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A CATECHISM
OF
PUNDIT H. P. SASTRI'S -
SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA.

WITH
*Fifteen valuable Appendices and University
Questions from 1858 to 1899
with Answers.*

BY
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S. C. AUDDY, BOOK-SELLER AND PUBLISHER,
58, WELLINGTON STREET,
and
MANOMOHAN LIBRARY,
203/2, Cornhill Street, Calcutta.

Fifth Edition.

Thoroughly revised and improved.

Calcutta:

1900.

Price 10 Annas.

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CATECHISM
OF
A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

THE VEDAS.

QUESTION 1. Whence do we derive historical information about Ancient India ?

ANSWER.— Ancient India would be a sealed book to us but for the light that the study of the vast ancient Indian literature throws upon the life and manners of its people. The four Vedas including their Samhitās and the Brāhmanas, references to Indian affairs by foreign writers, and hints obtained from the writings on coins, and ancient inscriptions on stone or metals, are the sources from which we derive our knowledge of the early history of India.

Q. 2. How many Vedas are there ? Describe them.

A There are four Vedas ; the Rigveda, Sāmaveda, Yajurveda, and Atharvaveda. The Rigveda is written in various metres. The Sāmaveda is a collection of some of these verses set to music and known as *Sāmas*. The Yajurveda is composed in prose and verse, its verses are mostly taken from the Rigveda. It contains elaborate directions for

the rites and observances concerning the performance of sacrifices. The *Atiārāvaveda* is of later origin than any of the other *Vēdas*, and contains verses, songs, and prose sentences.

Q. 3. What do you know of the *Rigveda* ?

A. The *Rigveda* is the great storehouse of facts relating to ancient India. It contains more than a thousand *Suktas* (hymns), associated with the names of various *Rishis* (sages) and addressed to various *Devatās* (deities). The Hindus look upon it as a revelation. It makes mention of *Āgni* (fire), *Indra* (strength), and *Savitā* (the sun), *Vāyu* (the air), *Aruna* (the sky), the *Āśvins* (the divine physicians), and other deities.

Q. 4. (a) Who were the *Rishis* ? (b) Mention those from whom the *Bráhmans* are said to have been descended.

A. (a) The *Rishis* were persons possessing supernatural powers, and the hymns of the *Rigveda* were revealed to them. (b) The *Bráhmans* allege that they are descended from the following *Rishis* : *Viśishta*, *Viśvámitra*, *Vámadeva*, *Atri*, *Agastya*, *Gritsamada* of *Bhrigu's* line, *Kanva*, and *Jamadagni*.

Q. 5. When was the *Rigveda* compiled and composed ?

A. The date of the compilation of the *Rigveda* cannot be precisely determined. Some hold that it was compiled between 2780 and 1820 B. C. The latest historical researches have proved that it was compiled during the second half of the period extending from 4500 to 2500 B. C. It was composed long before the date of its compilation.

Q. 6. Who were the dark aborigines of the *Rigveda* ?

A. The dark aborigines with whom the *Rishis* of the *Rigveda* were in constant conflicts are the wild tribes of the

hills and forests of the present day. The conquered dark races are the Súdras and Antyajās.

Q. 7. What was the social condition of the Hindus as described in the Rigveda ?

A. The caste system was unknown to the Hindus in the Rigvedic period. The Rishis sometimes used animal food. They had no objection to the flesh of the horse, goat, and sheep. They were fond of the fermented juice of *soma* (a kind of creeper). They sailed up to the sea. They used chariots drawn by horses, and wore gold and silver ornaments. They prayed for warlike sons.

CHAPTER II.

THE BRAHMANAS.

Q. 8. What do you know of the Bráhmaṇas ?

A. The Bráhmaṇas form a part of the Vedas. They are written in prose and contain various details of sacrificial rites, and their objects and meaning. They are also held as *revealed*.

Q. 9. Describe the extent of Aryan occupation ?

A. The Aryans occupied the region extending from the banks of the Sarasvati to Kurukshetra (Karnál), Panchála Rohilkhund), Matsya (Jaypur), Śúraṣṇa (Mathurá), Káśi Benares), Kośála (Oudh), Magadha (South Behar), Videha (North Behar), and even to Kalinga, or the territory bordering on the Bay of Bengal.

Q. 10. How are the Bráhmaṇs classified in the Vedas ?

A. The Bráhmaṇs who chanted the hymns of the Rigveda, were called the *Hotri* priests. They and their descendants were named *Rigvedí Bráhmaṇs*, from their study of the Rigveda. Those who loudly recited the hymns of the

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Sāmaveda were known as *Udgātri* priests. They were also mentioned as *Sāntūvedi Brāhmans* on account of their lore in the *Sāmaveda*. Those that performed their offices in connection with the sacrifice were named *Adhvaryu* priests. They studied the *Yajurveda* and were known as *Yajurvedi Brāhmans*. The *Atharvavedi Brāhmans* were those that studied the *Atharvaveda*. Besides the classes of *Brāhmans* mentioned above, there were many who studied two, three, and even the four Vedas, and they were called *Dvivedi*, *Trivedi*, and *Chaturvedi Brāhmans* respectively.

Q. 11. What were the four castes into which the Aryans were divided, and where were they formed?

A. The priests who performed sacrifices constituted the *Brāhman* caste. Those that were engaged in war were known as the *Kshatriyas*. The remainder of the Aryan population was called the *Vaiśyas*. The conquered black aborigines went by the name of *Sūdras*.

Some hold that the four castes were formed in the country lying between the *Sarasvatī* and the *Drishadvatī*.

Q. 12. Assign the geographical position of the following countries: *Brahmāvartta*, *Brahmarsideśa*, *Madhyadeśa*, *Arjyāvartta*, and *Mlechhadeśa*.

A. The country lying between the *Drishadvatī* and *Sarasvatī* is called the *Brahmāvartta*. The *Brahmarshideśa* consists of *Kurukshetra*, *Panchāla*, *Sūrasena*, and *Matsya*. The region that is situated between the *Sarasvatī* and the confluence of the *Ganges* and the *Jamunā* is named the *Madhyadeśa*. The *Arjyāvartta* is bounded on the north by the *Himālayas*, on the south by the *Vindhyas*, on the east and west by the ocean. All other countries besides those mentioned above are entitled the *Mlechhadeśas*.

CHAPTER III. • THE KALPASÚTRAS.

Q. 13 What are the Kalpasútras and Śákhás?

A The *Kalpasútras* are treatises regarded as portions of the Vedas but *not* revealed. The Rishis are believed to have composed them.

The *Śákhás* are the branches of the Vedas. Many of these had separate Bráhmanas, and almost all of them have different Kalpasútras. They explain fully the social, domestic, and religious polity of the Hindus.

Q. 14. What are the four stages of a Bráhma-man's life?

A The four stages of a Brahman's life are as follow — (1) *Brahmacharyya*, or the student life, (2) *Gárhasthya* the house-holder's life, (3) *Bánastha*, the life of a recluse in the forest, and *Yati*, the mendicant life.

Q 15 Enumerate the principal duties of a Sannyási or mendicant.

A. The principal duties of a mendicant were (1) Not to destroy life, (2) not to steal, (3) not to lead incontinent life, (4) not to speak falsehood, (5) and not to drink intoxicating liquors.

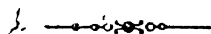
Q 16 What branches of learning did the Hindus cultivate during the Vedic age?

A The Hindus made considerable progress in geometry, astronomy, and grammar. The *Upanishads*, or treatises on metaphysics, and works on the sciences of medicine and war were composed during the Vedic age. The two grand epics, the Mahabharata and the Rámáyana, and Pánni's immortal Grammar were written.

Q. 17. Why is the author of the Rámáyana called 'the first poet'?

A. Válmíki, the author of the Rámáyana, is called 'the first poet,' because he composed the grand epic in a dialect and metre quite different from those in which the Vedas were written.

BOOK I. THE HINDU EMPIRE.



CHAPTER I. INDIA BEFORE 600 B. C.

Q. 18. Mention the Hindu Kingdoms founded in India before the sixth century B. C.

A. (1) The *Kuru* kingdom founded by the Kurus with Hastinápúr as the capital. The *Kośala* kingdom established by the *Ikshváku*s, extending as far as the Gunduck river. (3) The *Magadha* kingdom set up by the *Śiśunágas*.

Q. 19. What foreign nations invaded the Punjab before the fifth century B. C.?

A. The Egyptian god, *Osiris*, the Egyptian king named *Rameses*, and the Assyrian queen, *Semiramis*, are said to have invaded the Punjab before the fifth century B. C. The Persian king, *Darius*, conquered a great portion of the Punjab.

CHAPTER II. THE BUDDHISTS AND JAINAS.

Q. 20. (a) Mention the two classes of teachers amongst the ancient Hindus. (b) Trace the rise of the Sannyásis.

A. (a) The Bráhmans, and the Sannyásis from among the Bráhmans, Kshatriyas, and Vaiśyas formed the two classes of teachers amongst the ancient Hindus.

(b) The Sannyási class arose out of the first three castes who, from an early age, gave themselves up to study and devotion. Their simplicity and piety as well as their vast learning won the hearts of many who became their followers; and though they differed from the Bráhmans as the poles asunder in their articles of faith, yet they gained considerable influence amongst the various castes as a class of teachers. Their stronghold was near the Himálayás, in the northern part of Kośala.

Q. 21. (a) What do you know of Buddha?

(b) Give a brief account of his religion.

A. (a) Buddha, son of Śuddhodana, a prince of the Ikshváku family, was born in Kapilavástu in 557 B.C. When thirty-nine years old, he attained 'the highest knowledge.' He lived for eighty years and died in 477 B. C. He organised the monastic orders. The Buddhist era dates from his death.

(b) His religion (Buddhism) is chiefly based on the principles of Hinduism. He prohibited severe austerities as well as pleasures and amusements. He enjoined on his monastic followers the following duties in addition to those laid down by the Rishi Gautama: (1) not to eat at forbidden times; (2) not to dance, sing, or act in a play; (3) not to use garlands, scents, unguents, or ornaments; (4) not to use a high or broad bed; and (5) not to acquire or receive gold or silver.

Q. 22. What do you know of the Jaina religion?

A. The Jāinas are at one with the Buddhists as regards the duties of laymen and monks; but they often fall into extremes. They are particularly careful in avoiding the destruction of living things. The founder of their religion was Mahāvīra, a contemporary of Buddha.

Q. 23 Give a short account of the sacred books of the Buddhists and of the Jāinas.

A. Buddha left no record of his preachings. After his death, five hundred aged monks convened a meeting at the Saptaparni cave in Rājagriha. The sayings of Buddha there collected and reduced to writing form the Buddhist Scriptures, which are divided into three parts. (1) The philosophical writings were called Abhidharma, (2) the rules and regulations for the conduct of Buddhist monks were named Vinaya, and (3) the excellent parables by which Buddha won the hearts of the multitude, Sūtra. Each part was called a *Pitaka*, or basket; hence, the Buddhist Scriptures were known as the Tripitaka, or 'the three baskets.'

The Jaina sacred books were collected together in Chandra Gupta's reign and were entitled the *Pūrvis*. These have now been replaced by the Angas.

. CHAPTER III.

THE NANDA FAMILY.

Q. 24. What do you know of the Nanda dynasty?

A. The Nanda dynasty was founded by a Śūdra named Nanda, who made a root and branch work with the Kshatriyas. He had eight children, and the dynasty ruled for about a century. Their capital was Pātaliputra.

Q. 25. Give an account of Alexander's invasion of India.

A. Alexander the Great invaded India during the reign of the last Nanda king in the year 327 B. C. The king of Taxila submitted to him, while a king of the Puru family opposed him but in vain. He was confirmed in his kingdom by the conqueror. Alexander stayed one year in the Punjab and proceeded up to the Sutlej. Here he had to fight a pitched battle with the Málavas (the Malli) and Kshaudrakas (the

Oxydrakæ). He wished to conquer Magadha, but his soldiers refused to advance further, and he was obliged to retrace his steps.

CHAPTERS IV. & V. THE MAURYA DYNASTY.

Q. 26. (a) What do you know of Chandra Gupta? (b) Why is the dynasty founded by him called the Maurya dynasty?

A. (a) Chandra Gupta was one of those ambitious persons who thronged Alexander's camp for the purpose of securing a kingdom for himself. But, having personally offended the Macedonian hero, he fled from the Greek camp. He overthrew the Nanda dynasty, seized the capital Pátali-putra, and conquered the whole of Northern India. He ascended the throne in 312 B. C. He defeated Seleucus, one of Alexander's generals, when the latter attempted to recover Alexander's conquests in India.

(b) The dynasty founded by him was known as the Maurya dynasty, after his mother's or grand-mother's name, Murá.

Q. 27. Who was Megasthenes?

A. Megasthenes was a Greek ambassador, sent by Seleucus to report on the manners and customs of the Indians, and their social and political condition. He lived for five years in Chandra Gupta's court.

Q. 28. What do you know of Aśoka and of the spread of Buddhism in his time?

A. Aśoka, the grandson of Chandra Gupta, became king of Magadha about 260 B. C. Kalinga was conquered by him about 251 B. C. He then became a convert to Buddhism. In 242 B. C., he held a great Council of Buddhist Elders at Pátaliputra (modern Patna) to adjust the Buddhist

sacred books. He sent his son and daughter to Ceylon to preach Buddhism there. The spread of Buddhism and the foundation of hospitals for man and beast were the leading events of his reign. The rock and stone inscriptions bear ample testimony to his labours for the spread of Buddhism and for the maintenance of the purity of its doctrines. Under his auspices, Buddhism spread to Káśmir, Afghánistán, Maísúr, the Konkan, the Malabar coast, and Lower Burma. He made it a state religion.

CHAPTERS VI. & VII.

THE GREEKS IN INDIA.

Q. 29. Give an account of Greek supremacy in India.

A. In 256 B. C. Diodotus had founded a civilised Greek kingdom in Bactria. It was conquered by hordes of rude and wandering savages coming from Central Asia, and the defeated Bactrians took refuge in India where they founded many kingdoms. Menander, the Greek king of Sákala in the Punjab, penetrated into Sáketa itself in Ayodhya. He was opposed by Pushpamitra, the general of Vrihadratha, and obliged to beat a retreat. But Greek supremacy lasted for more than two hundred years after this event.

Q. 30. What traces did the Greeks leave in India?

A. The Indians are under great obligations to the Greeks for their knowledge of Astronomy and works of architecture and sculpture. In short, they learnt much from them in sciences and arts.

Q. 31. What do you know of Milinda-praśna?

A. *Milinda-praśna* is the name of a work written in Pali, containing Menander's questions on *nirvāṇa* (annihilation) which Nágasena explains in a convincing manner.

Q. 32. What do you know of Pushpamitra ?

A. Pushpamitra was the general of Vrihadratha, the last Maurya king. He drove Menander out of Central India. He invaded Vidarbha and made the river Varadā the boundary between it and Málava. He deposed his master and raised his own son to the throne of Magadha in 180 B. C.

Q. 33. Who were the Mitrās ?

A. The Mitrās or Sungas were the descendants of Agnimitra, who ascended the throne of Magadha in 180 B. C. They transferred their capital from Pátaliputra to Vidiśā (modern Vilśa). Pátanjali, the famous commentator of Pánini, flourished in Agnimitra's reign.

Q. 34. Trace the origin of the Kánva family.

A. Vasudeva, the Bráhmaṇ minister of the Sungas, overthrew his master and became king in 111 B. C. His offsprings were known as the Kánvas.

Q. 35. Write a succinct account of the Andhra dynasty.

A. The Andhras conquered Magadha from the Kánvas and the Sungas in 71 B. C. They had already founded a powerful kingdom in the Márháttá country. They ruled from 71 B. C. to 218 A. D. They kept up the fame of the Indians as a warlike nation by fearlessly opposing the savage hordes that poured into India from Central Asia in the first and second century A. D. They professed Buddhism.

Q. 36. What is the origin of 'Vikramasamvat' ?

A. The Kshatriyas of Málava started a local era from 56 B. C. named Málavasthityabdtá, that is the era of the constitution of the Kshatriyas of Málava. It was called Vikramasamvat in honour of Vikramāditya, king of Ujjayiní.

Q. 37. Describe the political condition of India in the beginning of the first century A. D.

A. In the beginning of the Christian era, Western and

Central India were occupied by the Indo-Scythians and Greeks. The latter proceeded up to Kauśāmbī, thirty miles to the west of Allahabad. The Andhras held the Deccan and the greater part of Aryāvartta. The Pallavas were masters of Southern India.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE SCYTHIAN EMPIRE IN INDIA.

Q. 38. (a) Who were the Scythians? (b) Give an account of the Scythian kingdoms in India.

A. (a) The Scythians were a race of invaders who dwelt in Central Asia. They swarmed forth into Western Europe and southern Asia, and destroyed their civilisation.

(b) In the second century before Christ, they overthrew the Greek kingdom of Bactria and compelled the Greeks to take refuge in India. They conquered Kabul, Kandahār, Peshawar, Kāśmīr, and the Punjab. Their dominions extended up to Mathurā and the Mārhattā country.

Their greatest king was Kanishka, who ascended the throne in 78 A.D. His capital was Purushapur (Peshawar). He started the Saka era from the date of his accession. He was a Buddhist. He summoned the last and the greatest Buddhist Council, which settled the faith of the Buddhists of Northern India. Huvishka and Bāzdeo followed Kanishka in due succession. The dynasty continued for 190 years. The Viceroys of Mathurā and Mahārāshtra were their dependents. One of the viceroys, Nahapāna, had his capital at Junair. He was defeated by a branch of the Andhra dynasty. Another Viceroy named Chastana conquered Ujjayīni and Guzerat. His grandson, Rudradāma, was elected king of Guzerat. With two more kings, the Scythian empire in Guzerat came to an end.

Q. 40. What do you know of Nágárjuna ?

A. Nágárjuna was born in Contral India. He was a contemporary of the Sátaváhanas or Andhras. He is said to be the founder of the *Maháyána* school. He was a physician, magician, occulist, philosopher, and reformer whom Hindus and Buddhists alike respected. He has edited and enlarged *Suśruta*, a work on medicine. He is said to be the compiler of the earliest Buddhist lexicography. Many temples dedicated to him exist even now. The Buddhists regard him as second to Buddha himself.

Q. 41. (a) What was Aśoka's system of administration? (b) Indicate the nature of his innovations.

A. (a) Aśoka's predecessors appointed a large number of officers whose general name was *purusha*. The *Mahámátras*, or ministers were of the highest rank, and were entrusted with responsible posts, such as guarding the frontier, advising the king in important matters, carrying out his orders, and looking after the palace. Princes royal were generally employed as rulers of important provinces

(b) Aśoka's innovations were religious and moral. He appointed *Dhamma-mahámátras*, or overseers of religion to keep an eye upon Buddhists, Bráhmans, Ájivakas, and others. He employed a large body of *Rajuks*, or writers who took note of the religious and moral progress of the people. But the greatest reform inaugurated by Aśoka was the convening of periodical Assemblies for the purpose of rewarding merit. Grand assemblies were held at Pátaliputra once every five years, and on the frontiers once every three years in which intricate questions on law were decided, experiments on various subjects made, and prizes given away for skill in any branch of learning or of fine arts.

CHAPTER IX. THE GUPTA EMPIRE.

Q. 42. Give an account of the Gupta kings.

A. The Guptas appear to have been generals of some Scythian king, who was conquered by Gupta, the founder of the Gupta line of kings. He established himself at Kusumapur, the capital of his empire. He was succeeded by his son, Ghatotkach. The third king, Chandra Gupta (Gupta's grandson) assumed the title *Vikramāditya* (sovereign). He introduced in India the local era of Nepal, which went by the name of *Gupta era*. His son and successor, Samudra Gupta, conquered the kings of Dakshina Kośala (Gondwáná), Kerala (Malabar Coast), Káncí (Conjeveram), and other countries in Southern India. The kings of East Bengal, Nepal, Kámrúp, and other border countries, as well as of Málava and Khándeś submitted to him. Chandra Gupta II. succeeded his father, Samudra Gupta, and ruled for twenty years. The last Gupta king was Skanda Gupta, grandson of Samudra Gupta. During his reign the Húnas poured into his empire and completely destroyed it.

Q. 43. Describe the condition of the Indians during the Gupta rule.

A. The Guptas encouraged learning. Sanskrit began to be largely used in place of various vernacular dialects (Prákrítis). Hinduism began to revive, and Buddhism was on the decline. Arts, manufactures, and commerce flourished. There is an inscription which indicates that the guild of silk-weavers of Daśapur, (modern Mandesor, in Málava) built and endowed a grand temple to the Sun-god.

CHAPTER X. THE HU'NAS AND YAŚODHARMADEV.

Q. 44. Who were the Húnas? Describe the extent of their conquests in India.

A. The Hunas were the most powerful of the savage hordes that invaded India in the fifth century. They conquered the ancient Gupta empire and set up their capital at Śākala in the Punjab. They conquered the whole of Central India and wrested eastern Málava under the leadership of Toráman. Their empire extended to Persia and Tartary.

Q. 45. What do you know of Yaśodharmadev ?

A. Yaśodharmadev was king of Ujjayinī in Málava. He drove Toráman's son, Mihirkula, from Málava. He crushed the Húnas in the battle of **Korur**, between Multan and Lunī in 533 A. D. His empire included some of the countries which even the Guptas and Húnas could not conquer. Mihirkula acknowledged him as his over-lord. He was entitled Śakāri, or the enemy of the Scythians. He is said to have imperialised the Málava Era under the name of Vikrama-Samvat, or Samvat Era. He was the greatest Hindu king.

Q. 46. Mention some authors that flourished in Yaśodharmadev's reign.

A. The poet, Kálidás, whose dramas, epics, and lyrics have always been admired ; Varáhamihira, the great Astronomer ; Amarasinha, the lexicographer, and Vararuchi, the poet, were some of the nine learned men, who were called "the Navaratna" or Nine Gems, that flourished at his court.

CHAPTER XI.

THE KINGDOMS OF VALABHI, MAGADHA, MAUKHARI, AND THÁNESVAR.

Q. 47. Mention the great kingdoms that were dependent on Yaśodharmadev's empire.

A. The principal kingdoms that were dependent on Yaśodharmadev's empire were : the Valabhī kingdom of

Guzerat, the Gupta kingdom of Magadha, the Maukhari kingdom of eastern Málava, and the kingdom of Thánesvar.

Q. 48. Give a short account of the kingdoms of Magadha, Valabhi, Mankharí, and Thánesvar.

A. The Valabhi Kingdom.—Bhatárák, a general of the Gupta dynasty, drove a Scythian horde named Maitrakas from Guzerat and held it as a dependency of his masters, with Valabhi as the capital. His family, comprising fourteen kings, reigned till 744 A. D. They built many temples and palaces, and encouraged men of science and letters. Hinduism received the greatest encouragement at their hands.

The Gupta kingdom of Magadha.—Krishna Gupta who probably belonged to the imperial Gupta family, founded a separate kingdom in Eastern Magadha. Eleven of his successors reigned there. The eighth king, Ádityasen, declared himself independent in 672 A. D. They were probably Buddhists. Their kingdom extended eastward as far as Rárh, or Burdwan. They frequently came into contact with the Maukharis either as friends or enemies.

The Maukhari Kingdom.—The Maukharis reigned in western Magadha. Their capital was Kányakubja (Kanauj). Their power was humbled by the Guptas of Magadha.

The Kingdom of Thanésvar.—Mahárájá Narendravardhan reigned at Thánesvar. His family remained dependent on Yaśodharmadev for three generations, after which Prabhákaravardhan declared himself independent. He fought against the Húnas in the North and the Gurjaras in the South. His son, Rájyavardhan, after utterly conquering the Húnas succeeded him as king. He defeated the king of Málava, who invaded Kanauj, and recovered it. He marched against Śaśánka, king of Karnasuvarṇa, in western Bengal, to punish him for cutting down the sacred tree of the Buddhists; but he was treacherously murdered. To avenge his elder brother's death, Harshavardhan led an army against Śaśánka and completely defeated him. In a short time,

he conquered the whole of *Áryyávarṭta* and removed his capital to Kanauj. His ambitious project of conquering the Deccan and Southern India was nipped in the bud by *Satyáśraya*, the great *Chálúkyá* king. He was a great patron of learning. *Vána Bhatta*, who wrote *Kádambari*, lived at his court. During his reign the Chinese monk, *Hiouen Tshang*, visited India. He used to hold a quinquennial assembly of learned men and rewarded them for their attainments. He reigned for fifty years. With his death the kingdom of *Thánaśvar* became extinct.

BOOK II.

SMALL HINDU KINGDOMS.

CHAPTER I.

THE FIRST MUHAMMADAN INVASION.

Q. 49. Give a brief account of the rise of Muhammadanism and the rapid growth of the political power of the early Muhammadans.

A. Muhammad, the founder of the religion known after his name, was born in 570 A. D. in Mecca, whence he escaped to Medina in 622 A. D., through fear of losing his life. He died in 632 A. D.

His hardy and powerful Arab followers rapidly conquered northern Africa, and Persia, and wrested Asiatic Turkey from the Eastern Roman Empire. On a frivolous pretext, they marched under the command of Muhammad Bin Kásim against the Rájá of Sindh and destroyed the cities of Alor and Bráhmaṇábád in 711 A. D. They were, however, driven out of India by the Sauviras, a Kshatriya race, in the 13th century.

CHAPTER II.

THE KINGDOM OF MAGADHA.

Q. 50. Describe the state of India by the middle of the ninth century A. D.

A. By the middle of the ninth century, India was divided into a number of small kingdoms, none of which gained absolute sovereignty over the rest. Different forms of religion and polity prevailed in them. These often fought with one another. Science and learning flourished ; but the people grew weak and unfit for resistance against foreign invasion.

Q. 51. Give a short account of the Pál dynasty.

A. About the middle of the ninth century, Gopál founded a kingdom in Magadha, with Odantapurí as its capital. The Páls professed Buddhism. Dípankara Śrījána, a Buddhist mendicant, converted the Tibetans to Buddhism.

Dharmapál succeeded Gopál and converted Kámrúp and founded a new branch of the dynasty there.

His successor, Devapál, is said to have conquered the whole of northern India as far as Delhi. A branch of this dynasty reigned at Kanauj. They had held even Benares and Bengal under their sway. They were great patrons of learning, built many grand monasteries, and excavated tanks. They had great respect for the Bráhmans.

Q. 52. How did the Pál dynasty come to an end ?

A. The Sen kings of Bengal dispossessed the Páls of Bengal and Mithilá in the twelfth century. Bakhtiyár Khilijí defeated Govinda Pál, the last king of this dynasty, and destroyed Odantapurí (1197). Although Govinda survived, yet his kingdom was destroyed.

CHAPTER III.

THE KINGDOM OF BENGAL.

Q. 53. Give a short history of Bengal from ancient time to the Muhammadan invasion.

A. We know little of the earlier history of Bengal. It was first inhabited by the Paundras, and Pulindas, and was included in the Magadha empire. The first famous Hindu king of Bengal was Ádisúr. His capital was Karnasuvarna, the modern Kánsóná, in Murshidabad. He was probably a feudatory of the Gupta kings. His is said to have invited five Bráhmans from Kanauj to settle in Bengal. The descendants of these Bráhmans became very numerous and went to reside in Rárh and Varendra. They subsequently became distinct peoples. They are known as *Gáins*, because of their receiving grants of villages from the Pál kings of Magadha.

By the end of the eleventh century, Sámanta Sen founded a colony at Navadvíp. His grandson, Vijay, is said to have defeated Nányadev, the king of Nepal. His son, Ballál Sen re-organised the caste system and introduced *Kulinsim*, or a system of nobility, among the several castes. He conquered Mithila and divided Bengal into five districts. His son, Lakshman Sen, was driven out of Gaur and Navadvíp by Bakhtiyár Khiliji in 1119 A. D. There is an era current in Mithilá that is known after his name.

(Note Mithilá was eventually merged into the Muhammandan kingdoms of Bengal and Jaunpur in the fifteenth century).

CHAPTER IV.

THE KINGDOM OF KANAUI.

Q. 54. Give a short history of Kanauj from Harshavardhan's death to its conquest by Muhammad of Ghor.

A. The history of Kanauj for a century after Harshavardhan's death is lost in obscurity. About the middle of the ninth century, Yaşovarmadev was the ruler of Kanauj-Lalitáditya, king of Káśmír, defeated him and made peace with him. Later on, Sultán Mahmúd of Ghazni invaded it and forced its king, Rájya Pál, to make peace with him. After the reign of two of his successors, the Ráshtrakútas, or Ráthors, ruled over it for five generations. During the rule of Govinda Ráj, who wrote a commentary on Manu, Lakshmidhara composed *Smṛiti Kalpataru*, or a digest of Hindu Law. During Jay Chandra's reign, Muhammad of Ghor invaded and conquered it. Śivají, a descendant of Jay Chandra, led a small band of followers into the desert where he founded the kingdom of Márwar.

CHAPTER V.

THE KINGDOM OF KÁLANJARA.

Q. 55. Write a brief account of the kingdom of Kálanjara from early times up to its conquest by Sher Sháh.

A. About the middle of the ninth century the Chandel, a Kshattriya tribe, founded a kingdom in Bundelkhund and its neighbourhood. At one period of its existence it extended from the Jumna to Nerbuda and from Gwalior to the fort of Kálanjara. Dháaga, another Chandel king, fought hard against Subuktigín as an ally of Jay Pál, king of Lahore. His son, Ganda, killed Rájya Pál, king of Kanauj, for having made peace with Mahmúd. The reign of his grandson, Kírttivarmá, was signalised by the composition of the allegorical drama entitled *Prabodha-chandrodaya*. Towards the end of the twelfth century, Prithvíráj Chauháñ made himself master of the greater portion of the kingdom by wresting it from Paramardédev. Kutbyddín conquered the

whole of it : but Trailakyavarmá, son of the preceding king, recovered the greater portion of it. His descendants ruled over it for three hundred years more. Sher Sháh laid siege to it and conquered it in 1545 A. D.

CHAPTER VI.

MÁLAVA.

Q. 56. Write a brief history of Málava from the ninth century to the close of the thirteenth century.

A. In the beginning of the ninth century Upendra, the first Paramára king, established himself in Málava and made Dhárá its capital. Munja, the sixth in succession from Upendra, after defeating the Chálúkyas king named Tailapa sixteen times in battle, was at last himself defeated and captured. He tried to escape but was arrested and executed in 993 A. D. His two successors were Sindhuráj and Rájá. Bhoj. The latter was a poet and author. Many works on Rhetoric, Astrology, Hindu law, and Yôga were written under his patronage. He fought against Mahmúd of Ghazni, who besieged Kálanjara. After gaining many victories over the Chálúkyas he was at last defeated. His son Udayáditya, recovered it from them. Later on the Paramáras became so powerful that Lakshmandev, son of Udayáditya, invested Tripurí, the capital of a neighbouring kingdom in 1104 A. D. Sultán Altamsh invaded Málava and destroyed Ujjayini in 1232 A. D. but the Paramáras continued to reign at Dhárá. The last Hindu king made war against Sárangadev, king of Guzerat. Málava was finally annexed to the Pathán empire during the rule of Aláuddín Khiliji.

A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA.

CHAPTER VII

THE KINGDOM OF GUZERAT.

Q. 57. Give a short history of Guzerat up to its annexation to the Pathán empire.

A. In 746 A. D., Banaráj founded the city known as Pattān. He was the first king of the Chaurá dynasty that ruled Guzerat for one hundred and ninety-six years. During their reign Govinda III. of the Ráshtrakúta dynasty of Maháráshtra led a powerful expedition into Guzerat and annexed Baroach.

Sámanta Sinha, the last Chaurá king of Pattān, was murdered in 943 A. D. by his sister's son, Mulraj. Mulraj ruled in Guzerat for a long time. Early in the 10th century Mahmúd of Ghazni invaded Guzerat in Chámundadev's reign and conquered it and looted the shrine of Somanáth. Afterwards Guzerat was recovered and Chámundadev's grandson Bhím harassed Bhoj of Málava and occupied Dhárá and seized a portion of Sindh.

Kumárapal was the greatest king of this dynasty. He drove out Sultan Muhammad of Ghori and kept up the independence of Guzerat for more than a century. But his successors were weak and effeminate; and Kutbuddín Aibek took this opportunity to invade it. Lavanaprasád, the feudatory Rájá of Byághrapallí, compelled the Muhammadan invader to retire. Lavanaprasád then deposed the ancient dynasty and set up his son Vrihadvala as king. The new dynasty went by the name of Bághelás from its former seat of residence Bhyághrapallí and held its sway during the whole of the thirteenth century. Sárangadev, one of their last kings, is said to have conquered the last Hindu king of Málava.

Guzerat was annexed to the Pathán empire in 1297 A. D. by Ulagh Khán, a general of Aláuddín, and the Bághelás took refuge in the mountainous fastnesses in the

east of Málava where their kingdom still exists. The kings of Guzerat built many splendid temples and encouraged learning.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PUNJAB.

Q. 58. Give a short history of the Punjab from the earliest time to that of its annexation to the Muhammadan empire.

A. We know nothing of the history of the Punjab after Harshavardhan's overthrow. The Hindu kings of Káśmír and the Muhammadan kings of Sindh often invaded, overran, and occupied it. Towards the close of the 10th century kings bearing the title Pál had begun to rule in the Punjab. Their capital was Lahore, and they were masters of Káśmír and Multan. During the reign of the Pál kings in the Punjab, Subuktigin and his son Mahmud founded a Muhammadan kingdom at Ghazní. The Hindu and the Muhammadans frequently came into conflicts with each other on the frontier before the end of the tenth century, and after a protracted and hard struggle the Punjab was annexed by the Muhammadans in 1023 A. D.

CHAPTER IX.

DELHI AND AJMIR.

Q. 59. Give a short history of Delhi and Ajmir from a very ancient date.

A. Yudhishtira, the eldest of the Pándavas, founded his city of Indraprastha, now known as a part of modern Delhi, in the beginning of the first century A. D. King Dilu built a new city near Indraprastha, which was named Delhi after himself. Nothing is known of it after its destruction by the

Scythians till 736 A. D., when Anangapál, a Rájput chief of the Tomar family, rebuilt it and made it his capital. Nineteen of his successors ruled at Delhi.

Viśáladēv, the Chauhán king of Ajmir, conquered Delhi (1151) and compelled the last Tomar king to marry his daughter to the conqueror's son Someśvar. Prithví Ray, the issue of this marriage, became the ruler of the united kingdom of Delhi and Ajmir. He built the fort known as Ráy Pithorá. The leading events of his reign were :—(1) the war between himself and Jay Chandra of Kanauj for the mastery of Delhi, (2) the defeat of Paramardīdev of Kálanjara, (3) the conquest of the greater part of his kingdom, and (4) lastly a war with the Muhammadans, which ended in his deposition and death.

CHAPTER X.

SOUTHERN INDIA AND THE DECCAN.

Q. 59. Write a short account of Southern India and the Deccan from the earliest time to their extinction.

A The sage Agastya is believed to have colonised India south of the Vindhyaś. Aśoka's inscriptions contain references to the Pándya and Chola kingdoms. The Western coast is said to have been colonised by Paraśurám, the celebrated Bráhmaṇ warrior, and ruled by the Náyers with the assistance of a governor who was invited from the Chera kingdom (Western Maisúr) every fifth year. The preponderance of the Jewish and Christian elements here was due to the migration of the Jews in 70 A. D., after the destruction of Jerusalem, and to the preachings of St. Thomas, who died at Maliapur, near Madras. From days of yore the Arabs, Egyptians, Greeks, and Syrians carried on trade with Southern India.

About the beginning of the Christian era, the Pallavas settled themselves in the regions north of the Kaveri with Kanchi as their capital. Pulikeśi, the third king of the Chálúkyā family, conquered Vátápi, the western capital of the Pallavas and made it the metropolis of the Chálúkyā empire. Satyáśraya, another Chálúkyā king, kept up the independence of the Deccan by compelling its invader, Harshavardhan of Kanauj, to retire to the north of the Narmadá. He found a new Chálúkyā kingdom between the Godávari and the Krishná with his brother Kuṣja Vishnubardhan as its first king. The kingdom of the Pallavas was destroyed in the eleventh century.

Q. 60. Who was Śankarāchāryya? What were the effects of his preaching?

A. Śankarāchāryya was the inaugurator of the Vedānta philosophy. He made many followers, who brought about a great revolution in religion. The spread of Buddhism, Jainism, and various sects of mysticism was arrested. Hindu monks were provided by Hindu kings with grand monasteries to live in, and were organised and brought under control by him.

CHAPTER XI.

THE RASHTRAKUTA KINGDOM.

Q. 61. Write a short history of the Ráshtrakúta kingdom.

A. The Ráshtrakútas were a mighty tribe of Kshattriyas in the Déccan. Their capital was Mányakheta (modern Málkhed). One of their kings Dantidurga defeated Kirtivarmá, the last of the Chálúkyas of Vátapi, in 752 A. D. and made him a vassal. They established a kingdom that lasted for 200 years by annexing some minor States of the Deccan and Southern India. They conquered Kanauj in the 11th

century, and a branch of the family is still reigning in Jodhpur. They worshipped Śiva and Vishnu.

Thirteen kings of the dynasty reigned at Mányakheta. Tailapa, a scion of the Chálúkyā family, killed the last king of the Ráshtrakútas in 972 A. D. and founded a new empire with Kalyána as its capital. During the reign of this second Chálúka dynasty, the celebrated commentary on Hindu Law entitled the *Mitákshará* was composed. One of the kings of this dynasty conquered Málava and the Chola country.

Vijjvalá of the Chedi dynasty deposed Tailapa III. in 1157 A. D. and seized Kalyána. He was put to death at the instance of his minister Vāsava. His sons reigned for twenty years more when Ballál II., the Hoyśála king of Karnát. conquered it. Someśvar IV., of the second Chálúkyā family tried, with the aid of his feudatory, Bommā, of the Kákateya family, to recover it but he was killed. The Cholas rose to power on the ruins of the Pallava kingdom of Kánci in the eleventh century. One of them, Rájendra Chola, was the sovereign of the whole of Southern India as well as Bengal and Magadha in the beginning of the 11th century.

CHAPTER XII.

THE YÁDAVA KINGDOMS.

Q. 62. What do you know of the Yádava kingdoms ?

A. The Yádavas held that they were the descendants of the god, Krishna. One of their chiefs founded a small kingdom in the Deccan. Their king, Bhílloma, conquered Kalyána in 1189 A. D. and fixed his capital at Devagiri. The Yádavas of Devagiri became supreme in the Deccan after overthrowing the Hoyśála Yádavas. Seven princes of the dynasty ruled over the Deccan. They encouraged learning. Vopadéva, author of the well known Sanskrit grammar, *Mugdhabodha* ;

Hemádrí, the writer on Hindu Law, flourished under their patronage ; and Bháskarácháryya, the great Astronomer, lived under the patronage of the Nikumbhas, who were feudatories of the Yádava dynasty, flourished in their reigns.

The Hoyśála Balláls belonged to the Yádava family. Their capital was at Dvárasamudra (modern, Halebidu). They were at first feudatories of the second Chálúkyas, but they became afterwards independent under their king, Ballál.

They conquered Maisúr and a few other provinces. The dynasty comprised seven kings, and their kingdom was destroyed by Málik Káfur, the general of Aláuddín Khiliji.

The Kákateya family declared itself independent under the king Bomma. Their capital was Orangal. They waged war against the Bahmanís for a century. Ahmad Sháh Bahmaní conquered it from its king, Pratáprudra. It was eventually destroyed by the Kutb Sháhi kings of Golkonda.

CHAPTER XIII.

HINDU CIVILISATION.

Q 63. Give an account of Hindu civilisation during the Vedic period.

A. During the Vedic period, the Hīndus had tamed various species of animals and tilled lands. They knew the use of boats, chariots, metals, and medicinal herbs. Various branches of learning were cultivated. They were devout and were given to sacrifices.

Q. 64. Narrate briefly the story of the Rámáyana and of the Mahābhàratā.

A. We learn from the Rámáyana that king Daśaratha, belonging to a solar dynasty reigning at Ajodhyá, had four sons. He had to banish his eldest son, Rám, for fourteen years, in fulfilment of his promise to his second wife, and died of a broken heart.

