



GOLDWIN SMITH.



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A
TEXT-BOOK OF INDIAN HISTORY;

WITH
GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES, GENEALOGICAL TABLES,
EXAMINATION QUESTIONS,

AND
CHRONOLOGICAL, BIOGRAPHICAL, GEOGRAPHICAL, AND
GENERAL INDEXES,

FOR THE
Use of Colleges and Private Students.

BY
THE REV. G. U. POPE, D.D.
PRINCIPAL OF BISHOP COTTON'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL AND COLLEGE, BANGALORE,
ETC. ETC.

WITH SIXTEEN MAPS.

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P R E F A C E.

THIS book is strictly a manual for students, and everything has been sacrificed to the one object of making it thoroughly useful in this way.

The author has long been engaged in educational pursuits in India, and has had considerable experience of the requirements of the Indian Universities ; and he has aimed chiefly at producing such a manual as might be sufficient for those who are preparing for these University Examinations. Even for others, however, it may be found useful, as containing a carefully digested epitome of the subject.

The difficulty of bringing so wide a subject within convenient limits has been very great ; hence the author has felt it necessary, in general, to omit anecdotes and details of sieges and battles, and to say what he had to say in the fewest possible words.

It is to be hoped that those who use this text-book will be induced to read for themselves the very excellent works in which almost everything connected with Indian history is to be found. The chief of these are indicated below. The writer has made use of them freely ; while he has tried to go to the very sources of information where he could do so, he advances no claim to originality. The literature

connected with the history of British India is exceedingly copious and valuable.

Among the sources of British Indian history must be mentioned the following :—

- (1.) The various "Records of Government," issued regularly by the Supreme and Local Governments in India. Those published by the Bombay Government are singularly useful. The reports of the Panjâb Administration are invaluable.
- (2.) The "Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sunnuds relating to India and Neighbouring Countries," compiled by Mr C. U. Aitchison, with introductory remarks, is a most useful work.
- (3.) The files of the *Friend of India*—the famous Serampore newspaper for the last twenty years—afford the completest and most trustworthy data, not only for current events, but for almost every portion of Indian history. They abound in able monographs.
- (4.) The volumes of the *Calcutta Review*, though unequal in merit, and uncertain in tone, are nevertheless a mine of information. Some of the most eminent men in India have been among the contributors to that valuable work.
- (5.) Twelve volumes of "Annals of Indian Administration" have been published at Serampore by Dr Smith. These are of much practical utility.

(6.) The following are standard works, to which the writer acknowledges his great obligation. They should be read by every one who wishes to understand Indian history :—

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Wheeler's History of India, | } In connection with
ch. i. of this text-book. |
| 2. Mrs Spier's Life in Antient India, | |

Republished as Mrs Manning's Antient and Mediaeval India: a most useful book.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| 3. Elphinstone's History of India: <i>Edited by</i>
<i>Mr Cowell,</i> | } Ch. ii, iii, iv. |
| 4. Brigg's Muhammedan Power in India (Fe-
rishta), | |
| 5. Keene's Mogul Empire, | } Ch. v. |
| 6. Grant Duff's History of the Mahrattas, | |
| 7. Murray's History of British India, | } Ch. vi. |
| 8. Thornton's British Empire in India, | |
| 9. Auber's Rise of British Power in India, | } Ch. vii, viii, ix, x. |
| 10. Malleon's French in India, | |
| 11. Orme's Hindûstân, | |
| 12. Cunningham's History of the Sikhs, | Ch. xi. |
| 13. Wilks' Mysore, | Ch. xii. |

(7.) The books mentioned under are also of great value :—

1. Malcolm's Central India.
2. Tod's Rājastân.
3. Kaye's Life of Metcalfe.
4. Metcalfe's Despatches.
5. Malcolm's Life of Clive.
6. Gleig's Life of Hastings.
7. Kaye's Life of Malcolm.
8. Martineau's British Rule in India.
9. Hamilton's Gazetteer.

The list might be greatly extended; but these are books which every real student should possess. They will introduce the reader to others.

No pains have been spared to make the indexes, tables, &c., complete.

The author will be thankful to receive any hints from those who use this manual, in order that in a future edition it may be more thoroughly adapted to its purpose.

OOTACAMUND, SOUTH INDIA,
October 5, 1869.

ERRATA.

- Page 45, line 14, *for* Panchâba, *read* Panchâla.
,, 54, ,, 17, *for* Shâh hâneh, *read* Shâh Nâneh.
,, 87, ,, 11, *for* Bababhipôr, *read* Balabhipôr.
,, 122, ,, 30, *for* Marquis de Confleurs, *read* Marquis de Conflans.

