significantly during this period, establishing a formidable presence in central and western India.

INDEPENDENT STATES

- These states arose not directly from rebellion or succession but by exploiting the instability of Mughal rule. Examples include the Rajput kingdoms and the kingdom of Mysore.
- The Rajputs had long enjoyed a degree of autonomy, which allowed them to consolidate power as Mughal control waned.

- Mysore, under leaders like Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan, modernized its military and administration, further asserting its independence and expanding its influence in southern India.

REGIONAL STATES

BENGAL

- The history of Bengal during the 18th century is marked by significant political transformations, particularly through the reigns of Murshid Quli Khan, Alivardi Khan, and Siraj ud-Daulah.
- This period highlights the transition from Mughal influence to British colonial dominance.

MURSHID QULI KHAN (1704-1727)

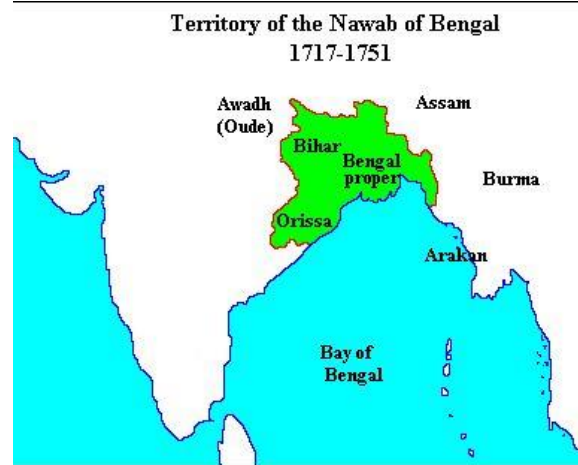
- Murshid Quli Khan was the first Nawab of Bengal after the decline of Mughal authority. Appointed in 1704, he established an independent rule that effectively severed Bengal from direct Mughal control.
- His administration focused on consolidating power and improving revenue collection, which laid the groundwork for future Nawabs.
- He shifted the capital from Dhaka to Murshidabad and implemented reforms that enhanced the economy, including a more efficient tax system.

ALIVARDI KHAN (1740-1756)

- Alivardi Khan succeeded Murshid Quli Khan and ruled from 1740 until 1756. His reign was characterized by military conflicts, particularly against the Maratha invasions.
- Alivardi successfully defended Bengal against multiple incursions, notably defeating the Marathas in the Battle of Burdwan.
- He also recognized the growing influence of European powers, particularly the British East India Company, and attempted to balance their interests with those of his administration.
- Alivardi's governance was marked by relative stability and prosperity, although he faced challenges from local nobles and external threats.

SIRAJ UD-DAULAH (1756-1757)

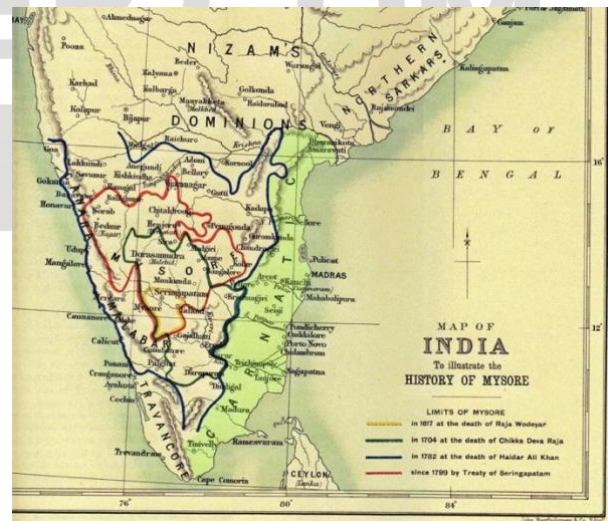
- Siraj ud-Daulah ascended to power in April 1756 at the age of 23, following Alivardi Khan's death. His reign was brief but pivotal, as it marked the beginning of British colonial rule in India. Siraj's rule was marred by internal dissent and betrayal.
- He faced opposition from influential figures such as Mir Jafar and Ghaseet Begum, which undermined his authority.



CARNATIC

ESTABLISHMENT OF AUTONOMY (1710-1732)

- Nawab Saadatullah Khan I (1710-1732) was pivotal in establishing the Carnatic as an autonomous state.
- Initially a subah under the Nizam of Hyderabad, Saadatullah Khan liberated the Carnatic from direct Mughal control, making his position hereditary.
- The capital was moved from Gingee to Arcot, which became the administrative center of the newly autonomous state.
- His governance laid the groundwork for subsequent Nawabs and marked a turning point as local rulers began to assert their independence amid the declining Mughal authority.



EXPANSION AND INTERNAL STRUGGLES (1732-1748)

- After Saadatullah Khan's death, his adopted son Dost Ali Khan succeeded him. Under Dost Ali, the Carnatic expanded its territory significantly, including the annexation of Madurai in 1736.

- However, this period was also marked by internal power struggles and external pressures from European colonial powers.
- The Nawab's authority faced challenges from various factions, including those supported by the French and British.
- The First Carnatic War (1740-1748) arose from these tensions, coinciding with broader conflicts in Europe, particularly the Austrian War of Succession. The war ended with the Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle, which temporarily restored Madras to British control while allowing France to retain territories in North America.

THE CARNATIC WARS (1749-1763)

- The Second Carnatic War (1749-1754) followed shortly after, fueled by local dynastic disputes. The struggle for power between Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah, supported by the British, and Chanda Sahib, backed by the French, exemplified how local conflicts became battlegrounds for European powers seeking dominance in India. This war solidified British influence in southern India and culminated in the Treaty of Pondicherry, which recognized Muhammad Ali as Nawab.
- The Third Carnatic War (1757-1763) was part of the larger global conflict known as the Seven Years' War. Key battles during this period included the Siege of Madras and the Battle of Wandiwash, where British forces decisively defeated their French counterparts, leading to significant territorial gains for Britain. The war concluded with the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which effectively ended French ambitions in India and established British supremacy over southern territories.

AWADH

SAADAT KHAN (BURHAN-UL-MULK) - 1722 TO 1739

- Saadat Khan, also known as Burhan-ul-Mulk, was appointed as the Subedar (governor) of Awadh in 1722.
- He is credited with laying the foundation of the autonomous principality of Awadh, establishing a dynasty that would rule for several decades. His leadership was characterized by efforts to consolidate power and manage the diverse interests within the region, which included both Muslim and Hindu communities.
- Saadat Khan's tenure ended with his death in 1739, which was surrounded by rumors of suicide due to political pressures following Nadir Shah's invasion of India.

SAFDAR JUNG - 1739 TO 1754

- Following Saadat Khan, his successor was Safdar Jung, who ruled from 1739 until his death in 1754. His reign was tumultuous, marked by internal strife and external threats. Safdar Jung's governance faced challenges from rival factions and the encroaching influence of the British East India Company.
- His ambitious nature led to significant military engagements, but ultimately his rule saw increasing instability within Awadh.

SHUJA-UD-DAULA - 1754 TO 1775

- Shuja-ud-Daula succeeded Safdar Jung in 1754 and ruled until his death in 1775. He was the son of Safdar Jung and continued many of his father's policies while also facing new challenges.



- Shuja-ud-Daula's reign is particularly noted for its military engagements against British forces, including significant battles such as those at Patna and Buxar in 1764.
- These confrontations culminated in a decisive defeat that forced him into a treaty with the East India Company, marking a critical point in Awadh's relationship with British colonial interests.

HYDERABAD

THE RISE OF HYDERABAD UNDER ASAF JAH

- The rise of Hyderabad as a significant political entity in India is closely linked to the establishment of the Asaf Jah dynasty by Nizam-ul-Mulk, also known as Chin Qilich Khan, in 1724. This period marked a transition from Mughal dominance to regional autonomy in the Deccan region.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

- Hyderabad's roots trace back to 1591, when Muhammad Quli Qutb Shah founded the city, establishing it as the capital of the Qutb Shahi Kingdom.
- The city grew in prominence until it fell under Mughal control following Aurangzeb's conquest in 1687.
- After Aurangzeb's death, the Mughal Empire began to decline, leading to increased autonomy for regional leaders like Nizam-ul-Mulk.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ASAF JAH DYNASTY

- In 1724, Nizam-ul-Mulk declared independence from Mughal rule after defeating Mubriz Khan, the then-viceroy of the Deccan, at the Battle of Shokr Kheda.
- This victory allowed him to establish the Asaf Jah dynasty, marking the beginning of a new era for Hyderabad.
- Asaf Jah I became the first Nizam and was instrumental in consolidating power in the region, effectively transforming Hyderabad into an independent kingdom.



MARATHAS

ABOUT

- The rise of the Maratha Empire from the 1710s onwards marks a significant period in Indian history, characterized by territorial expansion, political consolidation, and military prowess.
- Following the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the Marathas capitalized on the ensuing Mughal decline to establish their dominance across much of the Indian subcontinent.

PESHWA ERA (1713-1761)

- **Leadership of Shahu and Balaji Viswanath:** In 1713, Shahu, the grandson of Shivaji, appointed Balaji Viswanath as Peshwa (chief minister). This marked the beginning of a powerful Peshwa era where real political authority shifted from the Maratha king to the Peshwa. Balaji Viswanath's leadership was instrumental in solidifying Maratha power and expanding their influence across India.
- **Territorial Expansion:** Under Peshwa Bajirao I (1714-1740), the Marathas expanded aggressively. They conquered Malwa and Gujarat in the 1720s and raided Delhi in 1737, establishing their presence in northern India. Bajirao's campaigns extended Maratha control as far north as Peshawar (present-day Pakistan) by 1758.

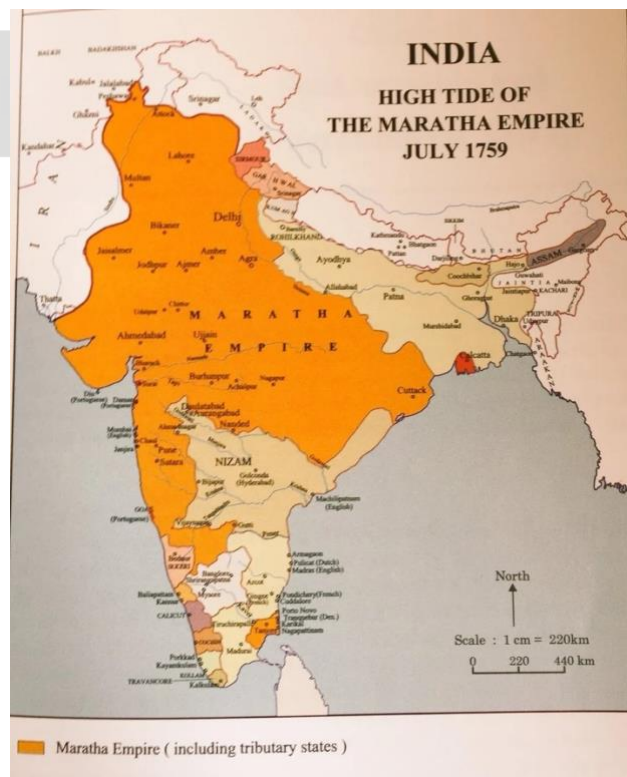
MILITARY CONFLICTS

- **Third Battle of Panipat (1761):** This pivotal battle against Ahmad Shah Durrani resulted in a catastrophic defeat for the Marathas. The loss significantly weakened their military might and led to internal strife among various Maratha factions. Despite this setback, they managed to recover partially in subsequent years but never regained their former strength.

CONTINUED RIVALRIES AND

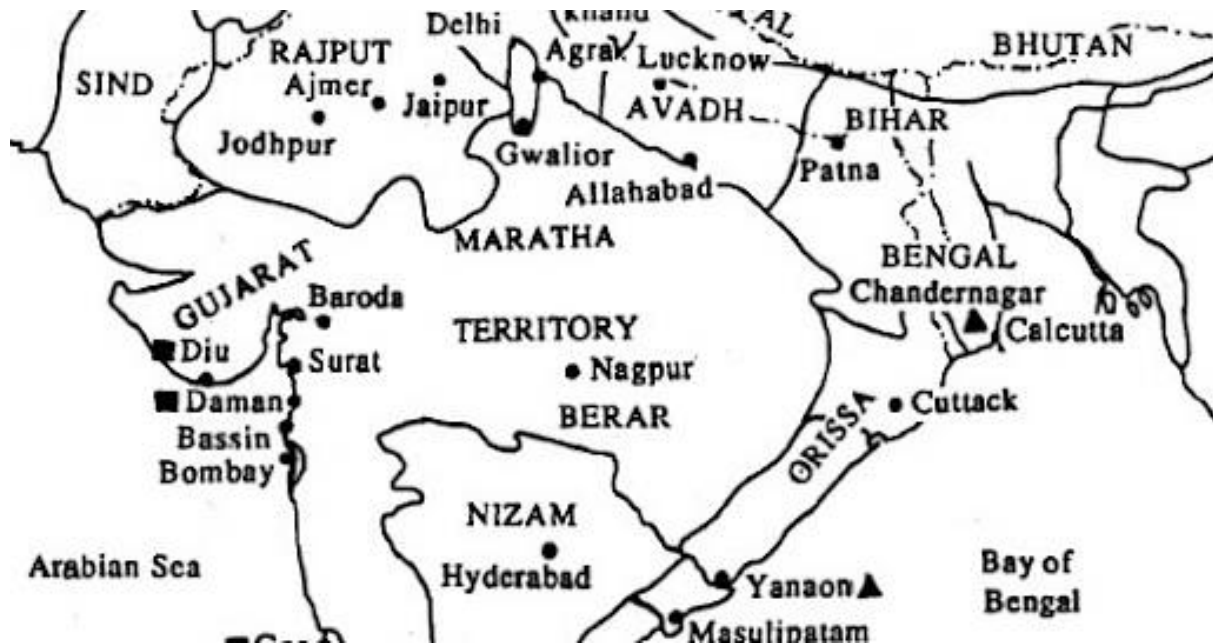
WARS

- **Anglo-Maratha Wars:** The Marathas faced increasing challenges from the British East India Company, culminating in three Anglo-Maratha Wars between 1775 and 1818. The First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-1782) ended with a treaty favorable to the Marathas, but subsequent conflicts led to significant territorial losses. The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1803-1805) resulted in further defeats, while the Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-1818) concluded with the fall of the Maratha Empire and direct British control over its territories.



RAJPUTS

- The Rajputs' relationship with the Mughal Empire, particularly after the reign of Aurangzeb, was marked by significant changes and conflicts that ultimately contributed to the decline of Mughal authority in India.



RAJPUTS DURING AURANGZEB'S REIGN

- Aurangzeb, who ruled from 1658 to 1707, adopted a markedly different approach towards the Rajputs compared to his predecessors, Akbar, Jahangir, and Shah Jahan.
- While these earlier emperors had fostered alliances with the Rajputs through diplomacy and marriage, Aurangzeb's policies were characterized by suspicion and aggression.
- He viewed the Rajputs as a major threat to his ambitions of establishing a purely Islamic state in India, primarily due to their military prowess and political influence.

KEY POLICIES AND CONFLICTS

- Military Campaigns:** Aurangzeb initiated military campaigns against powerful Rajput states, particularly Marwar. He sought to annex these territories and reimpose the Jizya tax on Hindus, which had been abolished by Akbar. His forces captured Marwar easily due to the absence of its main troops engaged in conflicts elsewhere.

- **Destruction of Temples:** Aurangzeb ordered the destruction of Hindu temples and sought to undermine the cultural identity of the Rajputs. This aggressive stance alienated many Rajput leaders and fueled resentment against Mughal rule.
- **Rajput Rebellion:** The culmination of Aurangzeb's oppressive policies led to widespread discontent among the Rajputs. A significant rebellion erupted after his attempts to deny rightful claims to leadership within Rajput states, particularly following the death of Raja Jaswant Singh of Marwar. The conflict escalated into a prolonged struggle for autonomy.

AFTER AURANGZEB: THE RISE OF AUTONOMOUS STATES

- **Strengthening of Rajput States:** Leaders like Ajit Singh of Marwar capitalized on the weakened Mughal control to reclaim territories and consolidate power. The recognition of Ajit Singh as the ruler of Marwar in 1709 marked a significant turning point for Rajput autonomy.
- **Formation of Alliances:** With the decline of central Mughal authority, various Rajput clans began forming alliances among themselves and with other regional powers, further diminishing Mughal influence in northern India.
- **Cultural Renaissance:** The post-Aurangzeb period also saw a revival of Rajput culture and traditions as they sought to establish their identity independent from Mughal dominance.

SIKH EMPIRE

ABOUT

- The Sikh Empire emerged as a significant political and military power in the Indian subcontinent during the late 18th and early 19th centuries, primarily under the leadership of Maharaja Ranjit Singh.
- The empire's rise is marked by a series of events that transformed the fragmented Sikh misls (confederacies) into a unified state.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- **Political Fragmentation:** By the late 18th century, Punjab was characterized by political fragmentation with various Sikh and Muslim chiefs vying for power.

- The decline of Mughal authority following Nadir Shah's invasion in 1739 created a power vacuum that allowed local rulers to assert control over their territories.

FORMATION OF THE SIKH EMPIRE

- **Maharaja Ranjit Singh's Ascendancy:**

Ranjit Singh began his rise to power as a leader of the Sukerchakia misl. In 1799, he captured Lahore from the Bhangi misl, marking the formal beginning of the Sikh Empire.



- He was crowned Maharaja on April 12, 1801, establishing a centralized authority over Punjab. His leadership was characterized by military modernization and strategic alliances, which enabled him to consolidate various misls into a single kingdom.
- **Expansion and Governance:** Under Ranjit Singh, the empire expanded significantly to include regions such as Kashmir, Ladakh, and parts of present-day Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.
- The administration was noted for its religious tolerance and inclusivity, with leaders from various faiths occupying positions of power. Ranjit Singh's rule also saw infrastructural developments such as roads and canals, enhancing trade and communication within the empire.

MILITARY STRENGTH AND CONFLICTS

- The Sikh Empire was known for its formidable military capabilities. Ranjit Singh modernized his army by incorporating European military techniques and technologies.
- This strength was crucial in resisting British expansion into Punjab during the early 19th century.

RISE OF MYSORE STATE

ABOUT

- The Kingdom of Mysore, located in South India, experienced significant growth and transformation during the 18th century under the leadership of Hyder Ali and his son Tipu Sultan.
- Their reign marked a period of military innovation, economic development, and fierce resistance against British colonial expansion.

HYDER ALI'S ASCENDANCY

- Hyder Ali (c. 1720–1782) began his career as a military officer and gradually rose to power, effectively becoming the ruler of Mysore by the 1760s.
- His military acumen allowed him to expand Mysore's territory significantly, often through strategic alliances and warfare against neighboring states such as the Marathas and the British East India Company.
- Hyder Ali established a strong centralized administration and implemented various reforms that laid the groundwork for Mysore's future prosperity.
- **Military Innovations:** Hyder Ali is credited with introducing modern military strategies and technologies, including the use of rocketry in warfare.
- His forces utilized iron-cased rockets, which were innovative for their time and would later influence military technology globally.
- **Economic Reforms:** Under his leadership, Mysore's economy began to flourish. He focused on agricultural productivity and textile manufacturing, which increased revenue and improved living standards.

TIPU SULTAN'S REIGN

- Tipu Sultan (1751–1799), known as Sher-e-Mysore or "Tiger of Mysore," succeeded his father after Hyder Ali's death in 1782. His rule was characterized by continued military conflict with British forces and significant administrative reforms.
- **Military Campaigns:** Tipu Sultan inherited a kingdom embroiled in conflict, particularly with the British East India Company. He engaged in four Anglo-Mysore Wars, where he demonstrated remarkable military prowess.
- Notably, he achieved a significant victory at the Battle of Pollilur in 1780 during the Second Anglo-Mysore War. However, despite initial successes, he faced setbacks in

subsequent wars, ultimately leading to his defeat and death during the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War in 1799.

- **Economic Development:** Like his father, Tipu Sultan implemented ambitious economic policies that propelled Mysore into one of India's leading economic powers.

- He introduced a new land revenue system that enhanced agricultural output and initiated silk production in the region. Under his reign, Mysore surpassed Bengal Subah in economic strength, with average incomes significantly higher than subsistence levels.



- **Administrative Innovations:** Tipu Sultan was known for his administrative reforms, including a new coinage system and calendar. He also emphasized technological advancements by inviting European experts to modernize various sectors within his kingdom.
- His efforts included laying the foundation for infrastructure projects like the Krishna Raja Sagara Dam, which would later become crucial for irrigation and water supply.

RISE OF ROHILKHAND AND FARRUKHABAD

RISE OF ROHILKHAND

- The Kingdom of Rohilkhand emerged in the early 18th century as a significant power in northern India, primarily established by Afghan chiefs, notably Daud Khan. This development occurred during a period of decline for the Mughal Empire, particularly

following the invasions by Nadir Shah in 1739 and Ahmad Shah Durrani (Abdali) in subsequent years.

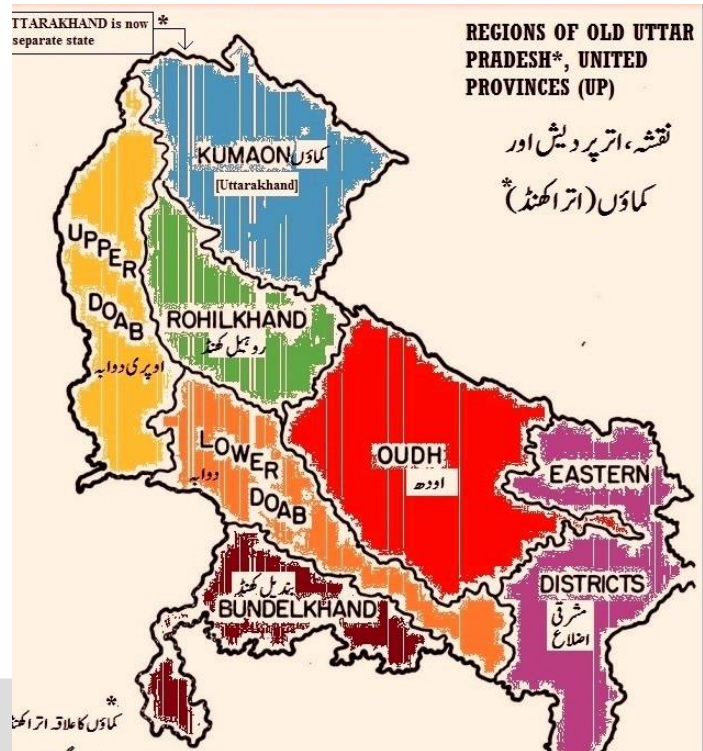
- Daud Khan, initially a soldier in the Mughal army, was instrumental in organizing and consolidating Afghan settlers in the region known as Katehar, which later became known as Rohilkhand due to the predominance of Rohilla Afghans.

FORMATION AND EXPANSION

- Rohilkhand's foundation can be traced back to 1721 when Nawab Ali Mohammed Khan, elected by various Afghan chiefs, began to carve out a kingdom from the weakening Mughal territories. He established himself as the first Nawab and laid the groundwork for what would become a confederation of Rohilla states.
- His leadership was characterized by military prowess and strategic alliances, particularly with local Rajput rulers to counterbalance the growing influence of Oudh.
- The kingdom expanded significantly under Ali Mohammed Khan and his successors, with its borders reaching towards Delhi and Agra. The establishment of key cities like Bareilly as its capital facilitated administrative control and economic prosperity.
- However, internal divisions among the Rohilla chiefs began to surface, leading to a fragmented governance structure where various leaders controlled different regions while nominally recognizing the Nawab's authority.

CONFLICTS AND DECLINE

- The rise of Rohilkhand was not without conflict. In 1757, the Maratha Empire dealt a significant blow to the Rohillas during battles near Delhi.
- Despite this setback, the Rohillas managed to regroup and even achieved military victories against larger forces, such as during their confrontation with the Marathas in 1772.



- However, financial strains and internal discord culminated in the First Rohilla War (1773-1774), where Hafiz Rahmat Khan's refusal to repay debts led to an invasion by the Nawab of Oudh supported by British forces.
- The decisive Battle of Miranpur Katra on April 23, 1774, resulted in a catastrophic defeat for the Rohillas, marking the end of their autonomy. Following this defeat, much of Rohilkhand was absorbed into Oudh, leading to widespread displacement among the Rohilla population.

FARRUKHABAD'S ROLE

- Farrukhabad was one of several important cities within Rohilkhand that played a crucial role during this period. Founded by Muhammad Khan Bangash in 1713, it became a center for Afghan power within the region.
- The city served as both a military stronghold and an administrative hub for various Afghan factions seeking to assert their influence amidst the declining Mughal authority. The dynamics between Farrukhabad's leaders and other regional powers contributed significantly to the political landscape of Rohilkhand.

RISE OF JATS

- The rise of the Jats in the Bharatpur region following the decline of Mughal power, particularly after Aurangzeb's reign, is a significant chapter in Indian history.
- This period saw the transformation of the Jats from a marginalized group into a formidable political and military force.

ESTABLISHMENT OF BHARATPUR STATE

- The establishment of Bharatpur as a Jat princely state was primarily due to the efforts of leaders like Churaman and Badan Singh. Churaman, who rose to prominence in the early 18th century, capitalized on the Mughal civil wars to expand Jat territory and influence. By the early 1700s, he had effectively ousted Rajput control from significant areas around Delhi and Agra, laying the groundwork for a Jat state.
- Badan Singh, Churaman's nephew, further consolidated Jat power and is often credited as the true founder of Bharatpur. His leadership established a stable administration that allowed for territorial expansion and military organization.

THE ZENITH UNDER SURAJ MAL

- The most notable ruler of Bharatpur was Maharaja Suraj Mal (1707–1763), who is often regarded as the apex of Jat power. Under his reign, Bharatpur reached its zenith, controlling vast territories including parts of modern-day Rajasthan, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh.
- Suraj Mal's military acumen was evident when he captured Agra Fort in 1761, a strategic victory that underscored Jat dominance in northern India during a time when Mughal authority was waning.
- Suraj Mal's strategies included not only direct military confrontations but also psychological warfare and diplomacy.
- His ability to navigate alliances and rivalries allowed him to expand his influence significantly during a politically chaotic era marked by the decline of Mughal power and the rise of other regional powers like the Marathas.



TIMELINE OF THE RISE OF REGIONAL STATES

18TH CENTURY

- **1710-1732: Saadatullah Khan I** establishes the Carnatic's autonomy, moving the capital to Arcot.
- **1713:** Foundation of the **Peshwa Era** with Balaji Viswanath's appointment by Shahu.
- **1717: Murshid Quli Khan** establishes independent rule in Bengal, shifting its capital to Murshidabad.
- **1721: Rohilkhand** begins to form under Nawab Ali Mohammed Khan.
- **1722: Saadat Khan** (Burhan-ul-Mulk) becomes Subedar of Awadh, laying its foundation as an autonomous state.
- **1724: Asaf Jah I** declares independence and establishes the Asaf Jah dynasty in Hyderabad.
- **1720s:** Expansion of Maratha territory under Peshwa Bajirao I.

- **1732-1748:** Expansion and internal struggles in the Carnatic under Dost Ali Khan.
- **1736:** Carnatic annexes Madurai under Dost Ali Khan.
- **1739:** Death of Saadat Khan of Awadh following Nadir Shah's invasion.
- **1740-1756:** **Alivardi Khan's** reign in Bengal, marked by his defense against Maratha invasions.
- **1749-1763:** Carnatic Wars between British and French-supported factions.
- **1756-1757:** **Siraj ud-Daulah's** reign in Bengal, ending with his defeat by the British.
- **1754-1775:** **Shuja-ud-Daula's** rule in Awadh, leading to key battles like Buxar in 1764.
- **1761:** **Suraj Mal** of Bharatpur captures Agra Fort at the zenith of Jat power.
- **1772:** Rohilla victory against the Marathas near Delhi.
- **1774:** End of Rohilkhand autonomy after the First Rohilla War and Battle of Miranpur Katra.
- **1799:** **Ranjit Singh** captures Lahore, marking the formal beginning of the Sikh Empire.
- **1801:** Coronation of Ranjit Singh as Maharaja of the Sikh Empire.

KEY MILITARY CONFLICTS

- **1757:** Battle of Plassey
- **1761:** Third Battle of Panipat marks a major setback for the Marathas.
- **1764:** Battle of Buxar signals British ascendancy in Awadh.
- **1780:** Tipu Sultan's victory at the Battle of Pollilur in the Second Anglo-Mysore War.
- **1799:** Tipu Sultan dies during the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War, marking the end of Mysore's strong independence.

EXPANSION AND CONSOLIDATION OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

REASONS FOR BRITISH SUCCESS

British success in India can be attributed to a combination of military, political, economic, and social factors.

MILITARY SUPERIORITY

- **Advanced Weaponry:** The British employed superior arms and military strategies, including modern muskets and cannons that outperformed Indian weaponry. This technological advantage allowed them to dominate in battles such as Plassey (1757) and Buxar (1764).
- **Naval Power:** The British Navy was dominant, enabling control over sea routes, which facilitated the movement of troops and supplies, thereby bolstering their military campaigns on land.

POLITICAL FACTORS

- **Vacuum of Power:** The decline of the Mughal Empire created a power vacuum which the British exploited. Fragmentation among Indian states made it easier for the British to establish control.
- **Divide and Rule Policy:** The British effectively used existing rivalries among Indian rulers, playing factions against each other to prevent unified resistance against their rule.
- **Alliances with Local Rulers:** They formed strategic alliances with discontented local rulers, which helped weaken opposing forces and expand their influence.

ECONOMIC STRENGTH

- **Strong Financial Backing:** The British East India Company had substantial financial resources from trade profits, allowing them to fund military campaigns and pay soldiers regularly. This financial stability contrasted with many Indian rulers who struggled with funding.

- **Exploitation of Resources:** The British implemented policies that prioritized their economic interests, such as heavy taxation and monopolization of trade, which further consolidated their power in India.

ADMINISTRATIVE EFFICIENCY

- **Effective Leadership:** British leaders like Robert Clive and Warren Hastings demonstrated strong leadership skills. Their ability to maintain discipline within the ranks contrasted with the often fragmented leadership among Indian rulers.
- **Merit-based Recruitment:** The British military and administrative systems were based on merit rather than hereditary privilege, allowing for more effective governance compared to the often caste-based systems in India.

SOCIAL DYNAMICS

- **Lack of National Unity:** Indian rulers often lacked a sense of national pride or unity, which made it easier for the British to conquer and control various regions by exploiting divisions among local powers.
- **Adaptation to Local Conditions:** The British showed flexibility by adapting some local customs and employing Indians in administrative roles, which helped maintain stability during their rule.

ANGLO-CARNATIC WARS

The **Anglo-Carnatic Wars** (or **Carnatic Wars**) were a series of 18th-century conflicts between the British and French East India Companies for dominance in southern India, primarily in the Carnatic region. These wars were influenced by European rivalries and marked a turning point in India's colonial history.

FIRST CARNATIC WAR (1746–1748)

- **Cause:** Part of the **War of the Austrian Succession** in Europe.
- **Key Events:**
 - The French, led by **Governor Dupleix** and Admiral **La Bourdonnais**, captured **Madras** from the British in 1746.

- The Nawab of Carnatic, **Anwar-ud-din**, intervened but suffered a crushing defeat at the **Battle of Adyar** (1746), where a small French force defeated his 10,000-strong army.
- **Outcome:** Ended with the **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** (1748), which restored Madras to the British but left underlying tensions unresolved.

SECOND CARNATIC WAR (1749–1754)

- **Cause:** Succession disputes in the Carnatic and Hyderabad.
- **Key Events:**
 - The French supported **Chanda Sahib** for the Carnatic throne, while the British backed **Muhammad Ali Wallajah**.
 - **Robert Clive** secured a decisive victory at the **Siege of Arcot** (1751), boosting British prestige.
- **Outcome:** The **Treaty of Pondicherry** (1754) recognized Muhammad Ali as Nawab but failed to resolve Franco-British rivalry.

THIRD CARNATIC WAR (1757–1763)

- **Cause:** Extension of the **Seven Years' War** in Europe.
- **Key Events:**
 - British forces captured **Chandernagore** (Bengal) in 1757 and defeated the French at the **Battle of Wandiwash** (1760) under **Sir Eyre Coote**.
 - The French stronghold **Pondicherry** fell in 1761.
- **Outcome:** The **Treaty of Paris** (1763) ended French political ambitions in India, cementing British dominance.

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Shift in Power:** British emerged as the dominant European power in India, while French influence declined.
- **Military Tactics:** Introduction of European-style warfare and alliances with local rulers became critical.
- **Foundation for Empire:** Paved the way for British territorial expansion and eventual colonial rule

BRITISH EXPANSION IN BENGAL

EARLY INROADS

1700: The British East India Company (EIC) officially named its fort on the banks of the Hooghly River as Fort William, marking its growing presence in Bengal. The fort served as both a military base and a trading post, facilitating British trade activities in the region.

1716: The EIC acquired the right to trade duty-free in Bengal, significantly enhancing its commercial interests and leading to increased tensions with local rulers who were wary of British encroachment.

1740-1756: Nawab Alivardi Khan ruled Bengal, maintaining a balance between local governance and British interests. He was known for his firm control over the EIC's activities and sought to curb their influence.

1756: Tensions peaked when Nawab Siraj-ud-Daulah, who succeeded Alivardi Khan, became increasingly hostile towards the British due to their fortification of Calcutta without his permission. This led to the Siege of Calcutta, where Siraj's forces captured Fort William, resulting in the infamous Black Hole of Calcutta incident, where many British prisoners died due to overcrowding in a small dungeon.

June 1756: Following the siege, Siraj-ud-Daulah's forces occupied Calcutta, temporarily expelling the British from their stronghold. This act intensified hostilities between the Nawab and the EIC.

Early 1757: In response to their defeat, the EIC sent a military force led by Robert Clive from Madras to regain control. Clive forged alliances with discontented factions within Siraj-ud-Daulah's court, notably Mir Jafar, who was promised the position of Nawab in exchange for his support against Siraj.

BATTLE OF PLASSEY

ABOUT

- The Battle of Plassey, fought on June 23, 1757, was a pivotal conflict that marked a significant turning point in Indian history, leading to the establishment of British colonial rule in India.

- This battle occurred near the village of Palashi (anglicized to Plassey) on the banks of the Hooghly River in Bengal, about 150 kilometers north of Calcutta (now Kolkata) and south of Murshidabad, the then capital of Bengal Subah.

BACKGROUND

- The battle was primarily fought between the British East India Company, led by Colonel Robert Clive, and the forces of Nawab Siraj-ud-Daulah, the last independent Nawab of Bengal. Tensions had escalated due to Siraj-ud-Daulah's dissatisfaction with British expansion and interference in local politics.
- The British had fortified their position at Fort William without the Nawab's consent, leading to his capture of Calcutta in mid-1756, an event that included the infamous Black Hole massacre, where many British prisoners died under dire conditions.

KEY EVENTS

- **Conspiracy and Betrayal:** Clive orchestrated a conspiracy involving several key figures within Siraj-ud-Daulah's camp, notably Mir Jafar, who was promised the position of Nawab in exchange for his support against Siraj-ud-Daulah. Other conspirators included members of the wealthy Jagat Seth banking family and other local leaders who feared losing their economic interests if Siraj-ud-Daulah prevailed.
- **Battle Dynamics:** The Nawab commanded a much larger force, estimated at around 50,000 troops, including cavalry and artillery. In contrast, Clive's forces numbered about 3,000 men, composed mainly of sepoys (Indian soldiers) and a smaller contingent of European soldiers. Despite being outnumbered, Clive's forces benefited from superior tactics and weather conditions; a sudden rain rendered much of Siraj-ud-Daulah's artillery ineffective while Clive's troops were prepared.
- **Outcome:** The battle lasted approximately 11 hours. Siraj-ud-Daulah's forces were thrown into disarray when Mir Jafar and his troops did not engage in the fighting as planned. Ultimately, Siraj-ud-Daulah fled the battlefield but was later captured and executed by Mir Jafar's forces.

SIGNIFICANCE

- The victory at Plassey allowed the British East India Company to consolidate its power over Bengal and set the stage for further territorial expansion across India.

- Mir Jafar was installed as Nawab, effectively making him a puppet ruler under British control.
- The British gained significant trade privileges in Bengal and expanded their military presence throughout India.
- This battle is often cited as the beginning of British colonial dominance in India, leading to over a century of direct rule until India's independence in 1947.

MIR JAFAR REPLACED BY MIR QASIM

- Mir Jafar was replaced by Mir Qasim as the Nawab of Bengal due to a combination of political manoeuvring and conflicts with the British East India Company.

BACKGROUND

- Mir Jafar, who became Nawab after the British victory at the Battle of Plassey in 1757, initially served as a puppet ruler for the East India Company.
- However, his reign was marked by dissatisfaction from both the British and local factions. His attempts to negotiate with the Dutch East India Company led to tensions with the British, who ultimately sought a more compliant leader.

TRANSITION TO MIR QASIM

- In 1760, under pressure from the British, Mir Jafar was forced to abdicate in Favor of his son-in-law, Mir Qasim. The British believed that Qasim would be more amenable to their demands and less likely to engage in independent actions that could threaten their interests.
- Qasim was initially seen as an effective ruler who attempted to strengthen his administration and assert his independence by shifting the capital from Murshidabad to Munger and reforming tax policies.

BATTLE OF BUXAR

OVERVIEW OF THE BATTLE OF BUXAR

- The Battle of Buxar was a significant conflict that took place on October 22, 1764, marking a pivotal moment in Indian history. This battle was fought between the forces of the British East India Company, commanded by Major Hector Munro, and a

coalition of Indian rulers, including Shah Alam II (the Mughal Emperor), Mir Qasim (the Nawab of Bengal), and Shuja-ud-Daula (the Nawab of Awadh).

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- The roots of the Battle of Buxar can be traced back to the aftermath of the Battle of Plassey in 1757, which had established British influence in Bengal. Tensions escalated as Mir Qasim sought to assert his authority and modernize his military, leading to conflicts over trade and taxation with the British.
- The Nawab's efforts to regain control and resist British dominance culminated in an alliance with Shah Alam II and Shuja-ud-Daula, aiming to expel the British from Bengal.

FORCES INVOLVED

- British East India Company: Approximately 10,000 troops, including regular British soldiers and sepoys.
- Combined Indian Forces: Estimated between 40,000 to 60,000 troops from the Mughal Empire, Awadh, and Bengal.

COURSE OF THE BATTLE

- The battle was fought near Buxar, located on the banks of the Ganges River. Despite being outnumbered, the British forces employed superior tactics and discipline.
- They were organized into three sections and successfully executed maneuvers that outflanked and encircled the Indian forces. The lack of coordination among the Indian allies contributed significantly to their defeat.

KEY EVENTS

- The British troops maintained disciplined formations and launched coordinated attacks.
- The Indian forces suffered heavy casualties due to effective British artillery and musket fire.
- The battle concluded with a decisive victory for the British East India Company.

CASUALTIES

- British East India Company: Approximately 850 casualties.

- Indian Coalition: Estimates suggest between 2,000 to 5,000 casualties.

AFTERMATH AND CONSEQUENCES

- The victory at Buxar solidified British control over Bengal and marked a transition from a trading company to a ruling power. Following the battle, the Treaty of Allahabad was signed in 1765, which formalized British authority over Bengal.
- The Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II was forced to cede sovereignty over Bengal while receiving a pension from the British.
- The company got the diwani rights.

LONG-TERM IMPACT

- The battle established British dominance in northern India.
- It led to significant territorial expansion for the British East India Company across India.
- The defeat marked the decline of Mughal power and set the stage for nearly two centuries of colonial rule in India.

BRITISH CONQUEST OF MYSORE AND ANGLO-MYSORE WARS

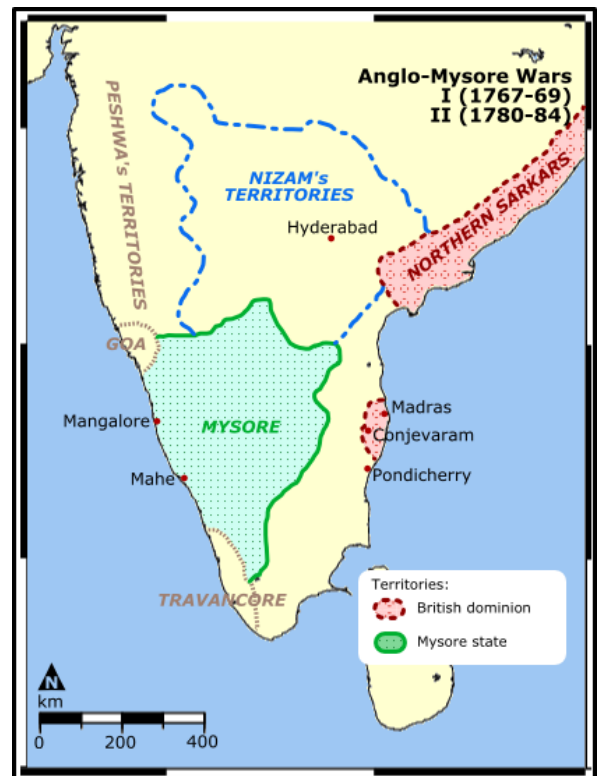
FIRST ANGLO-MYSORE WAR

OVERVIEW OF THE FIRST ANGLO-MYSORE WAR

- The First Anglo-Mysore War (1767-1769) marked the beginning of a series of conflicts between the British East India Company and the Kingdom of Mysore, led by Hyder Ali.
- This war was primarily driven by the British desire to expand their influence in southern India, particularly in the Carnatic region, and to counter the growing power of Mysore.

BACKGROUND

- **Rise of Hyder Ali:** Hyder Ali emerged as a significant political and military leader in Mysore during the latter half of the 18th century, effectively becoming the de facto ruler after serving in various military capacities under the Wodeyar dynasty. His administration and military strategies enabled Mysore to become a formidable power, which alarmed both the British and regional rivals such as the Marathas and the Nizam of Hyderabad.
- **Initial Conflicts:** The war's origins can be traced back to tensions involving multiple regional powers. In 1767, the Marathas invaded Mysore, which prompted Hyder Ali to negotiate their withdrawal through financial concessions. Following this, the Nizam also attempted to invade Mysore with British support, aiming to curb Hyder's influence.



COURSE OF THE WAR

- **Military Engagements:** The conflict officially began in January 1767. The British forces, initially under Colonel James Smith, faced significant challenges due to being outnumbered by Hyder Ali's troops. Despite initial British advances, including efforts to besiege key locations like Bangalore, they suffered defeats that forced them into retreat.

- **Key Battles:** Throughout 1768, several engagements took place, including notable battles where Hyder Ali successfully repulsed British attacks. His tactical maneuvers allowed him to regain control over territories lost earlier in the conflict. The British faced logistical issues and internal command changes that hampered their effectiveness against Hyder's forces.

CONCLUSION AND TREATY

- The war concluded with the Treaty of Madras in April 1769. This treaty established peace between the two parties and included provisions for mutual non-aggression.
- It also recognized Hyder Ali's authority over Mysore while limiting British expansion in the region temporarily.

SECOND ANGLO-MYSORE WAR (1780-1784)

- The Second Anglo-Mysore War was a significant conflict fought between the British East India Company and the Kingdom of Mysore from 1780 to 1784.
- This war was part of a larger series of confrontations known as the Anglo-Mysore Wars, which ultimately shaped the political landscape of southern India.

BACKGROUND

- The roots of the Second Anglo-Mysore War can be traced back to the failed Treaty of Madras (1769), which was supposed to maintain peace between the British and Mysore.
- When Mysore was attacked by the Maratha army in 1771, Haider Ali, the de facto ruler of Mysore, accused the British of breaching this treaty.
- Additionally, Haider Ali's growing alliance with the French, particularly in acquiring military supplies, alarmed the British, who sought to curb Mysore's influence and protect their own interests in India.

COURSE OF THE WAR

- The war began in earnest after the British seized the French port of Mahé in 1779, prompting Haider Ali to declare war against them in 1780. The conflict saw several key battles:

- Battle of Pollilur (1781): This battle marked a significant victory for Haider Ali, where he defeated British forces led by Colonel William Baillie. The defeat was one of the most crushing losses for the East India Company at that time.
- Battle of Porto Novo (1781): The British, under Sir Eyre Coote, retaliated successfully against Mysorean forces, marking a turning point in the war.
- Despite early successes for Mysore, including victories at Pollilur and Kumbakonam, the tide began to turn as British forces regrouped and received reinforcements. By 1783, with changing dynamics due to international developments such as peace between Britain and France during the American Revolutionary War, both sides sought an end to hostilities.

CONCLUSION AND AFTERMATH

- The war concluded with the Treaty of Mangalore on March 11, 1784. This treaty restored the status quo ante bellum, meaning both sides returned to their pre-war positions without significant territorial changes. However, it highlighted the vulnerability of British forces and set the stage for future conflicts.

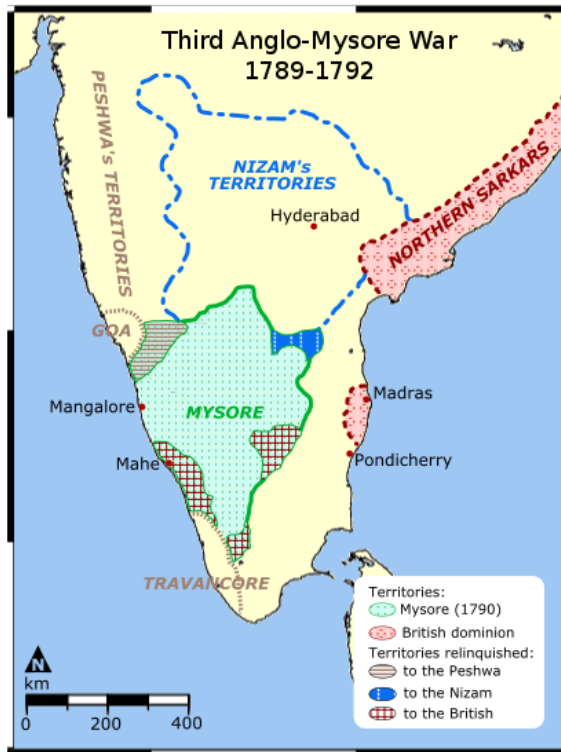
THIRD ANGLO-MYSORE WAR (1790-1792)

OVERVIEW OF THE THIRD ANGLO-MYSORE WAR

- The Third Anglo-Mysore War (1790-1792) was a significant conflict between the British East India Company and the Kingdom of Mysore, led by Tipu Sultan.
- This war was part of a series of four Anglo-Mysore Wars that shaped the political landscape of Southern India during the late 18th century.

BACKGROUND

- The conflict arose from ongoing tensions following the Second Anglo-Mysore War and the Treaty of Mangalore (1784), which had failed to establish lasting peace.
- Tipu Sultan, seeking to assert his power and avenge perceived betrayals by former allies, notably the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas, launched an attack on Travancore, a British ally, in 1789. This act was seen as a direct threat to British interests, prompting them to declare war.



COURSE OF THE WAR

- The war commenced when British forces, commanded by Lord Cornwallis, responded to Tipu's aggression.
- **Initial Engagements:** In 1790, Tipu achieved early successes against British forces, notably defeating them under General Meadows.
- **British Counteroffensive:** The tide turned in 1791 when Lord Cornwallis took command. He led a large army through various territories, capturing significant locations including Bangalore and advancing towards Seringapatam, Tipu's capital.
- **Siege of Seringapatam:** The decisive phase of the war came with the Siege of Seringapatam in 1792. Despite fierce resistance from Tipu's forces, the British, supported by their allies—the Marathas and the Nizam—overwhelmed him.

CONCLUSION AND TREATY

- The war concluded with the Treaty of Seringapatam in 1792. The terms were severe for Tipu Sultan:
- He was forced to cede approximately half of his kingdom, including vital territories such as Malabar and Dindigul.

- A substantial war indemnity of three crore rupees was imposed, with two of his sons taken as hostages until payment was completed.
- The British established greater control over Southern India, significantly diminishing Mysore's power and influence.

FOURTH ANGLO-MYSORE WAR (1798-99)

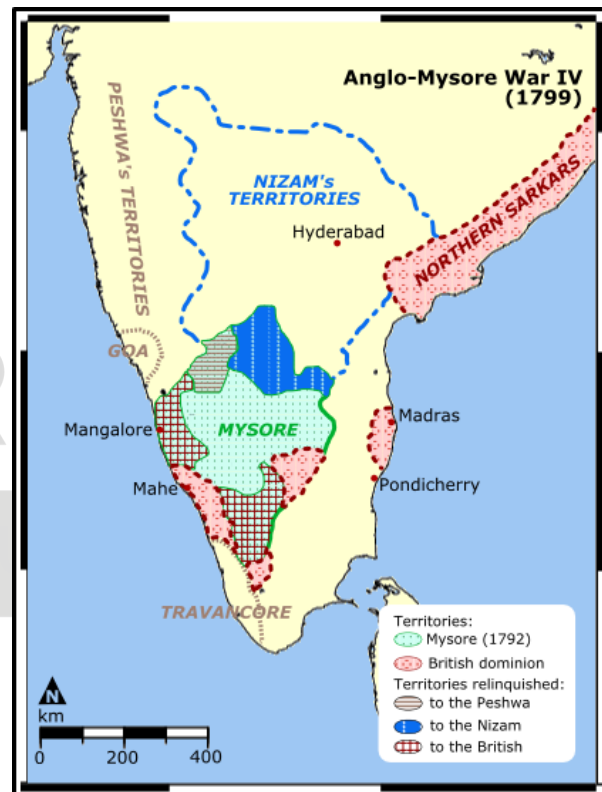
- The Fourth Anglo-Mysore War, fought from 1798 to 1799, marked the final conflict in a series of four wars between the Kingdom of Mysore and the British East India Company, along with their allies, including the Nizam of Hyderabad.
- This war resulted in the decisive defeat of Tipu Sultan, the ruler of Mysore, and led to significant changes in the political landscape of South India.

MAJOR EVENTS

- **Siege of Seringapatam:** The British forces, numbering around 60,000 troops, besieged Seringapatam, the capital of Mysore. They were joined by Maratha and Nizam forces attacking from different directions.

The siege culminated in a series of battles leading to the fall of Seringapatam on May 4, 1799.

- **Death of Tipu Sultan:** During the final assault on Seringapatam, Tipu Sultan was killed. His death marked a significant turning point as it effectively ended organized resistance against British rule in Mysore.



AFTERMATH

- The Wadiyar (Wodeyar) dynasty was restored to power in Mysore under a subsidiary alliance with the British, which allowed indirect control over the state.

- Tipu Sultan's family was exiled, and significant territories were ceded to the British East India Company.
- The remnants of Mysore became a princely state within British India, significantly reducing its territory and influence.

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BRITISH CONQUEST OF MARATHAS AND ANGLO-MARATHA WARS

FIRST ANGLO-MARATHA WAR (1775–1782)

OVERVIEW OF THE FIRST ANGLO-MARATHA WAR

- The First Anglo-Maratha War (1775–1782) was the inaugural conflict in a series of three wars fought between the British East India Company and the Maratha Confederacy in India.
- This war emerged from the power struggles within the Maratha leadership and the British ambitions to expand their influence in India following the decline of the Mughal Empire.

BACKGROUND

- The roots of the conflict can be traced back to the political turmoil following the death of Madhav Rao I, the Peshwa of the Maratha Empire, in 1772. His death created a power vacuum, leading to a succession crisis.
- Narayan Rao, his younger brother, became Peshwa but was soon murdered by his uncle Raghunath Rao, who then sought British support to claim the title.
- In March 1775, Raghunath Rao signed the Treaty of Surat with the British, ceding territories such as Salsette and Bassein in exchange for military assistance against rival factions within the Maratha leadership.

COURSE OF THE WAR

INITIAL CONFLICTS

- The British initially faced setbacks. After Raghunath Rao's forces were defeated at the Battle of Adas in May 1775, Warren Hastings, then Governor-General of Bengal, annulled the Treaty of Surat and sought to negotiate with other Maratha leaders, culminating in the Treaty of Purandar in March 1776. This treaty recognized Madhav Rao II as Peshwa and retained some territories for the British.
- As tensions escalated, Raghunath Rao's attempts to regain power led to further military engagements. The British launched an invasion towards Pune but suffered a significant defeat at Wadgaon in January 1779, where they were forced to surrender and sign the Treaty of Wadgaon, conceding many territories.

TURNING POINT

- Despite these defeats, Hastings sent reinforcements to India. In subsequent battles, including those at Ahmedabad and Gwalior, British forces began to regain control. The decisive moment came with Mahadji Sindhia's defeat at Sipri in 1781, which shifted the balance back towards British favor.



CONCLUSION AND TREATY OF SALBAI

- The war concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Salbai on May 17, 1782. This treaty restored pre-war boundaries and established a fragile peace between the two powers for twenty years. The key provisions included:
 - Recognition of Madhav Rao II as Peshwa.
 - Retention of Salsette and Bassein by the British.
 - A pension for Raghunath Rao.
 - An agreement that Marathas would assist in retaking territories from Hyder Ali of Mysore

SECOND ANGLO-MARATHA WAR (1803–1805)

OVERVIEW OF THE SECOND ANGLO-MARATHA WAR

- The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1803–1805) was a significant conflict between the British East India Company and the Maratha Empire, marking a crucial phase in the decline of Maratha power in India.
- This war followed the Treaty of Salbai, which had established a fragile peace after the First Anglo-Maratha War (1775–1782). The treaty allowed for a period of relative

stability, but internal divisions within the Maratha Confederacy and British ambitions led to renewed hostilities.

CAUSES OF THE WAR

- **Internal Conflicts Among Maratha Leaders:** The Maratha Confederacy was fragmented, consisting of several powerful chiefs including the Peshwas, Scindias, Holkars, Gaekwads, and Bhonsles. Rivalries and conflicts among these factions weakened their unity.
- **Treaty of Bassein (1802):** After suffering defeat at the hands of Yashwantrao Holkar in the Battle of Poona, Peshwa Baji Rao II sought British assistance. He signed the Treaty of Bassein, which effectively made him a puppet of the British by ceding territories and allowing British troops to be stationed in his domain. This treaty was viewed as a betrayal by other Maratha leaders, particularly the Scindias and Bhonsles.
- **British Expansionism:** The British were eager to expand their control over India following their success against Tipu Sultan in Mysore. The Treaty of Bassein provided them with a pretext to intervene militarily against the dissenting Maratha factions.

COURSE OF THE WAR

- The war officially began in 1803 when various Maratha factions opposed Baji Rao II's alliance with the British. Key battles included:
 - **Battle of Assaye (September 23, 1803):** Led by Arthur Wellesley (later known as the Duke of Wellington), British forces achieved a decisive victory against Holkar's troops.
 - **Battle of Laswari (November 1, 1803):** Another significant engagement where British forces defeated Scindia's army, further consolidating British control over central India.
 - The war saw multiple engagements across central India, with British forces systematically defeating various Maratha contingents.

CONCLUSION AND CONSEQUENCES

- **Treaty of Surji-Anjangaon (1803):** Signed with Scindia, resulting in substantial territorial losses for him.

- **Treaty of Deogaon (1803):** Signed with Bhonsle, leading to further territorial concessions.
- **Treaty of Rajpurghat (1805):** Marked the end of hostilities with Holkar.
- As a result of these treaties, large parts of central India came under direct British control, effectively dismantling the Maratha Empire's power and influence. The war set the stage for future conflicts and solidified British supremacy in India leading up to the later stages of colonial rule.

THIRD ANGLO-MARATHA WAR (1817–1819)

OVERVIEW OF THE THIRD ANGLO-MARATHA WAR

- The Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817–1819) marked the final and decisive conflict between the British East India Company (EIC) and the Maratha Empire in India. This war resulted in the EIC gaining control over a significant portion of India, effectively dismantling the Maratha power structure.

CAUSES OF THE WAR

- **British Expansionism:** The EIC sought to extend its influence and control over the Indian subcontinent.
- **Conflict with Pindaris:** The Pindaris, a group of mercenaries operating in central India, were seen as a threat to British interests, leading to military operations against them.
- **Political Tensions:** The assassination of British envoy Gangadhar Shastri by Maratha forces escalated tensions, prompting the EIC to take military action against the Marathas.

KEY EVENTS AND BATTLES

INITIAL ENGAGEMENTS

- The war began with British operations against the Pindaris, but soon escalated into direct conflict with Maratha forces.
- The first significant battle occurred at Khadki (Khadki) on November 5, 1817, where British troops faced off against Peshwa Baji Rao II's forces. Despite being outnumbered, the British emerged victorious.

MAJOR BATTLES

- **Battle of Koregaon (January 1, 1818):** Another critical engagement where British forces defeated the Marathas decisively.
- **Battle of Mahidpur (December 20, 1817):** This battle further weakened Maratha resistance as they faced superior British tactics and organization.
- **Pursuit of Bajji Rao II:** After initial defeats, Peshwa Bajji Rao II fled southward but was ultimately captured by British forces. His flight illustrated the disarray within Maratha leadership and strategy during the conflict.

CONSEQUENCES

- **End of Peshwa Rule:** The war culminated in the end of Peshwa authority and marked a significant decline in Maratha influence across India.
- **British Dominance:** The EIC solidified its control over vast territories in India, paving the way for increased colonial governance and expansion in subsequent decades.
- **Dismantling of Maratha Confederacy:** The internal divisions among Maratha leaders contributed to their defeat, as mutual rivalries weakened their collective military efforts against the British

BRITISH CONQUEST OF SINDH

ABOUT

- The British conquest of Sindh was a significant military campaign that occurred between February and March 1843, leading to the incorporation of Sindh into British India.
- This event marked a crucial expansion of British influence in the Indian subcontinent, driven by both strategic interests and geopolitical rivalries.

BACKGROUND

- Sindh, located at the crossroads of ancient trade routes, had long been a region of interest for various powers due to its strategic significance. By the early 19th century,

the British East India Company had already established control over much of India, except for Punjab and Sindh.

- The British aimed to secure their position against potential threats from Afghanistan and Persia, particularly in light of their involvement in the First Anglo-Afghan War (1839-1842).

KEY EVENTS OF THE CONQUEST

INITIAL TREATIES AND TENSIONS

- In 1838, under Lord Auckland, the British manipulated local politics by convincing Ranjit Singh, the ruler of Punjab, to sign a treaty that allowed British intervention in Sindh.
- This treaty laid the groundwork for increased British influence and established a subsidiary alliance with the Amirs of Sindh.
- However, as tensions rose during the Afghan War, the Amirs were forced to bear financial burdens for British troops stationed in their territory, leading to resentment.