In the Mahābhārata we find an example of a family quarrel. On the death of a king of the Lunar race, the elder of his two sons, Dhṛitarāshtra by the name, was debarred from succeeding to the throne. The younger, Pāndu, died while his elder brother was alive; and a quarrel arose between the children of the two brothers. Durjodhan, the son of Dhṛitarāshtra, had recourse to various expedients to harass or destroy the Pāndus but in vain. All prospect of friendly negotiation being over, war was declared by Yudhishtir, the eldest of the Pāndus, who ascended the throne after defeating his rival in the battle of Kurukshetra.

Q. 65. What do you know of the ancient coins and inscriptions of India?

A. The most ancient coins of India were punch-marked. Originally there was one circular punch-mark in the middle, but later on, the marks increased in number and shape, and entirely covered the surface of the coins. Another variety of ancient coins had one letter in the centre, surrounded on all sides by punch-marks. The Greek coins bore the heads of the rulers and were nicely executed, while those of the Scythian kings of India were moulded after the Greek ones, and contained four human forms. The Gupta coins contained the figure of Lakshmi (the goddess of wealth) on one side and the images of the reigning king and queen on the other. The coins of subsequent dynasties were stamped after their own fancy.

The most ancient inscriptions in India are the edicts of Aśoka inscribed on rocks and stone pillars, and are written in Brāhmi. The Gupta and the ancient Grantha characters prevailed in Northern and Southern India respectively, at the end of the fourth century after Christ. The former developed, in the course of three or four centuries, three distinct groups of character entitled the Sāradā, Śriharsha, and Kutila: while the latter, the modern Grantha character of Karnāt including the Tailangī, Drāviṇī, and others. The

Kutila group developed into the Bengali, Uriya, Assamese, Maithili, and Nepali characters. The Śrīharsha character gave rise to various Nāgarī characters of which the most developed is Devanāgarā.

Q. 66. What are the six Vedāngas ? Why are they so called ?

A. The six Vedāngas are Sikshā (Pronunciation), Vyākaraṇa (Etymology), Nirūkta (Derivation), Chhanda (Prosody), Jyotiṣa (Astronomy), and Kalpa (Law and Ritual).

They are called Vedāngas, because they are the sciences that help us in studying the Vedas.

Q. 67. What progress was made by the ancient Hindus in Fine Arts ?

A. The ancient Hindus invented **sixty-four fine arts** to render life comfortable and happy. These consist of dancing, singing, tinging the teeth, dressing the hair, carpentry, painting, portrait-painting, sculpture of images of gods, architecture in stone and bricks, writing of inscriptions, and engraving on gold, silver, and stone. The system of cave temple architecture, found in Ajanta and Ellora, and the ancient temple of Kānchī and of Jagannāth, Bhuvanesvar, and other places ; some of the stone images and engravings of Bengal and paintings in ancient manuscripts from Nepāl are living evidences of the master hand of the Hindus in fine arts.

Q. 68. Trace the origin of the caste system in India and state its effects.

A. The **caste system** owes its origin and growth to the power of organisation of the Brāhmins. Each caste had a government of its own, having a leader and advisers, who acted under the direct control and supervision of the King and the Brāhmin. Distinct castes were formed out of the mixed races and mixed castes, that sprang up as time went on.

The Kshattriyas improved the modes of warfare; the Vaiśyas developed the resources of the country and perfected the fine arts. The Káyasthas were professional scribes and accountants. The Súdras lived by manual labour and agriculture. The mixed castes were traders and artisans. The sturdy aborigines were the custodians of peace and security of village. Thus every individual had his own fixed duty to perform, and the principle of division of labour was appreciated and acted upon.

Q. 69. (a) Describe the influence of the Bráhmans in ancient India? (b) To what cause was it due?

A. (a) The Bráhman was the leader of the Hindu society. He was the expounder of the laws and was the chief Judge. He was the head of education and religion. Though appointed by the king, yet he was not paid any salary. He wielded vast influence upon Hindu society.

(b) This influence is entirely due to his wonderful education. From the fifth year of his age he practised himself in physical and intellectual exercises, till he mastered them. His proficiency in the various branches of learning and the power of concentration entitled him to the esteem and respect of the people at large. After completing his education he had to teach as well as to learn, perform sacrifices and attend at their performance. The third stage of his life came to an end when he became fifty years old. He then retired into solitude, where he absorbed himself in religious meditation. There he procured his food and raiment, failing which he returned to the city and lived on alms. Even here he instructed young men in domestic, social, religious, and other matters.

Q. 70. Give a short account of ancient Sanskrit literature.

A. Ancient Sanskrit literature may be classified in three divisions:—(1) Religious literature, (2) Philosophical literature, and (3) Secular literature.

(1) Under the head of religious literature are comprised the **Samhitas** and **Brahmanas**, and other numerous writings regarded as supplementary to the Vedas, such as the six **Vedāngas**. The Samhitās and the Brāhmanas have been already described. Of the six Vedāngas already noticed, Panini's immortal Grammar, and Yāska's Nirukta—a work treating of the derivation or the etymology of Vedic terms and containing explanations of obscure and difficult passages in the Vedas—stand pre-eminent.

The Kulpa Sūtras of every Śākhā of each of the four Vedas are divided into three branches :—the *Grihyasūtras*, treating of domestic ceremonies ; the *Śrautasūtras*, dealing with great national sacrifices, and the *Dharmasūtras*, dwelling on the social and religious organisation. The Dharmasūtras have almost died out and been replaced by many metrical treatises composed by Manu, Atri, Hārīta, Yājñavalkya, and others. Manu's treatise is considered to be of the highest authority. The **Puranas**, or later religious books of the Hindus, date only from 800 A. D.

(2) **Philosophy** has ever been the favourite study of the Hindus. Gleams of philosophical speculations may be derived as early as from the Rigveda. The Samhitās and the Brāhmanas abound with discussions on the origin of the world, the nature of the human soul and of God, and the destiny of man. These speculations were later on embodied in the Upanishads (theological tracts) collectively entitled the *Vedāntas*. The Buddhist, Jaina, and other philosophers, who had no regard for the Upanishads and whose modes of reasoning (lines of thought) were not at one with those of the Upanishads gave birth to many schools of philosophy of which six were very prominent. They originally consisted of the Buddhist, Jaina, Nāstika (Atheistic), Śaiva (worshippers of Śiva), Sāṅkhya, and Mīmāṃsaka. But as Buddhism died out and Jainism declined, the phrase "six schools" denoted "the six Hindu schools of philosophy," namely Sāṅkhya, Pātanjala.

Mīmāṃsā, **Vedānta**, **Nyāya**, and **Vaiśeṣika**, attributed to **Kapila**, **Patanjali**, **Jaimini**, **Vyāsa**, **Gotama**, and **Kaṇāda** respectively.

The fundamental doctrine of all these schools appears to be the transmigration of souls. They enjoin that pleasure or pain is the outcome of individual actions. The object of all the systems seems to be the "discovery of the means of putting a stop to further transmigration." *Tattojnān* or "real knowledge" is the only remedy suggested by them.

(3) Secular literature may be subdivided into (a) **Poetry**, (b) **History**, (c) **Biography**, and (d) **Drama**.

In Biography and History, the Indians made very little progress. But they excelled in poetry and drama. **Vālmīki's** immortal epic is known to every Indian, and the **Mahābhārata** by **Vyāsa** is also a voluminous epic of great merit. These two works are now considered rather as religious poems, while the works of **Kālidās** and **Bhavabhūti** can in no way be classed under religious poetry. **Kālidās** wrote the **Raghuvansa**, a great epic. **Bhavabhūti** composed two of the best dramas in Sanskrit literature, *vis.*, the **Uttara-rāmacharita** and **Mahāvīracharita**.

Q. 71. What do you know of the village community in ancient India?

A. Each village was so organised as to become a self-acting social unit, containing representatives of all the arts and professions. Groups of such villages were placed under officers of various grades, with the king at their head. The system has remained intact since its foundation.

Q. 72. Describe the various kinds of Institutions inaugurated and developed by the Brāhmins.

A. The Brāhmins founded and developed political, religious, educational, social, and various other institutions. The village system bears ample testimony to their power of political organisation, and has been described above.

There were *two classes of teachers*, the Bráhmans and Saṁnyásis. The former courted popularity by organising annual worship and pilgrimages to holy places : and the latter, by holding periodical and annual *melás* or fairs. The *Durgá Pújá* in Bengal and the *Kumbha Melá* held four times in every twelve years at Haridvár, Allahabad, Ujjayini, and the Godavari are the grandest of their religious institutions.

The sages of the Vedic period were the sole custodians of secular and religious education. As the order of monks arose they were largely entrusted with religious education ; Grammar, language, law, rhetoric, mathematics, and science were taught by the Bráhmans. The study of the medical science is at the present day the monopoly of the Vaidyas in Bengal, though not in the other provinces of India.

The monastery at Nálanda, which had ample accommodation for ten thousands of students, is another remarkable institution of the ancient Indians. Mithilá, Navadvíp. Benares, and Poona had a vast number of students in them, who were gratuitously supported and instructed in various branches of learning by celebrated Professors.

Q. 73. Enumerate the six schools of Philosophy, touching on the leading features of each.

See also A. (2) of Q. 70.

(a) Only a small work on **Sankhya** philosophy consisting of seven verses is extant. The philosophers of this school consider mind and matter as two distinct things, having no connection with each other. They do not believe in the existence of God.

(b) **Patanjali** gives detailed rules for the concentration of mind, and believes in the existence of God. He is said to have supplemented Sankhya philosophy. There is a collection of aphorisms of his school, commented upon by Vyása and Rájá Bhoj.

(c) The **Mimansa** professes to interpret the ritualistic

portions of the Vedas. It also lays down rules for the interpretation of Hindu Law. It has also a collection of aphorisms commented upon by Śaṅkarasvāmī and Kumārila Bhaṭṭa the latter of whom is regarded as the leader of Hindu Revival and the greatest opponent of Buddhism.

(d) The **Vedānta** professes to interpret the philosophical portions of the Vedas. It has many commentaries, each being regarded as the text-book of a sect of Sannyāsīs. It has a collection of aphorisms.

Śaṅkarācāryya's Commentary on this collection has given rise to several successive commentaries and is looked upon as the text-book of his followers, who are very numerous and possess considerable influence all over India.

The same collection has also been commented upon by Rāmānuja, who evolved the system of Viṣṇu-worship.

(e) The **Nyāya** system believes in the existence of the soul, matter, a personal God, and the eternity of the human soul. It has a collection of aphorisms on which various commentaries have been written. These have perfected Hindu Logic, or the science of reasoning.

(f) The **Vaiśeṣika** system has perfected the atomic theory, *vis*, everything in this world is a combination of atoms. It has also a collection of aphorisms, which have given rise to various commentaries.

Q. 74. What different branches of science were studied by the ancient Hindus, and with what results ?

A. The ancient Hindus studied Astronomy. Aryyāvata discovered that the earth is round and has a diurnal motion on its axis. Bhāskarācāryya followed up his predecessor's discovery, and proved that the earth is self-poised in space and has the power of attracting all objects to it.

The Indians cultivated the science of medicine, which is as old as the Vedas. They knew not only the properties of

medicinal herbs but of many mineral substances also. They had many different instruments for surgical operations, Kámpilya in Rohilkhund was the earliest seat of the study and cultivation of medical science. Charaka, Suśruta, Hárta, Agastya, and others composed six or seven works on the science of medicine, which have undergone several revisions. Chakrapáni Datta's compilation is the oldest, and dates from the eleventh century.

The veterinary science did not escape their attention and care. A treatise on the horse and its diseases was first written in Sanskrit by an inhabitant of Śálihotra in the Punjab. Pálakápya's elaborate work on elephants and their diseases is still extant.

The ancient Hindus are credited with having invented the decimal system of notation. They knew vulgar, decimal and even recurring decimal fractions. They were acquainted with the rules for the extraction of square and cube roots. In Algebra, they knew the laws of Proportion, and could work sums in Permutation and Combination. The process of solving Simultaneous Equations was not unknown to them. They were also conversant in Tigonometry and Geometry.

BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.

Q. 75 Relate the circumstances that led to the foundation of the Sámáni and the Ghaznaví kingdoms.

A. About the middle of the 9th century, when the em.

pire of the Khalifas of Baghdad was broken up, a Sámání founded a small kingdom in Khorásán and Transoxiana. Their capital was Nísápur. His sons were great favourites of Khalifa Máhmún, who appointed them rulers of the regions beyond the Oxus, where they gradually became independent.

Alptigin, a Turkish slave of one of the Sultáns of the Sámání kingdom, carved out a small kingdom for himself, bounded on the east by the Indus, and on the north and west by Balkh and Herat. This kingdom was known as the Ghaznaví kingdom.

Q. 76 What do you know of (a) Alptigin and (b) Subuktigin ?

A. (a) Alptigin was a Turkish slave of one of the Sultáns of the Sámání kingdom. He had three thousand disciplined Turkish slaves, with whose aid he founded the kingdom of Ghazní. He had a slave named Subuktigin whom he made his son-in-law and successor.

(b) Subuktigin, the son-in-law and successor of Alptigin, ascended the throne of Ghazní in 977 A. D. Unable to put up with Muhammadan supremacy so close to his frontier, Jaypál, Rájá of Lahore, led an expedition against him and compelled him to make peace. He, however, again invaded Ghazní with the combined aid of the kings of Delhi, Ajmir, Kálanjara, and Kanauj but was defeated at **Laghman**. Subuktigin annexed Peshawar to his kingdom. He died in 997 A. D.

Q. 77. (a) What do you know of Mahmūd of Ghazni, (b) and his Indian expeditions ?

A. (a) Mahmūd, son and successor of Subuktigin, ascended the throne of Ghazní at the age of thirteen. After spending two years in putting an end to a civil war and risings in his western frontier, he entered upon his cherished project of conquering Hindusthán. He led many expeditions to India of which twelve are famous.

(b) **His twelve Indian expeditions:—1st.** In 1001, Mahmúd left Ghazní with 10,000 chosen horsemen, and after plundering many rich cities on the way, met Jaypál near Peshawar, and defeated and took him prisoner. He afterwards released him on a promise of his paying tribute. Jaypál committed suicide to avoid this disgrace.

2nd & 3rd. Mahmúd had still to come twice to India, first to punish a refractory Hindu chief, dependent on Anangapál, and again to punish the Afghan chief, Abul Fateh Lodí of Multan, his own dependent.

Mahmúd's **fourth** expedition was directed against Anangapál, son and successor of Jaypál of Lahore. Anangapál resolved to make a final stand, with the aid of the neighbouring Hindu kings, against his encroachments. Hindu recruits went on daily increasing, and surrounding his camp, eventually compelled him to entrench it. A battle was fought with great ardour on both sides, in which Anangapál was defeated (1008). Mahmúd gave the Hindus no time to rally together, but hotly pursued them up to Nagarkot in Kangra where he plundered the temple situated near the holy shrine named Jválámukhí.

5th. On his return to India in 1010 A. D., Mahmúd took Abul Fateh Lodí prisoner to Ghazní.

6th. In 1011 A. D., Mahmúd led a bold, plundering expedition to Thánesvár, the rich capital of Harshavardhan. He gained a large booty in this attempt.

7th & 8th. Mahmúd's seventh and eighth expeditions were directed against Káśmír.

9th. Mahmúd's 9th expedition was led against Kanauj. He suddenly appeared before the gates of the city and took its ruler, Rájypál, by surprise. Mahmúd granted him protection, spared Kanauj, but plundered Mathurá.

10th Mahmúd's tenth expedition was undertaken in 1023 A. D., to relieve the king of Kanauj, who was hard pressed by the Chandel king, Ganda, on account of his allegiance to

the Musalmans. Mahmūd could make no impression on the Rájá, but on his way back to his capital, he annexed the Punjab, deposing king Jaypál II., the son of Anangapál, for his constant revolts.

11th. Mahmūd's eleventh expedition was directed against Rájá Ganda. But it was a complete failure.

12th. Mahmūd's twelfth expedition was designed for the plunder of the temple of Somanáth, in an islet in the south of Guzerat. In September, 1024, he crossed the desert with a large army and surprised the king of Ajmír. The Rájá took to flight, and Ajmír was plundered. He then crossed the Aravalli ranges and appeared before Anahilpattan, the capital of Guzerat, but its king, Chámundadev, fled and Mahmūd easily reached Somanáth. There he met with stout resistance from the priests, who armed themselves for the defence. In the thick of the fight, the king of Guzerat joined them; yet the Musalmans gained the day, and 5,000 brave Rajuts were killed on the spot. Mahmūd entered the temple, plundered it, and destroyed the images (1026). He died in 1030 A. D.

Q 78. Narrate the circumstances that brought about the downfall of the Ghaznavi dynasty.

A. After Mahmūd's death, none of his family led any expedition into India. The advance of the Seljuk Tartars from the Caspian weakened the power of his successors in the west and emboldened the Hindu kings to recover Lahore, but in vain. They, however, regained Nagarkot.

Mahmūd's successors treacherously seized the territory of Ghor, a small valley near Kandahár. Bairám, the next successor, killed two of the chiefs of Ghor with great ignominy. Aláuddín, the next chief, swept down upon Ghazni which was plundered and completely destroyed by fire and sword. The successors of Bairám made Lahore their capital; and the Punjab was the only territory left to the family. But they

were driven even from this last retreat by the Ghori family in 1186 A. D.

CHAPTER II.

THE GHORI DYNASTY.

Q. 79 Give an account of Muhammad of Ghor before his conquest of India.

A. Muhammad of Ghor was one of the Ghori chiefs, who after the death of Aláuddín reigned jointly with his brother Ghiyásuddín, at Ghor for a long time. In 1176, Muhammad conquered Uch, near the junction of the five rivers of the Punjab. In 1186 A. D. he surprised and captured Lahore and sent Khusru Málik, the last Ghaznaví king, a prisoner to Ghor.

Q. 80. Describe Muhammad's conquest of Delhi and Kanauj.

A. In 1191 Muhammad advanced from Lahore towards the east and laid siege to Bhatindá. Prithví Ráy Chauhán, king of Delhi, marched with a powerful army to expel him. A battle was fought at **Narayan** on the Sarasvatí in which the Musalmáns were completely defeated. But Muhammad returned to Hindusthán two years after and utterly defeated the Hindus at **Tirauri** near Thánesvar. Prithví Ráy was killed, and Delhi and Ajmir fell into the hands of Muhammad, who annexed Delhi to his own kingdom.

• Muhammad invaded Kanauj, and defeated Jay Chandra, the Ráthór king of Kanauj, near **Etawa**, and annexed Kanauj and Benares in 1192 A. D.

Q. 81. Give an account of Muhammad's conquest of Behar and Bengal.

A. In 1197 Bakhtiyár Khiliji, a general of Muhammad Ghori, conquered Oudh and Behar. Soon after this he pushed on to Navadvíp, the capital of Bengal; Gaur and Navadvíp

fell an easy prey to his arms (1199). In 1319 A. D., Eastern Bengal was absorbed into the Muhammadan empire. Emboldened by repeated successes, Bakhtiyār led an army into Assam, but had to retreat to Bengal in haste, with the loss of the greater part of his army.

Q. 82 Characterise Muhammad Ghori's conquests.

A. Muhammad Ghori's conquests extended from the Bay of Bengal to the borders of Persia. This vast territory was simply overrun, but not consolidated. Though the Musalmans seized some of the largest cities of the Hindus, yet the latter kept up their independence in all the outlying districts. It took more than a century for the Musalmans to subjugate the country completely.

Q. 83. (a) How did Muhammad Ghori die ?
(b) Describe his character ?

A. (a) On his way back to Ghor, Muhammad pitched his camp on the Indus and the wild Gakkhars suddenly fell upon his camp and killed him (1205).

(b) Muhammad Ghori was an enterprising soldier, whom no misfortune could ever disconcert. He possessed extraordinary tenacity of purpose. Defeated and disgraced several times, he, nevertheless, succeeded in conquering Hindustān.

Q. 84. What was the constitution of Muhammad Ghori's army ?

A. Muhammad Ghori's army was composed of adventurers mostly belonging to the Afghan tribes commanded by slaves. Loyalty sat loosely on them.

Q. 85. How was the fall of the Ghori dynasty brought about ?

A. The excessive power which Muhammad of Ghor bestowed on his subordinates, who were his slaves, brought about the ruin of his vast kingdom. Kutbuddin declared

himself independent in Hindusthán, and Násiruddín Kubácha in Sindh and Multan. The rest of his kingdom, together with the cities of Firoz Koh and Ghazní was absorbed into the kingdom of Khwárasm.

CHAPTER III.

THE SLAVE KINGS (1206-1288).

Q. 86. What was the Slave Dynasty? When and by whom was it established? Why was the dynasty so called?

A. Kutbuddín, the first Muhammadan Sultán, who established his capital in India, was himself a slave of Muhammad Ghori. His son-in-law, Altamsh, was a slave, and Sultán Ghiyásuddín Bulban was also a slave of Altamsh; and therefore these Sultáns and their immediate successors are known in history as the Slave kings of Delhi, which was their capital.

Q. 87. What do you know of Sultán Altamsh?

A. Sultán Altamsh defeated the Paramára Rájputs of Málava, plundered Ujjayini, and destroyed the temple of Mahákála in 1232 A. D.

Q. 88. Give a short account of Changíz Khán.

A. Changíz Khán was a Mughal, who, by his superior military genius, brought together all the nomad hordes of Mongolia with whose help he conquered the whole country from the Pacific to the Baltic Sea. He killed the families of those who opposed him, massacred their adherents, and destroyed their capitals. Changíz Khán invaded Khwárasm, a powerful kingdom in Western Asia. Its king, Jaláluddín, fled after a signal defeat to Indus to seek the protection of Sultán Altamsh.

Q. 89. Mention the most important event that took place during the reign of Ghiyásuddín Bulban?

A. During the reign of Ghiyásuddín Bulban, Tughral Khán, the governor of Bengal, rose up in arms, but was defeated and slain.

Q. 90. Narrate the circumstances that led to the downfall of the slave dynasty.

A. After Bulban's death his grandson, Kaikobád, was raised to the throne. He was immoral and had a number of profligate attendants who ruined him and his family. Jaláluddín Khiliji, the brave governor of the Punjab, was invited to depose Kaikobád and ascend the throne.

CHAPTER IV.

THE KHILJI DYNASTY (1288-1321).

Q. 91. When and by whom was the Khiliji dynasty founded in Delhi?

A. Jaláluddín Khiliji deposed and assassinated Kaikobád and raised himself to the throne of Delhi in 1288. He was the founder of the Khiliji dynasty.

Q. 92. Name the chief sovereigns of the Khiliji dynasty.

A. The 'chief sovereigns of the Khiliji dynasty were :—
(1) Jaláluddín, (2) Aláuddín, (3) Mubáarak, and (4) Málík Khusrú.

Q. 93. What was the policy of the Khilijis for strengthening their position?

A. The Khilijis took into their service a large number of Tartar adventurers, driven from their country by the Mughals, as well as a number of converted Mughal mercenaries. Thus they strengthened their position.

Q. 94. Give a short account of Aláuddín's conquest of the Deccan and Guzerat.

A. Aláuddín Khiliji was the nephew of Jaláuddín, who conquered a great portion of Bundelkhund and eastern

Málava. He then crossed the Vindhya ranges and took by surprise Devagiri, the capital of Rám Rájá, the Yádava king of Maháráshtra, who paid him a large sum of money. In 1295 he led an immense army into the Deccan, destroyed the Yádava kingdoms of Devagiri and Dvárásamudra, harassed the Kákateyas of Orangal, and conquered the country as far as Rámeśvar.

In 1297 Aláuddín sent an expedition to Guzerat under his celebrated general, Ulaghi Khán, against Karnadev. Guzerat and Málava were annexed to his dominions.

Q. 95. What was the leading historical feature of the Khiljis ?

A. The leading historical feature of the Khilji dynasty was that the Muhammadan power was felt from one end of India to the other.

Q. 96. How were the latter days of Aláuddín spent ?

A. Aláuddín's latter days were embittered by intrigues at court for the succession, and by rebellions of the Hindus at Chitor, Guzerat, and Maháráshtra. Chitor recovered its freedom. The rebellion in Guzerat was put down with a strong hand ; but Harpáldev was still defiant in the Deccan.

Q. 97. What do you know of Kutlugh Khán ?

A. See Appendix, *Catechism*.

Q. 98. Mention the most leading event that took place in Mubárák's reign ;

A. The most important event during Mubárák's reign was the capture and execution of Harpáldev, who broke out in open rebellion against his father, Aláuddín.

Q. 99. What do you know of Málik Khusru ?

A. Khusru was a great favourite at Mubárák's court. He was a low caste Hindu, who embraced Muhammadanism. He was raised to the highest offices of State, and everybody's life and property were at his mercy. He put Mubárák to

death together with all the survivors of Aláuddin's family and became king of Guzerat. See A. to Q. 98.

CHAPTER V.

THE TUGHLAK DYNASTY (1321-1412).

Q. 100. When, by whom, and how was the Tughlak dynasty founded ?

A. Ghiyásuddín, a Turkish slave and afterwards governor of the Punjab, led an army into Delhi, and after putting Málik Khusru to death, ascended the throne of Delhi in 1321 A. D.

Q. 101. Give a short sketch of the reign of the founder of the Tughlak dynasty.

A. Ghiyásuddín, the founder of the Tughlak dynasty, reigned from 1321 to 1325. He annexed Maháráshtra to the Muhammadan empire and defended the Punjab against Mughal invasion. He was assassinated by his son in 1325 A. D.

Q. 102. What was the constitution of the Pathán army ?

A. Most of the Musalmans, who came with Muhammad of Ghor and his successors, belonged to the Afghán or Pathán tribes inhabiting the narrow valleys of Afghánisthán. The Ghoris and the Khilijis were the rulers of the several valleys of Afghánisthán. The armies of the Ghoris, Slave, and Khiliji dynasties were composed of these tribes, who conquered different parts of India and settled in them. They did not entertain a feeling of firm devotion to their masters.

The Tartar adventurers, belonging to various races in Central and Western Asia, and the converted Mughals and Hindus were a source of strength and power to the Khiliji kings of Delhi. Anyone, who could collect a number of

followers, declared himself an Amir, and a very large number of such Amirs accepted employment under the Delhi emperors and was known as the Amirání Sada. They were not inspired with a spirit of sincere loyalty to their masters. •

Q. 103. Describe the character of Muhammad Tughlak.

A. Mahammad Tughlak was a weak and capricious ruler. Though he was a learned man, a linguist, and a pious Musalman there was a taint of insanity in him. He was unsympathetic, nay cruel. He took delight in wild schemes.

Q. 104. Write a short sketch of the reign of Muhammad Tughlak.

A. Muhammad Tughlak ascended the throne of Delhi after murdering his father, Ghiyásuddín, in 1325, and reigned till 1351. He ordered that the name of Devagiri should be changed into Daulatábád, whither he intended to remove his capital, but the attempt proved a failure, though thousands of families were ruined in consequence. He sent a large army to conquer China; but it perished to a man in the jungles of Assam. He raised a vast army for invading Persia, but it broke up for want of pay. He levied heavy taxes, to avoid which the cultivators between the Ganges and the Jumna fled into jungles, where they were shot down like wild beasts.

He divided Bengal into three parts; eastern, western, and southern Bengal. He subdued his first governor of East Bengal, Bahádur Khán. But in the course of ten or twelve years afterwards, Háji Iliás declared himself as independent ruler of the three united divisions of Bengal, under the title of Shamsuddín Iliás Sháh in 1345 A. D. Muhammad could not recover it, as he was too busy in quelling numerous rebellions in Western India and the Deccan. In 1347, the Deccan declared itself independent.

Q. 105. Describe the character of the Amiráni Sada.

A. The Amiráni Sada were turbulent, disaffected, and disloyal. They obeyed the rulers of Delhi, merely for the sake of their pay and the prospect of plunder. They were ever ready to turn the disorders of the times to their advantage, and were very troublesome to their masters.

Q. 106. Narrate the circumstances under which the Deccan was lost to the Pathán dynasty.

A. Muhammad Tughlak appointed Aziz Hamid governor of Málava in 1337 A. D. and called on him to keep the Amiráni Sada under his control. Hamid invited them to a feast at Dhárá, and there killed them to a man. This inhuman and wholesale massacre roused the Amirrání of Málava, Guzerat, and the Deccan into an open rebellion. They drove the emperor's officers from almost every city, and notwithstanding his repeated and sustained exertions to overcome them extending over a period of fifteen years they declared themselves independent in 1347. Thus the Deccan threw off the yoke of the Pathán emperors of Delhi.

Q. 107. Who were the most powerful kings of the Tughlak dynasty?

A. The most powerful sovereigns of the Tughlak dynasty were:—(1) Ghiyásuddin; (2) Muhammad Tughlak; (3) Firoz Tghlak; and (4) Mahmúd Tughlak.

CHAPTER VI.

TIMU'R.

Q. 108. Give a short sketch of the reign of Firoz Tughlak.

A. Firoz Tughlak succeeded Muhammad Tughlak as emperor of Delhi in 1351. He had to acknowledge the

independence of the Deccan and Bengal. He ruled in peace over that part of his empire, which extended from the west of Bengal to the Punjab. He constructed roads, excavated tanks, erected inns, and did much good to the country.

Q. 109. State how the Pathán empire was reduced during Mahmūd Tughlak's reign to Delhi and its neighbourhood.

A. At the very outset of Mahmūd Tughlak's reign, Guzerat and Málava became independent. His prime minister, Khauja Jahán, who was made governor of the East in 1394, founded his capital at Jaunpur, and declared himself independent. Bengal and the Deccan as already stated asserted their independence in Firoz Tughlak's reign. Thus the Pathán empire was now reduced to Delhi and its adjoining places.

Q. 110. Give a short account of Timùr's invasion of India.

A. After conquering all the kingdoms of Central Asia Timùr fell upon India in 1398. Mamúd Tughlak, who was then the emperor of Delhi, left his capital and took refuge in Guzerat. The inhabitants of Delhi made feeble attempts to oppose him, but in vain. The city was captured and sacked. He then advanced to Haridvár, massacring the citizens of Meerut on his way. On his journey back to his own country he was often greatly harassed by the Hindus inhabiting the regions through which his way lay. Famine, anarchy, and plague marked his route.

Q. 111. Enmerate the causes that led to the downfall of the Pathán empire.

A. The Pathán empire began to decline from the time, of Múhammād Tughlak. The follies and weakness of Muhammad Tughlak, want of loyalty of the Muhammadan chiefs and governors, who founded a number of small

independent kingdoms for themselves, rebellions of the Hindu kings, who asserted their independence one after another, and the invasion of Timúr are the causes that led to the overthrow of Pathán empire.

BOOK IV. INDEPENDENT MUHAMMADAN KINGDOMS.



CHAPTER I.

THE KINGDOM OF DELHI (1412-1526).

Q. 112. What do you know of the Saiyyad Dynasty ?

A. On the death of Mahmúd Tughlak, Khizir Khán Saiyyad, the governor of the Punjab, made himself master of Delhi. He and his three descendants ruled at Delhi, and were known as the Saiyyad dynasty. During their reigns, the Delhi empire was reduced to the very walls of the city.

Bahlol Lodí after conquering the Punjab and Sirhind, invaded Delhi, which was made over to him by Aláuddín, the last of the Saiyyad kings.

Q. 113. What do you know of the Lodí dynasty ?

A. The Lodí dynasty was founded by Bahlol, who ascended throne of Delhi with the title of Sultán. He annexed the independent kingdom of Jaunpur in 1478. His son, Sikandar Lodí, annexed Behar in 1494 A. D., and founded the city of Agra, about 1500 A. D. Sikandar's son and successor, Ibráhim Lodí, estranged the feelings of the nobles by slighting and insulting them, and thus soon paved the way for numerous rebellions. Jaunpur regained its independence. Daulat Khán Lodí, the governor of the Punjab, invited Bábar, the Sultán of Kábul, to invade India.

Bábar met Ibráhim at Pánipat in 1526 and utterly defeated him there. Ibráhim and nearly forty thousand of his men were killed.

CHAPTER. II.

THE KINGDOM OF BENGAL (1345-1592). •

Q. 114. Give an account of the Iliás Sháhi dynasty of Bengal.

A. Shamsuddín Iliás Sháh declared himself independent in 1345, and Firoz Tughlak acknowledged his independence in 1355. He removed his capital from Gaur to Pánduá where his son, Sikandar, built the celebrated Adína Masjid. Sikandar's successors were not very powerful and were deposed by Rájá Ganeś who made himself master of Bengal.

Q. 115. Describe the reign of Rájá Ganeś and his family.

A. Rájá Ganeś reigned for eight years and was loved by Hindus and Musalmans. His son, Jadu, embraced Muhammadanism, and assumed the title of Jaláluddín. His grandson, Ahmad Sháh was put to death owing to his unpopularity. This dynasty reigned from 1405 to 1445 when the Muhammadans restored the kingdom to the family of Shamsuddín Iliás Sháh.

Q. 116. Describe the character of the kings of the second Iliás Sháhi dynasty.

A. The princes of the second Iliás Sháhi dynasty, who reigned for 42 years, were weak, and were often tools in the hands of Khaujas and Habshís or Abyssinians.

Q. 117. What do you know of Aláuddín Sháh ?

A. Aláuddín Husain Sháh destroyed the power of the Khaujas and Habshís in 1494 and ascended the throne of

Bengal. He had been in early life the servant of a Káyastha officer of the State named Subuddhi Khán. He respected the Hindus, two of whom, Rúp and Sanátan, held high offices under him. He destroyed the Kamatpur kingdom and made war on Orissa. He attempted to conquer Behar, but being defeated, made treaty with Sikandar Lóóí.

Q. 118. Sketch the reigns of Sulaimán and Dáud Kirání.

A. Sulaimán Kirání defeated the descendants of Sher Sháh and became the undisputed ruler of Bengal in 1563. He removed his capital from Gaur to Tándá, near Rájmahal. His general, Kálápáhár, invaded Orissa (1565), deposed Telingá Mukundadev, the usurping monarch. Sulaimán died in 1572, and was succeeded by his brother, Dáud, who quarrelled with Akbar and lost his kingdom, which was annexed to the Mughal empire in 1575. Bengal was, however, not finally subjugated till the year 1592.

CHAPTER III.

THE KINGDOM OF JAUNPUR (1394-1478).

Q. 119. Sketch the rise and fall of the kingdom of Jaunpur.

A. Khauja Jahán, the founder the kingdom of Jaunpur, on being appointed by Mahmúd Tughlak as governor of his eastern Provinces, declared himself independent. He left by will his kingdom and title (Málik-us-Shárq) to a young man, Mubárak Sháh, who was the real founder of the Sharqi dynasty. Including Khauja Jahán, the dynasty comprised six kings, and their kingdom extended from Bengal to Delhi. They erected many beautiful places and mosques. Though Bahlol Lodi annexed the kingdom in 1478, yet the last king, Hussain Sháh, reigned in Behar till 1494. Being defeated

there by Sikandar Lodi he fled to Bengal where he died in 1499. Thus the Sharqi dynasty came to an end.

CHAPTER IV.

THE KINGDOM OF SINDH (1443-1572).

Q. 120. Give a short history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Sindh.

A. Multan became independent under the Lunga dynasty, half Hindu and half Muhammadan, which reigned for about 30 years when the Arghúns of Sindh annexed it to their dominions.

In the 11th century the kingdom of Mansura fell into the hands of the Sauviras, a Rajput tribe. By the end of the 14th century the Sauviras were converted to Islam and were conquered by another tribe of Rajputs who again were deposed by the Arghúns, claiming descent from Timur.

CHAPTER V.

THE KINGDOM OF GUZERAT (1396-1572).

Q. 121. Trace the rise and fall of the kingdom of Guzerat.

A. In 1391, the emperor having dismissed Farhátul Mulk sent Zafar, a converted Rájput, as governor of Guzerat. Zafar became notorious for destroying Hindu temples and defiling places of Hindu pilgrimage. The Temple of Somnáth which had been rebuilt by Bhímdev in 1036 was again destroyed. Zafar is said to have proclaimed his independence in 1396, under the title of 'Muzaffar Sháh. He died in 1412.

His successor, Ahmad, removed the capital from Anahilpattan to Ahmadábad.

Mahmúd Bigaráh succeeded Ahmad and destroyed Jónagarh and Champánagar. Muzaffar II., Mahmúd's successor, invaded Málava and seized its capital, Mándú.

The most popular Musalman king of Guzerat, Bahádur Sháh, invaded and annexed Málava to Guzerat in 1536. He invested Chitor in 1529 after Ráná Sangrá́m Sinha's death and captured it. The use of cannon dates from this year. The emperor Húmayún being entreated by Karnávati, the Ráná's wife, proceeded to Chitor and thence expelled Bahádur's governor. The emperor also invaded Guzerat and stormed the fort of Champánagar and annexed the kingdom. Shortly after this, Guzerat re-asserted its freedom and enjoyed it for thirty years more.

The last king, Muzaffar III., made over this kingdom to Akbar and became a councillor of his court in 1572.

Q. 122. Describe the character of Bahádur Sháh.

A. Bahádur Sháh of Guzerat was a brave and intrepid soldier, and quite reckless of life. He was the most popular of the Musalman kings of Guzerat.

Q. 123. Give an account of Muzaffar III. of Guzerat.

A. Muzaffar III. was the last king of Guzerat, who made over his kingdom to Akbar and became a councillor of his court (1572). But after nine years he fled from Delhi and tried to regain his kingdom, and at last sought the protection of Ráy Sinha, a Hindu Rájá of Káthiawar, where he passed the remainder of his life.

Q. 124. How did the Portuguese obtain possession of Diu ?

A. Bahádur Sháh, king of Guzerat, being pursued by Húmayún, fled to Diu, near Somanáthpattán. He was compelled to cede the island to the Portuguese in return for the protection they granted him. Later on, he tried many times to break off his engagement with them, who invited him to their ships, and there he was killed either accidentally or deliberately, in 1557. Diu thenceforward was retained by the Portuguese.

CHAPTER VI.

THE KINGDOM OF MÁLAVA. (1401-1567).

Q. 125. Give a short history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Málava.

A. Dilwar Khán Ghori, having been appointed governor of Málava by Firoz Sháh Tughlak, asserted his independence in 1401 A.D. He removed his capital from Dhára to Mándú. His son, Húshang, founded the city of Mushangábad. After his death the Ghori family became extinct, and Mahmúd Khiliji seized the kingdom. He conquered Ajmir, Kerauli, and Ranastambhapur. In 1512, a civil war broke out. The weak king, Mahmúd II., was a mere tool in the hands of Mediní Ráy, a Rájput chief, who was then the most powerful man in the kingdom. On being pressed by his co-religionists, Mahmúd had to take refuge with Muzaffar II., king of Guzerat, who reinstated him in his capital. Upon this Mediní Ráy fled to Ráná Sangrám Sinha. A struggle ensued between the Muhammadans and Rájputs for supremacy in Málava, during which Sultán Mahmúd was taken prisoner by the Ráná, who sent him to Mándú with royal honours. But after his victor's death, Mahmúd attacked his son and annexed Málava to Guzerat in 1536.

Q. 126. What do you know of Medini Ráy ?

A See Appendix, p. 22., Catechism.

. CHAPTER VII.

THE KINGDOM OF KHÁNDES. (1399-1599).

Q. 127. Who were the Fárúks ?

A. Málik Rájá Fárúkí, the first prince of Khándeś, who claimed his descent from the Khalifá Omar, founded a dynasty known as the Fárúkí dynasty, and his successors were known in history as the Fárúkís.

Q. 128. Give a short account of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Khândes.

A. In 1399, Málík Rájá Fárúki after 30 years' rule declared himself independent. After his death his son, Násir, treacherously seized the impregnable fort of Asirgarh. The Fárúkís had the greatest respect for the Molláhs. They founded two cities Jainabád and Burhánpur. Khândes was annexed by Akbar in 1599

CHAPTER VIII.

THE BAHMANÍ' KINGDOM (1347-1526).