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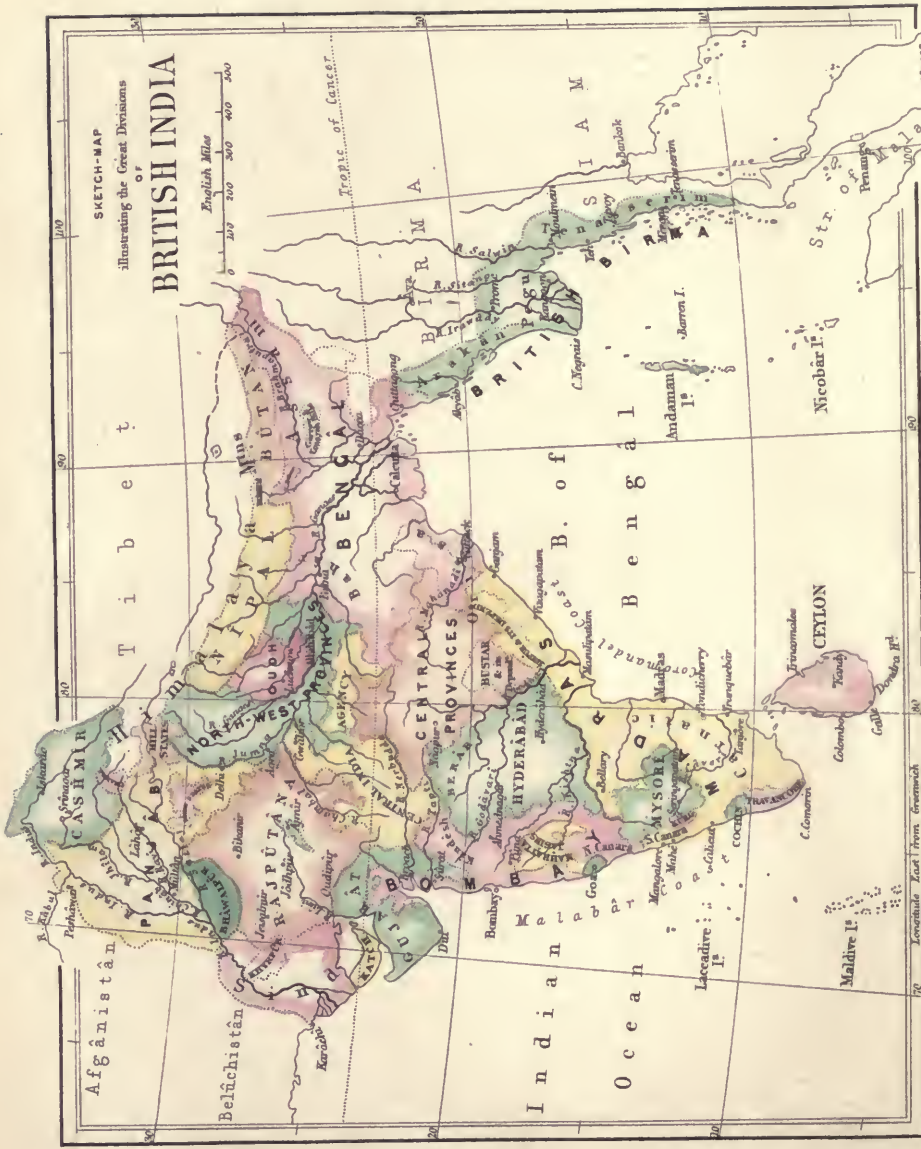
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SKETCH-MAP
 illustrating the Great Divisions
 of
BRITISH INDIA

English Miles
 0 100 200 300 400

Tropic of Cancer



INTRODUCTION.

I. POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF INDIA.

§ 1. OUR subject is India, and especially BRITISH INDIA.

Under this name is included the immense tract from Peshâwar, and the Suleimân and Hâla mountains, on the N.W., to the banks of the Salwin and the island of Singapore in the S.E. ; and from the Himâlayan chain on the N., to Cape Comorin, or (including Ceylon) to Dondra Head in the South.

This is a vast and varied field.

§ 2. The accompanying sketch-map should be carefully studied and copied.

It will be well to observe the following particulars :—

(1.) The latitude of *Singapore*, $1^{\circ} 15' N.$, nearly on the equator. Longitude, $104^{\circ} E.$

(2.) The latitude of Peshâwar, the British frontier Cantonment on the N.W., $33^{\circ} 57' N.$ Longitude, $71^{\circ} 40' E.$

(3.) The latitude of Dondra Head, the South Cape of Ceylon, $5^{\circ} 56' N.$ Longitude, $80^{\circ} 30' E.$

(4.) The latitude of Cape Comorin, the South Cape of the Peninsula of India, $8^{\circ} 4' N.$ Longitude, $77^{\circ} 30' E.$

INTRO. § 1, 2.

Boundaries.

Singapore.

Peshâwar.

Dondra Head.