BATTLES OF MIANI AND HYDERABAD

- **Battle of Miani (February 17, 1843):** Led by General Charles Napier, the British forces faced the Talpur army. Despite being outnumbered (approximately 8,800 British troops against about 45,000 Talpurs), Napier's forces employed superior military tactics and technology. The battle resulted in a decisive victory for the British, with significant casualties on both sides—520 for the British and around 4,000 for the Talpurs.
- **Battle of Hyderabad (March 24, 1843):** Following Miani, this battle further solidified British control over Sindh. The Talpur resistance was effectively crushed, leading to their eventual surrender.

AFTERMATH AND ANNEXATION

- Following these victories, Sindh was officially annexed into the British Empire under Governor-General Lord Ellenborough in 1843. Napier was appointed as its first governor. The Amirs were captured and exiled, marking a complete transition of power from local rulers to British control.

CRITICISM AND LEGACY

- The conquest has been criticized by historians who argue that it was driven by imperial ambitions rather than legitimate political motives. Critics suggest that the British used deceitful tactics to justify their actions, particularly after suffering setbacks in Afghanistan. The annexation was seen as an attempt to restore British prestige following military failures.
- Overall, the conquest of Sindh not only altered the political landscape of South Asia but also set a precedent for subsequent colonial expansions across the region. It exemplified how military power could be leveraged alongside diplomatic maneuvering to achieve imperial goals.

BRITISH ANNEXATION OF PUNJAB AND THE ANGLO-SIKH WARS

- The British annexation of Punjab was a significant event in the expansion of British colonial rule in India, marked by two major conflicts known as the First and Second Anglo-Sikh Wars.
- These wars took place between 1845 and 1849 and were pivotal in establishing British control over the region.

BACKGROUND

- The decline of the Sikh Empire began after the death of Maharaja Ranjit Singh in 1839. His death led to political instability, with power struggles among various factions within Punjab.
- The British East India Company, recognizing the weakening state of the Sikh Empire, increased its military presence near the Sutlej River, which served as a border between British India and Punjab.
- This situation escalated tensions, leading to the outbreak of war when Sikh forces crossed the Sutlej in December 1845.

FIRST ANGLO-SIKH WAR (1845-1846)

- The First Anglo-Sikh War commenced on December 18, 1845, with the Battle of Mudki. The British forces, commanded by Sir Hugh Gough and supported by

Governor-General Sir Henry Hardinge, faced off against Sikh commanders Raja Lal Singh and Tej Singh. The war included several key battles:

- Battle of Mudki (December 18, 1845): Marked the beginning of hostilities.
- Battle of Ferozeshah (December 21-22, 1845): A fierce confrontation where initial British plans faltered but ultimately resulted in victory.
- Battle of Aliwal (January 28, 1846): The British secured another victory, pushing the Sikhs further back.
- Battle of Sobraon (February 10, 1846): This decisive battle ended with a significant defeat for the Sikhs and led to their surrender.
- The conflict concluded with the Treaty of Lahore in March 1846, which established British suzerainty over Punjab and recognized Maharaja Duleep Singh, a minor, as the ruler under British oversight. The treaty also imposed territorial losses on the Sikhs, including Jammu and Kashmir.

SECOND ANGLO-SIKH WAR (1848-1849)

- Despite the treaty's terms, discontent simmered among Sikhs due to perceived betrayals by the British. This unrest culminated in the Second Anglo-Sikh War, triggered by a revolt led by Mulraj, the Governor of Multan. The conflict saw several significant battles:
 - Battle of Ramnagar (November 1848): An indecisive engagement where both sides suffered losses.
 - Battle of Chillianwala (January 13, 1849): A rare victory for Sikh forces.
 - Battle of Gujarat (February 21, 1849): A decisive defeat for the Sikhs that led to their final submission.
- The Second Anglo-Sikh War concluded with complete annexation of Punjab into British India. Following this war, Lord Dalhousie implemented direct British rule over Punjab, marking a significant expansion of British territorial control in India.

ANNEXATION OF AWADH

- The annexation of Awadh by the British East India Company in 1856 was a significant event in Indian history, marking a turning point that contributed to the Indian Rebellion of 1857.

BACKGROUND

- Awadh, also known as Oudh, was a prosperous kingdom in northern India. The British had long sought to exert control over this region, which had strategic importance as a buffer state against other powers like the Marathas.
- The roots of British interference in Awadh can be traced back to the Battle of Buxar in 1764, where the British defeated the combined forces of the Nawab of Awadh, Shuja-ud-Daula, and others. This battle established British dominance in India and led to subsequent treaties that gradually eroded Awadh's sovereignty.

THE ANNEXATION PROCESS

- On February 7, 1856, Governor-General Lord Dalhousie ordered the deposition of Nawab Wajid Ali Shah, citing alleged misgovernance as the justification for annexation. Dalhousie's statement that "Awadh is a cherry that will drop into our mouth one day" reflects the British desire to control Awadh without a direct military confrontation initially.
- The British claimed that Wajid Ali Shah's administration was corrupt and ineffective, using this as a pretext to impose their rule under the Doctrine of Lapse, which allowed them to annex states where the ruling prince was deemed unfit.
- The formal annexation occurred on February 11, 1856. Following this event, Awadh was integrated into British territories, further consolidating British power in northern India³⁵. This act not only stripped Wajid Ali Shah of his throne but also intensified discontent among the local population.

CONSEQUENCES

- The annexation of Awadh had profound implications. It exacerbated tensions between the British and Indian subjects, leading to widespread resentment.
- The loss of autonomy and traditional governance structures contributed significantly to the unrest that culminated in the Indian Rebellion of 1857, where Awadh became a center for resistance against British rule.
- During this rebellion, Wajid Ali Shah's wife, Begum Hazrat Mahal, played a crucial role by declaring their son as the ruler and leading efforts against the British forces.

ACTIVE RECALL: TIMELINE METHOD

18TH CENTURY

- **1757: Battle of Plassey** marks the British East India Company's (EIC) major victory under Robert Clive, leading to the installation of Mir Jafar as the puppet Nawab of Bengal.
- **1760:** Mir Jafar is replaced by **Mir Qasim** due to his strained relations with the British.
- **1764: Battle of Buxar** consolidates British control over Bengal after defeating a coalition of Mir Qasim, Shuja-ud-Daula, and Mughal Emperor Shah Alam II. Treaty of Allahabad follows, granting the EIC **Diwani rights** in Bengal.
- **1767-1769: First Anglo-Mysore War**, leading to the Treaty of Madras and temporary peace with Mysore under Hyder Ali.
- **1775-1782: First Anglo-Maratha War**, ending with the Treaty of Salbai, which provides temporary stability.
- **1780-1784: Second Anglo-Mysore War** sees victories for Mysore at Pollilur and challenges for the British. Concludes with the Treaty of Mangalore.
- **1790-1792: Third Anglo-Mysore War**, led by Tipu Sultan, ends with the Treaty of Seringapatam. Mysore cedes significant territory to the British.
- **1799: Fourth Anglo-Mysore War** ends with Tipu Sultan's death and the fall of Mysore under British control.

EARLY 19TH CENTURY

- **1803-1805: Second Anglo-Maratha War** ends with treaties like Surji-Anjangaon, reducing Maratha power significantly.
- **1817-1819: Third Anglo-Maratha War** results in the end of Peshwa rule, dismantling the Maratha Confederacy.

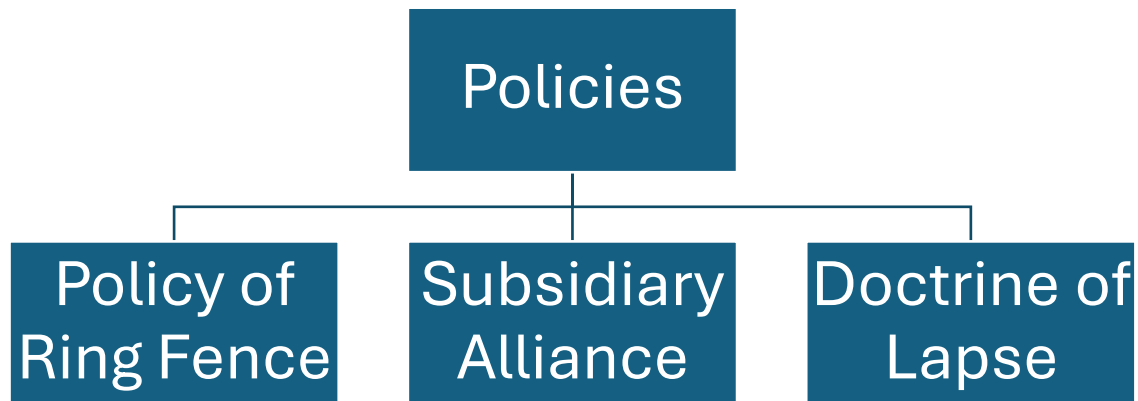
MID-19TH CENTURY

- **1843:** British victory in the **Battles of Miani and Hyderabad** leads to the conquest of Sindh.

- **1845-1846: First Anglo-Sikh War**, concluded by the Treaty of Lahore, establishes British suzerainty in Punjab.
- **1848-1849: Second Anglo-Sikh War** ends with the annexation of Punjab into British India.
- **1856: Annexation of Awadh** by Lord Dalhousie under the Doctrine of Lapse, citing misgovernance as a pretext.

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POLICIES OF THE BRITISH USED TO ANNEX INDIA



POLICY OF RING FENCE

ABOUT

- The Policy of Ring Fence was a strategic approach implemented by the British East India Company during the late 18th century, primarily under the governance of Warren Hastings.
- This policy aimed to protect British territories in India by creating buffer zones around them, thereby safeguarding against external threats and maintaining stability in the region.

KEY ASPECTS OF THE POLICY OF RING FENCE

- Definition and Purpose:
 - The term "Ring Fence" refers to establishing a protective barrier around certain territories to isolate them from external influences and potential unrest. The primary goal was to maintain law and order, protect economic interests, and prevent rebellion within these regions.
- Implementation:
 - The policy was introduced during Hastings' tenure as Governor-General (1772-1785) and involved forming alliances with neighboring Indian states. These alliances ensured mutual defense against common enemies, particularly the Marathas and Mysore.
- Buffer Zones:

- Buffer states were established around British territories, such as Awadh and Hyderabad. These states were required to maintain subsidiary armies organized and commanded by British officers, with their upkeep costs borne by the local rulers. This created a military presence that further solidified British control.
- **Military and Financial Arrangements:**
 - The local rulers had to finance the subsidiary forces while receiving military support from the Company. This arrangement not only protected British interests but also made the local rulers dependent on British military assistance for their own security.
- **Historical Context:**
 - The policy coincided with significant events in Indian history, including wars against the Marathas and conflicts with the Kingdom of Mysore. The establishment of treaties during this period, such as those following the First Anglo-Maratha War, further entrenched British dominance in India.

EXAMPLES OF IMPLEMENTATION

- **Awadh:** The Nawab of Awadh was required to maintain a subsidiary army under British command, which acted as a buffer against potential invasions from hostile forces like the Marathas.
- **Hyderabad:** Similar arrangements were made with Hyderabad, where British officers led local forces to secure both Hyderabad's borders and British territories nearby.
- **Maratha Confederacy:** The policy was pivotal during conflicts with the Maratha Confederacy, where British strategies aimed at weakening Maratha power while securing their own territorial interests through alliances with rival states.

SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCE POLICY

ABOUT

- The Subsidiary Alliance was a pivotal policy implemented by the British East India Company in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, primarily under the leadership of Lord Wellesley, who served as Governor-General of India from 1798 to 1805.

- This system fundamentally altered the political landscape of India by establishing a framework of control over Indian princely states.

KEY FEATURES

- **Military Presence:** Under this system, Indian rulers were required to maintain a British military presence within their territories. The rulers had to bear the financial costs associated with these troops, including their maintenance and salaries.
- **Disbanding Local Forces:** Indian states were compelled to disband their own armies, effectively transferring military power to the British. This significantly reduced the sovereignty of local rulers.
- **Prohibition of Alliances:** Rulers were forbidden from forming alliances with other states or foreign powers without British consent, thereby isolating them diplomatically and enhancing British control over their foreign relations.
- **British Resident:** A British official known as a 'Resident' was stationed at the court of each princely state. This individual acted as a liaison between the British and Indian rulers, overseeing negotiations and ensuring compliance with British policies.
- **Territorial Cessions:** If an Indian ruler failed to comply with the financial obligations of maintaining British troops, they risked losing parts of their territory as a penalty. This coercive mechanism allowed the British to expand their territorial control systematically.

HISTORICAL EXAMPLES

- **Nizam of Hyderabad (1798):** The Nizam was the first ruler to enter into a Subsidiary Alliance with the British after Wellesley offered protection against rival powers. This alliance marked a significant shift in power dynamics in southern India.
- **Awadh (1801):** The Nawab of Awadh was forced into a subsidiary alliance after significant military pressure from the British. He had to cede territories and accept British oversight in exchange for protection from external threats.
- **Mysore (1799):** Following the defeat of Tipu Sultan in the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War, Mysore was also brought under the Subsidiary Alliance framework, further consolidating British power in southern India.

- **Maratha Confederacy (1802-1818):** Various Maratha chiefs, including Peshwa Baji Rao II and Scindia, accepted subsidiary alliances during this period, which led to significant territorial losses and diminished autonomy for these states.

IMPACT ON INDIAN STATES

- The Subsidiary Alliance system effectively transformed many Indian states into protectorates of the British East India Company, leading to a loss of sovereignty and independence for numerous princely states across India.
- This policy not only facilitated the expansion of British territorial control but also laid the groundwork for future colonial governance structures in India, ultimately culminating in direct British rule following the 1857 rebellion.

DOCTRINE OF LAPSE

ABOUT

- The **Doctrine of Lapse** was a significant policy implemented by the British East India Company in the 19th century to annex Indian princely states. Introduced primarily under the governance of **Lord Dalhousie** (Governor-General from 1848 to 1856), this doctrine allowed the British to annex any princely state if the ruler died without a male heir or was deemed incompetent.
- This policy effectively undermined traditional succession practices in Indian states, leading to widespread resentment and contributing to the Indian Rebellion of 1857.

KEY FEATURES OF THE DOCTRINE

- **Annexation Conditions:** The doctrine stipulated that if a ruler of a princely state died without a direct male heir, the British could annex that state. This policy also applied in cases where the ruler was considered incompetent or misgoverned.
- **Rejection of Adoptions:** Traditionally, Hindu law allowed rulers to adopt heirs, but the British claimed the right to approve such adoptions, often rejecting them, which led to further disputes and grievances among Indian rulers.

EXAMPLES OF ANNEXATION

Princely State	Year of Annexation	Details
Satara	1848	The first major application under Dalhousie's rule, following the death of its ruler without an heir.
Jaitpur	1849	Annexed due to lack of a male successor.
Sambalpur	1849	Similar circumstances as Jaitpur.
Baghat	1850	Annexed for similar reasons as above.
Udaipur (Chhattisgarh)	1852	Taken over on grounds of misgovernance.
Jhansi	1853	The Rani of Jhansi's adopted son was denied recognition, leading to annexation.
Nagpur	1854	Annexed after the ruler's death without a male heir.
Awadh	1856	Although often cited under misgovernance, it reflected broader application of the doctrine

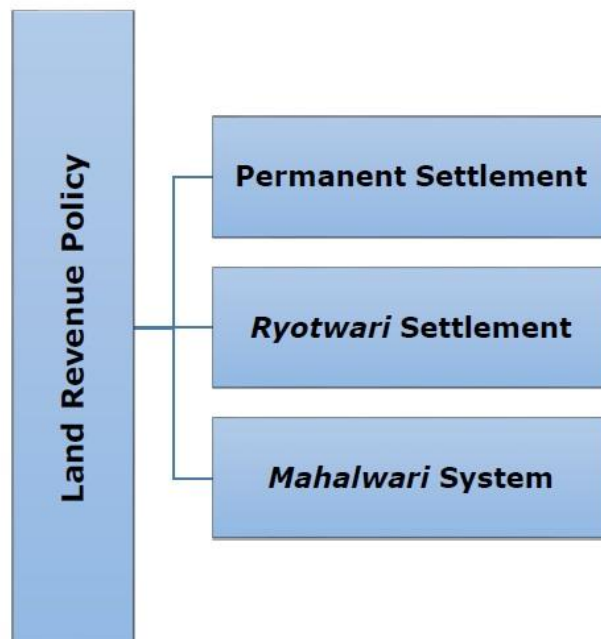
IMPACT AND CONSEQUENCES

- The **Doctrine of Lapse** not only expanded British territorial control but also fostered significant discontent among Indian rulers and their subjects.
- Many viewed it as an illegitimate imposition on their sovereignty. This discontent contributed to the **Indian Rebellion of 1857**, where figures like the Rani of Jhansi and Nana Sahib emerged as key leaders against British rule, fueled by grievances related to this doctrine.

LAND REVENUE POLICIES OF BRITISH

NEED FOR SEPARATE LAND REVENUE SYSTEMS

- **Funding Colonial Administration:** The British required substantial funds to cover the costs of administration, military expenditures, and the expansion of their colonial enterprises. Land revenue served as a primary source of income to support these activities.
- **Control Over Agriculture:** Given that agriculture was the backbone of the Indian economy, the British aimed to exert control over agricultural production and its revenue.
- **Creation of a Loyal Class:** The Permanent Settlement aimed to create a class of loyal zamindars (landlords) who would support British rule in exchange for guaranteed rights over their lands. This strategy was intended to stabilize British control by ensuring local elites benefited from colonial policies.
- **Transition from Mughal to British Systems:** The British inherited a land revenue system established by the Mughals but found it inadequate for their needs. They introduced new policies that were more systematic and aimed at maximizing tax collection without regard for the welfare of farmers.



PERMANENT SETTLEMENT SYSTEM

ABOUT

- The Permanent Settlement system, also known as the Zamindari System, was a land revenue policy introduced by the British East India Company in 1793 under the administration of Governor-General Lord Cornwallis.
- This system was primarily implemented in Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, with the aim of stabilizing revenue collection and promoting agricultural productivity.

KEY FEATURES

- **Zamindar Ownership:** The system recognized zamindars as the owners of the land, granting them hereditary rights to land ownership. This meant that ownership could be passed down through generations and was transferable.
- **Fixed Revenue Payment:** Zamindars were required to pay a fixed amount of revenue to the British government, which was determined through a bidding process. The zamindars retained a portion of the revenue collected—typically about 10%—while 90% was paid to the government.
- **Issuance of Pattas:** Zamindars were obligated to issue pattas (title deeds) to farmers, which documented their rights to cultivate the land. However, many zamindars failed to do so, leading to disputes and insecurity for tenants.
- **Sunset Law:** There was a stipulation that if zamindars failed to pay the revenue by sunset on the due date, their lands could be confiscated by the government.
- **Absentee Landlordism:** The system often led to absentee landlordism, where zamindars did not actively manage their lands, resulting in neglect and exploitation of tenants.

OUTCOMES AND IMPACTS

- **Economic Stability for the British:** It provided a stable source of income for the British government while incentivizing zamindars to invest in land improvements, thereby promoting agricultural productivity initially.
- **Peasant Exploitation:** Despite its initial benefits, the system led to significant exploitation of peasants. Zamindars often imposed high rents and were empowered to evict tenants who failed to pay.
- **Increased Indebtedness:** Many peasants fell into debt due to high taxation and poor agricultural yields, contributing to rural poverty and famines.

- **Social Unrest:** The exploitation and economic distress caused by this system led to numerous revolts against zamindars and ultimately against British rule itself.

LIMITATIONS

- **Lack of Investment in Agriculture:** Over time, zamindars became less inclined to invest in agricultural improvements as they focused on maximizing short-term profits from their holdings.
- **Judicial Conflicts:** The system increased litigation as disputes over land rights became more common due to unclear legal frameworks regarding tenant rights.
- **Agricultural Stagnation:** The fixed revenue system did not account for fluctuations in agricultural productivity, leading to stagnation in farming practices and rural development over time

RYOTWARI SYSTEM

ABOUT

- The Ryotwari system was a significant land revenue system implemented by the British in India, particularly in southern regions such as Tamil Nadu and parts of Maharashtra, Berar, East Punjab, Coorg, and Assam. Developed by Captain Alexander Read and Sir Thomas Munro in the late 18th century, it was formally introduced during Munro's tenure as Governor of Madras from 1820 to 1827.
- This system marked a departure from previous revenue systems, notably the Zamindari system, by eliminating intermediaries and recognizing individual cultivators (referred to as ryots) as direct owners of their land.

KEY FEATURES

- **Direct Collection:** The government collected land revenue directly from individual cultivators rather than through intermediaries like zamindars. This aimed to reduce exploitation by middlemen.
- **Ownership Rights:** Under the Ryotwari system, ryots had ownership rights over the land they cultivated. They could sell, mortgage, or transfer their land, which was a significant shift from previous practices.

- **Revenue Assessment:** Land revenue was assessed based on the potential yield of the land and actual cultivation. The rates typically ranged from 50% for dryland to 60% for wetland.
- **High Tax Burden:** Despite its advantages, the system imposed high revenue demands on cultivators. Revenue assessments were often set at levels that were unsustainable for many ryots, leading to widespread indebtedness.
- **Impact on Cultivators:** The system led to a direct relationship between the state and the cultivators. However, it also resulted in increased vulnerability for ryots, as failure to pay taxes could lead to eviction. Additionally, many cultivators became dependent on moneylenders due to high taxation and were often exploited.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT AND EVOLUTION

- The Ryotwari system emerged as a response to the failures of earlier systems like the Zamindari system, which had been criticized for its exploitative nature and reliance on intermediaries.
- Munro and his contemporaries believed that a direct relationship with cultivators would better suit Indian agricultural practices and ensure more reliable revenue collection for the British government.
- However, while it aimed to empower peasants by recognizing their ownership rights, in practice, it often exacerbated their hardships due to high tax rates and economic pressures from moneylenders.
- The system contributed significantly to rural indebtedness and social unrest in various regions of India.

MAHALWARI SYSTEM

ABOUT

- The Mahalwari System was one of the three principal land revenue systems implemented by the British in India during the 19th century, alongside the Zamindari and Ryotwari systems.

- Introduced by Holt Mackenzie in 1822 and later revised by Lord William Bentinck in 1833, this system aimed to improve revenue collection efficiency by focusing on village-level accountability.

KEY FEATURES

- **Village Unit of Assessment:** The Mahalwari System treated entire villages, or groups of villages known as mahals, as a single unit for tax assessment. This collective responsibility meant that the village headman (or lambardar) was responsible for collecting revenue from all villagers.
- **Revenue Collection:** The headman collected taxes on behalf of the village, which were assessed based on the overall productivity of the land. The state share was typically set at about 66% of the rental value, with settlements made for a period of 30 years.
- **Ownership Rights:** While the system allowed peasants to retain ownership rights over their land, it imposed high revenue demands that often led to financial strain. Peasants were liable to lose their land if they failed to pay taxes.
- **Assessment Methodology:** Revenue assessments were based on soil quality and productivity, with an emphasis on average rents for different soil classes. This approach aimed to create a more equitable method of taxation compared to previous systems.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The Mahalwari System emerged as a response to the limitations of the Permanent Settlement and the Ryotwari System.
- The British sought a flexible revenue system that could adapt to changing agricultural conditions and economic needs.
- It was primarily implemented in regions like the North-West Frontier, Agra, Central Provinces, and Punjab.

IMPACTS AND CONSEQUENCES

- **Economic Strain:** Despite its intentions, the Mahalwari System often exacerbated economic difficulties for peasants due to high revenue demands. This led many

farmers into debt and increased reliance on moneylenders, who frequently exploited them.

- **Agricultural Decline:** The pressure to pay taxes often resulted in a shift towards cash crop cultivation, undermining food security and contributing to famines during periods of agricultural distress.
- **Social Unrest:** The economic burdens imposed by this system contributed significantly to peasant discontent, which played a role in uprisings such as the Revolt of 1857. The system's reliance on local intermediaries sometimes perpetuated social inequalities within villages

TIMELINE: POLICIES OF BRITISH USED TO ANNEX INDIA

LATE 18TH CENTURY: POLICY OF RING FENCE

- **1772-1785:** Introduced by Warren Hastings to create buffer zones protecting British territories.
 - **Awadh and Hyderabad:** Subsidiary armies financed by local rulers acted as buffers.
 - Associated with significant conflicts, including wars against Marathas and Mysore.

1798-1850: SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCE POLICY

- **1798:** Initiated by Lord Wellesley.
 - **1798:** Nizam of Hyderabad became the first ruler to enter a Subsidiary Alliance.
 - **1799:** Mysore included after Tipu Sultan's defeat in the Fourth Anglo-Mysore War.
 - **1801:** Nawab of Awadh forced into alliance under military pressure.
 - **1802-1818:** Maratha chiefs like Peshwa Baji Rao II accepted alliances, reducing Maratha autonomy.

1848-1856: DOCTRINE OF LAPSE

- **1848:** Introduced by Lord Dalhousie.

- Annexation due to lack of male heirs or alleged misgovernance:
 - **Satara (1848)**: First major annexation.
 - **Jhansi (1853)**: Denial of Rani of Jhansi's adopted son's recognition.
 - **Awadh (1856)**: Annexed citing misgovernance.

TIMELINE: LAND REVENUE POLICIES

1793: PERMANENT SETTLEMENT SYSTEM

- Recognized zamindars as hereditary landowners.
- Fixed revenue payments led to peasant exploitation and rural indebtedness.

1820: RYOTWARI SYSTEM

- Direct revenue collection from cultivators (ryots).
- Ownership rights granted but high tax burdens increased debt.

1822 & 1833: MAHALWARI SYSTEM

- Village-based revenue assessment.
- High taxes led to financial strain and social unrest.

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT FROM 1773 TO 1861

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

SITUATION IN BENGAL POST 1767 AND NEED FOR REGULATING ACT

- The situation before the Regulating Act of 1773 was characterized by significant turmoil and mismanagement within the British East India Company, which had transitioned from a trading entity to a powerful political force in India.

FINANCIAL CRISIS OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

- **Bankruptcy Threat:** By the early 1770s, the East India Company faced severe financial difficulties, including a stock plummet of over 60% in 1769 due to mismanagement and competition from smuggled goods, particularly tea. The company's inability to pay its debts led to a crisis that prompted intervention from the British Parliament.
- **Government Bailout:** The British government intervened to bail out the company, which was crucial for maintaining its monopoly on trade in India. However, this bailout came with strings attached, leading to calls for greater oversight and regulation of the company's operations.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHAOS

- **Misgovernance:** The Company's rule in Bengal was marked by rampant corruption and exploitation. Company officials often engaged in private trade and accepted bribes, undermining the integrity of governance. This mismanagement led to widespread discontent among local populations and raised concerns in Britain about the company's ability to govern effectively.
- **Lack of Structure:** Prior to the Act, there was no clear separation between the executive and judicial powers within the Company's administration. This lack of structure contributed to confusion and conflict between various authorities operating in India.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS

- **Calls for Reform:** Influential figures such as Lord Clive advocated for greater control by the British Crown over the Company's territories, suggesting that either total sovereignty or a partnership model should be adopted. This reflected a growing recognition that the Company could not manage its vast territories without external oversight.
- **Growing Tensions:** The increasing complexities of governance, coupled with military defeats (such as that against Haider Ali in 1769), heightened tensions between the British government and the East India Company. These events underscored the need for reform and regulation of the Company's activities in India

REGULATING ACT OF 1773

ABOUT

- The Regulating Act of 1773 was a significant piece of legislation passed by the British Parliament aimed at reforming the administration of the British East India Company in India.
- This Act marked the first substantial intervention by the British government in the company's territorial affairs, primarily in response to widespread mismanagement and financial instability within the company, particularly in Bengal.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Creation of the Governor-General:** The Act established the position of Governor-General of Bengal, with Warren Hastings being appointed as the first holder. This role was intended to centralize authority over British territories in India, including Madras and Bombay.
- **Executive Council:** An Executive Council consisting of four members was created to assist the Governor-General in decision-making, although this council often limited his authority due to its collective decision-making structure.
- **Supreme Court Establishment:** The Act led to the establishment of a Supreme Court at Calcutta (now Kolkata), which was tasked with overseeing legal matters in British India. This marked a significant development in establishing a formal judicial system in India.

- **Regulation of Company Officials:** It prohibited company officials from engaging in private trade or accepting bribes, aiming to reduce corruption within the ranks of company employees.
- **Parliamentary Oversight:** The Act allowed for some parliamentary oversight over the company's affairs, although it did not fully transfer control from the company to Parliament. Instead, it regulated rather than completely took over the company's powers.

OBJECTIVES

- Amending the constitution of the East India Company.
- Reforming governance structures in India.
- Addressing misconduct among company officials and ensuring accountability.

LIMITATIONS AND CRITICISMS

- **Lack of Veto Power:** The Governor-General was given a casting vote but no veto power over council decisions, which often led to conflicts with council members.
- **Ambiguity in Jurisdiction:** The powers and jurisdiction of the Supreme Court were vaguely defined, resulting in legal ambiguities and conflicts with local customs and practices.
- **Limited Parliamentary Control:** While it marked a step towards parliamentary oversight, many felt that it did not go far enough in holding the company accountable for its actions in India

AMENDING ACT OF 1781

ABOUT

- The Amending Act of 1781, also known as the Act of Settlement, was a significant piece of legislation passed by the British Parliament on July 5, 1781.
- Its primary purpose was to address the shortcomings of the Regulating Act of 1773, particularly in clarifying the relationship between the Supreme Court and the Governor-General in Council in British India.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Limitation of Supreme Court Powers:** The Act curtailed several powers of the Supreme Court, which had previously created conflicts with the Governor-General in Council.
 - It exempted company servants from the Supreme Court's jurisdiction for actions taken in their official capacity.
 - Revenue collectors and judicial officers were also exempted from the Supreme Court's jurisdiction, which limited the court's reach primarily to Calcutta.
- **Appellate Jurisdiction Changes:** Appeals from provincial courts were redirected to the Governor-General in Council rather than the Supreme Court, effectively making the Council the final court of appeal for civil cases.
- **Personal Law Application:** The Act specified that cases involving Muslims would be governed by Mohammedan law and those involving Hindus by Hindu law, reinforcing traditional legal practices within their respective communities.

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

- The necessity for this Act arose from various conflicts and inefficiencies observed under the Regulating Act of 1773.
- The rivalry between the Supreme Court and the Governor-General in Council had escalated, leading to administrative challenges that prompted an inquiry by a parliamentary committee known as the Touchet Committee.
- This committee's findings highlighted the need for reform, ultimately leading to the enactment of the Amending Act.

PITT'S INDIA ACT 1784

BACKGROUND

- The Act was introduced during the tenure of Prime Minister William Pitt the Younger in response to increasing concerns about the East India Company's mismanagement and corruption in India.
- The need for reform was underscored by various investigations into the Company's affairs, which revealed serious issues regarding its administration and conduct.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Dual System of Control:** The Act established a dual system of governance where:

- The Board of Control was created to oversee political matters.
- The Court of Directors was responsible for commercial activities. This division aimed to clarify and separate the political and commercial functions of the Company.
- **Composition of the Board:** The Board of Control consisted of six members, including:
 - The Secretary of State (who served as President of the Board)
 - The Chancellor of the Exchequer
 - Four Privy Councillors.
- **Authority Over Governance:** The Board was empowered to "superintend, direct and control" all aspects of governance in British India, including civil, military, and revenue matters. This marked a shift towards greater governmental oversight.
- **Subordination of Presidencies:** The presidencies of Bombay and Madras were made subordinate to the Bengal Presidency, effectively centralizing authority in Calcutta.
- **Governor-General's Powers:** The Governor-General was granted enhanced powers in military and diplomatic affairs while being supported by a reduced council of three members.
- **Disclosure Requirements:** The Act mandated that all civil and military officers disclose their property holdings in both India and Britain within two months of their appointment, aiming to curb corruption.

SIGNIFICANCE

- Pitt's India Act was pivotal in establishing a framework for British governance in India that would last until 1858.
- It marked a transition from a primarily commercial enterprise (the East India Company) to a more structured political authority under direct British control.
- This dual governance system laid the groundwork for future legislative acts that further defined British rule in India.

DRAWBACKS

- **Ambiguity in Power Distribution:** There were unclear boundaries between the powers held by the Board of Control and those retained by the Court of Directors, leading to potential conflicts.

- **Concentration of Power:** The reduction in council members gave disproportionate power to the Governor-General, which could lead to unilateral decision-making.
- **Military Limitations:** The Governor-General's lack of military powers during emergencies posed challenges for effective governance.

AMENDING ACT OF 1786

ABOUT

- The Amending Act of 1786, also known as the East India Company Act of 1786, was a significant piece of legislation passed by the British Parliament to enhance the powers of the Governor-General of Bengal, Lord Cornwallis.
- This act followed the Pitt's India Act of 1784 and aimed to rectify certain deficiencies in the governance of British territories in India.

OBJECTIVES OF THE AMENDING ACT

- **Increasing Authority:** The act aimed to augment the authority of the Governor-General, allowing him to make critical decisions without needing prior approval from his council, particularly in exceptional circumstances.
- **Clarifying Governance:** It sought to establish clear rules for situations where there was a disagreement between the Governor-General and his council, thereby streamlining decision-making processes in colonial administration.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Merger of Roles:** It combined the roles of Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief, granting Cornwallis greater military and administrative authority.
- **Overruling Council Decisions:** The Governor-General was empowered to override decisions made by his council, provided he accepted personal responsibility for such actions.
- **Removal of King's Approval:** The requirement for the King's approval for appointing the Governor-General was eliminated, allowing for more direct control by the British government.
- **Court of Directors' Authority:** The act affirmed the powers of the Court of Directors in appointing key officials, including the Commander-in-Chief and members of the council.

- **Written Explanations:** If the Governor-General acted independently, both he and his council were required to provide written explanations regarding their decisions.

CHARTER ACT OF 1793

ABOUT

- The Charter Act of 1793, also known as the East India Company Act 1793, was a significant piece of legislation passed by the British Parliament that renewed the charter of the East India Company (EIC) for an additional 20 years.
- This act aimed to solidify the Company's trading monopoly in India and clarify its governance structure under British oversight.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Extension of Trade Monopoly:** The act extended the EIC's exclusive rights to trade in India, allowing it to maintain its dominance over Indian commerce for another two decades.
- **Governance Structure:** It established that all political and administrative functions of the EIC were to be carried out on behalf of the British government, thereby reinforcing British control over Indian territories.
- **Financial Obligations:** The EIC was required to remit an annual sum of five lakh pounds to the British government after covering its operational expenses from Indian revenues.
- **Appointment Procedures:** The act mandated that key positions, such as the Governor-General and governors, required royal approval for appointments, enhancing accountability within the administration.
- **Judicial Reforms:** It separated revenue administration from judicial functions, which improved the efficiency of the courts and addressed issues related to overburdened judicial systems.

IMPACT ON GOVERNANCE AND TRADE

- **Increased Centralization:** The powers of the Governor-General were expanded, allowing him to override decisions made by regional governors under certain circumstances. This centralization was crucial for maintaining control over diverse Indian territories.

- **Regulation of Company Officials:** Senior company officials were prohibited from leaving India without prior permission, with such an action treated as resignation. This measure aimed to prevent corruption and ensure loyalty among officials.
- **Opium Trade Expansion:** The act facilitated increased trade in opium, particularly with China, by granting licenses for this trade under the Company's authority.

CHARTER ACT OF 1813

ABOUT

- This act marked a pivotal moment in the governance of British India, as it not only renewed the charter of the British East India Company for an additional 20 years but also introduced important reforms affecting trade, education, and missionary activities.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **End of Trade Monopoly:** The act abolished the East India Company's monopoly on trade in India, allowing other British merchants to engage in trade. However, the Company retained exclusive rights over tea and trade with China.
- **Crown Authority:** It affirmed the sovereignty of the British Crown over Indian territories, marking a shift from Company rule to direct oversight by the British government.
- **Financial Allocations for Education:** The act allocated 100,000 rupees annually for the promotion of education and literature in India, recognizing the importance of education in social progress.
- **Missionary Activities:** For the first time, Christian missionaries were permitted to enter India and propagate their religion, which was previously restricted. This provision aimed at moral and religious improvement among Indians.
- **Regulation of Trade and Governance:** The act mandated that regulations from Indian councils be presented to the British Parliament, establishing a mechanism for parliamentary oversight and ensuring accountability in governance.

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Promoting Economic Competition:** By ending the Company's monopoly, it encouraged competition among traders, which contributed to a more dynamic market environment.
- **Encouraging Educational Reform:** The financial provisions for education were a step towards modernizing India's educational framework and introducing Western educational practices.

CRITICISM

- **Economic Exploitation**
 - The Charter Act did not prioritize India's economic development; instead, it reinforced colonial exploitation. The Company continued to extract revenue from Indian territories, often leading to increased poverty and famine among Indian peasants due to burdensome land revenue policies. Critics argue that India was reduced to a raw material supplier for British industries, leading to deindustrialization, particularly in traditional sectors like textiles.
- **Inadequate Educational Reforms**
 - While the Act allocated funds for education and literature, its commitment was limited. The financial resources were poorly utilized over the years, and debates over educational content led to confusion and inefficiency. The focus was more on promoting Western education rather than addressing the diverse educational needs of Indian society.
- **Promotion of Christian Missionary Activities**
 - One of the notable provisions allowed Christian missionaries to operate in India, which raised concerns among various religious communities about potential cultural imposition. Critics viewed this as an attempt to undermine indigenous faiths and cultures under the guise of education and moral improvement.

CHARTER ACT OF 1833

PROVISIONS

- **Centralization of Power:** It centralized authority by designating the Governor-General of Bengal as the Governor-General of India, thus consolidating power in a

single office. This change allowed for more uniform governance across British territories in India.

- **Abolition of Trade Monopoly:** The Act abolished the East India Company's trade monopoly, allowing free trade and competition within Indian markets. This was a significant shift that opened up economic opportunities for British merchants and other foreign traders.
- **Legislative Powers:** The Governor-General in Council was granted exclusive legislative powers, meaning that laws could be enacted that applied across all of British India. This provision effectively stripped local governors (of Bombay and Madras) of their legislative authority.
- **Law Commission:** The establishment of the first Law Commission aimed to consolidate and codify Indian laws, which was an essential step towards legal reform in British India.
- **Prohibition Against Discrimination:** The Act stipulated that no Indian should be disqualified from holding public office based on religion, promoting a degree of meritocracy in civil service appointments.

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Transition to Crown Rule:** It marked a critical step towards direct control by the British Crown over Indian territories, laying the groundwork for subsequent reforms leading to full colonial governance by 1858.
- **Legal Reforms:** The establishment of the Law Commission initiated a process of legal codification that would influence Indian law for years to come, promoting systematic legal administration.
- **Impact on Governance:** By centralizing power and restructuring administrative frameworks, it set precedents for future governance models in colonial India.

LIMITATIONS

- **Lack of Local Representation:** While it allowed for some Indian participation in governance, actual power remained predominantly with British officials. This lack of local representation contributed to growing discontent among Indians.

- **Over-centralization:** The concentration of power in the Governor-General's office weakened local governance structures, making administration less responsive to regional needs.
- **Ineffective Meritocracy:** Although there were provisions for merit-based appointments, opposition from existing power structures limited their implementation, maintaining a predominantly British administration.

CHARTER ACT OF 1853

KEY FEATURES

- **Indefinite Renewal of Charter:** Unlike previous charter acts that specified a renewal period (usually 20 years), the 1853 Act did not set a time frame for the East India Company's charter renewal, indicating that the Company's rule could be abolished at any time by Parliament.
- **Establishment of Legislative Council:** The act created the Indian (Central) Legislative Council, which was responsible for legislative functions. This council consisted of six new legislative councillors, in addition to existing members, effectively functioning as a mini-Parliament with procedures similar to those of the British Parliament.
- **Separation of Powers:** For the first time, the legislative and executive functions within the Governor-General's council were separated. This separation laid the groundwork for modern governance structures in India.
- **Local Representation:** The act introduced local representation in the legislative council, with members nominated from local governments in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, and Agra. This was a significant step towards inclusivity in governance.
- **Civil Service Reforms:** The act opened the covenanted civil service to Indians through an open competition system, eliminating previous patronage-based appointments. This reform was further supported by recommendations from the Macaulay Committee in 1854, which aimed to ensure merit-based selection for civil service positions.
- **Changes in Governance Structure:** The act reduced the number of Board Directors from 24 to 18, with six members nominated by the British Crown. It also allowed for new provinces to be created and provided for appointing Lieutenant Governors for these areas.

- **Legislative Process:** All legislative proposals required the assent of the Governor-General, ensuring that executive oversight remained strong over legislative actions

CRITICISM

- **Limited Indian Representation:** Despite introducing local representation in the Legislative Council, Indian participation remained minimal and did not extend to executive roles. This exclusion highlighted the continued dominance of British officials in governance.
- **Powers of Legislative Council:** The legislative powers granted to the council were limited. Although it was empowered to legislate, its decisions were still subject to approval by higher authorities, thus undermining its effectiveness and autonomy.
- **Civil Service Examination Accessibility:** While opening civil service positions to Indians was progressive, candidates were required to travel to Britain to take examinations. This requirement created barriers for many potential candidates and limited true accessibility.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT OF 1858

ABOUT

- The Government of India Act of 1858 was a crucial piece of legislation that marked a significant transition in the governance of India, shifting control from the British East India Company to the British Crown.
- This act was enacted on August 2, 1858, following the Indian Rebellion of 1857, which highlighted the inefficiencies and exploitative practices of the Company, leading to widespread unrest among Indian soldiers and civilians.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Abolition of East India Company Rule:** The act officially ended the rule of the East India Company and transferred its powers to the British Crown. This marked the beginning of direct British rule in India, known as the British Raj.
- **Establishment of Direct Governance:** The administration of India was to be conducted in the name of Queen Victoria. The act established the position of Secretary of State for India, who would oversee Indian affairs and report directly to the British Parliament.

- **Formation of a Council:** A Council of India was created to assist the Secretary of State. This council initially consisted of fifteen members, combining both appointed members and those elected from among the old Company's Court of Directors.
- **Appointment of Viceroy:** The act unified the roles of Governor-General and Viceroy, with the Viceroy acting as the representative of the British monarch in India. This role included significant administrative powers.
- **Indian Civil Services:** The act laid down provisions for establishing an Indian Civil Service (ICS), which allowed Indians to participate in administrative roles, albeit at lower levels initially.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S PROCLAMATION OF 1858

ABOUT

- Queen Victoria's Proclamation of 1858, issued on November 1, marked a significant turning point in Indian history, transitioning governance from the British East India Company to the British Crown.
- This proclamation was a direct response to the Indian Rebellion of 1857 and aimed to establish a more centralized and direct form of British rule in India.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

The proclamation was announced by Lord Canning at a Durbar in Allahabad, symbolizing the formal end of Company rule and the beginning of the British Raj. The British government recognized the need for reform after the widespread discontent that led to the 1857 revolt, which highlighted the ineffectiveness and exploitative policies of the East India Company.

KEY OBJECTIVES

- **Transfer of Power:** It marked the transfer of authority from the East India Company to the British Crown, ensuring that India would be governed directly in the name of the Queen.
- **Assurance to Indian Princes:** The proclamation assured Indian princes that their rights, dignity, and honor would be respected, and it disclaimed any intention to annex their territories.
- **Religious Non-Interference:** It promised non-interference in religious matters, allowing Indians to practice their faith freely.

- **Administrative Reforms:** The proclamation laid the groundwork for significant administrative changes, including the establishment of an Indian Civil Service under direct British control and a new office for the Secretary of State for India.

MAJOR PROVISIONS

- **Recognition of Treaties:** All treaties made by the East India Company would be recognized and maintained by the British government.
- **No Further Territorial Expansion:** It assured that there would be no further territorial acquisitions in India.
- **Abolition of Doctrine of Lapse:** This policy, which allowed for annexation of princely states under certain conditions, was abolished.
- **Inclusion in Government:** Eligible Indians were promised inclusion in various government roles.

SIGNIFICANCE

- The proclamation is often referred to as the "Magna Carta of the People of India," symbolizing a commitment to governance that acknowledged Indian rights and aimed at fostering loyalty among local rulers.
- It established a framework for British governance that lasted until India's independence in 1947, although it did not fundamentally change the exploitative nature of colonial rule.
- The act also set a precedent for future reforms while maintaining a colonial power structure that continued to face criticism and resistance from Indians.

INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1861

ABOUT

- The Indian Councils Act of 1861 was a pivotal piece of legislation enacted by the British Parliament that marked a significant shift in the governance structure of British India. Here's an overview of its background, key provisions, and implications.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Expansion of the Executive Council:** The Viceroy's Executive Council was expanded to include a fifth member, and later a sixth member for public works was

added in 1874. Each member was assigned specific departmental responsibilities under a portfolio system, which transformed the council into a cabinet-like structure.

- **Legislative Councils:** The Act established legislative councils for the Governor-General and provincial governments (Bombay and Madras), allowing them to pass laws for their respective regions. However, these councils were primarily advisory and lacked significant legislative power, as any bill required the Viceroy's assent to become law.
- **Nominations:** The Act allowed for the nomination of Indian members to the legislative councils. Notably, three Indians were nominated in 1862: the Raja of Benares, the Maharaja of Patiala, and Sir Dinkar Rao. However, this representation was largely symbolic as most members were British officials.
- **Viceroy's Powers:** The Viceroy retained substantial powers, including the ability to issue ordinances during emergencies and to overrule council decisions if deemed necessary. This centralization of authority limited the effectiveness of the legislative councils.
- **Decentralization:** While it restored some legislative powers to the Bombay and Madras presidencies that had been removed by earlier legislation (specifically, the Charter Act of 1833), it did not grant full autonomy or elected representation to Indians, maintaining British control over critical governance aspects.

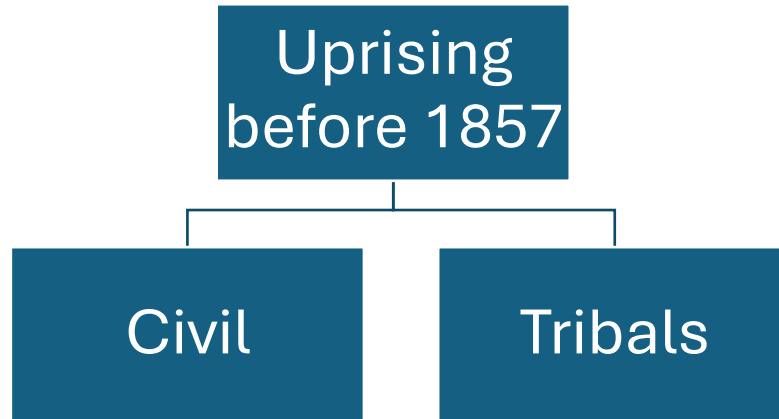
TIMELINE OF CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENTS (1773-1861)

- **1773: Regulating Act**
 - Established the Governor-General of Bengal (Warren Hastings as the first).
 - Created an Executive Council and a Supreme Court in Calcutta.
 - Introduced Parliamentary oversight over the East India Company.
- **1781: Amending Act (Act of Settlement)**
 - Limited the powers of the Supreme Court.
 - Specified the application of personal laws for Hindus and Muslims.
 - Redirected appeals from provincial courts to the Governor-General in Council.
- **1784: Pitt's India Act**
 - Introduced a dual system of governance (Board of Control for political matters, Court of Directors for commercial).

- Strengthened the Governor-General's authority over Bombay and Madras Presidencies.
- **1786: Amending Act**
 - Merged Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief roles.
 - Allowed the Governor-General to act independently in exceptional situations.
- **1793: Charter Act**
 - Renewed the East India Company's charter for 20 years.
 - Reinforced British control while expanding the Governor-General's powers.
- **1813: Charter Act**
 - Abolished the trade monopoly of the East India Company (except in tea and China trade).
 - Allocated funds for education in India and allowed Christian missionary activities.
- **1833: Charter Act**
 - Designated the Governor-General of Bengal as the Governor-General of India.
 - Abolished the Company's trade monopoly entirely.
 - Established the Law Commission to codify Indian laws.
- **1853: Charter Act**
 - Introduced open competition for Civil Service (including Indians).
 - Separated legislative and executive functions within the Governor-General's council.
- **1858: Government of India Act**
 - Abolished the East India Company.
 - Transferred Indian administration to the British Crown.
 - Established the position of Secretary of State for India and the Indian Council.
- **1858: Queen Victoria's Proclamation**
 - Promised non-interference in religion.
 - Abolished the Doctrine of Lapse and assured princely states' rights.
- **1861: Indian Councils Act**
 - Expanded the Viceroy's Executive Council.
 - Introduced legislative councils with limited Indian representation.

CIVIL AND TRIBAL UPRISINGS

POPULAR UPRISINGS BEFORE 1857



- Civil Rebellion – Before the outbreak of Revolt of 1857, there were many civil rebellions took place in India which challenged the British authority.

FACTORS BEHIND CIVIL UPRISING

- **New land revenue settlement, burden of new taxes, summary eviction of peasants** from land and encroachment on tribal lands.
- **Emergence of a new ruling class** like government officials along with moneylenders and merchants side-lined the traditional zamindars and poligars. This class was waiting for an opportunity to settle the scores and restore their lost glory.
- **Ruining of Indian handloom and handicraft industries** due to a huge influx of British manufactured goods coupled with heavy duties on Indian products and industries.
- **Destruction of indigenous industries** caused a migration of workers thus resulting in a burden on agriculture.
- **Aggravated exploitation of rural society** owing to growth of intermediaries like revenue collectors, tenants and money lenders.

LIST OF CIVIL UPRISINGS

SANYASI REVOLT (1763–1800)

- This revolt was characterized by the participation of Hindu sannyasis (ascetics), sadhus, and faqirs, who rose against the oppressive policies of the British East India Company following the devastating Bengal famine of 1770.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- **Bengal Famine of 1770:** A catastrophic famine led to widespread suffering and displacement among the rural population, with millions migrating in search of food and employment. The famine resulted in the deaths of approximately one million people and left many farmers landless and impoverished
- **Economic Policies:** The British imposed heavy taxes on zamindars (landlords), which severely limited their ability to support local ascetics with alms. As a result, many sannyasis began to demand religious donations from these landlords, which became increasingly difficult for them to fulfill due to the economic strain

KEY EVENTS AND LEADERSHIP

- **Pilgrimages and Taxation:** Many sannyasis traveled from North India to various shrines across Bengal. Traditionally, they received donations from local zamindars. However, with the British increasing tax burdens on these landlords, many ascetics were left without support
- **Leadership:** The revolt was significantly influenced by figures such as Pandit Bhabani Charan Pathak and other leaders like Kenar Sarkar and Dhirj Narayan. They organized groups that engaged in guerrilla warfare against British officers and government treasuries

OBJECTIVES OF THE REVOLT

- **Protest Against Oppression:** The sannyasis aimed to voice their grievances against British policies that repressed local populations and disrupted traditional practices.
- **Establish Local Governance:** There was a desire among the common people for local magistrates who understood their plight rather than foreign officers imposing harsh regulations

REVOLT BY THE RAJA OF VIZIANAGARAM

BACKGROUND

- The roots of the revolt can be traced back to the changing political landscape following the death of Ananda Gajapatiraju, the previous ruler of Vizianagaram. His successor, Vijayaram Raj II, faced increasing pressure from the British, who demanded higher tribute payments and sought to disband his military forces.
- The British had previously allied with Ananda Gajapatiraju under a treaty in 1758 to expel the French from Northern Circars, but they later reneged on their commitments, leading to tensions with his successor

CAUSES OF THE REVOLT

- **Tribute Demands:** The East India Company demanded a tribute of 850,000 rupees from Vijayaram Raj II and insisted on disbanding his troops, which he vehemently opposed, claiming there were no dues owed
- **Political Maneuvering:** After Vijayaram Raj II came of age, he dismissed his divan, Sitaramaraju, who subsequently allied with the British against him. This internal strife weakened his position further
- **Refusal to Comply:** The Raja's refusal to comply with British demands culminated in open rebellion as he rallied his forces to confront the East India Company troops

THE BATTLE

- The Battle of Padmanabham took place on July 10, 1794. The forces of Vijayaram Raj II clashed with those of Colonel Pendargast representing the East India Company.
- Despite being outmatched in terms of weaponry and organization, Vijayaram Raj II led his troops into battle but was ultimately defeated and killed during the conflict
- The battle lasted approximately one hour and resulted in significant casualties for the Vizianagaram forces.

VELLORE MUTINY

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- The Vellore Mutiny, which occurred on July 10, 1806. This event took place at the Vellore Fort in present-day Tamil Nadu and lasted for just one day, but it had profound implications for British colonial rule in India.

- The mutiny was primarily triggered by new regulations imposed by the British that affected the sepoy's uniforms and religious practices. Specifically, these regulations required sepoys to adopt a new headgear style that was offensive to both Hindu and Muslim soldiers, as it involved removing traditional turbans and caste markings.
- The resentment was further fueled by harsh punishments meted out to those who protested these changes, including flogging and transfer to Fort St. George for severe punishment

COURSE OF EVENTS AND AFTERMATH

- On the night of July 10, sepoys from the 1st and 23rd regiments initiated the mutiny by attacking British officers and soldiers stationed at Vellore Fort. They managed to kill 14 British officers and 115 soldiers from the 69th Regiment during their assault, subsequently raising the flag of Tipu Sultan and declaring his son Fateh Hyder as their ruler. However, their control over the fort was short-lived; a relief force led by Colonel Robert Gillespie quickly mobilized from Arcot and recaptured the fort within hours.
- The British response was swift and brutal. Approximately 350 sepoys were killed, with many executed in summary trials following the mutiny. The three Madras regiments involved were disbanded, and punitive measures against those involved included executions by firing squad or being blown from cannons. The incident sent shockwaves through British ranks and led to significant changes in military policy, including the withdrawal of the controversial dress regulations

DEWAN VELU THAMBI REVOLT

BACKGROUND

- The Dewan Velu Thambi Revolt took place in the early 19th century, specifically from 1808 to 1809, in the Travancore state, which is now part of modern-day Kerala, India. Velu Thampi Dalawa, born Chempakaraman Velayudhan, was appointed as the Dewan (Prime Minister) of Travancore during a period marked by political intrigue and corruption.
- In response to these injustices and the increasing interference of the British East India Company in local governance, Velu Thampi initiated a revolt against both the corrupt administration and British dominance.

CAUSES OF THE REVOLT

- **Corruption and Mismanagement:** The administration led by Sankaran Nampoothiri was characterized by rampant corruption, which led to public discontent.
- **British Interference:** The British imposed a subsidiary alliance system that burdened Travancore with financial liabilities and increased their military presence.
- **Taxation Issues:** Velu Thampi was ordered to pay a substantial sum to the British, prompting him to rally support for a rebellion against both local and colonial authorities.

KEY EVENTS OF THE REVOLT

- **Initial Uprising (December 1808):** The revolt began with an attempt to capture the Cochin Fort and eliminate the British resident there. This initial assault failed, leading to increased tensions.
- **Kundara Proclamation:** Following setbacks, Velu Thampi issued this proclamation urging local populations to rise against British rule. This marked a significant moment in mobilizing support for his cause.
- **Battle of Quilon (1809):** The revolt culminated in this battle where Velu Thampi's forces faced a well-equipped British army. The defeat at Quilon effectively ended organized resistance from his forces.
- Following his defeat, Velu Thampi fled but was ultimately cornered by British forces. Rather than be captured, he chose to commit suicide in early 1809. His death marked a significant moment in Travancore's history and highlighted the complexities of colonial resistance movements during this era

KUTCH REBELLION (1816-32)

BACKGROUND

- The rebellion emerged after the British East India Company established control over Kutch following military victories against local rulers. In 1815, the British defeated the Kutch army and subsequently deposed Rao Bharmal II, replacing him with his infant son, Deshalji II.

- During this period, a British political resident was appointed to manage the state's affairs, effectively sidelining the local leadership and igniting resentment among the chieftains and the populace.

CAUSES OF THE REBELLION

- **Removal of Rao Bharmal II:** The immediate catalyst for the uprising was the deposition of Rao Bharmal II. The local population viewed this as an affront to their sovereignty and traditional governance.
- **British Intervention in Local Affairs:** The British interference in Kutch's internal disputes and their imposition of foreign governance structures stirred unrest among the local chieftains and common people alike.
- **Socio-Economic Factors:** The economic policies implemented by the British exacerbated existing grievances. Heavy taxation and changes in land revenue systems under colonial rule led to widespread discontent among farmers and local leaders.

PHASES OF THE REBELLION

- **Initial Uprisings (1816-1819):** The discontent began to surface shortly after Rao Bharmal's deposition, culminating in violent protests against British authority.
- **Major Revolt (1819):** A significant uprising occurred when local forces, led by various chieftains, attempted to reclaim power from British control. This included mobilizing Arab troops to challenge British dominance directly.
- **Continued Resistance (1820-1832):** Although initially suppressed, resistance continued sporadically until 1832, as various leaders sought to restore local rule and resist British encroachment on their rights

PAIKA REBELLION

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- **British Occupation:** The British East India Company took control of Odisha in 1803, overthrowing the local Gajapati king, Mukunda Deva II. This occupation led to widespread discontent among the local population, particularly the Paikas, who were traditional warrior-peasants responsible for local defense and military service.

- **Land and Economic Policies:** The British administration implemented policies that alienated the Paikas from their hereditary lands. They abolished the rent-free land rights previously granted to them, imposed heavy taxes, and introduced a new currency system that disrupted local economies. The rise in salt prices due to taxation further fueled resentment among the common people.
- **Cultural and Political Alienation:** The rebellion was also a response to cultural suppression and political marginalization. The Paikas rallied around their traditional leader, Bakshi Jagabandhu Bidyadhara, and used Lord Jagannath as a symbol of unity against British oppression.

COURSE OF EVENTS

- The rebellion officially began in March 1817 when a group of approximately 400 Kandhas from Ghumusar joined forces with the Paikas. They launched attacks on government establishments, including police stations and treasury offices in Banapur, resulting in significant casualties among British officials and looting of government funds.
- **Initial Success:** The rebels initially achieved considerable success, capturing Khurda and other strategic locations. They were able to rally support from various local zamindars and tribal communities, expanding the revolt across Odisha.
- **British Retaliation:** The British responded by dispatching military forces to quell the uprising. Despite initial setbacks, they managed to regroup and suppress the rebellion by late 1817, declaring martial law in affected areas.
- **Repression and Consequences:** Following the rebellion, many participants faced severe reprisals, including execution and long-term imprisonment. Bakshi Jagabandhu himself was captured in 1825 and died in custody in 1829.
- **Legacy:** Although it did not succeed in overthrowing British rule, the Paika Rebellion is remembered as a significant expression of resistance against colonial authority. It highlighted issues of land rights, economic exploitation, and cultural identity that would resonate in later uprisings across India.