Q. 129. What was the origin of the Bahmaní kingdom?

A. The general who founded this kingdom was originally the servant of a Delhi Bráhmaṇ named Gangu, who, being an astrologer, predicted that Husain would become king, and extorted from him a promise that the dynasty founded by him should be named after his master, and that he should be appointed prime minister. Husain assumed the title of Husain Gangu Bahmaní and appointed Gangu prime minister.

Q. 130. Describe the boundaries of the Bahmaní kingdom.

A. The Bahmaní kingdom was bounded on the east by Telingána, on the south by the Krishna and the Tungabhadra, on the west by the Konkan and the Sahyádrí range, and on the north by Málava.

Q. 131. Give an account of the contest between the Hindus and the Musalmans in the Deccan during this time.

A. Muhammad, son of Husain Gangu, defeated Vináyak Ráo, the brother of the king of Orangal, and obtain-

ed possession of Golkonda. The Rájá of Vijayanagar, having been insulted by Muhammad, invaded the Bahmaní kingdom took possession of the Doáb, and massacred the garrison of its chief city. But at last the Hindus were defeated, and the king sued for peace. The ninth king, Ahmad Sháh, subdued the Kákateya kingdom of Orangal in 1424, and annexed it to his dominions.

Q. 132. Trace the rise and fall of the Bahmaní kingdom.

A. The Bahmaní kingdom was founded by Husain Gangu Bahmaní. Its first capital was Kolburga, and the second was Bidar. Husain died in 1358 and was succeeded by his son, Muhammad, who made himself master of Golkonda after defeating Vináyak Ráo, the brother of the king of Orangal. He insulted the Rájá of Vijaynagar, who, in revenge, invaded the Bahmaní kingdom, seized the Doáb, put to death the whole garrison of its chief city, Mukdal, and compelled Muhammad to make peace with him. Ahmad Sháh, the ninth king of the Bahmaní dynasty, subdued the Kákateya kingdom of Orangal in 1424 and annexed it to his dominions. He removed the capital to Bidar and died in 1435. His son, Aláuddín, conquered the Konkan and forced the petty chiefs to pay tribute. His son, Humáyun, appointed Khauja Mahmúd Gáwán, his prime minster. He died after reigning three years, leaving the regency in the hands of the Queen Mother, Mahmúd Gáwán, and Khauja Jahán Turk, as representatives of the foreign and Deccaní parties respectively. Muhammad Sháh's son, Nizám Sháh, had Khauja Jahán Turk assassinated, because he tried to usurp the supreme power in the State. Mahmúd Gáwán now became all in all in the court of the Bahmaní kings. He conquered Telingána, and annexed it to the Bahmaní kingdom. He extended the Muhammadan power from sea to sea by annexing the Konkan and the Northern Circars. Sultan Muhammad Sháh, the 13th Bahmaní king, captured Kánchí,

the holy city of the Hindus. In 1481 Mahmúd Gáwán was assassinated at the instance of Nizámul Mulk, the leader of the Deccaní party. In 1589, Yúsuf Adil Sháh declared himself independent at Bijapur, and Imádul Mulk, at Berar. Nizámul Mulk rose to the greatest power at Bidar. Mahmúd Sháh II., the 14th king of the Bahmaní dynasty, marched against Telingána at the head of his army and ordered Nizámul Mulk's execution. Nizam's son, Málik Ahmad, retired to his father's jágir, Junnair, and there declared himself independent in 1490. Thus the Bahmanís lost Bijapur, Berar, and Maháráshtra. The Northern Circars and Telingána seceded in 1412. The dynasty continued at Bidar for 14 years more when Amir Bárid brought about its ruin (1526).

Q 133. What were the two parties formed in the Bahmaní kingdom during the premiership of Mahmúd Gáwán ?

A. When Mahmúd Gáwán was prime minister of the Bahmaní kingdom, there arose two parties with opposite interests. One was the foreign party, composed of foreigners of Arabia, Persia, Turkey, and Egypt ; and the other was the Deccaní party, chiefly comprising Hindus and Abyssinian converts to Muhammadanism and the early Muhammadan settlers.

Q. 134. (a) Write a short biographical note on Mahmúd Gáwán. **(b)** Describe his character.

A. (a) Mahmúd Gáwán came to India as a merchant, and by dint of abilities and honesty attained the highest rank in the Bahmaní kingdom. He was appointed prime minister by Aláuddín Bahmaní's son, Humáyún. After the death of Khauja Jahán Turk, he became the right-hand man of the Bahmaní family. He conquered Telingána and annexed it to the Bahmaní dominions. He extended the Muhammadan power from sea to sea by annexing the

Konkan and the Northern Circars. He was the representative of the foreign party. He was put to death at the instigation of Nizamul Mulk, the leader of the Deccan party. His fiscal arrangements and his organisation of the educational, judicial, and military departments were excellent.

(b) Mahmúd Gáwán was an unselfish, modest, learned, able, and honest person. He gave away all his money in founding schools and colleges, in building mosques and hospitals, and helping the learned, and relieving the distressed.

Q. 135. Name the small kingdoms that arose out of the ruins of the Bahmaní kingdom.

A. The ruins of the Bahmaní kingdom led to the foundation of the small kingdoms of Berar, Bidar, Ahmadnagar, Golkonda, and Bijapur.

CHAPTER XI.

THE KINGDOM OF BERAR (1489-1572).

Q. 136. Trace the rise and fall of the kingdom of Berar.

A. In 1489 Fateh Ulla Imád Sháh established an independent kingdom in Berar. He was appointed governor of Berar by his patron, Mahmúd Gáwán. He made Gwailgarh his capital. His descendants acknowledged the supremacy of Bahádur Sháh, the king of Guzerat, to protect themselves against the aggressions of the kings of Ahmadnagar. In 1565 the king of Berar joined all the Muhammadan powers of the Deccan and subverted the kingdom of Vijaynagar. The king of Ahmadnagar, acting under the advice of the king of Bijápur, conquered and annexed Berar in 1572. Turfán Khán had Ahmadnagar and the remaining kingdoms of the Deccan annexed by Akbar to the Delhi empire. The capital was afterwards removed from Gwailgarh to Ellichpur.

A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA.

CHAPTER X.

THE KINGDOM OF BIDAR (1526-1609).

Q. 137. Write a short history of the kingdom of Bidar from 1526 to 1609 A. D.

A. After Mahmūd Gāwān's death, Kāsīm Bārid became master of Bidar, the capital of the Bahmani kingdom. His son, Amir Bārid, drove out the Bahmani kings from Bidar and made it independent; and his son, Ali Bārid assumed the title of Shāh. The Barid Shāhs brought about the ruin of their kingdom through their vile character and soon became dependent on the kingdom of Bijapur. The dynasty lingered on till 1609, when Bidar was annexed to the Mughal empire. There were seven kings of this dynasty, the last four of which were men of no note.

CHAPTER XI.

THE KINGDOM OF AHMADNAGAR (1491-1636).

Q. 138. Give an account of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar.

A. Nizamul Mulk a Muhammadan convert, was appointed by Gāwān as the governor of Junnair. The Deccani party made him its leader after Khauja Jahān's death. He died a violent death in the course of a few years, and was succeeded by his son, Ahmad, who declared himself independent and removed the capital from Junnair to Ahmadnagar, which he founded. Ahmad's Brāhman relatives being hard pressed by the king of Berar sought his protection. In 1527 Bahādur Shāh on behalf of his dependant, the king of Berar, invaded Ahmadnagar and compelled Burhān Nizām Shāh to submit to him. Shortly after, Burhān made himself free and entered into an alliance with the Rājā of Vijaynagar for dividing the Bijapur kingdom between themselves. Burhān failed in carrying out his

object, and the king of Bijapur, in revenge, allied himself with the king of Vijaynagar and harassed Bnrhán's son and successor, Husain Nizam Sháh. Husain seized Berar. His successors captured and annexed many hill forts in the Konkan and the Sahyádrí.

At this time there were two parties in Ahmadvnagar as in the other States of the Deccan ; one of foreigners, and the other of the Deccanis. On the death of the eighth king of Ahmadvnagar, a civil war broke out in 1594, and one of the above mentioned parties sought the assistance of Akbar, who had the capital captured and Berar annexed in 1603. Chánd Sultáná's exertions during these wars with the Mughals have become a household word to every Indian.

Even after the capture of the capital, the dynasty ruled over a great portion of its territories and founded a new capital at Kirki, now Aurangabad. The family, which comprised twelve kings, became extinct in 1636, when the kingdom was annexed to the Mughal empire

Q. 139. What do you know of Chánd Bibi and Málik Ambar ?

A. See Appendix p. 15 ; p. 21, Catechism.

CHAPTER XII.

THE KINGDOM OF GOLKONDA (1512-1688).

Q. 140. Write a short history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Golkonda.

A. Máhmúd Gáwán appointed Kuthul Mulk, the ruler of Telingána. His family ruled for one hundred and seventy-six years, and all the kings belonging to it died a violent death. They took one Hindu city after another and extended their power to the south and east. They annexed the cities of Rájmahéndrí and Orangal. Their capital was Golkonda ; it was afterwards transferred to Hyderabad. The Kuth

Sháhs rendered great help to the Deccaní kings in their war with Vijaynagar in 1665. The fifth king, Abdullá, conquered, with the assistance of his minister, Mir Jumlá, several small Hindu States in Karnát. The dynasty lingered on thirty years more ; and the kingdom was annexed to the Delhi empire in 1688.

Q. 141. Who was Mir Jumla ?

A. See Appendix p. 22, Catechism,

CHAPTER XIII.

THE KINGDOM OF BIJAPUR (1489-1686).

Q. 142. Trace the rise and fall of the kingdom of Bijapur.

A. The Bijapur kingdom was founded by Yúsuf Adil Sháh, a scion of the Imperial family of Constantinople. He was a slave of Mahmúd Gáwán, who appointed him Commander-in-Chief of the Bahmaní forces and bestowed on him the province of Bijapur as a jágir. On his master's death, he made himself king of Bijapur.

His son and successor, Ismáil Sháh, captured Bidar and made Amir Bárid prisoner. The Bárids became their dependants, though Amir Bárid was restored to independence. Ismáil defeated his brother-in-law, Burhán Nizám Sháh.

On Ismáil's death in 1534, Bubují Khánúm raised Adil Sháh to the throne. He constantly fought against the kings of Ahmadnagar and Vijaynagar. He died in 1557. His son, Ali Adil Sháh, invaded Ahmadnagar in unison with the Hindu Rájá of Vijaynagar in 1558. Incensed at the insults they received at the hands of the Hindus on this occasion, the rulers of the five Muhamáadan kingdoms in the Deccan attacked Vijaynagar, and after defeating its king, Rám Rájá, in the battle of Talikot in 1565, sacked and destroyed the capital. Ali Adil Sháh was murdered in

1579 A. D. After Ali Adil Sháh's death, his wife, Chánd Sultáná, became Regent on behalf of his minor son, Ibráhim. On her retirement from Bijapur, Ibráhim Adil Sháh assumed the government of the kingdom. He entered into an alliance with Akbar when the latter resolved to conquer Ahmadnagar. He had three successors. The kingdom of Bijapur was annexed to the Mogul empire in 1686.

Q. 143. What do you know of Búbují Khánum ?

A. See Appendix p. 13, Catechism.

CHAPTER XIV.

STATE OF INDIA UNDER THE PATHÁNS.

Q. 144. Describe the state of India under the rule of the Pathán emperors of Delhi.

A. The Pathán emperors held the great cities and planted colonies either of Afghán tribes or of foreign mercenaries ; the rest of the country was suffered to govern itself. The Hindus were let alone in the management of their social, religious, and municipal matters. The Patháns put down insurrections raised by the Hindus and protected the country from foreign invasion.

On the overthrow of the Patháns, a number of small independent Muhammadan kingdoms came into existence. The Muhammadans associated freely with the Hindus, who were entrusted with high offices in the State. Many Hindu shrines disappeared under their rule. The Hindus were often persecuted and their temples destroyed in places where the Muhammadan influence was supreme.

The aborigines and followers of Buddhist monks in large numbers became converts to Islam. The Telis and Joláhas of the North-Western Provinces and the Nikáris, Pájáris, Patuás, and other castes in Bengal were converted by the

Pirs (Muhammadan saints) and Fakirs (Muhammad and mendicants).

The *Śmṛiti* compilations of the Hindus were made during the Pathán period. Mádhavácháryya, Viśveśvar Bhatta, Chandeśwar, Vácháspati Miśra, Acháryya Churámani, Prótáprudra, Raghunandan, Kamalákar, and others flourished during this period.

A number of Hindu Reformers, preaching the doctrine of unity of God, arose under the influence of the Patháns who believed in one God. They prevailed upon men to renounce the world. The Hindu community was again divided into two classes, *viz*, the Bráhmans and the mendicants. The latter made the vernaculars the medium of their communication with the people and raised many dialects to the dignity of literary languages.

Q. 145. Describe the government of the Pathán emperors.

A. The Pathán emperors held India by the bayonet. They occupied the great cities and founded settlements either of Afghán tribes or the foreign mercenaries, and suffered the rest of the country to govern itself. They collected taxes from those territories that were under their direct sway and levied tributes from the dependent Hindu Rájás. They allowed the Hindus complete freedom in social, religious, or municipal matters and put down with a strong hand Hindu insurrections. They protected the country from foreign invasion.

Q. 146. Mention some monotheistic reformers that developed many dialects into literary languages.

A. Chaitanya's followers improved Bengali, Nának's, Punjabi; Kavíra's, Hindí; and Tukárám's, Máharáshtrí

BOOK V. SMALL HINDU KINGDOMS.

CHAPTER I:

THE KINGDOM OF VIJAYNAGAR (1336-1565).

Q. 147. Trace the rise and fall of the kingdom of Vijaynagar.

A. The founder of the kingdom of Vijaynagar was Bukka. His sons and grandsons were rulers of Southern India from 1336 to 1379. Their prime minister Mādhavāchāryya was a great general, and drove out the Musalmans from Goa. The Bahmanis frequently invaded Vijaynagar. Abdur Razzak, the ambassador of the king of Samarkand, was struck with admiration at the grandeur of the city of Vijaynagar in 1444. He speaks highly of the manners of the court. Deva Rāy II., the great-grandson of Harihar II., was probably the last of the Bukka family. A period of anarchy followed his death, during which each of the ministers tried to become supreme.

Narasinha at last destroyed his competitors and became king. His family was more powerful than the preceding one. His son and grandson, Krishnadev Rāy and Achyuta Rāy reigned from 1509 to 1530, and from 1530 to 1542, respectively. Achyuta had three sons, Sadāsiva, Rām Rājā, and Tiru Malla. Rām Rājā joined the king of Bijapur in invading Ahmadnagar and ill-treated the Musalmans. He was defeated and killed in the battle of Tālikot, in 1565, by the Musalmans, who led an expedition against Vijaynagar. The capital was razed to the ground. Sadāsiva removed his court to Pennākonda, where his brother, Tiru Malla, reigned for a long time. Venkatapati, Tiru Malla's son, removed the capital to Chandragiri. Venkatapati III., granted the site of Madras to the English in

1639. The pensioned chief of Annegundi is the representative of the Vijaynagar family.

Q. 148. What was the condition of Southern India after the overthrow of the Hoysála Balláls, of Dvārasamudra ?

A. The Muhammadans overran the whole of Southern India from Rámesvara to Malabar, where confusion and anarchy prevailed. The Delhi emperors had no direct control over these remote States. They sent out governors, who tried to make themselves masters of the kingdoms, or at least to secure a portion of them.

CHAPTER II.

THE KINGDOM OF REWA (1250-1895).

Q. 149. Give a short history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Rewa.

A. A branch of the Bághelás of Guzerat settled in Bághelkhund and gradually founded an empire there. Dalakešvar and Malakešvar of this family kept it up by defeating the emperor, Bulban, in battle. They annexed certain Muhammadan districts, and converted many musjids into temples. They fought hard against the Sultáns of Jaunpur and wrested from them Kálpi. Sikandar Lodí, Bábar, and Akbar treated them with great respect. Miyán Tánsen, the great musician, began his career as the musician of Rámchandradev, one of the Bághela kings. Their original capital was Bandogarkh, which was afterwards removed to Rewa, where their kingdom still exists.

CHAPTER III.

THE KINGDOM OF MEWAR (750-1895)

Q. 150. Trace the history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Mewar.

A. The early history of Mewar is lost in obscurity. Guha founded the *tribe* of the Ránás of Mewar, and Báppá Ráol, the *dynasty*. Samara Sinha of the family is said to have died at the battle of Tiraori in 1193. Aláuddín captured Chitor, which was regained by Hambíra, a scion of the old royal family. Maháráná Kumbha, a descendant of Hambíra, expelled the united armies of Málava and Guzera in their invasion of Mewar. The Muslims having about this time gained possession of Gya, the kings of Mewar led a crusade against them. Sangráma Sinha, another descendant of Hambíra, won sixteen battles against the Musalmans. He helped Bábar against Ibrahim Lodí, but when he perceived that the former intended to establish a dynasty in India he declared war against him, but was defeated with great slaughter at Sikri, near Agra, in 1527. Bábar captured Chanderi, the stronghold of Medint Ray. After Humáyún's fall, Bahádúr again laid siege to Chitor and destroyed it. Akbar twice besieged and destroyed it. This is the reason why the later Ránás abandoned Chitor and founded their new capital at Udaypur.

In 1568 Akbar invaded Mewar and destroyed Chitor, but the Ráná did not submit to the emperor. Nine years after this, the Ráná founded Udaypur in the depth of the Aravalli range. In 1571 the Rajputs revolted under the leadership of Ráj Sinha, the independent Ráná of Mewar, who compelled Aurangzeb to grant them favourable terms.

CHAPTER IV.

THE KINGDOM OF ORISSA (1050-1565).

Q. 151. Trace the history of the rise and fall of the kingdom of Orissa.

A. In the eighth century A. D., a branch of the Ganga family, reigning in a small principality in the southern Márháttá country, established itself in Kalinga. Rájrāja of

this dynasty married the daughter of Rājendra Chola. Chola Gangadev, the issue of this marriage, conquered, between the years 1081 and 1118, the kingdom of Utkala and built the temple of Jagannāth at Purī, in honour of his conquest. Narasinhadev, a descendant of Ananga Bhīmdev, fifth king of the dynasty, laid siege to Gaur during the reign of Alauddīn Khilijī and greatly harassed the Musalmāns of Bengal. The Uriyās are said to have occupied Bengal down to Trivenī. Prataprūdra of this line encouraged learning. During his reign Chāitanyadev lived at Purī and preached his doctrine of devotion. The king became his follower, and introduced his religion into his kingdom. Shortly after his death, a revolution took place in Orissa, which enabled Mukundadev of Telingāna to become king of Orissa. Kālāpāhār invaded Orissa and annexed it to the kingdom of Bengal in 1565.

CHAPTER V.

THE PORTUGUESE IN INDIA.

Q. 152. What European powers came to India and with what object?

A. By the end of the 15th century, the people of Western Europe had begun to come to India by sea. The Portuguese came first; the people of Holland, known by the name of the Olandāz, followed them. Then came the English, and, last of all, the French. The people of Eastern Europe had carried on trade with India as early as the time of Alexander the Great. The Arabs had, during the height of their prosperity, monopolised the trade of India and of the Indian Archipelago. The several European nations were anxious to do away with the monopoly; but the only passage to India, then known, lay through the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, which were under the control of the Venetians and the Arabs respectively.

In 1498 Vasco de Gama, a famous Portuguese navigator, doubled the Cape of Good Hope and landed at Calicut. The Portuguese being convinced that their rivals, the Arabs, must be ruined if their trade should flourish, sent a powerful fleet to India.

In 1507 the kings of Bijapur, Guzerat, and even of Egypt opposed the Portuguese, but in vain. Three years after they occupied Goa, but were afterwards driven out. They re-captured it and made it the capital of their possessions in the East.

Q. 153. What was meant by "the Western Route?"

A. By the phrase, "the Western Route" was meant the passage by which India might be reached by crossing the sea westwards.

BOOK VI. THE MUGHAL EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

BÁBAR (1526-1530).

Q. 154. What do you know of Bábar's early life?

A. Bábar was descended on his father's side from Timúr, and on his mother's from Changíz Khán. He succeeded to his father's kingdom, Farghána, when twelve years old. He twice seized Samarkand, which was at that time the capital of the Turkish empire. Being driven out of Samarkand, Farghána, and Balkh he took refuge in Kabul, where he became king in 1504. He had reigned there for twenty-two years before he invaded India.

Q. 155. Sketch briefly Bábar's subsequent career.

A. **Bábar** made himself master of the vast territory, extending from the western boundary of Bengal to the eastern limits of Persia, by defeating **Ibráhim Lodí** at **Panipat** in 1526. He led a successful expedition against **Daryá Khán Loháni** of Jaunpur, in which he obtained possession of **Benares** and **Patna**. Having completely subverted the **Pathán** power, he also crushed the **Rájput** influence by defeating **Ráná Sangrá́m Sinha** of **Chitor** at **Sikri** in 1527. **Bábar** died in 1530 A. D.

CHAPTER II.

HUMÁYU'N (1530-1540).

Q. 156. Give a short account of the war between **Humáyún** and **Sher Khán**.

A. **Sher Khán**, who had made himself master of the entire province of **Behar**, during the regency of **Dudu**, treacherously seized two hill forts named **Rhotás** and **Chunár**. Thus secure in **Behar**, he invaded **Bengal** and took possession of it. **Mahmúd**, the king of **Bengal**, appealed to **Humáyún** for protection. The emperor granted it and marched against **Sher Khán**. After taking **Chunár**, he invaded **Bengal** and occupied **Patna** and **Gaur** unopposed, while **Sher Khán** concealed himself in the jungles.

Heavy rains then deluged the whole country, and **Humáyún's** retreat was cut off. **Sher Khán** then issuing from his hiding place occupied **Behar**, **Benares**, and **Chunár**, and invaded **Kanauj** and **Jaunpur**.

In 1539 the emperor met **Sher Khán** at **Baxar** where his soldiers being panic-stricken fled. He also narrowly escaped to **Agra**. In the following year, **Humáyún** was defeated near **Kanauj** by **Sher Khán** and compelled to flee from India.

Q. 157. How was the **Pathán** empire re-established in India?

A. Humáyún's departure from India left Sher Khán supreme in Hindusthan. Bábar's second son, Kámran, made peace with him by making over the Punjab to him. Thus the Pathán empire was re-established in India in 1540. A. D., when Sher Khán became emperor of Delhi under the title of Sher Sháh.

Q. 158. What do you know of Sher Khán?

A. See Book vi., Chapter iii, Catechism.

CHAPTER III.

SHER SHÁH (1540-1545).

Q. 159. (a) Give a short sketch of Sher Sháh's reign. (b) Describe Sher Sháh's character.

A. (a) After occupying the Punjab, Sher Sháh erected a strong fort at Rhotás on the Jhelum, in order to prevent an invasion of Hindusthán from Kabul. In 1541 he conquered Málava and invested the hill fort of Ráysín. The garrison surrendered on being assured that their lives and properties would be spared, but he treacherously put them to the sword. In the following year, he invaded Márwár, but he was utterly repulsed by a Rájput chief. In 1543 he invested the fort of Kálanjara. Its ruler, Kírtti Sinha, defended it obstinately by keeping up an incessant fire from the ramparts. He died of a wound caused by a terrible explosion of his magazine. His son, Salím, took Kálanjara, and extirpated the Chandel dynasty.

(b) By dint of extraordinary perseverance and force of character, Sher Sháh conquered the whole of Hindusthán. He was an able ruler. He did much good to his subjects. He constructed a high way from Gaur to Rhotás, planted trees on its two sides, dug wells, and set up inns. He fixed the land revenue at one-fourth of the produce, and introduced a system of post horses.

CHAPTER IV.

SUCCESSORS OF SHER SHÁH (1545-1556).

Q. 160. Name the successors of Sher Sháh.

A. Sher Sháh's successors to the Delhi empire were Salím and Muhammad, popularly known as Adili.

Q. 161. Name the leading events that took place in the reign of Adili.

A. During Adili's reign, a rebellion broke out in Chunar. Adili and his minister, Himu, went there in person and put it down. In the meantime, Ibráhim Sur made himself master of Agra and Delhi, and Sikandar Sur occupied the Punjab. The former, in his attempt to oppose Himu in the Punjab, was defeated and put to flight by him. Muhammad Sur, the Governor of Bengal, broke out into an open revolt which was crushed by Himu. During this time Humáyún invaded the Punjab, whence he drove out the governor appointed by Sikandar Sur, and entered Sirhind. Humáyún defeated Sikandar at **Sirhind** and quietly occupied Agra and Delhi in 1555 A. D. He died shortly after.

Soon after Humáyún's death, Himu seized Agra, expelled Humáyún's garrison from Delhi, and assumed the title of Maharájádhiráj Vikramáditya. He now proceeded towards the Punjab. Humáyún's son, Akbar, then only fourteen years old, attacked Himu at **Panipat**, defeated and made him prisoner in 1556. Himu was afterwards beheaded by Akbar's guardian, Bairáñ Khán. Adili died in a war against his rebellious governor of Bengal.

Q. 162. Give a short sketch of Himu's career.

A. See Appendix p. 18, Catechism.

CHAPTER V.

AKBAR'S MINORITY. (1556-1560).

Q. 163. What do you know of the birth and early life of Akbar?

A. Akbar was born on the 14th October, 1542, at Amarkot, where his parents lived under the protection of its ruler, Ráná Prasád. Owing to his protector's growing indifference, his father had to flee to Persia, and on his way, he entrusted his son and wife to the care of one of his younger brothers, then governor of Herat. Akbar lived for four years under his uncle's care. But when Humáyún conquered Kandahar, Akbar was sent to him. During the war between Humáyún and Kámrán for the possession of Kabul, Akbar twice fell into the latter's hands and narrowly escaped from being killed. Secure at Kabul, Humáyún began to initiate Akbar into the administration. Akbar fought bravely by his father's side at the storming of Ghazni.

After the battle of Pánipat, Akbar seized Agra and Delhi. The atrocities of his guardian, Bairám Khan, led Akbar to rid himself of him. On a plea of seeing his mother, who was reported to be seriously ill at Delhi, he left his guardian's camp and took upon himself independent charge of the administration in 1560.

Q. 164. What do you know of Bairám Khán ?

A. See Appendix, p. 11, Catechism.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CONQUEST OF HINDUSTHÁN (1560-1592).

Q. 165. Name the places that were under the immediate and direct control of Akbar on his accession to the throne of Delhi.

A. Kabul, Delhi, and the Punjab actually owned Akbar's supremacy when he ascended the throne of Delhi. The remaining provinces of his vast empire were, to all intents and purposes, independent.

Q. 166. What was the source of Akbar's weakness as emperor of Delhi ?

A. When Akbar became emperor of Delhi, the Afgháns possessed great influence. They were aliens ; and therefore he was in an almost helpless position. His army consisted of a number of adventurers from Tartary and Turkisthan, who cared more for their own gain than for the stability of his empire.

Q. 167. How did Akbar establish peace in his dominions ?

A. The Patháns under Sher Sháh II. had invaded Jaunpur, and Akbar sent his general, Khán Zamán, who checked their advance but attempted to make himself independent. Báṛ Bahádúr, the son of Sher Sháh's governor of Málava, having established himself as an independent sovereign, Akbar despatched Adam Khán against him. He also tried to become independent. Akbar unexpectedly marched against him. Adam Khán was defeated and transferred to a distant province. Báṛ Bahádúr was subdued by Abdul Khán Uzbek. Asaf Khán, a general of Akbar, obtained immense booty by the conquest of Garamandal, and on Akbar's demanding the money, he raised the standard of rebellion. But these disturbances did not alarm Akbar, who quelled them one after another.

Q. 158. Give a short account of Akbar's dealings with the Rájputs.

A. Rájá Vihári Mall and his son, Bhagavándás of Amber, were his intimate friends. He married the daughter of Vihári Mall, and appointed both his father-in-law and his brother-in-law to high offices in the State. After a short fighting the Rájá of Márwar made peace with him. Akbar invaded Chitor, and Uday Sinhá, the Ráná of Mewar, evacuated it in 1568. After nine years Pratáp Sinhá, the son of the Ráná, founded the present capital of Udaypur. The Ránás of Udaypur never submitted, nor did they enter into matrimonial relationship with the emperors of Delhi. In 1570 Kálanjara and Ranasthambhapur fell into Akbar's hands.

Q. 169. How were Guzerat, Bengal, Káśmír, Sindh, and Kandahár annexed to the Mughal empire ?

A. (a) Itimád Khán, a Hindu slave, having been converted to Muhammadanism, became supreme in Guzerat, and governed the country in the name of Muzaffar III. This created a great disturbance, which was fanned into flame by a large number of Mirzás expelled by Akbar. Itimád Khán, unable to cope with them, joined Akbar, who, in the course of a few months, annexed Guzerat to his dominions.

(b) Dáúd Khán, the last of the Kiráni kings, with the assistance of the turbulent Pathán nobles driven from Hindusthán, attempted to evade the terms of the treaty, and Akbar sent an army to Bengal and occupied it. Dáúd fled to Orissa. The Mughals, on the other hand, became defiant. Akbar sent Mán Sinha and Todar Mall who governed Bengal for a long time. The Patháns, though humbled and subdued, possessed considerable influence in Orissa where they were given vast jágirs by Akbar. His brother, Hákim Mirzá, rebelled against him but was subdued. Akbar appointed Rájá Bhagavándás viceroy of the Punjab in 1582.

(c) Shamsuddín deposed and killed the last Hindu Rájá of Káśmír during the middle of the 14th century. About the year 1540, the Tibetans invaded Káśmír, and a period of anarchy followed. Akbar conquered it and granted the Rájá an extensive jágir in Behar. He became a member of Akbar's court and lived at Delhi.

(d) Akbar invaded Sindh, whence its original inhabitants were driven out by a race of military adventurers. He appointed its king a member of his own court.

(e) Kabul was always looked upon as a part of the Mughal empire. Akbar annexed Kandahár to his dominions in 1594.

Q. 170. Give a short account of Akbar's conquest of the Deccan.

A. In 1572, the king of Ahmadnagar conquered Berar. Shortly after, a civil war broke out there, which led Akbar to interfere. In 1595, Akbar, being invited by the party which occupied Ahmadnagar, sent an army to capture it.

Chánd Sultáná baffled his attempt, though she was obliged to make peace with him by ceding Berar. Chánd Bibi was shortly after murdered by the citizens, which afforded the Mughals an opportunity of investing it. Ahmadnagar was captured, and its king removed to the fort of Gwalior. The kingdom of Ahmadnagar was not, however, destroyed. Málik Ambar removed the capital to Khirki and defeated Jahángir's armies and regained Ahmadnagar in 1570. He again seized it and invaded Málava but was compelled by Khurram to retire. (For the subsequent history of Ahmadnagar, see Sháh Jahán's reign). The king of Khándeś sought Akbar's protection against the Nizám Sháhí kings. Akbar annexed Khándeś, Berar, and a portion of Ahmadnagar, and appointed his son, Dániyál, as the viceroy of his possessions in the Deccan. The kings of Golkonda and Bijapur courted Akbar's friendship by sending ambassadors to his court.

Q. 171. Give a brief account of prince Salím's rebellion.

A. Salím, the eldest son of Akbar, was appointed Subadár of Ajmir. He rose against his father, assumed the title of king, and occupied Behar, Allahabad, and Oudh. To conciliate him, Akbar appointed him Subadár of Bengal and Orissa. Shortly afterwards, Salím came to Agra and became reconciled to his father.

CHAPTER VIII.

AKBAR'S CHARACTER.

Q. 172. Describe Akbar's character.

A. Akbar was a man of wonderful genius. He was very tender to human suffering and was never hard upon any one without cause. He was not fond of war; but when

he could not help launching upon it, he made every arrangement for bringing it to a successful issue. His power of endurance was great, and he never shrank from making long and rapid journeys. He encouraged learning, and was fond of music. He was very fond of wit and raillery.

Q. 173. What was Akbar's attitude towards the Hindus ?

A. Akbar's attitude towards the Hindus was conciliatory. He abolished the *jizya* (poll-tax) which his predecessors imposed upon them. He did away with many Hindu rites, which appeared cruel to him. He discouraged the *Sati* rite. He granted religious toleration. He abolished the taxes on Hindu pilgrims, and encouraged the cultivation of Sanskrit.

Q. 174. What do you know of the Iláhi religion ?

A. See Appendix p. 46, Catechism.

Q. 175. Give a short account of the literary activity during Akbar's reign.

A. Akbar encouraged the cultivation of Sanskrit. He made its study the passport to high offices in the State. The *Rámáyana*, *Mahábhárata*, *Kathá-sarit-ságara*, and many other Sanskrit works were translated into Persian during his reign. Urdu and Hindi poets received every encouragement. Faizi was the first Musalman to study Sanskrit philosophy.

Q. 176. What do you know of the following persons :—(a) Faizi, (b) Abul Fazl, (c) Vírbal, and (d) Tódar Mall ?

A. (a) See Appendix p. 17, (b) p. 10 ; (c) p. 34 ; (d) p. 73 ; Catechism.

Q. 177. State what you know of Akbar's revenue administration.

A. Akbar divided his empire into fifteen Subás (provinces) ; a Subadár was appointed as the head of each to

keep its peace. There was also a Diván (revenue-officer) whose chief duty was to collect the revenue and sometimes to try civil suits. Akbar fixed the revenue, of Bengal and the Deccan at one third of the produce. He had the whole of Hindusthán surveyed, classified lands according to their fertility, and introduced the system of payment of revenue in money instead of in kind.

Q. 178. What do you know of Akbar's organisation of his army?

A. Akbar introduced the system of paying his soldiers at a fixed monthly rate. He was averse to granting jagirs to them. The generals received jagir to keep a fixed number of men. The *umaráhs* (nobles) were given commands of one to five thousand men. Commands of twelve thousand were reserved for princes of the royal blood only.

CHAPTER IX.

JAHÁNGIR (1605-1627).

Q. 179. What disturbance took place in the beginning of Jahángír's reign?

A. Jahángír's eldest son, Khusru, annoyed at the accession of his father, broke out into a rebellion in the Punjab and seized Lahore. Jahángír put down the rising in which 700 of Khusru's followers were impaled. Khusru himself was confined in the fort of Kabul, where he died.

Q. 180. What do you know of : (a) Mahábat Khán and (b) Sir Thomas Roe?

A. See Appendix : (a) p. 21 ; (b) p. 30, Catechism.

Q. 181. What led to Khurram's rebellion against his father, and how did it terminate?

A. Jahángír's wife, Núr Jahán, married a daughter by her former husband to Jahángír's fourth son, Shehryár, for whom she tried to secure the succession. Her partiality for

him led Khurram, the third son, to rise against his father in Bengal. He was put to death.

CHAPTER. X.

SHÁH JAHÁN (1627-1658).

Q. 182. Give a brief account of the final conquest of Ahmadnagar.

A. Sháh Jahán's general, Khán Jahán Lodí, joined with the king of Ahmadnagar and raised a rebellion in the Deccan, which was put down, and Ahmadnagar annexed to the Delhi empire in 1636. Shivaji's father, Sháhji, surrendered it to them and entered the service of the Bijapur State.

Q. 183. Give a short sketch of Mir Jumlá's career.

A. See Appendix, p. 22, Catechism.

Q. 184. How many sons had Sháh Jahán ? Describe briefly the character of each.

A. Sháh Jahán had four sons ;—(1) Dára, the eldest, resembled Akbar in many respects. He was a follower of the Iláhi religion. (2) Shujá, the second son, was an able general but was self-indulgent and addicted to wine. (3) The third was Aurangzeb, who was able and artful. (4) The fourth, Murád, was young and thoughtless.

Q. 185. (a) Describe the civil war that raged among Sháh Jahán's sons for the succession. (b) How did it terminate ?

A. In 1658, Sháh Jahán fell seriously ill. Aurangzeb won over Murád against Dára, Subadár of Guzerat, by artful professions. Yaśovanta Sinha, the Subadár of Málava, opposed the united army of Aurangzeb and Murád on behalf of Dára, but was defeated and compelled to flee to his own country (April, 1648). With the help of his Rájput supporters, Dára defeated Sháh Shujá at Benares and returned to Agra. Aurangzeb met Dára near Agra.

defeated and compelled him to flee to Delhi, in June 1658. The victor then seized Agra and sent Murád a prisoner to Gwalior, and proclaimed himself emperor under the title of Alamgír.

Q. 186. Describe Sháh Jahán's character ?

A. Sháh Jahán was a man of mild disposition, and never injured any one without cause. He always tried to do justice and was very popular. He looked upon Hindus and Musalmans with an equal eye. He was fond of pompous display.

Q. 187. What grand edifices were caused to be erected by Sháh Jahán ?

A. Sháh Jahán caused the Táj Mahal and the Peacock Throne to be erected.

CHAPTER XI.

AURANGZEB (1658-1683).

Q. 188. Narrate the leading events that took place during the early part of Aurangzeb's reign.

A. After his accession to the throne of Delhi, Aurangzeb appointed Mir Jumlá, Subadár of Bengal. Mir Jumlá died at Dacca of a broken heart. He next made peace with Sivaji in 1666, by which he undertook to pay the founder of the Márháttá empire one-fourth of the revenue of certain Subás and to give his son a command of five thousand

Q. 189. What led the Rájputs to rebel against Aurangzeb ?

A. The re-imposition of the jizya on the Hindus by Aurangzeb, in 1671, created great discontent. The request of the Rájput generals to abolish the tax was disregarded, and the Rájputs rose in rebellion. They were headed by Ráj Sinha, the Ráná of Udaypur. After an arduous and protracted struggle, Aurangzeb was obliged to grant him favourable terms.

Q. 190. What was the condition of the Deccan in 1683?

A. Besides the kingdom of Bijapur and Golkonda, a powerful Hindu kingdom had been established by Sivaji, extending over 200 miles in length and one hundred in breadth and full of inaccessible mountains and impregnable hill forts.

CHAPTER XII.

AURANGZEB. (Concluded).

Q. 191. Describe briefly Aurangzeb's conquests in the Deccan.

A. Aurangzeb proceeded to the Deccan with an immense army in 1683. He at first subdued the Konkan with the aid of his eldest son, Sháh Álam. Sambhújí, the king of the Márháttás, harassed him very much. The Márháttás entered Guzerat, plundered Baroach, and made a treaty with the king of Golkonda, to oppose the Mughals. Aurangzeb invaded Golkonda, which fell into his hands, owing to the treachery of the commander-in chief, Ibráhim Khán, and the rising of the Muhammadan citizens. Aurangzeb made peace with the king of Golkonda on very favourable terms in 1686.

Immediately after this Aurangzeb laid siege to Bijapur, which fell in 1688.

Aurangzeb then sent his generals to conquer the small kingdoms in the south. Sambhújí was surprised at Sangamesvar and taken prisoner. The Márháttás had already laid waste all the Subás in the Deccan. They now fell upon Málava and Guzerat. They re-captured all the hill forts, and Aurangzeb, in despair, fell back upon Ahmadnagar, where he died in 1707.

Q. 192. Contrast the Mughal army with that of the Márháttás.

A. The Mughals had to spend vast sums of money in sending a handful of men anywhere. They had to provide for supplies, and engaged camp followers. The Mughal soldiers required special training, and it was difficult to replace a soldier when he died, or became incapacitated for active service. The Márháttás required even no saddles for their horses. A few seats of gram tied at the end of their clothes were enough. They required no tents at night; but slept beneath large trees. They never engaged in pitched battles. They plundered the commissariat, laid waste the country in the rear of the enemy, and increased the difficulty of procuring supplies. They stole horses and camels from the enemy's camp. Every Márháttá was a born horseman and soldier.

Q. 193. Describe Aurangzeb's character.

A. Aurangzeb alienated the Rájputs, the Sikhs and the Játs by his bigotry. He was always suspicious and never trusted even his sons. He persecuted the Hindus.

CHAPTER XIII.

BAHÁDUR SHÁH (1707—1712).

Q. 194. How did Bahádur Sháh come in possession of the throne of Delhi?

A. Prince Sháh Álam was kept a prisoner at a large in the camp of his father, because the latter suspected him of holding treasonable intercourse with the last king of Golkonda. He was afterwards sent to Kabul as Subadár on his father's death, under the title of Bahádur Sháh.