Cape Comorin.

INTRO. § 3-S.

The Bengál Presidency.

Extent of India.

§ 3. India extends about 1900 miles from north to south, and 1500 miles from east to west, and contains 1,500,000 square miles.

Population.

§ 4. Its population is about 187 millions. It varies from 600 to a square mile in Bengál, to 10 in some of the hill districts.

Grand Divisions of India.

§ 5. In this vast territory we must distinguish :
 I. *The British dominions* strictly so called ;
 II. *Provinces under British protection ; and more or less dependent upon Britain ;*
 III. *Independent States*, in alliance with Great Britain, and acknowledging her as the paramount power ;
 IV. A few small spots belonging to other European powers.

Political Divisions of British India.

§ 6. The British dominions in India are divided into Presidencies, Vice-presidencies, and provinces under Commissioners. There are three Presidencies.

The Bengál Presidency.

§ 7. (I.) The BENGÁL PRESIDENCY. (See map.) Of this *Calcutta* is the capital, and here the Viceroy and Governor-General resides. His authority is supreme over all India. The Governor-General's legislative council makes laws for all India in general, and for all but Madras, Bombay, and Bengál in detail.

The Supreme Government.

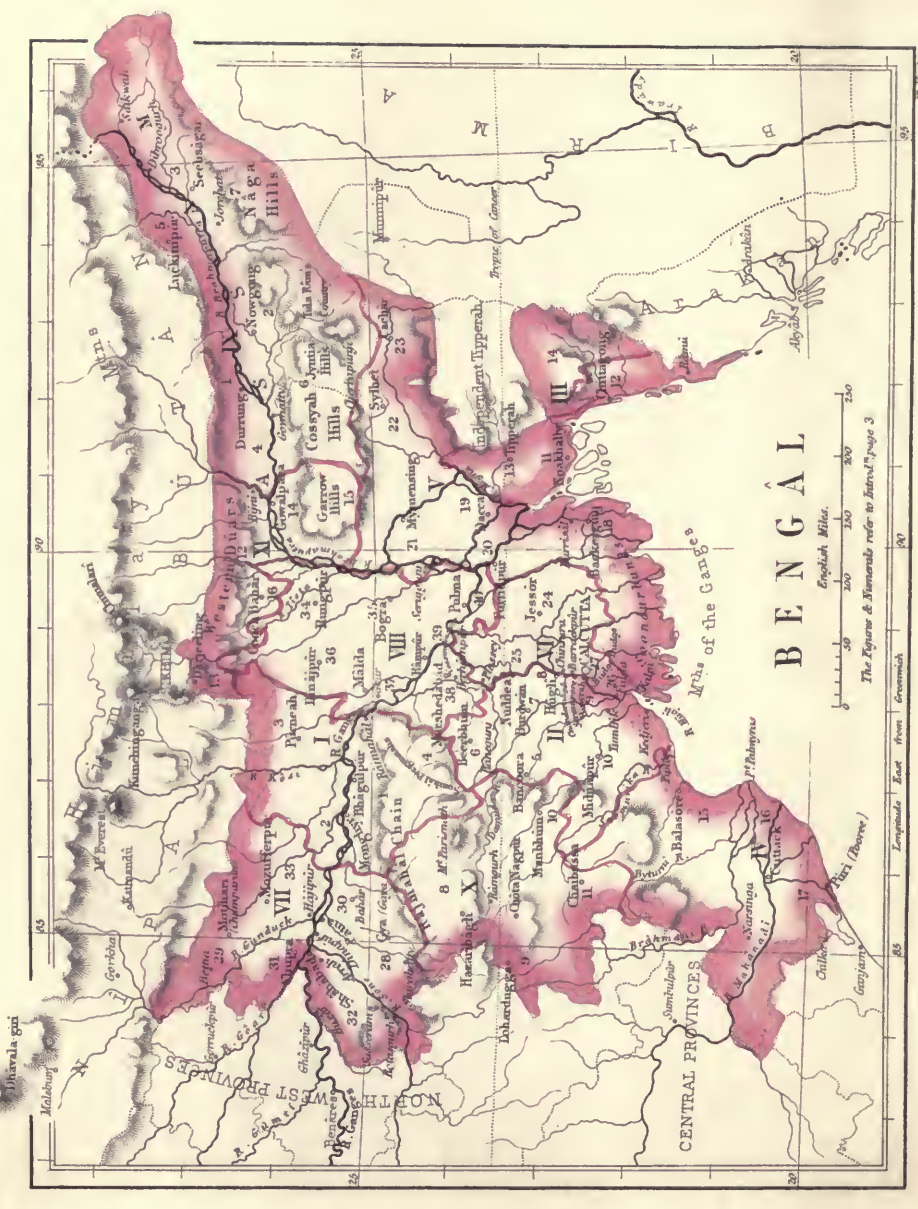
Every act of the subordinate councils must be confirmed by the Governor-General.