WAGHERA RISING (1818-20)

CAUSES OF THE WAGHERA RISING

- The Waghera Rising, which occurred from 1818 to 1820, was a significant civil uprising in India, specifically in the region of Gujarat. This uprising was primarily led by the Waghera tribe against British colonial rule and the oppressive policies of the Gaekwad of Baroda.
- **Resentment Against Colonial Rule:** The Wagheras were motivated by a growing discontent with foreign domination, which they viewed as an infringement on their rights and autonomy.
- **Exactions by Gaekwad of Baroda:** The local rulers, particularly the Gaekwad, imposed heavy taxes and demands on the Waghera chiefs, compelling them to resist these exactions with armed conflict. The British government supported these demands, further aggravating the situation.

COURSE OF THE UPRISING

- The Wagheras conducted raids into British-held territories between 1818 and 1819, showcasing their resistance against both local and colonial authorities.
- The conflict saw various confrontations until a peace treaty was finally signed in November 1820, bringing an end to hostilities

SATARA REVOLT (1840)

REASON FOR THE REVOLT

- This uprising was caused as a result of the British deposition of Chhatrapati Pratapsingh in 1839 when he attempted to assert his sovereignty and territorial rights and exiled him to Varanasi.
- The people of the region were filled with resentment and anger as a consequence of this. They gathered over a thousand men for the uprising and attacked the Badami Fort. The insurgents successfully captured the stronghold and raised the Satara flag on its ramparts.

BRITISH REACTION

- The British retaliated promptly with a strong-armed force and captured the fort quickly. Petkar and his colleagues were found guilty and sentenced to life in prison.

- Dhar Rao Pawar remained active in the Shirala Mahal and Karad regions for several years, resisting the British. The uprising, however, was finally put down in 1844.

GADKARI REVOLT

BACKGROUND

- When the British took control of Satara, they imposed harsh land revenue systems that affected local agrarian communities, including the Gadkaris. This group had traditionally received land grants in exchange for military service but faced dispossession and taxation under British rule.
- **Loss of Land:** The British restructured land ownership, leading to increased taxes on lands that were previously exempt.
- **Dismissal from Service:** Many Gadkaris were dismissed from their hereditary military positions, leaving them without means of livelihood.
- **Administrative Changes:** The direct rule by the British led to widespread dissatisfaction among local populations due to arbitrary governance and exploitation.

THE UPRISING

- In response to these injustices, the Gadkaris revolted in 1844, capturing key forts such as Samangarh and Bhudargarh. They established a parallel government in Kolhapur, symbolizing their resistance against colonial authority.
- **Leadership:** The revolt was led by figures like Daji Krishna Pandit, who organized the Gadkaris and rallied support against British forces.
- **Initial Successes:** The Gadkaris initially achieved significant victories, capturing strategic locations and demonstrating their military prowess.
- Despite their initial successes, the revolt was ultimately suppressed by a stronger British military force. The British recaptured the forts and reasserted control over Kolhapur, leading to severe repercussions for those involved in the uprising.

SURAT SALT AGITATION

AGITATION

- In August 1844, the British government increased the excise and import duties on salt from 50 paise to one rupee. This abrupt hike was perceived as unjust and burdensome

by the local population, leading to widespread unrest in Surat, a major city under British rule at the time. The salt tax was crucial because salt was a staple commodity for the common people, and any increase in its cost had immediate and severe repercussions on their daily lives.

- The agitation began on August 21, 1844, when citizens of Surat mobilized against the tax increase. Shops across the city closed in protest, and demonstrations erupted as residents expressed their grievances against the British administration. The protests escalated over the following days, with reports indicating that people clashed with Indian officials who attempted to mediate.
- On August 29, a large gathering at the Adawalat (court) turned violent when demonstrators began throwing stones and causing damage. The situation intensified when military forces were called in to quell the unrest, resulting in casualties, including the death of an elderly woman during the confrontation.

GOVERNMENT RESPONSE

- In response to the agitation, British authorities attempted to negotiate with community leaders from various religious backgrounds but were unsuccessful in calming tensions. The protests continued until August 31, when the British administration was compelled to revoke the increased salt duty due to the sustained pressure from the populace

KUKA REVOLT (1840)

- The Kuka Movement began in the context of the British annexation of Punjab in 1849, which led to widespread discontent among the Sikh population. Influenced by earlier reformers like Baba Balak Singh and Bhagat Jawar Mal, Baba Ram Singh established the Namdhari sect at Bhaini Sahib in 1857.
- The movement sought to purify Sikh practices and restore their original values, advocating for a return to the teachings of Sikh Gurus while opposing perceived corruptions within Sikh society.

OBJECTIVES AND BELIEFS

- The Kukas promoted several key principles:
 - No caste system among Sikhs.

- Widow remarriage and encouragement of inter-caste marriages.
- Abstinence from meat, drugs, and alcohol.
- Emphasis on the Adi Granth as the sole holy scripture.
- Adherence to wearing only white clothing, symbolizing purity.
- The movement also adopted a strong stance against cow slaughter, viewing cows as sacred and actively opposing butchers involved in this practice. This led to violent confrontations with authorities, particularly in incidents where Kukas attacked butchers suspected of killing cows.

MAJOR EVENTS

- The Kuka Movement escalated into a rebellion by the early 1870s. In 1871, a significant convention was held at Khote village, which resulted in internal conflicts among the Kukas.
- By January 17, 1872, in response to escalating violence attributed to the movement, British authorities executed 49 Kukas by cannon fire for their insurrectionist activities⁴⁵. Baba Ram Singh himself was captured and exiled to Burma, where he died in 1885.

OTHER CIVIL UPRISINGS

REVOLT OF MOAMARIAS (1769–1799)

- **Background:** This uprising arose among low-caste peasants in Assam who followed the teachings of Aniruddhadeva.
- **Impact:** The revolt challenged the authority of the Ahom kings and highlighted internal social conflicts exacerbated by British intervention.

CIVIL UPRISINGS IN GORAKHPUR, BASTI, AND BAHRAICH (1781)

- **Context:** These uprisings were a response to Warren Hastings' revenue policies aimed at funding military expenses against the Marathas and Mysore.
- **Participants:** Local zamindars and peasants united against the imposition of revenue farming contracts by English officers.

CIVIL REBELLION IN AWADH (1799)

- **Details:** This rebellion was part of a broader discontent with British administrative practices that undermined local governance and traditional rights.

WAHABI MOVEMENT (1830–1861)

- **Context:** A socio-religious movement that sought to reform Islam and oppose British rule through organized resistance.
- **Impact:** It mobilized significant sections of society against colonial authority

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TRIBAL REBELLIONS

REASONS

- **Legal changes introduced by colonial government:** Establishment of forest department in 1864 and **enactment of the Forests Act in 1865** severely curtailed customary rights of tribals and opened forests for commercial use. **Jurisdiction of government over forest lands was extended with 20% of India's land** coming under forest administration by 1900.
- **Outlawing of Jhum:** Jhum or shifting cultivation, an essential practice of tribal agriculture, was **banned or restricted in 'reserved' forests from 1867**.
- **Restrictions on use of forest produce:** Rights to use timber and grazing were curbed and subsistence hunting was prohibited.
- **Commercialisation of forest:** Opening roads and commercial use of forest wood and other products encouraged penetration of moneylenders, traders, contractors & land-grabbers.
 - Need for Oak and Timber for Royal Navy and railway sleepers made the British government take measures for conservation of forests, leading to marking of forest land as 'reserved'.
 - Trees preferred by commercial foresters (teak, pine and deodar) were of little use to rural population whereas the trees they replaced (such as Oak and Terminalia) were intensively used for fuel, fodder, leaf manure and small timber that also transformed the ecology of forest.
- **Introduction of private property:** Tribal areas usually have community ownership, where all members of community enjoyed benefits of the resource. However, British rule introduced the **philosophy of private property** in land and insistence on 'written records' to dispossess tribals of joint ownership of land.
- **Interference in tribal cultural practices:** Government ban on brewing of local liquor, an important source of nutrition and grant of leases to outsiders to brew palm liquor. Christian missionaries came to these regions and their efforts interfered with the traditional customs of the tribals.

- This massive disruption resulted in small acts of resistance, subversion and violent outbursts, which made forests ‘unquiet’. Religion provided a rallying ground for political acts, offering tribal peasants self-respect through a belief in a better future.

WEAKNESSES OF THESE UPRISINGS

- Uprisings were centred around local grievances and thus their **spread remained limited**. They **lacked pan-India characteristics**.
- Several uprisings had common enemies and grievances but the notion of India as a country, i.e., a ‘**nation**’ **was missing**. They were often in favour of political autonomy within the Indian Union.
- In most cases, **leadership was provided by local zamindars or Clan chiefs** who had a backwards-looking outlook and they failed to provide an alternative to existing social set-up. – **Ex Revolt of Raja of Vizianagaram , Ahom revolt etc.**
- The war tactics and arms used by the rebellions were **obsolete** and were no match **against the superior weaponry and tactics of British**. **Ex- Tribals used Bow, arrows and axes against much more advanced guns and swords of British.**
- British were successful in pacifying a section of the population by **providing concessions and taking conciliatory steps**. **Ex. Making of Santhal Parganas after Santhal rebellion.**

LIST OF TRIBAL REBELLIONS

PAHARIYA REBELLION

- The Pahariya Rebellion, which took place in 1778, was a significant uprising against British colonial rule in the Rajmahal Hills region of present-day Jharkhand, India. This revolt was primarily led by Raja Jagganath, who mobilized the Pahariya tribes against the brutal campaign waged by the British, which involved hunting down and killing members of the Pahariya community

CAUSES OF THE REBELLION

- **British Encroachment:** The relentless expansion of British control over the region threatened the autonomy of the Paharias and their access to resources.
- **Violent Campaigns:** The British employed brutal tactics against the Paharias, including massacres, which incited anger and resistance among the tribes.
- **Economic Hardship:** The Paharias faced economic difficulties due to famines and loss of land, prompting them to raid established settlements for survival.

EVENTS OF THE REBELLION

- The uprising saw the Paharias conducting raids against lowland settlements as a form of resistance.
- They aimed not only to retaliate against British forces but also to assert their dominance over local zamindars (landlords) who had benefited from British policies.

CHUAR UPRISING (1767-1802)

The Chuar Uprising, also known as the Chuar Rebellion or the Jungle Mahal Movement, was a significant series of peasant revolts against British colonial rule in India, primarily occurring between 1771 and 1809. This uprising was predominantly concentrated in the Jungle Mahal region, which includes parts of present-day West Bengal, specifically the districts of Midnapore, Bankura, and Manbhum.

CAUSES OF THE UPRISING

- **Economic Exploitation:** The East India Company's revenue policies placed immense financial burdens on local farmers and tribal communities.
- **Dispossession of Lands:** The resumption of lands previously held by Chuars under colonial law incited anger and resistance.
- **Social Displacement:** The collapse of traditional roles for paiks (local guards) and zamindars created a power vacuum that fueled rebellion.

BHIL UPRISING

- The Bhils, an indigenous tribal group, faced severe exploitation and dispossession of their traditional rights over land and forest resources due to British colonial policies. The East India Company implemented various administrative changes that stripped the Bhils of their rights, leading to widespread discontent and eventual rebellion.

KEY EVENTS

- **Initiation of the Revolt (1818):** The uprising began in 1818, spearheaded by leaders like Kazi Singh (also known as Kajee Naik) and Bhima Naik. The revolt was characterized by guerrilla warfare tactics and aimed at reclaiming lost rights and resisting British authority.
- **Significant Actions:** One of the most notable incidents during this period was the loot of the Sindwa Ghat treasury on November 17, 1857, where around 500 Bhils participated, successfully plundering silver bars and rupees. This act symbolized the strength and unity of the Bhil community against colonial forces.
- **Continued Resistance:** The rebellion persisted until around 1860, with various skirmishes and acts of defiance against British forces. Despite initial successes, the British eventually deployed military forces to suppress the uprising, which they did with considerable violence.
- **Concessions from the British:** Although the British managed to quell the uprising, they were compelled to make concessions regarding tax policies and some forest rights as part of peace negotiations. This indicates that while they claimed victory, they could not fully suppress dissent in these regions

RAMOSI UPRISING

- The Ramosi Uprising refers to a series of revolts by the Ramoshi community in Maharashtra against British colonial rule during the 19th century, primarily occurring in two phases: the initial uprising from 1822 to 1829 and a later revolt from 1877 to 1887.

FIRST PHASE: 1822-1829

- **Leadership:** The uprising began under leaders like Chittur Singh and later Umaji Naik.
- **Causes:** The immediate cause was the loss of their tax-collecting rights and increased taxation, compounded by famine conditions in Pune.
- **Actions:** The Ramoshis engaged in armed resistance, attacking British forces and plundering settlements aligned with colonial interests. They declared their intent to reclaim their rights and urged others to join their cause against British rule.

- **Duration:** The uprising lasted until 1829, when it was suppressed after Umaji Naik's capture and subsequent execution in 1832.

SECOND PHASE: 1877-1887

- **Leadership:** Vasudev Balwant Phadke.
- **Causes:** The revolt was fueled by dissatisfaction with the British administration's neglect during famines and oppressive taxation policies that exacerbated poverty among peasants.
- **Actions:** This phase involved violent protests against British authority, including treasury raids to fund resistance efforts aimed at establishing a free Indian republic.
- **Outcome:** Although initially successful in rallying support, this uprising was eventually quelled by British forces, leading to further repression of the Ramoshi community

AHOM REVOLT

- The Ahom Revolt of 1828 was a significant uprising against British colonial rule in Assam, led by Gomdhar Konwar, an Ahom prince.
- This revolt emerged in the aftermath of the First Anglo-Burmese War (1824-1826), during which the British had promised to withdraw from Ahom territories but instead sought to annex them into their empire, igniting resentment among the Ahom people.

CAUSES

- **Broken Promises:** The British had pledged to leave Assam following the First Anglo-Burmese War but instead attempted to incorporate Ahom territories into their dominion, leading to widespread discontent.
- **Loss of Autonomy:** The local aristocracy, including the Ahom nobility, felt their political authority and social privileges eroding under British rule, prompting a desire to restore the ancient Ahom monarchy.

LEADERSHIP

- **Gomdhar Konwar:** He emerged as the principal leader of the revolt, supported by notable figures like Dhanjay Borgohain and Jairam Khargharia Phukan. They organized a formal assembly in Jorhat, where Konwar was crowned as king.

COURSE OF THE REVOLT

- The rebels aimed to seize the British stronghold at Rangpur, gathering arms and recruiting soldiers while instructing their followers to cease paying taxes to the British.
- In November 1828, they advanced towards Rangpur but were caught off guard by British forces at Mariani, leading to a swift suppression of the revolt.

OUTCOME

- Following the failure of the revolt, Gomdhar Konwar and his associates initially fled to the Naga Hills but later surrendered. They were tried for treason; although sentenced to death, their punishment was commuted to seven years of exile as a conciliatory gesture by the British East India Company.
- Ultimately, in 1833, a portion of Upper Assam was returned to local control under Maharaja Purandar Singh Narendra, reflecting a shift towards a more conciliatory approach by the British towards Assamese rulers

KOL UPRISING

- The Kol Uprising, also known as the Kol Rebellion or Kol Mutiny, occurred between 1831 and 1832 in the Chhota Nagpur region of present-day Jharkhand, India.
- This significant revolt was led by the Kol tribe, who sought to resist the economic exploitation and social injustices imposed by British colonial rule and local landlords.

CAUSES

- **Economic Exploitation:** The introduction of new land tenure systems and administrative policies by the East India Company disrupted traditional agrarian practices, leading to widespread discontent among the tribal communities, including the Kols, Mundas, Oraons, and Hos.
- **Taxation Policies:** The imposition of heavy taxes on agricultural products and movement restrictions on goods like salt exacerbated economic hardships for the Kols, who were already struggling under oppressive landlord practices.
- **Encroachment on Tribal Lands:** The influx of non-tribal settlers into Chhota Nagpur led to significant encroachment on tribal lands, further igniting tensions as traditional land rights were undermined.

LEADERSHIP

- The uprising was spearheaded by notable leaders such as Buddhu Bhagat, Joa Bhagat, and Jhindrai Manki.
- Initially starting as localized protests against economic oppression, it escalated into a full-scale rebellion against both British forces and local thikedars (contractors) who collected taxes through coercive means.
- The Kols employed traditional weapons in their fight against British troops equipped with modern artillery, which ultimately led to their defeat

KHASI UPRISING

- The Khasi Uprising of 1833 represents a significant episode of resistance against British colonial rule in the Khasi Hills of present-day Meghalaya, India. This uprising was primarily led by Tirot Sing Syiem, a prominent Khasi chief, and was fueled by various socio-economic grievances against the British East India Company.
- The Khasi Hills, inhabited by the Khasi people, were characterized by their rich cultural heritage and complex chieftainship systems. The early 19th century saw the East India Company expanding its influence in northeastern India, leading to conflicts with indigenous populations as they sought to consolidate control over the region.

CAUSES

- **Land Alienation:** The British introduced land revenue systems that threatened traditional land tenure, leading to widespread discontent among the Khasis.
- **Imposition of Taxes:** The introduction of taxes and tributes on local chieftains was perceived as oppressive.
- **Cultural Insensitivity:** The British exhibited a lack of respect for Khasi customs and traditions, exacerbating tensions.
- **Economic Exploitation:** The extraction of resources like coal and timber from Khasi lands further marginalized the local population.

OUTBREAK

- The uprising began in response to the British plans to construct a road linking the Brahmaputra Valley with Sylhet, which would traverse Khasi territories.

- Tirot Sing led a coalition of Khasi chiefs in attacking British forces that ignored their directives to halt construction. The uprising was marked by localized revolts rather than a coordinated effort, with significant events including the siege of Cherrapunji, a crucial British outpost

SANTHAL REBELLION

- The Santhal Rebellion, also known as the Santhal Hool, was a significant tribal uprising that occurred between June 30, 1855, and January 3, 1856.
- It was primarily led by the Santhal community in the regions of present-day Jharkhand and West Bengal, against the oppressive practices of the British East India Company and the local zamindari system (landlord system).

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- **Economic Exploitation:** The Santhals were subjected to heavy taxation and exploitative practices by landlords and moneylenders, leading to widespread indebtedness.
- **Land Alienation:** Many Santhal lands were forcibly taken over by zamindars and moneylenders, disrupting their traditional livelihoods.
- **Oppressive Revenue Policies:** The British introduced new revenue systems that exacerbated the economic hardships of the Santhals .
- The immediate catalyst for the uprising was a gathering at Bhognadih village, where leaders Sidhu and Kanhu Murmu declared their intent to fight against oppression. They mobilized thousands of Santhals, who were determined to reclaim their rights and establish self-governance.

KEY EVENTS

- The rebellion began with a large assembly of over 10,000 Santhals at Bhognadih, where they pledged to rise against colonial rule. Following this declaration, they launched attacks on symbols of authority, including police stations and properties owned by British officials and local landlords. The Santhals employed guerrilla warfare tactics, showcasing remarkable bravery despite being outmatched by British military forces.

- On November 10, 1855, martial law was imposed by the British, which remained until January 3, 1856. The uprising was eventually suppressed by the colonial forces, resulting in significant casualties among the Santhals—estimates suggest around 15,000 deaths.
- The rebellion was spearheaded by four brothers: Sidhu, Kanhu, Chand, and Bhairav Murmu. They emerged as charismatic leaders who inspired their community to fight for their rights. Their leadership was characterized by a strong sense of tribal unity and organization.
- **Formation of Santhal Parganas:** In recognition of the rebellion's significance, the British established the Santhal Parganas as a separate administrative region to address some grievances of the Santhals

KHOND UPRISING

- The Khonds, also known as Kondha or Kandha, are a Dravidian tribal community that traditionally engaged in hunting, gathering, and slash-and-burn agriculture.
- They inhabit the hilly and forested areas of Odisha, particularly around the Kandhamal district, where they have maintained a strong cultural identity.
- The uprisings were primarily led by Chakra Bisoi, a young raja who became a symbol of resistance against colonial oppression.

CAUSES OF THE UPRISINGS

- **Prohibition of Mariah:** The most significant catalyst was the British ban on the Mariah practice, a traditional form of human sacrifice integral to Khond culture. This prohibition was perceived as an attack on their customs and identity.
- **Economic Exploitation:** The introduction of new taxes by the British government further exacerbated the situation. The influx of Zamindars (landlords) and moneylenders into tribal areas disrupted traditional economic structures, leading to increased exploitation and marginalization of the Khonds.
- **Loss of Land and Autonomy:** The encroachment of outsiders into their lands threatened the Khonds' way of life, prompting them to resist what they saw as an existential threat.

NATURE OF THE UPRISINGS

- The Khonds engaged in armed resistance using traditional weapons such as bows, arrows, axes, and hatchets. Despite their bravery and determination, they faced overwhelming force from British military technology. The uprisings involved guerrilla tactics and sustained combat but ultimately ended in violent suppression by colonial forces.
- The disappearance of Chakra Bisoi in 1855 marked a turning point that led to the decline of organized resistance among the Khonds. However, sporadic rebellions continued into the early 20th century, reflecting ongoing grievances against colonial rule

KOLI UPRISING

- **Early Uprisings (1829-1848):** The Kolis, an ethnic group predominantly found in Maharashtra and Gujarat, initiated revolts against British policies that disrupted their traditional way of life. Significant uprisings occurred in 1829, 1839, and again between 1844 and 1848. These revolts were largely a response to the British encroachment on their lands and resources, as well as the introduction of new administrative systems that marginalized their authority.
- **Koli Rebellion of 1873-74:** A notable uprising occurred under the leadership of Honya Bhagoji Kengle in 1873-74. This rebellion was sparked by severe famine conditions that exacerbated the exploitation by moneylenders supported by British law. Kengle organized attacks on moneylenders and government officials across western Maharashtra, particularly in Pune and surrounding districts. The revolt was met with harsh suppression; special police units were deployed to quell the insurrection, leading to Kengle's eventual capture

BIRSA MUNDA REVOLT

- The Birsa Munda Revolt, also known as the Munda Rebellion or Ulgulan ("The Great Tumult"), was a significant tribal uprising in the late 19th century against British colonial rule in India, specifically in the Chotanagpur plateau region, which is now part of Jharkhand.
- Led by Birsa Munda, a charismatic tribal leader, the rebellion aimed to restore tribal rights over land and resources and to resist oppressive colonial policies.

BACKGROUND

- Birsa Munda was born on November 15, 1875, in Ulihatu, Jharkhand. He witnessed firsthand the exploitation of his community due to British land policies that dismantled traditional systems like Khuntkatti, which allowed communal ownership of land.
- The introduction of the zamindari system led to non-tribal landlords (referred to as Dikus) encroaching on tribal lands, resulting in widespread displacement and economic hardship for the Mundas.

CAUSES

- **Land Alienation:** British policies facilitated the transfer of tribal lands to non-tribal landlords, disrupting traditional land ownership.
- **Economic Exploitation:** High rents and forced labor under new landlords exacerbated poverty among tribal communities.
- **Religious and Cultural Disruption:** Efforts by Christian missionaries to convert Mundas led to cultural tensions and resentment against foreign influence.
- **Social Oppression:** Birsa Munda sought to reform Munda society by opposing certain practices and promoting a return to traditional values.

THE ULGULAN MOVEMENT

- The rebellion formally began on December 24, 1899, when Birsa declared Ulgulan, asserting tribal rights over land, water, and forests.
- He mobilized thousands of followers using guerrilla tactics against British forces and their local allies. The movement gained momentum as it symbolized a broader struggle for self-rule (referred to as Abua Raj) among the Mundas.

KEY EVENTS

- **Initial Mobilization:** From 1894 onwards, Birsa began organizing his community against colonial oppression, establishing a vision for an independent Munda Raj.
- **Armed Resistance:** The rebellion involved armed confrontations with British forces, particularly notable during battles at Dombari Buru hill where many tribals were killed.

- **Suppression:** The British responded with brutal force, ultimately arresting Birsa in early 1900. He died in captivity under mysterious circumstances on June 9, 1900, likely due to cholera or due to mistreatment

KOYA REBELLION

- The Koya Rebellion, also known as the Koya Uprising, was a significant tribal uprising that took place in the eastern Godavari region of present-day Andhra Pradesh, India.
- This rebellion was primarily driven by the Koya tribe and was marked by multiple revolts against British colonial rule and local moneylenders throughout the 19th century.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- **Oppression by Moneylenders:** The Koyas faced severe exploitation from moneylenders who were often outsiders. These moneylenders charged exorbitant interest rates and seized tribal lands and produce, leading to widespread indebtedness among the Koya community.
- **Restrictions on Traditional Rights:** The British colonial administration imposed restrictions on shifting cultivation and access to forest resources, which were vital for the Koyas' livelihood. This included limitations on their rights to harvest forest products like toddy, which significantly impacted their economy and culture.
- **Police Brutality:** The local police were often used to enforce colonial policies, leading to violent confrontations between the Koyas and law enforcement.

MAJOR PHASES

- **Initial Uprisings (1803-1862):** The Koyas revolted multiple times during this period, notably in 1879 under the leadership of Tammandora. Their actions were a response to increasing oppression and exploitation by both colonial authorities and local moneylenders.
- **The 1879-1880 Uprising:** This phase saw a more organized resistance led by Tomma Sora, who mobilized the Koyas against their oppressors. The rebellion involved guerrilla tactics and was characterized by direct attacks on police stations and

moneylender properties. It highlighted the growing frustration among tribal communities against colonial exploitation.

- **Subsequent Revolts (1886):** After Tomma Sora's death, leadership passed to Raja Anantayyar, who led another uprising in 1886. This continued the struggle for autonomy and rights over their lands and resources

TANA BHAGAT MOVEMENT

- The Tana Bhagat Movement (1914-1920) was a significant tribal uprising in the Chhotanagpur area of British India, particularly among the Oraon community, which is now part of Jharkhand.
- This movement was primarily a response to the oppressive policies of British colonial authorities and the exploitative practices of local zamindars (landlords).

KEY FEATURES

- **Duration:** The movement lasted from April 1914 to 1920.
- **Location:** It took place in the Chhotanagpur district, which is now in Jharkhand, India.
- **Leadership:** The movement was led by notable figures such as Jatra Bhagat and Turia Bhagat.
- **Participants:** It involved various tribal groups, primarily the Tana Bhagats, Oraons, and members of the Munda community.

OBJECTIVES AND ACTIONS

- **Taxation:** They opposed the taxes imposed by the British government.
- **Exploitation by Zamindars:** The movement was also directed against local landlords and moneylenders who exploited their labor and resources.
- **Cultural Reformation:** Jatra Bhagat advocated for a return to traditional values, promoting vegetarianism and rejecting superstitions such as animal sacrifices and ghost hunts

RAMPA REBELLION

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- The second phase of the Rampa Rebellion occurred between 1922 and 1924, led by Alluri Sitarama Raju, a charismatic leader who inspired many through his vision of independence from British rule.
- This uprising was sparked by similar grievances related to oppressive forest laws established under the 1882 Madras Forest Act, which restricted tribal access to traditional lands and resources necessary for their subsistence farming practices (known as podu cultivation) and threatened their livelihoods.

EVENTS

- The rebellion began with a series of attacks on police stations between August 22 and 24, 1922. Under Raju's leadership, approximately 500 tribal warriors successfully raided several police outposts, showcasing a strong resistance against colonial forces.
- The British responded by deploying extensive military resources, including the Malabar Special Police, to quell the uprising. Despite facing severe repression—including martial law and punitive taxes—the tribal fighters continued their guerrilla warfare tactics for nearly two years.
- Raju's capture on May 7, 1924, marked a significant turning point; he was executed shortly thereafter. His death led to increased repression against his followers but solidified his status as a martyr and folk hero among Indian nationalists.
- The rebellion highlighted the deep-rooted anti-colonial sentiments among tribal populations and underscored their struggles against exploitation.

TIMELINE: CIVIL AND TRIBAL UPRISINGS

CIVIL UPRISINGS (BEFORE 1857)

- **1763–1800: Sanyasi Revolt**
 - Driven by the Bengal famine of 1770 and economic oppression by the British East India Company.
- **1794: Revolt by the Raja of Vizianagaram**
 - Sparked by tribute demands and political maneuvering by the British.
- **1806: Vellore Mutiny**

- Triggered by British-imposed changes in military attire offensive to sepoys' religious practices.
- **1808–1809: Dewan Velu Thambi Revolt**
 - Aimed at resisting British interference in Travancore.
- **1816–1832: Kutch Rebellion**
 - Caused by British intervention in local governance and removal of Rao Bharmal II.
- **1817: Paika Rebellion**
 - Led by Bakshi Jagabandhu against British land and economic policies.
- **1818–1820: Waghera Rising**
 - Conducted raids in Gujarat due to heavy taxation and local discontent.
- **1840: Satara Revolt**
 - Instigated by the deposition of Chhatrapati Pratapsingh.
- **1844: Gadkari Revolt**
 - Resistance by Gadkaris against British land revenue policies.
- **1844: Surat Salt Agitation**
 - Protests against increased salt excise and import duties.
- **1840s: Kuka Revolt**
 - Advocated Sikh reform and resisted colonial practices.

TRIBAL REBELLIONS

- **1778: Pahariya Rebellion**
 - Opposed British expansion in the Rajmahal Hills.
- **1767–1802: Chuar Uprising**
 - Response to land dispossession and economic exploitation.
- **1818–1860: Bhil Uprising**
 - Led by Bhima Naik, resisting land and forest exploitation.
- **1822–1829: Ramosi Uprising**
 - Revolts against British policies and famine conditions.
- **1828: Ahom Revolt**
 - Aimed to restore the Ahom monarchy after British annexation of Assam.
- **1831–1832: Kol Uprising**
 - Protested land encroachments and oppressive taxation in Chhota Nagpur.

- **1833: Khasi Uprising**
 - Led by Tirot Sing against British road construction and resource extraction.
- **1855–1856: Santhal Rebellion**
 - Revolt against exploitative zamindari and British policies.
- **1837–1855: Khond Uprising**
 - Focused on preserving cultural practices and resisting British forest policies.
- **1829–1848: Koli Uprising**
 - Repeated revolts in Maharashtra against land and tax policies.
- **Late 19th Century: Birsa Munda Revolt**
 - Aimed to reclaim tribal rights under Birsa Munda's leadership.
- **1803–1862: Koya Rebellion**
 - Opposed British restrictions on tribal practices and exploitation.
- **1914–1920: Tana Bhagat Movement**
 - Oraon community's cultural and economic resistance against British policies.
- **1922–1924: Rampa Rebellion**
 - Led by Alluri Sitarama Raju against forest restrictions.

REVOLT OF 1857

BACKGROUND

- The Revolt of 1857, often termed the First War of Independence, marked a significant uprising against British colonial rule in India. It was characterized by widespread discontent among various segments of Indian society, including soldiers (sepoys), peasants, and local rulers.
- The revolt began on May 10, 1857, in Meerut and quickly spread to other regions, notably Delhi, Kanpur, and Lucknow. The uprising was not merely a military mutiny but a culmination of deep-rooted grievances against British policies that had been building over the preceding century.

CAUSES OF THE REVOLT

POLITICAL CAUSES

- **Doctrine of Lapse:** This policy, implemented by Lord Dalhousie, allowed the British to annex princely states if a ruler died without a male heir. This led to the loss of sovereignty for many Indian rulers and fueled resentment against British expansionism.
- **Annexation Policies:** Aggressive annexation strategies alienated local leaders and contributed to widespread discontent among the aristocracy and landowners.

ECONOMIC CAUSES

- **Exploitation of Resources:** British economic policies severely impacted traditional industries and agriculture, leading to widespread poverty among artisans and farmers. Heavy taxation and the commercialization of agriculture further exacerbated these issues, dismantling the village self-sufficiency that had previously existed.
- **De-industrialization:** The introduction of free trade policies led to the decline of local industries, causing economic distress among various communities.

SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS CAUSES

- **Interference in Cultural Practices:** The British were perceived as a threat to Indian social norms and religious practices. Reforms such as the abolition of Sati (1829) and the Hindu Widow Remarriage Act (1856) were seen as intrusive and disrespectful to traditional customs.
- **Religious Discontent:** The entry of Christian missionaries and changes in laws regarding inheritance further alienated many Indians from British rule. The Religious Disabilities Act of 1850 modified traditional Hindu law in ways that were viewed unfavourably by many.

MILITARY GRIEVANCES

- **Greased Cartridges Issue:** The immediate spark for the revolt was the introduction of the Enfield rifle cartridges rumoured to be greased with cow and pig fat, which offended both Hindu and Muslim soldiers. This issue highlighted broader grievances regarding pay, conditions, and treatment within the army.
- **Discontent Among Sepoys:** Sepoys felt marginalized due to discriminatory practices within the military ranks, leading to a sense of betrayal by their British commanders.

IMMEDIATE CAUSE

- The immediate cause of the Revolt of 1857, often termed the "First War of Indian Independence," was the introduction of the Enfield rifle cartridges, which were rumoured to be greased with cow and pig fat.
- This was particularly offensive to both Hindu and Muslim sepoys, as biting off the cartridge paper before loading was required, making it unacceptable for them due to religious beliefs regarding the consumption of these animals.
- The discontent among soldiers escalated when Mangal Pandey, a sepoy at Barrackpore, refused to use the cartridges and attacked his officers on March 29, 1857.
- His subsequent execution on April 8 further inflamed tensions, leading to widespread mutinies across northern India. On May 9, 1857, 85 sepoys in Meerut also refused to use the cartridges and were sentenced to ten years in prison, which catalysed broader uprisings throughout the region.

- Thus, while there were numerous underlying political, economic, and social grievances against British rule, the immediate trigger was the controversy surrounding the Enfield rifle cartridges.

GEOGRAPHIC SPREAD

- Delhi: Became the symbolic centre of the revolt with Bahadur Shah Zafar declared as the leader.
- Kanpur: Witnessed significant battles and was a key site of conflict.
- Lucknow: Known for the prolonged siege and fierce fighting.
- Jhansi: Led by Rani Lakshmi Bai, who became a prominent figure in the revolt.
- Gwalior: Another critical area where the rebels established control for a time.
- The uprising also saw sporadic revolts in regions such as Bihar, Awadh, Rohilkhand, and parts of Punjab. However, areas like Bengal, Bombay, and Madras largely remained calm during this period.

NATURE OF THE REVOLT

- The nature of the Revolt of 1857 can be described as both military mutiny and a broader civil rebellion against colonial rule. While it began primarily as a mutiny by sepoys over grievances related to service conditions—such as the introduction of greased cartridges that offended religious sentiments—it evolved into a more extensive movement involving diverse social classes. Key characteristics include:
 - Military Grievances: The sepoys were unhappy with poor pay, harsh treatment, and mandatory overseas service under the General Service Enlistment Act of 1856.
 - Social and Religious Factors: The revolt was fuelled by widespread resentment towards British policies that disregarded Indian customs and traditions. This included interference in social practices and heavy taxation.

PHASES OF THE REVOLT OF 1857

PRELUDE TO THE REVOLT (FEBRUARY - APRIL 1857)

- **Initial Discontent:** Tensions began to rise among sepoys (Indian soldiers) due to various factors, including the introduction of the greased cartridges, which were perceived as offensive to both Hindu and Muslim soldiers. The 19th Native Infantry at Berhampore refused to use these cartridges on February 26, 1857.
- **Mangal Pandey Incident:** On March 29, Mangal Pandey, a sepoy in Barrackpore, attacked his British officers, leading to his execution on April 8. This incident galvanized discontent among sepoys.

OUTBREAK OF THE REVOLT (MAY 1857)

- **Mutiny at Meerut:** The revolt officially began on May 10, 1857, when sepoys at Meerut mutinied after their comrades were punished for refusing to use the greased cartridges. They killed their British officers and marched towards Delhi.
- **Proclamation of Bahadur Shah II:** Upon reaching Delhi, the sepoys declared Bahadur Shah II as the symbolic leader of the rebellion on May 13.

SPREAD OF THE REBELLION (MAY - JUNE 1857)

- **Major Centers of Revolt:** The rebellion quickly spread to other regions, including Kanpur, Lucknow, Jhansi, and Bareilly. Notable leaders emerged:
 - Nana Sahib in Kanpur
 - Begum Hazrat Mahal in Lucknow
 - Rani Lakshmi Bai in Jhansi.
- **Key Events:**
 - Cawnpore siege began on June 6.
 - Jhansi was captured by rebels on June.

BRITISH RESPONSE AND SUPPRESSION (JULY - SEPTEMBER 1857)

- **Reinforcements and Retaliation:** The British quickly mobilized reinforcements and launched counter-offensives. By mid-July, they recaptured Kanpur and Lucknow with significant brutality.
- **Key Battles:** The British faced fierce resistance but gradually regained control over key territories through a series of battles and sieges.

DECLINE OF THE REVOLT (OCTOBER 1857 - JUNE 1858)

- **Continued Resistance:** Although major cities fell back under British control by late September, guerrilla warfare continued in various regions until mid-1858. Notable figures like Tantia Tope continued to resist British forces until his capture.
- **Final Suppression:** The revolt was effectively suppressed by June 20, 1858, with Gwalior being one of the last strongholds to fall.

AFTERMATH AND CONSEQUENCES

- Following the suppression of the revolt, significant changes were enacted in British governance:
- The East India Company was dissolved, and India came under direct British Crown rule.
- Policies such as the Doctrine of Lapse were abolished to appease Indian rulers.

REVOLT IN VARIOUS CENTRES

DELHI

- Upon reaching Delhi, the sepoys quickly seized control of the city. They proclaimed Bahadur Shah II, the last Mughal emperor, as their leader on May 11, 1857.
- The initial success was marked by a swift establishment of a rebel administration, coordinated first by Mirza Mughal, Bahadur Shah's son, and later by Bakht Khan, an experienced artillery officer.

SIEGE OF DELHI

- The British launched a counter-offensive beginning on June 8, 1857, leading to a protracted siege that lasted until September 21, 1857. The British forces faced significant challenges due to the strong resistance from the mutineers entrenched within the city.
- The siege included intense street fighting and was marked by high casualties on both sides. The British ultimately managed to breach the defenses at key locations like the Kashmiri Gate, leading to their reoccupation of Delhi.

AFTERMATH AND CONSEQUENCES

- The recapture of Delhi resulted in brutal reprisals against both rebels and civilians. Estimates suggest that thousands were killed in the aftermath, with widespread atrocities committed by British troops.
- This included indiscriminate killings and severe punishments for those suspected of rebellion. The destruction extended beyond loss of life; large parts of Delhi were demolished as a punitive measure against its inhabitants, significantly altering its demographic and cultural landscape.

LUCKNOW

BEGINNINGS

- The uprising in Lucknow began on May 30, 1857, when local sepoys (Indian soldiers) revolted against British authority. This was part of a larger wave of mutinies that swept through northern India following the initial outbreak in Meerut on May 10, 1857.

LEADERSHIP

- The rebellion in Lucknow was notably led by Begum Hazrat Mahal, who emerged as a prominent figure during this period.
- She declared her son, Prince Birjis Qadr, as the ruler of Awadh and took charge of the resistance against British forces. Her leadership was crucial in mobilizing support from various factions within the city.

THE SIEGE OF LUCKNOW

- The Siege of Lucknow lasted from May 25 to November 27, 1857. British troops and civilians took refuge in the Residency, a fortified compound, as they faced relentless assaults from rebel forces estimated at around 30,000 strong.
- The siege was marked by two major relief attempts by British forces. The first attempt, led by Major General Sir Henry Havelock on September 25, initially succeeded in reaching the Residency but failed to evacuate the besieged due to heavy casualties.

- A second, larger relief operation under Lieutenant General Sir Colin Campbell succeeded in breaking the siege on November 19, allowing for the evacuation of British civilians and soldiers.

CASUALTIES AND AFTERMATH

- The siege resulted in significant casualties: approximately 2,500 British troops were lost out of an original force of about 8,000, while Indian rebel casualties are estimated to be around 30,000, though exact numbers remain unknown.
- After the siege was lifted, British forces returned to Lucknow in March 1858 to re-establish control over the city. This marked a turning point in British colonial rule in India as it signaled both the resilience of local resistance and the determination of British forces to maintain their dominion

JHANSI

BACKGROUND

- The roots of the revolt in Jhansi can be traced back to the Doctrine of Lapse, a policy implemented by the British that allowed them to annex territories of rulers who died without a male heir.
- After the death of Maharaja Gangadhar Rao in 1853, the British refused to recognize his adopted son, Damodar Rao, as the legitimate heir, leading to the annexation of Jhansi.
- Rani Lakshmi Bai was left with no choice but to defend her kingdom against British encroachment.

THE OUTBREAK

- The Indian Rebellion began on May 10, 1857, in Meerut, and soon spread across various regions, including Jhansi. In June 1857, local sepoys seized control of the Jhansi Fort and pressured the British forces to surrender.
- Rani Lakshmi Bai took proactive steps by requesting permission from British officials to raise an armed force for her protection.

KEY EVENTS

- **Siege and Defense:** Rani Lakshmi Bai organized her troops and fortified her defenses in response to the British siege led by General Hugh Rose. The siege began on March 23, 1858, and lasted for several weeks. Despite being heavily outnumbered, she managed to inflict significant damage on the British forces through strategic counterattacks.
- **Alliances and Battles:** During this period, she sought assistance from other rebel leaders, notably Tantia Tope, who attempted to relieve Jhansi but faced defeat at the Battle of Betwa. The Rani's forces were eventually overwhelmed by superior British artillery and tactics.
- **Escape and Further Resistance:** Realizing that further resistance in Jhansi was futile, Rani Lakshmi Bai made a daring escape from the fort with her infant son strapped to her back. She joined forces with Tantia Tope and other rebels at Kalpi, where they briefly captured Gwalior before facing renewed conflict with British troops.
- **Final Battle:** Rani Lakshmi Bai's final battle occurred near Gwalior on June 17, 1858, where she fought valiantly but was ultimately killed. Her death marked a significant moment in the rebellion as she had become a figurehead for Indian resistance against British rule

KANPUR

BACKGROUND

- The revolt in Kanpur was primarily led by Nana Sahib, the adopted son of Peshwa Baji Rao II. He was motivated to rebel due to the denial of his pension by the British, which he believed was rightfully his as the heir of the Maratha Empire.
- Alongside him were key figures such as Tantia Tope, who served as his military commander, and Azimullah Khan, his secretary.

THE SIEGE

- The uprising began on June 5, 1857, when discontent among Indian sepoyes escalated into open rebellion.
- The British garrison, consisting of around 900 soldiers and civilians, fortified themselves in a makeshift entrenchment. Nana Sahib's forces besieged this position for 22 days.

- The initial attacks were met with fierce resistance from the British, who were unprepared for the scale of the assault.
- On June 27, 1857, a tragic event known as the **Satichaura Ghat Massacre** occurred during an attempted evacuation.
- The besieged British forces were promised safe passage to Allahabad by Nana Sahib, but confusion led to a violent confrontation.
- Many British men were killed, and approximately 120 women and children were captured and subsequently murdered in what became known as the **Bibighar Massacre**.

AFTERMATH

- Despite initial successes, the revolt was ultimately suppressed by British reinforcements. By mid-July 1857, Kanpur was retaken, and Nana Sahib fled to Nepal to escape capture. T
- he aftermath of the revolt was marked by brutal reprisals against those involved in the uprising. Many rebels faced execution or severe punishment, while Nana Sahib's general, Tantia Tope, continued to resist until his eventual capture and execution in 1859

BIHAR

KEY EVENTS AND LEADERS

- **Initial Outbreak:**
 - The revolt in Bihar is marked by a pivotal incident on June 12, 1857, in Rohini village, Deoghar, where soldiers revolted and killed two British officials. This incident set the stage for further uprisings across the region.
- **Patna Uprising:**
 - On July 3, 1857, a significant uprising occurred in Patna led by Pir Ali, a local bookseller. During this event, the Deputy Opium Agent, Dr. Lyell, was killed, highlighting the rebellion's connection to resistance against colonial economic exploitation. Following this, Pir Ali was captured and executed on July 7.
- **Mutiny at Danapur:**

- On July 25, three regiments stationed at Danapur mutinied and subsequently joined forces with Kunwar Singh's rebels in Shahabad. This marked a critical escalation of the revolt in Bihar.
- **Kunwar Singh's Leadership:**
 - Kunwar Singh emerged as a central figure during the revolt. At 80 years old, he rallied support from local zamindars and established a stronghold at Jagdishpur.
 - He organized an armed resistance against the British, gathering a force of about 20,000 men and besieging British garrisons. His leadership was crucial as he became a symbol of resistance for the rebels.
- **Widespread Resistance:**
 - In Hazaribagh, local infantry revolted under the leadership of Madhab Singh.
 - In Palamau, leaders Nilamber and Pitamber allied with local zamindars to intensify resistance.
 - The Kols of Singhbhum also rose against British authority under Raja Arjun Singh.

REASONS FOR THE FAILURE OF REVOLT

LACK OF UNITY AND LEADERSHIP

- **Absence of a Central Leader:** The revolt was characterized by multiple leaders such as Nana Saheb, Rani Lakshmi Bai, and Tantia Tope, but there was no single figure to unify the various factions and coordinate their efforts effectively. This lack of coherent leadership resulted in disorganization and confusion among the rebels.
- **Fragmented Goals:** Different groups joined the revolt for varied reasons—some sought to restore Mughal authority, others aimed to eliminate local zamindars or address specific grievances. This absence of a common goal made it difficult to present a united front against the British.

LIMITED GEOGRAPHIC SCOPE

- **Localized Uprising:** Although the revolt began in Meerut and spread to parts of northern India, significant regions such as southern India (including Mysore and

Travancore) and western India (like Bombay) remained largely unaffected. This limited geographic spread weakened the overall impact of the rebellion.

LACK OF SUPPORT FROM KEY CLASSES

- **Absence of Middle-Class Participation:** The educated middle class, which could have provided crucial support and resources, largely refrained from joining the revolt. Their absence diminished the rebellion's reach and influence, particularly in urban areas.
- **Support from Indian Rulers:** Many Indian princely states did not support the revolt, fearing loss of their power or territory. Some even sided with the British, further isolating the rebels.

MILITARY DISADVANTAGES

- **Poor Organization and Resources:** The rebels were poorly organized and lacked adequate arms and resources compared to the well-equipped British forces. The British had access to advanced weaponry and a disciplined military structure, enabling them to respond swiftly to insurgent activities.
- **British Military Superiority:** The British army was not only better equipped but also benefited from superior communication technologies like telegraphs and railways, allowing for rapid troop movements and reinforcements during critical moments of the conflict.

POLITICAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

- **Lack of Nationalism:** At this time, modern nationalism was not fully developed in India. The revolt was driven more by regional or local grievances rather than a unified national identity. Many participants were motivated by specific local issues rather than a collective desire for independence from British rule.
- **Failure to Address Post-Revolt Governance:** Even if successful in ousting the British, there was no clear plan among Indian leaders regarding governance or administration post-revolt. This lack of foresight contributed to their inability to sustain momentum against British forces.

OUTCOMES OF THE REVOLT OF 1857

The revolt marked a significant turning point in Indian history, leading to several key outcomes:

END OF COMPANY RULE

- The most significant outcome was the abolition of the British East India Company's rule in India. Following the suppression of the revolt, the British government took direct control over Indian administration, marking the beginning of the British Raj.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1858

- The Government of India Act, 1858 was enacted, which transferred governance from the East India Company to the British Crown. This act established a new administrative framework and led to the appointment of a Viceroy to oversee Indian affairs directly under Queen Victoria's authority.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES

- The revolt prompted significant administrative reforms. The office of Governor-General was replaced by that of the Viceroy, and there were changes in military organization and financial management within India.
- The British also reorganized their army and improved their administrative efficiency in response to the challenges posed by the revolt.

RECOGNITION OF INDIAN RULERS

- The rights of Indian rulers were recognized, and the Doctrine of Lapse, which had allowed the British to annex princely states without a natural heir, was abolished.
- This change allowed for greater autonomy among Indian states and acknowledged traditional governance structures.

SHIFT IN BRITISH POLICY

- Following the revolt, there was a shift towards religious tolerance and respect for Indian customs. This was partly a response to the backlash against perceived cultural insensitivity that contributed to the uprising.

NATIONALISM AND UNITY

- Although ultimately unsuccessful, the revolt fostered a sense of nationalism among Indians and laid the groundwork for future movements against colonial rule.
- It highlighted widespread discontent with British rule and served as a rallying point for later independence efforts.

TIMELINE FOR ACTIVE RECALL: REVOLT OF 1857

Prelude to the Revolt (February - April 1857)

- **February 26, 1857:** 19th Native Infantry at Berhampore refuses to use greased cartridges.
- **March 29, 1857:** Mangal Pandey attacks British officers at Barrackpore; executed on April 8.
- **April 1857:** Rising tensions among sepoys due to military grievances.

Outbreak of the Revolt (May 1857)

- **May 9, 1857:** 85 sepoys in Meerut refuse to use greased cartridges; sentenced to 10 years in prison.
- **May 10, 1857:** Mutiny begins in Meerut; sepoys march to Delhi.
- **May 11, 1857:** Bahadur Shah II proclaimed leader in Delhi.

Spread of the Rebellion (May - June 1857)

- **June 6, 1857:** Siege of Cawnpore begins under Nana Sahib.
- **June 1857:** Jhansi captured by rebels; Rani Lakshmi Bai leads resistance.
- **Key Leaders:** Nana Sahib (Kanpur); Begum Hazrat Mahal (Lucknow); Rani Lakshmi Bai (Jhansi)

British Response and Suppression (July - September 1857)

- **July 1857:** British recapture Kanpur and Lucknow.
- **September 21, 1857:** Siege of Delhi ends; British reoccupy the city.

Decline of the Revolt (October 1857 - June 1858)

- **October 1857:** Guerrilla warfare continues in various regions.
- **June 17, 1858:** Rani Lakshmi Bai dies in battle near Gwalior.

- **June 20, 1858:** Final suppression of the revolt; Gwalior falls.

Aftermath and Consequences

- **1858:** Government of India Act abolishes East India Company rule; British Crown assumes control.
- **Doctrine of Lapse abolished:** Indian rulers' rights recognized.
- **Shift in British policies:** Religious tolerance and respect for Indian customs emphasized.

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SOCIO-RELIGIOUS REFORM MOVEMENTS

PREVALENT SOCIAL ISSUES OF THE EARLY 19TH CENTURY IN INDIA

- **Female Infanticide**
 - The killing of female infants was a widespread practice due to a cultural preference for male children. This led to a significant gender imbalance and highlighted the low status of women in society.
- **Child Marriage**
 - Child marriage was commonly practiced, with girls often married off at a very young age, frequently to much older men. This practice severely limited women's rights and opportunities throughout their lives.
- **Sati Pratha**
 - The practice of sati, where widows were compelled to self-immolate on their husband's funeral pyre, was prevalent. This horrific custom not only endangered women's lives but also reflected the extreme subordination they faced in society.
- **Polygamy**
 - Polygamy was accepted among many communities, allowing men to have multiple wives. This further entrenched gender inequality and often left many women without support or rights.
- **Rigid Caste System**
 - The caste system was deeply entrenched, creating rigid social hierarchies that dictated individuals' social status and opportunities based on birth rather than merit. This system perpetuated inequality and exploitation, particularly affecting lower castes and marginalized groups.
- **Lack of Education**
 - Education was predominantly accessible only to upper-caste males, leading to widespread illiteracy among the majority of the population, especially women. This lack of education hindered social progress and awareness of rights.

CLASSIFICATION OF REFORM MOVEMENTS

REFORMIST MOVEMENTS

- These movements sought to modernize and reform existing social and religious structures. They emphasized rationalism, social equality, and the eradication of social evils.
 - **Brahmo Samaj:** Founded by Raja Rammohan Roy in 1828, it aimed to promote monotheism and rational thought while opposing practices like sati and child marriage.
 - **Prarthana Samaj:** Established in 1867, it focused on social reforms such as widow remarriage and women's education.
 - **Aligarh Movement:** Led by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, this movement sought to modernize Muslim education by integrating Western scientific knowledge while adhering to Islamic principles.

REVIVALIST MOVEMENTS

- Revivalist movements aimed to return to traditional values and practices that were perceived to be under threat from Western influences.
 - **Arya Samaj:** Founded by Swami Dayananda Saraswati in 1875, it sought a return to Vedic principles, rejecting idol worship and caste discrimination.
 - **Deoband Movement:** Focused on Islamic revivalism, it emphasized a return to traditional Islamic teachings and practices.
 - **Ramakrishna Mission:** Established by Swami Vivekananda in 1897, it aimed at spiritual revival and social service, advocating for religious tolerance.

KEY FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE RISE OF REFORM MOVEMENTS

- **Colonial Influence**
 - The British colonial presence introduced modern ideas such as liberty, equality, and justice, which challenged traditional practices and beliefs. This exposure to Western thought prompted many Indian reformers to advocate for social change and modernization.
- **Social Stagnation and Caste System**
 - Indian society was deeply entrenched in a rigid caste system that perpetuated inequality and discrimination. The oppressive nature of this system, along with practices like sati (the burning of widows) and child marriage, highlighted the

urgent need for reform. Reformers sought to abolish these practices and promote social equality.

- **Enlightenment Ideas**

- The Enlightenment brought forth ideals of rationalism and humanism, which inspired Indian thinkers to question superstition and dogma. Leaders like Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar were pivotal in promoting education and rational thought as means to uplift society.

- **Women's Rights**

- The deplorable conditions faced by women in society galvanized reform efforts focused on women's rights, including education, widow remarriage, and the abolition of practices that oppressed women. This focus was crucial in the broader context of social reform.

- **Emergence of Nationalism**

- The socio-religious reform movements coincided with the rise of nationalist sentiments in India. As people became more aware of their rights and societal injustices, these movements contributed to a collective consciousness that laid the groundwork for India's struggle for independence.

- **Leadership of Educated Middle Class**

- Many reform movements were spearheaded by educated middle-class individuals who were influenced by Western education and ideas. This group played a critical role in advocating for change through various organizations and movements, such as the Brahmo Samaj and Arya Samaj

REFORM MOVEMENTS

BRAHMO SAMAJ AND RAJA RAM MOHAN ROY

- Brahmo Samaj is a significant socio-religious reform movement in India, founded by Raja Ram Mohan Roy in 1828 during the Bengal Renaissance.
- This movement aimed to modernize Hindu society by promoting monotheism and addressing social evils prevalent at the time.

RAJA RAM MOHAN ROY

- **Birth and Early Life:** Raja Ram Mohan Roy was born on May 22, 1772, in Bengal. He was educated in various religious and philosophical traditions, including Hinduism, Islam, and Christianity.
- **Title of Raja:** He was conferred the title of "Raja" by Mughal Emperor Akbar II in recognition of his contributions to society.
- **Reformist Activities:** Roy was a pioneer in advocating for women's rights, opposing practices such as sati (the burning of widows), child marriage, and caste discrimination. He also emphasized the importance of education and rational thought.

FOUNDING OF BRAHMO SAMAJ

- **Initial Formation:** The movement began as the Atmiya Sabha in 1815, focusing on religious discussions among friends. It was later renamed Brahmo Sabha in 1828 and subsequently became known as Brahmo Samaj.
- **Core Principles:**
 - Monotheism: Emphasis on the worship of one eternal God.
 - Opposition to Ritualism: Rejection of idol worship and meaningless rituals.
 - Universal Brotherhood: Advocacy for equality among all individuals regardless of caste or creed.
 - Social Reform: Focus on abolishing social evils such as sati, promoting widow remarriage, and advocating for women's education and property rights.

IMPACT OF BRAHMO SAMAJ

- **Cultural Renaissance:** Brahmo Samaj played a crucial role in the Bengal Renaissance, influencing various aspects of Indian culture, education, and social reform. It laid the groundwork for future movements advocating for rationalism and enlightenment in India.
- **Legacy:** Although it eventually split into factions like the Adi Brahmo Samaj and Sadharan Brahmo Samaj, its influence persisted in shaping modern Indian thought and social structures. The principles established by Roy continue to resonate within contemporary discussions on social justice and reform.

MAJOR SPLITS IN BRAHMO SAMAJ

FORMATION OF ADI BRAHMO SAMAJ (1866)

- After Raja Ram Mohan Roy's death, Debendranath Tagore led the original Brahmo Samaj, which focused on spiritual and philosophical reform. However, Keshab Chandra Sen, who joined the movement in 1858, advocated for more radical reforms, including the incorporation of diverse religious teachings and a strong stance against the caste system.
- In 1866, disagreements between Tagore and Sen culminated in a split, resulting in the formation of two factions:
 - Adi Brahmo Samaj led by Debendranath Tagore.
 - Brahmo Samaj of India founded by Keshab Chandra Sen.

SADHARAN BRAHMO SAMAJ (1878)

- The Brahmo Samaj of India faced internal conflicts due to Keshab's increasingly authoritarian leadership and controversial actions, such as the marriage of his underage daughter in a traditional Hindu ceremony. This led to dissatisfaction among his followers.
- In 1878, a faction of Keshab's followers broke away to establish the Sadharan Brahmo Samaj, which aimed to return to more traditional Brahmo principles while advocating for social justice and rationalism. Key figures in this new organization included Ananda Mohan Bose and Umesh Chandra Dutta.

TATTWABODHINI SABHA

- The Tattwabodhini Sabha was established on October 6, 1839, by Debendranath Tagore in Calcutta (now Kolkata). Initially named the Tattvaranjini Sabha, it was formed as a splinter group from the Brahmo Samaj, aiming to promote a rational and humanistic interpretation of Hinduism based on the Vedanta and the Upanishads.
- The Sabha sought to counteract the influence of Western culture and Christian missionaries, fostering national consciousness and patriotic sentiments among the educated classes of India.

OBJECTIVES AND INFLUENCE

- **Promoting Rationality:** Advocating for a more reasoned understanding of Hinduism, distancing itself from traditional views deemed outdated.

- **Cultural Preservation:** Defending Indian culture against perceived threats from Western ideologies and missionary activities.
- **Social Reform:** Working towards the elimination of religious dogmas and increasing social awareness, thereby contributing to political awakening against British colonial rule.

EFFORTS OF ISHWAR CHANDRA VIDYASAGAR

- Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar was a pivotal figure in the 19th-century Indian reform movements, particularly known for his contributions to women's rights and education.
- His work aimed to transform society from within, challenging traditional norms and advocating for progressive changes.

MAJOR REFORM MOVEMENTS

- **Advocacy for Women's Rights**

- **Widow Remarriage:** Vidyasagar was instrumental in promoting widow remarriage, culminating in the Widow Remarriage Act of 1856. He authored the book *Bidhobabivah* in 1855, which argued for the right of widows to remarry, challenging the prevailing social stigma against them.
- **Opposition to Child Marriage:** He campaigned vigorously against child marriage, highlighting its detrimental effects on women's health and social standing. His efforts were part of a broader push towards social justice and equality.