Q. 195. Give a short account of the war of succession that broke out immediately after Aurangzeb's death.

A. After the accession of Bahádur Sháh, his brother, prince Azim, proclaimed himself emperor and marched to Agra with the wreck of the Deccan army, where he was killed with all his family. Bahádur's another brother, prince Kám Baksh, defied his authority. Bahádur defeated and killed him, and appointed Zulfikar Khán as Subadár of the Deccan. Bahádur Sháh terminated the Rájput war by declaring Jaypur, Udaypur, and Jodhpur independent.

Q. 196. Trace the rise of the Sikhs at the end of the fifteenth century.

A. Báábá Nának preached a new religion, which inculcated that God accepts the worship of sincere and devout Hindus and Musalmans alike. Nának's followers were known as Sikhs. They led a peaceful life at Lahore and its neighbourhood for a long time. Their *Guru* (preceptor) became involved in Khusru's revolt in 1606, which was put down with a strong hand. About 1675, the tenth *Guru* bred them up as veteran soldiers. The Musalmans captured their forts and persecuted the Sikhs. The Sikhs now attacked the eastern portion of the Punjab under the command of Bánda, destroyed the Masjids and came up to Sháháranpur, ravaging the tracts on the way. Bahádur Sháh himself marched against them and captured a hill fort.

Q. 197. Who succeeded Bahádur Sháh? What do you know of him?

A. Bahádur Sháh's eldest son succeeded him as emperor of Delhi under the title of Jahándár Sháh, and reigned for six months only. His younger brother's son, Fárukh-siyár, defeated and killed Jahándár Sháh with the assistance of Husain Ali and his brother, Abdullá, the governor of Allahabad, and ascended the throne of Delhi.

CHAPTER XIV.

FĀRUKHSIYĀR (1712-1719).

Q. 198. What do you know of the Saiyyad brothers?

A. Husain Ali and his brother, Abdullā, were appointed by Fārukhsiyār his prime minister and commander-in chief respectively, and were known as the Saiyyad brothers. (For further particulars, see Appendix p. 19, Catechism.)

Q. 199. Mention the leading events that took place in Fārukhsiyār's reign.

A (1) Fārukhsiyār sent Husain Ali against the Rājā of Mārwar. Husain Ali concluded a treaty with the Rājā and brought the war to a close.

(2) Husain Ali was sent to the Deccan as Subadār where he defeated and killed his opponent, Dāud Khān, the Subadār of Guzerat.

(3) The Mārhattās, at the instance of the emperor, harassed Husain Ali, who made peace with them in 1717, on condition that Rājā Sāhu should be restored to the territories of his predecessors and receive the *chauth* and *sardeśmukhi* of all the Subās in the Deccan, and that Sāhu should pay a tribute of ten lakhs of rupees a year, and maintain a contingent of 15,000 horse for the imperial service.

(4) Husain Ali baffled a plot laid against himself and his brother by Fārukhsiyār by putting an end to the emperor's life in 1719.

Q. 200. Narrate the circumstances that led the Nizam to declare himself independent.

A. The Saiyyad brothers offended Chin Kalich Khān by compelling him to accept the governorship of Moradabad. They then made him Subadār of Mālava, instead of the Deccan. He defeated both of them and made himself master of the Deccan. The Nizams of Hyderabad have been sprung from his descendants.

Q. 201. What brought about the overthrow of the Sriyyad baothers ?

A. Husain Ali having discovered a conspiracy formed against him by the emperor, Muhmmad Sháh, resolved upon carrying the emperor with him to the Deccan ; but he was on his way assassinated by a fierce Kálmuk. After Husain Ali's death, his brother, Abdullá, was easily killed.

CHAPTER XV.

MUHAMMAD SHÁH (1719-1739).

Q. 202. Trace the origin of the Oudh family of kings.

A. Sádat Ali was the founder of the Oudh family. He was made Subadár of Allahabad and Oudh in 1732. His descendants were the famous Nawabs of Oudh. They were the proteges of the English, who raised them to the dignity of kings. Disorder and misrule led the Court of Directors to order the annexation of Oudh, which was accomplished by Dalhousie in 1856. Wájid Ali Sháh was brought down to Calcutta, and a pension of twelve lakhs of rupees a year was settled on him.

Q. 203. How did Muhamnad^a Sháh lose Málava and Guzerat ?

A. The Márháttás conquered Guzerat and Málava during Muhammad Sháh's reign. They killed the governor of the former with his whole family and drove that of the latter. Another Subadár, Rájá Jay Sípha II. of Jaypur, ceded Málava to the Márháttás and made peace with them. The whole country between the Narmadá and the Chambal was finally made over to them in 1738.

Q. 204. Give a short account of Nádir Sháh's invasion.

A. Nádir was originally a soldier of fortune. After

capturing Ispahán he ascended the throne of Persia, under the title of Sháh. He next conquered Russia, Turkey, and Afghánisthán. In 1739 he invaded India. Sádāt Ali and the Nizam opposed him about 100 miles to the west of Delhi, but in vain. Enraged at the raillery of the citizens of Delhi, he ordered a wholesale massacre, which lasted from early dawn to 3 o'clock in the afternoon. Laden with booty including the Peacock Throne, he left Delhi, and returned home, having first reinstated Muhammad Sháh on the throne and having called on the Indian nobles to obey the emperor on pain of his vengeance.

CHAPTER XVI.

MUHAMMAD SHÁH (Concluded). (1739-1748).

Q. 205. What was the state of the Mughal empire after Nádir's departure ?

A. When Nádir Sháh left India, the Márháttás were the master of the whole of the Deccan. Málava and Guzerat had severed from the Mughal empire. The Sikhs held Sirhind and the Punjab in their power. Sádāt Ali made himself supreme in the provinces between Agra and Bengal. The Rohillas occupied the Subás of Agra and Delhi. The Játs had already held a portion of the Subá of Agra. Kabul, Kandahár, and the districts to the west of the Sindh had been annexed to Persia. In fact, the Mughal empire was in a very wretched state. The emperor was weak and powerless, and his army, dissipated and disorganised.

Q. 206. Give a brief account of the invasion of Bengal by the Márháttás.

A. Raghuji Bhonslá, the Márháttá Rájá of Nagpur, invaded Bengal in 1742. Ali Vardi Khán entreated the emperor for help. At the instance of the emperor, the

Peshwa proceeded to Bengal and expelled Raghuji, but he himself plundered the country.

Q. 207. (a) Who was Ahmad Sháh Abdálí? (b) Give a short account of his first invasion of India?

A. (a) Ahmad Sháh Abdálí was a general of Nádir Sháh. On his master's death, he conquered Afghánistán, Kandahár, Balkh, Kásmír, and Sindh.

(b) **1st. invasion.** He then marched against India. Lahore soon fell into his hands. In his first invasion he was driven back by prince Ahmad, Muhammad Sháh's eldest son.

CHAPTER XVII.

SUCCESSORS OF MUHAMMAD SHÁH (1741-1761).

Q. 208. Give a brief outline of Ahmad Sháh Abdálí's second, third, and fourth invasions of India, stating the results on each occasion.

A. Second invasion.—In 1751 Ahmad Sháh Abdálí made a second invasion of India during Ahmad Sháh's reign. He seized Lahore and threatened to attack Delhi. Peace was purchased by the cession of the Punjab.

Third invasion.—In 1756 Ahmad Sháh Abdálí entered India for the third time during the reign of Álamgir II. and sacked Delhi. The emperor surrendered to him at discretion. The invader married a Mughal princess and appointed Najimuddaulá, a Rohilla chief, as commander-in-chief of the emperor's army.

Fourth invasion.—In 1759 Ahmad Sháh Abdálí directed his fourth invasion against India. Raghava, the Peshwa's brother, had, at the instance of Gháziuddin, the grandson of the Nizam, overrun the Punjab and sent a large army under the command of Sadásiva Ráo to expel Ahmad Sháh. Ahmad Sháh occupied and sacked Delhi a second time, and

crushed the Márháttá power in the battle of Pánipat on January 6th. 1761.

Q. 209. When, where, and with what results was the battle fought that led to the subversion of the Mughal power ?

A. The third battle of Pánipat fought on 6th January, 1761, led to the subversion of the Mughal empire. The Subadár of Oudh and the Rohillas joined Sadásiva Rao, the leader of the Márháttá army, to oppose Ahmad Sháh Abdáli. The Rohillas were put to flight by Sadásiva's Musalman general, Ibráhim Khán Gardi. Ahmad Sháh utterly defeated the combined army of the allies at Pánipat. The Márháttás fled from the battle-field. Sadásiva Rao and Viśvas Rao were killed in the action, and Ibráhim Khán Gardi was taken prisoner. The Márháttás were almost crushed.

Q. 210. How did the Márháttás conquer Lahore during the reign of Álamgir ?

A. Rághava, the Peshwa's brother, at the suggestion of Gháziuddín and the invitation of Adina Beg, governor of the Punjab, overran the province and appointed a Márháttá its Subadár in 1758.

Q. 211. Why was Gháziuddín called a king-maker ?

A. Gháziuddín was called a king-maker, because he murdered the emperor, Ahmad Sháh, and raised a son of Jahándár Sháh to the throne under the title of Álamgir II. in 1754. Gháziuddín put Álamgir II. to death in 1759 and placed the emperor's son on the throne of Delhi under the title of Sháh Álam II.

Q. 212. Name the successors of Muhammad Sháh and mention the leading events in the reign of each.

A. (1) Ahmad Sháh succeeded Muhammad Sháh in 1748.

The leading events of his reign were the second and third invasions of Ahmad Sháh Abdáli and the conquest of Lahore by the Márháttás. (2) Sháh Álam II. ascended the throne of Delhi after his father's death in 1759. The fourth and most terrible invasion of India by Ahmad Sháh Abdáli, which culminated in the third battle of Pánipat, and the grant of the Diváni of the provinces of Bengal and Behar to the East India Company in 1765, which made over Kora and Allahabad, occurred in his reign. The discontinuance of his pension and the sale of Kora and Allahabad in 1772, signalled his nominal authority as an emperor, though he kept up a kind of court at Allahabad as a British pensioner. (3) Sháh Álam's son, Akbar II., succeeded to the nominal dignity in 1806. (4) On the death of Akbar II. in 1837, his son, Bahádur Sháh II., joined the Sepoy Mutiny in 1857, and was consequently banished by the English to Rangoon, where he died in 1862. With Bahádur's transportation the title "Emperor of Delhi" was abolished, and the Mughal empire came to an end.

BOOK VII.

REVIVAL OF THE HINDUS.

Q. 213. Describe the condition of the Indian people under the Pathán emperors.

A. The Pathán emperors held the greater part of northern and nearly a third of Southern India in military occupation. Colonies of Afgháns, or Muhammadan hirelings from Central Asia, held the great centres of Hindu power and influence in check. The Pathán emperors seldom interfered with the rest of the country, provided that the Hindu Rájás acknowledged them as masters and paid tribute. The Hindu Rájás defied the power of the Muhammadans in

many out-of-the-way places and there developed types of civilisation on the ancient Hindu model, greatly modified by the Muhammadan influence around them.

Q. 214. Describe the condition of India under the small kingdoms that arose on the ruins of the Pathán empire.

A. The whole country was in a perpetual stir. The Hindus lost their mountain fastnesses. The principalities of Tigrárá, Kamatpur, Birbhum, Orangal, Champánagar, Orissa, and others were conquered by the Muhammadans. Friendly intercourse seems to have sprung up between the Hindus and the Muhammadans. The fierce spirit of proselytism had considerably abated. A spirit of mutual toleration grew up between the conquerors and conquered.

Q. 215. (a) What was Akbar's policy? (b) State its results.

A. (a) Akbar fostered the spirit of toleration that sprang up between the Hindus and the Muhammadans. He encouraged friendly intercourse between them, and employed the Hindus in the higher offices of the State. The Muhammadans respected learned Bráhmans and Sannyásís while the Hindus accepted the Muhammadan Pirs and Fakirs as spiritual leaders.

(b) The thrifty Hindus grew in wealth and power, and became a source of strength to the Mughul empire. The small independent Hindu States prospered, and their chiefs often took military service under the emperors.

Q. 216. What was Aurangzeb's policy? And state its effects.

A. Aurangzeb's bigoted policy alienated the Hindu subjects and chiefs. The Rájputs, the Játs, the Sikhs, and the wild tribes rose in rebellion, and the Márháttás resolved to establish an independent kingdom in the very heart of the Muhammadan States, and destroy the Mughál empire.

Q. 217. Describe the extent of the political

power of the Hindus during the Muhammadan period.

A. The Hindus were very powerful in the extreme north and south of India as well as in the forests of Central India. A Gurkhá kingdom was established in the Himálayan provinces, and the Maisur State was consolidated. The Márháttás occupied the greater part of Central India.

CHAPTER I.

SIVAJI.

Q. 218. What was the condition of the Márháttá country under the Musalmans before Śivaji's rise ?

A. After the dismemberment of the Bahmaní empire the Márháttá country was divided between the kingdoms of Admadnagar and Bijapur. The task of collecting revenue and garrisoning hill forts was left to Hindu chiefs, many of whom rose to great eminence by their distinguished services. Of these chiefs, two served the Ahmadnagar and seven, the Bijapur state. The chiefs received a tenth of the revenue as their remuneration, which was called sardeś-mukí.

Q. 219. Sketch the early career of Śivaji.

A. Sháhji was one the Márháttá chiefs, who served the Ahmadnagar State and had his jágir at Poona. He was married to the daughter of the other Márháttá chief under the same Government. Śivaji was the issue of this marriage. During Śivaji's minority, Sháhji entered the service of the Bijapur State and was sent to the Carnatic to conquer the petty Hindu chiefs there. Śivaji was left at Poona under the care of an old Bráhman officer of the family, Dádáji Kondeb, who trained him in a thoroughly Hindu fashion. Śivaji early displayed a liking for warlike exercises and became the

leader of the *Máwális*, a wild tribe inhabiting the neighbourhood of Poona. *Śivajī* afterwards turned these *Máwális* into soldiers of his own.

On the death of *Dādājī* he assumed the management of the *jágir* without any reference to his father and employed its entire resources to increase the number of his soldiers. In 1646 he took possession of *Torná*, a strong hill fort belonging to the Bijapur State. Soon after this he built Raygarh and acquired *Purandar*. He plundered a convoy of treasure belonging to the king of Bijapur.

Q. 220. Describe *Śivajī's* war with Bijapur.

A. Causes.—The conquest of *Torna* and the plunder of the convoys incited the king of Bijapur against *Śivajī*. But before commencing hostilities, the king sent for *Sháhjī* and shut him up in prison in the hope that his father's distress might induce *Śivajī* to submit. But *Śivajī* wrote a letter to *Sháh Jahán* offering his services to that monarch. This alarmed the king of Bijapur, who set *Sháhjī* free. *Śivajī* in the course of two or three years conquered the whole of the Konkan, which belonged to Bijapur. The king, alarmed at the rapid growth of *Śivajī's* power, sent a Pathán general, *Afzal Khán*, against him. *Śivajī* induced the general into a private conference with him in which he killed him. The king took the field in person, but soon left the conduct of the war in the hands of *Báji Ghorpure*, a *Márháttá Jágirdar* of Bijapur. *Śivajī* suddenly attacked his capital and killed him with his whole family.

Q. 226. Describe the wars of *Śivajī* with the Mughals.

A. On the release of his father, *Śivajī*, for the first time plundered Mughal territories and captured a number of horses, which formed the first beginning of the famous *Bargir*, or *Márháttá* horsemen. The Mughal emperor sent *Sháyiṣtha Khán* against him. He took possession of Poona, and fixed

his residence at Sivaji's palace. But Sivaji surprised him there, and fled away with the loss of a finger. Rájá Jay Sinha was next sent against Sivaji. He induced Sivaji to come to terms with the Mughal emperor and to accept an invitation to visit Delhi. Sivaji was very much ill treated, and attempts were made to have him assassinated. He, however, escaped in a basket, which was supposed to carry presents to Bráhmans, and reached his capital safe, after a year's travel in disguise. After two years of hard work in settling his government, Sivaji was informed that the emperor had issued orders to have him arrested and sent to Delhi. Upon this he took the offensive, captured Sinhagarh, plundered Surat, and occupied Kalyán. The Mughals were not in a position to check him.

Q. 218. Describe Sivaji's system of administration.

A. Sivaji was a mere jágirdár. He assumed the title of Rájá in 1666 and Mahárájá in 1674. He had eight councillors named Pradháns. The Peshwa was the chief of the Pradháns. The commander of the army and the overseer of justice were also two of the Pradháns. He used to pay his soldiers monthly salary and appropriated all the plunder to himself on behalf of the State. He was very punctual in the collection of revenue and very liberal in the treatment of prisoners of war.

Q. 219. Describe the character of Sivaji.

A. Sivaji was the son of a petty landholder, but he was the first to aspire to independence. He turned quiet peasants into hard-working soldiers. He not only founded an independent kingdom but inspired the whole Márháttá nation with the spirit of independence. He was himself a thorough Hindu. He delighted in encouraging Hindu religion and Hindu politics. Sivaji was the independent king of the two principalities, viz. Poona and Tanjore. He held

Ráýgarh by right of the sword, and Tanjore was transferred in full sovereignty by the king of Bijapur in reward of his services against the Mughals.

CHAPTER II.

SUCCESSORS OF ŚIVAĀI (1680-1750).

Q. 22. Who was Śambhuġi? What were the principal events of his reign?

Śivaji died in 1680, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Śambhuġi, though not without struggle. Śambhuġi showed some vigour in the early years of his reign, but he soon became very lazy and whimsical. After the annexation of Bijapur and Golkonda to the Mughal empire, Aurangzeb turned his attention to the conquest of the Márháttá kingdom. One of his generals surprised Śambhuġi at one of his haunts of pleasure and brought him captive to Aurangzeb, who had him executed (1689).

Q. 221. Who was Rájá Sáhu, and why was he so called?

A. On the death of Śambhuġi his son, Śivaji the second, became king; but he was betrayed into the hands of Aurangzeb, who used to call him Sáhu, or an honest man as opposed to thieves by which appellation he called Śivaji I. and Śambhuġi I.

Q. 222. Who was Rájá Rám, and what were the principal events of his reign?

A. On the capture of their minor king the Márháttás raised Rájá Rám, the second son of Śivaji to the throne. The Mughals had then conquered nearly the whole of the Márháttá country, and Rájá Rám had to flee to the Karnát and hold his court at Ginji, which Aurangzeb ordered to be invested without delay. The siege lasted for several years, after which Zulfikár Khán succeeded in taking the place. But Rájá Rám escaped. He came back to the

Márháttá country where many hill forts had already been re-captured by his men. He established his capital at Satára, levied *chauth*, or the fourth part of revenue from every foreign country, and invented a new import named *Ghásdáná* (forage money) to encourage his plundering chiefs. He died of exhaustion in 1700.

Q. 227. Describe the subsequent history of Śivají's family.

A. On the death of Rájá Rám, his minor son, Śivají III. became king, and his mother Tárábái, regent. To avoid being surprised she always travelled with her minor son from one place to another and governed the country well. But her son died before attaining majority. Śambhují II., another minor son of Rájá Rám, was made king. But the Mughals set free Śivají II., in 1708, and there was civil war among the Márháttás. Śáhu's party proved strong, and he occupied Satára, while his rival made Kolhápúr his capital. In 1730, Śáhu acknowledged Kolhápúr to be an independent district, and the civil war came to an end. The Kolhápúr family is still reigning as feudatory of the British empire. The Satára family became extinct.

CHAPTER III.

BÁJI RÁO PESHWA (1720-1740).

Q. 228. Who was the founder of the family of the Peshwas?

A. Bálají Biśvanáth Bhatta was the founder of the Peshwá family.

Q. 229. Who were Bájí Ráo's generals

A. Ranají Sindhiá, Malhar Ráo, and Udayjí Pauár were some of Bájí Ráo's most famous generals.

Q. 230. (a) What led to the conflict between the Nizam and the Márháttás? (b) How did it end?

A. (a) The Nizam espoused the cause of Pratindhi, Śrīpati Ráo, rival of Bájí Ráo, sent away the Peshwa's men, who were entrusted with the duty of collecting the Márháttá dues all over the Deccan, and summoned the kings of Satára and Kolhápúr to appear before him and lay their claims to the Márháttá kingdom. Rájá Sáhu was extremely incensed at this. Bájí Ráo, on Sáhu's behalf, plundered Khándes and Ahmadnagar. (b) The Nizam was forced to enter into a treaty with all arrears, in 1738.

Q. 231. Describe the conquests of the Márháttás under Bájí Ráo.

A. In 1729, Sarbuland Khán, the Subadár of Guzerat, agreed to pay the Márháttá dues of the province to Bájí Ráo. In the following year, Rájá Sáhu granted to Bájí Ráo the power of collecting *chauth* in Guzerat. This brought Bájí into conflict with the Senápati whom he defeated and killed in the **battle of Dubhoy** in 1731. The Peshwa marched against the Nizam for the assistance which the latter rendered to the late Senápati. Being invited by the Rájá of Bundelkhund, he expelled the Subadár of Málava from Bundelkhund, and in return obtained the grant of Jhansi. Under his leadership the Márháttás plundered Hindusthan up to the gates of Delhi, though they were shortly afterwards driven beyond the Jumna. Málava was wrested from the Nizam, together with all the territories between the Narmáda and Chambal. He compelled the Portuguese to give up Salsette and Bassein to the Márháttás.

Q. 232. Trace the origin of the House of Holkar and Sindhia.

A. (a) Mulhar Ráo Holkar was the founder of the Holkar family. He was a general of Bájí Ráo. His successors constantly fought against the English. But after the **battle of Mehidpur** Holkar entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English in 1817. (b) The founder of the Sindhia

family was Rarají Sindhia, a general of Báji Ráo. The members of this family often carried on wars against the English. But since 1817, Sindhia has been a feudatory of the British empire.

Q. 233. Describe Báji Ráo's character.

A. Báji Ráo was a bold military leader and successful civil administrator. He appreciated and rewarded merit irrespective of caste, creed, or colour. He was exceedingly ambitious.

CHAPTER VI.

BÁLÁJI' BÁJI' RÁO (1740-1761).

Q. 234. Describe the leading events that took place during Báláji Báji Ráo's Peshwaship.

A. (1). Bháskar Pandit, the Diván of Raghuji Bhonslá invaded Behar, defeated the Subadár, Ali Vardi Khán, and obtained two crores and a half of rupees by plundering Jagat Set's house. Báláji Báji Ráo saved Bengal from Raghuji's attack.

(1). Rájá Sáhu arbitrated the differences between himself, Damaji, and Raghuji. Oudh, Behar, and Bengal were granted to Raghuji; Damaji was required to submit an account to the Peshwa of all the booty obtained in Guzerat.

(3). Rájá Sáhu died in 1748, and was succeeded by Rájá Rám.

(4). Poona was made the capital of the Márháttá country.

(5). Damaji Gaekwar was compelled to make peace with Báláji on condition of dividing equally with him the present and future possessions of the Márháttas in Guzerat.

(6). Capture of Ahmadabad by the combined armies of Damaji and Rághava, the Peshwa's brother.

(7). Sadásiva Ráo, the Diván to the Peshwa, marched against Salábat Jang, who led an army against Poona and repelled him.

(8). The grant of certain districts in Berar by Ghazi-uddin to the Márháttás.

(3). The betrayal of Ahamadnagar to Sadásiva Ráo in 1759 led to a war between Salábat Jang and Bálájí Bájí Ráo, which ended in the cession of Daulatabad, Bijapur, and Asirgarh to the Márháttás.

(10). Rághava led a Márháttá army through Hindusthan to the Punjab and appointed a Márháttá Subadár at Lahore.

(11). Invasion of Hindusthán by Ahmad Sháh Abadáli, which ended in the terrible overthrow of the Márháttás at Panípat in 1761.

CHAPTER V.

MÁDHAVA RÁO (1761-1771).

Q. 235. (a). Who succeeded Bálájí Bájí Ráo ?
(b) Describe his character.

(a). Mádhava, the eldest son of Bálájí Bájí Ráo, succeeded his father as Peshwa in September 1761, when only 17 years old. His uncle, Rághava, was his guardian, and conducted the affairs of the State.

(b). Mádhava was able, and discreet. His selection of officers was always judicious. He employed some of the ablest men in the service of the State. He was quite fearless, and took delight in finding moral courage in others. But he often lost his temper.

Q. 236. Give a short account of the wars in which the Marhattas were engaged during the Peshwaship of Mádhava Ráo.

A. Nizam Ali, the fourth son of the Nizám, being dis-

satisfied with the conduct of Mádhava Ráo and his guardian, Rághava, won over Janají Bhonslá, Rághují's successor, to his side. Though Poona was partially destroyed by their combined armies, yet Rághava at length defeated Nizám Ali and wrested from him a very small district.

Q. 237. What do you know of Mádhava's war with Hyder Ali ?

A. With a view to prevent Hyder Ali from joining the confederacy formed by Nizám Ali with the English, Mádhava Ráo invaded Hyder's territories and compelled him to pay 32 lakhs of rupees as arrears of the Márháttá dues.

Q. 238. What laid Mádhava Ráo to assume the government himself.

A. Mádhava's guardian, Rághava, attempted to divide the Márháttá possessions with his nephew in 1768, but was imprisoned and brought to Poona. After this event Mádhava Ráo took the government into his hands.

Q. 239. State what you know of the following persons :—(a) Viśvají Krishna, (b) Rám Śástri, and (c) Náná Farnavis.

A. See Appendix pp. 13, 29, and Book vii. ch. 6, 8, *Catechism*.

CHAPTERS VI. & VII.

MÁDHAVA RÁO NARÁYAN (1771-1782).

Q. 240. (a) Who was Náráyan Ráo ? (b) What was his fate ?

A. Náráyan Ráo was Bálají Bájí Ráo's younger son. He was murdered by his uncle, Rághava.

Q. 241. State the result of Rághava Ráo's operations against Nizám Ali and Hyder Ali ?

A. Rághava Ráo's operations against Nizám Ali were crowned with great success. He surrendered himself at discretion.

Rághava Ráo advanced up to Bellary against Hyder Ali with whom he made peace by ceding to him three Márháttá districts in Karnát.

Q. 242. Give a brief outline of the first Márháttá war with its results.

A. After the conclusion of the treaty with Hyder Ali, Rághava's followers began, one by one, to desert him. He threw himself on the mercy of the Government of Bombay and entered into a **treaty at Surat** with the English in 1775. With the support of the English he gained many victories. But the Government of India disapproved of the action of the Government of Bombay, and the English withdrew. The **treaty of Purandar** (1776) put an end to the first Márháttá war.

Q. 243. Describe the second Márháttá war.

A. The great power of Náná Farnavis created a host of enemies against him, and his uncle, Morábá, applied to the Government of Bombay to assist him with men and money in his war against Náná. The Bombay Government consented, and with the concurrence of the Government of India sent an army into the Márháttá country. The army advanced to Tulligrám, but Náná destroyed the villages on their way and cut off their retreat. The English commander was obliged to enter into a **convention at Wargaoon**. The terms of this convention were very disadvantageous to the English, and Warren Hastings repudiated it. He sent an army from Bengal under Capital Goddard, which marched through unknown countries and reached Bombay. But on entering the Márháttá country, Goddard was greatly harassed by Náná. Warren Hastings sent another army from Bengal into Sindhia's territories. Sindhia, greatly alarmed, made peace with the English in 1781, and acting as a mediator, succeeded in establishing peace between the English and the Márháttás in 1782. The treaty that was made on this occasion is known as the **treaty of Salbai**.

(See Appendix). The English acknowledged Mádhava Ráo Náráyan to be the Peshwa.

Q. 244. Give a brief history of Hindusthán since the recall of Bisvaji Krishná's army.

A. After the recall of Bisvaji Krishna, the Emperor Sháh Álam succeeded in establishing peace in the provinces of Agra and Delhi, with the assistance of his able minister, Najaf Khán. But on the death of the minister, Sindhia invaded Hindusthán and made himself master of Delhi. The Emperor became a tool in his hands, and Sindhia obtained from him the title 'Deputy of the Empire' for his master, the Peshwa.

Q. 245. Sketch the career of Madaji Sindhia after his success at Delhi.

A. Sindhia was jealous of Náná's power, and with a view to destroy his influence, he proceeded to Poona obviously to invest the Peshwa with his new title. In this he was opposed by Náná, but the young Peshwa sided with Sindhia, and the ceremony of investiture was performed with great pomp. Náná, though he remained at the head of all affairs, lost all his influence, but he was soon relieved from this awkward position by the death of Madaji Sindhia in 1794 A. D.

Q. 246. Give the causes and results of Náná's war with the Nizam.

A. On the death of Sindhia, Náná became the undisputed leader of the Márháttás, and he took this opportunity of demanding from the Nizam the arrears of the Márháttá dues. The Nizam not only refused to pay but insulted Náná and his ambassador. This led to a war. The principal incident of this war was the battle of Kurdla in which the Nizam was defeated and compelled to cede all the territories between the Tapti and the Purindá.

Q. 247. Give a brief account of the death of Mádhava Ráo Náráyan.

A. Mádhava Ráo Náráyan committed suicide on 25th October, 1795. He was greatly mortified at the conduct of Náná towards him. Náná did not allow him to hold any communication with his uncle's son, Báji Ráo, of whose company the young Peshwa was very fond.

Q. 248. Who succeeded Mádhava Ráo Náráyan and how did he govern the Márháttá country ?

A. Mádhava Ráo Náráyan was succeeded by his uncle's son, Báji Ráo II. He ill-treated Náná but retained him in his office. He was a bad ruler, and he pleased the Márháttá chiefs. 'Oh Náná's death in 1800 A. D., he quarrelled with Sindhia about the division of Náná's property. He killed Vittaji Holkar, the brother of Yašovanta Ráo Holkar ; and in a short time he was obliged to leave Poona and enter into a subsidiary treaty with the English and thus lose his independence.

Q. 249. What is meant by the phrase "subsidiary alliance," and who first entered into it ?

A. The Marquis of Wellesley was the first to conceive the idea of undertaking the military defence of Native States on receiving a subsidy or pecuniary payment. The terms of subsidiary alliances generally are these :—

(1) That the military defence of the State is to be vested in the English.

(2) That the ruler of the State is to pay subsidy in money for the maintenance of the British contingent, or assign the revenue of certain districts for the purpose.

(3) That the ruler of the State is not to entertain the services of any European without the consent of the English.

(4) That a Resident is to remain at the capital of the State to advise the ruler in the administration of its affairs.

(5) That if the ruler desires to discipline his troops after the European fashion, he is to do so by officers appointed by the English.

The Nizam was the first ruler to enter into the subsidiary alliance, because the battle of Kurdlá convinced him that unless the English protected him, the Márháttás would soon conquer his estates.

Q. 250. Who was Yašovanta Rao Holkar, and what part did he play in Márháttá history?

A. Yašovanta Rao was an illegitimate son of Tukaji Holkar, the ruler of Indore. He conceived a hatred against Sindhia, because that Potentate supported the cause of his brother. Yašovanta Rao won a victory over the disciplined troops of Holkar, killed his brother, plundered Sindhia's capital, compelled Sindhia to leave Poona for his own territories, and himself marched to the Deccan. The Peshwa, who had already killed Yašovanta's brother Vittaji, alarmed at his sudden success, fled to Bassein. Yašovanta raised another man to the Peshwáship and began to plunder the country in every direction. But on the approach of the English army with Báji Rao, he left Poona and proceeded to the north.

Q. 251. What were the consequences of the Treaty of Bassein?

A. By the **Treaty of Bassein** the head of the Márháttás became a dependent of the English. This alarmed the other Márháttá chiefs, who made war against the English, but were defeated and compelled to enter into treaties with them.

Báji Rao began to save money as he was not required to keep a large army, and with the funds he began to mature schemes for his own deliverance as well as for the destruction of those who were opposed to his father, Raghava, and to himself.

Q. 252. Who were the Pindáris, and what led the English to make war on them?

A. The Pindáris were a race of plunderers, who followed the Márháttá camps. After the third Márháttá war they

became very powerful. They exhausted the Native States of Central India. They led many incursions into the British territories. This led the English to make war on them. Three army corps were formed, and the Pindáris were hemmed in and completely destroyed in the course of six months, 1817 A. D.

Q. 253. What were the causes of the fourth Márháttá war?

A. Báji Ráo secretly instigated the Márháttá chiefs to prepare for a war against the English. The English called upon him to settle his account for Márháttá dues from the Nizam and the Gaekwar, who had already entered into subsidiary alliances with them. Báji often evaded this, and Gangádhara Sástri, who came from Baroda on the guarantee of a safe conduct from the English, was killed by his minister. The English, disgusted with his conduct, compelled him in 1817 to enter into a fresh treaty by which he was prohibited from sending ambassadors to foreign courts. This greatly mortified Báji Ráo, and he secretly sent messengers to all the different Márháttá capitals, and various Márháttá chiefs consented to act under his leadership. But the English neutralized Sindhia, defeated Holkar's army at **Mehádpur**, compelled the Regent of Nagpur to seek shelter with the Sikhs, and after several engagements compelled Báji Ráo also to surrender unconditionally. He was removed on a pension to Bithur, near Cawnpore, and his territories were annexed to the British dominions.

Q. 254. What were the effects of the fourth Márháttá War.

A. The Peshwa lost his kingdom and was retained as a prisoner in Hindustán. The minor Rájá of Nagpur came under the protection of the English. Satára was constituted into a small State and given to Pratáp Síva, a descendant of Sivaji with limited political powers. Holkar entered into a subsidiary alliance, and the portion of his territories was

given to his general. Amir Khán, who also entered into a similar alliance. Thus the Márháttá power was completely overthrown.

CHAPTER IX.

THE RISE OF THE SIKHS (1712-1809).

Q. 255. Describe the condition of the Sikhs from the death of Bahádur Sháh to the rise of Ranajit Sinha to power.

A. After the death of Bahádur, Bánda again became powerful in the country lying between the Jumna and the Satlej. But Farukshiyár succeeded in taking him captive and having him executed. The Sikhs formed themselves into small bands called **Misls**, and began to plunder the Punjab. There were eleven Misls. Each Misl had a large number of soldiers under distinguished warriors. The Misls gradually drove the Muhammadans from the Punjab, took possession of Lahore, invested and destroyed the city of Sirhind. Even so great a warrior as Ahmad Sháh Abdálí was not in a position to check them.

Q. 256. Who was Ranajit Sinha, and how did he rise to power ?

A. Ranajit Sinha was the son of Mahá Sinha and the grandson of Chhatter Sinha, the leader of the Sukarchakiá Misi. On the death of his father in 1792, he became the leader of that Misl, and in the course of eight years broke the power of all the Misls to the west of the Satlej, took possession of Lahore, and assumed the title of Mahárájá in 1801. In a short time he conquered many places on the west and north of the Punjab, and disciplined eighty thousand troops under some French Generals. He was known as the 'Lion of the Punjab.'

Q. 257. What is the origin of the Rájás of Patiala, Jhind, Nábhá, and Kapurthala ?

A. The ancestors of the Rájás of Patialá, Jhind, and

Nabhá were the leaders of the Fulkia Misl. They established themselves to the east of the Satlej. One of their ancestors, the Rájá of Patialá, greatly assisted Ahmad Sháh Abdálí, who granted him the title of Rájá. In 1809, after conquering the Misls on the west of the Satlej, Ranajit Sinha interfered in the affairs of the Fulkia Misl, the leaders of which placed themselves under the protection of the English, and thus saved themselves from Ranajit's grasp.

The ancestors of the Rájá of Kapurthala were the leaders of the Ahluwala Misl.

CHAPTER X.

NEPÁL (1750-1814).

Q. 258. Describe the condition of Nepal before the rise of the Gurkhás to power.

A. Nepal was the last refuge of the Buddhists from western India when the Muhammadans had conquered the whole of Hindusthan. The Hindus from Behar twice conquered Nepál. In the beginning of the 18th century, the Nepal valley was divided into three small kingdoms, Lalitpattan, Bhátgáon, and Khátmádu.

Q. 259. Give a brief history of the Gurkhá kingdom in Nepal.

A. The Gurkhás claim descent from the Ránás of Udaypur and belonged to the Saiva sect of the Hindus. Nawab Mir Kasim of Bengal interfered in the politics of Nepal but without success. Their king, Prithví Náráyan, conquered the valley of Nepal and amalgamated Bhátgáon and Lalitpattan with Khátmádu in the year 1768. Thereupon the Chinese invaded Nepal in 1792, but they were pacified with a promise of small presents every fifth year. The Gurkhás then rapidly conquered Kumáon, Garhwal, Náhan and the mountainous regions from Sikkim to Kangra.

CHAPTER XI.

STATE OF INDIA IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Q. 260. Describe the condition of the Hindus in the 18th century.

A. During the 18th century, the Hindus made great progress in every walk of life. Their military power was so great that they succeeded in destroying the Mughal empire. With the exception of Oudh and Hyderabad, they were supreme everywhere. Their administrative abilities were so great that they were appointed ministers in Musalman States. They assisted the English in the administration of their territories. Thákur Dás, a Hindu, was finance minister in Kabul. Rájá Navakrishna and Kánta Babu made a fortune by their unflinching devotion to the English.

In philosophy and literature the Hindus made a great advance. Jagannáth Tarkapanchánon compiled at the instance of Warren Hastings a code of Hindu laws in Sanskrit. Rám Sástri, Mahárájá Jay Sinha II. of Jaypur and Appay Dikshita are immortal names in philosophy, mathematics, and smṛity. Jagádís Tarkalankár and Gadádhar Bhattácháryya are renowned scholars of philosophy and logic.

The Vernaculars were cultivated with great zeal. Vernacular poetry received encouragement in every part of India. The commercial activity of the Hindus was marked by the existence of many rich banking houses in the Márháttá country and Bengal.

Ahalyá Báí and Rání Bhabání are household names to every Indian for their numerous roads, religious and charitable works.

Q. 261. What was the condition of the Muhammadans in the 18th century?

A. In spite of the loss of their political power, the Musalmans cultivated science and literature very assiduously.

They wrote many excellent histories in Persian of which the *Akbarnāma* and *Ain-i Akbari* compiled by Abul Fazl were the most important. *Khafi Khan's* history and *Siyar-ul-Mutakherin* were written during this period. The entire foreign trade of India excepting the part monopolised by the European nations, was in the hands of the Musalmans.

BOOK VIII.

THE BRITISH PERIOD (1599-

CHAPTER I.

BRITISH COMMERCE IN INDIA (1599-1755)

Q. 262. Give some account of the early English settlements in India.

A. The East India Company first established factories at Surat. The Portuguese opposed them, but in vain. Sir Thomas Roe, who was sent in 1615 as an ambassador to the court of Jahāngīr by James I., King of England, obtained many valuable privileges on behalf of the Company. The English set up factories at Masalipatam in 1628, and shortly afterwards at Hariharpur in Orissa. They began to trade at Balasore in 1633 and at Hughli in 1650. They obtained Madras from the Rājā of Chandragiri in 1639 and built a fort there, which was named Fort St George. In 1661 Charles II., king of England, married the Infanta of Portugal, and obtained the island of Bombay as her dowry. He made it over to the Company in 1688, who built a fort there. Annoyed at the frequent exactions of the Musalman governors, the English stormed and partly burnt Hughli in 1686, and captured several pilgrim-ships on their way from Surat and Mecca. Thereupon they were ordered by the Emperor to leave the country. Later on they were, however,

restored to all their privileges. They purchased the villages of Calcutta, Sutanuti, and Govindpur in 1692, and built a fort at Calcutta, which was named Fort William. They made Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay their headquarters for carrying on trade, and called them Presidencies. Each Presidency had a Governor with a Council, who governed the English according to English law, and the Natives according to Indian law, and looked after the commercial transactions of the several factories under them.