- **Educational Reforms**

- **Promotion of Women's Education:** Vidyasagar established approximately 35 schools for girls across Bengal, emphasizing the importance of education as a means to empower women. He actively sought families' consent to enroll their daughters in these schools, demonstrating his commitment to female education.
- **Inclusive Education:** As the principal of Sanskrit College, he opened its doors to students from lower castes, breaking the caste barriers that restricted access to education. He introduced English and modern subjects alongside traditional Sanskrit studies, reforming the educational curriculum significantly.

- **Opposition to Polygamy**

- Vidyasagar was a vocal critic of polygamy, particularly the practice among Kulin Brahmins, where men often had numerous wives, including underage girls. He authored Bahubivah in 1871, advocating for its abolition and promoting monogamous marriages as a more ethical alternative.

YOUNG BENGAL MOVEMENT

- The Young Bengal Movement was a significant intellectual and cultural movement that emerged in the early 19th century in Bengal, India.
- Founded by Henry Louis Vivian Derozio, a radical thinker and educator at Hindu College in Calcutta, the movement aimed to challenge traditional norms and promote liberal ideas among the youth.
- The followers of this movement were known as Derozians, who sought to foster critical thinking, rationalism, and individual liberty.

KEY FEATURES OF THE MOVEMENT

- **Radical Ideas:** The Young Bengal Movement was characterized by its rejection of orthodox customs and traditions. Derozio encouraged his students to question established beliefs and engage in free thought.
- **Social Reform:** The Derozians advocated for various social reforms, including women's education and rights, as well as the abolition of caste discrimination and idol worship.
- **Intellectual Awakening:** The movement played a crucial role in the intellectual awakening of Bengal, promoting Western learning and Enlightenment ideals among its followers.

HENRY VIVIAN DEROZIO'S ROLE

- Henry Vivian Derozio (1809-1831) was pivotal in shaping the Young Bengal Movement through his teaching and writings. Born into an Indo-Portuguese family, he was influenced by Enlightenment principles and the Romantic poets of Europe.
- At just 17 years old, he began teaching at Hindu College, where he quickly gained a reputation for his dynamic lectures that encouraged students to explore contemporary literature and philosophy over traditional texts.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION AND THOUGHT

- **Teaching Philosophy:** Derozio's teachings emphasized rationalism over tradition. He encouraged students to read works by thinkers like Thomas Paine, promoting ideas of liberty and social justice.
- **Literary Contributions:** He is regarded as the first national poet of modern India, with notable works such as "To India - My Native Land" and "The Fakeer of Jungheera," which reflect his patriotic sentiments.
- **Formation of Associations:** Under his guidance, students formed associations for debate and discussion on various subjects, fostering an environment of intellectual inquiry.

PRARTHANA SAMAJ

- Prarthana Samaj, meaning "Prayer Society" in Sanskrit, is a significant socio-religious reform movement that originated in Bombay (now Mumbai) in 1867.
- It was founded by Dr. Atmaram Pandurang, with notable contributions from prominent reformers like Mahadev Govind Ranade and R.G. Bhandarkar.
- The movement aimed to address social injustices and promote a more rational approach to spirituality while remaining rooted in Hindu traditions.

OBJECTIVES AND SOCIAL AGENDA

- **Elimination of Caste Discrimination:** The movement sought to challenge the rigid caste system prevalent in society.
- **Promotion of Women's Education:** Advocating for the education and empowerment of women was a key focus.
- **Widow Remarriage:** The society campaigned for the acceptance and legalization of widow remarriage.
- **Prohibition of Child Marriage:** It aimed to eradicate child marriage practices.
- **Encouragement of Rational Thought:** Emphasizing rationalism over superstition and rigid rituals was central to its philosophy.

KEY FIGURES

- **Dr. Atmaram Pandurang:** Founder and key advocate for social reform.

- **Mahadev Govind Ranade:** A significant figure who contributed to the movement's intellectual foundation and was involved in various social initiatives.
- **R.G. Bhandarkar:** A noted historian whose scholarship supported the movement's goals.

SATYASHODHAK SAMAJ

- Satyashodhak Samaj, founded by Mahatma Jyotiba Phule on September 24, 1873, in Pune, Maharashtra, was a pivotal social reform society aimed at addressing the injustices faced by marginalized communities, particularly Dalits, Shudras, and women.
- The name translates to "Truth-seekers' Society," reflecting its commitment to social equality and justice.

OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

- **Emancipation of the oppressed:** The society sought to uplift individuals from lower castes and women, promoting their rights and access to education.
- **Opposition to caste hierarchy:** Phule vehemently denounced the caste system and the orthodox practices of Brahmanism, advocating for a more egalitarian society.
- **Promotion of education:** Establishing educational initiatives was a cornerstone of the Samaj's mission, aiming to enlighten the underprivileged about their rights and societal roles.
- **Social reform:** The Samaj engaged in various activities to combat social evils such as untouchability and gender discrimination, facilitating discussions and raising awareness through publications and public gatherings.

JYOTIBA PHULE

- Jyotiba Phule, born on April 11, 1827, in Pune, Maharashtra, emerged from a lower-caste Mali family. His father was a vegetable vendor, and his upbringing instilled in him a deep awareness of the social injustices faced by marginalized communities.
- Phule dedicated his life to challenging the oppressive caste system and advocating for the rights of marginalized groups, particularly Dalits and women. In 1873, he founded the Satyashodhak Samaj (Society of Seekers of Truth), which aimed to promote social equality and fight against discrimination based on caste and gender.

- He was instrumental in opening the first school for girls in India in 1848, recognizing the urgent need for female education.
- Phule authored several influential texts, including Gulamgiri (Slavery) and Shetkaryacha Asud (Cultivator's Whip), which critiqued societal norms and highlighted the struggles of oppressed communities. His writings continue to inspire contemporary movements for social justice.

SAVITRIBAI PHULE

- Savitribai Phule was born on January 3, 1831, into a peasant family. At the age of ten, she was married to Jyotiba Phule, who was thirteen at the time. Their marriage occurred during a period when child marriages were prevalent.
- Savitribai became India's first female teacher and played a crucial role in promoting education for girls and women. She co-founded the first girls' school with Jyotiba in Pune, breaking societal norms that restricted women's access to education. Despite facing severe opposition from conservative elements of society, she persisted in her efforts to educate women from all backgrounds.
- In addition to her work in education, Savitribai was an advocate for widow remarriage and worked against child marriage. She also established a care center for pregnant widows to provide safe delivery services and combat infanticide practices prevalent at the time.
- Savitribai wrote poetry that addressed social issues and inspired many to join the fight against oppression. Her literary work remains significant in understanding women's struggles during her time.

RAMAKRISHNA MISSION

- The Ramakrishna Mission, founded in 1897 by Swami Vivekananda, is a socio-spiritual organization dedicated to humanitarian service and social reform. It emerged from the teachings of Sri Ramakrishna Paramahansa, emphasizing the service of humanity as a means to serve God.
- The mission has played a pivotal role in addressing various social issues in India, promoting values such as equality, compassion, and education.

OBJECTIVES

- **Eradicating Superstition and Untouchability:** The mission actively worked against social evils like untouchability and superstitions that plagued Indian society.
- **Advancing Women's Rights:** It promoted women's education and empowerment, advocating for their rights in a traditionally patriarchal society.
- **Educational Reform:** The mission established numerous schools and educational institutions aimed at providing quality education to all, particularly focusing on marginalized communities.
- **Promoting Secularism:** Swami Vivekananda's teachings emphasized that all religions lead to the same truth, fostering an environment of interfaith harmony.

SWAMI VIVEKANANDA

- Vivekananda's most notable contribution came during the Parliament of the World's Religions in Chicago in 1893. His opening words, "Sisters and brothers of America," captivated the audience and marked a significant moment in the introduction of Hinduism to the West.
- His speech emphasized tolerance and universal acceptance, which resonated deeply with the attendees. Following this event, he traveled extensively across the United States and Europe, delivering lectures that promoted Hindu philosophy and spirituality.
- Vivekananda's teachings emphasized the unity of all religions and the importance of self-realization. He believed that true spirituality transcended dogma and that serving humanity was essential for personal growth.
- His approach combined Indian spirituality with Western ideals of progress, advocating for social reform in India by addressing issues like child marriage and illiteracy.

SELF-RESPECT MOVEMENT

- The Self-Respect Movement, founded by E.V. Ramasamy Naicker, commonly known as Periyar, in 1925, aimed to dismantle the entrenched social hierarchies of caste and gender in Indian society, particularly in Tamil Nadu.
- This movement was a significant response to the oppressive structures of the time, advocating for equality, justice, and rationalism.

KEY OBJECTIVES

- **Dismantling Caste Hierarchies:** The movement sought to challenge the Brahmanical hegemony that dominated social, religious, and political life in India. It aimed to eradicate caste-based discrimination and promote the rights of marginalized communities, particularly those from lower castes.
- **Promoting Gender Equality:** Periyar recognized that the oppression of women was closely linked to caste discrimination. The movement advocated for women's rights, including access to education, employment opportunities, and marital rights, thereby laying the groundwork for future reforms in gender equality.
- **Rationalism and Critique of Superstition:** Central to the movement was a strong emphasis on rational thought. Periyar rejected traditional religious dogmas that justified social inequalities and encouraged individuals to question superstitions and irrational beliefs.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY

- The Servants of India Society (SIS) was established on June 12, 1905, in Pune, Maharashtra, by Gopal Krishna Gokhale, a prominent leader in the Indian nationalist movement. The society aimed to train individuals as national missionaries dedicated to serving the country and promoting the welfare of its people through constitutional means.
- This organization was notable for being the first secular group in India focused on uplifting underprivileged communities, including rural and tribal populations, while addressing various social issues like education, healthcare, and discrimination.

OBJECTIVES

- **Training National Missionaries:** The society sought to cultivate a cadre of selfless workers committed to national service.
- **Promotion of Education:** It aimed to enhance literacy rates and provide educational opportunities for disadvantaged groups.
- **Social Welfare Initiatives:** The SIS engaged in numerous activities targeting social problems such as untouchability, alcoholism, poverty, and domestic violence.
- **Health and Sanitation:** The organization worked towards improving public health and sanitation standards in communities.

SINGH SABHA MOVEMENT

- The Singh Sabha Movement was a significant Sikh reform movement that emerged in the late 19th century, specifically around 1873, in response to the proselytizing efforts of Christian missionaries and Hindu reform movements such as the Arya Samaj.
- This movement aimed to revive and restore Sikhism to its original tenets and values, which had been perceived as diluted or corrupted over time due to external influences and internal deviations.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The movement arose during a period when the Sikh Empire had been dismantled by British colonial forces, leading to a loss of prestige for the Khalsa and a concerning trend of Sikh conversions to other religions.
- The founders of the Singh Sabha sought to address these challenges by promoting education, literacy, and a return to the core teachings of the Sikh Gurus.

FOUNDING AND OBJECTIVES

- The Singh Sabha was formally established on October 1, 1873, in Amritsar, following a meeting led by prominent Sikh figures such as Sardar Thakur Singh Sandhanvalia and Giani Gian Singh. The primary objectives of the movement included:
 - Reviving Sikh Teachings: To propagate the true essence of Sikhism and restore it to its pristine glory.
 - Literary Contributions: To write and distribute religious literature in Punjabi using Gurmukhi script, thereby increasing accessibility to Sikh texts.
 - Educational Reform: To enhance literacy among Sikhs and educate them about their heritage.

KEY ACTIVITIES

- **Preaching Against Superstitions:** The Singh Sabha members actively campaigned against idol worship, caste discrimination, and other practices they deemed contrary to Sikh teachings.
- **Community Engagement:** They organized meetings, lectures, and preaching tours across Punjab to inspire Sikhs to adhere to their faith's original principles.

- **Social Reforms:** The movement sought to eliminate social evils such as alcohol consumption and promote a more egalitarian society within the Sikh community.

RAHANUMAI MAZDAYASAN SABHA (RELIGIOUS REFORM ASSOCIATION)

- The Rahanumai Mazdayasan Sabha (Religious Reform Association) was established in 1851 in Bombay (now Mumbai) by a group of progressive, Western-educated Parsis, including notable figures such as Naoroji Furdonji, Dadabhai Naoroji, and S.S. Bengalee.
- The primary aim of the Sabha was to regenerate the social conditions of the Parsi community and restore the Zoroastrian religion to its original purity.

OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

- **Social Reform:** It aimed to uplift the social status of Parsis, particularly advocating for the education of women and the abolition of practices like child marriage. The organization worked towards increasing the legal age of marriage and promoting women's emancipation.
- **Educational Initiatives:** Education was considered the cornerstone of their reform efforts. The Sabha campaigned for Western education among Parsis, including girls, and emphasized the importance of training for Parsi priests.
- **Publication:** The Sabha published a weekly journal called Rast Goftar (Voice of Truth), which served as a platform to spread their reformist ideas and engage with community issues.
- **Conferences:** To further their cause, the Sabha organized Zoroastrian Conferences starting in 1890, which addressed various social, religious, and educational issues facing the community.

THEOSOPHICAL MOVEMENT

- The Theosophical Movement is a spiritual and philosophical movement that emerged in the late 19th century, primarily founded by Helena Petrovna Blavatsky and Colonel Henry Steel Olcott in New York City in 1875. It sought to explore the underlying unity of all religions and promote universal brotherhood.

FOUNDING AND DEVELOPMENT

- **Founders:** The movement was co-founded by Helena Petrovna Blavatsky, a Russian mystic, and Colonel Henry Steel Olcott, an American lawyer and military officer. They were later joined by William Quan Judge.
- **Initial Goals:** The primary objectives included the study of comparative religion, philosophy, and science, as well as investigating unexplained natural laws and the latent powers within humans.
- **Headquarters:** In 1882, the headquarters moved to Adyar, near Madras (now Chennai), India, reflecting a growing interest in Eastern philosophies.

CORE BELIEFS

- **Universal Brotherhood:** The movement emphasizes the idea of a universal brotherhood of humanity without distinctions based on race, creed, or social status.
- **Reincarnation and Karma:** It accepts Hindu concepts of reincarnation and karma, viewing life as a cycle of spiritual evolution.
- **Spiritual Adepts:** Theosophists believe in a group of enlightened beings known as "Masters" or "Mahatmas," who guide humanity towards spiritual awakening.

SOCIAL IMPACT

- **Social Reforms:** The movement actively opposed caste discrimination and child marriage, advocating for women's rights and education for marginalized groups.
- **Educational Initiatives:** Under the leadership of figures like Annie Besant, who became president after Olcott's death in 1907, the Society established educational institutions such as the Central Hindu College in Benaras.

SOME OTHER REFORMIST ORGANISATIONS

SEVA SADAN

- Seva Sadan was established in 1908 in Mumbai by social reformers Shri Behramji Malabari and Diwan Dayaram Gidumal.
- Their mission was to create a safe haven for underprivileged women, particularly those who were widowed or destitute, providing them with shelter, education, and opportunities for empowerment during a time of significant societal oppression.

INDIAN NATIONAL SOCIAL CONFERENCE (1887)

- Founders: M.G. Ranade and Raghunath Rao aimed to address social issues that were often overlooked by the Indian National Congress, which primarily focused on political matters.
- Inaugural Meeting: The first session took place in Madras in December 1887, and it continued to meet annually alongside the Indian National Congress.
- To promote intercaste marriages and oppose practices like kulinism (the practice of polygamy among certain Hindu castes) and polygamy.
- To launch initiatives like the Pledge Movement, which encouraged individuals to take an oath against child marriage

WIDOW REMARRIAGE ASSOCIATION

- The Widow Remarriage Association was founded in the 1850s by Vishnu Shastri Pandit, a notable social reformer who advocated for the rights of widows in India. This organization aimed to promote the remarriage of widows, addressing the societal stigma and restrictions they faced at the time.

GURDWARA REFORM MOVEMENT

- The Gurdwara Reform Movement, also known as the Akali Movement, emerged in the early 1920s as a significant socio-religious campaign aimed at reforming Sikh places of worship, known as gurdwaras.
- The movement sought to liberate these institutions from the control of corrupt hereditary custodians known as mahants and to ensure their management aligned with true Sikh principles.
- The movement was initiated in response to widespread corruption and mismanagement within gurdwaras, where mahants exploited funds and engaged in practices contrary to Sikh teachings.
- This situation prompted prominent Sikh leaders to call for reform, leading to the establishment of the Shiromani Gurdwara Parbandhak Committee (SGPC) in 1920, which aimed to oversee gurdwara administration democratically and transparently.

ANJUMAN-I-PUNJAB (1865)

- **Promotion of Vernacular Literature:** The Anjuman sought to develop and disseminate vernacular literature in Punjabi, Urdu, and Hindi, thereby making education and literary resources more accessible to the general populace.

- **Revival of Classical Learning:** It aimed to revive interest in classical languages such as Arabic and Sanskrit, encouraging their study alongside modern subjects.
- **Introduction of European Science:** The organization focused on introducing European scientific knowledge through education delivered in local languages, thereby bridging traditional and modern educational practices.
- **Support for Popular Education:** The Anjuman engaged in various educational activities, including establishing primary schools, organizing literary discussions, and promoting public libraries to foster a culture of learning and intellectual engagement within the community

SATNAMI MOVEMENT

- The Satnami movement is rooted in a rejection of Brahmanical supremacy and rigid caste practices. Guru Ghasidas, a prominent leader of the movement in Chhattisgarh during the early 19th century, further developed its ideology by advocating for equality among all human beings and promoting ethical living devoid of caste discrimination.
- He emphasized principles such as "Manav Manav Ek Saman" (All humans are equal) and rejected idol worship and caste-based rituals.

REVIVALIST ORGANISATIONS

ARYA SAMAJ

- The Arya Samaj is a significant socio-religious reform movement in India, founded by Swami Dayanand Saraswati in 1875.
- Its establishment marked a pivotal moment in Hindu reform, emphasizing a return to Vedic principles and addressing various social injustices prevalent in Indian society.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT AND PHILOSOPHY

- **Founding:** Established on April 10, 1875, in Bombay (now Mumbai), the Arya Samaj sought to counteract the influences of colonialism and religious orthodoxy while promoting social justice and equality.
- **Core Philosophy:** The movement's slogan, "Go Back to the Vedas," encapsulates its mission to revive the authority of the Vedas as the ultimate source of spiritual

knowledge. It rejected superstitions, idol worship, and rituals that had deviated from original Vedic teachings, advocating for monotheism and rational thought.

KEY SOCIAL REFORMS

- **Educational Initiatives:** The movement prioritized education as a means of reform. It established numerous schools and colleges, including the Dayananda Anglo-Vedic (DAV) institutions, promoting both Vedic education and modern subjects.
- **Gender Equality:** Arya Samaj was at the forefront of advocating for women's rights, supporting initiatives such as women's education and widow remarriage. It challenged patriarchal norms and worked towards integrating women into society as equals.
- **Caste Abolition:** The movement actively campaigned against caste discrimination, promoting a vision of a casteless society. It emphasized equality among all individuals, regardless of their caste background

DAYANAND SARASWATI

- Dayanand Saraswati, born as Mool Shankar Tiwari on February 12, 1824, in Tankara, Gujarat, was a prominent Hindu philosopher, social reformer, and the founder of the Arya Samaj
- Saraswati authored several influential texts, with Satyarth Prakash being one of his most notable works. This book outlines his interpretations of Vedic philosophy and critiques various social practices that he deemed harmful.
- He also popularized the concept of Swaraj, advocating for self-rule in India long before it became a widespread political movement.

WAHABI MOVEMENT

- The Wahhabi Movement is a significant revivalist movement within Sunni Islam, founded in the 18th century by Muhammad ibn 'Abd al-Wahhab in Arabia. Its primary aim was to purify Islam by eliminating practices deemed un-Islamic that had developed over centuries. The movement later influenced various Islamic reform movements globally, including the Wahabi Movement in India, led by Saiyid Ahmad of Rai Bareilly.
- The movement emerged as a response to perceived degeneration within Muslim societies, particularly due to Western influences. It sought to restore a form of Islam

that emphasized individual interpretation and adherence to the Quran and Hadith, moving away from rigid traditionalism.

- The movement aimed to harmonize the four schools of Islamic jurisprudence and promote individual conscience in religious matters. This was significant in addressing conflicts arising from different interpretations of Islamic texts.
- Initially, the Wahhabi movement focused its efforts against the Sikh state in Punjab, launching jihad against it. However, after the British annexation of Punjab in 1849, its focus shifted towards opposing British colonial rule in India.

DEOBANDI MOVEMENT

- The Deobandi movement, also known as Deobandism, is a significant revivalist movement within Sunni Islam that emerged in the late 19th century.
- It is named after the town of Deoband in India, where it was founded in 1866 by prominent scholars such as Muhammad Qasim Nanautavi and Rashid Ahmad Gangohi.
- The movement arose in response to British colonial rule and aimed to preserve traditional Islamic teachings while resisting Western influences and modernist ideologies.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The Deobandi movement was established following the Indian Rebellion of 1857, which highlighted the perceived threats posed by colonialism to Islamic faith and practices.
- The founders sought to restore the moral and religious integrity of the Muslim community through education, establishing the Darul Uloom Deoband, an Islamic seminary that became a central institution for Islamic scholarship in South Asia and beyond.

OBJECTIVES AND BELIEFS

- **Preservation of Islamic Teachings:** Upholding the teachings of the Quran and Hadith while promoting a return to orthodox Islamic practices.

- **Educational Reform:** Developing a robust educational framework for training religious leaders (ulama) who could guide the community in spiritual and political matters.
- **Political Engagement:** Initially opposing British rule, the movement later advocated for composite nationalism, emphasizing unity among Hindus and Muslims against colonial powers.

OVERVIEW OF LEGISLATIVE MEASURES AND SOCIAL REFORMS FOR WOMEN IN INDIA

EARLY REFORMS (1800-1900)

- **Key Legislative Changes:**
 - **Abolition of Sati (1829):** Raja Ram Mohan Roy played a pivotal role in the abolition of the practice of sati, where widows were compelled to self-immolate on their husband's funeral pyre. This was a landmark moment in the fight against oppressive traditions.
 - **Widow Remarriage Act (1856):** Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar's advocacy led to the enactment of this act, which allowed Hindu widows to remarry, thereby challenging societal norms that marginalized widows.
 - **Age of Consent Act (1891):** This act raised the legal age for marriage, aiming to protect young girls from child marriage, which was prevalent at the time.
- **Social Reform Movements:**
 - The 19th century saw the emergence of various social reformers like Jyotirao Phule and Savitribai Phule, who established schools for girls and promoted female education against significant societal resistance.
 - Female reformers like Pandita Ramabai founded organizations such as the Arya Mahila Samaj in 1882, which focused on women's education and empowerment.

NATIONALIST MOVEMENT AND WOMEN'S ACTIVISM (1915-1947)

- **Integration into Nationalism:**
 - During this period, the Indian independence movement became a platform for women's activism. Mahatma Gandhi's inclusion of women in the Quit India Movement legitimized their public roles and encouraged participation in

political activism. Women engaged actively in protests against colonial rule, advocating for both national independence and gender equality.

- **Legislative Developments:**

- The **Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929)**, also known as the Sarda Act, raised the minimum age of marriage for girls to 14 years. This legislation was crucial in combating child marriage practices but faced challenges in enforcement.
- The All-India Women's Conference was founded in 1927 to promote women's education and health, further solidifying women's roles in social reform.

POST-INDEPENDENCE REFORMS (1947-1950)

- With India's independence in 1947, the newly formed government focused on enshrining gender equality within its legal framework. The Indian Constitution adopted in 1950 guaranteed fundamental rights irrespective of gender, abolishing untouchability and prohibiting discrimination based on sex.
- **Key Legislative Milestones:**
 - Hindu Code Bills (1950s): These series of laws aimed to reform Hindu personal law concerning marriage, divorce, and inheritance rights for women, marking a significant step toward gender equality.
 - Dowry Prohibition Act (1961): Although enacted after 1950, it stemmed from earlier movements against dowry-related violence and harassment against women

TIMELINE OF SOCIO-RELIGIOUS REFORM MOVEMENTS

Early 19th Century: Social Issues

- **Female Infanticide:** Gender imbalance due to cultural preference for male children.
- **Child Marriage:** Widespread practice impacting women's rights and opportunities.
- **Sati Pratha:** Self-immolation of widows on their husband's funeral pyre.
- **Polygamy:** Practice entrenched in gender inequality.
- **Rigid Caste System:** Hierarchies based on birth perpetuating discrimination.

- **Lack of Education:** Literacy limited to upper-caste males; women largely excluded.

Reformist Movements

- **1828: Brahmo Samaj** founded by Raja Ram Mohan Roy to promote monotheism and rationalism, opposing sati and child marriage.
- **1839: Tattwabodhini Sabha** established by Debendranath Tagore for rational Hinduism based on Vedanta.
- **1848:** Jyotiba Phule opens the first school for girls.
- **1856:** Widow Remarriage Act promoted by Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar.
- **1867: Prarthana Samaj** founded in Bombay advocating widow remarriage and women's education.
- **1873: Satyashodhak Samaj** founded by Jyotiba Phule to fight caste oppression and promote social equality.
- **1897: Ramakrishna Mission** established by Swami Vivekananda emphasizing spiritual revival and social service.
- **1905: Servants of India Society** created by Gopal Krishna Gokhale for social welfare and national service.

Revivalist Movements

- **1875: Arya Samaj** founded by Swami Dayanand Saraswati, advocating a return to Vedic principles, rejecting idol worship, and promoting equality.
- **1866: Deoband Movement** established to preserve orthodox Islamic teachings.
- **1897: Ramakrishna Mission** focuses on spiritual revival and interfaith harmony.

Women's Rights and Legislative Reforms

- **1829:** Sati practice abolished.
- **1856:** Widow Remarriage Act.
- **1891:** Age of Consent Act raised marriageable age for girls.
- **1929:** Child Marriage Restraint Act combats child marriage.
- **1950:** Indian Constitution enshrines gender equality.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION, PRESS AND OTHER DEVELOPMENTS UNDER BRITISH

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION

PHASES OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INITIAL PHASE (PRE-1813)

- **Orientalist Approach:** Early British administrators like Warren Hastings (Calcutta Madrasa, 1781) and Jonathan Duncan (Sanskrit College, 1791) promoted traditional Indian learning in Persian, Arabic, and Sanskrit to train interpreters and administrators.
- **Limited Intervention:** The East India Company initially avoided direct involvement in education, focusing instead on administrative consolidation.

TRANSITION TO WESTERN EDUCATION (1813–1853)

- **Charter Act of 1813:** Allocated ₹1 lakh annually for education, marking the first state funding for education in India.
- **Anglicist-Orientalist Debate:**
 - *Orientalists* advocated preserving indigenous learning.
 - *Anglicists* (led by Macaulay) pushed for English-medium education to create a class of "interpreters" loyal to British interests.
- **Macaulay's Minute (1835):** Introduced English as the medium of instruction, prioritizing Western sciences and literature over traditional knowledge.

INSTITUTIONAL REFORMS (1854–1900)

- **Wood's Dispatch (1854):**
 - Established a graded education system (schools → colleges → universities).
 - Recommended vernacular education at primary levels and English for higher studies.

- **Universities Established:**
 - Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras Universities (1857) modeled on London University.
- **Technical Education:** Limited focus, with only three medical colleges and one engineering college (Roorkee) by 1857.

20TH-CENTURY REFORMS

- **Indian Universities Act (1904):** Centralized university governance, emphasizing research and affiliation reforms.
- **Hartog Committee (1929):** Highlighted overemphasis on university education and neglect of primary schooling.
- **Wardha Scheme (1937):** Gandhi's proposal for free compulsory education in mother tongue up to age 14, though shelved post-1939.
- **Sargent Plan (1944):** Proposed universal education up to age 14, but remained unimplemented.

IMPACT OF BRITISH EDUCATION

POSITIVE CONTRIBUTIONS

- **Modern Curriculum:** Introduced Western sciences, rationalism, and social reform ideas, aiding movements against practices like Sati.
- **National Consciousness:** English became a unifying language, fostering pan-Indian identity and nationalist thought.
- **Institutional Framework:** Laid foundations for universities, civil services, and legal systems.

CRITICISMS AND LIMITATIONS

- **Elitist Focus:** The "Downward Filtration Theory" prioritized educating elites, neglecting mass literacy (94% illiteracy in 1911).

- **Neglect of Vernaculars:** Vernacular education remained underfunded, stunting primary education.
- **Gender Disparity:** Minimal investment in female education; only 2% of girls were literate by 1921.
- **Technical Neglect:** Emphasis on humanities over technical training hindered industrial growth.

KEY POLICIES AND THEIR OBJECTIVES

Policy/Reform	Key Features
Charter Act (1813)	First state funding for education; focus on "revival of Oriental literature".
Macaulay's Minute	English as medium of instruction; promotion of Western sciences.
Wood's Dispatch	Graded education system; vernacular primary schools.
Hunter Commission	Emphasized primary education and teacher training.
Sargent Plan	Vision for universal education (unimplemented).

DEVELOPMENT OF PRESS

ORIGINS AND EARLY GROWTH

The first printing press arrived in India via Portuguese missionaries in Goa (1557), followed by the East India Company's press in Bombay (1674). However, the modern press began with **James Augustus Hickey's *Bengal Gazette*** (1780), India's first English weekly. Early publications catered primarily to British residents, but by the early 19th century, Indian-owned newspapers like **Raja Ram Mohan Roy's *Sambad Kaumudi*** (Bengali) and ***Mirat-ul-Akhbar*** (Persian) emerged, advocating social reforms and press freedom.

KEY BRITISH PRESS LAWS

Act/Regulation	Key Features
Censorship of Press Act, 1799	Mandated pre-publication scrutiny, disclosure of printer/editor details.
Licensing Regulations, 1823	Required government licenses for presses; Roy challenged this law.
Metcalfé's Press Act, 1835	Repealed 1823 laws, earning Metcalfé the title "Liberator of Indian Press".
Vernacular Press Act, 1878	Targeted Indian-language papers; allowed seizure without appeal.

CHALLENGES AND RESISTANCE

- **Colonial Suppression:** The 1823 ordinance banned political criticism, while the 1878 Act stifled vernacular dissent.
- **Adaptive Strategies:** Publications like *Amrit Bazaar Patrika* switched to English to evade the Vernacular Press Act.
- **Nationalist Mobilization:** By the 1850s–1880s, newspapers became tools for political awareness, critiquing colonial policies and uniting Indians.

TECHNOLOGICAL AND REGIONAL EXPANSION

- **Language Diversity:** *Samachar Darpan* (Bengali, 1818), *Bombay Samachar* (Gujarati, 1822), and *Samachar Sudha Varshan* (Hindi, 1854) broadened reach.
- **Post-1857 Shift:** The 1857 Revolt intensified press censorship, but also spurred underground nationalist publications

IMPORTANT NEWSPAPERS AND JOURNALS

Year	Name	Language/Type	Founder/Editor	Key Details
1780	Bengal Gazette	English Newspaper	James Augustus Hicky	India's first newspaper, criticized British policies
1787	India Gazette	English Newspaper	Associated with Henry Louis Vivian Derozio	Early Calcutta-based publication
1819	Samvad Kaumudi	Bengali Weekly	Raja Ram Mohan Roy	Advocated social reforms and press freedom
1822	Mirat-ul-Akbar	Persian Journal	Raja Ram Mohan Roy	Focused on rationalism and anti-superstition
1853	Hindoo Patriot	English Weekly	Madhusudan Ray	Highlighted peasant oppression under British rule
1854	Rast Goftar	Gujarati Newspaper	Dadabhai Naoroji	Promoted social reform and Parsi community issues
1858	Som Prakesh	Weekly Newspaper	Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar	Advocated widow remarriage and education
1862	Indian Mirror	Newspaper	Devendra Nath Tagore	Championed Bengal Renaissance and social reforms
1868	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Newspaper	Sisir Kumar Ghosh & Motilal Ghosh	Shifted from Bengali to English to evade press laws

1871	Tahzib-ul-Akhlaq	Journal	Sir Syed Ahmed Khan	Promoted modern education among Muslims
1878	The Hindu	Newspaper	Vir Raghavacharya & G.S. Aiyar	Became a voice for Indian nationalism
1881	Kesari	Marathi Newspaper	Bal Gangadhar Tilak	Fostered nationalist sentiment ("Swaraj is my birthright")
1888	Sudharak	Newspaper	Gopal Ganesh Agarkar	Advocated social reform and women's education
1896	Prabuddha Bharata	English Monthly Journal	Swami Vivekananda's disciples	Focused on Vedanta philosophy
1899	Udbodhana	Magazine	Swami Vivekananda	Discussed Hindu philosophy and nationalism
1903	Indian Opinion	Newspaper	M.K. Gandhi	Served as Gandhi's tool for Satyagraha in South Africa
1905	Bande Mataram	English Newspaper	Aurobindo Ghosh	Became the mouthpiece of radical nationalism
1906	Yugantar	Bengali Journal	Barindra Ghose	Revolutionary publication advocating armed resistance
1906	Sandhya	Bengali Newspaper	Brahmabandhab Upadhyay	Combined nationalism with spiritualism

1910	Bombay Chronicle	English Newspaper	Firoze Shah Mehta	Promoted moderate nationalist views
1911	Comrade	English Weekly	Maulana Mohammad Ali	Advocated Hindu-Muslim unity
1912	Al-Hilal	Urdu Weekly	Abul Kalam Azad	Promoted Pan-Islamic and anti-colonial ideas
1913	Pratap	Hindi Newspaper	Ganesh Shankar Vidyarthi	Exposed peasant exploitation in Uttar Pradesh
1914	New India	English Daily	Annie Besant	Championed Home Rule Movement
1919	Young India	English Weekly	M.K. Gandhi	Became Gandhi's primary communication tool
1920	Mook Nayak	Marathi Weekly	B.R. Ambedkar	Fought against caste discrimination
1922	Vanguard	Communist Journal	M.N. Roy	Spread Marxist ideology in India
1924	Hindustan Times	English Daily	Sunder Singh Lyallpuri	Supported Indian National Congress
1925	Kudi Arasu	Tamil Magazine	Periyar E.V. Ramasamy	Advocated rationalism and social justice
1929	Nav Jeevan	Gujarati Weekly	M.K. Gandhi	Focused on constructive programs
1932	Harijan	English/Hindi/Gujarati	M.K. Gandhi	Campaigned against untouchability
1936	Hindustan Dainik	Hindi Newspaper	Madan Mohan Malviya	Promoted Hindu cultural revival

PEASANT AND WORKER MOVEMENTS AFTER 1857

Movement	Year(s)	Region	Key Features	Leadership/Organization
Indigo Revolt	1859–1862	Bengal	Peasants resisted forced indigo cultivation under exploitative European planters; first mass agrarian uprising with urban intellectual support.	Led by peasant leaders like Digambar Biswas and Bishnu Biswas, supported by intelligentsia.
Deccan Riots	1875	Maharashtra	Peasants targeted moneylenders (sowcars) over land alienation and debt bondage; led to the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act (1879).	Grassroots leadership with local peasant organizations.
Pabna Movement	1873–1885	Bengal	Tenants protested zamindari exploitation (illegal levies, evictions); formed agrarian leagues to resist oppression.	Led by Ishwar Chandra Roy and supported by the Pabna Agrarian League.
Champaran Satyagraha	1917–1918	Bihar	Mahatma Gandhi's first major intervention in India; peasants opposed forced indigo cultivation and exploitative tinkathia system.	Led by Gandhi, Rajendra Prasad, and local leaders like Rajkumar Shukla.
Kheda Satyagraha	1918	Gujarat	Peasants refused land revenue payments during famine;	Led by Gandhi, Vallabhbhai Patel, and local farmers.

			Gandhi's first experiment with non-cooperation.	
Eka Movement	1921	Uttar Pradesh	Peasants protested high rents, evictions, and corruption; united under the slogan "Eka" (unity) with radical leadership.	Led by Madari Pasi and supported by the Indian National Congress.
Mappila Rebellion	1921	Malabar (Kerala)	Muslim tenants revolted against Hindu landlords and British authorities; mixed agrarian grievances with Khilafat Movement sentiments.	Led by Variyamkunnath Kunhamed Haji and Ali Musaliar.
Bardoli Satyagraha	1928	Gujarat	Successful non-violent resistance against excessive land tax hikes; propelled Sardar Patel to national prominence.	Led by Vallabhbhai Patel and local peasant leaders.
All India Kisan Sabha	1936–1947	Nationwide	Communist-led organization advocating peasant rights, fair rents, and abolition of zamindari; pivotal in uniting agrarian	Founded by Swami Sahajanand Saraswati, N.G. Ranga, and communist leaders.

			demands with anti-colonial struggle.	
Tebhaga Movement	1946–1947	Bengal	Sharecroppers demanded two-thirds share of produce instead of half; marked communist influence in agrarian struggles.	Led by the Bengal Provincial Kisan Sabha and communist activists.
Telangana Movement	1946–1952	Hyderabad State	Armed peasant rebellion against Nizam’s feudal lords (jagirdars); focused on land redistribution and caste-based oppression.	Led by Communist Party of India and local guerrilla groups.
Bengal Jute Workers Strike	1937	Bengal	Workers protested low wages and harsh working conditions in jute mills; marked early organized labor resistance.	Led by trade unions and communist organizers.
Assam Oil Company Strike	1939	Assam	Oil workers struck against colonial exploitation and poor labor conditions; reflected growing working-class militancy.	Organized by local labor unions and communist factions.

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RISE OF NATIONALISM, INC AND MODERATE NATIONALISM

RISE OF INDIAN NATIONALISM

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR RISE IN NATIONAL CONSCIOUSNESS

- Foreign domination
- Role of press and literature
- Rediscovery of India's past
- Administrative and economic unification of the country
- Western thought and education
- Socio-religious reform movements
- Racial discrimination
- Immediate Factors: The reactionary regime of Lord Lytton and Ilbert Bill controversy

POLITICAL ASSOCIATIONS BEFORE INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS

LANDHOLDERS' SOCIETY / ZAMINDARI ASSOCIATION (1837)

- The Zamindari Association, which was founded in 1837, is regarded as modern India's earliest political organization. It was subsequently called the Landholders' Society.
- It was an alliance of Orissa, Bengali, and Bihar landlords. Among its notable members were Raja Radhakant Deb, Dwarkanath Tagore, Prasanna Kumar Tagore, Rajkamal Sen, and Bhabani Charan Mitra.
- Its goal was to further the landowners' class interests by subtly influencing the bureaucracy and submitting petitions to the government. It also called for reforms in the revenue, police, and judicial systems as well as an extension of the permanent settlement of land throughout India.

BENGAL BRITISH INDIAN SOCIETY (1843)

- In 1843, the Bengal British India Society was founded in Calcutta. Similar to the Zamindari Association, it was a loyalist group founded on a small amount of Indo-British cooperation.

- However, the Bengal British India Society had a wider goal, namely to safeguard and advance the interests of the entire public, in contrast to the Zamindari Association, which solely served the interests of the landed aristocracy.

BRITISH INDIA ASSOCIATION (1851)

- It was formed by merging the Zamindari Association and the Bengal British Indian Society.

MADRAS NATIVE ASSOCIATION (1852)

- It was founded by Gazulu Lakshminarasu Chetty
- Both British India association and Madras Native association demand reforms in the EIC Charters.

EAST INDIA ASSOCIATION (1866)

- In order to address the Indian question and change British public opinion in favor of Indian welfare, Dadabhai Naoroji founded the East India Association in London in 1866. The group later opened branches in Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras.

POONA SARVAJANIK SABHA (1870)

- The Poona Sarvajanik Sabha was established in 1870 by Mahadev Govind Ranade, Ganesh Vasudeo Joshi (Sarvajanik kaka), and S. H. Chiplunkar.
- The purpose of the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha, a sociopolitical organization in British India, was to act as a mediator between the Indian populace and the government.
- In order to stir up patriotism among the populace, the Sabha's leaders brought popular problems to the British government.
- Sardars, landowners, businesspeople, government employees, attorneys, and educators made up the Sabha, which served as the local community's representative.

INDIA LEAGUE (1875)

- 'India League' was established in Calcutta on September 25, 1875, by Sisir Kumar Ghosh and Sambhu Charan Mukherjee. The League, which stood for the middle class, promoted political education and a sense of nationalism among the populace.
- This organization was affiliated with nationalist leaders like as Ananda Mohan Bose, Durga Mohan Das, Nabagopal Mitra, Surendranath Banerjee, and others.

- The leaders maintained the organization above provincial and communal politics with a broad vision of an all-India outlook.

INDIAN ASSOCIATION (1876)

- In 1876, Surendranath Banerjee and Ananda Mohan Bose established the Indian Association. It sought to unite the Indian populace around a unified political agenda and forge strong public opinion on political issues.
- On matters of broader public interest, the Indian association desired persistent political activity. It conducted numerous agitations involving people.
- In December 1883, an all-India National Conference was organized in Calcutta under the sponsorship of the Indian Association.
- This conference was attended by a number of leaders from outside Bengal. Indian Association amalgamated with the INC in 1886.

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INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS

NEED

- Educated Indians formed numerous political associations in the 1860s and 1870s. Although these organizations had a valuable function, their reach and operations were limited.
- Their membership and leadership were limited to a small group of individuals from a single city or province, and they mostly addressed local issues.
- The necessity for a national organization was realized by educated Indians in the early 1880s, and this became a hot topic in the Indian press.
- Educated Indians from all around India attended a National Conference hosted by the Indian Association in 1883. It had failed to become an all-Indian organization, nevertheless.
- Many Indians intended to establish an all-India organization of nationalist political workers during this time.

FORMATION

- With the assistance of notable Indian leaders, Allan Octavio Hume called the first meeting of the Indian National Congress (INC) in December 1885. On December 28, 1885, the INC met for the first time in Bombay. W.C. Bonnerjee presided over it, and seventy-two delegates attended. On a national level, it was the first organized manifestation of Indian nationalism.
- The second Congress session, presided over by Dadabhai Naoroji, took place in Calcutta in December 1886. It was agreed that the Congress would gather yearly in various locations around the nation. The first female Calcutta University graduate, Kadambini Ganguli, spoke before the Congress session in 1890.
- Some of the prominent leaders of Congress and the national movement during this period were -Dadabhai Naoroji, Badruddin Tyabji, Pherozeshah Mehta, P. Ananda Charlu, Surendranath Banerji, Ramesh Chandra Dutt, Ananda Mohan Bose, and Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Mahadev Govind Ranade, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, the brothers Sisir Kumar and Motilal Ghosh, Madan Mohan Malaviya, G. Subramaniya Iyer, C. Vijayaraghavachariar, and Dinshaw E. Wacha.

AIM

- Promoting friendly relations between nationalist political workers from different parts of the country.
- Development and consolidation of the feeling of national unity irrespective of caste, religion, or province.
- Creation of public opinion in the country.
- Presentation of popular demands before the Government.
- Promote anti-colonial nationalist ideas among the people.

CONTROVERSIAL THEORIES RELATING TO ORIGIN OF INC

- Safety Valve theory
- Lightning Conductor Theory

SAFETY VALVE THEORY

- The theory claims that the INC was founded in 1885 by A.O. Hume, a retired British Civil Servant, with the support of Viceroy Dufferin.
- The theory suggests that the INC was created to provide a peaceful and constitutional outlet for the growing discontent among Indians, which could lead to a violent revolution.
- The theory was first proposed by Lala Lajpat Rai to criticize the moderates in the INC

LIGHTNING CONDUCTOR THEORY

- The lightning conductor theory is a theory about the formation of the Indian National Congress (INC) that suggests the INC was a way to absorb and dissipate growing discontent in the country. The theory was proposed by Gopal Krishna Gokhale and is based on his documents.
- The lightning conductor theory is a counter to the safety valve theory, which suggests that the British government encouraged the INC to provide a platform for Indians to express their grievances. If Hume wanted to use Congress as a safety valve, the early Congress leaders used Hume as a lightning conductor, i.e., a catalyst to bring together the nationalistic force.

MODERATE NATIONALISM

ABOUT

- The Congress was dominated by moderate leaders for the first 20 years (1885–1905). The term "moderate phase" refers to this stage of the Congress. The leaders made careful requests during this time. They didn't want to irritate the authorities and run the danger of having their operations suppressed.
- During this time, not all nationalists followed the moderate tendency. Some were ardent nationalists or fanatics. This movement was exemplified by Tilak and many other leaders. They didn't trust the British for their good intentions.

MAJOR DEMANDS OF THE MODERATES

- **Increased Representation:** The moderates sought greater representation for Indians in legislative councils. They advocated for reforms that would allow more Indian members to participate in governance.
- **Indianization of Civil Services:** They called for the recruitment of Indians into the civil services, which were predominantly occupied by British officials, to ensure that Indians had a voice in administration.
- **Administrative Reforms:** The moderates demanded reforms in administration and judicial systems to make them more equitable and accessible to Indians.
- **Economic Reforms:** They emphasized the need for protection and promotion of Indian industries, reduction in land revenue taxes, and overall economic relief for the populace.
- **Civil Rights:** The moderates pushed for safeguarding civil rights, including freedom of speech, press, and assembly, as well as the right to form associations.
- **Legislative Changes:** They called for reforms in legislative councils, including an increase in non-official members and greater powers for these councils.
- **Educational Reforms:** The moderates highlighted the importance of education and sought to increase spending on education to raise political awareness among the masses.
- **Repeal of Oppressive Laws:** They aimed to repeal laws that were seen as oppressive, such as the Arms Act of 1878, which restricted the rights of Indians to bear arms.

- **Economic Drain Theory:** Leaders like Dadabhai Naoroji articulated concerns about the economic exploitation of India through their writings, notably his theory on the economic drain caused by British policies.

KEY METHODS OF POLITICAL WORK

- **Constitutional Means:**
 - The moderates relied heavily on petitions, resolutions, and memoranda to communicate their demands to the British authorities. They believed in working within the existing legal framework and sought reforms through constitutional means rather than revolutionary actions.
- **Public Awareness and Education:**
 - A significant focus was placed on political education and raising awareness among the Indian populace, particularly the educated middle class. The moderates organized meetings and discussions to inform people about their rights and responsibilities, thereby fostering a sense of national consciousness.
- **Establishment of Organizations:**
 - The moderates aimed to create a centralized organization that could coordinate nationalist activities across India. This included holding annual sessions of the INC where delegates from various regions could participate in discussions and adopt resolutions.
- **Building Public Opinion:**
 - They sought to generate strong public opinion against colonial policies by organizing lectures and publishing articles in newspapers such as the Bombay Chronicle and Hindustan Times. They also published a weekly journal called India in England to enlighten British citizens about Indian issues.
- **Advocacy for Reforms:**
 - The moderates articulated demands for various reforms, including economic changes like the reduction of land revenue and abolition of the salt tax, as well as administrative reforms aimed at increasing Indian representation in government bodies¹³⁶. They pushed for the Indian Councils Act of 1892, which expanded legislative councils and increased Indian participation.
- **Emphasis on Patience and Reconciliation:**

- A hallmark of moderate politics was their belief in patience and reconciliation, advocating for gradual reforms rather than immediate independence. They maintained that constructive dialogue with British officials would lead to eventual improvements in governance for Indians.

SOCIAL BASE OF MODERATES

- The moderate leaders largely represented the interests of educated elites, particularly from urban areas. This group included professionals, lawyers, and intellectuals who had access to Western education and ideas but did not significantly engage with rural populations or lower socio-economic classes.
- Their approach often alienated broader sections of Indian society, as they did not fully appreciate the potential for mass mobilization or the urgency for more radical changes. Critics noted that their reliance on petitions and dialogue failed to resonate with the larger populace who were experiencing direct oppression under colonial rule.

GOVERNMENT RESPONSE

- In the early years, the British colonial administration viewed the moderates with a degree of favour. The moderates believed that the British were fundamentally just but needed to be made aware of the conditions in India.
- They aimed to shape public opinion and present demands for reforms through constitutional methods, hoping that these would gradually lead to changes in governance. The INC's early sessions often included government officials, indicating a level of engagement where officials participated in discussions with moderate leaders.
- However, as the moderates continued their efforts without significant results, the British government's attitude shifted. The moderates' reliance on petitions and peaceful negotiations was increasingly seen as ineffective.
- Critics within India argued that this approach lacked urgency and did not sufficiently challenge colonial rule. The British authorities began to perceive the moderate demands as mere requests rather than serious political movements, leading to a lack of substantial reforms being implemented in response to their petitions.

ACHIEVEMENTS OF MODERATES

- **Political Awakening:** The moderates played a crucial role in creating a sense of national consciousness among Indians. They educated the public about their rights and the political process, fostering a collective identity against colonial rule.
- **Constitutional Reforms:** They successfully advocated for the Indian Councils Act of 1892, which expanded the legislative councils and increased Indian representation. This act marked a significant step towards political participation for Indians within the colonial framework.
- **Economic Critique:** The moderates, particularly through Naoroji's Drain Theory, exposed the exploitative nature of British economic policies, linking them to India's poverty. This critique helped in articulating the economic grievances of Indians and laid the foundation for future economic nationalism.
- **Promotion of Democratic Ideals:** They popularized concepts such as democracy, civil rights, and self-governance among the Indian populace, which were essential for mobilizing support for future nationalist movements.
- **International Advocacy:** Moderates represented Indian interests on international platforms, garnering sympathy and support from global audiences, which helped in raising awareness about India's plight under British rule.
- **Educational Initiatives:** They emphasized education as a means to uplift society and foster political awareness, establishing institutions that contributed to the intellectual growth of future leaders in the independence movement.
- **Foundation for Future Movements:** The organizational structure and political strategies developed during this phase provided a solid base for subsequent, more radical phases of the freedom struggle, ensuring continuity in the fight against colonialism.

LIMITATIONS OF MODERATES

- **Limited Mass Participation**
 - **Educated Elitism:** The moderates primarily comprised educated elites, such as lawyers and teachers, which alienated them from the broader population. Their reliance on intellectual discourse and bureaucratic methods did not resonate with the masses, making it difficult to mobilize widespread support for their causes.

- **Disconnect with Common People:** The moderates' attachment to Western political ideals created a gap between them and the everyday struggles of ordinary Indians. This disconnect limited their ability to understand and address the aspirations of the common populace.
- **Ineffective Methods**
 - **Constitutional Agitation:** The moderates focused on constitutional means—prayers, petitions, and protests—rather than mass mobilization or direct action. This approach was perceived as too passive and failed to exert significant pressure on the British government.
 - **Failure to Organize Protests:** Their preference for dialogue over confrontation meant they struggled to organize large-scale protests or movements. This lack of assertiveness diminished their impact on British policies and delayed substantial reforms.
- **Limited Goals**
 - **Demand for Autonomy, Not Independence:** The moderates aimed for self-governance within the British Empire rather than complete independence. This limited vision made it difficult to rally broader support for a more radical agenda, especially as public sentiment began shifting towards full independence in subsequent years.
 - **Inadequate Response to British Policies:** Despite presenting numerous demands, the British government often ignored or postponed responses to moderate proposals. This lack of tangible outcomes led to frustration and disillusionment among nationalist leaders and supporters alike.
- **Internal Conflicts**
 - **Factionalism Within INC:** The moderate faction itself experienced internal divisions regarding strategies and objectives. This factionalism weakened their collective efforts and made it challenging to present a united front against colonial rule.

INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1892

BACKGROUND

- The Indian Councils Act of 1892 was passed against the backdrop of rising political awareness and nationalist sentiment in India in the late nineteenth century.
- The formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 was a pivotal moment, giving educated Indians a platform to demand greater political rights and participation in government. The Congress saw reforming legislative councils as critical to larger political change.
- In response to these demands, the British government passed the Act of 1892, which was introduced by Lord Cross, Secretary of State for India.
- The Act increased the number of non-official members of legislative councils, aiming to appear progressive while maintaining British control.
- This expansion was designed to appease Indian leaders while not undermining British authority.

PROVISIONS

- Increased non-official members in the council
 - Bombay – 8
 - Madras – 20
 - Bengal – 20
 - North-Western province -15
 - Oudh – 15
 - Central Legislative Council minimum – 10, maximum 16
- Members could now debate the budget without having the ability to vote on it also barred from asking follow-up questions.
- The Governor-General in Council was given the authority to set rules for member nomination, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for India.
- Made a limited and indirect provision for the use of election in filling up non-official seats both in central and provincial councils
- Nomination for non-official members to central legislative council (Bengal chamber of commerce, governors for provincial legislative council based on recommendation

of district boards, municipalities, universities, trade associations, zamindars and chambers)

SIGNIFICANCE

- The Indian Councils Act, 1892 is a significant milestone in India's constitutional and political history.
- The act increased the size of various legislative councils in India thereby increasing the engagement of Indians with respect to the administration in British India.
- The Indian Councils Act, 1892 was the first step towards the representative government in modern India.
- The act created the stage for the development of revolutionary forces in India because the British only made a minor concession.

LIMITATIONS

- The official majority was maintained in the legislative councils.
- Direct election was not introduced to represent non-official members.
- Supplementary questions could not be asked.
- The budget could not be voted on.

ECONOMIC CRITIQUE OF BRITISH COLONIALISM

ABOUT

- The economic critique of British colonialism in India centres around the systematic exploitation and transformation of the Indian economy to serve British interests, leading to widespread impoverishment and deindustrialization.
- This critique was articulated primarily by early Indian nationalists and economists who analyzed the detrimental impacts of colonial policies on India's traditional economic structures.

KEY ASPECTS OF ECONOMIC EXPLOITATION

DRAIN OF WEALTH THEORY:

- The concept, famously articulated by Dadabhai Naoroji in his work "Poverty and Un-British Rule in India," posits that a significant portion of India's wealth was siphoned off to Britain without any adequate returns.
- This included salaries and pensions of British officials, profits from British businesses, and the costs associated with maintaining British military presence in India.
- Naoroji argued that this economic drain was a fundamental cause of India's poverty and an integral feature of British rule.

COMMERCIALIZATION OF AGRICULTURE:

- British policies shifted agricultural production from subsistence farming to cash crops for export, such as indigo and cotton.
- This change led to increased vulnerability among peasants, who faced fluctuating global prices and heavy land revenue demands. The commercialization process often resulted in debts and economic instability for farmers.

DEINDUSTRIALIZATION:

- The introduction of cheap British manufactured goods devastated traditional Indian industries, particularly textiles. The competition from these imports led to a significant decline in local handicrafts and artisanal production, pushing many artisans into poverty.
- The railways, while touted as a means of modernization, primarily facilitated the movement of raw materials to ports for export rather than fostering local industrial growth.

IMPACT ON TRADITIONAL STRUCTURES:

- The imposition of new land revenue systems disrupted traditional agrarian relationships, leading to the rise of zamindars (landlords) who exploited tenant farmers.
- This shift not only impoverished the peasantry but also contributed to the collapse of many traditional zamindar families unable to meet revenue demands.

ECONOMIC POLICIES FAVOURING BRITISH INTERESTS:

- The colonial administration implemented policies that ensured India remained a supplier of raw materials and a market for British goods.
- This created a dependency that stifled local industry and innovation while entrenching foreign capital interests in the Indian economy.

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM INDIAN ECONOMISTS

Several prominent figures contributed to the economic critique of colonialism:

- **Dadabhai Naoroji:** His "Drain Theory" highlighted how colonial policies drained India's resources, contributing significantly to nationalist thought.
- **R.C. Dutt:** He analyzed the destructive effects of British policies on India's economy, focusing on deindustrialization and agricultural decline.
- **M.G. Ranade:** Advocated for industrial development as a means to counteract colonial exploitation and emphasized the need for indigenous capital investment.

CONCLUSION

The economic critique of British colonialism reveals a systematic pattern of exploitation that reshaped India's economy into one that primarily benefited Britain at the expense of local industries and agricultural stability. Early nationalists effectively articulated these grievances, laying the groundwork for India's struggle for independence by highlighting the exploitative nature of colonial rule and advocating for economic self-sufficiency and development.

TIMELINE: RISE OF NATIONALISM AND MODERATE NATIONALISM

EARLY POLITICAL ASSOCIATIONS (1837–1876)

- **1837: Zamindari Association (Landholders' Society)** Focused on landowners' interests and advocated for revenue and judicial reforms.
- **1843: Bengal British India Society** Aimed to represent broader public interests, beyond just landowners.
- **1851: British India Association** Formed by merging the Zamindari Association and Bengal British India Society, addressing reforms.

- **1852: Madras Native Association** Focused on demanding reforms in the East India Company's Charter.
- **1866: East India Association** Founded by Dadabhai Naoroji in London to advocate for Indian welfare.
- **1870: Poona Sarvajanik Sabha** Worked as a mediator between the Indian populace and the British government.
- **1875: India League** Promoted nationalism and political education under Sisir Kumar Ghosh.
- **1876: Indian Association** Advocated for unity in Indian political activity and broader reforms.

INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS (INC) AND ITS FORMATION (1885–1886)

- **1883: All-India National Conference** Organized by the Indian Association to discuss Indian political unity but failed to create an all-India organization.
- **1885 (December 28): Formation of INC** Founded with A.O. Hume's assistance in Bombay; W.C. Bonnerjee presided over the first session. *Prominent Leaders:* Dadabhai Naoroji, Surendranath Banerjee, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, etc.
- **1886:** Second session of INC in Calcutta, led by Dadabhai Naoroji; Congress became an annual event.

THEORIES ON THE ORIGIN OF INC

- **Safety Valve Theory:** Claimed that INC was a platform to release discontent, preventing revolution. Proposed by Lala Lajpat Rai.
- **Lightning Conductor Theory:** INC served as a way to unite nationalists while using Hume as a catalyst. Proposed by Gopal Krishna Gokhale.

MODERATE NATIONALISM (1885–1905)

- **About:** Early INC leaders (moderates) adopted constitutional means to address demands. Key leaders: Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Dadabhai Naoroji, Pherozeshah Mehta.
- **Major Demands:**
 - Indianization of civil services.
 - Greater representation in legislative councils.
 - Safeguarding civil rights and economic reforms.
- **Key Methods:** Petitions, resolutions, public education, and advocacy for reforms.
- **Achievements:**
 - Political awakening among Indians.
 - Indian Councils Act of 1892 introduced legislative council reforms.
 - Highlighted economic exploitation through Naoroji's Drain Theory.
- **Limitations:**
 - Limited mass participation.
 - Over-reliance on petitions.
 - Disconnect with the common populace.

INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1892

- **Provisions:**
 - Increased the number of non-official members in legislative councils.
 - Allowed budget discussions but no voting rights.
 - Indirect and limited elections for non-official seats.
- **Significance:** First step toward representative government. Increased Indian participation in governance.
- **Limitations:** Official majority retained, and direct elections excluded.