Q. 263. Trace the origin and the course of the contest between the English and the French for supremacy in India.

A. In 1744, a war having broken out in Europe between the French and the English, the former sent a large squadron under Labourdonnais to Pondicherry. Madras fell into the hands of the French. Dupleix defeated and compelled the Nawab of the Carnatic to abandon the English cause. The English under Major Lawrence regained their prestige and besieged Pondicherry. In 1748 peace was made between the two nations in Europe; and all fighting ceased in India, and the English recovered Madras.

With a view to establish French supremacy in Southern India, Dupleix began to interfere in the quarrels of the Native princes. On the death of the Nizam in 1748, the French took up the cause of Muzaffar Jang, the son of the Nizam's daughter, and Chánd Sáheb, the son of the Anwar-uddín, Nawab of Arkot. After some months of fighting, Muzaffar became Subadár and Chánd Sáheb Nawab. Dupleix was now appointed governor of all the districts to the south of the river Krishná. After the assassination of Muzaffar, Salábat Jang, the third son of the Nizam, was raised to the office of Subadár by the French. (For the subsequent history of the contest between the French and the English, see the first Carnatic war below).

Q. 264. Sketch the career of Dupleix in Southern India.

A. See above; and p. 17. Appendix.

Q. 295. Give a brief account of the first Carnatic war.

A. In 1744, war having broken out between the French and the English in Europe, the former sent a large squadron to Pondicherry under the command of Labourdonnais. Madras surrendered to the French; and the Nawab of the Carnatic having interposed between the two nations in Southern India, Dupleix, the French Governor, defeated and compelled him to give up the English cause. Major Lawrence now arrived with a large English fleet, and laid siege to Pondicherry. Peace having been established in Europe in 1748, the contest between the two nations in India came to an end; and the English recovered Madras.

Q. 266. Give an outline of the second Carnatic war.

A. In 1748, the Nizam died, and his second son, Násir Jang, became Subadár. But a quarrel arose between him and Muzaffar, the son of the Nizam's daughter, for the Subadárship. Anwaruddín, the Nawab of Arkot, died in the same year; and his son, Muhammad Ali, and Chánd Sáheb, the son-in-law of the preceding Nawab, were rival candidates for the appointment. The English took up the cause of Násir Jang and Muhammad Ali, while the French espoused that of Muzaffar Jang and Chánd Sáheb.

For a time the French were successful, and Muzaffar Jang became Subadár and Chánd Sáheb, Nawab. But shortly after Muzaffar was murdered, and the French raised Salábat Jang, the third son of the Nizam, to the Subadárship. Muhammad Ali took refuge in the fort of Trichinopoly, which was invested by Chánd Sáheb. He sought the aid of the English. Accordingly, Clive besieged Arkot and

captured it. Chánd Sáheb was defeated by a large force under Clive and Major Lawrence. He was tried for treason and executed. The French thus lost their influence in Southern India, and Depleix was recalled. The English prestige was restored, and Muhammad Ali acknowledged Náwab of the Carnatic.

Q. 267. Briefly describe the third Carnatic war.

A. In 1750 a war broke out between England and France in Europe, and the East India Company sent Clive back to India to thwart the designs of the French. Clive was appointed commander of the Madras army, and Admiral Watson, of the fleet. The French sent a large army to Pondicherry under Count Lally. The French commander wrested Fort St David and destroyed it. He recalled Bussy from Hyderabad. As soon as Bussy had left the Deccan, Salábat Jang lost his Subadárship and afterwards his life. Thus was the loss of the French influence in the Deccan brought about. Lally now besieged Madras; but an English fleet arrived there in 1759 and compelled him to raise the siege. Sir Eyre Coote defeated Lally at Wandewash and laid siege to Pondicherry which was occupied in 1761. From this time the last hopes of founding a French empire in India were gone; and though they have recovered Pondicherry, yet all their influence in India is virtually at an end.

Q. 268. How was the piracy of Angriá suppressed?

A. Clive and Admiral Watson were requested by the President of the Bombay Council to suppress, in conjunction with the Peshwa, a Márháttá pirate named Angriá, who held the strong fort of Gherjá, on the coast of the Konkan, and plundered ships of all nations. He was descended from Sivaji's admiral, but never acknowledged the Peshwa's authority. Admiral Watson destroyed the ships of Angriá, and Clive took his fort by land.

CHAPTER II.

AFFAIRS IN BENGAL (1704-1772).

Q. 269. Give a short account of Murshid Kulī Khán's rule in Beugal.

A. Bengal, Behar, and Orissa enjoyed peace and prosperity in the early part of the eighteenth century under the wise rule of Murshid Kulī Khán. In 1704, he removed his headquarters to Muksúdábád, which was thenceforward called Murshidabad, after his name. He ruled the province for a long time, first as Diván, then as Naib Názim, and finally as Subadár. He obtained great favour from the imperial court at Delhi by remitting punctually the revenue, which was considerably increased by a revision of Akbar's land settlement. He died in 1725.

+ Q. 270. What do you know of Bargir Hangámá and how was it suppressed?

A. Ali Vardi Khán's reign was greatly disturbed by the predatory expeditions, known as *Bargir Hangámá*, of the Márháttás under Raghuji Bhonslá, Rájá of Nagpur, and his minister, Bháskar Pandit. It was promptly suppressed by Bajaji Báji Ráo, at the request of the emperor of Delhi.

Q. 271. How was Orissa ceded to the Márháttás?

A. After the settlement of the dispute between Báláji and Raghuji by Rájá Sáhu, Raghuji again invaded Bengal and plundered the whole country to the west of the Hughli. Ali Vardi Khán, unable to resist him, had his general assassinated. This enraged the Márháttás, and after ten years of incessant warfare Ali Vardi was obliged to pacify Raghuji by the cession of Orissa by a promise to pay him twelve lakhs of rupees a year in lieu of the chauth of Bengal and Behar in 1752.

Q. 272. What do you know of the Massacre of the Black Hole ?

A. After Ali Vardi's death, his daughter's son, Sirájuddaulá became Subadár. He found that the English were strengthening the fortifications of Calcutta in order to prepare for war against the French. He ordered them to dismantle the new works, and as they paid no heed to his orders, he marched to Calcutta with a large army and captured the city and the fort. One of his generals confined 146 English prisoners in a small room, which admitted no ventilation : and 123 of them died in course of a single night. This event is known in Indian history as the **Massacre of the Black Hole**.

Q. 273. Briefly describe the battle of Plassey.

A. Hearing the news of the terrible Massacre of the Black Hole, the British authorities at Madras sent Clive and Watson to Bengal, and Calcutta fell into their hands. The Hindu and Musalman grandes of Bengal were at this time conspiring against Sirájuddaulá. They sought the alliance of the English, and Clive led an army to Murshidabad. A battle was fought at **Plassey** on 23rd June, 1757, in which the English were victorious.

Q. 274. Enumerate the political dangers that encircled Mir Jaffar after his accession to the throne of Bengal.

A. Mir Jaffar had exhausted the treasury in rewarding the conspirators and tried to replenish it by confiscations. This led to rebellions in several provinces, which, however, were promptly quelled by the English army under Clive. A serious danger was now at hand. Ali Gauhar, the son of the emperor, invaded Bengal. But he was soon driven out by the promptitude of Clive and the courage of the British troops.

Q. 275. Who was Mir Kásim ? How did he

repay his gratitude to the Company, and what was the first territorial acquisition of the Company ?

A. Mir Kásim was the son-in-law of Mir Jaffar. He was appointed Nawab in 1761. He promised to pay large sums of money to the Company and to its servants, but being unable to pay the whole sum he made over to the Company the revenue of Burdwan, Chittagong, and Midnapur. This was the first territorial acquisition of the East India Company.

Q. 276. Give a short account of the Company's war with Mir Kásim.

A. *Causes* :—Mir Kásim removed his capital to Monghyr, where he made preparations for war. He abolished the transit duties. He could not tolerate the undue authority of the Company. *Progress & results*—Kasim's army was twice defeated at **Udvanala and Gheria** (1763). He put to death a number of English prisoners at Patna, then fled to Oudh. *The battle of Baxar*—The combined army of the Subabár of Oudh and of the Emperor of Delhi, who took up his cause and invaded Behar, was signally defeated by Major Munro at **Baxar** (1764).

Q. 277. What was the Double Government of Lord Clive ? How did the Company obtain the Diváni of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa ?

A. Clive, on his return from England, proceeded to Murshidabad and made a treaty with the Nawab, by which the military defence of the country was made over to the English, and the Nawab agreed to carry on the civil administration with fifty-three lakhs of rupees a year. This was the celebrated **Double Government** of Lord Clive. After this settlement he proceeded to Behar, and obtained from the emperor the Diváni of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and agreed to pay him twenty lakhs of rupees a year.

Q. 278. Give an account of Lord Clive's administration.

A. The work of collecting revenue was entrusted to native officers, supervised by Englishmen. The European troops of the Company mutinied, but Clive put them down with a strong hand. The officers of the Company, who were ill-paid in those days, used to amass money by private trade and by taking presents from the natives. Clive checked this and proposed to distribute among them the profits arising from the monopoly of salt, but the proposal was rejected by the authorities in England.

Q. 279. Give a short account of the Rohilla war?

A. The Nawab of Oudh wanted to take possession of Rohilkhund. The Rohillas, having been greatly distressed by the Márháttás, asked the help of the Nawab after paying him 40 lakhs of Rupees. But the Márháttá army was now recalled to the Deccan, and the Nawab refused to return the sum. He, on the other hand, paid forty lakhs of rupees besides the expenses of the war to the English and obtained from them the services of an English contingent, and with this help Rohilkhund was conquered and annexed to his extensive dominions in 1774.

Q. 280. Criticise Hastings's conduct in hiring out soldiers for the destruction of the Rohillas.

A. Though many people in England censured Hastings for hiring out soldiers against the Rohillas, yet he was not to blame; for, by allowing a friendly power like the Nawab to absorb the Rohilla territories, Hastings simply ensured the peace of Northern India; because any Rohilla chief might any day bring in the Márháttás and disturb the peace of the English.

Q. 281. Give an account of Hastings's administration.

- A.** Hastings removed all the offices from Murshidabad to Calcutta and took the Diváni into his own hands. He replaced the principal native civil officers by Europeans, and divided Bengal and Behar into several districts, presided over by Collectors, who had the powers of civil judges. The criminal administration remained in the hands of the Kázís, or Musalman Magistrates as before.

CHAPTER III.

EVENTS IN MADRAS (1756-1769)

Q. 282. How did the English obtain possession of the Northern Circars ?

A. Salábat Jang had assigned the revenue of the Northern Circars for the maintenance of Bussy's soldiers. Clive induced the emperor to make a free gift of those provinces to the English, but Nizam Ali, the successor of Salábat Jang, refused this. However, they got possession of it by agreeing to pay a tribute to Nizam Ali and by entering into an offensive and defensive alliance with him in 1766.

Q. 283. Give a short history of Maisur from the end of the fourteenth century to the rise of Hyder Ali.

A. From the end of the fourteenth century, the Yádas had been reigning at Maisur as feudatories of the kings of Vijaynagar. They had practically become independent after the fall of that kingdom. They established their capital at Seringapatam, extended the boundaries of their empire, and annexed small Hindu kingdoms. But, in 1733, anarchy and confusion followed, and Krishna Ráj, a scion of a distant branch of the royal family, was made king. He reigned nominally from 1734 to 1760. Nándá Ráj, his minister, was the real ruler of Maisur. He appointed, as one of his officers, a young adventurer named Hyder Ali, who soon be-

came the commander-in-chief of the kingdom. He deposed the old king, made himself Sultán of Maisur, and conquered the whole country up to the Krishná in 1760.

Q. 284. Give a short account of the first Maisur war.

A. Cause :—Hyder Ali, in his course of conquest, reached the boundaries of the Nizam, who thereupon proclaimed war against him and applied to his English allies to assist him with soldiers.

Progress :—The Nizam shortly after deserted the English and made peace with Hyder. The combined army invaded the Carnatic in 1769, and reached the immediate neighbourhood of Madras. The Madras Council, being alarmed at the presence of Hyder at their gates, made a treaty with him, which was in fact an offensive and defensive alliance on condition of mutual restitution of conquests.

CHAPTER IV.

WARREN HASTINGS, GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Q. 285 (a) What were the provisions of the Regulating Act? (b) Narrate the circumstances that led to its being passed.

A. (a) The following were the main provisions of the Regulating Act :—

(1) The Governor of Bengal should be the Governor-General of the Indian possessions of the Company.

(2) He should have four Councillors to advise him in the government of the country.

(3) A Supreme Court should be established in Calcutta for the trial of Europeans.

(b) The East India Company having become rulers of extensive territories where irregularities or disorders generally prevailed, it often happened that the share-holders

did not get their dividends, while their Indian servants, returned to England immensely rich, after a short service. This drew the attention of Parliament to Indian affairs ; and an Act entitled the Regulating Act was passed in 1772.

Q. 286. Who was the first Governor-General of India, and who was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court ?

A. Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of India, and Sir Elijah Impey, the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Q. 287. Who formed the majority in Hastings's Council ?

A. Clavering, Monson, and Francis formed one party, while Hastings and Barwell, the other. All questions were decided by the voice of the majority, consisting of the first three

Q. 288. Who was Mahárájá Nanda Kumár ? What led to his execution ?

A. When the news of the dissensions in the Council got abroad, many persons came forward with complaints against Hastings. Mahárájá Nanda Kumár was one of them. As the acceptance of presents from the natives by an officer of the Company was declared to be a serious crime, Nanda Kumár charged Hastings with having accepted presents from his son, Rájá Gurdudás, on the occasion of his appointment to a high office under the Nawab. Hastings totally denied the charge, and brought a suit against Nanda Kumár for conspiracy, and at the same time one Mohan Prasád preferred a charge of forgery against Nanda Kumár, who was tried before Sir Elijah Impey, 'condemned and executed (1775).

Q. 289. Give an account of the second Maisur war.

A. Causes :—The Márháttás having invaded Maisur, Hyder Ali applied to the Madras Government for aid, but

in vain, though it had entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with him in 1769. This made him angry with the English. In 1778 on the outbreak of a war between the French and the English in Europe, the latter came to attack Mahe, a French possession in Maisur. Hyder requested them not to interfere with it, but they paid no heed, and captured the place. This led to hostilities with Hyder. **Events** — Colonel Bailhe opposed Hyder but had to surrender. Munro, who was marching against him, had to fall back upon Madras. Coote relieved Wandewash and signally defeated Hyder at **Cuddalore** in 1781. Colonel Braithwaite, an English commander, was defeated by Hyder at **Tanjore**. On Hyder's death in 1782 his son Tipu now took the command of the Maisur army. Tipu proceeded to the Malabar coast to oppose an English contingent sent from Bombay. But at the request of the Council of Madras, Hastings sued for peace, which Tipu granted, after some delay, on condition of mutual restitution of conquests. This is known as the **treaty of Mangalore** (1783).

Q. 290 Give an account of the plunder of Chait Sinha

A. The Nawab of Oudh having ceded Benares to the Company, the Raja became their dependant. Hastings now demanded from Chait Sinha, the Raja, a payment of five lakhs of rupees towards the cost of the war. On the Raja's refusal, Hastings marched to Benares, and defeated him. He fled with the greater part of his wealth to Gwalior. In one of his forts was found a treasure of fifty lakhs of rupees. This fell to the soldiers as prize money, and Government obtained nothing.

Q. 291. What do you know of the spoliation of the Begums of Oudh ?

A. Asafuddaula, the Nawab of Oudh, owed the English about two crores of rupees, but he had no means of paying

this enormous sum. His step-mothers had received large sums of money and extensive jagirs from his father, and the Nawab had since his accession been trying to get possession of this treasure, which legally belonged to the State. He now asked the help of Hastings to seize this property. Hastings, thinking this to be a good opportunity for punishing the Begums for aiding and abetting Chait Sinha, sent an army to Fyzabad. He got only seventy-five lakhs of rupees from them.

Q. 292. Give a short account of Hastings's administration.

A. Hastings was an able administrator. He made settlement of revenue with zemindars for five years. The Supreme Court having attempted to extend its jurisdiction over the whole province, Hastings delegated the appellate power of the Diván, now represented by the Governor-General in Council, to a body of judges; and constituted a new Appellate Court entitled the Sadr Diváni Adálat, and made Impey its Chief Judge. Impey was the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, established by a Royal Charter, and was not subordinate to the Company. He was, however, recalled by the Company, and the Court was abolished.

Q. 293. Give a short account of Hastings's reception and trial in England.

A. On his arrival in England in 1785, Hastings was very well received by the authorities, who would have granted him a patent of nobility but for his enemies, who impeached him in Parliament for high crimes and misdemeanours. After a trial of seven years, the House of Lords pronounced him 'not guilty'. But the proceedings had reduced him to poverty; and the Directors granted him a handsome pension.

CHAPTER V.

Q. 294. When was Pitt's India Bill passed? What changes were effected in the administration by it?

A. In 1784 Mr. Pitt the Younger, then Prime Minister of England, framed a Bill by which the Company lost all its powers. By this Bill, known as the India Bill, which became law on 13th August, 1784, Pitt created a Board of Control for the supervision of Indian affairs, and the Board practically ruled India. The powers of the share-holders were reduced, and the Court of Directors had to work under the supervision of the Board Control.

Q. 295. What are the administrative reforms of Lord Cornwallis?

A. Lord Cornwallis increased the pay of the Company's servants, so that they might not take contracts and carry on private trade. He reduced the contributions levied from the Nawab of Oudh for military protection from seventy to fifty lakhs of rupees a year.

Q. 296. Give an account of the third Mysore war.

A. Causes.—Tipu Sultan forcibly converted a large number of Hindus to Muhammadanism. About two thousand Brahmans are said to have committed suicide to escape contamination. This sent a thrill of horror throughout the country, and Nana Farnavis joined the Nizam to invade Tipu's territories. Tipu, however, satisfied them with a large sum of money and the cession of certain districts. In 1789 Tipu invaded Travancore, which was under British protection. The English, therefore, were compelled to take up arms to defend the Raja.

Progress:—Lord Cornwallis obtained the co-operation of the Nizam and the Marhattas. The war lasted for three

years. Tipu was defeated at Arkeré, and his several hill forts were captured by storm. His army was defeated by the Márháttás with the assistance of a small English army. In the third year Tipu's capital, Seringapatam, was attacked from different quarters, and he was compelled to sue for peace. He paid three crores of rupees as the expenses of the war and ceded half his kingdom, which was equally shared by the allies (1792).

Q. 297. What do you understand by "the Decennial Settlement?"

A. The Decennial Settlement was a contract made with the zemindars for ten years only. In 1786, the Court of Directors sent instructions to make a settlement for ten years, with hopes of permanence if it worked well.

Q. 298. (a) What do you know of Lord Cornwallis's Permanent Settlement? (b) What were its effects?

A. (a) Lord Cornwallis granted the zemindars proprietary interest in the soil, and fixed the amount of revenue for ever. It was enacted for the protection of the tenants that the zemindar should grant them leases as early as possible.

(b) The Settlement has done much good to Bengal. It has created a wealthy landed aristocracy bound to the strongest ties of interest to the British Government. But the enforcement of the Act for granting leases to the tenants having been held over, Government has occasionally been obliged to make fresh laws for their protection.

Q. 299. What do you know of Lord Cornwallis's appointment of Natives in the Public Service?

A. The appointment of Natives to Government service was restricted to Dárogáships of the Police and Munsifships: the pay of Dárogás was twenty-five rupees a month, and the Munsifs were paid by commission.

Q. 300. What important fact is connected with the year 1793 ?

A. In 1793, the Company obtained a new charter by which the monopoly of Indian trade was, to a certain extent, abolished.

Q. 301. What policy did Sir John Shore adopt towards the Native States of India ?

A. Sir John Shore adopted the policy of "*non-inter-vention*" towards the Native States *i. e.* he did not interfere with the affairs of the Native States, because the authorities in England were averse to such interference on the part of their Indian officers.

Q. 302. How was Allahabad ceded to the English ?

A. On the death of Nawab Asafuddaulá of Oudh in 1798, there arose a dispute about the succession. Sir John Shore went in person to Lucknow and raised Sádát Ali to the Subadárship of Oudh. A treaty was made by which the fort of Allahabad was ceded to the English, and the cost of maintaining a British army was raised to seventy-four lakhs of rupees.

Q. 303. Give an account of the political danger that occurred at the close of Sir John Shore's regime.

A. At the close of Sir J. Shore's career the Board of Control attempted to amalgamate the Company's army with that of the British Crown. The Company's soldiers being greatly dissatisfied mutinied, and Sir John Shore had to quell them with great difficulty.

CHAPTER VI

LORD WELLESLEY (1798-1805)

Q 304 At what important conclusion did Lord Wellesley arrive on his way to India ?

A. Mr Kirkpatrick, the former Resident in the Courts of Sindhia and the Nizam, came in the same ship with Lord Wellesley, and got much information about the conduct and character of the native princes of India and he came to the conclusion that the policy of non-intervention was not suited to India.

305 Describe the state of India on the of Wellesley's administration.

A Tipu Sultan had already concluded a treaty with the French Republic and was now attempting to drive the English from India in league with Nizam Ali, Nana Farnavis, and the Afghans. The Nizam secured a contingent of 15,000 men trained by Raymond, a Frenchman of the republican party.

Q 306. Give a short account of the fourth Mysurwar

A. Cause — While Tipu was thus training his soldiers with the assistance of Raymond and attempting to drive the English from India in league with Nizam Ali, Nana Farnavis, the Afghans, and the French republic, Zeman Shah, the Sultan of Kabul, wrote a letter to Lord Wellesley to the effect that he reached Lahore to invade Hindustan. This greatly caused Wellesley's anxiety to prosecute the war against Tipu with vigour.

Progress — In February 1799, twenty-one thousand British soldiers and 10,000 troops of the Nizam's army proceeded from Vellore in the direction of Seringapatam. One of Tipu's armies was totally routed at Sedasair, and the

other under Tipu himself, at Malavelli in 1799, whence Tipu retreated to his capital. Lord Harris then laid siege to Seringapatam. A breach was effected in the walls of the city, and the English advanced to the assault. The capital was taken, and Tipu's dead body was found lying at one of the gates.

Conclusion:—The ancient Maisur State was restored to the old Royal family of the Yádavas, who had been pining in captivity since 1760. A child of five years of age, the only survivor of the royal family was made Rájá. The English governed the country in his name, and Purniá, the finance minister of Tipu, was retained in the new State. Tipu's descendants were granted pensions and removed to Vellore. The remainder of Tipu's territories, after the restoration of the ancient State, was divided between the English and the Nizam; but the latter gave away his share and entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English. Lord Wellesley then offered the Peshwa a portion of these territories on condition of his entering into a subsidiary alliance with the English, but he declined it with thanks.

Q. 307. How were Tanjore and the Carnatic annexed to the British territories?

A. Lord Wellesley pensioned off the Rájá of Tanjore and the Nawab of the Carnatic, and placed their territories under British officers.

Q. 308. On what grounds were Korá and Rohilkhund annexed?

A. The Nawabs of Oudh generally spent their time in amusements, and could not pay for the maintenance of the British contingent at their capital. Lord Wellesley, therefore, compelled Sádát Ali to cede Korá and Rohilkhund, Allahabad and Goráhpur.

Q. 309. Describe briefly the third Márháttá war.

A. Causes :—The head of the Márháttá empire having entered into a subsidiary alliance, the English pressed Sindhia to enter into a similar alliance. He did not agree, and joined the Rájá of Berar to invade British territories. Báji Ráo was reinstated at Poona, and Holkar left Poona before the advent of the English. Sindhia and the Rájá of Berar were making preparations for war, and the Governor-General sent word to them to withdraw their forces. The allies did not agree to this proposal, and war was formally declared.

Progress & Events ;—Sir Arthur Wellesley, brother of the Governor-General, advanced with his army from the south, while Lord Lake proceeded to Hindustán. The fort of Ahmadnagar fell into the hands of Sir Arthur Wellesley. Sindhia lost 12,000 men, and nearly a third of the British army was killed. Colonel Stevenson stormed the fort of Asirgarh and occupied Burhánpur (Octr 1804). Lord Lake stormed the fort of Koel, occupied Aligarh, and on his way to Delhi defeated the Márháttá army. Delhi fell into his hands, and the blind emperor again came under British protection. Agra was also occupied on 1st November, 1803. Lord Lake defeated Sindhia's French general at the battle of Laswari. Orissa and Bundelkhund were conquered by the English in the same year. Sir Arthur defeated the combined forces of Sindhia and Raghuji Bhonsla at the battle of Argaon. Gwailgarh and Nárnálá fell into his hands. Raghuji made peace with the English by the cession of Orissa and western Berar, and gave up all his claims upon the Nizam for *chauth* &c. (Dec 30th, 1803). Sindhia also made peace by the cession of Hindustán and Khándes, and by giving up all his claims upon the Nizam, the Peshwa, and the Gaekwar at Sirji Anjangaon. Holkar kept aloof all this time, but he now demanded, at the head of the disbanded soldiery, *chauth* of certain districts in Hindustán from the English, and war was declared against him. Holkar

afterwards fled to Bharatpur, the Rájá, of which in spite of his treaty with the English joined him. Colonel Monson and General Fraser defeated the combined army at Dig, and the English besieged the strong fort of Bharatpur but failed to take it. At last Holkar fled, and the Rájá of Bharatpur made peace with the English.

Q. 310. What were the reforms made by Lord Wellesley?

A. Lord Wellesley put a stop to the cruel custom of infanticide among the Hindus, namely, to cast their first-born child into the Ganges at its mouth. The Sadr Diváni Adálat was created for the hearing of appeals. The College of Fort William was established for the training of European officers of the Company.

CHAPTER VII.

LORD CORNWALLIS, SIR GEORGE BARLOW,
AND LORD MINTO (1805—1813).

Q. 311. Give an account of Lord Cornwallis's administration for the second time.

A. On receipt of the news of Monson's defeat, the Court of Directors sent out Lord Cornwallis again as Governor-General, with instructions to establish peace and check the desire of the Company's officers for territorial acquisition. He wrote a letter to Lord Lake, directing him to return the whole of Hindustán to Sindhiá and to restore his ancestral possessions to Holkar. But shortly afterwards he died at Ghazipur on his way to the North-Western Provinces (1805).

Q. 312. Who was Sir George Barlow? Give a short account of his administration.

A. Sir George Barlow was Senior Member of the Council, who was after Cornwallis's death placed at the

head of affairs. He carried out the non-intervention policy of the Directors with great reluctance, the results of which were mutual jealousies, animosities, and quarrels among the Native States in Central India. Holkar compelled the Rájá of Jaypur to pay eighteen lakhs of rupees. The Rájá of Bundi suffered greatly at the hands of Holkar. The Nizam also tried to form schemes of conquest.

The Sepoys at Vellore mutinied and killed their European officers on the 10th July, 1806, because they were ordered to wear a new head-dress, which produced great discontent among them. This was probably fomented by the descendants of Tipu, who had their residence there. But Colonel Gillespie, arriving with British troops from Arkot, quelled the mutiny, and Tipu's descendants were brought to Calcutta.

Q. 313. How did Lord Minto strengthen the British power in India?

A. Napoleon Buonaparte, the emperor of the French, sent at this time an ambassador to Persia to check the progress of the English. To counteract French influence Lord Minto organised three embassies to Persia, Afghánistán and the Punjab, and established friendly relations with these States.

Q. 314. What do you know of Amir Khán?

A. Amir Khán was the leader of the Pathán party that arose in the Deccan after the death of Yašovanta Ráo Holkar. He established a small principality for himself by destroying the neighbouring weak chiefs. He, at last, attacked Jaunpur. Lord Minto interfered, but could not crush him.

CHAPTER VIII.

MARQUIS OF HASTINGS (1813-1823).

Q. 315. Give a brief account of the Nepal war.

A. Causes :—The Rájá of Nepal had invaded British

territories. The Nepalese occupied the villages of Bhutwal and Sivrāj in Bengal in 1813. The English re-captured those two places, and the Nepalese declared war.

Progress :—The Marquis of Hastings sent four distinct armies to Nepal. General Ochterlony and Colonel Gillespie repulsed the Gurkhá general, Amar Sinha Tháppá, and seized the fort of **Maloun** early in 1815. Almorá was captured. The Nepal council offered to enter into a treaty with the English, but the negotiations fell through, and war was continued. General Ochterlony advanced to Khát-mándu and captured the fort of Mukbanpur. Peace was concluded.

Results :—The English obtained possession of Kumá-un, Garhwal, and the mountainous countries between the Jumna and the Sutlej. The Rájá of Sikkim was declared to be under British protection, and the Gurkhas were thus quite isolated from the rest of India (1815).

Q. 316. Give a short account of the Pindari war.

A. See page 99, *Catechism*.

Q. 317. Describe the third Márháttá war.

A. See page 121, *Catechism*.

CHAPTER IX.

LORD AMHERST (1823-1828).

Q. 318. Give a brief account of the first Burmese war.

A. Causes ;—The Burmese had already occupied Assam and seized Sáhpur, belonging to the English. Lord Amherst recovered Sáhpur, but the king of Burma sent a golden chain to bring the Governor-General captive to Ava.

Progress.—Sir Archibald Campbell sailed from Madras and easily took Rangoon and Martaban. Captain Richard occupied Assam. The Burmese general, Mahá Bundlá, was

killed in the **battle of Donabew** in 1824. In the third year of the war, **Campbell** reached **Yandabu**. The **Burmese king** was frightened and made peace with the **English**.

• **Results**—The **English** obtained a crore of **rupees** as **indemnity** for war, and the **cession** of **Assam**, **Arakan**, and **Tenaserim** in 1826.

Q. 319. Narrate the circumstances that led to the capture of **Bharatpur**

A. In 1826 **Durjansál** dethroned the minor **Rájá** of **Bharatpur** and made himself master of the kingdom. He began to make preparations for war. **Lord Combermere**, the leader of the **British forces**, stormed it. The minor prince was restored to the throne, and **Durjansál** sent a prisoner to **Benares**, in 1826.

CHAPTER X.

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK (1828-1835.)

Q. 320. Give a short account of **Lord William Bentinck's** administration.

A. **Lord William Bentinck's** administration is famous for administrative and social reforms, and the encouragement he gave towards the moral and intellectual culture of the people.

Annexation of Cachar, Coorg, and Maisur.—The **English** took **Cachar** at the invitation of the inhabitants. The **Rájá** of **Coorg** was deposed by the **English** on account of the several murders committed by him. The rising of the people and mismanagement of the affairs of **Maisur** led **Lord Bentinck** to place it under **British Commissioners**. The **Rájá** was pensioned off. It was afterwards restored to native rule in 1881.

SOCIAL REFORMS.

Abolition of Sati and Infanticide.—The *Sati* rite, by which **Hindu women** used to burn themselves on the funeral

pyre of their husbands, was abolished by Lord William Bentinck in 1824. The cruel custom of killing infant daughters was also done away with by Bentinck. The practice of offering human sacrifices was suppressed in the Northern Circars.

The Khonds, the Kols, and the Mairs of Ajmir were reclaimed.

Suppression of Thugi.—The Thugs were a class of assassins and robbers, who travelled in gangs under various disguises, strangled and robbed travellers. Colonel Sleeman's very able report on this subject moved Bentinck to organise a special department for the suppression of these crimes.

Administrative Reforms.—Lord William Bentinck threw open the higher posts in the Service to qualified natives. He abolished Persian as the Court language and substituted the vernaculars for it.

In 1833 the East India Company obtained a charter permitting the Europeans to acquire landed property in India.

The North-Western Provinces were made a separate Presidency, with Sir Charles Metcalfe as its first Governor.

Progress and Culture.—Bentinck spent the greater part of his time in endeavouring to improve the condition of the people. English education began to be imparted to the people during his administration. He established the Calcutta Medical College, and declared that conversion was no bar to inheritance.

CHAPTER XI.

LORD AUCKLAND (1836-1842).

Q. 321. Give a brief account of the first Afghan war.

A Causes.—Maharaja Ranajit Sinha conquered Peshawar from the Afghans in 1835. Dost Muhammad, the Amir

of Kabul, sought in vain the assistance of the English in recovering the place. Shortly afterwards, Lord Auckland sent an ambassador to the Amir to conclude a commercial treaty with him. The Amir, disappointed of English aid, began to show greater respect to the Russian ambassador. Mr. Burnes, the British ambassador, drew the Governor-General's attention to the desirability of checking Russian influence at Kabul. Lord Auckland therefore formed a triple alliance with Sháh Shujá, the ex-king of Kabul, and Ranajit Sinha to expel Dost Muhammad from Kabul and restore Sháh Shujá to the throne. War was declared in 1838.

Progress—Sir Willoughby Cotton, the commander of the expedition, captured on the way the fort of Bakkar. The united British army from Bengal and Bombay took Kandahár in May, 1839. Ghazni and Kabul were shortly afterwards occupied. After placing Sháh Shujá on the throne of Kabul, the Bombay army returned to India, conquering Khelat on the way. Sir William Macnaghten was stationed at Kabul to preserve British influence. Dost Muhammad surrendered himself to the English and was sent to India with an ample pension.

On the 1st November, 1841, the Afghán Sardars fell upon Sir A. Burnes's residence and killed him. Akbar Khán, the son of Dost Muhammad, treacherously murdered Sir William Macnaghten. The English army numbered 15,000 soldiers, who gave up their guns and money to the Afgháns on the latter's promising to allow them to return unmolested to India.

Results—The entire English army perished either in the snow or by the hands of the Afgháns. A single survivor reached Jalalabad to tell the sad tale of the terrible disaster.

Q. 322. Under what circumstances were the Sikhs brought into contact with the English?

A. In 1839 Ranajit Sinha died, leaving behind 80,000

disciplined troops. After the treaty of 1809, he had never quarrelled with the English. He conquered Kásmír and Ladak, and raised the Sikhs to great power. None of his successors could manage the affairs of the State properly; and several eminent Sardars (chiefs) were assassinated within five or six years after his death. In 1840 the disorder and misrule of the State led to English interference.

CHAPTER XII.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH (1842-1844).

Q. 323. Mention the important events of Lord Ellenborough's administration.

A. The important events of Lord Ellenborough's administration were :—(1) The despatch of a British army to Kabul to retrieve the glory of the British arms; (2) the conquest of Sindh; and (3) the Gwalior war.

Q. 324. Narrate briefly how the British prestige was restored in Afghánistán.

A. Lord Ellenborough sent General Pollock with a large army to Afghánistán to restore British prestige there. He took the fort of Ali Masjid and relieved Sale at Jalalabad. Then he marched on Kabul, and was there joined by General Nott from Kandahár. They captured Kabul, and after setting the English captives free, levelled the bazar of Kabul to the ground. Shortly after they destroyed the fort at Ghazni, signally punished the rebels, and returned to India in 1842, leaving Dost Muhammad master of Afghánistán.

Q. 325. Give a brief account of the Sindh war.

A. Cause :—After the close of the Afghán war, Major Outram, the Resident, reported against some of the Amirs of Sindh. They were found guilty of holding intercourse with the enemies of the English.

Progress.—They were compelled to submit to a treaty by which they ceded two-thirds of their territories to the English. Their subjects, the Baluchis, rebelled and attacked the Residency. Sir Charles Napier defeated them at **Miyani** and again at **Dubba** in 1843. Napier next took Hyderabad.

Result—Sindh was annexed in 1843

Q. 326. Give a short account of the Gwalior war.

A. Cause.—Janakji, the adopted son of Daulat Rao Sindhia, died in 1843. His widow adopted a child at the instance of the English, but a dispute arose as to the selection of his guardian. The Queen of Gwalior appointed Dádá Sáheb as guardian and dismissed Mámá Sáheb, who was nominated by Lord Ellenborough. She was called upon by the English to give up the Dádá to them, but she refused. War was accordingly declared against Sindhia.

Progress.—The Governor-General himself marched from Agra to Gwalior. Sindhia's army was defeated at **Maharajpur** and **Punnair** in 1843.

Results.—Sindhia entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English. His army was reduced, and his artillery limited to 32 guns. The State remained in the protection of the English during the ruler's minority.

CHAPTER XII.

LORD HARDINGE (1844-1848).

Q. 327. Give a brief outline of the first Sikh war with its results.

A. Cause—After a series of revolutions Dhuleep Singh, the youngest son of Ranajit, was placed by the Khálsá army on the throne of Lahore in 1843. The formidable Khálsá army became very turbulent. With the view of

saving the Punjab from its hands,* Mahārání Jhíndan, Dhuleep's mother, and Lál Sínhá, the prime minister, launched it on British territories either to conquer these or to be crushed by the English.

Progress.—The Khálsá army advanced against the British cantonment at Ferozpur. Sir Hugh Gough, the English Commander-in-Chief, defeated Lál Sínhá's division of the Sikh cavalry at **Mudki** on 18th December, 1845, and captured seventeen of their guns. The Governor-General himself took the field, and with the combined forces of Gough and Sir John Littler gained a complete victory over the main division of the Sikh army at **Ferozpur** on 24th December 1845, which became utterly disorganised, and plundered Lál Sínhá's camp. The loss on both sides was great.

The English again attacked the Sikhs at **Aliwal** on 28th January, 1846, and completely routed them. Goláp Sínhá, then prime minister at Lahore, opened negotiations for peace, which fell through as there was no chance of the disbanding of the Khálsá army. So the war went on.

The English completely defeated the Sikhs at **Sobraon** on 10th February, 1846. Nearly ten thousand Sikhs and about one-fourth of the same number of English soldiers were killed.

Results.—The English then crossing the Sutlej pitched their camp at Mian Mir, not far off Lahore. A treaty was, however, made with the Lahore Durbar on the 23rd February, 1846, and the war was brought to a close. (For the conditions of this treaty—see Appendix p. 32 *Catechism*). On failure of payment of the amount of money agreed upon; a subsidiary treaty was made on the 5th March, and the English consented to stay at Lahore for a year to re-organise the Lahore Government. But in the following year at the request of the Sikh Sardars, an English Resident and a British force were left at Lahore.

CHAPTER XIV.

LORD DALHOUSIE (1848-1856).

Q. 328. Mention, with dates, the various States annexed by Lord Dalhousie.

A. (1) The Punjab was annexed by Lord Dalhousie on the 29th of March, 1849. (2) Rangoon, Bassein, Martaban, Prome, and Pegu became, part of British dominions in 1852. (3) The annexation of Satara in 1849, (4) Jhansi (1863), (5) Nagpur (1853), (6) Oudh (1856), (7) Berar, (8) Naldurg, and (9) Raichár Doáb followed in quick succession.

Q. 329. State briefly the causes, incidents, and the results of the second Sikh war.

A. Causes.—The English on behalf of the Lahore Durbar asked Múlráj, the governor of Multan, to pay Rs. 1,800,000, which he promised the Durbar. Múlráj resigned his office and rose in rebellion. His soldiers attacked and killed two European officers. War was therefore declared.

Incidents.—Lieutenant Edwardes, an English commander twice defeated Múlráj and compelled him to take refuge in Multan, which was besieged a few months after and captured. Múlráj was taken prisoner.

Múlráj's father, Chhatter Sinha, gained the hearty co-operation of Dost Muhammad by holding out to him the cession of Peshawar if he succeeded in driving the English from Lahore.

Lord Gough was defeated by Sher Sinha at **Chillianwala** on 12th January, 1849. Lord Gough won a complete victory over the combined army of Sher Sinha and Chhatter Sinha and a reinforcement of the Afgháns on 27th February, 1849. The Sikhs, after a gallant resistance, surrendered at discretion.

Results.—Lord Dalhousie annexed the Punjab and settled a pension of Rs. 500,000 on Dhuleep Sinha.

Q. 330. Mention the circumstances that led to the annexation of (1) Satára, (2) Berar, (3) Jhansi, (4) Nagpur, and (5) Oudh.

A. (1) On the death of the Rájá of Satára, an adopted son was placed on the throne. Lord Dalhousie held that the State being created by the English should lapse to them on the failure of the direct line of descendants. The Court of Directors and the Board of Control, agreed in this view, and ordered the annexation of Satára, which was carried out by Lord Dalhousie.

(2) The Nizam, being unable to pay off the arrears of his subsidy amounting to Rs. 8,000,000, made over Berar to the English.

(3) & (4) Jhansi and Nagpur were annexed in 1853 on failure of heirs, the adopted sons being declared ineligible for succession to the throne

(5) Oudh was annexed, in 1856, on the ground of oppression and misgovernment of king Wájid Ali Sháh, to whom an annual pension of 12 lakhs of rupees was granted by the English.

Q. 331. What do you know of the second Burmese war ?

A. Causes.—The English Resident at Rangoon slighted on various occasions, had to leave the place. The English merchants in Burma were at the mercy of the Burmese officials. The Governor of Rangoon having ill treated the English, the Governor-General sent a fleet to punish him. The English removed him from Rangoon, and set up another Governor in his place. The new Governor was haughtier than his predecessor, and would not condescend to grant an interview to the English deputation. Admiral Lambert blockaded Rangoon and captured one of the king's ships. War was shortly afterwards declared.

Progress.—The English captured Martaban, Rangoon

Bassein, and Prome. Pegu opened its gates after a protracted siege.

• **Result**—The English annexed the captured places to their dominions.

Q. 332 What were the measures of improvement introduced and carried out during Lord Dalhousie's administration?

A. The Railway and Telegraph systems and the use of the half-anna postage stamp, Irrigation canals, and Grand Trunk Roads were introduced and carried out during Lord Dalhousie's administration.

Q. 333. What change was brought about by the Charter of 1853? Who was the first Lieutenant-Governor?

A. The Charter of 1853 constituted Bengal into a Lieutenant Governorship. Sir Francis Halliday was the first Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal.

CHAPTER XV.

LORD CANNING (1856—1862).

Q. 334 Sketch as clearly and briefly as you can the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, with its causes, suppression, and final results.

A. Causes—(1) The spread of English education, the construction of railway and telegraph lines, and the passing of such measures as the Widow Re-marriage Act created a suspicion in the minds of the illiterate people of the country that the English wanted to anglicise them,

(2) The annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie had greatly unsettled the minds of the people and the removal of the family of the great Mughal from the palace at Delhi gave rise to universal discontent and distrust. Designing men such as Naná Sáheb and Azimulla spread disaffection throughout the country and incited the people to revolt.

(3) The astrologers went from house to house predicting the downfall of English rule.

(4) *Chapatties* were circulated in 1857, throughout Hindusthán, perhaps indicating a call to arms.

(5) A false report was circulated that the cartridges served out to the Sepoys were greased with the fat of pigs and designed to defile Hindus and Musalmans alike.

Its spread & suppression.—The mutinous spirit of the Bengal army first showed itself at **Barrackpur**, and then at **Raniganj** and **Berhampur**. But the mutiny broke out with all its horrors at **Meerut**, where 85 sepoy were ordered to be hanged, for their refusal to use the cartridges. Inflamed at the execution of this order the insurgents cut down their officers and marched off to Delhi, and proclaimed Bahádur Sháh as emperor. The Musalmans of Delhi followed their example. Similar risings took place at **Lahore**, **Amritsar**, **Bareilly**, **Aligarh**, **Badaon**, and other places. But in **Cawnpur**, **Lucknow**, and **Jhansi**, the mutineers displayed their worst passions and perpetrated the grossest outrages on the English officers, soldiers, and residents. The Punjab alone remained quiet.

Sindhia, the Rájás of **Kapurthalá**, **Jhind**, and **Nábhá** rendered effectual assistance to the English, while the Rájá of **Bándá**, the Nawab of **Fategarh**, the Rájás of **Amethi** and **Bánpur**, and the zemindar of **Jagadispur** in Behar, and many Talukdars of **Oudh** joined the mutineers.

General Wilson besieged and occupied Delhi on the 13th September, 1859. Major Neill, after suppressing the mutiny of some Sikh regiments at Benares, relieved Allahabad, where he was joined by Havelock. They jointly defeated the sepoy at **Fategarh**. The sepoy under the leadership of **Náná Sáheb** were defeated and utterly put to rout on the banks of the river **Pandu**. **Náná Sáheb** then reached Cawnpur, where 200 Europeans were deliberately murdered under his orders. The English captured Cawnpur two days

afterwards. Sir Henry Lawrence defended the Residency at Lucknow against the rebels, who were repulsed. Havelock defeated the mutineers at **Unao** and **Busaratganj**. Major Outram arrived in Lucknow in September. In the following November, Sir Colin Campbell relieved the besieged in Lucknow, which was occupied after several days' severe fighting. Campbell routed the Gwalior contingent under Tántiá Topi at Cawnpur. Bareilly was captured by Campbell. Captain Douglas put down the revolt of Kumár Sinha, Zemindar of Jagadispur in Behár. The Bombay army, under the command of Sir Hugh Rose, took possession of **Saugor** in January, 1859. He laid siege to Jhansi and captured it. Sindhia's soldiers broke out into an open revolt under their leader, Tántiá Topi, but were subdued. Tántiá then occupied Bithur and Kálpi successively, whence he was expelled. Gwalior, with the treasury, magazine, and artillery of Sindhia fell into Tántiá's hands. Sir Hugh defeated him at Morár. Gwalior was next captured; the Rání of Jhansi was killed in the action and Sindhia restored to his capital. Tántiá was betrayed by one of his own men in April, 1859. Náná Sáheb escaped to Nepal.

Results—Peace was restored to the country, and a general amnesty proclaimed. Those who had helped the English were rewarded with titles, jágirs, and pensions. The estates of the Talukdars of Oudh excepting those six, who had been friendly to the English, were confiscated.

The East India Company was abolished, and the Queen assumed direct charge of the administration of India.

Q. 335. How long did the East India Company rule in India?

A. The East India Company ruled in India from 1600 to 1858; i. e. for more than two centuries and a half.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE ASSUMPTION OF THE DIRECT ADMINISTRATION BY THE QUEEN (1858-1899)

Q. 336. Give the provisions of the various Charters bearing upon the administration of India in 1858.

A. By the **Proclamation of 1858**, all existing dignities, rights, and treaties were confirmed; and the principle of even-handed justice and religious toleration were granted to the people of India.

The Act for the Better Government of India transferred the Indian Empire from the East India Company to the Crown. The Court of Directors and the Board of trade were abolished. The Governor-General of the Company became the Viceroy of the Queen; and a Secretary of State was appointed for India, who was responsible for his actions to the Queen and Parliament. An India Council was organised with fifteen members as the advisers of the Secretary of State.

Q. 337. Who was the first Viceroy of India?

A. Lord Canning was the first Viceroy of India.

Q. 338. Mention the administrative reforms of the viceroyalty of Lord Canning.

A. During the viceroyalty of Lord Canning, provisions were made for admitting three native members to the Viceroy's Council. The Supreme Court and the Sadr Diváni Adálat were abolished, and the High Court was established in their place.

Q. 339. What impetus did Lord Canning give to the spread of English education in India?

A. Universities were founded in Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. Schools and Colleges, supported and aided by Government, sprang up throughout the length and breadth of the country.

Q. 340. Who succeeded Lord Canning as Viceroy of India ?

A. Lord Elgin succeeded Lord Canning as Viceroy of India. He died shortly after his arrival in India at Dharmasála in the Punjab.

LORD LAWRENCE (1864-1869).

Q. 341. Give a brief account of the Bhutan war.

A. Causes.—Tanso Penlo, a provincial Governor of Bhutan, was hostile to the English, and often made raids into Assam and Bengal, and occupied the Doárs in Assam. The English afterwards seized the Bengal Doárs for which they paid an annual subsidy to the Bhutanese. Sir Ashley Eden was sent to the Bhutanese king as Ambassador to obtain redress but in vain. War was accordingly declared.

Progress—The English captured two forts. Divángiri and Dalimkot.

Result—Peace was concluded by which the subsidy was increased by a few thousand rupees.

Q. 342. Mention the important events of the administration of Lord Lawrence.

A. The suppression of the rising of the Musalmans of Sitáná on the Punjab frontier and the Bhutan war were the two important events that took place during Lord Lawrence's Viceroyalty.

LORD MAYO (1869-1872).

Q. 343. What were the leading events of Lord Mayo's administration ?

A. The grand entertainment of the Amir of Kabul at Umbalá and the visit of the Duke of Edinburgh, the second

son of the Queen, were the only important events that occurred in Lord Mayo's time.

LORD NORTHBROOK (1872-1876).

Q. 344. Mention the important events of Lord Northbrook's administration.

A. The important events of Lord Northbrook's administration were—(1) the outbreak of a severe famine in Behar in 1874, (2) the deposition of Mulhar Ráo, the Gaekwar of Baroda, on a charge of attempting to poison the British Resident at his court, and (3) the visit of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales to India in 1876.

LORD LYTTON (1876-1880).

Q. 345. Give a concise summary of Lord Lytton's administration.

A. (1) The Queen assumed the title of Empress of India in 1877. (2) A terrible famine broke out in Madras in 1877 (3) The passing of the Vernacular Press Act made Lord Lytton very unpopular with the Indians. And (4) the outbreak of the second and third Afghan wars.

Second Afghan war :—

On receipt of information that Sher Ali, the Amir of Kabul, was intriguing with Russia, Lord Lytton sent Sir N. Chamberlain as Envoy to Kabul. But the Governor of Ali Masjid did not allow him to proceed to Kabul. War was consequently declared against Kabul. Sher Ali was defeated and dethroned by the English, who placed Yákub Khán on the throne of Kabul. A treaty was made with Yákub Khán at Gandamak in May 1876, by which a British Resident was stationed at Kabul.

Third Afghan war :—

Immediately after the departure of the English troops

from Kabul, the Kabulése rose and murdered Sir Louis Cavagnari, the Résident, and his escort. This led to the third Afghán war. Yakub abdicated and retired to Mussoorie.

LORD RIPON (1880-1884).

Q. 345. Mention the important events during Lord Ripon's administration.

A. (1) Ayub Khan having defeated a British brigade at Maiwand, General Roberts signally defeated Ayub Khán near Kandahár and placed Abdur Rahman, the present Amir, on the throne of Kabul and evacuated Afghán-istan. (2) Lord Ripon repealed the Vernacular Press Act and (3) passed the Local Self-Government Act. (4) An Act was passed with slight modifications, which empowered Native Magistrates to try Europeans. (5) An Education Commission was appointed to devise measures for the spread of mass education.

LORD DUFEERIN (1884-1888).

Q. 345. State briefly the chief events of Lord Dufferin's administration.

A. The chief events of Lord Dufferin's administration were :—

(1) The reception of the Amir of Kabul at a grand Durbar at Rawalpindi.

(2) The appointment of a Delimitation Commission for the purpose of fixing the boundary between Afghánistán and Russia. The imbroglio at Panjdeh led to a war with Russia imminent, which was averted by the tact and diplomatic ability of Lord Dufferin.

(3) Annexation of Burma in 1886.

(4) Restoration of the fort of Gwalior to the Máharájá.

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(5) The appointment of the Public Service Commission.

(6) The Jubilee of Her Majesty the Queen Empress of India was celebrated (1887).

Q. 348. What do you know of the third Burmese war?

A. Causes.—The King of Burma carried on intrigues with the French and the Italians. Disorder, misrule, and the ill treatment of British subjects led Lord Dufferin to declare war against him.

Progress.—A few English men-of-war ascended the river Irrawady, took Mandalay, and deposed the king, who was deported to India,

Result.—Burma was annexed on 1st January, 1886.

LORD LANSDOWNE (1888-1893).

Q. 349. What led to the Manipur war and how was it terminated?

A. (1) Tikendrajit, the Senapati of Manipur, having murdered five Englishmen, including the Chief Commissioner of Assam, a British force was sent to Manipur. The Raja was deposed and the Senapati executed. A minor of a distant branch of the Raja's family was raised to the throne, and a British Commissioner appointed to rule the country during his minority.

LORD ELGIN. (1893-1899).

Q. 350. Give a short summary of Lord Elgin's viceroyalty of India.

A. Lord Elgin's viceroyalty was marked by a series of disasters of which famine, pestilence, earthquake, and a rising of the frontier tribes, especially of the Afridis were the chief. The Diamond Jubilee of Her Gracious Majesty the Queen Empress's reign was celebrated throughout India

in 1897. Lord Elgin laid down the reins of his office on January 1st, 1899.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE EFFECTS OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

Q. 351. Mention the effects of British rule in India.

A. (1) Peace prevails in every province and division of India. (2) The savage tribes *vis.*, the Gáros, Kukis, Nágás, Bhils, Santáls, Gonds &c., are being reclaimed (3) Many hills sanatoria have been established such as Simla, Darjeeling, Nainital, Sillong, Mussoorie, Ootacamund. (4) Easy communication has been opened between different and the remotest parts of the country through railway and steamer. (5) Murder, rapine, pillage, and other violent crimes have been put down effectually ; and the several marauding tribes including the Thugs and Pindaris have been forced to settle down as peaceful citizens. (6) Drainage, supply of filtered water for drinking purposes, and other sanitary works have minimised the dire consequences of plagues. (7) The development of the natural resources of the country has given employment to millions of the natives of India. (8) Mass education and the encouragement of Sanskrit have endeared English rule to the inhabitants. (9) Non-interference in religions matters is another excellent feature of English rule in india. (10) The Local Self-Government Act and the expansion of the Local and Imperial Legislative Councils have given opportunities to qualified natives to share with their masters in making laws and managing their internal affairs. (11) Lastly, many high posts of the Service have been thrown open to the Natives.

APPENDIX.;

DYNASTIES.—A.

IMPERIAL DYNASTIES OF NORTHERN INDIA.

- I. *Sisunāga* Dynasty—(B. C. 600-370).
- II. *Nanda* Dynasty—(B. C. 370-320).
- III. *Maurya* Dynasty—(B. C. 320-181).
- IV. *Sunga* or *Mitra* Dynasty—(B. C. 181-71).
- V. *Kānva* Dynasty—(B. C. 111-71).
- VI. *Andhra* Dynasty—(B. C. 71-221 A. D.).
- VII. *Chedi* Dynasty of Kālanjara—(218-319 A. D.).
- VIII. *Gupta* Dynasty—(319-510 A. D.).
- IX. *Mālava* Dynasty—(510-573 A. D.).
- X. *Vardhan* Dynasty—(570-652 A. D.).

MUHAMMADAN RULERS OF INDIA.

SLAVE KINGS.—1206 A. D.—1288 A. D.

1. *Kutbuddin*—(1206-1210)
2. *Sultān Altamsh*—(1211-1236).
3. *Sultānā Rezā*—(1236-1239).
4. *Bulban*—(1266-1286).
5. *Kaikobād*—(1286-1288).

HOUSE OF KHILJI, 1288 A. D.—1321 A. D.

1. *Falāluddin* (1288-1295).
2. *Alāuddin Khilji*—(1295-1316).
3. *Mubārak* " —(1317-1321).

THE TUGHLAK DYNASTY (1321-1412).

1. *Ghivāsuddin*—(1321-1325).
2. *Muhammad Tughlak*—(1325-1351).

3. *Firoz Tughlák*—(1351-1388)
4. *Mahmúd Tughlák*—(1398-1412).

LOCAL DYNASTIES.

1. *Gupta* Dynasty of Magadha.
- 2, 3. *Sîn* and *Sen* Dynasties of Kanauj.
- 4 5. *Pál* and *Rhátor* Dynasties of Kanauj.
6. *Chandel* Dynasty of Kátnjara.
Chedi Dynasties of Turpurí and Ratnapur.
Paramára Dynasty of Malava.
Gurjara, *Ráshtrakuta*, *Valabhi*, *Chálúkya*, and
Bághela Dynasty of Guzerat.
- 7-16. *Sauvira* and *Saumana* Dynasties of Sindh.
17. *Pá* Dynasty of the Punjab.
18. *Iomar* Dynasty of Delhi.
19. *Chauhán* Dynasty of Ajmir.
20. *Maukharí* Dynasty of Western Magadha.
21. *Pallava* Dynasty of Káncí.
22. *The Imperial Chálukya* Dynasty of Vátápí.
23. *Ráshtrakuta* Dynasty of Mányaketa.
24. *Ghálúkya* Dynasty of Kalyán.
25. *The Chedis* of Kalyán.
26. *Vádava* Dynasty of Devagiri.
27. *Hoyśála* Dynasty of Dvárásamudra.
Chola Dynasty.
Kákatēya Dynasty of Orangal
The Eastern Chálúkya Dynasty.

LOCAL DYNASTIES

(MUNAMMADAN)

1. *Sayyad* Dynasty of Delhi.
2. *Lodí* Dynasty.

3. *Iliás Sháhí* Dynasty of Bengal.
4. *Ganes* „ „
5. *Second Iliás Sháhí* „ „
6. *Saiyyad* „ „
7. *Súr* „ „
8. *Keráni* „ „
9. *Sharqi* Dynasty of Jaunpur.
10. *Lungá* „ Multan
11. *Arghún* „ „
12. *Muzaffar Sháhí* „ of Guzerat.
13. *Ghori* Dynasty of Málava.
14. *Khilji* „ „
15. *Fáruki* „ „ Khándes.
16. *Bahmaní* „ „ the Deccan.
17. *Bárid Sháhí* „ „ Bidar.
18. *Imád Sháhí* „ „ Berar.
19. *Kutb Sháhí* „ „ Golkonda.
20. *Nizám Sháhí* „ „ Ahmadnagar
21. *Adil Sháhí* „ „ Bijapur.

(HINDU).

1. *Bukka* Dynasty of Vijaynagar.
2. *Narasinha* „ „
3. *Bághelá* „ „ Rewa.
4. *Ránás* of Mewar.
5. *Ganga* Dynasty of Orissa.

THE MUGHAL DYNASTY.

(1526 A. D.—1857 A. D.)

1. *Bábar*—(1526-1530).
2. *Humáyún*—(1530-1540.)
3. *Akbar*—(1556-1605).
4. *Jahángir*—(1605-1627).

5. *Sháh Jahán*—(1627-58).
6. *Aurangzeb* or *Alamgir I.*—(1658-1707).
7. *Bahádur Sháh*, or *Sháh Alam I.*—(1707-12).
8. *Fahándár Sháh*—(1712).
9. *Fárukhshiyár*—(1712-19).
10. *Muhammad Sháh*—(1718-48).
11. *Ahmad Sháh*—(1748-54).
12. *Alamgir II.*—(1754-59).
13. *Sháh Alam II.*—(1759-1806).
14. *Akbar II.*—(1807-34).
15. *Bahádur Sháh II.*—(1834-57).

THE MÁRHÁTTÁ DYNASTY.

1. *Sivaji*—(1664-80).
2. *Sambhúji*—(1680-89).
3. *Sivaji II.*, or *Rájá Sáhu*—(1689).
4. *Rájá Rám*—(1689-1700).
5. *Sambhúji II.*—(1700-1708).
6. *Rájá Sáhu (restored)*—(1708-48).

THE PESHWA DYNASTY.

1. *Báláji Bísvanáth*—(1712-20).
2. *Báji Ráo I.*—(1720-40).
3. *Báláji Báji Ráo*—(1740-61).
4. *Mádhava Ráo*—(1761-72).
5. *Náráyan Ráo*—(1772-73).
6. *Mádhava Ráo Náráyan*—(1773-95).
7. *Báji Ráo II.*—(1792-1818).

THE ENGLISH GOVERNORS AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL—B. GOVERNORS OF INDIA.

1. *Lord Clive* (1758-67).
2. *Warren Hastings*—(1772-1774).

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA

1. *Warren Hastings*—(1774-85).
2. *Sir F. Macpherson*—(1785-86).
3. *Lord Cornwallis*—(1786-93).
4. *Sir John Shore*—(1793-98).
5. *Marquis of Wellesley*—(1798-1805).
6. *Lord Cornwallis* again—(1805).
7. *Sir George Barlow*—(1805-1807).
8. *Lord Minto*—(1807-13).
9. *Marquis of Hastings*—(1814-23).
10. *Lord Amherst*—(1823-28).
11. *Lord Bentinck*—(1828-35).
12. *Sir C. Metcalfe*—(1835-36).
13. *Lord Auckland*—(1836-42).
14. *Lord Ellenborough*—(1842-44).
15. *Lord Hardinge*—(1844-48).
16. *Lord Dalhousie*—(1848-56).
17. *Lord Canning*—(1856-58).

VICEROYS.

1. *Lord Canning*—(1858-62).
2. *Lord Elgin*—(1862-64).
3. *Sir John Lawrence*—(1864-69).
4. *Lord Mayo*—(1869-72).
5. *Lord Northbrook*—(1872-76).
6. *Lord Lytton*—(1876-80).
7. *Lord Ripon*—(1880-84).
8. *Lord Dufferin*—(1884-88).
9. *Lord Lansdowne*—(1888-93).
10. *Lord Elgin*—(1893-98).
11. *Lord Curzon*—(1898-).

WARS AND BATTLES.—C.

AFGHÂN WARS.

First War—1838-42. During Lord Auckland's administration.

Second and Third Wars—1878-80. During Lord Lytton's administration.

Bhutan War—1864. During Lord Lawrence's administration.

BURMESE WARS.

First War—1824-26. During Lord Amherst's administration.

Second War—1852. During Lord Dalhousie's administration.

Third War—1885. During Lord Dufferin's administration.

Gwalior War—1843. During Lord Ellenborough's administration.

CARNATIC WARS.

First War—1745-49.

Second War—1751-55.

Third War—1758-61.

MÁRHÁTTÁ WARS.

First and Second Wars—1775-82. During Warren Hastings's administration.

Third War—1802-1805. During Marquis of Wellesley's administration.

Fourth War—1818. During Marquis of Hastings's administration.

MAISUR WARS.

First War—1767-69.

Second War—1780-83. During Warren Hastings's administration.

Third War—1790-92. During Lord Cornwallis's administration.

Fourth War—1798-99. During Lord Wellesley's administration.

Nepal War—1813-15. During Lord Moira's (Marquis of Hastings's) administration.

Pindari War—1817. During Marquis of Hastings's administration.

Rohilla War—1773-74. During Hastings's administration.

SIKH WARS.

First War—1845-46. During Lord Hardinge's administration.

Second War—1848-49. During Lord Dalhousie's administration.

Sindh War—1843. During Lord Ellenborough's administration.

LIST OF BATTLES. - D.

BATTLES.	GEOG. POSITION	DATES	PARTIES CONCERNED	RESULTS.
Alwal	Punjab	1846	The English and Sikhs ..	The Sikhs defeated by Gough.
Argáon	Berar	1803	The English and Marhátas	Sindhia and Bhonslá defeated by Wellesley
Assai	Hyderabad	1803	English and Márhátas .	Ditto.
Baxar	Behar	1764	English and Mir Kásim with Shah Alam II. and Nawáb of Oudh..	Major Munro defeated the combined army.
Chillianwala	Punjab	1849	English and Sikhs	Indecisive.
Dig	Bharatpur	1804	English and Marhátas..	Holkar defeated, by Fraser and Lake.
Ferozshahar	Punjab	1845	English and Sikhs	Sikhs defeated by Hardinge and Gough.
Gherá	Murshidabad	1763	English and Mir Kásim	Mir Kásim defeated by Adams
Guzerat	"	1849	English and Sikhs	Sikhs defeated by Gough.
Khurke	"	1817	English and Marhátas	Baji Ráo repulsed by Elphinstone.
Lásware	Alwar	1803	English and Sindhia	Sindhia defeated by Lake.
Máharátrapur	Gwalior	1843	Ditto	" " the English.
Mehidpur	Indore	1817	English and Holkar	Holkar defeated by Malcolm.
Miani	Sindh	1843	English and Amirs of Sindh	The Amirs defeated by Napier.

LIST OF BATTLES.

BATTLES.	GEOG. POSITION	DATES.	PARTIES CONCERNED.	RESULTS.
Mudki ...	Punjab ...	1845	The English and Sikhs..	The Sikhs defeated by Har- dinge and Gough.
Pánipat I. ...	North of Delhi	1526	Bábar and Ibráhim Lodi	Ibráhim defeated and slain.
Pánipat II ...	Do.	1556	Akbar and the Afgháns.	The Afgháns defeated.
Pánipat III..	Do.	1761	Márhátas and Ahmad Sháh	The Márhátas defeated by Ahmad Sháh.
Plassey ...	Bengal ...	1757	English & Sirájuddaulá	Siráj defeated by Clive.
Porto Novo...	1843	English and Hyder ...	Hyder defeated by Coote.
Punnair ...	Gwalior ...	1743	English and Sindhia ...	Sindhia defeated.
Sikri ...	Near Agra ...	1527	Bábar and the Ráiputs under Ráná Sanga...	Bábar was victorious.
Sobraón ...	Punjab ...	1846	The English and Sikhs...	Sikhs defeated by Hárdinge and Gough.
Tiráorí ...	North of Delhi	1191	Muhammad of Ghor and Prithvi Ráy	Muhammad of Ghor defeated
Tiráorí II. ...	Do	1193	Do.	Prithvi Ráy defeated and slain.
Udvánálá ...	Behar ..	1763	English and Mir Kásim	Mir Kásim defeated by Adams.
Wandewash..	North of Arkot	1760	The English and French	The French defeated by Coote

LIVES OF EMINENT MEN—E.

Abul Fazl—a learned man of Akbar's court, who wrote the *Akbarnámá* and the *Ain-i Akbari*. He was killed by a hill Rájá, at the instigation of Prince Salim.

Adina Beg—a Muhammadan nobleman of the Punjab, was an inveterate enemy of Ahmad Sháh Abdálí, who took one of the Sikh Misl into his service, with a view to suppress the rest.

Afsal Khán—an Afghán noble, belonging to the Bijapur court. He was sent against Šivají, who treacherously killed him.

Ahalyá Báí—daughter-in-law of Mulhar Ráo Holkar. She ruled at Indore for thirty years. She was noted for her works of public utility.

Ahmad Sháh Adbáli—originally an Afghan officer of Nádir Sháh. He subsequently became master of Afghánisthán and assumed the title of Sháh. He led six expeditions into India. In his fourth expedition he defeated the Márháttás in the third battle of Pánípat in 1761 A. D.

Ajátaśatru—king of Magadha, was converted by Buddha himself.

Alá Sinha—one of the leaders of the Fulkiá Misl. He ruled over a small territory to the east of the Sutlej. He was made Rájá by Ahmad Sháh Abdálí to whom he rendered great assistance. He was the founder of the Patiala Ráj family.

Albuquerque—the second and the greatest Portuguese Viceroy of India. He made the Portuguese supreme in the Indian seas.

Almeidá—the first Portuguese Viceroy of India.

Amar Sinha—the great Sanskrit lexicographer. He was one of the 'Nine Gems' of the Court of Yaśodharma-dev (Vikramáditya). He was a Buddhist.

Amir Khán—a Pathán general in the service of Yaśovanta Ráo Holkar. He was the leader of the Pathán party in Holkar's territories. He submitted to Marquis of Hastings and was made the ruler of Tonk in Rajputana.

Anadi Báí—wife of Rághava. It was at her instigation that Rághava killed his nephew, Peshwa Náráyan Ráo in 1772.

Ananga Bhimdev—the fifth Ganga king of Orissa, who built the greater portion of the temple of Jagannáth.

Anangapál—son of Jay Pál, King of Lahore. On his father's death, he carried out his father's promise of paying tribute to Mahnúd. But in 1008, he appealed to the Hindu princes, collected a large army, and opposed Mahmúd in his fourth invasion, but was defeated and killed.

Appá Sáheb—was the guardian of the minor Rájá of Nagpur. At the instigation of Bájí Ráo II., he attacked the British Residency at Nagpur in 1818, but was defeated and captured. He afterwards fled to Lahore to seek the protection of the Sikhs.

Appay Dikshita—a Karnát Bráhmaṇ, who wrote a very large number of works in Sanskrit, in the eighteenth century.

Aryyáavatta—the great Indian Astronomer, who discovered that the earth has a diurnal motion.

Aśoka—see pp. 9-10. *Catechism*.

Aziz Hámid—a worthless favourite of Muḥammad Tughlak who appointed him governor of Málava in 1387 A. D. He was enjoined to keep the Amiráni under control. He invited the Amiráni of Málava, Guzerat, and the Deccan to a feast and ruthlessly put them to death.

Bairám Khan—Akbar's guardian, during his minority. He was very haughty and suspicious. He put to death several noblemen without a trial. At the second battle of Pánípat, he induced Akbar to attack Himu. His cruelties induced Akbar to escape from him and

himself assume the reins of government in 1560. He was killed on his way to Mecca by a Pathán whose father he had killed.

' *Báji Ghorpure*—was a Márháttá officer of the Bijapur State. He arrested and brought Sháji prisoner to Bijapur. After Afzal Khán's death, he was sent against Śivaji who surprised his capital and killed him with all his family.

Balavanta Sinha—the founder of the Benares Ráj family.

• He was a friend of the English, who confirmed him in his possessions and saved him from the revenge of the Nawab of Oudh, whose feudatory he was.

Ballál Sen pp 18, *Catechism*.

Bándá—a Sikh leader, who succeeded the tenth Guru Govinda Sinha. He was a source of very great annoyance in the mountainous regions between the Sutlej and the Jumna. Bahádur Sháh had to take the field in person against him. He was taken prisoner in the reign of Bahádur Sháh and put to death with great barbarity.

Báppá Ráo—distinguished himself in the defence of Chitor against the Muhammadans under Kásim. He was the founder of the Mewar family.

• *Bápu Goklá*—the last general of the Peshwas. He was placed in charge of the preparations for war against the English. After his death, which took place during the war, Báji Ráo had to surrender to the English.

• *Barnard, Sir Henry*—General Anson's successor. During the Sepoy Mutiny he reached Delhi on the 4th June, and took up his position on a small eminence to the north-west of the city, whence the Sepoys could not dislodge him. He died of cholera on the 4th July, 1859.

• *Barwell, Mr. Richard*—was one of the first four Members of the Governor-General's council during Warren Hastings's administration.

Báz Bahádur—the son of Sher Sháh's governor of Málava. He established himself as an independent sovereign,

Akbar sent an army against him and subdued him. At last he accepted service under Akbar.

Bhānu Gupta—the last of the Gupta kings. He tried to bring together the wrecks of the Gupta empire after its overthrow by the Hūnas.

Bhāshkarāryya—a great Astronomer, who flourished in the 12th century, under the patronage of the Nikumbhas, feudatories of the Yādava kings of Delhi. He discovered that the earth has the power of attracting all bodies to it.

Bhāskar Pandit—general of Raghuji Bhonslá I, Raja of Nagpur. He invaded and plundered Bengal. He was assassinated by Ali Vardi Khán.

Bhatáraka—the founder of the Valabhí dynasty. He was a general of the Gupta kings. He expelled a Scythian horde, which had taken possession of Guzerat.

Bhillama—the first of the Yādava kings. He shook off the yoke of the Chálúkyas of Kalyán and made himself independent. He was the founder of the Yādava dynasty of Devagiri.

Bhimdev—son of Chámundadev, the second Chálúkyas king of Guzerat. He was a great conqueror and rebuilt the temple of Somnáth, which had been destroyed by Mahmúd of Ghazni.

Bhoj—see p. 20, *Catechism*.

Biśvají Krishna—was the general of Mádhava Ráo. He led an expedition into Hindustán, seized it, and invited Sháh Álam from Allahabad to ascend the throne at Delhi. He was recalled by Náráyan Ráo.

Bomma—a Kákateya king. He was a feudatory of the Chálúkyas of Kalyán. He helped Someśvar IV., the last Chálúkyas king to regain his power by expelling the Chedis from Kalyán: but he was defeated by Ballál II, the Hoyśála king.

Bubuji Khānum—daughter of Murari Ráo, a Márháttá chief.

She was married to Yusuf Ādil Shāh, the founder of the Bijapur kingdom. For three generations 'shē' exercised great influence over the Bijapur State and often saved it from the intrigues of the Deccan party.

Buddha—see p. 7. *Catechism*

Burnes, Lieutenant—was sent by Lord Auckland as an ambassador to Kabul. He reported that the Russian influence there should be destroyed. His report led to the first Afghān war. He was very unpopular with the Afghāns, who attacked his residence and killed him.

Bussy—a renowned French general. He was sent by Duplex with Salābat Jang to Hyderabad as commander of the French contingent. He kept up the French influence in the Nizam's territories. He was re-called by Count Lally in 1759.

Campbell, Sir Archibald—the Commander-in-Chief of the English forces at Madras. He was appointed to conduct the first Burmese war, which he brought to a successful termination.

Campbell, Sir Colin—the Commander-in-Chief of the Bengal army. He relieved Lucknow, chased the mutineers from place to place, and restored peace to the country.

Campbell, Sir Louis—was sent by Lord Lytton as Resident to Kabul where he was treacherously murdered by the Afghāns.

Chakrapāni—Datta—the nephew of the kitchen superintendent of king, Nānyapāl of Magadha. He compiled and commented upon many Sanskrit works on medicine.

Chait Sinha—successor of Valavanta Sinha of Benares. Hastings demanded five lakhs of rupees from him as a contribution to the exhausted Exchequer of the East India Company. His refusal to comply with the requisition led to hostilities against him, and he fled to Gwalior with his treasures.

Chāmuudadev—see Book III., ch I., page 36, *Catechism*.

Chánd Bibi—a princess of Ahmadnagar. She was married to one of the Adil Sháhi kings. On her husband's death, she became the Regent and guardian of her infant son. She had great troubles at Bijapur and she left it for Ahmadnagar where she had to contend against the Mughal invaders of the country. She saved Ahmadnagar and obliged the Mughals to raise the siege. But she was shortly afterwards killed by her own people.

Chandrakirtti—a Buddhist reformer and philosopher.

Chánd Sáheb—son-in-law of one of the Nawabs of the Carnatic. On the death of Anwaruddin, Chánd Sáheb disputed the succession with Muhammad Ali, Anwaruddin's son. The French espoused his cause and made him Nawab. Clive invaded his capital and seized it. **Chand Sahab** was defeated, taken prisoner, tried as a rebel, and condemned to death.

Changiz Khán—conqueror of Mongolia. His empire extended from the Pacific Ocean to the Baltic. He would probably have invaded India, had not Altamsh refused protection to his enemies.

Chhatter Sinha—a great Sikh general, who rebelled against the English. He joined his son, Sher Sinha, fought against the English but was defeated at Gujarát in 1849 A. D.

Chin Calich Khán—son of Aurangzeb's favourite general **Ghazi Khan**. He served long in the Deccan and made many friends there. The Saiyyad brothers gave him the governorship of Mǫradabad. He betrayed Fárúkshiyár and was rewarded with the government of **Malava**. He invaded the Deccan, defeated the armies sent against him, and assumed the Subadárship of six *Subás* in the Deccan in 1721.

Chola Gangadev—a great conqueror, who established himself in Kalinga and Orissa. He built the temple of Jagannáth to commemorate his conquests.

Combermere, Lord—captured the strong fort of Bharatpur in 1826.

Cooté, Sir Eyre—a renowned English General, who won a decisive victory over the French at Wandewash in 1760. He also fought against Hyder Ali in the Carnatic and obtained several victories over him. He died in 1780.

Daddaji Kondeo—guardian and tutor of Sivaji whom he brought up as a soldier, ruler, and good Hindu

Damaji Gaekwar—Balaji Baji Rao's rival. He was not satisfied with the arrangements made after Sahu's death, and was consequently retained a prisoner at Poona. He purchased his liberty by agreeing to divide the existing and future possessions of the Marhattas in Guzerat. He captured the city of Ahmadabad in 1754. He was the founder of the Gaekwar family of Baroda.

Dáud—the last Pathán king of Bengal, who made a treaty with Akbar, which he, however, broke off Thereupon his country was invaded by Akbar who defeated him in battle. Dáud fled to Orissa.

Dhábári—Raja Sahu's commander-in-chief. He established himself in Guzerat. On Sahu's granting Baji Rao I, the power of collecting chauth in Guzerat, Dhabari made every preparation to thwart the Peshwa, but was himself defeated and killed at the battle of Dubboý in 1731.

Dharmapál—see p. 17, *Catechism*.

Dilu—the founder of Delhi, about the beginning of the Christian era.

Dipánkár Srijnáná—see p. 17, *Catechism*.

Dost Muhammad—see Lords Auckland's and Dalhousie's administrations.

Durgámati—daughter of Kirti Sinha, the last Hindu King of Kalanjara. She was married to Dalapati, Raja of Garamandal. She heroically defended her kingdom

against Akbar's generals : but she was defeated and killed in the action.

Dupleix—the celebrated Governor of Pondicherry. He sided with **Chand Shahab** whom he made Nawab of the Carnatic. His ambition was to establish a French empire in India, but his object was defeated by Clive. (See under *Chánd Sáheb* above).

Faizi—brother of Abul Fazl. He was the first Musalman, who studied Sanskrit.

Farhātul Mulk—governor of Guzerat, who caused Hindu temples to be built for the purpose of reconciling the Hindus to his usurpation. Firoz Tughlak sent Muzaffar against him ; and he was defeated and killed.

Ganda—a celebrated king of **Kalanjara** who made war against **Rajyapal of Kanauj**, because the latter made a treaty with Mahmúd of Ghazni. He is said to have killed his adversary.

Ganeś, Rájá—a Hindu chief, who made himself independent king of Bengal during the weakness of the **Iliás Sháhí** kings. He ruled wisely for nine years. He was respected by Hindus and Musalmans alike.

Gangu—a Bráhmaṇ astrologer at Delhi, who had a Muham-madan servant called Husain, who founded a kingdom in the Deccan and entitled it Bahmání kingdom after his master's name.

Ghásiuddín—the eldest son of Chin Kalich Khán. He was the commander-in-chief at Delhi under Ahmad Sháh. A few years after his father's death he proceeded to the Deccan to assert his claims to the Subadárship of the Deccan, but he was poisoned by his step-mother.

Gillespie, General—an English General, who quelled the mutiny at Vellore. He was also employed in the Nepal war during the administration of Marquis of Hastings.

Goddard, Captain—led an army from Hindustán to Bombay through unknown regions and enemy's coun-

try. He was invited by the Bombay Government to undertake an expedition against the Mutineers at Patna. But after advancing up to Kolhapur he had to beat a retreat.

Goldar Sinha—was appointed minister at Lahore in course of the first Sikh war. He offered terms of peace to the English, who accepted them after some hesitation.

Kashmir was sold to him for a crore of rupees

Govinda III.—the greatest of Ráshtrakúta kings, who founded a new Ráshtrakúta kingdom in Guzerat.

Guru Govinda—was the tenth *guru*, or religious preceptor of the Sikhs. He formed the project of converting the meek followers of Nának into a band of bold warriors.

Jambira—restored the independence of Chitor after its capture by Aláuddín Khiliji.

Jarshavardhan—see pp. 15, 20, 23, *Catechism*

Jarvis, Lord was Commander-in-Chief of the Madras army. He was sent by Lord Wellesley to invade Maisúr (1799). He defeated two of Tipu's armies and invested Seringapatam.

Javelock, Sir Henry—one of the great English Generals, who saved India from the hands of the Mutineers in 1857.

Jimu—Hindu general of the Sur king, Adili. He was a valiant warrior and skilful administrator. and he was a chief supporter of Adili's government. He re-captured Agra and Delhi from the Mughals, but he was himself defeated by Akbar in the second battle of Pánipat and beheaded by Bairám Khan in 1556.

Hsien Hsang—a Chinese traveller, who visited India during the reign of Harshavardhan of Kanauj. He travelled all over India for fifteen years and learnt Sanskrit literature and philosophy from the Buddhist Pundits.

Jaysál & Bullál—see p. 24, *Catechism*.

Jusau Gangú Bahmani the founder of the Bahmani

dynasty. He was one of the leaders of the rebellion of the Amiráni Sada.

Husain Aī—one of the two Saiyyad brothers, who helped Fārukhsiyār in obtaining throne of Delhi. He ruled the Mughal empire in the name of Fārukḥ for more than nine years. He was assassinated by a fierce Kalmuk on his way to the Deccan, with a view to quell the rebellion of Asaf Jāh.

Hushang Shāh—the second king of the Ghri dynasty of Málava. He founded the city of Hushangabād.

Imādul Mulḥ—founder of the Imad Shāhī dynasty of Berar. He was at first appointed Governor of that province by Mahmūd Gāwān. On the death of his patron, he declared himself independent.

Impey, Sir Erizah—the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at Calcutta. He tried Nanda Kumār and sentenced him to death. He was recalled by Parliament, because he accepted the Chief Judgeship of Sadr Divani Adāla.