ECONOMIC CRITIQUE OF BRITISH COLONIALISM

- **Key Issues:**
 - Drain of Wealth (Dadabhai Naoroji).
 - Deindustrialization due to British imports.
 - Impact on agriculture and traditional structures.
- **Contributions:**
 - R.C. Dutt analyzed deindustrialization.
 - M.G. Ranade advocated for industrial development.

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NATIONAL MOVEMENT 1905-18

EXTREMIST NATIONALISM

GROUPS

There were three groups of the Extremists (militant nationalists or radical nationalists):

- The Maharashtra group, headed by B.G. Tilak
- The Bengal group, represented by B.C. Pal and Aurobindo
- The Punjab group led by Lala Lajpat Rai

KEY METHODS OF EXTREMISTS IN CONGRESS

- **Demand for Swaraj**
 - The primary goal of the extremists was to achieve "Swaraj," which referred to complete autonomy from British rule or total Indian control over administration. This contrasted sharply with the moderates, who sought only incremental reforms within the British framework.
- **Mass Mobilization**
 - Extremists successfully mobilized a broader section of society, including the lower middle class and rural populations. They aimed to unite various social groups in their struggle for independence, significantly expanding the base of the nationalist movement.
- **Non-Constitutional Methods**
 - Unlike moderates who relied on constitutional methods such as petitions and negotiations, extremists engaged in direct action. Their tactics included:
 - **Boycotts of British Goods:** This involved promoting the use of indigenous products (Swadeshi) and refusing to buy British goods, which aimed to weaken the British economy.
 - **Strikes and Protests:** They organized strikes and mass protests as forms of resistance against British policies, encouraging widespread civil disobedience.

- **Public Meetings and Processions:** These gatherings served as platforms to disseminate nationalist ideas and rally support against colonial rule.
- **Educational Reforms**
 - Extremists advocated for a national education system that aligned with Indian cultural values, establishing institutions free from British control. This was part of a broader strategy to instill a sense of nationalism among the youth.
- **Cultural Revivalism**
 - They promoted cultural nationalism through festivals and public celebrations, such as Ganapati and Shivaji festivals, which were used to foster national pride and unity among Indians.
- **Passive Resistance**
 - This included non-payment of taxes and refusal to cooperate with British authorities, further demonstrating their commitment to undermining colonial governance without resorting to outright violence

EXTREMISTS NATIONALISM AND INDIAN RELIGIOUS TRADITION

- The extremists' concept of nationalism was emotionally charged and based on a rich interpretation of Indian religious traditions. The Extremist leaders tried to reorient Indian religious traditions to worldly life and link them with the national liberation struggle.
- Aurobindo Ghose reinterpreted Vedanta philosophy, which advocated the unity of man and God and based his concept of nationalism on it. To him, national work was the work of God, which should be done in the spirit of Karma Yoga because the true nationalist was an ideal Karma Yogi who performed his functions in the spirit of selflessness.
- Tilak reinterpreted the Gita's message in his famous book, Gita Rahasya. According to Tilak, the Gita emphasises the importance of selfless action with full self-knowledge rather than Bhakti or Sanyasa. He believed that national work aimed at promoting general welfare was a form of selfless action.
- The extremists conceived the nation as 'Mother India', which represented a united power or Shakti of millions of her children.

- The Extremist leaders used religious symbols to arouse the masses; however, they did not mix religion and politics. Their concept of nationhood encompassed all religions in India.
- Though the 'Dharma' advocated by leaders like Tilak and Lajpat Rai looked like it had a Hindu connotation, for the extremists, it meant 'universal moral law' under whose unifying influence the different religions and communities in India would coexist peacefully.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MODERATES AND EXTREMISTS OF CONGRESS

Characteristics	Moderates	Extremists
Period of Operation	1885 to 1905	1905 to 1920
Objective	Sought more Indian participation within British governance; aimed for constitutional reforms rather than complete independence.	Aimed for complete independence (Swaraj) from British rule.
Social Base	Supported mainly by landlords and the urban upper-middle class.	Gained support from the educated middle and lower-middle classes.
Ideological Inspiration	Influenced by Western liberal ideas and European political thought.	Inspired by Indian cultural heritage and historical pride, emphasizing nationalism.
View on Mass Participation	Believed that the masses were not ready for political involvement; focused on the educated elite.	Had faith in the masses' ability to participate actively in the freedom struggle and make sacrifices.

Political Connections	Advocated maintaining ties with Britain for India's interests.	Criticized such ties as exploitative; sought to sever connections with colonial powers.
Loyalty	Expressed loyalty to the British Crown, believing in gradual reform.	Asserted that loyalty to the British Crown was undeserved; promoted active resistance against colonial rule.
Methods of Protest	Employed constitutional methods such as petitions, prayers, and negotiations.	Utilized extra-constitutional methods including boycotts, strikes, and direct action.

REASONS FOR THE RISE OF MILITANT NATIONALISM

FAILURE OF MODERATE POLITICS

- The British government rejected all of the significant demands that the moderates made, despite the fact that they were widely accepted. As a result, the public lost faith in the moderates' beliefs and strategies.
- People strongly believed that more drastic political action was required to compel the British to accede to popular demands at the end of the 19th century. In contrast to legislative council meetings, petitions, memorials, and speeches, they called for more forceful political action and strategies.

RECOGNITION OF THE TRUE NATURE OF BRITISH RULE

- The idea that British rule could be changed from within served as the foundation for the politics of the moderate nationalists. But when information about political and economic issues proliferated, this conviction was progressively challenged.
- Indians who cared about politics believed that Britain's goal was to economically exploit their country. The nationalists were also let down by the political developments of 1892–1905, which led them to consider more radical political solutions.

GROWTH OF EDUCATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT

- Although there were more educated Indians toward the end of the 19th century, there were still few job prospects. Many educated Indians were consequently paid pitiful wages to work in the government, while a growing number of others experienced unemployment.
- Educated Indians were forced to examine the nature of British rule closely due to their economic predicament. They realized that only the Indian government could offer them riches and that British rule was to blame for their misery.
- Radical nationalist ideology that called for self-rule drew a lot of them in. Because they were poorly paid or unemployed and well-versed in contemporary politics, ideas, and European and global history, the educated Indians were the most effective spreaders and supporters of militant nationalism.

GROWTH OF SELF-RESPECT AND SELF-CONFIDENCE

- Indian nationalists had gained confidence in their ability to rule themselves by the end of the 1800s. People were taught that the solution to their depressing situation was within their own hands by leaders like as Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal, who encouraged nationalists to trust on the qualities and abilities of the Indian people and preached the concept of self-respect.
- The urge to spread the national movement to the masses rather than depending solely on a select group of educated, upper-class Indians was also sparked by the conviction in self-effort.

EXISTENCE OF A MILITANT NATIONALIST SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

- There was a school of militant nationalism there from the start of the national movement. Leaders like Vishnu Shastri Chiplunkar, Ashwini Kumar Dutt, and Rajnarain Bose represented this school. Aurobindo Ghose, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipin Chandra Pal, and Lokamanya Tilak were the most notable militant nationalism leaders.
- The militant nationalists believed that the masses were strong. They held that Indians had to figure out how to save themselves. They proclaimed Swaraj as the ultimate goal of the national movement and sought to achieve it through mass action.

INTERNATIONAL INFLUENCES

- The idea of European superiority was debunked by a number of international events during this time, which also fueled the rise of militant nationalism in India.
- These events convinced the Indians that even the most powerful despotic governments could be overthrown by a united people willing to make sacrifices. These include the Ethiopian army's victory over the Italian army in 1896, the British defeat in the Boer War in South Africa (1899–1902), and Japan's victory over Russia in 1905.

ADMINISTRATION OF LORD CURZON

- Lord Curzon supported authoritarian imperialism. The nationalists' ire grew during his administration. He made the following administrative decisions.
 - The **1899 Calcutta Municipal Amendment Act**: The residents of the city suffered greatly when Lord Curzon cut the number of elected members in the Calcutta Corporation in 1899.
 - An attack on Calcutta University's independence occurred when Curzon enacted the Universities Act of 1904, which reduced the number of elected senators (mostly Indians).
 - Additionally, it gave government officials the final say over whether to affiliate colleges and schools and give them grants-in-aid. The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was viewed by nationalists as an effort to restrict the expansion of higher education and place Indian universities under stricter official control.
- Press freedom was curtailed by the Indian Official Secret Amendment Act of 1904. People discovered that they were denying Indians their current rights rather than granting them more political clout.
- **Bengal Partition**: Curzon declared the division of Bengal in July 1905. The division was fiercely opposed by Bengali nationalists. They perceived it as a conscious effort to weaken Bengali nationalism and split Bengalis.

PARTITION OF BENGAL

ABOUT

- The Partition of Bengal in 1905 was a significant administrative decision made by the British Raj, aimed at reorganizing the Bengal Presidency into two separate provinces: Eastern Bengal and Assam, and Western Bengal.
- This partition was officially announced by Lord Curzon, the then Viceroy of India, on July 20, 1905, and took effect on October 16, 1905.

BACKGROUND AND REASONS FOR PARTITION

- Bengal had been a single province since British control began in 1765, encompassing modern-day West Bengal, Bangladesh, Bihar, and Odisha. By the early 20th century, it had grown too large and diverse for effective governance.
- Lord Curzon argued that the partition would facilitate better administration by creating smaller provinces. The rationale presented to the public included claims of improving governance in Eastern Bengal, which was seen as neglected due to its isolation and poor infrastructure.
- However, the underlying motives were viewed as more sinister. The British aimed to weaken the burgeoning nationalist movement centred in Bengal by creating a divide between Hindus and Muslims.
- The partition resulted in a predominantly Hindu Western Bengal and a Muslim-majority Eastern Bengal. This division was perceived as a classic "divide and rule" strategy intended to undermine the unity of Indian nationalists.

REACTIONS AND CONSEQUENCES

- The announcement of the partition sparked widespread outrage among various segments of Indian society.
- Many Hindus in Western Bengal felt threatened by the prospect of becoming a minority in a larger province that included Bihar and Orissa.
- They viewed the partition as an assault on their cultural identity and an attempt to dilute their political power.
- The response from Indian nationalists was immediate and vigorous:

- **Mass Protests:** Large-scale demonstrations occurred across Bengal, with participants expressing their discontent through rallies and public meetings.
- **Swadeshi Movement:** A significant outcome of the partition was the rise of the Swadeshi movement, which advocated for boycotting British goods and promoting indigenous products. Leaders like Surendranath Banerjee called for non-cooperation with British authorities.
- **Cultural Resurgence:** The partition also inspired a cultural renaissance among Bengalis, with literature and music reflecting themes of unity and resistance against colonial rule. Notably, Rabindranath Tagore's song "Amar Sonar Bangla" became an anthem for unity during this period.
- Despite the British government's attempts to justify the partition as a necessary administrative measure, it ultimately backfired. The intense opposition led to increased political mobilization among Indians. In response to persistent protests and unrest, the British government annulled the partition in 1911, reuniting Bengal as a single province

CONGRESS STAND

- The National Congress was against the partition in every way. Nonetheless, there was conflict between the militant and moderate nationalists.
- The Congress, led by Lala Lajpat Rai, Tilak, Bipin Chandra Pal, and Aurobindo Ghosh, supported the boycott and Swadeshi movements in Bengal during the 1905 Benaras session, which was presided over by Gokhale.
- The militants wanted to: Expand the boycott and Swadeshi movements from Bengal to the rest of the country; Expand the boycott to all forms of association with the colonial government; the moderates, who controlled the Congress, opposed expanding the boycott beyond Bengal and foreign goods.
- By selecting Dadabhai Naoroji to lead the 1906 Calcutta Session, the Congress was able to avoid a split. Self-government (swaraj) within the British Empire (modeled after colonies such as the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada) was declared the aim of Congress due to pressure from extremist leaders. Resolutions were passed on swadeshi, Boycott of Foreign goods, National education and Swaraj.
- Nevertheless, the conflict between moderates and extremists peaked, and the Congress was split during the 1907 Surat session (Surat Split).

SWADESHI MOVEMENT

OVERVIEW

- The Swadeshi Movement was a pivotal campaign in India's struggle for independence, initiated on August 7, 1905, in response to the British government's decision to partition Bengal.
- This movement aimed to promote indigenous products, reduce reliance on British goods, and foster a sense of nationalism among Indians. It was characterized by a strong call for self-reliance and the use of local resources, which Mahatma Gandhi later described as the essence of self-rule or swaraj.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The movement emerged from widespread discontent against the partition of Bengal, which was seen as an attempt to divide and weaken the nationalist sentiment among Indians.
- The partition led to significant protests, culminating in a formal proclamation at Calcutta's Town Hall, where leaders called for a boycott of British goods, particularly Manchester cloth and Liverpool salt.

KEY FEATURES

- **Anti-Partition Campaign:** Initially, moderate methods such as petitions and public meetings were employed to oppose the partition. However, these efforts proved ineffective, leading to more radical approaches that included boycotting British goods and promoting local industries.
- **Boycott Movement:** The Swadeshi Movement was closely linked with the boycott of foreign goods. This included not only the refusal to buy British products but also public demonstrations such as burning foreign items.
- **Cultural Revival:** The movement inspired a cultural renaissance, with patriotic songs and literature flourishing. Rabindranath Tagore composed significant works that galvanized public sentiment, including "Amar Sonar Bangla" and the promotion of communal ties through symbolic acts like tying rakhis.

LEADERS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

Prominent figures in the Swadeshi Movement included:

- **Bal Gangadhar Tilak:** He played a crucial role in spreading the message beyond Bengal into regions like Poona and Bombay, emphasizing the need for national education and self-sufficiency.
- **Lala Lajpat Rai:** Active in Punjab, he encouraged industrial self-sufficiency and technical education.
- **Aurobindo Ghosh:** Advocated for broader participation across India and emphasized the need for organized resistance against British rule.

IMPACT AND LEGACY

The Swadeshi Movement had several significant outcomes:

- **Economic Impact:** There was a marked decline in imports of British goods between 1905 and 1908 as people began to favor locally produced items. This shift laid the groundwork for future industrial development in India.
- **Political Mobilization:** The movement contributed to a rise in political consciousness among Indians, fostering extreme nationalism that would later influence other movements against British rule. It also led to the establishment of various national schools and industries aimed at promoting indigenous production.
- **Government Response:** By 1908, government repression intensified against the movement, leading to arrests of key leaders and diminishing its effectiveness. Internal conflicts among leaders also hampered its progress.
- The Swadeshi Movement is often regarded as one of the most successful pre-Gandhian movements in India, setting the stage for future campaigns that would ultimately lead to India's independence in 1947.

END OF THE MOVEMENT

The following factors were responsible for the decline of the movement:

- Split in the congress in 1907 (Surat split)
- Heavy repression by the government

- **Lack of effective organisation and party structure:** The movement introduced various Gandhian techniques, such as passive resistance, nonviolent non-cooperation, promoting social reform, and constructive work. However, it struggled to translate these techniques into practical political action.
- **Mass Character of the movement:** The movement declined because of the character of the mass movement itself; that is, it cannot be sustained endlessly.

SURAT SPLIT

ABOUT

- The Surat Split of 1907 was a pivotal event in the history of the Indian National Congress (INC) and the Indian independence movement. It marked a significant ideological division within the INC, separating it into two factions: the Moderates and the Extremists.
- The split occurred during the INC session held in Surat in December 1907. The backdrop of this division can be traced to earlier tensions within the party, particularly visible during the Banaras Session in 1905, where leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak began advocating for more aggressive resistance against British rule, contrasting with the Moderates' preference for constitutional methods and gradual reforms.

CAUSES OF THE SPLIT

- **Ideological Differences:** The Extremists, led by figures such as Tilak and Lala Lajpat Rai, called for radical actions including boycotts and swadeshi (self-reliance), while the Moderates, under leaders like Gokhale and Pherozeshah Mehta, emphasized constitutional methods and loyalty to the British Raj.
- **Leadership Disputes:** The Extremists sought to have Tilak or Lajpat Rai preside over the session, while the Moderates favored Rash Behari Ghosh as president, leading to a clash over leadership that escalated tensions.
- **Failure of Compromise:** Attempts to reconcile differences failed, culminating in a violent altercation during the session. This conflict highlighted deep-seated frustrations and impatience among Extremists regarding the slow progress of nationalist efforts under Moderate leadership.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE SPLIT

- **Weakened Unity:** The split fragmented nationalist efforts, weakening Congress's overall effectiveness in opposing British rule. The Extremists were marginalized within Congress, which now focused on constitutional reforms.
- **Rise of Revolutionary Movements:** With moderates losing touch with younger nationalists, there was an increase in revolutionary activities as disillusioned youth sought more radical means to achieve independence.
- **Long-term Impact:** Although initially detrimental, this division eventually led to a resurgence of more militant nationalism. The Extremists' approaches inspired future movements and contributed to a shift in strategies within Congress. Notably, after eight years apart, both factions reunited at the Lucknow session in 1916, marking a significant turning point in Indian politics.

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INDIAN COUNCIL ACT OF 1909 (MORLEY MINTO REFORMS)

NEED

- When the Liberals took control of Britain at the end of 1905, John Morley—who was well-known for his liberal beliefs—was appointed Secretary of State for India. A conservative named Lord Minto had taken Curzon's place as governor general a short time prior.
- Morley and Minto came to the realization that the division of Bengal was a serious error that fueled anti-government sentiment. They also acknowledged the emergence of the Indian National Movement's radical and extremist factions.
- They made reform proposals in the legislative councils in an attempt to appease the Moderates, who had been requesting these changes for some time.
- The Morley-Minto Reforms came about as a result of the modifications made under the Indian Councils Act of 1909 along with a few other changes.

RISING BRITISH APPEASEMENT OF MUSLIMS

- The Congress's efforts to arouse national consciousness while claiming a faithful acceptance of British rule were deemed impossible by the British. Thus, in addition to trying to appease moderates, the British also sought to produce other groups of people who were devoted to the British and might be opposed to Congress's objectives.
- In October 1906, a delegation of Muslim leaders met with the viceroy in Simla. In any form of representation, they insisted that the Muslims' place be in line with the size and political significance of their community. These demands were viewed by the British as a promising alternative. They could thwart the Congress leaders' growing demands by patronizing this segment of the Muslim population. Consequently, the Muslims received their own electorates.

KEY PROVISIONS

- **Introduction of Elections:**
 - The Act marked a shift towards elected representation in legislative councils. It allowed for the election of members to both central and provincial legislative councils, moving away from a system dominated solely by

appointed officials. For the first time, this act introduced indirect elections in the Central Legislative Council and Provincial Legislative Councils. The elected non-official members were elected by indirect elections

- **Expansion of Legislative Councils:**

- The Central Legislative Council's membership increased from 16 to 60 members.
- Provincial councils, such as those in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, expanded to 50 members each, while councils in Punjab, Burma, and Assam had 30 members each.

- **Categories of Members:** The councils were composed of four types of members:

- Ex officio members: Including the Governor-General and executive council members.
- Nominated official members: Government officials nominated by the Governor-General.
- Nominated non-official members: Individuals nominated by the Governor-General who were not government officials.
- Elected members: Elected by different categories of Indians through an electoral college system.

- **Separate Electorates for Muslims:**

- One of the most controversial aspects was the introduction of separate electorates for Muslims, allowing them to elect their representatives independently from other communities. This provision was seen as a means to appease Muslim interests and was criticized for fostering communal divisions.

- **Legislative Powers:** Elected Indian members were granted limited powers:

- They could discuss budgetary matters and table resolutions.
- However, they were prohibited from discussing foreign policy or relations with princely states.

- **First Indian in Executive Council**

- The Act facilitated the appointment of Satyendra P. Sinha as the first Indian member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, marking a symbolic step towards Indian representation at higher levels of governance. He was appointed as a member of the Legal Affairs.

EVALUATION AND CRITICISM

Despite being a step towards Indian representation, the Morley-Minto Reforms faced substantial criticism:

- **Failure to Address Self-Government:** The reforms did not fulfill the Indian National Congress's demand for self-governance, as Lord Morley explicitly stated that colonial self-government was not suitable for India.
- **Reinforcement of Communal Divisions:** The introduction of separate electorates is viewed as a detrimental move that deepened communal divisions between Hindus and Muslims, ultimately contributing to tensions that led to the partition of India in 1947.
- **Limited Franchise:** The voting rights were restricted by property and class qualifications, which meant that only a small segment of the Indian population could participate in elections, undermining the reforms' intent.
- **Discontent Among Nationalists:** The reforms failed to satisfy nationalist aspirations, prompting movements like the Home Rule League, which sought greater autonomy and self-rule for Indians.

ALL INDIA MUSLIM LEAGUE

- The British government pushed the aristocratic elements to gain political power in order to protect the distinct interests of Muslims as part of their divide and rule strategy.
- The Muslim League was established in 1906 by the educated Muslims, Muslim nawabs, and landowners, led by the Aga Khan (the first president of AIML), the Nawab of Dacca, Khwaja Salimullah Bahadur, and Nawab Mohsin-ul-Mulk.
- The Muslim League was founded as a conservative, communal, and loyalist political organization that did not oppose colonialism. The Muslim League called for special protections for Muslims in government jobs and backed the division of Bengal. Its political actions were aimed at Hindus and the National Congress rather than the foreign rulers.

RISE OF REVOLUTIONARY NATIONALISM

ABOUT

- Following the end of the Swadeshi movement, the national movement saw three distinct political action experiments, all of which played a part in advancing and strengthening national consciousness.
- The first experiment, revolutionary nationalism, coincided with the conclusion of the mass phase of the Swadeshi movement. During the First World War, the Ghadar and Home Rule Movements took place.

REASONS FOR RISE OF REVOLUTIONARY NATIONALISM

- Radicals advocated direct action, called on young people to make sacrifices, and engaged the masses in active politics. They did not, however, provide the people with a promising lead.
- Bengali youth actively supported the Swadeshi movement in the hopes that radical agitation tactics, like boycotts and passive resistance, would overthrow the British government. However, the government suppressed the movement and launched a full-scale assault on extremists following the Surat split.
- Repression by the government and dissatisfaction over the political struggle's failure led to revolutionary nationalism in the end. Bengal's youth harbored a deep-seated animosity for foreign rule and were incensed by the haughtiness and repression of the government. All of their options for nonviolent protest and political action were shut down, so they turned to the bomb cult in a desperate attempt to survive.

IDEOLOGY: REVOLUTIONARY NATIONALISM

- **Religious Bias**
 - Many of the revolutionaries had a strong religious bias in their activities, writings, and speeches. They believed in the spiritual preparation of the people and saw their cause as something beyond mere political propaganda. However, it is important to highlight that their religious beliefs were not necessarily aligned with the majority religion in India.
- **Romanticism and Emotionalism**

- The revolutionaries were influenced by romantic ideals and emotionalism. They were driven by a sense of passion, idealism, and sacrifice for the cause of independence. Their actions and rhetoric aimed to evoke strong emotions among the populace and inspire patriotism.
- **Armed Struggle as Supreme Goal**
 - The staunch revolutionaries considered the emancipation of India through armed struggle as the ultimate objective. They believed that revolutionary actions, including assassinations, dacoities (robberies), and military conspiracies, were necessary to instill fear in the rulers, mobilize the people, and remove the fear of authority.
- **Appeal to Patriotism and Youth**
 - The revolutionaries sought to inspire the populace, especially the idealistic youth, by appealing to patriotism. They aimed to create a sense of nationalistic pride and motivate the younger generation to play an active role in driving the British out of India.
- **Lessons from History**
 - The revolutionaries drew lessons from India's history as well as the histories of other countries' revolutions. They studied the tactics and strategies employed in previous liberation movements to shape their revolutionary ideology and program.
- **Opposition to Obstacles**
 - The revolutionaries revolted against anything that obstructed the progress of the revolutionary movement. They aimed to break down time-honored customs and challenge social and political barriers that hindered the path toward independence.

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES IN BENGAL

- **1902**
 - **Anushilan Samiti:** Organised by Aurobindo Ghosh & Promotha Mitter, Jatindranath Banerji and Barindra Ghosh— Basically, it was a gym started after Vivekananda's teachings but gradually became a secret society of revolutionaries. East Bengal counterpart was Dhaka Anushilan Samiti led by

Pulin Bihari Ghosh (Eastern Bengal outfits were more organized than Western Bengal outfits)– Philosophy – Force Must be encountered by Force

- **1905**

- Aurobindo Ghosh published Bhavani Mandir giving a detailed plan for organising revolutionary activities– Another book Mukti Kon Pathe (Which Way Lies the Salvation) exhorted Indian soldiers to supply weapons to Indian revolutionaries

- **1906**

- **Yugantar Group:** founded by Barindra Kumar Ghosh and Bhupendra Nath Dutt– A paper called Yugantar also started– Group worked in close association with Anushilan Samiti

- **1908**

- **Muzaffarpur Conspiracy Case**– Murder attempt on Kingsford, unpopular judge of Muzaffarpur but instead bomb was thrown by mistake on Mrs Kennedy's carriage killing two English ladies
- Two revolutionaries who threw the bomb were Prafulla Chaki, who later shot himself Khudiram Bose a boy of 15 tried & hanged Alipur Conspiracy Case Government searched for illicit arms in Calcutta & arrested 34 persons including Aurobindo Ghosh & his brother Barindra Ghosh. But after that sequence of murders started.
- Narendra Gosain who turned approver was murdered in jail
- 1909: Public Prosecutor was assassinated in Calcutta

- **1910**

- DSP of Calcutta assassinated when he was coming out of Calcutta High Court At last Aurobindo was released due to lack of evidence. He quit the movement and took up religion

- **1912**

- Bengal Group Association– Bomb was thrown at Viceroy Hardinge II by Rash Behari Bose & Sachin Sanyal at Chandani Chowk, Delhi – Many of his attendants were killed in this – Sanyal was arrested, tried, and later released for some time, and in that time he with Ramprasad Bismil formed Hindustan Republican Army (HRA) in 1924. Later he was convicted in the Kakori conspiracy and died in jail. – Rash Bihari Bose was able to escape to

Japan Note – Sachin Sanyal wrote Bandi Jeevan (the Bible of revolutionaries at that time)

- **World War I**

- Here, Yugantar Group under the leadership of Jatindranath Mukherjee (Aka Bagha/Tiger Jatin) conspired to start an armed rebellion against the Britishers
- It depended on some of the agents who had already left India and gone to South East Asia e.g. Narendranath Bhattacharya (later became MN Roy, the famous Communist). He established links with Germans to import arms and ammunition to Bengal which the Yugantar party was to use to start a more elaborate Arms Revolution. A ship carrying arms was to arrive at the coast of Odisha but it was uncovered and the ship was seized. Jatin died a martyr death in an encounter

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES IN MAHARASHTRA

- **1879**

- Revolt by Vasudev Balwant Phadke– Phadke was a Chitpavan Brahman and English-educated clerk. He seems to have been influenced by Ranade's lectures on the drain of wealth, the experience of the Deccan famine of 1876-77, and growing Hindu revivalism among Poona Brahman intellectuals.– In an autobiographical fragment written while hiding from the police in a temple, Phadke wrote how he had thought of re-establishing a Hindu Raj by collecting together a secret band, raising money through dacoities, and instigating an armed revolt by disrupting communications. 'There is much ill-feeling among the people and now if a few make a beginning those who are hungry will join.' Much of this anticipates later revolutionary terrorism– Phadke's band of forty included a few Brahman youths and many more low-caste Ramoshis and Dhangars. The outcome was a type of social banditry, with the dacoits given shelter by the peasants.– After Phadke's capture and life sentence, a Ramoshi dacoit band under Daulata Ramoshi remained active till 1883

- **1890s**

- Tilak's attempt to promote militancy among the youth through his journals & various festivals

- **1897**

- Lt Ayerst Murder at Poona, 1897– First political murder of European– By Chapekar Brothers (Chitpavan Brahmins) Damodar & Balkrishna due to provocation by the tyranny of Plague Committee on sending soldiers to inspect houses of civilians for plague-afflicted persons– Although the attack was targeted at Mr Rand (President of Plague Committee) Lt Ayerst was shot accidentally. They were caught, prosecuted & hanged– Along with them, Tilak was also persecuted on the charge of sedition for his writings & sentenced to 18 months. His writings inspired the Chapekar Brothers and are accepted by experts too. In June 1897 he wrote in Kesari, ” Krishna’s advice in the Gita is to kill even our teacher & our kinsmen. No blame is attached to any person if he is doing deeds without being actuated by a desire to reap the fruits of his deeds. Get out of the Penal Code & enter the high atmosphere of Srimat Bhagvat Gita & consider the actions of a great man”
- **1899**
 - MITRA MELA was founded by VD Savarkar (also wrote 1857 – The First War of Indian Independence).
- **1904**
 - Mitra Mela merged with Abhinav Bharat (after Mazzini’s Young Italy) – a secret organization of Revolutionaries– VD Savarkar was a young graduate from Ferguson College, Poona & availed of Krishnavarma’s fellowship offer and left for London in June 1906
- **1909**
 - The unpopular District Judge of Nashik was assassinated by the Abhinav Bharat Society (with a pistol sent by VD Savarkar)

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES IN PUNJAB

- **Socioeconomic Factors and Extremism**
 - Punjab experienced frequent famines and faced an increase in land revenue and irrigation tax, which created discontent among the people. The practice of ‘begar,’ a form of unpaid labor demanded by zamindars, also added to the grievances. These issues contributed to the growth of extremist sentiments in the region.
- **Lala Lajpat Rai and Ajit Singh**

- Lala Lajpat Rai, a prominent leader and writer, played a significant role in Punjab's revolutionary activities. He used his Punjabi journal to spread nationalist ideas and promote the cause of independence. Ajit Singh, who was Bhagat Singh's uncle, organized the extremist Anjuman-i-Mohisban-i-Watan in Lahore and published the journal, Bharat Mata. Both Lala Lajpat Rai and Ajit Singh were active in promoting extremist ideologies in Punjab.
- **Suppression and Impact on Extremism**
 - The Punjab government took strict measures against revolutionary activities. In May 1907, political meetings were banned, and Lala Lajpat Rai and Ajit Singh were deported. These actions led to a temporary decline in extremist activities in Punjab.
- **Transformation into Revolutionaries**
 - Following the suppression of political activities, Ajit Singh and some of his associates, including Sufi Ambaprasad, Lalchand, Bhai Parmanand, and Lala Hardayal, evolved into full-scale revolutionaries. They were influenced by the events and ideology of the time and began advocating for armed struggle and revolutionary methods to achieve independence.

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES IN DELHI

- **Bombing and assassinations:** The revolutionaries carried out several bombing attacks on British targets in Delhi, including the Viceroy's House and the Legislative Assembly. They also assassinated several British officials, including Sir William Hutton, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi.
- **Sabotage:** The revolutionaries also engaged in sabotage activities, such as cutting telegraph wires and derailing trains. They also attempted to smuggle weapons and ammunition into India.
- **Propaganda:** The revolutionaries also engaged in propaganda activities, such as distributing leaflets and pamphlets that promoted their cause. They also set up secret presses to print revolutionary literature.
- **Recruitment:** The revolutionaries also engaged in recruitment activities, trying to attract young people to their cause. They set up secret cells in schools and colleges, and they also held public meetings to spread their message.

DELHI CONSPIRACY

- The Delhi Conspiracy was an attempt made in 1912 to assassinate the then Viceroy of India, Lord Hardinge by throwing a local self-made bomb, on the occasion of transferring the capital of British India from Calcutta to New Delhi.
- The conspiracy was hatched by a group of revolutionaries led by Rash Behari Bose. The plan was to throw a bomb at Hardinge's carriage as he was riding through Delhi on December 23, 1912. The bomb was thrown, but it missed Hardinge and only injured two of his attendants.
- The British government launched a massive manhunt for the conspirators, and several of them were arrested. In 1914, five of the conspirators, including Lala Hanumant Sahai, Basanta Kumar Biswas, Bhai Balmukund, Amir Chand, and Awadh Behari, were sentenced to death for their roles in the conspiracy.
- Rash Behari Bose managed to evade capture and fled to Japan. He later became involved in the Ghadar Conspiracy, a plan to overthrow British rule in India.
- The Delhi Conspiracy was a major setback for the Indian independence movement, but it also showed that the British were not invincible. The conspiracy helped to inspire other revolutionaries to continue the fight for India's freedom.

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES IN MADRAS

- Nilakanta Bramhachari, Vaanchinathan, Shankar Krishna Aiyar, and a few other men started Bharatha Matha Sangam in Madras presidency. It plots the assassination of influential British men.
- On 17 June 1911, Vanchinathan assassinated the notorious British official, Robert Ashe, who was responsible for firing on a crowd that was protesting the arrest of the Extremist leader Chidambaram Pillai.

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES ABROAD

LONDON

- Shyamji Krishna Varma founded the Indian Home Rule Society, India House, and The Indian Sociologist in London in 1905.

- The Indian Home Rule Society was established to promote Home Rule, carry out propaganda in the UK for it, and make Indians aware of the concepts of freedom and national unity.
- India House (Hostel for Indian students) was the centre of Indian nationalist activity in London. It was an organised meeting point for radical nationalists among Indian students in Britain.
- Prominent revolutionaries like Savarkar and Hardayal were associated with India House. After Krishnavarma's exile to Paris in 1907 to avoid prosecution, V. D. Savarkar assumed leadership of India House.
- However, the organisation was disbanded in 1909 due to its connection with the assassination of Sir Curzon Wylie. Madan Lal Dhingra, a frequent visitor to India House, assassinated Sir Wylie.
- Indian Sociologist (journal) was an organ of India House. It frequently critiqued the injustices imposed by British rule in India

PARIS

- In 1905, Madam Bhikaiji Cama, S. R. Rana, and Munchersshah Burjorji Godrej established the Paris Indian Society. This organisation served as an offshoot of the India House in London.
- The Paris Indian Society sheltered the revolutionaries escaping from London in 1909 when the British government cracked down on the India House after the assassination of Curzon Wylie.
- The Society also financed the publication of Virendranath Chattopadhyay's newspaper Talvar from Berlin.

GERMANY

- In April 1914, Virendranath Chattopadhyaya relocated to Germany. In September 1914, with help from fellow revolutionaries in Paris and Switzerland, Chattopadhyaya and Abinash Bhattacharya met Baron Oppenheim in Germany. This led to the creation of the Indian Friendship Society of Germany, later named the Indian Independence Committee or the Berlin Committee.

- Herr Albert Berlin served as president, Baron Oppenheim and Dr. Sukhtankar were vice presidents, and Chattopadhyaya was secretary of the Indian Independence Committee.
- With the aid of Germany, the Indian Independence Committee devised several plans to oppose British rule in India. These included:
 - The Afghan Scheme to rally Muslims in the North-West Frontier against the British
 - The Batavia Scheme to arouse Bengali revolutionaries
 - The Bangkok Scheme to mobilise the 'Returned Sikhs' of the Ghadar Party.

FIRST WORLD WAR AND GHADR MOVEMENT

- The First World War began in June 1914, with Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey on one side and Great Britain, France, Italy, Russia, Japan, and the United States of America on the other.
- The Indian nationalist movement, which had stalled following the Swadeshi movement, was rekindled with the outbreak of World War I.
- The Ghadar (Rebellion) Party was founded in 1913 by Indian revolutionaries residing in the United States and Canada. Punjabi Sikh peasants and former soldiers who had traveled to North America in quest of work but faced harsh discrimination due to their economic background and race made up the majority of the party's members.
- While the British government encouraged Indian laborers to go to Fiji to work where British planters needed them, it discouraged their emigration to North America out of concern that they might become infected by the current ideas of liberty, as understood by Tarak Nath Das, an Indian student who became one of the first leaders of the Indian community in North America.
- Tarak Nath Das, an Indian student in Vancouver, Canada, started the newspaper Free Hindustan, and G.D. Kumar brought out a Gurmukhi paper, Swadesh Sevak, advocating social reform and asking Indian troops to rise in revolt.
- Swadesh Sewak Home: In November 1909, G.D. Kumar opened a hostel in Vancouver called the Swadesh Sewak Home on the lines of India House in London.
- United India House: Das and Kumar, who had been forced out of Vancouver, founded the United India House in Seattle, USA, in 1910 and began lecturing every week to a group of Indian labourers.

- Das and Kumar also developed close links with the Khalsa Diwan Society, which resulted in 1913 in a decision to send a deputation to meet the Colonial Secretary in London and the Viceroy and other officials in India.
- Disappointed with the lack of response from the Indian and British governments, the Indian community in North America felt the acute need for a central organisation and a leader. They found their leader in Lala Har Dayal, a political exile from India who had come to the U.S. in 1911.
- In May 1913, the Hindi Association was formed in Portland, which later changed its name to the Hindustan Ghadar Party. At the first meeting of the Association, Baba Sohan Singh Bhakna was elected President, Lala Har Dayal General Secretary, and Pandit Kanshi Ram Maroli Treasurer.
- The Association collected \$10,000 and decided to set up a headquarters called Yugantar Ashram in San Francisco and start a weekly paper, the Ghadar, for free circulation.
- **Aim:** The Ghadar Party was pledged to wage a revolutionary war against the British in India.
- **Ideology:** Though most of the party's members were Punjabi Sikh peasants and ex-soldiers, the party's ideology was strongly secular. In the words of Sohan Singh Bhakna, who later became a major peasant leader of Punjab: "We were not Sikhs or Punjabis. Our religion was patriotism".
- The paper Ghadar was launched on 1 November 1913; the first issue was in Urdu, followed a month later by the Gurmukhi version. The format of the Ghadar paper was designed to convey the message of nationalism in simple and bold terms. It's very name, 'Ghadar', meant revolt. On its masthead was inscribed the caption: Angezi Raj Ka Dushman or 'An Enemy of British Rule'.

KOMAGATA MARU INCIDENT

ABOUT

- The Komagata Maru incident is a significant event in Canadian history that highlights issues of racial discrimination and immigration policies. It involved the Japanese steamship Komagata Maru, which set sail from Hong Kong on April 4, 1914, carrying 376 passengers—primarily Sikhs from British India, along with Muslims and Hindus.

- The ship aimed to challenge restrictive Canadian immigration laws that effectively barred South Asians from entering the country.

BACKGROUND

- Upon its arrival in Vancouver on May 23, 1914, the Komagata Maru was met with hostility. Canadian immigration officials enforced stringent laws, including the Continuous Passage Act, which required immigrants to travel directly from their country of origin without stops.
- This law disproportionately affected South Asians, as direct routes from India to Canada were not available. Only 24 passengers were allowed to disembark, while the remaining 352 were forced to remain on the ship under dire conditions for over two months.

LEGAL STRUGGLES AND DEPORTATION

- During their time anchored in Vancouver, the passengers sought legal recourse with the help of local South Asian communities. They hired a lawyer to challenge their deportation; however, their case was ultimately unsuccessful.
- On July 23, 1914, the Komagata Maru was escorted out of Canadian waters by the HMCS Rainbow, marking a humiliating defeat for the passengers who had hoped for a new life in Canada.

RETURN TO INDIA AND AFTERMATH

- Upon returning to India on September 26, 1914, the situation escalated dramatically. The British authorities viewed the passengers as potential revolutionaries and attempted to arrest several leaders upon arrival at Budge Budge near Calcutta.
- This led to a riot in which police opened fire on the crowd, resulting in numerous casualties—officially recorded as at least 22 deaths. The incident became a symbol of racial injustice and sparked outrage among Indian communities both domestically and abroad.

INDIAN HOME RULE LEAGUE AND LUCKNOW PACT (1916)

ABOUT

- The Indian Home Rule League was a significant movement in the early 20th century aimed at achieving self-governance for India within the British Empire. It emerged in the context of rising nationalist sentiments during World War I and was inspired by similar movements, particularly the Irish Home Rule movement.

LEADERSHIP

- Bal Gangadhar Tilak: Established the first league in April 1916 at the Bombay Provincial Congress.
- Annie Besant: Founded a second league in September 1916 in Madras (now Chennai).
- Both leaders sought to mobilize Indian public opinion and promote self-rule through peaceful means. The leagues operated in tandem, with Tilak's efforts concentrated mainly in western India and Besant's having a broader national focus.

OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

- **Demanding Self-Governance:** The leagues sought to secure home rule for India, emphasizing the need for self-governance within the framework of the British Commonwealth.
- **Mobilizing Public Support:** They aimed to galvanize support among the educated classes and the general populace, fostering a sense of national identity and political awareness.
- **Political Pressure:** The leagues exerted pressure on the British government, contributing to political reforms such as the Montagu Declaration of 1917, which promised greater Indian participation in governance.

IMPACT ON NATIONALISM

- The Home Rule Movement played a crucial role in revitalizing nationalist activities in India. It marked a shift towards more assertive demands for self-rule and helped bridge divides between moderate and extremist factions within the Indian National

Congress. The movement facilitated greater unity among various political groups, including collaboration between Congress and the Muslim League.

DECLINE AND LEGACY

- By 1920, the influence of the Home Rule Leagues began to wane as they merged with the Indian National Congress under Mahatma Gandhi's leadership, which renamed it Swarajya Sabha.
- Despite its decline, the Home Rule Movement laid essential groundwork for subsequent mass movements leading to India's independence in 1947. It is credited with instilling confidence among Indians regarding their ability to govern themselves and challenging British authority more effectively.

1916 CONGRESS SESSION

- Lucknow Session of the Congress (1916) was presided over by A.C. Majumdar. It was the first Congress session Gandhiji attended after his return to India from South Africa in 1915.
- This session was known for readmission of extremists into Congress.

LUCKNOW PACT (1916)

ABOUT

- The Lucknow Pact was a significant agreement reached in December 1916 between the Indian National Congress (INC) and the All India Muslim League (AIML). This pact marked a pivotal moment in India's struggle for independence, symbolizing an effort to foster Hindu-Muslim unity against British colonial rule. The agreement was primarily aimed at enhancing political representation for Indians and advocating for self-governance.

KEY PROVISIONS OF THE LUCKNOW PACT

- **Separate Electorates for Muslims:** The pact established separate electorates, allowing Muslims to elect their representatives directly, thus recognizing their distinct political identity.

- **Increased Representation in Legislative Councils:** It called for a significant increase in the number of elected seats in both central and provincial legislative councils, ensuring that more Indians had a voice in governance.
- **Joint Demands for Reforms:** Both parties jointly demanded reforms from the British, including increased autonomy and a majority of elected members in legislative bodies.

SIGNIFICANCE

- The backdrop of the Lucknow Pact was characterized by ideological differences between the INC and the AIML. While the INC represented a broader Indian perspective, the AIML focused on Muslim-specific demands. However, leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak (INC) and Muhammad Ali Jinnah (AIML) recognized that achieving self-rule required collaboration between these two major communities.

TIMELINE: NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1905–1918)

1905: Partition of Bengal

- **July 1905:** Lord Curzon announces the partition to create Eastern Bengal and Assam.
- **October 16, 1905:** Partition takes effect, sparking outrage and giving rise to the **Swadeshi Movement**.

1906: Formation of All India Muslim League

- Founded by Nawab Salimullah and Aga Khan; aimed to protect Muslim interests and supported the partition of Bengal.

1907: Surat Split

- **December 1907:** Congress splits into Moderates and Extremists due to ideological differences, weakening unity.

1909: Morley-Minto Reforms (Indian Councils Act)

- Introduces limited elections and separate electorates for Muslims.
- First Indian (Satyendra P. Sinha) appointed to Viceroy's Executive Council.

1911: Annulment of Bengal Partition

- **December 1911:** Partition reversed due to continuous protests; Bengal reunified.

1913: Formation of Ghadar Party

- Established in the USA by Indian expatriates, committed to revolution against British rule.

1914: Komagata Maru Incident

- Ship carrying Indian immigrants denied entry into Canada; passengers face hostility and violence upon return to India.

1915–1916: Home Rule Movement

- **April 1916:** Bal Gangadhar Tilak establishes Home Rule League.
- **September 1916:** Annie Besant launches a second league with a national focus.

1916: Lucknow Pact

- Congress and Muslim League unite to demand reforms.
- Establishes separate electorates for Muslims and calls for increased legislative representation.

1918: Revolutionary Activities

- Increased radical actions during World War I, including attempts to import arms through the Berlin Committee.

EMERGENCE OF GANDHI

ABOUT

- On October 2, 1869, Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born in Porbandar, Gujarat. He married Kasturba Makanji in 1882, and the two of them had four kids.
- Gandhi wanted to study law in London, but his caste objected because they believed that crossing the ocean would tarnish him. On September 29, 1888, Gandhi, then eighteen, arrived in Southampton, England, in spite of their protests.
- In June 1890, Gandhi passed the University of London matriculation exam in addition to studying law. Gandhi refrained from joining the recently formed British Committee of the Indian National Congress while he was in London.
- Gandhi returned to India in 1891 after becoming a qualified barrister. In order to earn a modest living, he chose to settle in Rajkot, Gujarat, after beginning his legal career in Bombay with little success.

GANDHIJI IN SOUTH AFRICA

ABOUT

- In 1893, Dada Abdullah, an Indian merchant in Natal, offered to engage Gandhi for a civil suit in South Africa. Gandhiji accepted the offer and reached Durban, Natal, on May 25, 1893.
- Most of the Indian population in South Africa comprised indentured and freed labourers working in sugar plantations and a few merchants with their clerks and assistants.
- Mahatma Gandhi's journey in South Africa spanned from 1893 to 1914, a crucial period during which he developed his philosophy of nonviolent resistance and laid the groundwork for his future leadership in India.
- His experiences in South Africa were pivotal in shaping his political views, ethics, and strategies for social justice.

EARLY EXPERIENCES AND ACTIVISM

- Gandhi arrived in South Africa in April 1893 to work as a legal advisor for an Indian merchant, Abdullah. Almost immediately, he encountered racial discrimination, exemplified by an incident where he was thrown off a train for refusing to vacate a first-class compartment despite holding a valid ticket.
- This humiliation ignited his commitment to fight against injustice and led him to extend his stay in South Africa.
- Gandhi was scheduled to return to India when his contract expired in June 1894. But at a farewell party, he discovered through the newspaper that a bill to deny Indians the right to vote was being considered by the Natal Legislative Assembly.
- Gandhi made the decision to stay and support the cause at the Indian community's request. As a result, he delayed his trip back to India by one month.
- In response to the systemic discrimination faced by Indians, Gandhi founded the Natal Indian Congress in 1894, which aimed to unify the Indian community and advocate for their rights.
- His activism included organizing nonviolent protests against discriminatory laws, such as the Transvaal Asiatic Ordinance and the Black Act.

DEVELOPMENT OF SATYAGRAHA

- During his time at Phoenix Settlement and later at Tolstoy Farm, Gandhi developed the concept of Satyagraha, or "truth-force," which emphasized nonviolent resistance as a means of protest against oppression.
- These farms served as training grounds for activists committed to nonviolent methods of civil disobedience. Tolstoy Farm, established in 1910, became a center for Gandhian politics and a model for communal living based on mutual respect and cooperation.

KEY EVENTS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

- **Formation of the Natal Indian Congress (1894):** This organization was pivotal in rallying Indians against oppressive legislation.
- **Indian Ambulance Corps (1899):** During the Boer War, Gandhi organized this corps to support British efforts while highlighting the humanity of Indians.

- **First Satyagraha Campaign (1906):** Launched against the Transvaal Asiatic Ordinance, this marked Gandhi's first large-scale application of nonviolent resistance.
- **Imprisonment:** Gandhi was imprisoned multiple times for his activism, including a notable three-month sentence in Volksrust, which further solidified his status as a leader

VARIOUS PHASES OF RESISTANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

EARLY STRUGGLES (1893-1899)

- **Arrival and Initial Experiences:** Gandhi arrived in South Africa in 1893 and quickly faced racial discrimination, notably being thrown off a train despite holding a first-class ticket. This incident marked the beginning of his awareness of racial injustices against Indians in South Africa.
- **Formation of the Natal Indian Congress (1894):** In response to discriminatory laws, Gandhi helped establish the Natal Indian Congress to advocate for the rights of Indians. This organization became a platform for collective action against racial injustices.

BOER WAR AND INCREASED ACTIVISM (1899-1902)

- **Indian Ambulance Corps (1899):** During the Boer War, Gandhi formed the Indian Ambulance Corps, recruiting over 1,100 Indians to serve as stretcher-bearers for British troops. This was an attempt to prove the loyalty and capability of Indians while also gaining political leverage for their rights.
- **Continued Resistance:** Despite his efforts during the war, racial discrimination persisted. Gandhi's experiences during this period deepened his commitment to nonviolent resistance as a means of achieving social justice.

CONSOLIDATION AND EXPANSION OF SATYAGRAHA (1906-1913)

- **Further Campaigns Against Discrimination:** Following the Boer War, Gandhi led several campaigns against oppressive laws, including protests against the Black Act and the invalidation of Indian marriages. These campaigns saw thousands participating in acts of civil disobedience.
- **Mass Mobilization:** By 1913, Gandhi had successfully mobilized thousands of Indians across various communities to participate in Satyagraha campaigns. This

included significant actions such as strikes and protests that challenged discriminatory laws.

VOLKURST SATYAGRAHA (1913)

- In 1913, the Supreme Court judgement invalidated all marriages which had not been performed according to Christian rites and registered by the Registrar of Marriages. In other words, all Hindu, Muslim and Parsi marriages became illegal, and their children were illegitimate.
- In response, Mahatma Gandhi launched the Volkurst Satyagraha. This time, the movement was widened to include abolishing discriminatory pass laws, the Registration of Marriages Act, and the three-pound poll tax imposed on all ex-indentured Indians. Women, including Kasturba Gandhi, played a prominent role, with many being sent to prison. Gandhi himself was put behind bars.
- The culmination of these efforts was the Gandhi-Smuts agreement in 1914. The Government of South Africa accepted all major demands of Indians and passed the Indian Relief Act (1914), abolishing discriminatory laws.
- According to the Indian Relief Act:
 - The principle of voluntary registration was accepted.
 - The term 'Asiatic' was removed from immigration laws.
 - The poll tax of three pounds on non-indentured labourers was abolished.
 - The marriages solemnised according to Indian rites were legitimised.

NEGOTIATION AND DEPARTURE (1913-1914)

- **Negotiations with Authorities:** The culmination of Gandhi's struggles in South Africa came with negotiations with General Jan Smuts, which resulted in some concessions from the government regarding Indian rights. However, these changes were limited and did not resolve all issues facing Indians in South Africa.
- **Departure from South Africa (1914):** Gandhi left South Africa in 1914 after nearly 21 years. His experiences there had profoundly shaped his philosophy and strategies for nonviolent resistance that he would later apply in India during the independence movement.

GANDHI LEARNING FROM SOUTH AFRICA

- Birth of Satyagraha: Gandhi developed a new Satyagraha strategy based on truth and non-violence as a result of the unfair fight against racial discrimination.
- The South African struggle brought to light the potential and necessity of Hindu-Muslim unity.
- Gandhi came to recognize the tremendous fighting power of the average person during this time.
- Gandhi became the leader of the Indian people, not of any one area or religious group, as a result of the fight in South Africa.

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ARRIVAL OF GANDHI IN INDIA

ARRIVAL

- When Gandhi, then 46, returned to India in 1915, he was welcomed with open arms. Gandhi travelled throughout India during his first year there on the counsel of his political mentor, G.K. Gokhale, in order to gain an understanding of the populace, their needs, and the general state of affairs.
- Gandhi also went to the Kumbh Mela at Hardwar and Shantiniketan, which was visited by Rabindranath Tagore. Gandhi was able to comprehend his fellow citizens and the circumstances in India thanks to all of this. Gandhi founded the Satyagraha Ashram in Kochrab, close to Ahmedabad, in May 1915.
- The ashram was renamed Sabarmati Ashram and relocated to a new location on the Sabarmati River in 1917. Gandhi's friends and supporters could study and put the principles of truth and nonviolence into practice there.
- Gandhi avoided getting involved in politics at this time and showed very little interest in them. Gandhi declined Annie Besant's invitation to join her in creating a Home Rule League because he didn't want to cause problems for the British government during the war.
- In February 1916, Gandhi made his first significant public appearance at the founding of Banaras Hindu University (BHU). Gandhiji wasn't very well-known. Rather than his position in India, he was invited due to his work in South Africa.

GANDHI'S THREE EARLY CHALLENGES/EXPERIMENTS

- Gandhi became involved in three local issues in 1917–1918, marking his entry into Indian politics.
 - Gandhi participated in the Champaran Satyagraha in 1917 in an effort to secure tenure security and the right of peasants to grow the crops they choose.
 - Gandhi demanded improved working conditions for the textile mill workers during a labor dispute in Ahmedabad.
 - After their harvest failed, Gandhi joined the Kheda peasants in requesting that the state waive their taxes. Movements Year Gandhi's Novel Methods
- Champaran Satyagraha-1917 First Civil Disobedience Movement

- Ahmedabad Mill Strike-1918 First Hunger Strike
- Kheda satyagraha 1918-First Non-cooperation Movement

CHAMPARAN SATYAGRAHA-1917

- Bengal's indigo production collapsed following the Indigo Rebellion (1859–60), and the planters moved their operations to Bihar.
- The peasants in Bihar's Champaran district were subjected to oppression by European planters who forced them to: Grow indigo on at least 3/20th of their land (using the Tinkathia system); and sell indigo at prices set by the European planters.
- The late 19th-century German discovery of synthetic dyes had a significant impact on European planters' operations. The majority of Champaran's planters realized that growing indigo was no longer profitable. In exchange for payment, they promised to stop the tenants from cultivating indigo. Additionally, they demanded unlawful dues and increased the rent.
- Gandhi was convinced by Rajkumar Shukla, a Bihar peasant, to travel to Champaran and observe the suffering of the indigo growers during the December 1916 Congress session in Lucknow. Gandhi's first significant Satyagraha experiment took place in Champaran in 1917 as a result of this.
- Gandhi arrived in Champaran in 1917 with Rajendra Prasad, Mazhar-ul-Huq, J. B. Kripalani, Narhari Parikh, and Mahadev Desai, and he carried out a thorough investigation into the state of the peasantry.
- Gandhi was told to leave the area right away by the authorities. Gandhi disobeyed the directive and chose to be punished by civil disobedience or passive resistance. Gandhi was compelled by this to serve on the Champaran Agrarian Committee, which the government appointed.
- The committee unanimously suggested lowering enhanced rates and doing away with the Tinkathia system and numerous unlawful exactions.
- The committee recommended a 25% refund for the unlawful recoveries. Even a 25% refund damaged the planters' reputation and status, and they soon left the district even though the committee did not advocate for a complete reimbursement of the unlawful dues.

AHMEDABAD MILL STRIKE (1918)

- Gandhi stepped in to mediate a conflict between Ahmedabad's cotton mill owners and laborers in 1918.
- Ahmadabad experienced a labor shortage in 1917 as a result of the plague outbreak. In order to keep employees during a plague, mill owners provided a "Plague Bonus." Mill owners discontinued the Plague Bonus (75% of mill workers' wages) after the epidemic was over. Workers protested, arguing that it was necessary to counteract inflation from the war.
- The millowners were willing to offer a 20% raise, but the workers went on strike and demanded a 50% pay increase due to the price increase.
- As things got worse, Gandhi received a letter from the Ahmedabad Collector on February 11, 1918, pleading with him to mediate and help defuse the situation. Gandhi decided to step in after speaking with Ambalal Sarabhai about the worker's issues.
- The millowners and employees decided to refer the matter to a Board of Arbitration, which would be chaired by the British Collector and comprise three representatives from each party.
- However, the millowners abruptly made the decision to leave the board. They threatened to fire those who refused to accept their 20% bonus offer.
- Gandhi examined the mills' financial situation in this scenario and requested that workers demand a 35% pay increase rather than a 50% one. During the strike, he emphasized that employees should not resort to violence against their employer.
- With the help of Anasuya Sarabhai, Gandhi organized daily worker mass meetings where he gave speeches and distributed a number of pamphlets about the situation.
- Gandhi began a death-defying fast on March 15 in an attempt to compel a compromise. On day four, the millowners gave in, and on March 18, a settlement was reached. The strike was called off after the mill owners decided to take the matter to a tribunal.
- In the end, the workers received a 35% raise after the arbitrator's decision favored them.

KHEDA SATYAGRAHA (1918)

- If the crops were less than 25% of the typical production, the "revenue code" offered a complete remission. Kheda's peasants suffered from a poor harvest and price increases in 1918.
- Because the crops yielded less than one-fourth of their usual amount, the peasants demanded that the year's revenue be remitted in order to lessen their suffering.
- Nevertheless, their concerns were ignored by the colonial government. Local leaders such as Shankarlal Parikh and Mohanlal Pandya responded by starting the no-revenue movement in November 1917. In response, the government seized the non-payers' properties.
- Through the Gujarat Sabha, the satyagrahis approached Gandhiji to assume leadership.
- Gandhi maintained that the cultivators' right to a revenue suspension was a legal one rather than a favoritism. Gandhiji spoke to a public gathering of 5,000 peasants at Nadiad on March 22, 1918, and counseled them against paying land revenue.
- He visited villages, encouraged the peasants to refuse to pay taxes, and helped them overcome their fear of the government. Gandhi became aware that the peasantry was about to run out of energy.
- When the government told him that money should only be collected from those who could afford it and that the truly impoverished peasants should not be pressured, he ended the agitation. Gandhi was aided by Vallabhbhai Patel and Indulal Yajnik.

SIGNIFICANCE

- Initiatives in Champaran, Ahmedabad and Kheda:
 - Demonstrated Gandhiji as a nationalist with a deep sympathy for the poor.
 - Brought Gandhiji into close contact with the masses.
 - Gandhi deployed his Satyagraha technique for the first time in India, giving a new direction to political mobilisation.
- Victories in all these cases ultimately paved the way for Gandhi's emergence as an all-India leader.
- In these movements, Gandhi influenced educated youths like Rajendra Prasad and J.B. Kripalani in Bihar and Vallabhbhai Patel and Indulal Yajnik in Gujarat, who later played significant roles in nationalist politics.

GANDHIAN IDEOLOGIES

INFLUENCES

- Gandhi's mother had a significant impact on his life. Early ideas were influenced by Hindu texts such as the Bhagavata Gita, Vaishnavism, and Jainism; Tolstoy, Thoreau, and Ruskin's writings also had an effect.
- M. K. Gandhi wrote in his autobiography, "Three contemporary figures have profoundly impacted and enthralled me:
 - Raychandbhai [spiritual leader Srimad Rajchandra] through his living contact.
 - The Kingdom of God Is Within You by Tolstoy.
 - Unto This Last, Ruskin's book.