Ismail Shāh—second Adil Shāhī king of Bijapur. He was a man of extraordinary talents. He had often to fight with his brother-in-law, the king of Ahmādnagar. He died of malarious fever, near Golḳonda, when he invaded that kingdom.

Jaganāth Tarkapanchānan—a learned Pandit of Trivenī who compiled, at the request of Warren Hastings, a Digest of Hindu Law in Sanskrit.

Jaimini—see p. 29, *Gutechism*.

Jalāuddin—the founder of the Khilji dynasty. He was murdered by his nephew, Alāuddin.

Kājur, Mālī—a great general of Alāuddin Khiliji. He conquered the Yādava kingdoms in the Deccan. He was assassinated by Mubārak, Alāuddin's son.

Kālapāyār—originally a Hindu, but afterwards converted to Muhammadanism. He was the general of Sulaimān

Kiráni of Bengal. He conquered Orissa and committed the image of Jagannáth to the flames.

Káldidas—see p. 30 *Catechism*.

Kandda—one of the renowned philosophers of India. See p. 29, *Catechism*.

Kunishka—see p. 12, *Catechism*.

Kapíla—see p. 29, *Catechism*.

Karnávatí—widow of Ráná Sangram Sinha of Mewar.

When hard pressed by Bahádur Sháh of Guzerat, she sent a "rakhi" to Humáyún, who expelled Bahádur's governor and restored Chitor to her.

Kásim Bárid—the last minister of the Bahmaní dynasty

Kháfi Khán—a Muhammadan historian, who flourished in Aurangzeb's reign.

Khán Fahan Lodi—a great general of Sháh Jahán. He rebelled against the emperor and joined Málik Ambar of Ahmadnagar. It took ten years to suppress his rebellion.

Khauja Fahan—founder of the Shárqi dynasty of Jaunpur.

He was appointed by Mahmúd Tughlak as governor of the eastern provinces of Delhi.

Khizir Khán Saiyyad—founder of the Saiyyad dynasty of Delhi.

Khusru Málik—the last king of the Ghaznaví dynasty.

Kirtti Sinha—see p. 19, *Catechism*.

Kakalladev—see p. 20, *Catechism*.

Krishna Mísra—author of *Probodha-chandrodaya*, an allegorical poem in Sanskrit.

Kumár Pál—the greatest Chálúkyá sovereign of Guzerat.

He was a Jaina. He prohibited the sale of meat throughout his dominions.

Kumánila Bhatta—Dáud's successor as head of the Afgháns in Bengal.

Labourdonnais—French General, who laid siege to Madras and destroyed Fort St. David.

Lake, Lord—an English General, who won the battle of Laswari and captured Delhi. He stormed Dig and defeated Holkar's army at Furakkabad.

Lally, Count—was a distinguished French General. He was the Governor of the French possessions in India. He recalled Bussy from Hyderabad and lost Pondicherry.

Lawrence, Henry—a famous British officer. He was the Resident at Lucknow, and after the annexation of Oudh, he was placed in charge of the government of the province. He was killed in the Residency by a chance shot from the rebel ranks.

Lavanaprasád—of the ancient Chálúkyā family, deposed the ancient dynasty and raised his son to the throne.

Macnaghten, Sir William—was the English political officer at Kabul during the reign of Sháh Shujá. He was treacherously shot by Akbar Khán in 1811.

Madañi Panth Purandhari—the Diván of Báláji Báñi Ráo. On his master's accession to the Pashwaship, Madañi paid off all the debts of his master out of his own pocket and was appointed Diván.

Midan Panth—minister of the last Kutb Sháhí king of Hyderabad. He was the right-hand man of the king, and the Muhammadans rose against him and killed him.

Mátharvácháryya—minister and feudatory of Harihar and Bukka II. He was the leader of the Vedic Revival movement and wrote a very large number of works on the Vedas.

Mahábat Khán—a distinguished general of Jahángír, who being jealous of Núr Jahán's influence over the emperor, confined Jahángír in his own camp.

Mahmúd Bigaráh—one of the greatest kings of Guzerat. He conquered Junair and Champánagar.

Mallínáth—a great commentator of Sanskrit works.

Málik Amber—an Abyssinian officer under the Nizám Sháhí kings of Ahmadnagar. He re-organised Ahmad-

nagar after the fall of the capital in 1603. He founded a new capital, Kirki, afterwards Aurangabad. His fiscal arrangements were excellent. He was the patron of Sháhjī Bhonslá.

Málik Rájá Fáruki—governor of Khándes where he founded the Farúki dynasty.

Manu—see p. 29, *Catechism*.

Muádrak Sháh—the adopted heir of Mahmúd Tughlak. He was the founder of the Shárqí dynasty.

Medini Ráj—the Rájput chief of Chanderi. He had considerable influence over Mahmúd Khiliji. The Muhammadans grew jealous of him and compelled Mahmúd, to send him away. He fled to Sangráam Sinha and induced that monarch to invade Málava. Bábar took Chanderi in 1528, and Medini Báý died shortly after.

Megasthenes—see p. 9, *Catechism*.

Menander—see pp. 10-11; *Catechism*.

Mir Jaffar—commander-in-chief of Sirájuddaulá, Nawab of Bengal. After the battle of Plassey, Clive appointed him Nawab of Bengal. He was deposed by Mr. Vansittart but he was reinstated three years afterwards.

Mir Jumlá—was originally a Persian trader. He acquired great influence in the kingdom of Golkonda and was appointed general by Abdullá Kutb Sháh. He conquered a great portion of the Carnatic, but the king grew jealous of him and tried to ruin him. He fled to Aurangzeb, who employed him in weakening the Kutb Sháhí kings. He was of great help to Aurangzeb in his struggle for empire. Aurangzeb sent him to Bengal as Viceroy. He invaded Assam and conquered it, but had to sound a retreat on account of the outbreak of cholera there. He died of a broken heart, after returning from Assam.

Mir Kásim—son-in-law of Mir Jaffar. He was raised to the Subadárship of Bengal. A quarrel broke out

with the English in respect of transit duties, which resulted in a war. He was defeated at Udvánálá and Gheriá, and fled. On his way to Oudh he killed all the English prisoners at Patna.

Muhammad Ali—son of Anwaruddín, Nawab of the Carnatic. On his father's death, his succession was disputed by Chánd Sáheb, who, with the assistance of the French, succeeded in compelling him to take refuge in the fort of Trichinopoly. The English espoused his cause, captured Arkot, relieved Trichinopoly, defeated the French at Wandewash, and raised him to the Nawabship of the Carnatic.

Múlráj—son of the governor of Multan. He agreed to pay one lakh and eighty thousand rupees as fine for succession on his father's death. The English on behalf of the Lahore Durbar, demanded the above sum upon which Múlráj resigned. A new governor was sent to Multan under the escort of Agnew and Anderson. Múlráj killed them and raised the standard of rebellion. Múltan was besieged and captured by the English. Múlráj was tried and condemned to death.

Munro, Major—won the battle of Baxar (1764), where he was opposed by the combined armies of Mir Kásím, Sháh Alam II., and the Nawab of Oudh. But he was not very successful in his operations against Hyder Ali.

Murád—was the fourth son of Sháh Jahán. He was the governor of Guzerat. Aurangzeb, professing to act in his interest, induced him to join him with his whole army in the war of succession. But after Dará's and Sujá's death, he was sent a prisoner to Gwalior, where he died.

Murshid Kuli Khán—was Subádár of Bengal. He transferred the capital from Dacca to Murshidabad, which was named after himself. He increased the revenue of Bengal.

Musaffar I.—was a Rájput convert to Muhammadanism.

He was sent by Firoz Tughlak against Farhtul Mulk of Guzerat, because the latter favoured the Hindus. Muzaffar defeated him and became governor of Guzerat. He asserted his independence in 1396. He was a great persecutor of the Hindus and destroyed the temple of Somanáth.

Nádir Sháh—belonged to the Kazzar tribe near the Caspian. He seized Ispáhán, the capital of Persia, and assumed the title of Sháh. Russia, Turkey, and Afghánistán fell under the force of his arms. He invaded India in 1732, and carried away the Peacock Throne of Sháh Jahán.

Najamuddaulá—In his third invasion (1766), Ahmad Sháh Abdálí left Najamuddaulá in charge of Delhi. Najamuddaulá had to flee from Delhi when Rághava invaded it. In the battle of Pánipat he induced Ahmad Sháh Abdálí to reject the offer of peace made by Sadásíva Ráo Bháo.

Nának—preached a new religion, which declared that God accepts the worship of any one, whether Hindu or Musalman, if it is conducted in a spirit of devotion. His followers were known as the Sikhs.

Náná Farnavis—see *Catechism*, Book VII., Chapters VI. and VIII.

Náná Sáheb—was the adopted son of the ex-Peshwa Bájí Ráo II. He was the author of the Cawnpur Massacre.

Nanda Kumár—played an important part in the history of Bengal in the early part of British rule. When the majority of the Council were opposed to Warren Hastings, Nanda Kumár proffered several charges of bribery against Hastings, who accused him of conspiracy before the Supreme Court. When the trial of this case was pending, Mohan Prasád charged him with forgery. He was tried by Sir Elijah Impey and executed.

Nanda Ráj—was the minister of Krishna Ráj of Maisúr. He was the real ruler of the State. He appointed Hyder

He ruled for some years when Altamsh annexed his kingdom to the Delhi empire.

¹ *Neonehál Sinha*—was the son of Kharga Sinha and grandson of Ranajit Sipa. He was a young man of great promise. While returning from performing the obsequies of his father, one of the gates of Lahore gave way and crushed him to death.

Nizám Ali—was the fourth son of Chin Kalich Khán. He succeeded Salábat Jang to the post of Nizam. He was very crafty and cunning. He induced Janají Bhonslá to assume the leadership of the Márháttás. He plundered Poona. He was twice defeated by Rághava. But by flattery he prevailed upon that misguided Márháttá chief to let him off, without ceding any of his territories. He ceded the Northern Circars to the English and concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with them. Then he declared war against Hyder Ali, and sought and obtained the assistance of the English. But he secretly made up with Hyder, leaving the English and Hyder to fall out with each other. Náná Farnavis was more than a match for him in respect of cunning. In 1795, he demanded the settlement of accounts of the Márháttá dues from Nizám Ali which he refused. Whereupon the Márháttás declared war against him. He was defeated at the battle of Kurdlá and compelled to cede to the Márháttás all the territories lying between the Tapti and Purindá. He helped the English in the third and fourth Maísur wars and received much accession of territories. In 1799 he was the first to enter into a subsidiary alliance with the English. He died in 1804.

Nott, General—distinguished himself in the first Afghán war by holding out Kandahár against the Afghan rebels during the winter of 1841-42. He joined General English in his march to Kabul, which fell into their hands.

Ochterlony, General—an English general, who defeated the Gurkhás in the Nepal War in 1814.

Outram, Major—was an English officer. He was Resident at Sindh. He reported against the Amirs, which led to the Sindh War. He took the lead in the Persian war. He played a leading part in the relief of Lucknow and defeated the rebels at Álambagh.

Pakshadhar Miśra—see p. 39, *Catechism*.

Pálakápya—see p. 35, *Catechism*.

Pánini—see pp. 5, 11, *Catechism*.

Paramáras—see p. 21, *Catechism*.

Paramarásidēv—see p. 20, *Catechism*.

Paraśurám—see p. 24, *Catechism*.

Parichehárá—was the daughter of the Konkan king so named by Aláuddín, who married her.

Patanjali—see pp. 13, 32 ; *Catechism*.

Pársaji Bhonslá—was the first man, who was sent by Rájá Rám to collect the Márháttá dues.

Pero Penlo—was governor of Bhutan.

Pilají Gaekwar—was the assistant of Senápati Dhábári. He was the first chief of the Gaekwar family, who settled in Guzerat.

Pollock, General—was sent by Lord Ellenborough, with a large army to Afghánisthán with instructions to restore British prestige in Central Asia. He captured the fort of Ali Masjid and relieved Sale at Jalalabad.

Prabhákaravardhan—see p. 16, *Catechism*.

Prahlád Niraji—was the right-hand man of Rájá Rám, the second son of Šivají, while that monarch compelled him to leave the Márháttá country and to take refuge in the Carnatic. In order to reward Prahlád Nirají, a new office was created, namely that of the Pratinidhi, with a rank higher than that of the Peshwa.

Pratáprudra—was the greatest of the Kákateya kings of Orangá. He was a great patron of learning. The

commentator, Mallináth, is said to have flourished at his court. He had to fight hard with the Bahmaní kings for the very existence of his kingdom.

Pratáprudra (of Orissa)—belonged to the Ganga dynasty. He was a great patron of learning. Chaitanyadev lived at Purí during his reign and converted him to the Vaishnav religion.

Pratáp Sinha—the son of Uday Sinha. He restored the independence of Mewar. He founded the city of Udaypur, named after his father, in a mountainous region where the Mughals could never penetrate.

Pratáp Siva—was an adopted son of one of the titular Rájás of Satara. On the fall of the Peshwa, Báji Ráo II., Pratáp Siva was made the Rájá of Satara and given independent power by the English.

Prithví Ráy—was the son of Someśvar Chauhán. His mother was the daughter of Anangapál, the last Tomar king of Delhi. He inherited the kingdom of Ajmir from his father, and the kingdom of Delhi from his mother. He conquered a great portion of the Cháandel kingdom and made war against Jay Chandra of Kanauj. Muhammad of Ghor, after his occupation of Lahore, found Prithví Ráy to be his most powerful neighbour. He invaded Prithví Ráy's kingdom but was defeated. But he came again in two years, defeated, and killed Prithví Ráy.

Prithví Náráyan—was the king of the Ghurkhás. By the middle of the eighteenth century he invaded the Nepal valley, conquered the three kingdoms into which it was divided, and made Khátmándú his capital.

Pushpamitra—See Page 11. *Catechism*.

Rádhá Gupta—was prime minister of Chandra Gupta.

Raghuji Bhonslá—was the favourite servant of Rájá Sáhu. The Márhátta chief of Berar showing signs of disaffection Raghuji was sent to watch the Márhátta interest in that

province. Raghuji founded the Ráj family of Nagpur. He invaded Bengal and Behar, and obtained from the Subadár of Bengal the cession of Orissa. He also led an expedition into the Carnatic, in which he was eminently successful.

Rajendra Chola—see page 26, *Catechism*.

Ráj Sinha—was the leader in the war of the Rájputs against Aurangzeb. In this war he displayed great heroism and patriotism. In this war he succeeded in obtaining very favourable terms from the emperor.

Rájyapál—see page 20, *Catechism*.

Rájyavardhan—see page 16, *Catechism*.

Rám Chander Panth—was a Márhattá general, who was left in charge of the Márhattá country, while Rájá Rám was compelled to flee to the Carnatic. He succeeded in regaining many of the hill forts which had been conquered by Aurangzeb. It was by his advice that Satára was made the capital of the Márhattá country.

Rám Sástri—was the overseer of justice under Mádhava Ráo, the fourth Peshwa. He was very strict in checking bribery and corruption in law courts. He was known for his independence of character. He rebuked Mádhava Ráo on several occasions for neglect of duties and called on Rághava to take his trial at his court for murdering Náráyan Ráo. On Rághava's refusal, he resigned his office and retired into private life.

Ranaji Sindhiá—was the founder of the Sindhia family, and an humble servant of the Peshwa. He gradually rose to important military commands. On the Peshwa's obtaining the cession of Malwa, it was divided between Ranaji and Mulhar Ráo.

Ráni Bhavani of Natore—constructed many Hindu temples, and spent much money on religious and charitable purposes.

Raymond—was a Frenchman, who trained fifteen thousand native troops after the European fashion, in the service

of the Nizam of Hyderabad. But when the Nizam entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English, Raymond had to leave Hyderabad.

Koe, Sir Thomas—was the ambassador of king James I. of England in the court of Jahāngīr from whom he obtained many concessions for British merchants in India.

Rose, Sir Hugh—was the commander-in-chief of the Bombay army, who quelled the Sepoy Mutiny in Málava, and Bundelkhund. He was made the commander-in-chief of the British forces in India. He also put down the rebels in Sitáná.

Rudradāma—see p 12 *Catechism*.

Sadāsīva—was the Rájá of Vijaynagar. He had two brothers Rám Rájá and Tiru Mullá. He reigned long; and it was during his reign that his brother, Rám Rájá, quarrelled with the king of Ahmadnagar and insulted the Musalmans. To avenge this wrong, all the Muhammadan powers in the Deccan made common cause against Vijaynagar and destroyed the city. Sadāsīva survived the ruin of his city for three years.

Sadāsīva Ráo—was a grandson of Bálají Bisvanáth. He was the Dīván to the Peshwa Bálají Ráo. The fort of Ahmadnagar was betrayed to him by one of the Nizam's officers for a handsome bribe. This led to a war in which he compelled the Nizam to cede territories worth sixty-two lakhs of rupees a year. He was sent against Ahmad Sháh Abdálí. He was defeated and killed in the third battle of Pánipat in 1761.

Sádat Ali—was a Persian merchant, who rose to great eminence under Muhammad Sháh. He was sent to oppose Nádir Sháh; but he was defeated. He was appointed governor of Oudh, and was the founder of the Oudh family.

Sádat Ali—was the fifth Nawab of Oudh. Sir John Shore raised him to the Nawabship. He ceded Rohilkhund

and Allahabad to the English in lieu of the subsidy of seventeen lakhs of rupees.

Sáfdar Jang—was the nephew and heir of Sádát Ali. He was appointed Vizier to the Emperor of Delhi. He assisted the Nizam in his war against the Márháttás.

Salábat Jang—was the third son of Chin Kalich Khán. On the death of Muzaffar Jang, he assumed the Subadárship of the Deccan. He had a liking for the French, and took a large contingent of French troops in his pay, under the French General, Bussy. He often waged war against the Márháttás. In the year 1759, Bussy was recalled from Hyderabad, and Salábat first lost his influence, then his Subadárship, and then his life at the hands of his younger brother, Nizám Ali.

Salé, Sir Robert—defended Jalalabad against the Afghán in the first Afghán war.

Salim—see Jahángír's reign.

Sámanta Sen—see p. 19, *Catechism*.

Sambhújí—see Book vii, ch. 11, *Catechism*.

Samudra Gupta—see page 14, *Catechism*.

Sangráma Sinha—was the most powerful of the Ránás of Mewar. He won sixteen battles against the Muhamma-dans. He took up the cause of Mediní Ráy and invaded Málava. He made Mahmúd Sultán of Málava prisoner. He greatly strengthened his position by annexing portions of the Málava and Delhi kingdoms, and formed a plan for expelling the Musalmans from Madhyades. He took up the cause of a Pathán noble, and made war against Bábar, who defeated him in the battle of Sikrí in 1527. He died shortly after. •

Sankarácháryya—see p. 25, *Catechism*.

Sásánka—see p. 16, *Catechism*.

Satyáśraya—see p. 17, *Catechism*.

Sháh Shujá—was the second son of Sháh Jahán. He was Subadár of Bengal. In the war of succession, he was

first defeated by Dárá, and then by Aurangzeb, who compelled him to flee to Arakan.

Shamsuddín Iliás Sháh—see p. 45, *Catechism*.

Shayistá Khán—was Subadár of Bengal. He was sent against Śivajī, occrpied Poona, and lived at the residence of Sháhjī, where he was surprised by Śivajī, and escaped with the loss of a finger.

Sherhiyár—was the fourth son of Jahángir and married to Núr Jahán's daughter by her former husband. Núr Jahán tried to raise him to the throne of Delhi, but he was killed at the instance of Sháh Jahán.

Sher Sháh—see Book vi., ch. iii., *Catechism*.

Sher Sinha—the third king of the Sikhs. He was the second son of Ranajit Sinha and was assassinated.

Sher Sinha—accompanied Agnew and Anderson to Multan with a strong Sikh contingent. Arriving there, he showed signs of disaffection, and in a short time openly rebelled, left the British camp, marched towards the north to join his father, Chhatter Sinha. In the battle of Chillianwala he displayed great heroism, but was defeated in the battle of Guzerat.

Shujáuddín—was the son-in-law of Murshid Kuli Khán. He ruled Bengal from 1725 to 1739.

Shújáuddaula—was the third Nawab of Oudh. He was defeated by the English at the battle of Baxar. He was the first Nawab of Oudh, who came under the protection of the English. It was at his request that Warren Hastings undertook the Rohilla war.

Sikandar Sur—See Book vi. ch. iv., *Catechism*.

Sikandar Lodi—See Book vi. ch. ii, *Catechism*.

Shilábhadra—a great Buddhist philosopher and reformer.

Silāitīya—the name of seven kings of the Valabhī kingdom.

Sirájuddaulá—see Book vii. ch. i, *Catechism*.

Srśundga—see p. 6, *Catechism*.

Sivaji—see Book vii. ch. i, *Catechism*.

Sleeman, Colonel—drew the attention of Government to the existence in India of a class of assassins and robbers called the *Thugs*.

Sripati Ráo—was the *Pratinidhi* in Rájá Sáhu's time. He brought the Márháttá civil war to an end by declaring Kolhapur to be a separate kingdom. He was asked by Rájá Sáhu to expel the Abyssinians from the Konkan in which he utterly failed. He was Peshwa Báji Ráo's rival, of whom he was always afraid.

Subuktigin—see p. 36, *Catechism*.

Suddhodan—see p. 7, *Catechism*.

Sulaimán Kiráni—one of the officers of Sher Sháh. He made himself master of Bengal in 1563. He sent his great general, Kálápáhár, to conquer Orissa. He reigned till 1572.

Sarfráz Khan—was the son of Shujáuddin of Bengal. He was a weak and indolent prince, and reigned for a year and a half when he was deposed by Ali Vardi Khan in 1740.

Tailapa—see p. 26, *Catechism*.

Tántiá Topi—was a Márháttá Bráhmaṇ in the service of Sindhia. In 1858 he induced the Gwalior army to join the Mutiny. He showed some ability in his warfare, but was defeated and compelled to fly from place to place. He was at last betrayed by one of his own servants, tried as a rebel, and executed.

Telingá Mukundadev—see p. 50, *Catechism*.

Timúr—see p. 47, *Catechism*.

Tipu Sultán—son of Hyder Ali. He became king of Mairpur in 1782 and reigned till 1799. For his wars with the English,—see Book vii, chs. iv. and v, *Catechism*.

Tiru Malla—the youngest brother of Rájá Rám and Sadásiva. He removed the capital from Vijaynagar to Pennáconda, where he reigned for a pretty long time.

Todar Mall—see Akbar's reign.

Toráman—see p. 15, *Catechism*.

- Uday Sinha*—the Ráná of Mewar, evacuated Chitor when Akbar invaded it in 1568. He was Pratáp Sinhá's father. His descendants never submitted to the emperors of Delhi and never entered into matrimonial relationship with them.
- Ulagh Khán*—was a general of Aláuddin. He conquered Guzerat. He was made away with by Málik Káfur.
- Upendra*—see p. 21, *Catechism*.
- Váchaspati Miśra*—a renowned Sanskrit scholar, who flourished during the rule of the Patháns.
- Valmiki*,—see pp. 6 ; 32, *Catechism*.
- Vána Bhatta*—see p. 17, *Catechism*.
- ✓ *Vansittart*—Clive's successor, who was induced by his Council to remove Mir Jaffar and appoint his son-in-law, Mir Kásim, in his place.
- Varáhamithir*—see p. 15, *Catechism*.
- Vararuchi*—see p. 15, *Catechism*.
- Vasco de Gama*—a celebrated Portuguese navigator. He doubled the Cape of Good Hope in 1498, and succeeded in reaching India. He landed at Calicut.
- Vihari Mall*—was an intimate friend of Akbar, who subsequently married his daughter.
- Vijjala*—see p. 26, *Catechism*.
- Vikramáditya*—see pp. 14-15, *Catechism*.
- ✗ *Vináyak Ráo*—was the brother of the king of Orangal. Husain Gangu's son, Muhammad, defeated him and obtained possession of Golkondá.
- Vira Bukka*—was a grandson of Bukka, the founder of the Bukka family of Vijaynagar. He ruled Southern India till 1376.
- Virbal*—was a Rájput prince. He was the great wit of Akbar's court.
- Vishnuvardhan*—Ballál's successor at Dvárásamudra.
- Visvás Ráo*—son of Báláji Báji Ráo. He was killed in the third battle of Panípat.

Vopadev—see p. 26, *Catechism*.

Vrihadratha—see p. 10, *Catechism*.

Vydsa—see p. 32, *Catechism*.

Watson, Admiral—came out to India as commander of the English fleet. He helped in suppressing a Márháttá pirate named Angriá whose ships he destroyed. On his arrival at Madras, he was sent to Calcutta, which he re-took from the Nawab.

Wellesley, Sir Arthur—brother of Lord Wellesley, Governor-General of India. He figured in the third Márháttá war. He won the great battle of Assai, which crushed the power of Sindhia in the south. He captured the fort of Ahmadnagar. He attacked the combined forces of the Rájá of Nagpur and Sindhia at Argáon and gained a complete victory there. Gwailgarh and Nárnálá fell into his hands.

Wilson—an English General, who succeeded Sir Henry Barnard. He captured Delhi.

Yájñavalkya—see page, 31, *Catechism*.

Yasódharmadev—see p. 15, *Catechism*.

Yasóvanta Ráo—was an illegitimate son of Tukáji Holkar. He suppressed the legitimate descendants of Tukáji and became master of Holkar's territories. He sacked Ujjayiní, the capital of Sindhia, and proceeded to Poona, where his brother, Vittájí, was assassinated under orders of Báji Ráo II. Báji Ráo fled to Bassein where he entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English. On the approach of the English to Poona, he returned to Hindusthan. He held himself aloof during the Márháttá war of 1803-4. In 1807 he harassed Colonel Monson, but was defeated by Lord Lake at the battles of Dig and Farakkabad. He died in 1811.

Yasóvanta Sinha—was the Subadár of Málava. He opposed the united army of Aurangzeb and Murád near Ujjayiní

in Dará's interests, but he was defeated and compelled to flee to his own country (April, 1658).

Yasovarmadev—see p. 19, *Catechism*.

Yudishthir—see pp. 23 ; 28, *Catechism*.

Yūsuf Adil Sháh—was a scion of the Osmanly dynasty of Constantinople. He fled to Persia and thence to India, where he sold himself as a slave to Mahmūd Gáwán, who adopted him as his son, made him Commander-in-Chief of the Bahmaní forces, and granted him the province of Bijapur as a Jagir. On his patron's death he declared himself independent at Bijapur and founded the Adil Sháhí dynasty. He married Mukunda Ráo's sister, Bubují Khánum. He raised many Hindus to high offices in the state.

Zafar—a converted Rájput, who was sent by the Emperor to Guzerat in 1391. He destroyed many Hindu temples there. He proclaimed himself independent in 1396 under the title of Muzaffar Sháh. He died in 1412.

Zemán Sháh—Sultán of Kabul, reached Lahore in 1799, and wrote to Lord Wellesley intimating his intention of invading Hindustán. Thereupon Lord Wellesley sent Captain Malcolm to represent the Government of India at the Persian Court.

Zulfikár Khán—was the son of Asad Khán, Aurangzeb's vizier. He was sent against Rájá Rám when that monarch made Ginji in the Carnatic his capital. Zulfikár besieged Ginji and captured it after eight years. On the fall of Ginji, he was ordered to take the field against the Márháttás, and on one occasion he chased Rájá Rám so furiously that he entered Singarh quite exhausted, and died in a short time. Bahádur Sháh made Zulfikár Subadár of six Subás in the Deccan with the privilege of staying at court and governing his Subás by a deputy. After Bahádur's death, he supported the cause of Jahandár

Sháh, and on the fall of that monarch, he was beheaded as a traitor.

INVASIONS—F.

1. *The Egyptian and the Assyrian Invasions of India in the 5th century B. C.*
2. *The Persian invasion of India under Darius, who received a third of his revenue from his Indian provinces.*
3. *The Greek invasion under Alexander the Great—For particulars, see p. 8, Catechism.*
4. *The Greek invasion of India under Seleucus.—see Answer to Q. 26 (a)*
5. *Invasions of India by the Bactrians, Scythians, and the Hunas See Answers, to Questions 29, 38, and 41.*
6. *The Arab invasion of India under Muhammad Bin Kásim. See Answer to Question 46.*
7. *The Muhammadan invasion of India under the Ghaznavi Kings—(1) Subuktigin and (2) Mahmúd of Ghazni. See pp. 33-35. Catechism.*
8. *The invasion of India by Muhammad Ghori.*
9. *The invasion of India by Timúr.*
10. *The invasion of India by Bábar.*
11. *The invasion of India by Nádir Sháh.*
12. *The invasion of India by Ahmad Sháh Abdáli.*
13. *The invasion of India by Zeman Sháh.*

TREATIES—G.

Bassein, Treaty of—by it Báji Ráo II. entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English in 1802

Devagram, Treaty of—by which Raghuji Bhonslá ceded Orissa and western Berar to the English. He also relinquished all his claims upon the Nizam for chauth, sárdesmukhi, and ghásdáná. It was signed on 17th. Decembér, 1803.

Gandamak. Treaty of—by it a British Resident was

stationed at Kabul It was made between the English and Yákub, Amir of Kabul, in May, 1879

• **Mian Mir**, Treaty, of—was made with the Lahore Durbar on 23rd. February, 1846. By this treaty the Lahore Durbar agreed to pay a crore and a half of Rupees and cede the Doáb formed by the Sutlej and the Bias.

/ **Mangalore**, Treaty of—entered into by Tipu Sultán of Maisur with the English in 1783. It provided that each party should restore the territories conquered by it. It put an end to the Third Maisur war.

• **Madras**, Treaty of—was concluded between the English and Hyder Ali in 1769, on condition of mutual restitution of conquests

Poona, Treaty of—Báji Ráo II. was prevailed upon to enter into a treaty with the English in 1817, by which his powers were considerably curtailed. He was prohibited from sending ambassadors beyond his own territories, or entertaining foreign ambassadors at his court.

Purandar, Treaty of—entered into by the English with the Ministers at Poona, by which the English agreed not to assist Rághava (1776).

• **Salbai**, Treaty of—was concluded between the English and the ministers at Poona, by which the former agreed to relinquish all their conquests since the Treaty of Purandar, with the exception of Salsette, Elephanta, and two other small islands, which were retained by them. It was also agreed that Hyder should be compelled to restore to the English all the territories that he conquered from them. The infant, Mádhava Ráo Náráyan was recognised as Peshwa and, Rághava Ráo received a pension of three lakhs of rupees a year.

• **Sirji Anjangaon**, Treaty of—was concluded by Sindhia with the English. Sindhia ceded Hindusthán and Khándes to the English and gave up all his claims upon the Nizam, the Peshwa, and the Gaekwar.

Surat, Treaty of—was made between Rághava Ráo and the English in 1774, by which they assisted him with men and money.

Yandabu, Treaty of—was concluded between the English and the King of Burma in 1826. By this treaty, the English obtained a crore of rupees as indemnity for war and the cession of Assam, Arakan, and Tenaserim.

REVOLTS.—H.

1. *Bakhtiyár Khilijí*—governor of Bengal, rebelled against Altamsh in 1212, but was defeated and slain.
2. *Tughrál Khán*—governor of Bengal, rebelled against Bulban and defeated two royal armies in 1279. But he was soon defeated and slain by Bulban in 1279.
3. *Sher Sháh's revolt*—see Book vi. ch. ii., *Catechism*.
4. *Bairám Khán's revolt*—Akbar's general who rebelled on Akbar's assumption of the government in 1560, but was defeated and forgiven.
5. *Sinkándar Sur*—rose in the Punjab, but was put down by Akbar.
6. *Dáúd's Revolt*—see Akbar's reign.
7. *Khusru's Revolt*—see Bahádúr Sháh's reign.
8. *Khurram's Revolts*—see Jahángir's reign.
9. *Mahábat Khán's Revolt*—Do.
10. *Khan Jahán Lodi's Revolt*—see Sháh Jahán's reign.
11. *Chait Sinha's Revolt*—see Hastings's administration.
12. *Vellore Mutiny*—see Sir George Barlow's administration.
13. *Maisur Revolt*—see Book viii. chaps. iv. and v.
14. *Sikh Revolt*—see Book viii. ch. xiii.
15. *Sepoy Mutiny*—1857.

ACTS, REGULATIONS &c —I.

The Five Years' Settlement—was a Regulation of Warren Hastings.

The Regulating Act—see Hastings's administration.

The Permanent Settlement—see Lord Cornwallis's administration.

The Sati Abolition Act—was passed by Lord William Bentinck in 1829, by which the rite of Sati was abolished and its abettors were declared guilty of culpable homicide.

The Act for the Better Government of India—see Book viii, ch. xvi.

The Vernacular Press Act—was passed by Lord Lytton to suppress the freedom of the Native Press.

The Local-Self-Government Act—was passed by Lord Ripon allowing the people to administer their local affairs themselves.

NATIVE STATES AND EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS.—J.

*Native Princes with whom Subsidiary Treaties exist :—(1) The Nizam. (2) The Holkar. (3) The Rájá of Maisur. (4) The Rájá of Travancore, (5) The Rájá of Cochin. (6) The Gaekwar. (7) The Rájá of Cutch. (8) Sindhia.

Native States under British protection, but without Subsidiary Treaties.

(1) Bhopal, (2) Sikkim, (3) States of Bundelkhund, (4) Rewah, (5) States of Rajputana, (6) States of Malwa, (7) States of Guzerat, (8) States on the Malabar Coast, (9) States on the Burmese frontier.

Independent Native Princes in alliance with the English.

(1) The Rájá of Nepal. (2) The Mahárájá of Kásmir, (3) The Rájá of Dholepur.

Foreign European possessions : *French* :—Pondicherry,

(2) Chandernagar, (3) Karikal, Mahi, and Yanaon
Portuguese :—(1) Goa, Dharmu, and Diu

Pensioners of the British Government :—(1) The Nawab of Bengal, (2) The Amirs of Sindh, (3) The Princes of the House of Tipu, (4) The Rájá of Benares, (5) The Rani of the Punjab, (6) The Rájá of Coorg, (7) the heirs of the Nawab of Oudh, and (8) the King of Burma.

SIEGES. - K.

SIEGES WITH DATES.	BESIEGERS.	RESULTS.
Rintambor, 1299-1300 ...	Alauddin Khiliji ...	Fort taken.
Chitor, 1302-3 ...	Do ...	Town taken.
Kálanjara, 1545 ...	Sher Sháh ...	Sher killed.
Golkonda I., 1636 ...	Aurangzeb ...	Peace made.
Raygarh, 1665 ...	Jay Sinha ...	Sivaji submitted.
Singarh, 1665 ...	Do ...	Do
Bijapur, 1683 ...	Aurangzeb ...	Siege raised.
Golkonda II., 1687 ...	Do ...	Town taken.
Pondicherry I., 1748 ...	English under Lawrence ...	Siege raised.
Arker, 1751 ...	The French ...	Ably defended.
Trichinopoly, 1751-54 ...	English and Chánd Sáheb ...	Siege raised.
Madras, 1758 ...	French under Lally ...	Do
Pondicherry II., 1761 ...	English under Coote ...	Lally surrendered.
Seringapatam I., 1792 ...	English under Cornwallis ...	Peace made.
Seringapatam II., 1799 ...	English under Harris and Wellesley ...	Town taken.
Bharatpur I., 1805 ...	English under Lake ...	Siege failed.
Maloum, 1815 ...	English (Ochterlony) ...	Amar surrendered.
Bharatpur II., 1827 ...	English under Combermere ...	Town taken.
Jalalabad, 1842 ...	Afgháns (Akbar Khán) ...	Siege raised.
Delhi, 1857 ...	English under Barnard and Nicholson ...	Town taken.
Lucknow, 1857 ...	Mutineers ...	Siege failed.
Gawfipur, 1857 ...	Sepoys under Náná Sáheb ...	Do
Mandalay, 1885 ...	English ...	King of Burma captured

GLOSSARY OF HISTORICAL TERMS.—L.

Abhidharma—Is one of the three classes of Scriptural works of the Buddhists. It explains their philosophy.

Achāras—Minute rules of conduct for Hindus by the strict observance of which men might attain health and longevity.

Adili—Muhammad Shāh was nicknamed 'Adili'. ✓

Adil Shāhī—The name of a dynasty founded by Yūsuf Adil Shāh.

Adhvaryu—Brāhman priests, who were to do menial works in connection with sacrifices.

Agni—The god of fire in the Vedas.

Ahluwālā Misl—The name of a band of Sikhs who had the ancestors of the Rājā of Kapurthalā as their head.

Ainī Akbarī—Is a work by Abul Fazl, giving the constitutional history of the Mughal Empire.

Ajivākas—Were a religious sect founded in Buddha's time.

Akbarnāmā—A book by Abul Fazl, giving a history of the religion of Akbar.

Amirāni Sada—The leaders of foreign mercenaries under the Pathān emperors.

Angas—Jaina Scriptures as recast in the fifth century A. D.

Angira—A Vedic Rishi.

Antyajās—A low caste below the Śūdras.

Aparāntaka—Modern, Konkan and Malabar.

Appellate Court—A Court in which appeals from the decisions of Original Jurisdiction are heard.

Arghūns—A race of Muhammadan military adventurers, who settled in Sindh or Mūltan.

Asūras—Demons, originally used in a good sense.

Asvins—Divine physicians; they were twin brothers. They were the Vedic gods.

Atri—A Vedic Rishi.

Bāghelās—The last Hindu dynasty of Guzerat and the

présent reigning family of Rewah, so called because their first settlement was at Byághrapalli in Guzerat.

Bághnakh—A kind of weapon resembling the tiger's claws, which can be concealed within the fingers.

Bágrí—The Gangetic Delta was so named.

Baluches—The inhabitants of Beluchisthán.

Banga—Modern, East Bengal.

Bánaprasthha—The third stage of a Bráhman's life in which he is enjoined to lead the life of a forester.

Bargir 'Hangámá—The disturbance created by Márháttá horsemen, who were named Bargis.

Bárid Sháhi—The dynasty founded at Bidar by Amir Bárid on the fall of the Bahmaní kingdom.

Bhakti Sástras—Books written with a view to promote a devotional spirit to Krishna.

Bharukachchha—Modern, Baroach.

Bhikshus—Buddhist monks. They are so called because they lived on alms-begging.

Bhils—One of the wild tribes of India.

Bhrigu—A Vedic Rishi.

Bhrigukachchha—Modern, Baroach,

Black Hole, the Massacre of—See Book VIII, Chap. II., *Catechism*.

Board of Control—See Book VIII., Chap. XVI, *Catechism*.

Bodh Gya—The place near Gya, where Buddha obtained the highest knowledge.

Bráhmacharyya—The life of a Vedic student.

Bráhmárshides—The country comprising Rohilkhund, Jaypur, Delhi, and Mathurá.

Bráhmávárttá—The country between the Sarasvatí and Drishadhvatí, two sacred rivers near the Sutlej.

Byághrapalli—A place in Guzerat, the Jagirdars of which made themselves masters of Guzerat in the twelfth century.

Chakrvartti—The head of circle of kings.

Charaka—An ancient work on the Hindu system of medicine.

Chaturvedi—Those who used to study the four Vedas.

Chaube—The same as Chaturvedi.

Chauth—The fourth part of the revenue, which the Márháttás demanded from every king of India.

Chedi Samvat—An era started by the Chedis of Kálanjara, from the year 249 A. D.

Court of Directors—See Book VII, Chap. V., *Catechism*.

Dacoits—Gang of robbers.

Dakshin Kosala—Modern, Gondwáná and its vicinity.

Dandaka (forest)—The forest which in ancient times covered the face of the country known in modern times as the Márháttá country.

Decennial Settlement—See Book VIII., Ch. V., *Catechism*.

Desádhikari—Revenue officer of the District.

Desamukhya—Do.

Desapándya—Do.

Dharmasútras—Works written in aphorisms on the subject of the manners, laws, customs &c. of the Hindus.

Dharná, (sitting at)—A creditor sitting at *Dharná*, means sitting at the debtor's door, without food or drink till the debt was paid off.