SATYAGRAHA

- Satyagraha, which translates to "true force," is a key component of Gandhi's philosophy. It was created by Gandhi in South Africa and subsequently turned into a potent weapon in India's struggle for independence.
- Using self-suffering and non-violence to try to persuade the enemy to change their mind is known as satyagraha.
- Gandhi engaged in a variety of forms of Satyagraha, including non-cooperation, civil disobedience, peaceful picketing, and fasting. All of these types of satyagraha, in his opinion, are pure means to pure ends.

TRAITS OF SATYAGRAHI

- The ideal Satyagrahis are dedicated to perfect peace and truth.
- They are peaceful, but they don't accept what they believe to be unfair or wrong.
- They accept suffering voluntarily as part of the fight against wrongdoing.
- They strictly forbid the use of violence in any form, even when opposing evil; they do not harbor animosity toward the wrongdoer.

SATYAGRAHA VS PASSIVE RESISTANCE

- Gandhi clarified the difference between satyagraha and passive resistance, stating that the latter is frequently viewed as a tactic employed by the weak, permitting the use of violence or physical force to further one's objectives.

- Satyagraha, on the other hand, firmly opposes the use of violence in any form and views it as a weapon of the strongest. Gandhi therefore argues that satyagraha is a more potent and morally sound kind of nonviolent resistance than passive resistance.

AHIMSA

- Gandhi held that only the strong and courageous could effectively employ non-violence; it was not a weapon for the cowardly or weak.
- Gandhi's Satyagraha is founded on nonviolence and the truth. Despite his general support for nonviolence, Gandhi occasionally implied that violence might be better than a cowardly submission to injustice.

SWARAJ

CORE PRINCIPLES OF SWARAJ OF GANDHI

- **Self-Rule:** At its essence, Swaraj signifies the ability of individuals to govern themselves without external control. Gandhi emphasized that true Swaraj involves not just the absence of foreign domination but also the internal capacity for self-regulation and self-restraint. He stated, "It is Swaraj when we learn to rule ourselves" .
- **Moral and Spiritual Dimensions:** For Gandhi, Swaraj was deeply intertwined with moral and spiritual growth. He believed that achieving Swaraj required individuals to engage in self-purification and develop a high moral character. This moral dimension was crucial for fostering a society where people could coexist peacefully and justly .
- **Economic Independence:** Economic freedom is a vital aspect of Swaraj. Gandhi argued that true independence could not be realized without economic self-sufficiency for all citizens, particularly the marginalized and impoverished. He envisioned a society where resources were equitably distributed, promoting social justice and the welfare of the weakest members of society .
- **Decentralization of Power:** Gandhi advocated for a decentralized political structure where power resided with local communities rather than being concentrated in a central government. He viewed the state as a "soulless machine" that could oppress rather than liberate individuals. Thus, he promoted governance by the people, emphasizing that every individual should be empowered to participate in decision-making processes .

- Cultural Independence: Gandhi also highlighted the importance of cultural self-reliance, asserting that political freedom would be meaningless if it did not accompany cultural independence. He encouraged Indians to take pride in their heritage and traditions while being open to learning from others .

SWARAJ AS A CONTINUOUS STRUGGLE

- Gandhi maintained that achieving Swaraj is not merely a political goal but an ongoing struggle that requires continuous effort, education, and active participation from all citizens.
- He believed that true independence could only be realized through non-violent means and collective action aimed at empowering the masses . His vision included not only the liberation from colonial rule but also the creation of a society based on equality, justice, and mutual respect

SWADESHI

- Gandhi encouraged the use of Indian-made products and promoted Swadeshi. In order to combat poverty, he supported regional businesses, especially those that produced handcrafted clothing.
- Gandhi supported the development of modern industries in India even though he opposed Western industrial influences.
- He got along well with businessmen like G.D. Birla and Ambalal Sarabhai. Gandhi argued that capitalists should act as "trustees" for workers, endorsing the notion of interdependence between capital and labor.
- Gandhiji disapproved of workers becoming politicized along class lines. He consistently emphasized the value of universal human solidarity that cuts across class or other distinctions.

CORE PRINCIPLES OF GANDHIAN ECONOMICS

- Self-Sufficiency and Village Economy
 - Gandhi envisioned an economy centered around autonomous village republics. He believed that villages should be self-sufficient, producing their own necessities and contributing to urban needs without becoming dependent on large-scale industries. This approach was meant to empower rural

communities and reduce migration to cities, which he viewed as detrimental to both individual fulfillment and community cohesion.

- **Trusteeship**
 - One of Gandhi's significant contributions to economic thought is the concept of trusteeship. He argued that wealthy individuals should act as trustees for society, using their surplus wealth for the welfare of the less fortunate rather than accumulating personal wealth. This principle aimed to promote social justice and minimize economic inequality.
- **Decentralization**
 - Gandhi advocated for a decentralized economic system that emphasized small-scale production and local resources. He believed that centralization led to exploitation and increased disparities between rich and poor. By promoting local industries, particularly cottage industries, he sought to create employment opportunities and enhance community resilience.
- **Swadeshi (Self-Reliance)**
 - The Swadeshi movement, which Gandhi championed, encouraged the use of locally produced goods over foreign imports. This was not merely an economic strategy but also a means of fostering national pride and self-reliance among Indians. Gandhi viewed reliance on foreign products as a form of colonial subjugation that undermined local economies.
- **Ethical Considerations in Production**
 - Gandhi emphasized the importance of ethical considerations in economic activities. He believed that work should not only serve economic purposes but also contribute to spiritual growth. He advocated for labor-intensive production methods over capital-intensive ones, arguing that this approach would preserve human dignity and provide meaningful employment.
- **Critique of Industrialization**
 - While Gandhi did not completely oppose industrialization, he was critical of large-scale industries that prioritized profit over human welfare. He argued that such industries often led to environmental degradation, urban poverty, and the erosion of traditional livelihoods. Instead, he favored technologies that enhanced labor rather than replaced it.
- **Relevance Today**

- Gandhi's economic ideas remain relevant in contemporary discussions about sustainable development, social equity, and ethical business practices. His emphasis on self-sufficiency, community well-being, and the moral responsibilities of wealth holders resonates with current movements advocating for social entrepreneurship and environmental sustainability.
- In summary, Gandhi's economic views advocate for a holistic approach that integrates ethical considerations with practical economic strategies aimed at fostering community resilience, reducing inequality, and promoting sustainable development.

GANDHI VIEWS ON CASTE

EARLY VIEWS ON CASTE

- In his early years, Gandhi held orthodox views regarding the caste system. He believed that caste was integral to Hindu society and supported prohibitions on inter-dining and inter-marriage among different castes.
- He viewed the varna system as essential for maintaining social order, asserting that it had "saved Hinduism from disintegration" and was vital for societal organization. Gandhi considered the four divisions of varna to be fundamental and natural, while he regarded the numerous sub-castes (jatis) as problematic.

OPPOSITION TO UNTOUCHABILITY

- Despite his support for the caste system, Gandhi was a vocal opponent of untouchability, which he condemned as harmful to both spiritual and national well-being. He referred to untouchables as "Harijans" (children of God) and campaigned against untouchability vigorously, especially during the 1930s.
- His efforts included fasting and mobilizing public opinion against discrimination. Gandhi's activism in this area was significant; however, critics argue that it did not equate to a complete rejection of the caste system itself. Instead, he focused on reforming the treatment of untouchables rather than abolishing caste altogether.

THE GANDHI-AMBEDKAR DEBATE

- A pivotal aspect of Gandhi's views on caste is his conflict with B.R. Ambedkar, a prominent leader advocating for Dalit rights. Ambedkar rejected the entire caste system as a source of oppression and sought its abolition.
- In contrast, Gandhi aimed for reform within the existing structure, believing that separate electorates for Dalits would further divide Hindus and weaken their collective struggle against colonial rule. This ideological clash culminated in events like the Poona Pact of 1932, which aimed to address Dalit representation without endorsing separate electorates.

SHIFT TOWARDS REFORM

- As Gandhi matured politically, particularly in response to pressures from the growing Dalit movement and figures like Ambedkar, his views began to shift. By the late 1930s, he started advocating for greater social equality and inter-caste marriage as means to dismantle caste barriers.
- He acknowledged that hereditary occupation should not be an absolute determinant of one's social status. In 1947, he even advised upper-caste families to invite Dalits to dine with them as a step towards social integration

GANDHI'S VIEWS ON WOMEN

MORAL AND SPIRITUAL STRENGTH

- Gandhi viewed women as embodiments of moral strength, often referring to them as the "noble sex." He believed that their inherent qualities made them powerful agents for social change.
- He famously stated that while women might be physically weaker, they were stronger in terms of endurance and resilience.

ROLE IN SOCIETY

- Gandhi envisioned women as vital contributors to both family and society. He argued that the family unit was fundamental to societal progress, with mothers playing a pivotal role in instilling values in their children.
- He asserted that both boys and girls should share household responsibilities equally, promoting gender equality within domestic settings.

ADVOCACY AGAINST DISCRIMINATION

- Gandhi was a staunch opponent of gender-based discrimination. He condemned practices such as child marriage and the dowry system, advocating for women's rights to education and equal treatment.
- He believed that both genders should have equal rights over property and children, emphasizing that societal norms should not dictate a woman's worth or role.

POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT

- Gandhi actively encouraged women's participation in the national movement for independence. He recognized their potential to contribute significantly to political change and social reform.
- During various campaigns, he called upon women to join him in protests and social initiatives, highlighting their strength and capabilities.

EDUCATION AS A TOOL FOR EMPOWERMENT

- Gandhi emphasized the importance of education for women, asserting that educating a woman was tantamount to educating an entire family.
- He promoted basic education that included vocational training, enabling women to become self-reliant and economically independent.

CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

- Gandhi's views were also influenced by traditional Indian concepts of womanhood, where he saw women as "ardhangini" (better halves) of men. However, he sought to redefine this relationship by advocating for mutual respect and equality rather than subservience.

TIMELINE-BASED ACTIVE RECALL: GANDHI'S JOURNEY (1869-1918)

1869

- **Event:** Birth of Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi in Porbandar, Gujarat.

1882

- **Event:** Marriage to Kasturba Makanji.

1888

- **Event:** Departure to London for law studies amidst caste objections.

1891

- **Event:** Return to India; initial struggles in the legal profession.

1893

- **Event:** Arrival in South Africa and encounter with racial discrimination (train incident).

1894

- **Event:** Formation of Natal Indian Congress.

1899-1902

- **Event:** Participation in Boer War; establishment of Indian Ambulance Corps.

1906

- **Event:** First Satyagraha campaign against Transvaal Asiatic Ordinance.

1913

- **Event:** Volkrust Satyagraha launched in response to discriminatory marriage and poll tax laws.

1914

- **Event:** Departure from South Africa after the Gandhi-Smuts agreement.

1915

- **Event:** Return to India; establishment of Kochrab Ashram and later Sabarmati Ashram.

1917

- **Event:** Champaran Satyagraha (Indigo crisis).

1918

- **Event:** Ahmedabad Mill Strike and Kheda Satyagraha.

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POST FIRST WORLD WAR TO NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

IMPACT OF FIRST WORLD WAR AND GOVT. RESPONSE

IMPACT

- Due to rising prices, high taxes, rising unemployment, and the economic depression, all facets of Indian society experienced financial hardship in the years following World War I.
- The educated, urban Indians had to deal with rising unemployment.
- The workers faced unemployment and high prices, and they lived in extreme poverty. The peasantry was suffering under rising taxes and poverty.
- After thriving during the war, Indian industries now faced closure and losses. Large-scale foreign capital investments started to be made in India.
- From the beginning, the European powers utilised the notion of racial and cultural superiority to maintain their imperialism.
- However, during the war, both sides (European powers) carried on intense propaganda against each other, exposing the opponent's brutal and uncivilised colonial record. Consequently, the notion of the white man's racial superiority began to diminish among the populace.
- In order to garner public support for their war effort, the Allied nations—Britain, the United States, France, Italy, and Japan—promised to bring about a new era of democracy and national self-determination for all people worldwide during World War I.
- But they didn't follow through on their pledges after winning. Rather, they divided the former colonies of the vanquished powers, Germany and Turkey, among themselves in Africa, West Asia, and East Asia, which demoralized the people of Asia and Africa who had great expectations for a better future.
- Anticipating political gains following the war, nationalists backed British war efforts. Congress demanded self-government after the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms fell short of their expectations.

GOVERNMENT RESPONSE

- The Government, aware of the rising tide of nationalist and anti-government sentiments, once again decided to follow the policy of the carrot and the stick, in other words, of concessions and repression.
- The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms were offered as a concession, while the Rowlatt Act represented the government's repression.
- In 1918, Edwin Montagu, the Secretary of State, and Lord Chelmsford, the Viceroy, produced their scheme of constitutional reforms, which led to the enactment of the Government of India Act of 1919.

MONTAGU DECLARATION (1917)

- As a response to the political pressure in India and to buy the support of Indians in the War, on 20 August 1917, Lord Montagu, the Secretary of State for India, made the following statement in the British Parliament: “The policy of His Majesty's government was to increase the association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of self-governing institutions with the ultimate goal of responsible government in India.”

MONTAGU-CHELMSFORD REFORMS (1918)

- In November 1917, Lord Montagu visited India and discussed with Lord Chelmsford, the officials of the central and provincial governments, and Indian leaders. Based on these deliberations, the Montagu-Chelmsford Report (Montford Report) was published in July 1918.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT 1919

PROVISIONS

- The Government of India Act 1919 introduced dyarchy, allowing Indian ministers control over some provincial subjects, while the British retained power over finance and law.
- The Viceroy held significant authority at the central level, with limited Indian involvement in key areas like defence and foreign policy.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

- Under the Government of India Act 1919, the provinces were given more autonomy and introduced a **dyarchy** system.
- **Executive:** The Act established the concept of dyarchy at the provincial level, dividing powers between British and Indian ministers.
- **Transferred subjects:** Education, public health, agriculture, and local self-government had a direct impact on people's daily lives and were supposed to be handled by elected Indian representatives.
- **Reserved subjects:** Finance, law enforcement, and land revenue, remained under the control of British governors. The governors retained considerable power, including the ability to veto decisions and issue ordinances.
- The secretary of state for India and governor-general can intervene in reserved subjects, but not in transferred subjects.
- **Legislature:** The Government of India Act 1919 expanded the provincial legislative councils, with 70% of members elected, but key limitations persisted. The dyarchical system restricted Indian control to less critical areas, while essential sectors like finance and law remained under British authority.
- The dyarchy was implemented in eight provinces, including Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Central Provinces, United Provinces, Bombay, Madras, and Punjab.
- Women were granted the right to vote.
- Legislative councils could propose legislation, but the governor's approval was required. The governor can veto bills and issue ordinances.
- The legislative councils may reject the budget, but the governor has the authority to restore it if necessary.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

- Under the Government of India Act 1919, the British maintained central control, with the Viceroy and a largely British executive council holding significant power.
- **Executive:** There were two lists for administration: central and provincial.
- **Governor-General's Authority:** The governor-general controlled residuary subjects, could restore budget cuts, approve rejected bills, and issue ordinances.
- **Viceroy's Central Power:** The Viceroy held central executive authority with an eight-member council, where only three Indians had largely ceremonial roles. Key areas like defence, foreign policy, and communications were under his control.

- **Legislature:** The Council of State (Upper House) had 60 members, 26 nominated by the British government and 34 elected by the provincial legislatures.
- The Legislative Assembly had 145 members—104 elected and 41 nominated. The electorate was limited to property owners and taxpayers.
- Legislators had the authority to ask questions, pass adjournment motions, and vote on parts of the budget, but 75% of it remained unvoted.
- The Council of State consisted of only male members and served for 5 years, while the Central Legislative Assembly lasted 3 years.
- Secretary of State's Salary: In 1919, the Government of India Act mandated that the Secretary of State for India be paid by the British exchequer.
- High Commissioner for India: The 1919 Government of India Act created the High Commissioner for India in London to represent Indian interests and manage relations with Britain.

RESPONSE

- In 1918, Congress leaders like Tilak and Annie Besant condemned the proposed self-government reform and the Rowlatt Act, 1919 then escalated unrest by restricting civil liberties and nationalist activities.
- **Public Reaction:** In August 1918, Congress held a special session calling for better self-government. Bal Gangadhar Tilak called the reforms "a sunless dawn," while Annie Besant deemed them unworthy. Some, like Surendra Nath Banerjea, saw them as progress.
- **Repressive Measures:** The 1919 Rowlatt Act granted powers to imprison without trial and suspend Habeas Corpus, severely restricting civil liberties and intensifying repression of nationalist activities.

LIMITATIONS

- **Limited Electorate:** The electorate was limited to a small, privileged group of people.
- **Flawed Electoral System:** The Government of India Act 1919 introduced a flawed electoral system with limited voting rights, which failed to gain widespread acceptance and fostered communalism through separate electorates

- **Unequal Seat Allocation:** The allocation of seats in the central legislature was based on the 'importance' of each province, such as Punjab's military importance and Bombay's commercial importance.
- **British Dominance Over Key Areas:** British control remained over defence, foreign policy, and major financial matters. The Viceroy could veto legislation and issue ordinances, ensuring British supremacy.
- **Limited Legislative Authority:** The central legislature had no control over the Viceroy and his council, while provincial ministers lacked power over finances and bureaucrats, often leading to conflicts and decisions being overruled by governors.

ROWLATT ACT

- The Rowlatt Act, officially known as the Anarchical and Revolutionary Crimes Act of 1919, was a legislative measure enacted by the British colonial government in India on March 18, 1919.
- This act was introduced in response to increasing nationalist sentiments and revolutionary activities following World War I, with the intent to suppress dissent and maintain control over the Indian populace.

KEY FEATURES OF THE ROWLATT ACT

- **Arrest Without Trial:** The act empowered authorities to arrest individuals without a warrant and detain them for up to two years without trial. This effectively eliminated the right to a fair trial for those accused of revolutionary activities.
- **Judicial Powers:** It allowed for certain political cases to be tried without juries, which further undermined judicial safeguards against arbitrary detention and punishment.
- **Press Restrictions:** The act imposed strict controls on the press, enabling the government to censor publications and restrict reporting on political matters.
- **Public Outcry:** The enactment of the Rowlatt Act was met with widespread outrage across India, leading to significant protests. Mahatma Gandhi launched the Rowlatt Satyagraha, a non-violent civil disobedience movement aimed at opposing the act.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The Rowlatt Act was based on recommendations from a committee led by Sir Sidney Rowlatt, which was formed to investigate revolutionary activities in India.
- The British government justified its passage by citing fears of a resurgence in revolutionary violence similar to that experienced during the war.
- However, Indian leaders and the public viewed it as a draconian measure that violated civil liberties and rights.

ROWLATT SATYAGRAHA

OVERVIEW

- Rowlatt Satyagraha was a significant movement in India, initiated by Mahatma Gandhi in 1919 to oppose the Rowlatt Act, formally known as the Anarchical and Revolutionary Crimes Act of 1919.
- This legislation was enacted by the British colonial government to suppress growing nationalist sentiments and allowed for the arrest and detention of individuals without trial, effectively curtailing civil liberties and freedoms in India.

KEY FEATURES OF THE MOVEMENT

- **Non-Violent Protest:** Gandhi called for a nationwide non-violent protest against the Rowlatt Act, urging Indians to observe April 6, 1919, as a day of "humiliation and prayer," accompanied by hartals (strikes) across the country.
- **Formation of Satyagraha Sabhas:** Satyagraha Sabhas were established to mobilize support for the movement and educate people about the principles of non-violent resistance. This marked the first large-scale organized application of Gandhi's philosophy of satyagraha on a national level.
- **Unity Among Communities:** The movement aimed to unite Hindus and Muslims against British rule, reflecting Gandhi's vision of a collective struggle for independence.

JALLIANWALA BAGH MASSACRE

OVERVIEW

- The Jallianwala Bagh Massacre, also known as the Massacre of Amritsar, occurred on April 13, 1919, in Amritsar, Punjab, India.

- This tragic event marked a pivotal moment in India's struggle for independence from British rule, leaving a lasting impact on Indo-British relations and catalyzing the Indian nationalist movement.

CONTEXT AND CAUSES

- The massacre was rooted in a series of repressive measures imposed by the British government during and after World War I.
- The Rowlatt Act, enacted on March 10, 1919, allowed for the imprisonment of individuals without trial, which incited widespread anger among Indians.
- The Indian National Congress had anticipated greater autonomy following the war, but the continuation of oppressive laws led to increased unrest and protests across the country.
- In Amritsar, tensions escalated after the arrest of two prominent nationalist leaders, Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew and Satya Pal, on April 10. Their detention sparked violent protests, prompting Brigadier General Reginald Dyer to take military action to restore order.

THE INCIDENT

- On the day of the massacre, a large crowd—estimated between 10,000 to 20,000 people—gathered at Jallianwala Bagh to protest against these arrests and discuss resolutions condemning the violence from earlier protests.
- The area was enclosed by walls with only one narrow entrance and exit. Without warning, General Dyer ordered his troops to open fire on the unarmed crowd, firing approximately 1,650 rounds over a span of ten minutes.
- The shooting resulted in significant casualties: official British reports stated that about 379 people were killed and over 1,200 wounded, while Indian sources estimated that the death toll could exceed 1,000.

AFTERMATH AND SIGNIFICANCE

- The massacre had profound repercussions. It galvanized Indian nationalism and led to widespread outrage against British rule. Notable figures like Mahatma Gandhi began advocating for nonviolent resistance as a means to achieve independence. The incident also prompted international condemnation; many in Britain criticized Dyer's actions while others controversially praised him.

- In response to public outcry, the British government established the Hunter Commission in 1920 to investigate the incident.
- The commission condemned Dyer's actions, leading to his resignation from military service. Conversely, some British citizens raised funds to honor him for his "bravery," illustrating the divided opinions on colonial policies at that time.

AMRITSAR CONGRESS SESSION OF 1919

- The Amritsar Session of the Indian National Congress (INC), held from December 27, 1919, to January 1, 1920, was a pivotal moment in India's struggle for independence. Presided over by Motilal Nehru, this session took place in the aftermath of the Jallianwala Bagh massacre, which significantly influenced its proceedings and resolutions.

KEY RESOLUTIONS AND OUTCOMES

- **Condemnation of the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre:**
 - The session strongly condemned the massacre that occurred on April 13, 1919, where British troops killed a large number of unarmed Indian civilians. This event galvanized public sentiment against British rule and was a significant catalyst for nationalist movements across India.
- **Opposition to Montague-Chelmsford Reforms:**
 - The Congress rejected the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms as inadequate and disappointing. A resolution was moved by Chittaranjan Das expressing discontent with these reforms, which were perceived as insufficient to address Indian aspirations for self-governance.
- **Demand for Accountability:**
 - Resolutions were passed demanding the withdrawal of Viceroy Lord Chelmsford from India and action against Michael O'Dwyer (Lieutenant Governor of Punjab) and General R. Dyer, who ordered the firing at Jallianwala Bagh. This indicated a growing demand for accountability from British authorities.
- **Repeal of Oppressive Laws:**

- The session called for the repeal of the Rowlatt Act (1919) and the Press Act (1910), which were seen as tools of repression against Indian civil liberties and political expression.
- Promotion of Swadeshi and Labour Rights:
 - The session advocated for Swadeshi (self-reliance) and supported the formation of labour unions, reflecting a broader agenda that included economic independence alongside political freedom¹⁶.
- Emergence of Mahatma Gandhi as a Leader:
 - This session marked Mahatma Gandhi's rise to national prominence, as he played a significant role in advocating resolutions that addressed communal violence and promoted non-violent resistance against British rule.

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KHILAFAT AND NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT (1919-1922)

KHILAFAT MOVEMENT

ABOUT

- The Khilafat Movement was a significant political campaign launched by Indian Muslims between 1919 and 1922 in response to British policies regarding the Ottoman Empire, particularly following its defeat in World War I.
- The movement aimed to protect the position of the Khalifa (the spiritual leader of Muslims), who was seen as a unifying figure for Muslims worldwide.

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- **Defeat of the Ottoman Empire:** The Ottoman Empire's defeat in World War I and the subsequent harsh terms imposed by the Treaty of Sèvres (1920) were perceived as a direct affront to Muslims, particularly regarding the status of the Khalifa. Many Indian Muslims viewed the Khalifa as their spiritual leader and were outraged by his dismissal by the British government.
- **Growing Discontent:** The movement was fueled by widespread discontent among Indian Muslims due to various injustices, including the Jallianwala Bagh massacre and the Rowlatt Act, which intensified anti-British sentiments across India.
- **Unity among Muslims:** The Khilafat issue provided an opportunity for Indian Muslims to unify against colonial rule, galvanizing support across different regions and social classes. Leaders such as Mohammad Ali, Shaukat Ali, and Abul Kalam Azad played pivotal roles in organizing protests and raising awareness about threats to the Khalifa's authority.

OBJECTIVES

- Restoring the Khalifa's authority and ensuring that Muslim sacred places remained under his control.
- Mobilizing Indian Muslims against British imperialism, thereby fostering a sense of unity among them.
- Aligning with broader nationalist movements in India, particularly through collaboration with leaders like Mahatma Gandhi, who supported the movement as part of a larger strategy against British rule.

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Hindu-Muslim Unity:** The Khilafat Movement is notable for its role in promoting Hindu-Muslim unity in the struggle against British colonialism. Gandhi's involvement helped bridge communal divides, leading to joint actions against colonial policies.
- **Mass Mobilization:** It marked a shift towards mass mobilization in Indian politics, with widespread participation from various segments of society, including students, women, and peasants.
- **Impact on National Movement:** Although the Khilafat Movement eventually subsided due to political changes in Turkey and internal divisions among Indian Muslims, it laid the groundwork for subsequent nationalist movements, particularly the Non-Cooperation Movement, which sought greater political rights for Indians.

2020 CONGRESS SPECIAL SESSION

ABOUT

- The Special Session of the Indian National Congress held in Calcutta from September 4 to September 9, 1920, was a pivotal moment in the Indian independence movement.
- Presided over by Lala Lajpat Rai, this session was primarily convened to address the growing discontent against British rule, particularly in response to the Jallianwala Bagh massacre and the British government's handling of the Khilafat movement.

KEY OUTCOMES OF THE SESSION

- **Adoption of Non-Cooperation Movement:** The session marked the formal acceptance of the Non-Cooperation Movement, proposed by Mahatma Gandhi. The Congress aimed to encourage civil disobedience against British authority, urging Indians to resign from government positions, boycott British goods, and promote Swadeshi (indigenous) products.
- **Resolution Details:** The resolution passed at this session called for:
 - Resignation from government jobs and honorary titles.
 - Withdrawal of children from government schools and colleges.
 - Boycotting British courts and foreign goods.
 - Promoting indigenous goods and crafts.

- **Unity Among Leaders:** Despite some opposition within Congress ranks, notably from leaders like C.R. Das, who challenged Gandhi's optimistic prediction that Swaraj (self-rule) could be achieved within a year if the movement succeeded, the resolution was passed with a significant majority. This demonstrated a strong commitment to collective action against colonial rule

NON COOPERATION MOVEMENT

ABOUT

- As a follow-up to the Rowlatt Act, the Jallianwala Bagh massacre, and the Khilafat Movement, Mahatma Gandhi announced his intention to begin Non-Cooperation with the Government. At a special session in Calcutta in September 1920, Congress approved a Non-Cooperation Movement until the Punjab and Khilafat wrongs were corrected and Swaraj was established.
- The programme of non-cooperation was accepted and endorsed without opposition in the Nagpur INC Session of December 1920.

FEATURES OF NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

The programmes of the Non-Cooperation Movement were unfolded in stages:

- Surrender of titles and honorary positions.
- Resignation of membership from the local bodies.
- Boycott of Foreign goods; Elections held in accordance with the provisions of the 1919 Act; Courts, Government functions and legal practise; government schools and colleges.
- Thousands of volunteers went from house to house, trying to persuade people of the importance of adopting Swadeshi. The foreign-made clothing was gathered and set ablaze.
- Boycott of legislative councils (There were differences over boycott of councils).
- The boycott movement against liquor and toddy shops
- National schools, colleges, and private panchayat courts were established. Kashi Vidyapeeth, Bihar Vidyapeeth, and Jamia Millia Islamia were established.
- Popularising Swadeshi goods and Khadi.
- Maintenance of Hindu-Muslim unity and practice of strict nonviolence.

- Promotion of Charkha and Khadi and Jail Bharo Andolan by Congress volunteers.
- Tilak Swaraj Fund was announced by Gandhi, which aimed at collecting Rs 1 crore to aid constructive work.

SPREAD OF NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

The call for non-cooperation and boycott provoked massive responses from various parts of India, which were marked by massive popular protests against the British Raj. However, in most places, the movement was shaped by local conditions.

- **Bengal:** Birendranath Sasmal organised the anti-union board agitation in the Contai and Tamluk sub-divisions of Midnapore.
- **Assam:** J.M. Sengupta organised strikes in tea plantations, steamer services, and Assam-Bengal Railways.
- **United Province:** Under Baba Ram Chandra's leadership, agrarian riots erupted in Rae Bareilly, Pratapgarh, Fyzabad, and Sultanpur. A peasant outburst of the 'Eka movement' arose under the leadership of Madari Pasi.
- In Awadh, the Kisan Sabha movement was prominent.
- **Punjab:** The Akali movement for Gurudwara reform and control became closely associated with non-cooperation. It demonstrated remarkable communal unity among Sikhs, Muslims, and Hindus.
- **Rajasthan:** The peasants protested against cesses and begar. The Bijolia Movement in Mewar and the Bhil Movement under Motilal Tejawat were significant movements against the exploitation by the British and Jagirs.
- **Gujarat:** Vallabhbhai Patel spread the movement and regarded non-cooperation as a feasible alternative to revolutionary terrorism to fight against a colonial government.
- **Karnataka:** Karnataka areas were largely unaffected by the movement, and the initial reaction of upper and middle-class professional groups in several areas of the Madras presidency was limited.
- Workers at the Buckingham and Carnatic textile mills went on strike. Local Non-Cooperation leaders offered them moral support.
- **Andhra:** In Andhra, tribal and other peasant grievances against forest laws were linked to the Non-Cooperation Movement. The peasants refused to pay taxes to the zamindars, and the entire population of Chirala-Perala refused to pay taxes and

vacated the town. Alluri Sitaram Raju organised the tribals and combined their demands with those of the Non-Cooperation Movement.

- **Tamil Nadu:** Led by C. Rajagopalachari, S. Satyamurthy and Periyar E.V.R.
- **Kerala:** Peasants organised anti-Jemni struggles. The Mopillah revolt was very intense during this period.

NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT WITHDRAWAL

- **Chauri-Chaura Incident:** In Chauri-Chaura, Uttar Pradesh, a group of protestors attacked and set fire to a police station, resulting in the death of several police officers. Gandhi felt that the incident violated the principle of non-violence, and as a result, he called off the movement in February 1922.
- **Lack of discipline and violence:** Mahatma Gandhi realised that the Indian masses were not fully prepared for a nationwide struggle of civil disobedience and non-cooperation. There were instances of indiscipline and violence by some participants. For instance, the Mopillah revolt in Kerala turned violent.
- **Abolishment of Caliphate:** Khilafat, one of the non-cooperation movement's issues, lost its relevance. Turks themselves, under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal, first abolished the Ottoman sultanate in 1922 and then did away with the office of the Khalifa in 1924.
- **Rise of militancy:** Towards the later stages of the movements, there was a gradual shift towards more radical and militant approaches. This led to a loss of popular support and alienation of certain sections of society.
- **Issue of class revolution:** The Non-Cooperation Movement was gradually turning into a no-rent movement against the Zamindars. However, the Congress leadership had no intention of undermining the Zamindars' legal rights. Gandhi's goal was a "controlled mass movement" involving various Indian classes rather than a class revolution. As a result, he was opposed to the continuation of this movement, which could lead to a class revolution.
- **Government repression:** The British colonial government had responded to the Non-Cooperation Movement with harsh measures. The government seemed in no mood for negotiations. Volunteer corps were declared illegal, public meetings were forbidden, the press was silenced, and most leaders of the Congress were arrested.

CAUSES OF WITHDRAWAL

- Gandhi felt that people had not learnt or fully understood the method of non-violence.
- The movement was turning violent, which the British could easily suppress.
- The movement was showing signs of fatigue. This was natural, as any movement maintained at a high intensity for a prolonged period is unsustainable.
- The movement was gradually turning into a no-rent movement against the Zamindars. If the movement had not been suspended, it might have led to chaos because the leaders had no control over local movements.
- The government was not ready for negotiations.

SIGNIFICANCE OF NCM

- **Hindu-Muslim unity:** Gandhi opined that the realisation of Swarajya lies in the proper resolution of the Mahomedan question. This effort led to an unprecedented Hindu-Muslim unity, reflected in the ensuing mass mobilisations against colonial rule. It also paved the way for Gandhi to become the main protagonist of secularism.
- **Issue of social justice:** The non-cooperation movement introduced the issue of caste discrimination and untouchability to national politics and made Gandhi an important leader for social justice.
- **Mass participation:** The Khilafat and NCM witnessed extensive participation from the Indian masses from all walks of life, including peasants, workers, students, teachers, women and professionals. The long-standing grievances of the working masses against the British, as well as the Indian masters, were given an outlet through this movement. Gandhi's emphasis on non-violence introduced women in large numbers into the freedom struggle. Thus, it proved to be a mass mobilisation in the true sense.
- **National consciousness:** The most significant success of the movement was the creation of political and social consciousness and nationalism in Indians.
- **Inspiration for subsequent movements:** The success and impact of these movements paved the way for subsequent movements such as the Civil Disobedience Movement and the Quit India Movement.

TIMELINE: POST FIRST WORLD WAR TO NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

1914-1918: The First World War

- Financial and social hardships hit Indian society.
- Rise in nationalist aspirations due to Allied nations' promises of democracy and self-determination.

1917

- **Montagu Declaration (August 20):** British government promises gradual development of self-governing institutions in India.

1918

- **Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms (July):** Proposed reforms aimed at gradual self-government.
- **Reaction:** Nationalists deem reforms inadequate; unrest begins escalating.

1919

- **Government of India Act, 1919:**
 - Dyarchy introduced at the provincial level.
 - Reserved subjects retained under British control, limiting Indian autonomy.
 - Legislature expanded, but electoral rights restricted to elites.
- **Rowlatt Act (March 18):**
 - Allowed arrests without trial, severe restrictions on civil liberties.
 - Sparked outrage and led to Rowlatt Satyagraha.
- **Rowlatt Satyagraha (April 6):**
 - Non-violent hartals and protests, uniting communities under Gandhi's leadership.
- **Jallianwala Bagh Massacre (April 13):**
 - Dyer's troops kill hundreds; leads to intense nationalist backlash.
- **Amritsar Congress Session (December):**
 - Strong condemnation of Jallianwala Bagh.
 - Resolutions against oppressive laws and Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms.

1919-1924: Khilafat Movement

- Initiated to protest British policies affecting the Ottoman Caliphate.
- Unified Muslims; contributed to Hindu-Muslim unity alongside Gandhi.

1920

- **Congress Special Session (September):**
 - Adoption of Non-Cooperation Movement under Gandhi.
 - Goals: Boycott British institutions, promote Swadeshi.
- **Nagpur Session (December):**
 - Non-Cooperation officially endorsed with concrete steps laid out.

1921-1922

- **Spread of Non-Cooperation Movement:**
 - Strong regional participation (e.g., Assam, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan).
 - Establishment of national institutions (e.g., Jamia Millia Islamia).
- **Withdrawal of Movement (February 1922):**
 - Chauri-Chaura incident (violence), Gandhi halts the movement citing principles of non-violence.

Significance of Non-Cooperation Movement

- Mass participation across social groups.
- Strengthened national consciousness and paved the way for future movements (e.g., Civil Disobedience, Quit India).

NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1922-1929)

PRO-CHANGERS (SWARAJISTS) AND NO-CHANGERS

- The sudden withdrawal of the Non-Cooperation Movement in February 1922 led to demoralization within the nationalist ranks. The movement, which had mobilised millions of Indians, lost its momentum and coherence.
- The period 1922-29 enriched India's struggle by introducing new trends and forms of political action. Some leaders began to explore alternative approaches, such as participating in legislative councils (Council Entry), while others continued the constructive work.

PRO-CHANGERS (SWARAJISTS)

ABOUT

- The term Pro-Changers in Indian history refers to a faction within the Indian National Congress during the early 1920s that advocated for a strategic shift in the nationalist movement.
- This group emerged in response to the political landscape following the withdrawal of the Non-Cooperation Movement (NCM) by Mahatma Gandhi in 1922.
- The Pro-Changers, also known as Swarajists, believed in entering legislative councils to challenge British authority from within, contrasting sharply with their opponents, the No-Changers, who insisted on maintaining a strict boycott of these councils.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

- The Pro-Changers, led by prominent figures such as C.R. Das and Motilal Nehru, proposed that nationalists should infiltrate legislative councils to expose their inefficacies and continue the struggle for self-governance from within these institutions.

KEY FIGURES

- **C.R. Das:** A charismatic leader and orator, he played a pivotal role in advocating for council entry and was instrumental in forming the Swaraj Party.

- **Motilal Nehru:** A prominent lawyer and politician, he supported Das's vision and helped establish the Swaraj Party alongside him.
- **Ajmal Khan:** Another notable member of this faction who contributed to its objectives.

FORMATION OF THE SWARAJ PARTY

- In December 1922, at the Gaya session of Congress, C.R. Das proposed a resolution to end the boycott of legislative councils, which was ultimately defeated by a significant margin (890 votes against 1748).
- Following this setback, Das and Nehru resigned from their positions within Congress and founded the Congress-Khilafat Swarajya Party on January 1, 1923. This party aimed to contest elections and engaged politically while maintaining its commitment to self-rule

NO-CHANGERS

ABOUT

- The term "No-Changers" refers to a faction within the Indian National Congress during the early 1920s that opposed the entry into legislative councils and advocated for the continuation of boycotts and non-cooperation with British authorities.
- This group was primarily led by prominent leaders such as C. Rajagopalachari, Vallabhbhai Patel, Rajendra Prasad, and M.A. Ansari.
- They were staunch supporters of Mahatma Gandhi's vision for a constructive program aimed at grassroots mobilization and social reform, rather than engaging in legislative politics.
- The No-Changers believed that entering the councils would dilute the revolutionary spirit of the independence movement and lead to political corruption. They argued that participation in legislative politics would distract from essential constructive work, which included promoting rural development, education, and communal harmony.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SWARAJISTS AND NO-CHANGERS

Aspect	Swarajists (Pro-Changers)	No-Changers
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Political Strategy	Support entry into councils for political struggle	Maintain boycott of councils
Focus	Legislative engagement and reform	Grassroots mobilization and constructive work
Leadership	C.R. Das, Motilal Nehru	C. Rajagopalachari, Vallabhbhai Patel
Goals	To expose council deficiencies and advocate reforms	To strengthen mass movements through non-cooperation

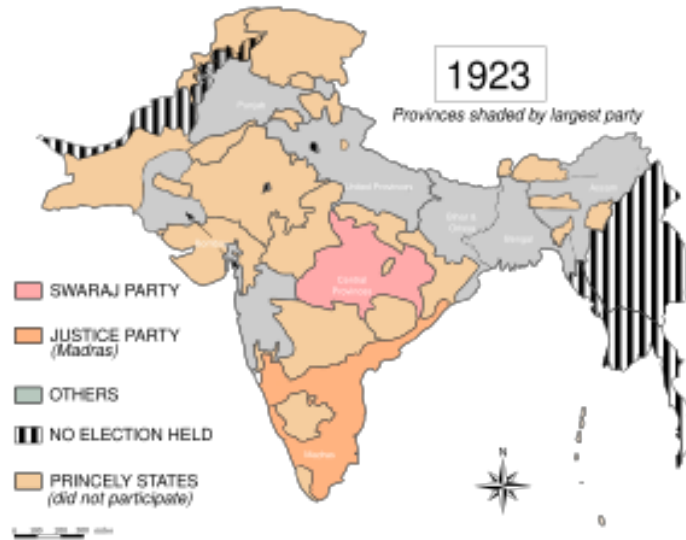
COLLABORATION

- Both groups (pro-changers and no-changers) disagreed on the future political course but determined to avoid the disastrous experience of the 1907 split at Surat. On Gandhiji's advice, the two groups agreed to remain in Congress, though they would work separately.
- The new party (Swaraj Party) was to function as a group within the Congress. It accepted the Congress programme except in one respect— it would participate in Council elections.
- While the Swarajists (pro-changers) and the No-changers worked independently, the two groups had no fundamental differences. They maintained cordial relations and acknowledged each other's anti-imperialist stance. This paved the way for a possible future collaboration when the time was right for a new national struggle.

1923 ELECTIONS

RESULTS

- In the 1923 elections, the Swaraj Party contested the newly established Central Legislative Assembly. They won 42 out of 141 elected seats, making them one of the largest groups in the assembly, alongside independents and other liberals like Madan Mohan Malviya and Muhammad Ali Jinnah.
- The party's manifesto included a strong anti-imperialist stance and demands for self-government, aiming to expose colonial interests that kept Indians subservient.



OBJECTIVES AND STRATEGIES

- The Swarajists sought to obstruct government operations through legislative means. Their strategy included:
 - Boycotting official functions and receptions.
 - Voicing grievances within the assembly to challenge government policies.
 - Creating deadlocks on legislative measures to hinder British governance.
- This approach was part of a broader tactic to engage in active politics, contrasting with the No-Changers, who favored a more passive resistance aligned with Gandhi's principles.

CHALLENGES

- Despite their electoral success, the Swaraj Party faced internal divisions between responsivists, who wanted to cooperate with the government, and non-responsivists, who sought to withdraw from legislative participation.
- The death of C. R. Das in 1925 further weakened the party, leading to a decline in its influence as members struggled with differing strategies and objectives.
- By 1924, as communal tensions rose and internal conflicts deepened, Gandhi reconciled with the Swarajists, acknowledging their role in Indian politics.

- This reconciliation was formalized at the Belgaum session of Congress in 1924, where a joint statement was signed to unify efforts between pro-changers and no-changers.

DECLINE OF SWARAJ PARTY

KEY REASONS

- **Internal Divisions**
 - The Swaraj Party was marked by significant ideological splits between two factions: the responsivists, who sought cooperation with the British government (including leaders like M. M. Malaviya), and the non-responsivists, who advocated for a more confrontational approach (led by Motilal Nehru). This division weakened the party's unity and effectiveness, leading to a lack of coherent strategy in legislative actions.
- **Leadership Crisis**
 - The death of Chittaranjan Das in 1925 was a critical blow to the Swaraj Party. Das was a charismatic leader whose absence left a leadership vacuum that could not be filled effectively, contributing significantly to the party's decline.
- **Failure of Legislative Strategy**
 - The Swarajists initially aimed to disrupt the legislative process but struggled to maintain a consistent obstructionist strategy. Their efforts were hampered by a lack of coordination and an inability to mobilize public support effectively. By 1926, many members began to lose faith in their approach, leading to diminished enthusiasm and participation.
- **Changing Political Landscape**
 - The announcement of the Simon Commission in late 1927 shifted political dynamics significantly. The Commission's proposal for constitutional reform without Indian representation sparked widespread outrage, leading to renewed focus on independence rather than legislative participation. This development marginalized the Swaraj Party's earlier objectives and rendered their council entry strategy obsolete.
- **Rise of Communal Politics**
 - Increasing communal tensions between Hindus and Muslims further complicated the political landscape. The emergence of communal parties like

the Hindu Mahasabha challenged the Swaraj Party's secular stance and alienated potential supporters within both communities. Many former Muslim members of Congress began contesting elections independently, further eroding the Swaraj Party's base.

- **Allure of Political Power**

- As some Swarajists entered councils with intentions of resistance, they found themselves drawn into cooperation with the bureaucracy instead. This shift from opposition to collaboration diluted their revolutionary zeal and further alienated their core supporters who had expected a more confrontational stance against colonial rule.

BELGAUM SESSION 1924

- The Belgaum Congress Session of 1924, held on December 26 and 27, was a significant event in the Indian independence movement, primarily for its role in consolidating Mahatma Gandhi's leadership within the Indian National Congress and addressing critical issues of unity and social reform.

SIGNIFICANCE

- **Consolidation of Leadership:** The session was pivotal in reinforcing Gandhi's position as a leader capable of bridging divides within the Congress. His presence and presidency symbolized a move towards a more cohesive national movement.
- **Resolutions and Agreements:** One of the major outcomes was the endorsement of the Calcutta Agreement, which sought to unify various factions within the Congress. This resolution aimed to harmonize differing strategies for achieving self-rule (Swaraj) and laid the groundwork for future cooperative efforts.
- **Social Reforms:** Gandhi emphasized the need for social reforms, including the eradication of untouchability and promoting Khadi (hand-spun cloth) as a symbol of self-reliance. He argued that true independence could not be achieved without addressing social inequalities.
- **Cultural and Regional Impact:** The session also had a profound impact on Karnataka's regional identity within the broader national movement. It inspired local leaders and activists to engage more actively in the freedom struggle, leading to

increased participation from various social strata, including marginalized communities.

NEW FORCES IN 1920'S



GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONISM

ABOUT

- The rise of trade unionism in India during the 1920s was a significant development influenced by various socio-economic factors, particularly following World War I.
- This period marked the formal organization of labor movements and the establishment of key trade unions that aimed to address workers' rights and improve their working conditions.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT

PRE-1920 DEVELOPMENTS

- Trade unionism in India has roots dating back to the late 19th century, with early formations such as the Bombay Millhands Association in 1884 and other unions emerging in industrial sectors like textiles and railways.
- However, these early unions were often limited in scope and effectiveness due to lack of organization and leadership. The conditions faced by workers were dire, characterized by long hours, low wages, and poor working conditions, which laid the groundwork for collective action.

IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I

- The outbreak of World War I significantly altered the labor landscape in India. The war effort led to increased demand for labor, granting workers a newfound bargaining power as employers became dependent on them.
- This shift was pivotal in fostering a sense of solidarity among workers, prompting them to organize more effectively.

FORMATION OF MAJOR TRADE UNIONS

MADRAS LABOUR UNION AND AITUC

- The first major trade union, the Madras Labour Union, was established in 1918 under the leadership of B.P. Wadia.
- This was followed by the formation of the All India Trade Union Congress (AITUC) in 1920, which became the first national federation of trade unions in India.
- The AITUC aimed to unify various labor groups across different industries and advocate for their rights on a national level.

STRIKES AND PROTESTS

- With these organizations in place, workers began to engage in strikes and protests to demand better wages, reduced working hours, and improved working conditions.
- Notably, these movements often faced resistance from employers who sought legal measures to suppress union activities.
- One significant case was the Buckingham Mill case, where the Madras High Court issued an injunction against striking workers, highlighting the legal challenges faced by trade unions during this period.

LEGISLATIVE DEVELOPMENTS

- The growing need for legal recognition and protection of trade unions culminated in the passing of the Indian Trade Union Act in 1926.
- This legislation provided a framework for the registration of trade unions and aimed to safeguard their activities from legal repercussions associated with strikes and collective bargaining efforts.

FORMATION OF COMMUNIST PARTY

- The rise of the Communist Party of India (CPI) during the 1920s was a significant development in the Indian political landscape, influenced by global communist movements and local socio-political conditions.
- The party's origins can be traced back to a series of events and ideological shifts that culminated in its formation.

FORMATION IN TASHKENT (1920)

- The CPI was officially founded on October 17, 1920, in Tashkent, then part of Soviet Central Asia. This event was spearheaded by M. N. Roy, an Indian revolutionary who had been deeply influenced by Marxist ideologies during his time abroad.
- The context for this formation included the aftermath of World War I and the Russian Revolution, which inspired many anti-colonial movements worldwide. The early CPI sought to align itself with the broader goals of the Communist International (Comintern), advocating for a revolutionary struggle against British imperialism in India.

EXPANSION AND ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (1925)

- While the party's roots are often cited as beginning in 1920, a more structured organization emerged by December 26, 1925, during a conference held in Kanpur. This conference marked a shift from an earlier organization to one that sought to establish a stronger presence within India itself, leading to the official adoption of the name "Communist Party of India".
- During this period, various local groups such as the Workers and Peasants Parties were formed across regions like Punjab, Bengal, and Bombay. These groups served as fronts for communist activities while the CPI itself operated largely underground due to ongoing repression.

REVOLUTIONARY NATIONALISM IN 1920'S

BACKGROUND

- During World War I, the revolutionary nationalists faced harsh persecution, and after 1918, their movement began to wane.
- In order to foster a favorable environment for the Montagu Chelmsford reforms, the majority of revolutionary nationalists were released from prisons in late 1919 and early 1920.
- In 1920, the Non-Cooperation Movement was started. Revolutionary nationalists were urged by Mahatma Gandhi and C.R. Das to either join the nonviolent mass movement or at the very least halt it for the duration of it.
- The majority of revolutionary nationalists either joined the Gandhian mass movement or halted their activities in order to give it a chance. However, the young participants were disappointed and unhappy when the Non-Cooperation Movement was abruptly suspended in early 1922.
- Numerous revolutionary nationalists started to seek alternatives after beginning to doubt Gandhi's leadership and the fundamental tactic of nonviolent struggle. They were not drawn to the constructive work of the no-changers or the parliamentary politics of the pro-changers.
- They adopted the cult of the bomb because they felt that passive resistance was insufficient to accomplish nationalist goals.

RISE OF REVOLUTIONARY GROUPS IN 1920'S

After 1922, two distinct revolutionary nationalist movements emerged in India:

- **In Punjab, U.P., Bihar, and Madhya Pradesh (Central Provinces):** Hindustan Republican Association
- **In Bengal:** Yugantar, Anushilan group, and Chittagong revolt group

HINDUSTAN REPUBLICAN ASSOCIATION (HRA)

- The Hindustan Republican Association (HRA), founded in 1924, was a radical revolutionary organization in India aimed at overthrowing British colonial rule.

- Key figures in its formation included Ram Prasad Bismil, Sachindra Nath Bakshi, Sachindranath Sanyal, and Jogesh Chandra Chatterjee.
- **Kakori Train Action (1925):** This was a major robbery aimed at funding their revolutionary activities, where members looted a train carrying government funds. The event led to severe crackdowns by British authorities, resulting in arrests and executions of key members, including Bismil and Ashfaqulla Khan.

HINDUSTAN SOCIALIST REPUBLICAN ASSOCIATION (HSRA)

- In 1928, influenced by the rise of socialist ideologies and figures like Bhagat Singh, the HRA was renamed to HSRA.
- This change reflected a shift towards more radical leftist principles, advocating for a revolution that would establish "the dictatorship of the proletariat" and eliminate exploitation.
- The HSRA's manifesto emphasized the need for universal suffrage and aimed at abolishing systems that allowed for the exploitation of individuals, aligning itself with Marxist ideals.
- **Central Legislative Assembly Bombing (1929):** Bhagat Singh and B.K. Dutt threw non-lethal bombs in an effort to make their voices heard against British oppression. They were arrested and used their trial as a platform to promote their revolutionary ideals.
- **Assassination of J.P. Saunders:** Following the death of Lala Lajpat Rai due to police brutality, Bhagat Singh and his associates assassinated Saunders in 1928 as an act of revenge against colonial oppression.

IDEOLOGY OF HSRA

The ideology of the HSRA was deeply rooted in socialism, republicanism, and revolutionary principles. Key aspects of their ideology included:

- **Armed Resistance:** The HSRA believed that India's independence could only be achieved through violent means, contrasting sharply with the non-violent approach advocated by leaders like Mahatma Gandhi. They viewed armed struggle as necessary to overthrow oppressive colonial rule.
- **Social Justice:** The organization aimed not just for political freedom but also for social and economic justice. They envisioned a society where exploitation was

abolished, advocating for universal suffrage and the nationalization of key industries to ensure equitable distribution of resources.

- **Youth Mobilization:** The HSRA placed significant emphasis on engaging the youth of India, encouraging them to join the revolutionary movement. Their literature often called for a radical awakening among young Indians to fight against colonial oppression.
- **Critique of Non-Violence:** In response to Gandhi's criticisms, members like Bhagwati Charan Vohra articulated their stance in documents such as "Philosophy of the Bomb," arguing that violent methods were as legitimate as non-violent ones in the struggle for freedom.

NAUJAWAN BHARAT SABHA (NBS)

- Naujawan Bharat Sabha (NBS), founded by Bhagat Singh in March 1926, was a revolutionary organization aimed at mobilizing youth, particularly workers and peasants, against British colonial rule in India.
- It emerged as a left-wing association that disseminated Marxist ideas and sought to instigate a revolutionary movement among the youth of Punjab and beyond.
- The Sabha was closely associated with the Hindustan Republican Association and later merged with the All India Youth Federation of the Communist Party of India.

LAHORE CONSPIRACY CASE

- The Lahore Conspiracy Case refers to a significant trial in British India that culminated in the execution of prominent revolutionary figures Bhagat Singh, Rajguru, and Sukhdev.
- This case is rooted in a series of events that unfolded in the late 1920s, primarily driven by the desire for revenge against British colonial authorities following the death of Indian nationalist leader Lala Lajpat Rai.

BACKGROUND

- Lala Lajpat Rai was injured during a police baton charge led by Superintendent J.S. Scott while he was protesting against the Simon Commission on October 30, 1928.

- Rai succumbed to his injuries on November 17, 1928, which incited Bhagat Singh and his associates to seek vengeance. They intended to kill Scott but mistakenly assassinated another officer, John Saunders, on December 17, 1928.

REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT IN BENGAL IN 1920'S

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENT

- **Disillusionment with Non-Violence:** The abrupt end of the NCM in 1922 led to widespread dissatisfaction among younger activists who sought more radical means to achieve independence. The failure of peaceful protests to yield significant results prompted a reevaluation of tactics, leading many to embrace revolutionary violence as a legitimate strategy.
- **Formation of Secret Societies:** Groups such as the Anushilan Samiti and Jugantar played pivotal roles in organizing revolutionary activities. These societies were initially formed to promote physical fitness but evolved into militant organizations dedicated to overthrowing British rule through armed struggle. They operated covertly, recruiting young men and training them for violent resistance against colonial authorities.
- **Influence of Global Events:** The Bolshevik Revolution in 1917 inspired Indian revolutionaries to adopt socialist ideas, further fueling their motivations. The post-World War I context also saw a rise in trade union movements, which revolutionaries aimed to harness for broader nationalist goals.

KEY EVENTS AND ACTIONS

- In 1924, an assassination attempt on Calcutta Police Commissioner Charles Tegart marked a significant escalation in revolutionary activities. This act was part of broader efforts to disrupt British authority and inspire mass uprisings.
- The Chittagong Armoury Raid in 1930, led by Surya Sen and his associates, aimed to seize arms and demonstrate that it was possible to challenge British military power directly.

KEY FIGURES AND GROUPS

- **Surya Sen:** A prominent leader of the Chittagong group, he advocated for armed rebellion and inspired many young revolutionaries, including women who played crucial roles in these movements.
- **Women Revolutionaries:** This era also saw notable female participation; figures like Pritilata Waddadar and Kalpana Dutt became symbols of women's involvement in the freedom struggle, often engaging in direct action against colonial forces.

IMPORTANT PERSONALITIES

SACHINDRANATH SANYAL

- Sachindra Nath Sanyal (1890-1942) was a prominent Indian revolutionary known for his significant contributions to the struggle for India's independence from British rule.
- His life and work were characterized by a commitment to armed resistance and revolutionary activism.

EARLY LIFE AND BACKGROUND

- Born on April 3, 1890, in Benares (now Varanasi), Sanyal was raised in a Brahmin family. He was influenced by the socio-political climate of his time, which spurred his revolutionary ideas against British imperialism.
- Sanyal's early involvement in revolutionary activities began with the Anushilan Samiti, a group advocating for armed resistance, which he helped establish in Patna in 1913.

REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITIES

Sanyal's revolutionary career was marked by several key events:

- **Attack on Viceroy Hardinge:** In 1912, he participated in an attack on Viceroy Hardinge during a ceremonial entry into Delhi, an act aimed at demonstrating opposition to British authority.
- **Ghadar Conspiracy:** He played a pivotal role in the Ghadar conspiracy, which sought to instigate an uprising against British rule during World War I. However, the plot was thwarted, leading Sanyal to go underground.
- **Hindustan Republican Association (HRA):** In 1924, he co-founded the HRA, later known as the Hindustan Socialist Republican Association (HSRA), alongside notable

revolutionaries like Ram Prasad Bismil and Ashfaqulla Khan. This organization aimed to promote armed struggle against British rule and was instrumental in various revolutionary activities, including the infamous Kakori train robbery in 1925.

IMPRISONMENT AND WRITINGS

- Sanyal faced multiple imprisonments due to his revolutionary activities.
- He was sentenced to life imprisonment for his involvement in the Kakori conspiracy and was incarcerated at the Cellular Jail in the Andaman Islands, where he wrote his notable work *Bandi Jeevan* (A Life of Captivity).
- His writings reflect his commitment to revolutionary ideals and critique of British colonialism.

RAM PRASAD BISMIL

- Ram Prasad Bismil was a significant figure in India's struggle for independence, known for his revolutionary activities and literary contributions.
- Born on June 11, 1897, in Shahjahanpur, Uttar Pradesh, he became deeply involved in the freedom movement at a young age, influenced by his education and the ideals of the Arya Samaj.

EARLY LIFE AND IDEOLOGICAL FORMATION

- Bismil's early exposure to literature and revolutionary ideas shaped his beliefs. He joined the Arya Samaj, which instilled in him a strong sense of nationalism.
- His anger towards British colonial rule was ignited by the death sentence given to Bhai Parmanand, an Arya Samaj leader, prompting him to write the poignant poem "Mera Janm" (My Birth) at the age of 18. This marked the beginning of his journey as both a revolutionary and a poet.

MAJOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- **Mainpuri Conspiracy (1918)**
 - Bismil played a crucial role in the Mainpuri Conspiracy of 1918, where he organized youth groups such as Matrivedi and Shivaji Samiti to resist British rule. He published pamphlets like "Deshwasiyon ke Naam" (To Countrymen) and distributed his poem "Mainpuri ki Pratigya" (The Vow of Mainpuri) to

inspire action against colonial authorities. His activities included looting government coffers to fund revolutionary efforts.

- **Founding of Hindustan Republican Association (HRA)**

- In 1924, Bismil co-founded the Hindustan Republican Association (HRA) with notable revolutionaries like Sachindra Nath Sanyal and Jadugopal Mukherjee. The HRA aimed to establish a federal republic through armed revolution. Bismil was instrumental in drafting its manifesto, which called for organized resistance against British rule.

- **Kakori Train Robbery (1925)**

- Bismil is perhaps best known for orchestrating the Kakori train robbery on August 9, 1925. This daring act involved stopping a train carrying government money and looting it to finance revolutionary activities. The operation was initially successful but led to widespread arrests following a police crackdown. Bismil and several accomplices were tried under the Kakori Conspiracy Case, resulting in death sentences for him and others involved

CHANDRASHEKHAR AZAD

- Azad's political activism began at a young age when he joined the Non-Cooperation Movement led by Mahatma Gandhi at just 15 years old. This led him to embrace more radical methods of resistance, aligning himself with the Hindustan Republican Association (HRA), which aimed to overthrow British rule through revolutionary means.
- **Shooting of John Saunders (1928):** In retaliation for the death of Lala Lajpat Rai, Azad and Bhagat Singh executed this act to avenge the killing. This incident further solidified his reputation as a fearless leader.
- **Attempt to Blow Up the Viceroy's Train (1926):** Another bold action that demonstrated his commitment to armed struggle against British authorities
- His life came to a tragic end on February 27, 1931, during a confrontation with police in Allahabad's Alfred Park. Faced with imminent capture, he chose to take his own life rather than be apprehended, famously declaring that he would never be captured alive. This act cemented his legacy as a martyr for India's freedom

SURYA SEN

- Surya Sen, also known as Masterda, was a significant figure in the Indian independence movement, particularly noted for his leadership in revolutionary activities against British colonial rule.
- Born on March 22, 1894, in Noapara, Chittagong (now in Bangladesh), Sen was initially a schoolteacher who became deeply influenced by nationalist ideals during his college years. His commitment to the cause of Indian independence led him to join the Anushilan Samiti, a revolutionary organization, in 1916.
- **Chittagong Armoury Raid:** Sen is best remembered for orchestrating the Chittagong Armoury Raid on April 18, 1930. This operation involved a coordinated attack on British armories in Chittagong by a group of young revolutionaries he had recruited, including prominent figures like Ganesh Ghosh and Pritilata Waddedar. The objective was to seize weapons and disrupt British communication lines to facilitate an armed struggle against colonial rule. Although the raid successfully captured several armory facilities and disrupted telegraph and railway services, the revolutionaries were unable to secure ammunition, which limited their immediate effectiveness.
- In addition to leading the raid, Sen was instrumental in forming the Indian Republican Army in Chittagong, which aimed to challenge British authority through organized armed resistance. His leadership and organizational skills were crucial in mobilizing youth for the independence cause.
- Following the raid, Sen and his comrades engaged in guerrilla warfare against British forces. However, betrayal by a close associate led to his capture on February 16, 1933. After enduring severe torture while imprisoned, Surya Sen was executed by hanging on January 12, 1934. His final words expressed a deep commitment to India's freedom and a call for remembrance of those who sacrificed their lives for the nation.

BHAGAT SINGH

- Born on September 27, 1907, in Punjab, Bhagat Singh was influenced by the socio-political climate of his time, particularly the Jallianwala Bagh massacre and the oppressive policies of British authorities. He joined the Hindustan Republican Association (HRA) at a young age, where he became involved in revolutionary activities aimed at overthrowing British rule.
- He is associated with Naujwan Bharat Sabha, Formation of HSRA, Central Legislative assembly bombing and killing of John Saunders

DURGAWATI DEVI

- Durgawati Devi, also known as Durga Bhabhi, was a prominent Indian revolutionary and freedom fighter, recognized for her significant contributions to the Indian independence movement against British colonial rule. Born on October 7, 1907, in Allahabad, she married Bhagwati Charan Vohra at the age of eleven, who was also involved in revolutionary activities as a member of the Hindustan Socialist Republican Association (HSRA).
- **Escape of Bhagat Singh:** She assisted in the escape of Bhagat Singh after the assassination of British police officer John Saunders in 1928. Disguised as a couple, she traveled with him and fellow revolutionary Shivaram Rajguru, successfully evading police scrutiny.
- **Support for Revolutionaries:** Durgawati sold her jewelry to finance efforts to rescue Bhagat Singh and his comrades from imprisonment. Her dedication included actively opposing their death sentences and participating in protests against British authorities.
- **Attempted Assassination:** Following the execution of Bhagat Singh and his associates, she attempted to assassinate Lord Hailey, the then Governor of Punjab, as an act of revenge. Although she was unsuccessful in killing him, she injured some of his aides and was subsequently imprisoned for three years.
- **Leadership in Activism:** Durgawati led significant movements within the revolutionary circles, including organizing funeral processions for martyrs like Jatin Das, who died after a hunger strike demanding rights for political prisoners

TIMELINE: NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1922–1929)

- **1922**
 - **Withdrawal of Non-Cooperation Movement:** Demoralized nationalists; marked a shift in strategies.
 - Emergence of Pro-Changers (Swarajists) vs No-Changers.
- **1923**
 - **Formation of Swaraj Party:** Established by C.R. Das and Motilal Nehru after failed resolutions at Congress's Gaya session.
 - **Elections:** Swaraj Party secured 42 out of 141 elected seats in the Central Legislative Assembly.

- **1924**
 - **Belgaum Congress Session:** Gandhi reconciles Pro-Changers and No-Changers; efforts unified.
 - **Death of C.R. Das:** Loss of leadership for Swarajists.
 - **Hindustan Republican Association (HRA):** Revolutionary activities began under leaders like Ram Prasad Bismil.
- **1925**
 - **Kakori Train Robbery:** Milestone revolutionary act by HRA; severe crackdown followed.
- **1926**
 - **Internal Divisions:** Decline of Swaraj Party due to responsivists vs non-responsivists conflict.
- **1927**
 - **Simon Commission Announcement:** Catalyzed focus on independence; marginalization of legislative council strategies.
- **1928**
 - **Formation of HSRA:** Shift to socialist ideologies under Bhagat Singh's leadership.
 - **Assassination of J.P. Saunders:** Revenge for Lala Lajpat Rai's death.
 - **Chittagong Revolutionary Groups:** Increased revolutionary activity in Bengal.
- **1929**
 - **Central Legislative Assembly Bombing:** Bhagat Singh and B.K. Dutt's symbolic protest.

SIMON COMMISSION TO CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE

SITUATION BEFORE SIMON COMMISSION

- By 1927, the situation in the country appeared to be dark indeed. There was general political apathy:
 - Gandhi was living in retirement.
 - The Swarajists were split.
 - Communalism was flourishing.
 - Revolutionary activities were increasing.
- Gandhi wrote in May 1927: "My only hope lies in prayer and answer to prayer." Yet, behind the scenes, the forces of national resurgence had been gaining strength. In November 1927, when the Simon Commission was announced, India stepped out of the darkness and entered a new era of political struggle.

APPOINTMENT OF SIMON COMMISSION

- The Act of 1919 stipulated that a Commission would be appointed to evaluate the government's performance after ten years.
- Then on November 8, 1927, Secretary of State for India Lord Birkenhead declared the creation of the Simon Commission, an Indian Statutory Commission chaired by Sir John Simon, to examine and suggest constitutional amendments for India.
- The Commission aimed:
 - To inquire into the working of provincial governments
 - To examine how far the representative institutions were functioning satisfactorily.
 - To draft the outline for the future progress in establishing responsible government (constitutional reforms)
- Although constitutional reforms were due only in 1929, the Conservative government of Britain appointed a Simon Commission in 1927. In the general election due in 1929, the Labour Party was expected to win. The conservative government in Britain did not want to leave the question of India in the hands of the Labour government.

- The Simon Commission had seven members, who were representatives of the three major parties in Britain – Conservative, Liberal, and Labour. However, there was no Indian representative.

BOYCOTT OF SIMON COMMISSION

The boycott of the Simon Commission was primarily driven by several key factors:

- **Lack of Indian Representation:** The absence of any Indian members in a commission that was meant to shape India's future was seen as a blatant disregard for Indian voices and rights.
- **Political Consensus:** The Indian National Congress (INC) and other political entities, including the Muslim League and Hindu Mahasabha, unanimously resolved to boycott the commission during their meetings in late 1927. This collective stance underscored a growing nationalist sentiment against colonial rule.
- **Public Sentiment:** The decision to boycott resonated with the general populace, leading to widespread protests across major cities in India. Demonstrators expressed their dissent through slogans like "Simon Go Back," and many participated in strikes and rallies that showcased their disapproval.

ARRIVAL OF SIMON COMMISSION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON NATIONAL MOVEMENT

- The arrival of the Simon Commission in India in 1928 had a profound impact on the nationalist movement, significantly influencing its trajectory and galvanizing various factions against British colonial rule. Here are the main ways in which the Simon Commission influenced the movement:

MOBILIZATION OF NATIONALIST SENTIMENT

- Widespread Protests
 - The commission's formation, with its all-British membership and lack of Indian representation, sparked massive protests across the country. The slogan "Simon Go Back" became a rallying cry for demonstrators, uniting diverse groups in opposition to British rule. This mobilization was crucial in fostering

a collective nationalist identity among Indians, transcending regional and communal divisions.

- Role of Key Leaders
 - Prominent leaders such as Jawaharlal Nehru, Lala Lajpat Rai, and Subhash Chandra Bose played pivotal roles in organizing protests. The violent suppression of these demonstrations, particularly the fatal police action against Lala Lajpat Rai, further inflamed public outrage and solidified resistance against colonial authority.

STRENGTHENING OF POLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS

- Indian National Congress (INC)
 - The INC capitalized on the discontent generated by the Simon Commission to strengthen its position as a leading political force. The Congress formally decided to boycott the commission during its annual session in Madras in December 1927, transforming this decision into a widespread movement that increased its influence and membership.
- Emergence of Youth Movements
 - The protests against the Simon Commission invigorated youth participation in politics. Young activists formed leagues and organizations that embraced radical ideas and socialist principles, inspired by leaders like Nehru. This youth mobilization marked a significant shift towards more militant forms of activism within the independence movement

SIMON COMMISSION REPORT

- The Simon Commission Report was released in May 1930. By then, it was no longer relevant because a number of things had happened that made its suggestions less significant.
- The report was rejected by nearly all Indian parties, and the Civil Disobedience Movement was enthusiastically embraced by the Indian populace.
- It recommended:
 - The abolition of Dyarchy (Diarchy) and the establishment of responsible unitary government in the provinces.
 - The retention of separate electorates.

- The reservation of seats for depressed classes.
- The federal structure of the Government. It stated that in order to cope with the diversity of the country, the ultimate character of the Indian government had to be federal.
- Separation of Burma from India and Sindh from Bombay.
- The Report did not recommend the establishment of either a responsible government or a dyarchy at the centre. It declared that the responsible government at the centre would be established in future, i.e. wait indefinitely.

LORD BIRKENHEAD CHALLENGE AND NEHRU REPORT

LORD BIRKENHEAD CHALLENGE

- In 1925, Lord Birkenhead, who was the Secretary of State for India, issued a significant challenge to Indian leaders in the House of Lords.
- He urged them to draft a constitution for India that would reflect a broad consensus among its diverse populations.
- This challenge implied that the British government doubted the ability of Indians to unite and create a viable constitutional framework for self-governance.

CONTEXT OF THE CHALLENGE

- The challenge came during a period of increasing dissatisfaction with British rule and was partly a response to the formation of the Simon Commission in 1927, which did not include any Indian members.
- This exclusion fueled nationalist sentiments and prompted Indian leaders to assert their capability to formulate their own constitutional proposals.

THE NEHRU REPORT

- In response to Lord Birkenhead's challenge, Indian leaders convened an All Parties Conference, which ultimately led to the drafting of the Nehru Report in 1928.
- This report was spearheaded by Motilal Nehru and included significant figures like Jawaharlal Nehru and Subhas Chandra Bose.

- It aimed to outline a constitutional framework that would grant India dominion status within the British Commonwealth and included provisions for fundamental rights, a federal government structure, and joint electorates with reserved seats for minorities.
- The Nehru Report represented a collective effort by Indian nationalists to demonstrate their political maturity and capability in governance.
- It was one of the first major attempts by Indians to draft a constitution independently, responding directly to Birkenhead's challenge.

KEY RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE NEHRU REPORT

- **Dominion Status:** India should be granted dominion status similar to that of Canada and Australia, allowing for self-governance while remaining part of the British Commonwealth.
- **Federal Government Structure:** The report proposed a federal form of government with residuary powers vested in the central authority, ensuring a balance between central and provincial governance.
- **Parliamentary System:** A parliamentary system should be established, with a Prime Minister and six ministers appointed by the Governor-General, reflecting a responsible government model.
- **Bi-Cameral Legislature:** The introduction of a bi-cameral legislature was recommended to facilitate better representation and governance.
- **No Separate Electorates:** The report rejected separate electorates for any community, advocating instead for joint electorates with reservations for minorities only where necessary.
- **Minority Representation:** While separate electorates were not supported, it allowed for reserved seats for Muslims in provinces where they constituted at least 10% of the population, ensuring proportional representation in legislatures.
- **Cultural and Religious Rights:** Full protection of cultural and religious interests for Muslims was emphasized, alongside a complete separation of religion from state affairs.
- **Fundamental Rights:** The report included provisions for fundamental rights akin to those found in the American Bill of Rights, promoting civil liberties and equality before the law.

- **Official Language:** Hindi was proposed as the official language of India, reflecting the linguistic identity of the majority population.
- **Creation of a Supreme Court:** The establishment of a Supreme Court was recommended to uphold justice and interpret laws within this new framework.
- **Linguistic Provinces:** The formation of provinces based on linguistic lines was also suggested to better represent diverse cultural identities within India.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NEHRU REPORT

- The Nehru report was the first constitutional document prepared by the Indians for themselves.
- It demolished the British imperialist claim that Indians were incapable of constructive constitutional politics.
- It served as a precursor to the Indian Constitution.

OPPOSITION TO NEHRU REPORT

- **Rejection of Separate Electorates:** One of the most contentious aspects of the Nehru Report was its rejection of separate electorates for Muslims, which had been a critical demand for Muslim political representation. The report proposed joint electorates with reserved seats for Muslims only in constituencies where they were in a minority. This decision was seen as a betrayal by many Muslim leaders, leading to significant backlash and the drafting of Jinnah's Fourteen Points in 1929, which demanded separate electorates and greater representation for Muslims.
- **Concerns Over Hindu Dominance:** Many Muslims viewed the Nehru Report as a threat to their political rights and cultural identity, fearing that it would lead to Hindu dominance in governance. This sentiment was particularly strong in regions like Bengal, where communal tensions were already high. The absence of provisions for separate electorates was perceived as undermining the earlier agreements made between the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League.
- **Limited Scope of Demands:** Critics argued that the Nehru Report's call for dominion status within the British Commonwealth was insufficient and did not meet the aspirations of those seeking complete independence from British rule. Leaders like Subhas Chandra Bose and Jawaharlal Nehru (younger generation) were among those who felt that the report's ambitions were too limited.

- **Communal Representation Issues:** The report faced opposition not only from Muslim leaders but also from groups like the Hindu Mahasabha, which opposed provisions for communal representation. They argued against any form of special representation based on religion, advocating instead for a more unitary system of governance.

JINNAH'S FOURTEEN POINTS

- Jinnah's Fourteen Points were a set of demands articulated by Muhammad Ali Jinnah in March 1929, aimed at safeguarding the political rights and interests of Muslims in British India. These points emerged as a response to the Nehru Report of 1928, which Jinnah and the Muslim League found inadequate in addressing Muslim concerns.

KEY ASPECTS OF JINNAH'S FOURTEEN POINTS

1. **Federal Constitution:** The future constitution should be federal in structure, with residual powers vested in the provinces.
2. **Provincial Autonomy:** All provinces should be granted a uniform measure of autonomy.
3. **Adequate Representation:** All legislatures and elected bodies must ensure adequate representation of minorities without reducing any community's majority status.
4. **Muslim Representation:** Muslims should have at least one-third representation in the Central Legislature.
5. **Separate Electorates:** The existing system of separate electorates for communal groups should continue, although communities could opt for joint electorates.
6. **Territorial Redistribution:** Any changes in territorial boundaries should not affect the Muslim majority in Punjab, Bengal, and the North-West Frontier Province (NWFP).
7. **Religious Freedom:** Full religious liberty must be guaranteed for all communities.
8. **Legislative Protection:** No bill or resolution should pass if three-fourths of any community oppose it on grounds that it harms their interests.
9. **Sindh Separation:** Sindh should be separated from the Bombay Presidency.
10. **Constitutional Reforms:** Reforms in NWFP and Baluchistan should be equivalent to those in other provinces.
11. **Government Services:** Muslims should receive an adequate share in government services and local self-government bodies.

12. **Cultural Safeguards:** The constitution must include safeguards to protect Muslim culture, education, language, and personal laws.
13. **Cabinet Representation:** Any central or provincial cabinet should include at least one-third Muslim ministers.
14. **Constitutional Amendments:** No constitutional changes should occur without the agreement of the states involved.

BUTLER COMMITTEE (1927)

- In 1927, Sir Harcourt Butler headed a three-member committee appointed to investigate and clarify the relationship between the paramount power of the British Raj in India and the rulers of Princely States.
- In the committee's report of 1929, the "paramountcy" doctrine was reaffirmed. It also recommends that the state should not be transferred without their consent to a relationship with a new government in British India that is responsible for an Indian legislature.

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TOWARDS POORNA SWARAJ

KEY HIGHLIGHTS OF THE 1928 CALCUTTA CONGRESS SESSION

- **Presidency:** The session was presided over by Motilal Nehru from December 29, 1928, to January 1, 1929. This session was notable for the active participation of both older leaders and younger members of the INC, including prominent figures like Jawaharlal Nehru and Subhas Chandra Bose.
- **Nehru Report Approval:** The session approved the Nehru Report, which had been drafted earlier in response to the Simon Commission. The report advocated for dominion status for India within two years and proposed a constitutional framework for governance, emphasizing civil rights and parliamentary democracy.
- **Resolution for Dominion Status:** Mahatma Gandhi proposed a resolution demanding that the British government grant India dominion status within two years (later made one). If this demand was not met by December 31, 1929, Congress would call for complete independence. This ultimatum was a crucial moment that indicated a growing impatience with British rule.
- **Youth Involvement:** The session saw the formation of the All India Youth Congress, highlighting the increasing involvement of younger leaders in shaping the direction of the INC towards more assertive demands for independence.
- **Diverging Views:** There was significant debate during the session. While Gandhi and Motilal Nehru advocated for a cautious approach with a two-year deadline, younger leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru and Bose pushed for an immediate demand for complete independence (Purna Swaraj). Eventually, under pressure, the timeline was shortened to one year.
- **Outcome and Legacy:** The decisions made at this session laid the groundwork for subsequent actions, including the launch of the civil disobedience movement. It marked a transition from seeking dominion status to openly declaring complete independence as the primary goal of Congress at the following Lahore session in December 1929.

DELHI MANIFESTO

ABOUT

- The Delhi Manifesto, issued on November 2, 1929, was a significant document in the Indian independence movement, formulated by prominent leaders of the Indian National Congress.
- It outlined specific conditions for Indian participation in the upcoming Round Table Conference, which was intended to discuss constitutional reforms for India.

KEY POINTS OF THE DELHI MANIFESTO

- **Purpose of the Round Table Conference:** The manifesto asserted that the conference should focus on drafting a constitution to implement dominion status for India rather than merely debating the timeline for achieving such status. This position effectively called for the conference to act as a constituent assembly.
- **Representation:** It demanded that the Congress party be granted majority representation at the conference, ensuring that India's largest political party had a substantial voice in discussions about governance.
- **Amnesty and Conciliation:** The manifesto called for a general amnesty for political prisoners and advocated for a conciliatory approach to political negotiations, reflecting a desire for inclusivity in the political process

KEY HIGHLIGHTS OF 1929 LAHORE CONGRESS SESSION

- The Lahore Session of the Indian National Congress, held in December 1929, was a pivotal moment in India's struggle for independence from British rule. This session is particularly notable for the following key developments:

HISTORICAL CONTEXT AND SIGNIFICANCE

- **Purna Swaraj Resolution:** The most significant outcome of the Lahore Session was the adoption of the Purna Swaraj resolution, which declared complete independence as the ultimate goal of the Indian National Congress (INC). This marked a decisive shift from earlier demands for dominion status to an unequivocal call for total self-rule.
- **Presidency of Jawaharlal Nehru:** The session was presided over by Jawaharlal Nehru, a prominent leader in the freedom movement. Under his leadership, the Congress adopted this historic resolution on December 19, 1929.

- **Independence Day Declaration:** Following the resolution, January 26, 1930, was proclaimed as Independence Day or Purna Swaraj Diwas, when Indians were encouraged to take a pledge for complete independence. This date later became significant as Republic Day in India when the Constitution came into effect in 1950.
- **Hoisting of the Tricolor Flag:** On December 31, 1929, Nehru hoisted the Indian tricolor flag on the banks of the Ravi River in Lahore, symbolizing the resolve of Indians to achieve independence. This act was a powerful statement against colonial rule.
- **Civil Disobedience Movement:** The session also laid the groundwork for a broader civil disobedience movement against British laws and policies. The INC called for non-payment of taxes and urged its members to resign from legislative councils as a form of protest.
- **Boycott of Round Table Conferences:** The Congress decided to boycott the forthcoming Round Table Conferences in London, reflecting growing discontent with British negotiations and policies towards India.

CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT (1930-34)

GANDHI'S ELEVEN DEMANDS

- Mahatma Gandhi's Eleven Demands, presented to the British government in January 1930, were a pivotal part of the Civil Disobedience Movement aimed at addressing various socio-economic issues in India.
- These demands were articulated as an ultimatum to the then Viceroy, Lord Irwin, and were intended to unify diverse Indian interests against colonial rule.

OVERVIEW OF GANDHI'S ELEVEN DEMANDS

ISSUES OF GENERAL INTEREST

- **Reduce Expenditure on Army and Civil Services by 50%:** This aimed to free up resources for social needs by significantly cutting military and administrative spending.
- **Introduce Total Prohibition:** A complete ban on the sale and consumption of alcohol was sought to address social issues related to intoxication.

- **Carry out Reforms in the Criminal Investigation Department (CID):** This demanded reforms to ensure fair and impartial police investigations.
- **Change Arms Act Allowing Popular Control of Firearms Licenses:** This sought to democratize the issuance of firearms licenses, allowing citizens more control.
- **Release Political Prisoners:** The demand urged for the release of individuals imprisoned for political activities.
- **Accept Postal Reservation Bill:** This called for legislation that would reserve certain postal positions for specific communities.

SPECIFIC BOURGEOIS DEMANDS

- **Reduce Rupee-Sterling Exchange Ratio to 1s 4d:** This aimed to benefit Indian traders by altering the exchange rate favorably.
- **Introduce Textile Protection:** Protective measures were sought for the Indian textile industry against foreign competition.
- **Reserve Coastal Shipping for Indians:** This demanded that coastal shipping routes be reserved for Indian-owned vessels.

SPECIFIC PEASANT DEMANDS

- **Reduce Land Revenue by 50%:** A significant reduction in land taxes was called for to alleviate the financial burden on rural peasants.
- **Abolish Salt Tax and Government's Salt Monopoly:** This central demand was symbolic, as salt was a basic necessity heavily taxed by the British, affecting the poorest sections of society.

CWC MEETING OF FEBRUARY 1930

- In February 1930, a significant meeting of the Congress Working Committee (CWC) took place at the Sabarmati Ashram, where Mahatma Gandhi was granted full authority to initiate the Civil Disobedience Movement against British rule in India.
- This meeting marked a pivotal moment in the Indian independence struggle, following the Lahore Congress of December 1929, which had already set the stage for civil disobedience by declaring "Purna Swaraj" (complete independence) as the goal of the Indian National Congress (INC).

KEY OUTCOMES OF THE CWC MEETING

- **Empowerment of Gandhi:** The CWC invested Gandhi with the power to launch the Civil Disobedience Movement at his discretion, allowing him to choose both the timing and the methods of protest against British policies.
- **Ultimatum to the British:** Gandhi's ultimatum to Lord Irwin, the Viceroy of India, emphasized that if their demands were not met, civil disobedience would be the only recourse left.
- **Preparation for Dandi March:** This meeting laid the groundwork for the Dandi March, which began on March 12, 1930. Gandhi and his followers marched approximately 240 miles to Dandi to protest against the British salt monopoly by making salt from seawater.

DANDI MARCH

OVERVIEW OF THE DANDI MARCH

- The Dandi March, also known as the Salt March or Dandi Satyagraha, was a pivotal event in the Indian independence movement led by Mahatma Gandhi. It took place from March 12 to April 6, 1930, and served as a nonviolent protest against the British salt monopoly and the unjust salt tax imposed on Indians.

THE MARCH

- Gandhi began the march from Sabarmati Ashram in Ahmedabad with 78 followers, embarking on a 241-mile journey to the coastal village of Dandi in Gujarat. Over the course of 24 days, they walked approximately 12 miles each day, gathering thousands of supporters along the way. The march symbolized a collective stand against British rule and galvanized public sentiment across India.
- On April 6, 1930, upon reaching Dandi, Gandhi and his followers broke the Salt Act by producing salt from seawater, an act of defiance that sparked widespread civil disobedience across the country. This act led to mass arrests, with over 60,000 Indians detained, including Gandhi himself on May 5, 1930.

SPREAD OF SALT SATYAGRAHA

- Gujarat

- The movement began with Gandhi's march to Dandi, where he famously broke the salt law. This act galvanized support throughout Gujarat, leading to significant participation from local populations who began producing salt illegally.
- Maharashtra and Karnataka
 - In Maharashtra, peasants and activists defied the salt laws and engaged in protests against oppressive colonial policies. The movement also gained traction in Karnataka, where local leaders organized similar acts of defiance against the salt tax.
- Bihar
 - Bihar saw early involvement in the Salt Satyagraha, particularly in districts like Champaran and Saran. Rajendra Prasad played a crucial role here, mobilizing local support and laying the groundwork for a broader civil disobedience movement.
- Bengal
 - The Salt Satyagraha resonated deeply in Bengal, where public meetings and rallies were held to encourage participation. Notably, on April 6, 1930, a significant public gathering took place in Calcutta, where leaders urged citizens to join the movement. The enthusiasm was reflected in extensive media coverage that inspired many to take part.
- Andhra Pradesh
 - In Andhra Pradesh, salt marches were organized in districts such as East and West Godavari and Krishna. Local leaders established military-style camps to coordinate activities. Although participation was notable, it did not reach the levels seen during earlier movements like non-cooperation.
- Tamil Nadu
 - C. Rajagopalachari led a prominent salt satyagraha in Tamil Nadu that mirrored Gandhi's efforts. This initiative further spread the message of resistance against British salt laws across southern India.
- Other Regions
 - The movement also sparked actions in places like Orissa (particularly in Cuttack and Balasore), where locals engaged enthusiastically with the

principles of satyagraha. Additionally, areas like Midnapore participated actively by refusing to pay local taxes associated with colonial rule

SIGNIFICANCE OF SALT MARCH

- The Salt March brought Mahatma Gandhi to world attention. The European and American press widely covered the march.
- It was the first nationalist activity in which women participated in large numbers.
- It made the British realize that their rule wouldn't last indefinitely, and they had to consider giving some power to the Indians.
- British cloth imports experienced a spectacular collapse due to picketing and the global impact of the depression.

SUSPENSION OF CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE (MARCH-DECEMBER 1931)

- The movement was temporarily suspended following the Gandhi-Irwin Pact signed in March 1931. This agreement was a response to the British government's repression of the movement and included several key terms:
 - Suspension of Civil Disobedience: The Indian National Congress agreed to suspend the movement as part of the negotiations.
 - Release of Political Prisoners: The pact stipulated that all political prisoners arrested during the movement would be released.
 - Participation in Round Table Conferences: The Congress was invited to participate in future discussions regarding constitutional reforms in India

GANDHI-IRWIN PACT

ABOUT

- The Gandhi-Irwin Pact, signed on March 5, 1931, was a significant political agreement between Mahatma Gandhi, leader of the Indian National Congress, and Lord Irwin, the British Viceroy of India.
- This pact emerged in the context of escalating tensions during the Indian independence movement, particularly following the Salt Satyagraha and the broader Civil Disobedience Movement.

BACKGROUND

- The pact was a response to the British government's desire to stabilize the situation in India ahead of the Second Round Table Conference scheduled for later in 1931.
- In October 1929, Lord Irwin had hinted at a vague offer of "dominion status" for India, which was met with skepticism by Indian leaders.
- By early 1931, Gandhi and other Congress leaders were imprisoned due to their participation in civil disobedience actions against British laws, including the salt tax.
- In January 1931, as political pressure mounted, Irwin ordered the unconditional release of Gandhi and other Congress leaders. This gesture paved the way for negotiations between Gandhi and Irwin, marking their first meeting as equals in over a decade.

KEY TERMS OF THE PACT

- The Gandhi-Irwin Pact included several important agreements:
 - The Indian National Congress would discontinue its civil disobedience movement.
 - The Congress would participate in the Second Round Table Conference.
 - All ordinances restricting Congress activities would be withdrawn.
 - Prosecutions related to political offenses (excluding violence) would be dropped.
 - Over 90,000 political prisoners arrested during the movement would be released.
 - The tax on salt would be lifted, allowing Indians to produce and sell salt legally.

Agreed Terms by Government

- The British government agreed to:
 - Withdraw all ordinances and end prosecutions for non-violent offenses.
 - Release political prisoners except those convicted of violence.
 - Allow peaceful protests against liquor and foreign cloth shops.
 - Restore properties confiscated from satyagrahis.
 - Permit salt collection by coastal residents.

UNRESOLVED ISSUES

- Despite these agreements, some demands from Gandhi were not accepted:

- An inquiry into police excesses during the suppression of protests was rejected.
- The request to commute the death sentences of Bhagat Singh and his associates was also denied.

SIGNIFICANCE

- The pact is notable for being a pivotal moment in Indian history. It represented a rare instance where British authorities engaged with Indian leaders on relatively equal terms.
- While many British officials criticized the agreement as capitulation to "seditious" elements, it marked a strategic compromise aimed at fostering dialogue towards India's self-governance.
- The pact ultimately facilitated India's participation in discussions about constitutional reforms and set the stage for future negotiations regarding independence.

KARACHI 1931 CONGRESS SESSION

ABOUT

- The Karachi Session of 1931 was a pivotal event in the Indian National Congress's history, held from March 26 to March 31 in Karachi, then part of British India (now Pakistan).
- This session, presided over by Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, came in the wake of significant political turmoil, including the recent execution of prominent revolutionaries Bhagat Singh, Rajguru, and Sukhdev just days prior on March 23, 1931.
- Their deaths galvanized public sentiment and underscored the urgency of the Congress's agenda at this session.

KEY FEATURES AND RESOLUTIONS

- Endorsement of the Gandhi-Irwin Pact
 - One of the central themes of the Karachi Session was the endorsement of the Gandhi-Irwin Pact, which had temporarily halted the Civil Disobedience Movement.

- The Congress reaffirmed its commitment to achieving Poorna Swaraj (complete independence) and emphasized the need to resume mass movements against British rule.

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED

- The session produced two significant resolutions:
 - **Fundamental Rights Resolution:** This resolution outlined essential civil liberties, including:
 - Freedom of speech and press.
 - Right to assemble and form associations.
 - Universal adult franchise.
 - Equal legal rights regardless of caste, creed, or gender.
 - Protection for minority cultures and languages.
 - **National Economic Programme:** This resolution focused on socio-economic reforms aimed at improving conditions for workers and peasants. Key points included:
 - Reduction in agricultural rents and revenue.
 - Relief from debt for farmers.
 - Better working conditions for industrial laborers.
 - Prohibition of child labor and protection for women workers.

POLITICAL CONTEXT

- The Karachi Session was marked by a strong sense of urgency due to recent events:
 - The execution of revolutionary leaders heightened calls for unity and action against colonial rule.
 - Gandhi's release from prison and his negotiation efforts with Lord Irwin set a backdrop of cautious optimism mixed with tension.
 - Sardar Patel's presidential address highlighted the collective efforts across provinces in the struggle for independence, recognizing regional contributions while calling for solidarity in pursuing national goals.

REVIVAL OF CIVIL DISOBEDIANCE MOVEMENT

BACKGROUND OF THE REVIVAL

- After the Second Round Table Conference failed to yield favorable outcomes for Indian nationalists, Gandhi returned to India in early 1932.
- His re-arrest on January 4, 1932, under the Unlawful Associations Ordinance, did not deter the movement; instead, it intensified anti-British sentiments across the country.
- The government responded with repressive measures against Congress organizations and activists, leading to widespread unrest and further mobilization of nationalist sentiments.

KEY EVENTS OF 1932

- **Re-launch of the Movement:** The Civil Disobedience Movement was formally re-launched in 1932 as a response to the oppressive measures taken by the British government and the lack of genuine negotiations following the Round Table Conference.
- **Public Participation:** Despite Gandhi's absence due to his imprisonment, various nationalist activities emerged, including forest satyagrahas, picketing of liquor shops, and boycotts of foreign goods. These actions reflected a broader public engagement against colonial rule.
- **Impact on Society:** The second phase of civil disobedience saw significant participation from diverse segments of society, demonstrating a collective refusal to comply with British laws. This phase was characterized by acts of nonviolent resistance and civil disobedience that laid a foundation for future struggles against colonialism.

TIMELINE OF EVENTS LEADING TO THE END

- **1930:** The movement was officially launched on April 6, with Gandhi's Dandi March marking a pivotal act of defiance against the salt law.
- **1931:** The Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed, temporarily suspending civil disobedience in exchange for the release of political prisoners and the promise of negotiations.
- **May 1933:** The movement was formally suspended as participants faced exhaustion and disillusionment, particularly among youth and peasants who expected more immediate results.

- **April 1934:** Gandhi officially withdrew the movement, marking its end. Following his release from prison in April 1933, he focused on social issues such as untouchability and the upliftment of marginalized communities.

REASONS FOR WITHDRAWAL

- **Exhaustion Among Participants:** Many activists were fatigued from prolonged protests and arrests, leading to a decline in morale.
- **Disappointment with Outcomes:** Particularly among youth and peasants, there was a sense of disillusionment due to unmet expectations regarding land restoration and immediate political changes.
- **Strategic Shift:** Gandhi's decision was viewed as a strategic move to preserve the momentum of the independence struggle rather than a retreat from it. He redirected his efforts towards social reform, specifically addressing issues related to untouchability

TIMELINE BASED ACTIVE RECALL

1927: Simon Commission Announcement

- **November 8, 1927:** Secretary of State for India, Lord Birkenhead, announces Simon Commission to suggest constitutional amendments for India.
- **Backdrop:**
 - Gandhi in retirement.
 - Split among Swarajists.
 - Flourishing communalism and rising revolutionary activities.

1928: Arrival and Boycott of Simon Commission

- **1928:** Simon Commission arrives in India.
 - Boycotted due to lack of Indian representation.
 - Led to widespread protests (slogan: "Simon Go Back").
 - Death of Lala Lajpat Rai during police suppression.

1929: Simon Commission Report

- **May 1930:** Simon Commission Report released (irrelevant by the time of release due to Civil Disobedience Movement).
 - Recommendations:
 - Abolition of Dyarchy in provinces.
 - Retention of separate electorates and reserved seats for depressed classes.
 - Federal structure for governance.
 - Separation of Burma and Sindh.

1928: Nehru Report

- **Context:** Response to Lord Birkenhead's challenge (1925).
- **Key Recommendations:**
 - Dominion status for India.
 - Federal government structure with central authority holding residuary powers.
 - Joint electorates with reserved minority seats.
 - Fundamental Rights similar to the American Bill of Rights.

1929: Jinnah's Fourteen Points

- **March 28, 1929:** Articulated by Jinnah as opposition to Nehru Report.
 - Emphasized separate electorates, cultural safeguards, and proportional minority representation.

1930: Civil Disobedience Movement Begins

- **January 1930:** Gandhi's Eleven Demands presented to Lord Irwin.
- **February 1930:** Congress Working Committee grants Gandhi authority to launch the movement.
- **March 12, 1930:** Gandhi begins Dandi March with 78 followers.
- **April 6, 1930:** Gandhi breaks the Salt Act at Dandi, sparking widespread civil disobedience.

1931: Suspension of Civil Disobedience Movement

- **March 1931:** Gandhi-Irwin Pact signed.
 - Salt tax lifted.

- Political prisoners released.
- **March 1931:** Karachi Congress Session endorses the pact and adopts Fundamental Rights and National Economic Programme resolutions.

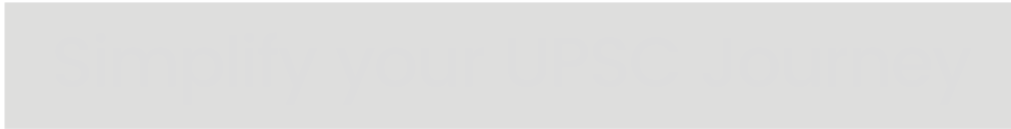
1932: Revival of Civil Disobedience Movement

- **January 1932:** Gandhi re-arrested; movement relaunched.
 - Included boycotts, forest satyagrahas, and widespread public protests.

1934: Official Withdrawal of Civil Disobedience

- **May 1933:** Suspension due to exhaustion among participants.
- **April 1934:** Gandhi formally ends the movement, shifting focus to social reforms like untouchability.

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RTC'S, COMMUNAL AWARD AND POONA PACT

ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES (RTC)

- The MacDonald-led Labour Party took control of England in 1929 before the Simon Commission's report was submitted in May 1930.
- In October 1929, Lord Irwin announced that the Labour Government would draft a new constitution following consultation with Indian leaders.
- From 1930 to 1932, London hosted the three Round Table Conferences of Indian leaders and British government representatives.
- Only the second conference was attended by the INC. Indian leaders and British government representatives met in London in 1930 for the first Round Table Conference, which was called by the British government to discuss the Simon Commission Report.

FIRST ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE (NOVEMBER 1930 TO JANUARY 1931)

- The conference was convened against the backdrop of increasing demands for self-rule (Swaraj) in India and was influenced by the recommendations of the Simon Commission.
- The British government, led by Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald, sought to address these demands through dialogue with Indian political leaders.
- However, the Indian National Congress (INC) chose to boycott the conference due to the British government's refusal to consider their demand for Poorna Swaraj (complete independence) and because many of its leaders were imprisoned during the ongoing Civil Disobedience Movement.

PARTICIPANTS

- The conference included a diverse group of attendees:
 - 74 Indian delegates, comprising:
 - 58 political leaders from British India.
 - 16 delegates from princely states.
- Delegates from three British political parties also participated, totaling 16 representatives.

- Key Indian figures included:
 - B.R. Ambedkar, who advocated for separate electorates for the Untouchables.
 - Tej Bahadur Sapru, who proposed the idea of an All-India Federation.
 - Other participants included leaders from various communities and political factions, such as the Muslim League and Justice Party.

KEY ISSUES DISCUSSED

- Several crucial topics were on the agenda:
 - The structure of a proposed federal government.
 - The constitutionality of provincial governance.
 - Representation and rights of minorities.
 - Defense services and issues related to provinces like Sindh and NWFP (North-West Frontier Province).
 - The concept of executive accountability to the legislature.

OUTCOMES

- Despite the discussions, the absence of the INC rendered the conference largely ineffective. While some principles were tentatively agreed upon, no substantial agreement was reached on key issues.
- The conference is often regarded as a failure because it did not lead to any concrete constitutional reforms or resolutions regarding Indian governance.
- The British government recognized that without the participation of the Congress, meaningful progress was unlikely.

SECOND ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE (SEPTEMBER TO DECEMBER 1931)

- The British government recognized the necessity of involving the INC for any meaningful dialogue about constitutional reforms.
- This led to the Gandhi-Irwin Pact, which facilitated Gandhi's participation in the second conference after his release from prison.

PARTICIPANTS

- The conference included a diverse group of delegates:

- Indian National Congress: Mahatma Gandhi, Rangaswami Iyengar, Madan Mohan Malaviya
- Muslim League: Muhammad Ali Jinnah, Aga Khan III
- Hindu Mahasabha: M. R. Jayakar
- Depressed Classes: Dr. B. R. Ambedkar
- Representatives from various princely states and minority groups, including Sikhs and Christians.

PROCEEDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

- The demand for a responsible government at both national and provincial levels.
- Representation and rights of minorities, particularly regarding separate electorates.
- The future constitutional framework for India.

OUTCOMES

- Despite the extensive discussions, the Second Round Table Conference ended without reaching a consensus or producing significant agreements on constitutional reforms. Key issues remained unresolved:
 - Gandhi's assertion that he represented all Indians was contested by other delegates who claimed that different communities had distinct interests.
 - The disagreement over separate electorates for minorities became particularly contentious, especially regarding Ambedkar's demands for untouchables, leading to further complications in negotiations.
 - The lack of unity among Indian leaders and ongoing civil unrest in India contributed to the conference's failure. Following its conclusion, Gandhi faced arrest upon returning to India as civil disobedience activities resumed.

THIRD ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE (NOV-DEC 1932)

- This conference was marked by notable absences and limited participation:
 - **Absence of Key Players:** The Indian National Congress (INC) and its leader Mahatma Gandhi did not attend this conference. The INC was not invited, which significantly diminished the conference's representational legitimacy.
 - **Limited Participation:** Only 46 delegates attended, including representatives from Indian princely states, Muslims (represented by figures like Aga Khan),

and various minority groups. However, many prominent Indian leaders were absent, leading to a lack of comprehensive representation.

KEY DISCUSSIONS AND OUTCOMES

- The discussions during the Third Round Table Conference focused on the recommendations from the sub-committees established during the Second Round Table Conference. Despite these discussions, the conference did not yield substantial results
- Recommendations Published: The outcomes were summarized in a White Paper released in March 1933. This document outlined proposals for constitutional reforms but did not lead to immediate changes.

COMMUNAL AWARD AND POONA PACT

ABOUT

- The Communal Award, also known as the MacDonald Award, was established by British Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald on August 16, 1932.
- It emerged from the context of the Round Table Conferences held between 1930 and 1932, which aimed to address India's political representation and communal tensions.
- The Award was significant in that it extended separate electorates, previously granted to Muslims, to various other minority groups, including Sikhs, Indian Christians, Anglo-Indians, Europeans, and the Depressed Classes (now referred to as Scheduled Castes).
- The most contentious out of these separate electorates were of Depressed class.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF COMMUNAL AWARD

- To double the existing seats in provincial legislatures.
- To retain the system of separate electorate for the minorities
- To recognise depressed classes as minority community and make them entitled to the right of a separate electorate.
- To reserve three per cent of seats for women within the various communal categories in all provincial legislatures except in the North-west Frontier Provinces.
- To allocate seats to labour, landlords, traders and industrialists.

- To grant weightage to Muslims in provinces where they were in the minority.
- Thus, the Communal Award accorded a separate electorate to Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians, Anglo-Indians, Europeans, depressed classes and distinct regional groups (such as the Marathas in the Bombay Presidency - 7 seats).
- Double Vote: The Communal Award gave the Depressed Classes voting rights along with caste Hindus in the general constituencies and an extra vote in 71 special Depressed Classes constituencies for 20 years.

REACTION TO COMMUNAL AWARD

- The Indian National Congress strongly opposed the concept of separate electorates introduced by the Communal Award. However, they chose a nuanced approach: while they disapproved of the award, they did not outright reject or accept it without the consent of the minorities involved.
- This stance was partly motivated by a desire to maintain unity among Indians and to avoid exacerbating communal tensions. Congress leaders believed that altering the award without minority agreement could further deepen divisions within Indian society.

KEY REACTIONS

MAHATMA GANDHI

- Mahatma Gandhi viewed the Communal Award as a direct threat to Indian unity and nationalism. He argued that separate electorates would perpetuate divisions among communities, particularly affecting the status of the Depressed Classes.
- Gandhi famously undertook a fast in protest against the award, advocating instead for joint electorates with reserved seats for underrepresented groups.

B.R. AMBEDKAR

- B.R. Ambedkar, representing the interests of the Depressed Classes, supported separate electorates as a means to ensure political representation and rights for his community.
- His position highlighted a significant rift within Indian politics regarding how best to achieve empowerment for marginalized groups

POONA PACT

- Gandhi reacted strongly to the proposal of granting the right of a separate electorate to the depressed classes. He regarded Depressed Classes as an integral part of Hindu society.
- On 18 August 1932, Gandhiji wrote a letter to Ramsay Macdonald declaring his intentions to fast unto death against the Communal Award.
- To convince Ambedkar to accept his view, Gandhi resorted to a fast unto death on September 20, 1932, while he was in Yerwada Jail.
- As pressure mounted on Ambedkar, he agreed to consider Gandhi's proposal, provided that the scheme guaranteed better than the Communal Award.
- On September 24, Hindu and depressed class leaders signed the Poona Pact in the presence of Gandhiji. Gandhi's trusted emissary, C Rajagopalachari, exchanged his fountain pen with Ambedkar at the end of the talks. Gandhiji broke fast on September 26 in the presence of Rabindranath Tagore.

MAIN TERMS OF THE POONA PACT

- It accepted the principle of a joint electorate.
- 148 seats were reserved for the Depressed Classes in the provincial legislatures as against 71 seats given by the Communal Award.
- 18 per cent of the total seats meant for the general electorate would be kept for the Depressed Classes in the central legislature.
- It was also decided that the continuance of the reservation would be decided in future by mutual agreement.

HARIJAN CAMPAIGN (1933-1934)

INITIATION AND OBJECTIVES

- In November 1933, Gandhi launched an extensive all-India campaign against untouchability, known as the Harijan Yatra. This campaign aimed to raise awareness about the injustices faced by the so-called "untouchables," whom Gandhi referred to as Harijans, meaning "children of God".
- The campaign began at Selu near Wardha, where Gandhi opened a temple for Harijans, symbolizing his commitment to integrating them into Hindu society.

TRAVEL AND OUTREACH

- Over the next nine months, Gandhi traveled approximately 20,000 kilometers across India, visiting various regions including Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Punjab.
- His journey involved public meetings where he urged upper-caste Hindus to recognize the dignity of Harijans and to reject practices of untouchability.
- He emphasized that social reform was essential for India's political freedom, asserting that true independence could not be achieved while a segment of the population was treated as inferior.

PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS

- Gandhi's philosophy centered on the belief that untouchability was not only a social evil but also a moral failing that contradicted Hindu values.
- He argued that caste distinctions should not be based on birth but rather on individual qualities and aptitudes.
- In his writings during this period, he called upon Hindus to abandon the notion of untouchability as a sin against humanity and religion.

PUBLICATIONS AND ADVOCACY

- During this time, Gandhi also began publishing a weekly journal titled **Harijan**, which focused on issues related to the upliftment of Harijans and critiqued the caste system.

GANDHI AND AMBEDKAR

- Mahatma Gandhi and Dr. B.R. Ambedkar were two pivotal figures in India's struggle for independence and social reform, yet they had fundamentally different ideologies and approaches to achieving their goals.

IDEOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES

VIEWS ON DEMOCRACY

- Gandhi was skeptical of mass democracy, fearing it could lead to the dominance of a few leaders over the masses. He preferred a decentralized form of governance that emphasized local self-rule and community participation.

- Ambedkar, on the other hand, embraced mass democracy as a means to empower marginalized communities. He believed that through democratic processes, social justice and equal representation could be achieved for all sections of society.

APPROACH TO SOCIAL REFORM

- Gandhi advocated for gradual social reform intertwined with political freedom. He emphasized self-reliance and the upliftment of all societal segments through moral and spiritual awakening.
- Ambedkar focused on the eradication of caste-based discrimination and emphasized education as a tool for empowerment. He sought immediate structural changes to ensure social equality, often criticizing the slow pace of Gandhi's reforms.

PERSPECTIVES ON THE CASTE SYSTEM

- Gandhi viewed the caste system as a social structure that could be reformed from within Hinduism. He referred to the oppressed classes as "Harijans" (children of God) and sought to integrate them into society without completely rejecting Hindu traditions.
- Ambedkar rejected the caste system outright, viewing it as a fundamental barrier to social justice. He advocated for a complete overhaul of Hindu society and encouraged Dalits to convert to Buddhism as a means of escaping caste oppression.

CONCEPT OF NON-VIOLENCE

- Gandhi's philosophy of non-violence (Ahimsa) was absolute; he believed in peaceful resistance even in the face of oppression.
- Ambedkar's approach was more pragmatic; while he valued non-violence, he accepted self-defense as necessary when faced with violence against marginalized communities.

SIMILARITIES

-
- Despite their differences, both leaders shared some common ground:
 - Both sought to eliminate social injustices and uplift the downtrodden.

- They recognized religion's role in social change but approached it differently: Gandhi aimed to reform Hinduism from within, while Ambedkar called for its rejection due to its inherent inequalities.
- Both emphasized education as vital for societal transformation and supported limited governmental authority, advocating for people's sovereignty

TIMELINE FOR RTCS, COMMUNAL AWARD, AND POONA PACT

1929

- **October:** Lord Irwin's announcement to draft a new constitution by consulting Indian leaders (context: Labour Government in England).
- **May:** Simon Commission's report submission.

1930

- **November 1930 - January 1931:** First Round Table Conference.
 - **Backdrop:** Swaraj demands and Civil Disobedience Movement.
 - **Key Participants:** B.R. Ambedkar, Tej Bahadur Sapru, etc. (74 Indian delegates).
 - **Key Issues:** Federal structure, minority rights, defence services.
 - **Outcome:** Largely ineffective due to the Indian National Congress (INC) boycott.

1931

- **March:** Gandhi-Irwin Pact signed.
- **September - December:** Second Round Table Conference.
 - **Participants:** Gandhi, Jinnah, Ambedkar, etc.
 - **Key Issues:** Minority representation, future constitutional framework.
 - **Outcome:** Failure to reach consensus; Gandhi arrested post-conference.

1932

- **August 16:** Communal Award (MacDonald Award).

- **Recommendations:** Separate electorates for minorities including Depressed Classes.
- **Key Reactions:** Gandhi protested with fasting; Ambedkar sought empowerment for Depressed Classes.
- **September 20-24:** Poona Pact signed.
 - **Terms:** Joint electorate, increased seat reservation for Depressed Classes.

1933-1934

- **November 1933:** Gandhi launches Harijan Campaign.
 - **Outreach:** Travels across India, publishes *Harijan* journal.

Philosophical Debates (1933 onwards):

- **Gandhi vs Ambedkar:**
 - Gandhi: Integration within Hindu traditions.
 - Ambedkar: Complete rejection of caste system, advocating for Buddhism.

NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1934-39)

STRATEGIES POST-CIVIL DISOBEDIANCE

- Following the Civil Disobedience Movement in India, which concluded in the early 1930s, a significant debate emerged among nationalist leaders regarding the future strategies of the independence movement.
- This period, particularly from 1934 to 1935, was marked by diverse perspectives on how to proceed in the absence of mass mobilization.

KEY STRATEGIES POST-CIVIL DISOBEDIENCE MOVEMENT

CONSTRUCTIVE WORK

- Mahatma Gandhi advocated for a strategy centered on constructive work, emphasizing grassroots initiatives aimed at reviving traditional village crafts and promoting self-reliance.
- He believed that this approach would consolidate people's power and prepare them for future mass struggles against colonial rule. Gandhi viewed this phase as essential for rebuilding the movement's strength and fostering unity among the populace.

STRUGGLE-TRUCE-STRUGGLE (S-T-S) STRATEGY

- Another perspective proposed a Struggle-Truce-Struggle (S-T-S) approach. Proponents of this strategy argued that while immediate mass mobilization might not be feasible, the movement could pause to allow the masses to recuperate.
- If the British government failed to respond positively to nationalist demands during this truce, they could reignite the movement with renewed vigor. This strategy aimed to maintain a cycle of struggle while allowing for temporary pauses.

CONTINUOUS DIRECT ACTION (STRUGGLE-VICTORY STRATEGY)

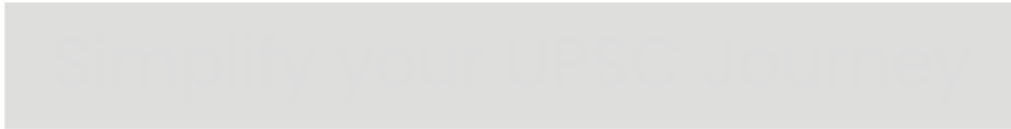
- Jawaharlal Nehru strongly opposed both the S-T-S strategy and any notion of compromise with colonial authorities.
- He argued for a Continuous Direct-Action policy, asserting that the national movement had reached a stage where it required relentless confrontation with imperialism until complete independence was achieved.

- Nehru's vision was encapsulated in his Struggle-Victory (S-V) strategy, which called for an unyielding pursuit of freedom without interspersing constitutionalist phases

POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT AND ELECTIONS

- Some leaders within Congress considered whether to accept office in provincial governments if they secured a majority in elections.
- This marked a significant shift towards constitutional politics, reflecting a divide within the Congress between those favoring direct action and those advocating for participation in governance as a means to effect change.
- Consequently, the All-India Congress Committee (AICC) meeting in Patna in May 1934 decided to establish a parliamentary board to contest elections under the Congress.
- Elections to the Central Legislative Assembly were held in India in November 1934. The Indian National Congress emerged as the largest party by winning 45 seats out of 75.

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GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT 1935

BACKGROUND

- Several political events and demands for greater autonomy in India influenced the Government of India Act of 1935. The following are key events that led to the Act's formulation:
 - **Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms (1919):** It introduced dyarchy in provinces, giving elected Indian ministers control over certain areas. However, they fell short of self-government demands.
 - **Simon Commission (1927):** The commission was formed to review the 1919 reforms and it faced protests for excluding Indians. Its 1930 report suggested major constitutional changes.
 - **Round Table Conferences (1930-1932):** It was held in London, these meetings exposed divisions among Indian leaders and emphasised the need for broader reforms.
 - **Communal Award (1932):** Proposed separate electorates for religious communities, complicating the constitutional landscape.
 - **White Paper (1933):** It laid the basis for the Government of India Act 1935.

PROVISIONS

The Government of India Act of 1935 established an All-India Federation, provincial autonomy, and bicameral legislatures, which increased local power. Despite these changes, the central government remained under British control, and the Act was enforced in April 1937. The key provisions that reshaped the constitutional framework of British India are:

- **All-India Federation:** The Act proposed a federal structure for India, creating a federation of provinces and princely states. However, the federation never fully materialized due to the reluctance of many princely states to join.
- **Provincial Autonomy:** Provinces were granted substantial autonomy, allowing them to govern themselves in most areas, except for matters specified as central.
- **Bicameral Legislature:** It established a bicameral legislature at the provincial level in some provinces (Madras, Bombay, Bengal, United Provinces, Bihar, and Assam), consisting of a Legislative Assembly and a Legislative Council.

- **Division of Powers:** The Government of India Act of 1935 divided powers between central and provincial governments into three lists:
- **Federal List:** Exclusively under central government control, covering defence, foreign affairs, and communications.
- **Provincial List:** Solely under provincial jurisdiction, including police, public health, and agriculture.
- **Concurrent List:** Shared authority between central and provincial governments, covering subjects like criminal law and marriage.
 - The Viceroy retained control over unspecified subjects to protect British interests, but the proposed federation failed as many princely states refused to join
- **Expansion of Franchise:** Voting rights were extended to approximately 30 million people or roughly 10% of the population.
 - The extension was based on criteria such as property, education, and income, which significantly increased the electorate compared to previous reforms.
- **Federal Court:** It provided for the establishment of a Federal Court, which was established in 1937. Nonetheless, the Privy Council in London remained the final court of appeal.
- **Communal Representation:** The system of separate electorates was expanded to include not only Muslims, but also depressed classes (scheduled castes), women, and labour (workers), thereby expanding communal representation.
- **Retention of British Control:** Despite increased provincial autonomy, the British Crown maintained control, with the Governor-General and Governors exercising discretionary authority in defence, foreign affairs, and security.
- **Establishment of Public Service Commissions:** A Federal Public Service Commission, Provincial Public Service Commissions, and Joint Public Service Commissions were formed to oversee civil service recruitment and administration.
- **Abolition of the Council of India:** The Council of India, established under the Government of India Act of 1858, was abolished and replaced by a team of advisors for the Secretary of State for India, thereby centralising administrative control.
- **Provisions for Joint Sitzings:** Joint Sitzings of the bicameral legislatures are permitted in the event of a legislative deadlock, as a means of resolving conflicts between the two houses.

SIGNIFICANCE

The Government of India Act 1935 significantly impacted India's constitutional development and was the core foundation for the making of the constitution. Its significance can be understood through several key aspects:

- **Foundation for Federalism:** Established a framework for federalism, though it was not fully implemented; this concept later became central to the Indian Constitution.
- **Provincial Autonomy:** Abolished dyarchy and granted significant control to provincial governments, enhancing self-governance and Indian participation in administration.
- **Electoral Base Expansion:** Increased the electorate to about 10% of adults, enabling greater political participation and fostering democratic governance.
- **Blueprint for Future Developments:** Many of its provisions, such as power division, bicameral legislatures, and minority rights protections, influenced the Indian Constitution.
- **Encouragement of Political Mobilization:** Fostered the rise of political parties and awareness, providing a platform for Indian leaders to shape future governance.

CRITICISM

- The Government of India Act 1935, despite introducing significant constitutional reforms, had several critical limitations that hindered its effectiveness and contributed to its widespread rejection by Indian leaders:
 - **Governor-General and Governors' Powers:** Despite provincial autonomy, the Act allowed the Governor-General and provincial governors to retain extensive powers, including veto authority.
 - **Extension of Separate Electorates:** The Act extended communal electorates, deepening divisions among religious and social groups.
 - **Rigid Constitution:** It imposed a rigid framework with no provision for amendments by Indian authorities, reserving this power for the British Parliament.
 - **Failed Federation:** The proposed federation never materialized due to insufficient support from princely states, especially with World War II looming.

- **Widespread Rejection:** The Act was widely condemned and rejected by the Indian National Congress and other political groups.
- **Restricted Franchise:** Voting rights remained limited to only 10% of the population, based on property, income, and education qualifications.

REACTIONS

- **Indian National Congress (INC):** The INC criticized the Act for not granting full independence, opposing the limited provincial autonomy and continuing British control over key areas like defence and foreign affairs. They viewed it as a flawed step, falling short of India's aspirations for self-rule.
- **Muslim League:** While the Muslim League also wanted more significant reforms, they saw the Act as a step toward securing political representation for Muslims through separate electorates and reserved seats.
- **Princely States:** The princely states resisted joining the proposed federal structure, as they feared losing autonomy to the central government.
- **British Government:** The British saw the Act as a necessary compromise to maintain control while addressing growing Indian political demands. However, the Act's limitations led to intensified calls for complete independence.

ELECTIONS OF 1937 AND IMPORTANT CONGRESS SESSIONS

ELECTIONS OF 1937

- The period between 1936 and 1939 was a period of political transformation for the Congress. This was when Congress gave up the path of confrontation and went for constitutional politics.
- However, unlike the earlier Swarajist phase, its present aim was to give the constitutional methods a trial, and the Congressmen worked for their success.
Congress' Election Manifesto
- The Manifesto made it clear that the purpose of sending Congressmen to the legislatures was not to cooperate with the Government but to combat the Act of 1935.