Digambaras—Jaina monks that went naked.

Delimitation Commission—See Lord Dufferin's administration.

Doárs—Mountain passes.

Dvivedi—Those who studied two Vedas

Erannoboas—The Greek name of the modern Sone.

Fulkiá Misl—The name of a band of Sikhs, who settled to the east of the Sutlej.

Gachchhas—Lit. trees The name of a Jaina sect.

Gáins—The descendants of the five Bráhmans, who first came to Bengal, received the title of Gáins or Gráminas, or lords of villages, from the fact of their receiving grants of villages from various Rájás.

Gakkhars—A wild tribe in the hills of the Punjab, who were very hostile to Muhammad Ghorī.

Gārhasthya—2nd stage of a Brāhman's life, when he lives as a householder.

Gāros—A wild tribe in the hills to the east of Bengal.

Gems, Nine—Nine celebrities in the court of Yaśodharmadev (Vikramāditya), who were collectively termed Navaratna or nine gems. Each was distinguished for proficiency in some branch of literature or science.

Ghāsdāna—Forage money, which Rājā Rām allowed his military leaders to lay on foreign territories for their own benefit.

Gonds, the—Are the wild tribes inhabiting the tract in Central India called after them Gondwānā.

Grāmādhikāri—The revenue officer of a village.

Grantha character—The character in which Sanskrit books were written in Drāvira in ancient times.

Gurumukhi character—The ancient character of the Punjab, in which the Sikh Scriptures were written.

Habshis—The Abyssinians in India were known as Habshis.

Hijira—(Lit.) Flight—hence the date which starts from Muhammad's flight to Medina.

Himavanta—Modern, Tibet.

Hotri Priests—Those Brāhmins who used to pour libations into the fire were called Hotri priests. They studied the Rīgveda.

Hūnas—A nomad horde from Central Asia, who destroyed the Eastern Roman Empire in the fourth and Chandra Gupta's Empire in the fifth century.

Ilāhi religion—The religion founded by Akbar. It preached that the sun is the glorious emblem in this world.

Indo-Aryans—Those who settled in India.

Indo-Pāli—The character in which Asoka's inscriptions were engraved in India.

Indra.—A Vedic god, who represents strength, or as is sometimes called the rain-god.

Infanticide (Female).—The system of killing female infants by the Rájputs, who found it very difficult to get suitable bridegrooms for their girls.

Ionians.—One of the four great divisions of the Greeks.

Jainas.—The followers of Mahávira who was a contemporary of Buddha and who preached what is called the Jaina religion.

Játs.—A Súdra tribe in Western India, who founded some small kingdoms on the ruins of the Mughal empire.

Jizya.—A poll-tax imposed by Muhammadan sovereigns on all men professing a different faith from Islam.

Joláhás.—A low tribe that embraced Muhammadanism and generally subsisted on weaving cloth.

Jwálámukhi.—A natural flame in Kángra hills, which is an object of worship to the Hindus

Kanva.—One of the Vedic Rishis.

Kánva Dynasty.—A Bráhmaṇ dynasty of Magadha, which supplanted the Súra Dynasty.

Karma.—The theory of the responsibility of man for his own actions. His *Karma* obliges him to be born again and again.

Kázis.—Musalman Judges.

Khálsá army.—The army under the control of the Sikh Durbar.

Khonds.—Wild tribes inhabiting the Northern Circars, who used to propitiate their mother, Earth, with the blood of human beings.

Kols.—A wild tribe inhabiting the district of Singbhum.

Kshatrapa.—The viceroy of the Scythian conquerors of India.

Kshaudrakas.—A Kshatriya tribe in the Punjab in ancient times, known in Greek as the Oxydrakæ.

Kukis—A wild tribe inhabiting hill tracts in the east of Bengal

Kulinism—A sort of nobility among the higher classes inhabiting Bengal, founded by Ballál Sen.

Kutila character—The character, which, about 800 years ago, was the written character in Eastern India, from which Bengali, Maithili, and other characters derived their origin.

Lakshmi—The Hindu goddess of wealth.

Lingáyats—A sect of the worshippers of Śiva, founded by Vásava, minister of Bijjvala, the Chedi king of Kalyán.

Mahárájádhirāja—The supreme king of great kings.

Maháyána—A High Path School of Buddhism which prevailed in northern countries (Tibet, China, Mongolia &c)

Málavasthityabda—The era started by the Kshattriyas of Málava in 56 B. C

Mallí—The people of Málava, a table-land in the Punjab. They opposed Alexander the Great

Mandalesvara—The Lord of a circle of kings.

Maruts—The Vedic gods of wind or storm

Matsya—The ancient name of the country around Jaypur.

Mawalis—A wild tribe inhabiting the wilds of Poona, who were reclaimed by Dádáji Kondeo and turned into soldiers by Śivaji.

Misls—From the beginning of the eighteenth century the Sikhs formed themselves into bands called Misls for mutual protection and for harassing the Musalmans

Mlechchhadésa—The country inhabited by Mlechhas, or impure people.

Mollás—learned men amongst the Muhammadans.

Mukhya-Pradhán—The chief minister of Śivaji's court.

Naimisháranya—A holy place of the Hindus in the north-western corner of Oudh.

Non-Aryans—Those who are not Aryans.

Navaratna—See *Nine-gems*.

Nayárs—The ruling castes in the Malabar coasts.

Nikáris—Fishermen in Bengal.

Nirgrantha—The ancient name of the Jinas.

Nirūkta—Vedic Philology.

Nirvāna—Emancipation according to the Buddhists.

Nyāya—A system of Hindu philosophy, which perfected the science of reasoning.

Nyāyadrśi—Overseer of justice in Śivaji's court.

Olandās—Hollanders.

Orangs—A wild tribe inhabiting the Chota Nagpur districts.

Osiris—A god of the Egyptians.

Paithāna—Pratisthāna, an emporium of trade in the Deccan. known to Pliny in the second century A. D.

Pájáris—A tribe of fishermen in Bengal, who embraced Muhammadanism.

Paramabhattāraka—The Supreme Lord.

Perso-Aryans—Aryans who lived in Persia.

Paundras, the—Modern Punros, who inhabit the Malda district.

Perumal—A Governor who used to be invited from the Chera country by the Nayárs, *i. e.*, the ruling castes of Malabar Coast in ancient times

Peshkui—Is a consolidated payment for inland transit in Bengal.

Pindáris—A tribe of Central India and the Deccan.

Pirs—Holy men among the Muhammadans.

Pitaka—Basket, hence, a collection of Buddhist Scriptures is called a Pitaka.

Pods, the—A low caste tribe of Bengal.

Prabhāsa—In the southern portion of the Peninsula of Guzerat. It is a holy place of the Hindus.

Prachii (the Greek Prasti)—The Greek term of Prachí or Eastern country.

Pradhāns—Ministers of Śivaji's court.

Prākṛits—Vernaculars of India in the Mediæval ages.

- Pratinidhi*—Representative of the king.
- Pratisthán*—The same as Faithána.
- Prayág*—Modern, Allahabad. It is a place of pilgrimage of the Hindus
- Prithvi Ráy Rasau*—A Hindí work by poet, Chánd, on the life and adventures of Prithví Ráy.
- ✓ *Public Service Commission*—See Book vii. ch. xvii, *Catechism*.
- Pulindas*—Wild tribes inhabiting the forests of Bengal and Orissa in ancient times
- Puránas*—Works embodying information about Hindu mythology and traditions
- Púrvis*—The first set of Jaina Scriptures compiled in Chandra Gupta's time and replaced in the fifth century A. D. by another set named Angas
- ✓ *Queen's Proclamation* See Book viii. ch. xvi, *Catechism*.
- Rájatarangini*—A history of Kásmir in Sanskrit.
- Rameses*—One of the ancient Egyptian kings.
- Rárh*—Ancient name of Western Bengal.
- Rásamála*—A history of Guzerat in Sanskrit.
- Rattas*—A Kshattriya tribe of the Deccan, also called Rásh-trakútas.
- Ráthor*—The same as Ráttás.
- ✓ *Regulating Act*—See Book viii., ch. iv., *Catechism*.
- Rigveda*—See p. 1, *Catechism*.
- Rohillas*—A tribe of Afgháns, who settled in the Panchal country now called Rohilkhund after them.
- Śaiva*—Worshipper of Siva.
- Saka era*—era started from the accession of Kanishka, the Saka king of Peshawar in 78 A. D.
- Sakári*—An enemy of the Scythians; an epithet of Vasodharmadev.
- ✓ *Sácala*—An ancient name of Oudh.
- Sáhás*—See p. 5, *Catechism*.

Sāma—A collection of Vedic verses which used to be chanted or sung aloud.

Samhitā—A compilation either of Law, Veda, or of any thing

Sangiti (*council of the Buddhists*)—Is a place where many people sing together. It is a technical term for the Council of Buddhist Elders.

Sannyāsi—A mendicant.

Santals, the—A wild tribe inhabiting the Sántal Parganas.

Sāraddā character—A character in which Sanskrit books were written in Káśmír and the Punjab.

Sārdeśmukhi—The share of revenue due to a Deśhmukhya, or district officer.

Sāstras—Hindu Scriptures.

Satī rite—Rite by which Hindu widows used to immolate themselves on the funeral pyre of their husbands.

Sauviras—A tribe of Kshattriyas who were very powerful in Sindh.

Savita—The Vedic sun-god.

Sikshā—The work on Vedic pronunciation.

Siyādrul Mutakherin—A work written by Ghulam Ali on the history of his own times from 1707 to 1787.

Soma—The juice of a creeper of the same name used in Vedic sacrifices.

Śrautasūtras—Aphoristic works on great national ceremonies.

Subarnabhūmi—Southern Burma.

Subsidiary alliance See Book viii., Ch. viii., *Catechism*.

Sukarchakā Misl—That band of Sikhs of which Chhatter Sinha, the grandfather of Ranjit Sinha was the chief.

Suktas—Lit. good sayings. Vedic hymns

Sulvasūtras those aphoristic works in which directions for the formation of sacrificial altars are given.

Taj Mahal—A mausoleum erected on the remains of Mumtāz Mahal, the favourite Queen of Shāh Jahān.

Tewari—Those who studied three Vedas. It is a corruption of the Sanskrit word, Trivedī.

Thugs—See Book viii, ch. x., *Catechism*.

Udgātri priests—The Brāhmins, who in Vedic sacrifices, used to chant Sāmts.

Upapurāns—minor Purānas.

Usbeks—A Muhammadan tribe of Tartary.

Vakili Mutālak—The deputy of the empire

Vārendra—The Brāhmins inhabiting Northern Bengal

Varuna—A Vedic god.

Vāyu—A Vedic god.

Vedāngas—Sciences subsidiary to the study of the Vedas.

Vihāyas Buddhist Monasteries

Vikram Samvat—Mālava era, brought into general use, by Yaśodharmadev (Vikramāditya).

Vinaya—That part of Buddhist Scriptures which treats of the training of monks.

Yajurveda—The Veda which is used by the Adhvaryu priests.

Yajurvedi Brāhmins—Those Brāhmins who studied the Yajurveda.

Yati—A Brāhman in the fourth stage of his life living on alms.

Yavanas—People belonging to the Greek countries.

Yonades—Any country under Greek sovereignty.

TERRITORIES ACQUIRED BY THE ENGLISH.—M.

PLACE.	WHEN TAKEN.	FROM WHOM	CIRCUMSTANCES.
Madras	... 1639	Rājā of Chandragiri	Purchased.
Bombay	... 1661	Portuguese	Dowry of Charles II.
Calcutta	... 1662	Subadār of Bengal	Purchased.

PLACE.	WHEN TAKEN.	FROM WHOM.	CIRCUMSTANCES.
Bengal, Behar, and Orissa	1765	Emperor of Delhi	After the defeat in the battle of Baxar.

WARREN HASTINGS.

Benares	... 1775	Nawab of Oudh	Granted
Northern Circars	1766	The Nizam	Do.
Salsette	... 1782	Peshwa	Treaty of Salbai.

LORD CORNWALLIS.

Tellichery	}	1792	Tipu	Result of 3rd Mysur War.
Calicut				
Dindigal				

LORD WELLESLEY.

Canara	... 1799	Tipu	Result of 4th. Mysur War.	
Carnatic	... 1799	Nawab of Arkot	Nawab pensioned off	
Tanjore	... 1799	Rájá of Tanjore	Rájá pensioned off.	
Kora, Allahabad, and Rohilkhund	}	1801	Nawab of Oudh	Treaty of Lucknow,
Bundelkhund		1801	Sindhia	Third Márháttá War.
Delhi	... 1803	Sindhia	Do.	
Orissa and Western Berars	}	1803	Rájá of Nagpur	Do.

MARQUIS OF HASTINGS

Kumaun, British Garhwal, Dehra Dun, Simla.	}	1816	Rájá of Nepal	Result of the Ne- pal War.
Poona		... 1818	Peshwa	Fourth Márháttá War.

LORD AMHERST.

Assam, Aracan, and Tenasserim	}	1826	King of Burma	Treaty of Yandabu.
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LORD BENTINCK.

PLACE.	WHEN TAKEN.	FROM WHOM.	CIRCUMSTANCES.
Coorg	... 1834	Rájá of Coorg.	Rájá dethroned.

LORD ELLENBOROUGH.

Sindh	... 1834	Amirs of Sindh.	Conquered.
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LORD DALHOUSIE.

Satara	... 1848	...	Want of heir.
The Punjab	... 1849	Sikhs	Result of the 2nd Sikh War.
Fegu	... 1852	King of Burma	Second Burmese War.
Nagpur	... 1853	...	Want of heir.
Jhansi	... 1853	...	Want of heir.
Berar	... 1853	Nizam	Grant for subsidy.
Oudh	... 1856	Nawab Wajid Ali.	Misrule.

LORD DUFFERIN.

Burma	... 1886	Thibaw	Rájá dethroned ; result of the 3rd. Burmese War.
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**CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY QUESTIONS.—N. ,
THE HINDU PERIOD.**

1. How far did Alexander the Great advance into India ? What arrested his career ? (Calcutta University, 1859).

2. How was India politically divided about the year 1700 ? (C. U. 1864).

3. Give some account of the most famous kings of ancient Magadha and of the extent of their dominions (C. U. 1868).

4. State what do you know of the establishment and downfall of the kingdom of Bijápur and mention the dates of these events. (C. U. 1868).

5. What is the general character of the history of India before the Muhammadan conquest ? Mention the books which form the chief sources of our information regarding the ancient Hindus and give the names of their respective authors, the probable dates of their composition, and subjects of which they severally treat. (C. U. 1870).

6. Give some account of the rise, progress, and decay of Buddhism in India, and its distinctive features as compared with Hinduism. (C. U. 1872).

7. What religions prevailed in India before the advent of the Muhammadans ? Who were the chief Sanskrit dramatists, and what were their most important works ?

(C. U. 1876).

8. What date has been assigned to Buddha ? How did he innovate the religion of his countrymen ? What do you know of the two most famous Buddhist kings of India ? About what time did Buddhism begin to decline in India ? (C. U. 1877).

9. Give some account of Ráy Pithorá, Bairám Khán, Ahmad Sháh Abdálí, and Ranjit Sinha. (C. U. 1877).

10. Describe the Heroic Age of India, and trace the progress of the Aryans from their original seat to their settlement on the plains of the Ganges. (C. U. 1878).

11. Give a brief account of the various Greek invasions of India. (C. U. 1878).

12. What parts of India were visited by the Greeks and what are the accounts of the country left by them ?

(C. U. 1880)

13. Give some account of the state of India, political, social and religious, during the period preceding the Muhammadan invasions : and describe the more important changes introduced by the latter. (C. U. 1881).

14. Give some account of the following :—Chandrá Gupta, Vikramáditya, Prithví Ráy Timur, Vasco da Gama, Ahmad Shah Abdálí. (C. U. 1881.).

15. Give a short history of the rise and fall of Buddhism in India. What traces has it left on the present religion of India ? (C. U. 1885).

16. Give a short account of the life, teachings, and death of Gautama Buddha (C. U. 1887).

17. What account Megasthenes gives of Indian society ? (C. U. 1887).

18. Explain in a few words the following expressions :—the Non-Aryans ; the Bráhmaṇas, and Sūtras ; the Khálsá and the Chauth. (C. U. 1887).

19. Write what you know of Aśoka, Kanishka, Śaṅkarácharýya, Chaitanya, and Nának (C. U. 1888).

20. Write what you know of the following :—Śilāditya, Chandra Gupta, Vikramáditya, Kavira, Gautama Buddha. (C. U. 1889).

21. How and when was Buddhism made a state religion in India ? (C. U. 1891).

22. Give an outline of the story of the Mahábhárata. What was the probable date of the events related therein ? (C. U. 1893.)

23. State what you know of Chandra Gupta, Kanishka, Vikramáditya, Śiláditya. (C. U. 1893.)

24. Give an account of India as seen and described by Hiouen Tshang. (C. U. 1894).

25. When did Megasthenes visit India ? What account has he left of Indian society ? (C. U. 1894)

26. State what you know about the following dynasties : Śiśunága, Maurya, Guptas, and Pals. Name some of their most powerful kings, giving dates (C. U. 1895).

27. Where are the following places and with what events in Indian history are they connected ?—Korur, Tiráori, and Chitor (C. U. 1895).

28. Enumerate the six principal Schools of Hindu Philosophy with their founders (C. U. 1896).

29. Who were Sakas and when did they invade India ?

Who was their most famous king and for what was he celebrated ? At the time of their invasion what was the most powerful kingdom of India ? (C. U. 1896).

THE MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

1. Compare the Indian invasions of Mahmúd, Muhammad Ghori, Timúr, and Bábar (C. U. 1858).
2. Who was the first and who was the last sovereign of the Páthán or Afghan dynasty ? (C. U. 1859).
3. What was the extent of the Portugese settlements in the East at the time of that nation's greatest prosperity ? And what settlements does Portugal still possess in India ? (C. U. 1859).
4. Who was the founder of the Pathán dynasty of Indian Emperors ? (C. U. 1862).
5. Give a short history of his life. (C. U. 1862).
6. Mention the successive Muhammadan dynasties which had reigned in India, with the duration of the supremacy of each. (C. U. 1863).
7. When, between whom, and with what results, were the following battles fought ?—Tálikot and Myani. (C. U. 1865).
8. What Muhammadan power rose to independence in India during the decline of the Mughal dynasty ? And what Hindu States arose from a division of the Márháttá power ? (C. U. 1866).
9. Give the dates of each of the following battles, the names of the commander on each side and of the conquering party :—Tálikot, Wandawash, the first battle of Pánipat (C. U. 1867).
10. Give the name and date of accession to the throne of each of the three sovereigns of the Lodi Dynasty. (C. U. 1867).
11. Who were Ráná Sanga, Sher Khán Afghan, and

Mir Jumla ? Mention some important events in the career of each. (C. U. 1807).

12. Give definite statements of the rise and progress of the Bahmaní dynasty ; and name the kingdoms that were formed at its dissolution. (C. U. 1869).

13. When was the first successful Muhammadan invasion of India made ? Give the names of the leaders ; mention the provinces they conquered, and state how the conquest was subsequently lost. (C. U. 1870).

14. Under what circumstances was the Bahmaní kingdom of the Deccan founded ? State how long it lasted, and name the five independent principalities, which arose on its ruins. (C. U. 1870).

15. Enumerate in chronological order the chief invasions of India from the North-West, indicating those which resulted in permanent conquest. (C. U. 1873)

16. Give some account of the Portuguese discovery and settlement in India. (C. U. 1875)

17. India was at different periods invaded from the North-West. Give a short account of those invasions with results. Who was Sultán Muhmúd ? Give with dates, a short notice of the 4th, and 9th, 12th of his expeditions. (C. U. 1876).

18. Who was Timúr ? Notice his doings in India. Show by a genealogical tree his connection with the Mughal Emperors. Name with dates five of them, and describe the extent of the Mughal Empire in Akbar's time. (C. U. 1877).

19. By what decisive battle was the Muhammadan power in India firmly established ? Who was Kutbuddín ? Name the most famous sovereigns of the dynasty to which he belonged. (C. U. 1878).

20. Enumerate the successive Muhammadan dynasties that reigned in Delhi, with dates. Describe the events which led to the establishment of each dynasty. (C. U. 1881).

21. Describe briefly the rise and fall of the Báhmání kingdom and its offshoots. (C. U. 1882).

22. Give a short account of Muhammad of Ghor's conquests. Wherein did his expeditions to India differ from those of Mahmúd of Ghazni? (C. U. 1885).

23. Give a brief account of the Báhmání kingdom, and name the kingdoms that were formed out of its fragments. What contributed to the downfall of that kingdom? With what Hindu kingdom had it to struggle? (C. U. 1886)

24. Give the names and dates of accession of the Muhammadan dynasties that ruled in India before the establishment of the Mughal Empire. Name one great event in the history of each dynasty. (C. U. 1889).

25. Give an account of the reign and conquests of Mahmúd of Ghazni. (C. U. 1890).

26. Give the names and dates of the dynasties which reigned at Delhi during 1001—1525 A. D. (C. U. 1892)

27. Name the Muhammadan dynasties that reigned at Delhi, giving their dates. What do you know of Timúr and Nádir Sháh? (C. U. 1894).

28. Enumerate in chronological order the chief invasions of India from the north-west. Mention those that resulted in permanent conquest. (C. U. 1895).

29. Who was Sultán Mahmúd? Give an account of the ninth and twelfth of his expeditions. (C. U. 1896).

THE MUGHAL PERIOD.

1. Mention the conquests made by Bábar, and the date of his death; describe his character. (C. U. 1858).

2. Give some account of the first Mughal invasion of India. (C. U. 1859).

3. Describe the manner in which Aurangzeb obtained the throne of Delhi. What relation had he to Akbar? (C. U. 1859).

4. Give an account of the two English missions to the court of Jahāngir by the chiefs of these Missions. (C U. 1860).

5 Give a list of the Mughal emperors, with dates of their accession, from the establishment of the Mughal Empire to the accession of Fārukhsiyār. (C. U. 1862).

6. What was the internal condition of India under Aurangzeb? (C. U. 1862).

7. Give a brief history of the career of Mahābat Khān. (C. U. 1862).

8. Sketch the history of Humāyun and Sher Shāh. (C. U. 1863).

9. Give a sketch of the reign of Aurangzeb. (C U. 1864).

10. Give dates of accession and death of all the Mughal Emperors down to Muhammad Shāh. (C. U. 1865).

11. By what successive acts of violence and treachery did Aurangzeb obtain possession of his father's throne? (C. U. 1866).

12 Mention in chronological order a few of the principal events in the life of Bābar. (C. U. 1867).

13 Describe the character of Akbar, and state what portions of India were added to the Mughal Empire during his reign. (C. U. 1868).

14 Where and when were the two battles fought, one of which led to the foundation of the Mughal Empire, and the other to its subversion? Name the first six monarchs of that dynasty. State how long they respectively reigned and give the prominent features of the reign of Akbar. (C. U. 1870).

15. What was the character of Akbar? What were his religious views? Who was his Financial Minister, and what were his chief revenue arrangements? (C. U. 1871).

16. Give a brief history of Nūr Jahān. (C. U. 1871).

17. What was the political condition of India when Bābar invaded it? Give some particulars of his invasion. (C. U. 1872).

18. Give an outline of the history of Humáyún. (C. U. 1873).

19. Give a brief history of Akbar's reign, with a special reference to his personal qualities and religious sentiments, his policy and friends, revenue system, and the division of his empire. (C. U. 1874).

20. Who were Mir Kásim, Humáyún, and Náná Panna-vis ? (C. U. 1875).

21. Give the chief events in Indian history from the accession of Akbar to the death of Aurangzeb. (C. U. 1875).

22. Give an account of the following :—Todar Mall, Abul Fazl, and Mir Kásim. (C. U. 1878).

23. Give a brief account of the reign of Akbar. (C. U. 1879).

24. Describe the character and briefly sketch the career of the sixth emperor of the Mughal line (C. U. 1886).

25. Narrate briefly the principal events of Akbar's reign ; for what are Rájá Todar Mall and Ábul Fazl distinguished ? (C. U. 1887).

26. Narrate briefly the principal events of the reign of Aurangzeb and contrast his general policy with that of Akbar. (C. U. 1888).

27. What were the causes of the decline and fall of the Mughal Empire ? (C. U. 1888).

28. Narrate briefly the chief events in the reign of Akbar ; state what you know of his religion and revenue system. (C. U. 1889).

29. Narrate briefly the chief events of the reign of Sháh Jahán. (C. U. 1890).

30. Mention the chief events of the reign of Akbar, and compare his general policy with that of Aurangzeb. (C. U. 1893).

31. Describe the manner in which Aurangzeb obtained the throne of India, (C. U. 1894)

32. What countries were conquered by Akbar ? Describe

his views on religion, his revenue system, his organisation of the empire and his treatment of the Hindus. Contrast his treatment of the Hindus with that of Aurangzeb. (C. U. 1896).

33. Briefly sketch the history of Southern India from the time of Alauddin Khilji down to the conquests of Aurangzeb. (C. U. 1896).

THE MARHATTA PERIOD.

1. Who was the founder of the Márháttá dynasty ? Give a brief history of his career. (C. U. 1861).

2. Give an outline of the second Márháttá war. (C. U. 1861).

3. When did the Márháttás rise to power ? What circumstances favoured them ? When was their influence at its height, and what led to its decline ? (C. U. 1864).

4. When and where did the following persons live, and for what are they renowned ? Bábar, Nának, Sir Eyre Coote. (C. U. 1864)

5. Give the dates of the following battles ; state where they were fought and between whom ; Wandewash, Assái, Mehiddur, and the different contests at Pánipat (C. U. 1864).

6. What were the chief events in the life of Náná Farnavis, and what part did the English take in Márháttá affairs during the time of his public career. (C. U. 1868)

7. Give an account of the origin and early life of Sivaji. State the chief events in his career, and the extent of his possessions at the time of his death. (C. U. 1869)

8 Explain the terms Chauth and Jizya. (C. U. 1869).

9. Mention the circumstances which caused the Sikhs to become a military community, (C. U. 1874)

10. Name the principal Márháttá leaders who rose to eminence in the first half of the 18th century. Which of them founded independent States ? Give an outline of the career and character of Clive (C. U. 1874).

11. Write a biographical sketch of Śivaji. (C. U. 1874).
12. Trace the rise of the Sikhs. (C. U. 1880).
13. State the political condition of India during the years immediately succeeding the third battle of Pánipat. (C. U. 1883).
14. State briefly what led to the first and second Márháttá wars. (C. U. 1886).
15. Describe the three battles of Pánipat. Mention the dates, the contending parties, and the political results that followed. (C. U. 1894).
16. Who was the founder of the Márháttá dynasty? Describe his early life and subsequent career, indicating the extent of his possessions at the time of his death. (C. U. 1895).

THE BRITISH PERIOD.

1. Sketch the career of Duplex in Southern India. See Book VIII Chap. I. (C. U. 1858).
2. Give an outline of Cornwallis's war with Tipu. What were the conditions of the Peace of 1792? See Book VIII. Chap. V. (C. U. 1858).
3. What was the extent of the British possessions in India in the year 1856? (C. U. 1859).
4. State the cause which led to the final war between the British and the Government of Maisúr. (C. U. 1859).
5. Give an account of the war between Hyder Ali and the English (C. U. 1860).
6. Give an outline of the history of English intercourse with India between the years 1580 and 1860. (C. U. 1861).
7. Give the dates of the following events;—the first voyage round the Cape; the Massacre of Amboyna; the accession to supreme power of:—1st, Kutbuddín; 2nd, Akbar, 3rd, Aurangzeb, 4th, Hyder Ali; and the battle of Assai. (C. U. 1861).
8. Sketch the life of Tipu Sultán (C. U. 1861).

9. Describe the leading features of Portuguese, French, English, and Muhammadan intercourses with India ? (C. U. 1861).

10. On what occasion and by what means did Calcutta and Bombay come into the possession of the British ? (C. U. 1862).

11. Who was the British commander at the battle of Lásuari ? To what native Chief was he opposed ? (C. U. 1862).

12. Give the dates of the following battles, and state where they were fought and between whom :—Pánipat ; Mudki ; Sobráon ; Gheriá, (C. U. 1863)

13. When and where did the following persons live, and for what are they chiefly renowned ? Albuquerque, Timúr ; and Lally. (C. U. 1863).

14. Briefly describe the main events in the conquest of Maisúr. (C. U. 1864).

15. How was Bengal governed when it was invaded by the English ? Mention the leading men on both sides who took part in the contest, and state when it commenced and how was it terminated. (C. U. 1864)

16. What is meant by the following :—the Bahmaní Kingdom ; the treaty of Salbái, and Fox's India Bill ?

(C. U. 1865).

17. Give a brief outline of the following events :—the invasion of Nádir Sháh and the establishment of the East India Company. (C. U. 1865).

18. When and where did the following persons live, and for what are they renowned ? Muhammad Tughlak, Sir Thomas Roe, Count Lally, and Sir John Shore

(C. U. 1865).

19. Enumerate the most important transactions of Lord Cornwallis's administration. (C. U. 1865).

20. Of what dispute in succession among the native princes of India did the French and English avail them-

selves in their struggle for supremacy in the Deccan, and what pretensions did they respectively support ? (C. U. 1866).

21. What circumstances led to the taking of Calcutta from the English and by what means was it recovered ? (C U. 1866).

22. Mention the principal events in the career of Lord Clive from the time of his last return to Bengal until his death, giving the dates. (C U. 1867)

23. Give a minute statement of the abuses prevalent among the Government officials when Lord Cornwallis was appointed Governor-General. Also state the reforms which he effected in the Revenue System and in the administrations of Civil and Criminal Law (C. U. 1869).

24. Compare the India Bills of Fox and Pitt. (C. U. 1869).

25. Give the dates and principal provisions of Lord North's Regulating Act, Fox's India Bill, and Pitt's India Bill. Compare the two latter, and state what led to the defeat of the second. (C. U. 1870).

26. Give the leading characteristics, and state the general results of the administration of Warren Hastings. (C U 1870).

27. Give a brief history of the celebrated Permanent Settlement, and indicate the various judicial reforms introduced by Lord Cornwallis (C U. 1870).

28. When and how did the Company obtain possession of Bombay ? (C. U. 1871).

29. What were the principal heads of the impeachment of Warren Hastings ? How long did his trial continue, and how did it terminate ? (C. U. 1871)

30. What were the disputes in succession among the Native Princes in the south of India about the middle of the last century, and how did the French and the English avail themselves of those disputes to acquire political power ? (C. U 1872).

31. What were the chief difficulties with which Clive had to contend in his second administration of India ?

(C. U. 1872)

32. What do you know of Albuquerque, Chait Sinha, Mir Kásim, and Sir Eyre Coote ? (C. U. 1872).

33. Under what circumstances did the French gain and lose the Northern Circars ? (C. U. 1873).

34. Describe briefly the operations of the English against the Mysorians. By whom were they conducted and with what results ? (C. U. 1874).

35. What were the changes introduced by the Act of Parliament in transferring the sovereignty of India from the Company to the Queen ? (C. U. 1875.)

36. Give a list of the Governor-Generals from Hastings to Canning with dates. (C. U. 1875).

37. Who were Sir Thomas Roe, Mir Jumlá, Rághunáth Sir Eyre Coote, Ranajit Sinha ? (C. U. 1876).

38. What was the general character, and what were the principal measures of Lord William Bentinck's administration ? (C. U. 1876).

39. When was the East India Company formed, and who gave the Charter ? What was the Regulating Act, and when did it come into force ? What alterations have been introduced into the Government of India since the abolition of the Company ? (C. U. 1877).

40. Give particulars with dates of the treaties made by the English with the Mysorians at (a) Madras, (b) Mangalore, and (c) Seringapatam (C. U. 1877).

41. Write a short sketch of the history of British India during the Governorship of Lord Dalhousie. What were the great improvements of his time ? (C. U. 1877).

42. What reforms were brought about by Lord Cornwallis and Lord William Bentinck ? (C. U. 1878).

43. Give a short history of the first Afghan war from

its rise to its conclusion during the administration of Lord Ellenborough. (C. U. 1879).

44. What were the causes of the first and second Sikh Wars? Briefly describe the leading incidents of each
(C. U. 1879).

45. Describe the two wars carried on against Tipu Sultan, giving the most important dates. (C. U. 1880).

46. Name the provinces added to the British dominions by Lord Dalhousie. What were the reasons for annexation in each case? (C. U. 1880).

47. Trace the origin and the course of the contest between the English and the French for supremacy in India.
(C. U. 1881).

48. What intercourse was there between Europe and India previous to the discovery of the Cape Route?
(C. U. 1882).

49. From what various causes have wars arisen between the English and the following peoples:—the Nepalese, the Burmese, and the Afghans? (C. U. 1882).

50. Explain the circumstances which led to the third battle of Pánipat and the defeat in it of the Márháttás.
(C. U. 1883).

51. Give a brief sketch of the administrations of Lord William Bentinck and Lord Dalhousie. (C. U. 1883).

52. Give a brief outline of the last Márháttá War (1817-18) with its results. (C. U. 1883).

53. Sketch as clearly as you can the Mutiny of 1857, with its causes, suppression, and final results. (C. U. 1885).

54. State briefly what led to the wars with Maisur.
(C. U. 1886).

55. What was the leading principle of Lord Wellesley's policy? Mention the chief events of the rule of Lord Cornwallis. (C. U. 1886).

56. What reforms were brought about by Lord William

Bentinck ? What decisive battles were fought in the plains of Pánipat ? (C. U. 1886.)

57. Name the chief measures carried out during the administration of Lord Cornwallis. (C. U. 1887).

58. Describe the two invasions of Afghánisthán in 1839, and 1878. What were the occasions of these two wars, and what were their results ? (C. U. 1887)

59. Give a brief account of the administration of Warren Hastings and his impeachment (C. U. 1888).

60. Enumerate and explain the principal measures of the administration of Lord William Bentinck. (C. U. 1888).

61. Give a short account of the career and civil administration of Clive in India. (C. U. 1889).

62. Narrate briefly the principal events during the administration of Clive in India (C. U. 1889).

62. What was the policy of Lord Wellesley ? Trace his success in carrying it out. (C. U. 1890).

64. How long did the East India Company rule in India ? Give the provisions of the various Charters bearing upon its administration, and the act for the Better Government of India. (C. U. 1890)

65. Give a short account of the administration of Warren Hastings, noting the principal contemporaneous events. (C. U. 1892).

66. Give some account of the European settlements in India, excluding those of the English. Trace the gradual acquisition of supremacy over them by the English. (C. U. 1891).

67. What were the chief events of the Viceroyalty of the Marquis of Hastings ? (C. U. 1892).

68. Give a list of the Governor-Generals of India from Warren Hastings to Dalhousie with dates. (C. U. 1892).

69. Give a short account of the administration of Lord William Bentinck. (C. U. 1893).

70 Give an outline of Cornwallis's war with Tipu Sultan. What were the terms of the treaty of Salbái ? (C. U. 1894).

71. Explain the foreign policy of Lord Dalhousie's administration. Mention the various States annexed by him, and also the circumstances which led to the annexation of the Punjab, Berar, and Oudh. What was the policy of Lord Canning ? (C. U. 1894).

72. Indicate the policy, and state the general results of the administration of the Marquis of Wellesley. (C. U. 1894).

73. On what occasions and by what means did the following places come into the possession of the British :—Bombay, Calcutta, Cuttack, Delhi, and Jalandar Doáb ?

(C. U. 1895).

74. Narrate the circumstances which led to the declaration of war against the Márháttás during the administration of Lord Hastings. Describe the leading incidents of the war, and state the results. (C. U. 1885).

75. Where are the following places and with what events in Indian history are they connected ?—Assái and Salbái, (C. U. 1895).

76. How was the constitution of the English government of India altered by the Regulating Act, Pitt's India Bill, the renewal of the East India Company's charter in 1833, and the Queen's Proclamation of 1858 ? (C. U. 1896).

MISCELLANEOUS.

1. State briefly, what you know of the following :—the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. Todar Mall, the Subsidiary System, Zulfikár Khá, the Regulating Act, the Treaty of Salbái, Major Sleeman, and Dhuleep Sinha. (C. U. 1882).

2. Enumerate, as fully as you can, the causes of the following :—

(a) The decline of the Mughal Empire. (b) The overthrow of the Márháttás. (c) The downfall of the Portu-

guese power in India. (d) The downfall of the French power in India. (C U 1885).

3. Who were the following :—Kanishka and Ahmad Sháh Duráni ? (C. U. 1886).

4. What do you know of the Khonds ? (C. U. 1895).

5. Who were Sankarácháryya, Muhammad Tughlak, Aurangzeb and Tipu Sultan, and when did they live ? (C. U. 1880).

6. What was the duration of the Bahmaní kingdom in the Deccan ? What kingdoms were founded on its ruins, and what was their subsequent fate ? Briefly trace the history of the Hindu kingdoms of Southern India down to Aurangzeb's invasion of the Deccan. (C. U. 1884).

7. When and in consequence of what events were the following provinces added to the British Empire ?—The North-Western Provinces, the Peshwar dominions, Coorg, Sindh, the Punjab, Pegu, Nagpur, and Oudh. (C. U. 1892).

8. Trace the rise of the Sikhs. Under what circumstances were they brought in conflict with British Government ? What were the results of the first Sikh war ? (C. U. 1893).

9. State what you know of the following persons ?—Prithví Ráy, Núr Jahán, Abul Fazl, Chait Sinha, Tántiá Topi. (C. U. 1894).

10. Write, with dates, brief notices of the following events :—the battle of Chillianwala, the capture of Bharatpur, the treaty of Bassein, the battle of Wandewash, the tragedy of the Black Hole. (C. U. 1894)

CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE PAPERS.—1897.

1. When did Aśoka ascend the throne ? What fact can we glean from the edicts engraved on rocks and pillars as to his political acts and administration ?

2. Trace the history of Bengal previous to its conquest by the Musalmans in 1204, beginning from the visit of Houen Thsang.

3. Give some account of the Lodi Kings and of the overthrow of the dynasty by Bábar.

4. Describe the character of Akbar, and compare his character with that of Aurangzeb. How does Sháh Jahán stand pre-eminent as a builder of splendid edifices ?

5. Give an account of the administrative reforms of Lord Cornwallis.

SASTRI'S INDIA.—1898.

1. What dynasty was supreme in India when the Húnas invaded it ? By what king, and in what battle, were the Húnas finally overthrown ? For what other reasons is this king famous ?

2. Describe the rise of the Bahmaní kingdom. Into what states did it split up, and what was the subsequent fate of these states ? Why is the battle of Tálikot so important in the history of the Deccan ?

3. At what places has the capital of Bengal been situated from time to time ? Name the successive royal families or Governments of which each place was the capital ?

4. Who was Sher Sháh ? When and how was his dynasty overthrown ?

5. Give the dates, contracting parties, and terms of the Treaties of Salháí, Bassein, Sirji Aniangáon, and Mián Mir.

R. C. DUTT'S INDIA.—1898.

1. Show how Buddhism is both a product and departure from Hinduism. What were the stupas, Chaityas, and

Vihārs, and where are the most famous specimens of each to be seen in India ?

2. Describe the invasion of India by Timūr and the similar invasions which occurred in the eighteenth century.

3. Sketch the rise of the Peshwas, and describe the circumstances of their downfall. Name the other dynasties of the Mārhattās, and say what has happened to them.

4. Trace the development of the power of the Sikhs, and the extent of the empire under the control of Ranajit Sinha. What were the relations of Ranajit Sinha with the English ?

5. What alterations were made in the government of India in 1784, 1833, and 1858 ?

SASTRI'S INDIA —1899

1. Give the dates of the accession of Asoka and Kanishka. What measures did they adopt for the spread of Buddhism ?

2. Give the names, and the dates of accession, of the first six Mughal Emperors. Give a brief history of Akbar, remarking on (a) his attitude towards Hindus, (b) his revenue administration.

3. What was the condition of the Marhattas at the time of Sivaji's rise ? Give some account of Sivaji's exploits and mode of government. Remark on his character.

4. Sketch the career of Clive in India.

5. Give a brief account of the events that distinguished Lord Dalhousie's government.