- It promised the establishment of civil liberty, release of political prisoners, removal of untouchability, equal status for women, encouragement to khadi and village industries, and satisfactory solutions to communal problems.
- In relation to industrial workers, it promised a decent standard of living, regular hours of work, the right to form unions and better working conditions for labour.

PERFORMANCE OF CONGRESS

- The February 1937 elections conclusively demonstrated that a large majority of Indians supported the Congress. Congress won 716 out of the 1,161 seats it contested.
- The largest party in nine provinces: Congress was the largest party in all provinces except Punjab and Sindh.
- A clear majority in five provinces: Congress had a clear majority (absolute majority) in five provinces - United Provinces, Central Provinces, Bihar, Orissa, and Madras.
- Ministries: In 1937, Congress ministries were formed in seven out of eleven provinces - United Provinces, Central Provinces, Bihar, Orissa, Madras, Bombay and NWFP.
- In 1938, Congress formed coalition governments in Assam under Bardoloi. Hence, eight out of eleven provinces had a Congress "Prime Minister" working under the supervision of a British Governor.
- Congress supported the ministry of Hidayatulla in Sindh.
- Punjab was ruled by the Unionist Party, and Bengal was ruled by a coalition of the Krishak Praja Party and the Muslim League.

1936 LUCKNOW CONGRESS SESSION

- The Lucknow Session of the Indian National Congress in 1936, held from April 12 to 14, marked a significant moment in the Indian independence movement.
- This session was presided over by Jawaharlal Nehru, who emphasized the need for the Congress to adopt socialist principles as a solution to India's socio-economic challenges.
- Nehru's address called for the abolition of capitalism and urged Congress members to focus on economic reforms that would benefit farmers and peasants.

KEY HIGHLIGHTS OF THE LUCKNOW SESSION 1936

- **Presidency:** Jawaharlal Nehru served as the president of this session, marking his growing influence within the Congress party.
- **Adoption of Socialism:** Nehru articulated a vision where socialism was seen as essential for addressing India's problems, advocating for land reforms and improved conditions for rural populations.
- **Rejection of Government of India Act, 1935:** The Congress passed a resolution rejecting this act, which was viewed as inadequate for addressing Indian aspirations for self-governance.
- **Exhibition of Indian Art:** This session also featured an exhibition organized by Nandalal Bose, showcasing Indian art and promoting rural life and village industries, in line with Mahatma Gandhi's vision.
- **Shift in Congress Strategy:** The Lucknow session represented a shift towards more radical policies within the Congress, aligning with broader socialist movements globally during that period.
- **All India Kisan Sabha (AIKS)** was founded with Swami Sahajananda Saraswati as its first President.

FAIZPUR CONGRESS SESSION DEC 1936

- The Faizpur Congress Session was a significant event in the history of the Indian National Congress (INC), marking its 50th session, held from December 26 to 28, 1936, in Faizpur, located in the Jalgaon district of Maharashtra.
- This session was particularly notable for being the first Congress session conducted in a rural setting, aimed at bringing the party closer to the peasant population, which constituted a large part of India's demographic at the time.

KEY HIGHLIGHTS OF THE FAIZPUR SESSION

- **Presidency:** The session was presided over by Jawaharlal Nehru, who was at the height of his influence within the INC. His leadership during this session emphasized the importance of addressing agrarian issues and aligning the Congress with the needs of the peasantry.
- **Participation:** Approximately 40,000 peasants participated in this session, reflecting a significant mobilization of rural support for the Congress. This large turnout

underscored the growing awareness and activism among agricultural workers regarding their rights and issues.

- **Agrarian Program:** The session saw a shift towards more radical demands concerning agrarian reform. The Congress adopted an agrarian program that included:
 - A 50% reduction in land tax and rent.
 - Ensuring a minimum wage for agricultural workers.
 - Recognition of peasant unions.
 - Complete abolition of feudal levies

HARIPURA SESSION FEB 1938

- The Haripura Session of the Indian National Congress (INC), held from February 19 to 22, 1938, marked a significant event in India's struggle for independence.
- This was the 51st session of the INC and was presided over by Subhas Chandra Bose, who was elected as the Congress President during this session.

KEY HIGHLIGHTS

- **Location and Attendance:** The session took place in Haripura, a village in Gujarat, which was transformed to accommodate the large number of attendees, estimated at over 200,000 people from various provinces and princely states of India.
- **Political Context:** The session was convened against the backdrop of growing discontent with British colonial rule and the recent introduction of the Government of India Act, 1935, which many viewed as undemocratic. Bose articulated a clear stance against this act, emphasizing the need for complete independence for India, including princely states.
- **Resolutions and Demands:** One of the pivotal resolutions passed during this session was an ultimatum to the British government, demanding independence within six months. Failure to comply would lead Congress to initiate an all-out struggle against British rule. The session also supported civil liberties and recognized the rights of peasant organizations to form unions, reflecting the growing influence of peasant movements in India.
- **National Planning Committee:** The Haripura Session saw the establishment of a National Planning Committee, which aimed at economic development through

structured planning. This initiative highlighted Bose's vision for India's future economic framework.

TRIPURI CONGRESS SESSION 1939

- The Tripuri Session of the Indian National Congress, held in March 1939 in Tripuri (now part of Madhya Pradesh), was a pivotal moment in the Indian independence movement, marked by significant political developments and internal party dynamics.

KEY HIGHLIGHTS

- **Presidency of Subhas Chandra Bose:** The session is notable for the election of Subhas Chandra Bose as the President of the Indian National Congress, defeating Mahatma Gandhi's preferred candidate, Pattabhi Sitaramayya. Bose secured 1,580 votes compared to Sitaramayya's 1,377, reflecting a shift in support towards Bose's more radical approach to independence.
- **Resolution on Princely States:** A critical resolution passed during this session emphasized the Congress's commitment to complete independence for all of India, including the princely states. This marked a departure from previous policies of non-intervention in princely state politics, aligning with a broader nationalist sentiment that had been growing across the country.
- **Ideological Divide:** The session highlighted deep-seated ideological divisions within the Congress party. Bose's leadership was seen as a challenge to Gandhi's more conciliatory approach. His presidency symbolized a move towards more assertive strategies in the struggle for independence, which created tensions within the party's leadership structure.
- **Bose's Ultimatum and Resignation:** During his presidency, Bose called for a six-month ultimatum to Britain to grant India full independence. When this demand was not met and his powers were curtailed by the Congress Working Committee, he resigned in April 1939. Following his resignation, he established the Forward Bloc, aiming to unify various factions within the Congress and beyond for a more radical approach to independence.

TIMELINE: NATIONAL MOVEMENT (1934–1939)

1934:

- **May: Patna AICC Meeting** - Decision to contest elections; formation of a parliamentary board.

1935:

- **The Government of India Act 1935:**
 - Introduction of federal structure (though not fully materialized), provincial autonomy, and bicameral legislatures.
 - Expansion of franchise to 10% of the population (approx. 30 million voters).
 - Establishment of Public Service Commissions and Federal Court.

1936:

- **April 12–14: Lucknow Congress Session:**
 - Jawaharlal Nehru's presidency; socialist agenda highlighted.
 - Rejection of the Government of India Act 1935.
- **December 26–28: Faizpur Congress Session:**
 - First session held in rural India.
 - Focus on agrarian reforms, including land tax reduction, minimum wage for labor, and abolition of feudal levies.

1937:

- **Elections (February):**
 - Congress wins majority in 5 provinces and forms ministries in 7 provinces. Coalition government in Assam (1938).
 - Congress manifesto emphasized combating the Government of India Act and introducing social reforms.
- **March–July:** Provincial Congress governments initiate reforms and focus on civil liberty and rural development.

1938:

- **February 19–22: Haripura Congress Session:**

- Subhas Chandra Bose as president; demand for complete independence within six months.
- Formation of the National Planning Committee to focus on structured economic development.

1939:

- **March: Tripuri Congress Session:**

- Subhas Chandra Bose's re-election as president against Gandhi's preferred candidate.
- Ideological divisions deepen within the Congress.
- Bose resigns in April and forms the Forward Bloc.

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TOWARDS QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT

START OF WORLD WAR 2 AND CONGRESS

START OF WORLD WAR II

- World War II officially began on September 1, 1939, when Germany invaded Poland. This act was part of Adolf Hitler's broader expansionist agenda, leading to a declaration of war by Britain against Germany on September 3, 1939. India, then a British colony, was automatically drawn into the conflict when the British government declared war without consulting Indian leaders or representatives.
- The Indian government's involvement was characterized by significant military contributions; over two and a half million Indian soldiers served under British command during the war. However, this inclusion was met with widespread discontent among Indian nationalists who felt that their voices were ignored in such crucial decisions.

CONGRESS'S RESPONSE TO WORLD WAR II

- Upon the declaration of war, the INC expressed its disapproval of the British government's unilateral decision. The Congress demanded that India be granted complete independence or at least substantial self-governance as a condition for supporting the war effort. This demand was rooted in a broader desire for political autonomy and was articulated through various resolutions and protests

CWC MEETING IN WARDHA

- In 1939, the Congress Working Committee (CWC) convened a significant meeting in Wardha, Maharashtra, amidst the backdrop of World War II.
- This meeting was pivotal in shaping the Indian National Congress's stance towards British colonial rule and the war.

KEY DEMANDS AND RESOLUTIONS

- **Opposition to War Involvement:** The CWC expressed strong disapproval of the British government's unilateral decision to involve India in World War II without

consulting Indian leaders. They condemned this action, asserting that India could not participate in the war unless it was consulted first.

- **Resignation of Congress Ministers:** Following their refusal to support the British war efforts, Congress ministers were directed to resign from their positions in provincial governments. This mass resignation was a protest against the British government's disregard for Indian sentiments and demands for self-governance.
- **Call for Democratic Freedom:** The resolution passed at Wardha emphasized that if Britain sought to promote a world order based on democracy, it must first grant democratic freedoms to India. Congress demanded an end to imperialist policies and insisted on a commitment to India's independence as a prerequisite for any cooperation in the war.
- **Civil Disobedience:** The meeting set the stage for future civil disobedience movements, highlighting that non-violent resistance would be employed against British rule if their demands were not met. This laid the groundwork for subsequent movements, including the Quit India Movement in 1942.

TOWARDS QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT

AUGUST OFFER 1940

ABOUT

- The August Offer of 1940 was a significant political proposal made by the British government to India during World War II, aimed at securing Indian cooperation in the war effort.
- Announced on August 8, 1940, by Viceroy Lord Linlithgow, the offer came in response to growing demands from Indian leaders for greater autonomy and self-governance.

BACKGROUND

- The context for the August Offer was marked by the deteriorating situation in Europe, particularly after the fall of France to Nazi Germany.
- This created a sense of urgency for Britain to secure support from India, which had been declared a participant in the war without consulting Indian leaders.

- The Indian National Congress, under pressure from its constituents, demanded a transfer of power to an interim government as a condition for supporting the war effort.

KEY PROPOSALS

- **Dominion Status:** It promised that India would be granted dominion status after the war.
- **Expansion of the Executive Council:** The Viceroy's Executive Council would be expanded to include more Indians, ensuring a majority representation from Indian political parties.
- **Constitutional Assembly:** A representative body would be established post-war to draft a new constitution for India.
- **Minority Rights:** The offer assured that no future constitutional framework would be acceptable without the agreement of minority groups, effectively granting them veto power over constitutional changes.

REACTIONS

- **Indian National Congress:** The Congress rejected the offer outright, with leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru declaring that "Dominion status is dead as a doornail." They viewed it as inadequate and not addressing their demand for complete independence.
- **Mahatma Gandhi:** Gandhi expressed concerns that the offer widened the rift between nationalists and British authorities, fearing it would exacerbate divisions within Indian society.
- **Muslim League:** In contrast, the Muslim League welcomed the assurances regarding minority rights but ultimately found the offer insufficient as it did not address their aspirations for Pakistan.

SIGNIFICANCE

- Despite its rejection, the August Offer marked an important moment in India's struggle for independence.
- It acknowledged for the first time Indians' right to frame their own constitution and indicated a shift in British policy towards greater Indian involvement in governance.
- However, it also highlighted the deepening divide between Indian aspirations for complete autonomy and British reluctance to relinquish control.

INDIVIDUAL SATYAGRAHA

- Individual Satyagraha was a significant movement initiated by Mahatma Gandhi in October 1940 as a response to the British government's unilateral decision to involve India in World War II without consulting Indian leaders.
- This movement was a form of nonviolent resistance aimed at protesting against the British rule and affirming the right to free speech, particularly in light of the failure of the British August Offer, which offered limited self-governance but was deemed inadequate by Gandhi and other leaders of the Indian National Congress.

OBJECTIVES AND GOALS

- **Affirming Free Speech:** The movement sought to assert the right to free expression against oppressive governance.
- **Protesting British Policies:** It was a direct challenge to British policies that disregarded Indian autonomy and rights.
- **Demonstrating Nationalist Patience:** By conducting individual protests rather than mass mobilization, Gandhi aimed to show that the Indian nationalist movement was not weak or passive but was strategically patient in its demands for independence.

KEY EVENTS AND STRUCTURE

- The movement officially commenced on October 17, 1940, with Vinoba Bhave being the first designated Satyagrahi, followed by Jawaharlal Nehru and Brahma Dutt as subsequent participants.
- Unlike previous mass movements, Individual Satyagraha involved selected individuals from various localities who would engage in acts of civil disobedience. This approach aimed to limit the government's ability to suppress dissent through mass arrests.

CHALLENGES FACED

- **Limited Participation:** Many potential participants were hesitant to resign from their municipal positions or engage in protests due to fear of repercussions, which slowed the momentum of the movement.

- **Government Suppression:** Authorities responded with arrests and punitive measures against those involved, which included issuing warrants under the Defence of India Rules. Despite this, many satyagrahis continued their protests undeterred.

1940 LAHORE RESOLUTION

The Pakistan Resolution, formally known as the Lahore Resolution, was a political statement adopted by the All-India Muslim League during its session from March 22 to 24, 1940, in Lahore, British India. This resolution demanded for a separate homeland for Muslims in regions where they constituted a majority.

KEY PROVISIONS

- The resolution called for:
 - Independent States: It proposed that geographically contiguous regions where Muslims were in the majority should be grouped to form independent states with autonomous and sovereign units.
 - Safeguards for Minorities: It emphasized that adequate protections must be provided for religious and cultural minorities within these states, ensuring their rights and interests were safeguarded.
 - Rejection of Federalism: The resolution rejected existing federal proposals and instead advocated for complete autonomy for Muslim-majority regions, marking a significant shift from seeking safeguards within a united India to demanding outright independence

CRIPPS MISSION 1942

ABOUT

- The Cripps Mission, initiated in March 1942, was a significant but ultimately unsuccessful attempt by the British government to secure Indian support for their war efforts during World War II.
- Led by Sir Stafford Cripps, a senior minister in Winston Churchill's coalition government, the mission aimed to negotiate terms that would encourage Indian leaders to cooperate with the British against the Axis powers.

BACKGROUND

- The context for the Cripps Mission was dire for the British, as they faced military setbacks in Southeast Asia, particularly after the fall of Singapore and Rangoon.
- The British government recognized that maintaining India's support was crucial for their war efforts against Japan.
- Additionally, there was growing pressure from allies like the United States and the USSR to involve India more actively in the war.

KEY PROPOSALS

- **Dominion Status:** India would be granted dominion status after the war, allowing it to remain part of the British Commonwealth or secede if desired.
- **Constituent Assembly:** A Constituent Assembly would be formed to draft a new constitution, with members elected from provincial assemblies and nominated by princely states.
- **Provincial Autonomy:** Provinces unwilling to join the Indian dominion could form separate unions with their own constitutions.
- **Safeguarding Rights:** The rights of minorities would be protected through negotiations between the Constituent Assembly and the British government.
- **Defense Control:** Until the new constitution was implemented, defense matters would remain under British control, and the powers of the Governor-General would not change.

REACTION

- **Indian National Congress (INC):** The INC viewed the proposals as inadequate, particularly objecting to the retention of significant British control over defense and governance. They demanded immediate independence rather than a delayed promise.
- **Muslim League:** Muhammad Ali Jinnah and the Muslim League also rejected the proposals, arguing that they did not adequately address Muslim interests or self-determination.

FAILURE

- Distrust between Indian leaders and British officials hindered negotiations.
- Key figures like Viceroy Linlithgow and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill were not fully supportive of Cripps' proposals, undermining his authority.

- The INC's insistence on immediate independence clashed with British intentions to delay self-governance until after the war.

QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT

- The Quit India Movement 1942 was a mass Civil Disobedience Movement launched by Gandhi on August 8, 1942, at the Bombay session of the All India Congress Committee.
- The movement aimed to secure India's independence from British rule.

BACKGROUND

- **World War II:** The movement was launched during World War II when Britain expected India's full support. However, the Indian National Congress demanded independence before contributing to the war effort.
- **Cripps Mission:** The British government, in 1942, had sent Cripps Mission to India with an offer of limited self-government after the war. The proposals were rejected by the Congress as inadequate.
- **Gandhi's Stand:** After the failure of the Cripps Mission, Gandhi adopted a stern attitude to pressure the British Government to quit India.

REASONS FOR LAUNCH

- The failure of the Cripps Mission (1942) had made it clear that British were not willing to offer any real constitutional advance to India during the War and would go on appropriating Indian help and men fighting for allied forces without its consent.
- The popular discontent was growing because of rising prices and war-time shortages, was gradually mounting and the time for expression of this discontent had come.
- There was an anticipation of an imminent collapse of the British empire.
- The incidents such as Allied reverses and British withdrawals from South-East Asia and Burma, etc. confirmed this feeling.
- The manner in which the British evacuation from Malaya and Burma had angered the masses.
- The British evacuated the white residents and largely left the local population to their fate.

- In order to build up their capacity to resist any future Japanese aggression, it was necessary to prepare people to defend themselves and their country for which a mass movement was needed now.
- Public confidence in the stability of British rule had reached an all-time low.
- There was a run on the banks, with people withdrawing deposits from post-office savings accounts and beginning to hoard gold, silver, and coins.

PROCLAMATION

- The Congress Working Committee met in Wardha on 14th July 1942 and adopted the famous “Quit India Resolution”.
- After the approval of the Congress Working Committee, Gandhi launched the movement in August 1942.
- Addressing the Conference, Gandhi gave the call of “Do or Die”, either to get India free or to die in this attempt.

BEGINNING OF THE MOVEMENT

- The movement was launched on 9th August 1942, but the same in the morning itself, Gandhi and all other Congress leaders were arrested.
- The news of these arrests led to violent popular demonstrations, which soon spread over the whole of India.
- Spontaneous acts of protest in the form of hartals, strikes and processions took place. In the absence of leaders, it was impossible to continue the movement in a non-violent mode.
- The people disrupted railway lines, burnt down police and railway stations, and destroyed telephone and telegraph lines.

BRITISH RESPONSE

- The British responded to the movement by mass arrests and public flogging.
- Thousands of innocent people died in this violent suppression.
- The Congress leadership was cut off from the rest of the world.
- The police used force to disperse the public meetings. They even fired and “lathi charged” at the public.

- The Congress was affirmed an illegal association.
- Tens of thousands were arrested, and the police used the most cruel methods to quell the unrest.
- The brutal repression succeeded in fizzling out the mass phase of the struggle within a period of 6-7 weeks.

SPREAD OF THE MOVEMENT

UNDERGROUND ACTIVITIES

- An all-India underground leadership had also begun to emerge.
- The underground movement was helping in keeping up popular morale by continuing to provide guidance and a line of command to the activists all over the country.
- They also gathered and distributed funds and materials, including bombs, arms, and dynamite, to underground groups throughout the country.
- Congress Socialists were generally in the lead, but active participants also included Gandhian ashramites, Forward Bloc members, revolutionary terrorists, and other Congress members.
- Prominent leaders of underground activities were – Aruna Asaf Ali, Achyut Patwardhan, Sucheta Kripalani, Ram Manohar Lohia, Biju Patnaik, Chootubhai Puranik, R. P. Goenka and Jayaprakash Narayan.
- Dissemination of news was a very important part of the activity.
- One of the most prominent of them was the Congress Radio by Usha Mehta operated clandestinely from different locations in Bombay city.

PARALLEL GOVERNMENT

- Emergence of parallel governments in various parts of the country was a significant feature of the Quit India Movement 1942.
- The first of such parallel government was proclaimed in Ballia, in East U.P., in August 1942 under the leadership of Chittu Pande.
- In Tamluk, located in the Midnapur district of Bengal, the Jatiya Sarkar was established on December 17, 1942, and continued until September 1944.
- The Jatiya Sarkar provided grants to schools, carried out cyclone relief efforts, and organized an armed Vidyut Vahini.

- It also established arbitration courts and redistributed surplus paddy from wealthier individuals to the poor.
- Satara, in Maharashtra, became the base of the longest-lasting and most effective parallel government, known as the Prati Sarkar, with Nani Patil as its key leader.
- It organized attacks on government collaborators, informers, and lower-level officials, as well as conducted Robin Hood-style robberies.
- Nyayadan Mandals, or people's courts, were set up, and justice was dispensed.
- Prohibition was enforced, and 'Gandhi marriages' were held, where untouchables were invited, and no ostentation was permitted.

ATTACK ON GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES

- Attack on the Government authorities also came to become a notable feature of the Quit India Movement 1942.
- Peasant activities were completely focused on targeting symbols of British authority, with no incidents of violence against zamindars.
- Government officials, particularly those at lower levels in the police and administration, were notably supportive of the movement.
- They provided information, gave shelter, and even helped monetarily.
- In fact, the erosion of loyalty among British Government officers was one of the most striking features of the Quit India struggle.

PARTICIPATION

- **Youth:** The youth were in the forefront of the struggle as had been in the case of the earlier mass struggles.
- **Workers:** Workers were prominent participants, and organized long strikes, braving police repression in the streets.
- **Women:** Women, especially college and school girls, played a very crucial role. Sucheta Kripalani, Usha Mehta and Aruna Asaf Ali were prominent women organisers of the underground activities.
- **Peasants:** Peasants from all social strata, both affluent and poor, were at the core of the movement, particularly in East U.P. and Bihar, Midnapur in Bengal, and Satara in Maharashtra, as well as in other regions like Andhra, Gujarat, and Kerala.

- **Zamindars:** Many smaller zamindars, especially in UP and Bihar, also participated. Even the big zamindars denied assistance to the British in crushing the rebellion. The most prominent of them was the Raja of Darbhanga.

CHALLENGES/LIMITATIONS

- **Failed to meet its objectives:** The movement did not immediately lead to freedom, and it took more years of struggle and negotiations before independence was achieved.
- **Lack of central leadership:** The lack of central leadership hindered effective coordination and decision-making, leading to confusion and fragmentation within the movement.
- **No consensus:** Some political parties and leaders opposed the Quit India Movement. Muslim League, Communist Party of India, and Hindu Mahasabha were against the Movement.
- Bureaucracy was also against the Movement.
- B. R. Ambedkar and Periyar were also against the Movement.
- **Communal divide:** Muslim participation in the movement was even lower than the CDM. Jinnah appealed to Muslims to join the armed forces.

TIMELINE: TOWARDS QUIT INDIA MOVEMENT

1939

- **Sept 1:** World War II begins with Germany's invasion of Poland.
- **Sept 3:** Britain declares war on Germany; India is drawn into the conflict without consultation.
- **Late 1939:** Congress Working Committee (CWC) meets in Wardha:
 - Opposes India's involvement in the war.
 - Demands democratic freedoms; signals future civil disobedience.

1940

- **March 22-24:** Lahore Resolution (Pakistan Resolution) passed:
 - Proposes independent states for Muslim-majority areas.
 - Rejects federalism, advocates autonomy.

- **Aug 8:** Viceroy Lord Linlithgow announces the August Offer:
 - Proposes Dominion Status post-war and minority safeguards.
 - Rejected by Congress; welcomed cautiously by Muslim League.
- **Oct 17:** Individual Satyagraha begins, led by:
 - Vinoba Bhave (first Satyagrahi), followed by Jawaharlal Nehru.
 - Focuses on affirming free speech and protesting British policies.

1942

- **March:** Cripps Mission arrives in India:
 - Offers Dominion Status and a Constituent Assembly post-war.
 - Rejected by Congress and Muslim League; fails due to distrust and inadequate proposals.
- **July 14:** Wardha Congress Working Committee adopts Quit India Resolution.
- **Aug 8:** Quit India Movement formally launched:
 - Gandhi's "Do or Die" speech calls for mass action.
 - Leaders arrested on August 9, sparking widespread protests.
- **August onwards:** Movement spreads:
 - Violence, hartals, attacks on communication lines.
 - Emergence of underground activities led by Aruna Asaf Ali, Sucheta Kripalan i, Jayaprakash Narayan, etc.
 - Establishment of parallel governments (e.g., Ballia, Tamluk, Satara).

1944

- **Sept:** Jatiya Sarkar in Tamluk continues to operate until this time.
- **Late War Period:** Movement faces challenges:
 - Brutal repression by British authorities.
 - Lack of central leadership, communal divides, and internal opposition from groups like the Muslim League, CPI, etc.

FREEDOM AT MIDNIGHT

MAJOR EVENTS TOWARDS INDEPENDENCE

RAJAJI FORMULA

ABOUT

- The Rajagopalachari Formula, also known as the C. R. Formula, was a significant proposal put forth by C. Rajagopalachari in 1944 to address the political deadlock between the Indian National Congress (INC) and the All-India Muslim League regarding India's independence from British rule.
- This proposal emerged during a time of escalating tensions and differing visions for India's future, particularly concerning the demand for a separate Muslim nation, which the League advocated.

KEY FEATURES OF THE RAJAGOPALACHARI FORMULA

- **Dominion Status:** The formula proposed that India would be granted dominion status within the British Commonwealth, allowing for self-governance while remaining constitutionally tied to Britain.
- **Provincial Autonomy:** It emphasized granting provinces autonomy, enabling them to choose whether to join the proposed dominion or remain separate.
- **Plebiscite in Muslim-majority Areas:** A post-war commission would determine districts with a Muslim majority, where a plebiscite would be held allowing all residents (Muslims and non-Muslims) to vote on whether to join Pakistan or remain part of India.
- **Joint Administration Post-Partition:** In the event of partition, essential services such as defense and communication would be jointly administered by both nations.
- **Coalition Government:** The proposal called for cooperation between the INC and the Muslim League to form a provisional government at the center.

REACTIONS AND FAILURE

- **Support from Gandhi:** Mahatma Gandhi supported the formula as a means to bring both parties together for discussions on independence.

- **Opposition from Jinnah:** Muhammad Ali Jinnah rejected the proposal, insisting that the INC explicitly accept the Two-Nation Theory, which posited that Muslims and Hindus were distinct nations deserving separate states. He opposed allowing all residents of Muslim-majority areas to vote in the plebiscite, advocating instead for only Muslims to participate.
- **Criticism from Hindu Leaders:** Hindu leaders, including Vir Savarkar, condemned the formula, fearing it would lead to partition and undermine Hindu interests.

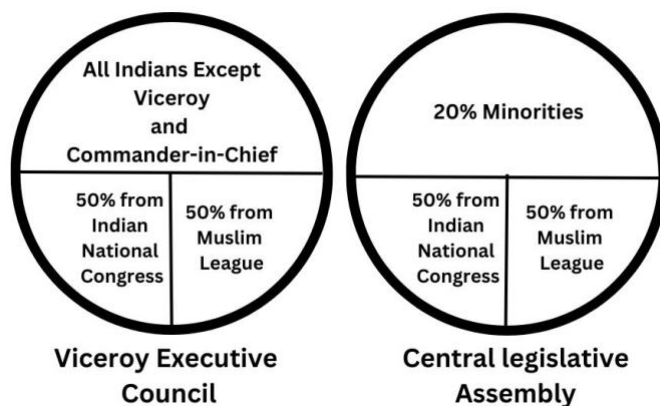
DESAI-LIAQUAT PACT

ABOUT

- The Desai-Liaquat Pact, also known as the Desai-Liaquat Plan, was a significant proposal aimed at resolving the political deadlock between the Indian National Congress and the All-India Muslim League during the Indian independence movement.
- Formulated in January 1945 by Bhulabhai Desai, a prominent Congress leader, and Liaquat Ali Khan, a key figure in the Muslim League, the pact sought to establish a framework for an interim government that would represent both Hindus and Muslims in India.

KEY FEATURES OF THE PACT

- **Formation of an Interim Government:** The plan proposed an interim government at the center with equal representation from both Congress and the Muslim League in the central legislature.
- **Reserved Seats for Minorities:** It included provisions for reserving 20% of seats in the interim government for minorities, ensuring their representation.



- **Concessions by Liaquat Ali Khan:** Liaquat Ali Khan agreed to forego the demand for a separate Muslim state (Pakistan) in exchange for guaranteed equal representation of Muslims within the Council of Ministers.

BACKGROUND AND INTENTIONS

- The pact emerged during a critical period when many Congress leaders were imprisoned due to the Quit India movement (1942-1945).
- Bhulabhai Desai, one of the few free Congress leaders at that time, initiated secret negotiations with Liaquat Ali Khan to find common ground.
- The overarching goal was to create a united front that could facilitate India's transition to independence while addressing communal tensions.

CHALLENGES AND OUTCOME

- **Lack of Endorsement:** The agreement was never formally endorsed by either Congress or the Muslim League, which ultimately led to its failure to materialize into a functioning coalition government.
- **Political Divisions:** The deep-seated political differences between the two parties remained unresolved, contributing to an inevitable partition of India into separate nations—India and Pakistan—in 1947.

INDIAN NATIONAL ARMY (AZAD HIND FAUJ)

- The Azad Hind Fauj, also known as the Indian National Army (INA), was a significant military force formed during World War II by Indian nationalists in collaboration with Imperial Japan.
- Its primary aim was to secure India's independence from British rule. Established in September 1942 and active until September 1945, the INA was initially founded by Mohan Singh but later revitalized under the leadership of Subhas Chandra Bose.

FORMATION AND LEADERSHIP

- **Initial Formation:** The INA originated from Indian prisoners of war captured by Japan during the war. Mohan Singh's leadership faced challenges, leading to its disbandment in late 1942 due to disagreements with the Japanese military regarding its role.

- **Revival by Bose:** Subhas Chandra Bose took command in August 1943, transforming the INA into a more structured military unit. He inspired thousands of Indians abroad, particularly in Southeast Asia, to join the fight for independence.

STRUCTURE AND COMPOSITION

- The Azad Hind Fauj comprised approximately 43,000 soldiers, organized into several brigades including:
 - Gandhi Brigade
 - Nehru Brigade
 - Azad Brigade
 - Subhas Brigade
 - Rani of Jhansi Regiment: This was a notable all-female unit led by Captain Lakshmi Sahgal, marking a significant step in women's participation in military roles.

POLITICAL CONTEXT

- The INA was closely associated with the Provisional Government of Free India (Azad Hind), established on October 21, 1943, in Singapore.
- This government operated as a puppet state under Japanese control and aimed to assert authority over Indian territories as they were liberated from British rule.
- The government issued its own currency and legal codes, symbolizing its claim to sovereignty.

MILITARY ENGAGEMENTS

- The INA engaged in combat alongside Japanese forces against the British Indian Army.
- The first major engagement was at the Battle of Imphal, where they initially made advances but ultimately faced defeat due to logistical challenges and strong Allied resistance.
- Despite setbacks, the INA's efforts were significant in demonstrating that British colonial rule could be challenged militarily.

LEGACY AND IMPACT

- Although the Azad Hind Fauj did not achieve its goal of liberating India, it played a crucial role in awakening nationalist sentiments among Indians.
- Bose's leadership and the activities of the INA highlighted the possibility of armed struggle against colonial powers.
- The movement is remembered for its contributions to India's freedom struggle and has left a lasting legacy in Indian history.
- Bose's famous rallying cry, "Give me blood, and I promise you freedom," encapsulated the spirit of sacrifice and determination that characterized the Azad Hind Fauj's mission.

CHANGED ATTITUDE OF BRITISH POST-WAR

ABOUT

- The attitude of the British towards India underwent significant changes after World War II, influenced by various political, social, and economic factors.
- This transformation was marked by a growing recognition of the unsustainability of colonial rule and the rising tide of nationalism in India.

ECONOMIC FACTORS

- **Post-War Bankruptcy:** By 1945, Britain was financially exhausted from the war and could no longer afford to maintain its empire. The cost of governance in India became increasingly burdensome, prompting a reassessment of colonial policies.
- **Decline in Profitability:** India's economic contributions, once seen as beneficial to Britain, were now viewed as liabilities. The British could no longer exploit Indian resources at low costs without facing significant resistance from nationalist movements that had begun to industrialize India.

POLITICAL CHANGES

- **Rise of Nationalism:** The Indian National Congress (INC) and other nationalist groups intensified their demands for independence during and after the war. The Quit India Movement of 1942 exemplified this urgency, leading to widespread unrest and a loss of British control.
- **International Pressure:** The post-war international environment shifted dramatically. The United States and the Soviet Union emerged as superpowers opposing

imperialism, pressuring Britain to decolonize. This geopolitical context made it politically untenable for Britain to maintain its colonial grip in India.

SOCIAL DYNAMICS

- **Changing British Attitudes:** The Labour Party's rise to power in 1945 marked a shift in British policy towards India. The new government was more sympathetic to Indian aspirations for independence compared to its predecessors. This change reflected a broader societal shift in Britain, where public opinion increasingly favored decolonization.
- **Impact of the Indian National Army (INA):** The formation and activities of the INA during the war galvanized Indian nationalism. Many Indians viewed INA leaders as heroes, which further eroded British authority and legitimacy in India.

WAVELL PLAN

ABOUT

- Following the end of World War II in Europe, the British government faced increasing pressure to resolve the constitutional crisis in India.
- The Wavell Plan was introduced during the Shimla Conference convened on June 25, 1945, which included key Indian leaders such as Mahatma Gandhi and Mohammad Ali Jinnah.
- The plan was publicly announced on June 14, 1945, and sought to outline a new executive council composed primarily of Indians.

KEY PROPOSALS

- **Indian Representation:** All members of the proposed Executive Council would be Indians, except for the Viceroy and the Commander-in-Chief. This was aimed at increasing Indian participation in governance.
- **Equal Representation:** The council was to ensure equal representation for caste Hindus and Muslims, reflecting the communal dynamics of Indian society at that time.
- **Interim Government:** The reconstituted council was intended to function as an interim government under the Government of India Act of 1935, which meant it would not be accountable to the Central Assembly.

- **Veto Power:** The Viceroy would retain veto power over decisions made by the council, although its use was expected to be minimal.

CHALLENGES AND FAILURE

- **Communal Tensions:** The Indian National Congress and the All-India Muslim League could not agree on key aspects of representation. The Congress insisted on a unified approach, while the Muslim League demanded separate representation for Muslims.
- **Stalemate:** Negotiations broke down due to disagreements over how representatives would be nominated and the League's insistence on being recognized as the sole representative of Muslims in India. This stalemate ultimately led to the failure of both the Wavell Plan and the Shimla Conference.

INA TRIALS

ABOUT

- The INA Trials, also known as the Red Fort Trials, were a significant series of court-martial proceedings conducted by the British authorities in India from November 1945 to May 1946.
- These trials targeted officers of the Indian National Army (INA), which had been formed under the leadership of Subhas Chandra Bose during World War II.

BACKGROUND

- The trials arose after the defeat of the Axis powers in World War II, during which many Indian soldiers had fought alongside Japanese forces against the British.
- The British captured a substantial number of INA troops, leading to a selective prosecution of those accused of serious charges such as treason, torture, and murder.
- The first trial involved prominent INA leaders Shah Nawaz Khan, Prem Sahgal, and Gurbaksh Singh Dhillon, who were charged with "waging war against the King" and other serious offenses.

JUDICIAL PROCEEDINGS

- The trials were held at the historic Red Fort in Delhi, symbolizing a significant political stage for the independence movement.

- Unlike earlier military trials, these proceedings were public and attracted considerable attention from the Indian populace.
- The Indian National Congress established an INA Defense Committee to advocate for the accused, arguing that their actions were legitimate under the Indian National Army Act and should exempt them from prosecution under British law.
- Despite strong defense arguments, the three officers were found guilty but were not sentenced to death.
- Instead, they received life sentences that were later commuted. The trials garnered immense public sympathy and support for the INA soldiers, who were increasingly viewed as national heroes fighting for India's independence.

IMPACT ON NATIONALIST SENTIMENTS

- The INA Trials had profound implications for Indian nationalism. They highlighted the potential for a united resistance against British rule that transcended religious and ethnic divides.
- The widespread public demonstrations in support of the INA led to increased political pressure on the British government.
- This culminated in a faster pace towards transferring power to India, as reflected in subsequent political developments like the Cabinet Mission.
- The emotional resonance of these trials contributed significantly to mobilizing public opinion against colonial rule and inspired other movements, including the Royal Indian Navy mutiny in 1946.
- Ultimately, these events played a crucial role in shaping India's path toward independence.
- In summary, the INA Trials represented a pivotal moment in India's struggle for freedom, showcasing both the resilience of nationalist sentiment and the complexities of colonial governance during a transformative period in history.

ROYAL INDIAN NAVAL MUTINY (FEB 1946)

ABOUT

- The Royal Indian Navy mutiny, also known as the 1946 Naval Uprising, represents a pivotal yet often overlooked chapter in India's struggle for independence from British rule.

- The revolt began on February 18, 1946, in Bombay (now Mumbai), when approximately 2,000 sailors initiated a strike against poor living conditions and inadequate food supplies.
- This initial protest quickly escalated into a widespread mutiny that involved over 20,000 sailors across 78 ships and shore establishments, extending from Karachi to Calcutta.

BACKGROUND AND CAUSES

- **Poor living conditions:** Sailors faced severe hardships regarding food and accommodation.
- **Racial discrimination:** Incidents of racial slurs by commanding officers heightened tensions among the sailors.
- **Political climate:** The broader context of India's independence movement influenced the sailors' actions, drawing inspiration from the Indian National Army (INA) and other nationalist movements.

COURSE OF THE MUTINY

- The revolt commenced with a hunger strike aboard HMIS Talwar, where sailors demanded better treatment.
- The situation escalated rapidly; by February 19, the mutiny had spread to multiple naval units in Bombay, supported by local civilians and even some elements of the Royal Indian Air Force.
- Demonstrations erupted across the city, culminating in a general strike that saw widespread participation.

KEY EVENTS

- **Symbolic Acts:** The mutineers replaced the Union Jack with flags representing the Indian National Congress, Muslim League, and Communist Party of India, symbolizing unity among diverse groups in their fight against colonial rule.
- **Violence and Repression:** British authorities responded with force, leading to violent clashes that resulted in approximately 400 deaths and over 1,500 injuries among protesters.
- **Surrender and Aftermath:** The mutiny was called off on February 23 after negotiations led by Indian leaders Vallabhbhai Patel and Muhammad Ali Jinnah, who

assured that no punitive actions would be taken against the sailors. Despite this promise, many sailors faced arrests and court-martials following their surrender.

SIGNIFICANCE

- It demonstrated military discontent against British rule at a time when India was on the brink of independence.
- The uprising highlighted the unity among different political factions within India against colonial oppression.
- Although it failed in its immediate goals, it underscored the untenability of British control over India, contributing to the eventual withdrawal of British forces in 1947.

1945-46 ELECTIONS

- The **1945-46 elections in India** were significant as they marked the last general elections held in British India prior to independence.
- These elections were conducted in two phases: the **general elections** for the Central Legislative Assembly in December 1945 and the **provincial elections** in January 1946.

BACKGROUND

- The elections were announced by Viceroy Lord Wavell on September 19, 1945, following discussions with Indian leaders and the British government.
- The context for these elections included the end of World War II and a growing demand for self-governance in India.
- The Labour Party's victory in Britain, which promised to grant India "full self-government," further fueled these aspirations.

CENTRAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY ELECTIONS

- In the December 1945 elections for the Central Legislative Assembly, out of 102 contested seats, the **Indian National Congress** emerged as the largest party, winning **57 seats** (approximately 56% of the contested seats).
- The **All-India Muslim League** won all **30 seats** reserved for Muslims but did not secure any additional seats. Other parties, including the Akali Dal and independents, won a few seats, but overall, the Congress maintained a clear majority.

ELECTION RESULTS FOR CENTRAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

Party	Seats Won	Percentage of Total Seats
Indian National Congress	57	56%
All India Muslim League	30	29%
Akali Dal	2	2%
Europeans	8	8%
Independents	5	5%
Total	102	100%

PROVINCIAL ELECTIONS

- The provincial elections held in January 1946 were even more pivotal. A total of **1,585 seats** were contested across various provinces.
- The Indian National Congress won **923 seats**, accounting for about **58.23%** of the total, while the Muslim League secured **425 seats**, or **26.81%**.
- This election confirmed the Congress as a national representative while solidifying the Muslim League's claim to represent Muslim interests in India

ELECTION RESULTS FOR PROVINCIAL ASSEMBLIES

Party	Seats Won	Percentage of Total Seats
Indian National Congress	923	58.23%
All India Muslim League	425	26.81%
Communist Party of India	8	0.5%
Others	Remaining Seats	-
Total	1585	100%

CONSEQUENCES AND SIGNIFICANCE

- The Congress's dominance indicated a strong push towards independence without partitioning India.

- The Muslim League's success reaffirmed its position as the sole representative of Muslims, paving the way for demands for Pakistan.
- The elections highlighted rising communal tensions and foreshadowed significant political strife leading up to partition and independence in August 1947

CABINET MISSION PLAN 1946

BACKGROUND

- The Cabinet Mission was dispatched by the British government in March 1946, led by Lord Pethick-Lawrence, with members Sir Stafford Cripps and A.V. Alexander.
- Its primary goal was to facilitate a peaceful transfer of power to Indian leaders and establish a constitutional framework for India's future governance.

OBJECTIVES

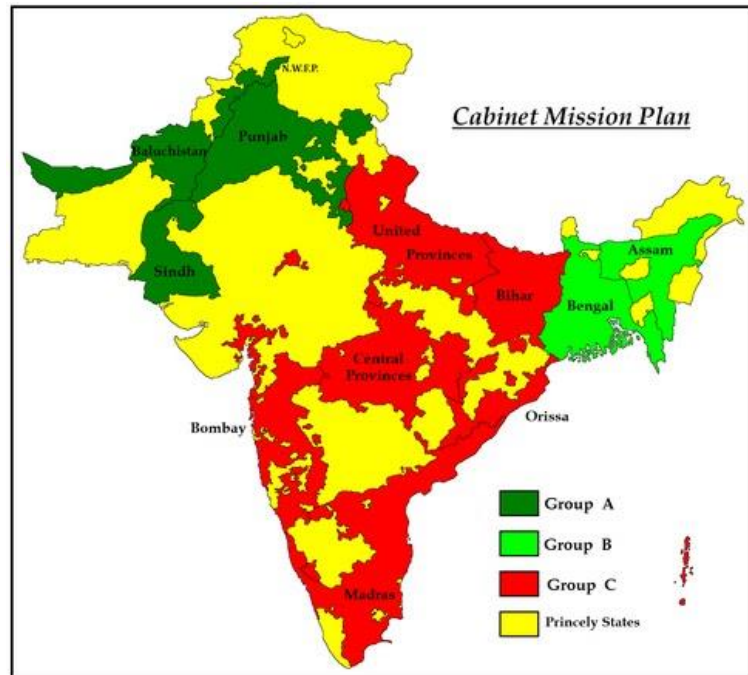
- The mission aimed to address the conflicting demands of the Indian National Congress, which sought a unified India, and the Muslim League, which advocated for a separate state of Pakistan.
- The mission sought to find a compromise that would maintain India's unity while addressing the concerns of both parties.

KEY PROPOSALS

The Cabinet Mission Plan outlined several significant proposals:

- **Federal Structure:** The plan proposed a three-tier administrative structure:
 - Federal Union at the top level.
 - Groups of provinces in the middle.
 - Individual provinces at the bottom level.
- **Grouping of Provinces:** The plan suggested dividing provinces into three groups based on religious demographics:

- **Group A:** Hindu-majority provinces (e.g., Madras, Bombay).
- **Group B:** Muslim-majority provinces (e.g., Punjab, Sindh).
- **Group C:** Bengal and Assam, which had mixed populations.



- **Autonomy for Provinces:** Provinces would have significant autonomy and could form groups voluntarily, each with its own legislature and executive powers. However, the grouping was initially presented as voluntary but later interpreted as mandatory by some parties.
- **Constituent Assembly:** The plan called for a Constituent Assembly to draft a new constitution for India, with provisions for an interim government to manage British India until the new constitution was established.

REACTIONS AND OUTCOME

- Initially, both Congress and the Muslim League accepted the plan; however, disagreements soon emerged.
- The Muslim League felt that their demand for Pakistan was not adequately addressed, leading them to withdraw support and call for direct action starting August 16, 1946.
- The plan ultimately failed due to deep-seated distrust between the Congress and the Muslim League, leading to further negotiations and eventually to partition discussions under new Viceroy Lord Mountbatten.

SIGNIFICANCE

- The Cabinet Mission Plan is considered a pivotal moment in India's struggle for independence as it highlighted the complexities of Indian politics and set the stage for subsequent developments that led to partition and independence in 1947.

- It remains a critical reference point in discussions about India's constitutional history and political evolution.

ELECTIONS TO CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY

- Elections to the Constituent Assembly of India were held in July 1946, following the proposals made by the Cabinet Mission Plan. This assembly was tasked with drafting a constitution for independent India, marking a significant step in the transition from British rule to self-governance.
- Initially, the Constituent Assembly had 389 members, which later reduced to 299 due to the partition of India and the subsequent migration of some members to Pakistan. The assembly included 229 representatives from British Indian provinces and 70 from princely states, with seats allocated based on population proportions among various communities.

DIRECT ACTION DAY

- On August 16, 1946, the Muslim League called for a hartal (general strike) and mass demonstrations across India.
- While many regions remained peaceful, Calcutta (now Kolkata) erupted into violent riots that lasted several days, resulting in significant casualties—estimates suggest between 4,000 to 10,000 deaths among both communities.
- The violence included assaults, arson, and widespread chaos, marking what is often referred to as the Great Calcutta Killings.
- The aftermath of Direct Action Day had profound implications:
 - It highlighted the deep-seated communal divisions within Indian society.
 - It contributed directly to the discussions around the Partition of India in 1947.
 - The events intensified calls for a separate nation for Muslims and set a precedent for future communal violence in the region.

INTERIM GOVT. (SEPT 1946 TO AUG 1947)

FORMATION AND STRUCTURE

- **Background:** The Interim Government was created as a provisional administration between the existing imperial structure and a future democratic government. It was a

response to the increasing demands for self-governance and was intended to facilitate the transfer of power to Indian leaders.

- **Constituent Assembly Elections:** The formation followed elections held for the Constituent Assembly in August 1946, where the INC secured approximately 69% of the seats, while the Muslim League won 73 seats. The INC's dominance allowed it to lead the Interim Government.
- **Leadership:** Jawaharlal Nehru served as the Vice President of the Executive Council and effectively acted as Prime Minister. Other prominent leaders included Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel (Home Affairs) and Rajendra Prasad (Agriculture) from the INC, alongside key figures from the Muslim League such as Liaquat Ali Khan (Finance) and Ibrahim Ismail Chundrigar (Commerce).

KEY FEATURES

- **Coalition Government:** Notably, this was the first instance in Indian history where both the INC and the Muslim League shared power at the national level. Initially, the Muslim League was reluctant to join but later participated to secure its influence in governance.
- **Duration:** The Interim Government operated until August 15, 1947, when India gained independence and was partitioned into India and Pakistan. Its existence played a crucial role in managing communal tensions and laying down administrative frameworks for future governance.
- **Significance:** The Interim Government represented a critical step towards self-rule, allowing Indian leaders to exercise authority over domestic affairs while still under British oversight. It helped in mitigating communal violence during a turbulent period leading up to independence.

CLEMENT ATTLEE ANNOUNCEMENT (FEB 1947)

- On February 20, 1947, British Prime Minister Clement Attlee made a significant announcement regarding the future of British India.
- He stated that the British Government would grant full self-government to India by June 30, 1948, at the latest.

- This declaration came after years of political deadlock and increasing communal violence in India, and it marked a pivotal moment leading towards India's independence.

KEY POINTS FROM ATTLEE'S ANNOUNCEMENT

- **Self-Government:** Attlee confirmed that India would be granted full self-governance, indicating a shift in British policy towards its colonial territories.
- **Appointment of Lord Mountbatten:** He announced the appointment of Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy of India, whose primary task was to facilitate a smooth transition to independence and address the ongoing communal tensions.
- **Political Context:** The announcement was made in the context of growing pressures from Indian political leaders and movements, particularly the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League, both advocating for independence.

IMPLICATIONS

- **Political Mobilization:** The announcement spurred political activity among Indian leaders, who began preparing for a post-colonial governance structure.
- **Communal Tensions:** It also intensified communal violence as different groups sought to assert their positions ahead of the impending transfer of power.
- **Path to Partition:** Ultimately, this announcement set in motion the events leading to the partition of India into two independent dominions—India and Pakistan—on August 15, 1947.

MOUNTBATTEN PLAN

- The Mountbatten Plan, officially announced on June 3, 1947, was a pivotal proposal for the partition of British India into two independent dominions: India and Pakistan.
- This plan was developed by Lord Louis Mountbatten, the last Viceroy of India, as part of the British government's strategy to expedite the transfer of power amidst rising communal tensions and demands for independence.

BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT

- **Initial Proposals:** Prior to the Mountbatten Plan, Mountbatten had introduced an earlier concept known as the "Dickie Bird Plan," which suggested that provinces be

declared independent successor states with the option to join a constituent assembly. This proposal faced significant opposition from Indian leaders, particularly Jawaharlal Nehru, who argued it could lead to the fragmentation of India (referred to as "Plan Balkan").

- **Acceptance of Partition:** By mid-1947, both the Indian National Congress and the Muslim League recognized the inevitability of partition due to escalating communal violence and political deadlock. The Mountbatten Plan was thus framed to facilitate this division while ensuring a relatively orderly transition.

KEY PROVISIONS OF THE MOUNTBATTEN PLAN

- **Partition of British India:** The plan stipulated that British India would be divided into two dominions: India and Pakistan, effective from August 15, 1947.
- **Autonomy and Sovereignty:** Both nations were granted autonomy, allowing them to form their own constitutions. The British Parliament would no longer have legislative authority over these dominions.
- **Princely States:** The princely states were given the option to join either India or Pakistan or remain independent. However, remaining independent was discouraged, and decisions were to be influenced by geographical contiguity and popular sentiment.
- **Legislative Assemblies:** The legislative assemblies of Punjab and Bengal were tasked with voting on their partition along religious lines. This led to significant demographic shifts and communal violence during and after partition.
- **Boundary Commission:** A Boundary Commission was established, chaired by Sir Cyril Radcliffe, to demarcate the borders between the newly formed nations

REASONS FOR ACCEPTANCE OF DOMINION STATUS

- **Desire for a Peaceful Transition:** The Congress was willing to accept dominion status as a pragmatic approach to ensure a peaceful and swift transition of power. This decision was influenced by the urgent need to address escalating communal tensions and violence across the country, which threatened to spiral into civil war if a delay occurred in the transfer of power.
- **Control Over Political Dynamics:** By accepting dominion status, Congress aimed to establish a stronger central authority over a potentially fragmented political landscape.

The leaders believed that a smaller, unified India under their control would be preferable to a larger state with weakened governance.

- **Continuity in Governance:** The acceptance of dominion status allowed for continuity within the existing bureaucratic and military structures, which were crucial for maintaining order during the transition period. This continuity was seen as essential for managing the complexities of independence and partition.
- **Strategic Positioning within the Commonwealth:** The British government viewed dominion status as a means to retain India within the Commonwealth framework, which would provide economic benefits and strategic advantages. For Congress, this relationship was also significant as it could facilitate smoother international relations post-independence.

BOUNDARY COMMISSION

- The Radcliffe Commission, formally known as the Boundary Commission for the Partition of Bengal and Punjab, was established in June 1947 by the British government to demarcate the borders between India and Pakistan following the decision to partition British India.
- The commission was chaired by Sir Cyril Radcliffe, a British barrister with no prior experience in Indian affairs and included members such as Justice Muhammad Munir from Punjab and Justice Mehr Chand Mahajan, among others.

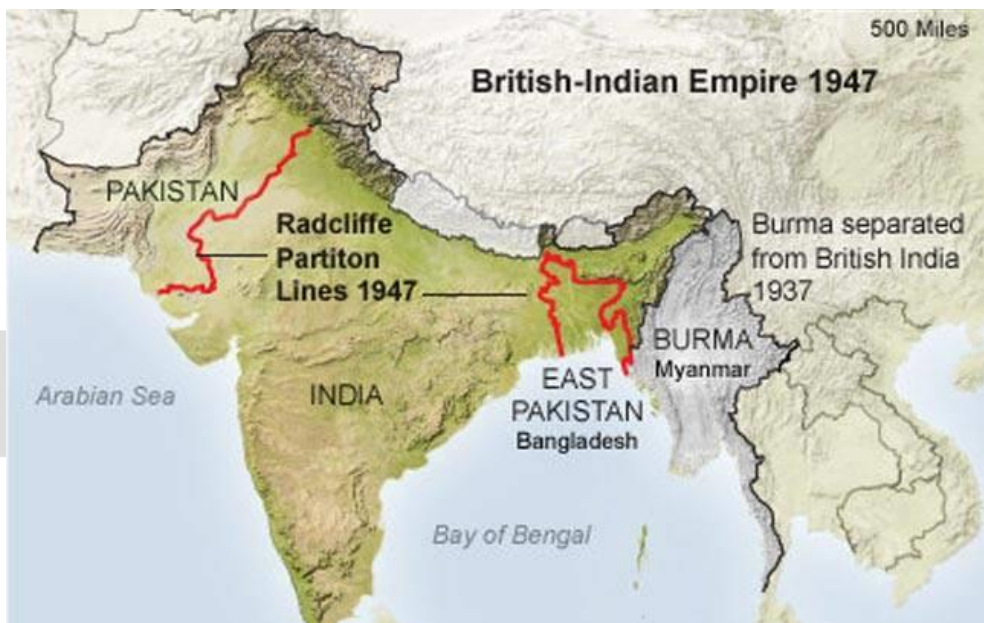
OBJECTIVES AND CHALLENGES

- The primary objective of the Radcliffe Commission was to create boundaries that would reflect the religious demographics of the regions, aiming to keep Muslim-majority areas within Pakistan and Hindu-majority areas within India. This task was complicated by several factors:
 - **Religious Demographics:** The population was deeply intertwined, with significant minorities in both regions. For instance, Punjab had a Muslim majority of about 55.7%, while Bengal had around 54.4% Muslims.
 - **Time Constraints:** The commission was given only five weeks to complete its work before the scheduled transfer of power on August 15, 1947. The final report was published two days later on August 17, 1947.

- **Lack of Local Knowledge:** The commission members had no local expertise or access to accurate maps and demographic data, which hampered their ability to make informed decisions.

THE RADCLIFFE AWARD

- The outcome of the commission's work, known as the Radcliffe Award, divided British India into two nations:
 - Punjab: The western part was awarded to Pakistan, while the eastern part went to India.
 - Bengal: Similarly, Bengal was split into East Bengal (now Bangladesh) and West Bengal (part of India).



INDIAN INDEPENDENCE ACT 1947

BACKGROUND

- The act was introduced in response to growing demands for independence from British rule, particularly after World War II, which left Britain weakened and unable to maintain its empire.
- The legislation was based on the Mountbatten Plan, also known as the 3 June Plan, which proposed partitioning British India into two nations based on religious demographics—Hindu-majority areas would form India, while Muslim-majority areas would constitute Pakistan.

PASSAGE AND ROYAL ASSENT

- The act was passed by the British Parliament on July 5, 1947, and received royal assent on July 18, 1947. It came into effect on August 15, 1947.

MAJOR PROVISIONS

- **Partition:** British India was divided into two independent dominions—India and Pakistan—effective from August 15, 1947.
- **Territorial Division:**
 - The provinces of Bengal and Punjab were partitioned along religious lines.
 - Pakistan was formed with territories including East Bengal (now Bangladesh), West Punjab, Sindh, and Baluchistan. The fate of the North-West Frontier Province (now Khyber Pakhtunkhwa) was to be decided by a referendum.
- **Governance:**
 - Each dominion was to have its own Governor-General representing the Crown until new constitutions were adopted.
 - Complete legislative authority was conferred upon the Constituent Assemblies of both nations.
- **Princely States:** The act ended British suzerainty over princely states, allowing them to join either India or Pakistan or remain independent.
- **Title Abolition:** The title "Emperor of India" was abolished, marking a significant shift in British royal titles.

IMPACT

- The act facilitated a mass migration and significant communal violence as millions moved across newly drawn borders based on religious identity.
- Approximately 15 million people are estimated to have been displaced during this period, leading to one of the largest human migrations in history.

TIMELINE: JOURNEY TO INDIAN INDEPENDENCE (MAJOR EVENTS FROM 1944 TO 1947)

- **1944**

- *Rajaji Formula*: Proposed by C. Rajagopalachari to reconcile INC and Muslim League tensions. Key features included dominion status and plebiscites in Muslim-majority areas.
- **January 1945**
 - *Desai-Liaquat Pact*: Attempt at interim governance with equal representation for Muslims and Hindus.
- **1945**
 - *Indian National Army Trials*: Public court martials galvanized nationalist sentiment.
- **June 1945**
 - *Wavell Plan*: Shimla Conference convened to propose an Indian-majority council. It failed due to disagreements.
- **Feb 1946**
 - *Royal Indian Naval Mutiny*: Mass uprising by sailors across India, uniting nationalist factions against British rule.
- **1946**
 - *Cabinet Mission Plan*: Proposed federal governance structures and the Constituent Assembly. Failed due to mistrust between INC and Muslim League.
- **August 16, 1946**
 - *Direct Action Day*: Muslim League's call for demonstrations, leading to communal violence.
- **Sept 1946 to Aug 1947**
 - *Interim Government*: Coalition government with INC and Muslim League representation set up post-Constituent Assembly elections.
- **Feb 1947**

- *Clement Attlee's Announcement*: Set June 1948 deadline for India's self-governance and appointed Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy.
- **June 3, 1947**
 - *Mountbatten Plan*: Partition into India and Pakistan finalized with Boundary Commission.
- **July 5, 1947**
 - *Indian Independence Act*: Passed, formalizing partition effective on August 15, 1947.

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