The Home Government.

The Secretary of State for India can advise Her Majesty to *veto* any act of the Governor-General's Council. The Secretary of State for India, with his council of fifteen members, is thus supreme.

Bengál.

§ 8. In this Presidency,
 (1.) BENGÁL itself has been under a *Lieutenant-Governor*



Sub-Divisions of Bengál.

INTRO. § 8.

since 1853. His controul extends over *Bahâr* and *Bengál proper*, *Orissa* and *Assam*.

The number of divisions here is eleven, and of districts fifty-six.

The following is the table of the sub-divisions of the Bengál territory. (See map.)

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. BHĀGULPŪR (Boglipŭr).	1 Bhāgulpŭr.	VII. PATNA.	28 Gya (Gaya).
	2 Monghyr.		29 Chumparun.
	3 Pŭrneh.		30 Patna.
	4 Sonthāl Pergun- nahs.		31 Sarun.
II. BURDWĀN.	5 Bancoora.	VIII. RAJSHĀLĪ.	32 Shāhābād.
	6 Beerbhām.		33 Tirhāt.
	7 Burdwān.		34 Rungpŭr.
	8 Hŭgli.		35 Bogra.
	9 Howrah.		36 Dinājpur.
III. CHITTAGONG.	10 Midnāpŭr.	IX. ASSAM.	37 Mālda.
	11 Noakhally.		38 Mŭrshedābād.
	12 Chittagong.		39 Rajshāhi.
	13 Tipperah.		40 Pubna.
IV. CUTTACK (Ch. v. § 56).	14 The Chittagong Hill Tracts.	X. CHĪTA NAGPŪR.	1 Durrung.
	15 Balasōre.		2 Nowgong.
	16 Cuttack.		3 Seebāgar.
	17 Pŭrĭ (Pooree).		4 Kamrŭp.
V. DACCĀ.	18 Backergunj.	XI. COOCH BAHĀR.	5 Luckimpŭr.
	19 Dacca.		6 Cossyah and Jyn- tia Hills.
	20 Furrĭdpŭr.		7 Nāga Hills.
	21 Mymensing.		8 Hazaribāgh.
	22 Sylhet.		9 Lohardugga.
	23 Cachār.		10 Manbhŭm.
VI. NUDDEA.	24 Jessŭr.	11 Singbhŭm.	
	25 Nuddea.	12 Western Dŭars.	
	26 The 24 Pergun- nahs.	13 Darjeeling.	
	27 The City of Cal- cutta.	14 Gawalpara.	
		15 Garrow Hills.	
		16 Cooch Bahār.	

INTRO. § 8, 9.

The North-Western Provinces.

Population.

The total population of this province is nearly 40,000,000. It is considerably larger than France.

Sikhim.

Sikhim is independent. Darjeeling (a favourite sanitarium) was purchased in 1835. On the south-west frontier are twenty-one Mehâls, or small districts, and the Cuttack tributary Mehâls number eighteen. These mostly came under England in 1803.

Cossyah and Jyntia.

Connected with Assam are the *Cossyah* and *Jyntia* hill territories, in which are many semi-independent chiefs; and the Garrow country, with which we have little intercourse.

Munnipûr.

The state of Munnipûr pays no tribute.

Cooch Bahâr.

Cooch Bahâr, in 1772, became tributary, paying half its revenues to the British, in return for the expulsion of the Bâtias.

Tipperah.

Here is independent *Tipperah*, which was never subjected by the Moguls, and is perfectly independent.

North-Western Provinces.

§ 9. (2.) The NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES are also under a *Lieutenant-Governor* (since 1835): its capital is ALLÂHÂBÂD.

Extent.

This territory extends, as seen in the map, along the banks of the Jamna and Ganges, including *Allahâbâd*, *Âgra*, *Delhi*, and *Benâres*, the heart of the antient Hindûstân. Delhi has now been put under the Panjâb Government.

Districts.

It contains thirty-six districts, under seven Commissioners.

(Ch. x. § 74.)

Here are the Râjas of Gurhwâl and Shâhpûra.

Hill States.

There are also here nineteen Hill States, to whose rulers the right of adoption has been conceded. (§ 24.)

The following is the table of the sub-divisions of the North-Western Provinces:—

The Panjâb.

INTRO. § 9, 10.

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. MĪRUT.	1 Mīrut.*	IV. ALLĀHĀBĀD.	19 Allāhābād.*
	2 Alighar.		20 Khānpūr.*
	3 Sehārnūpūr.		21 Futteh-pūr.
	4 Muzaffir Nagar.		22 Banda.
	5 Boolundshnūr.		23 Hummeerpūr.
II. ROHILKHAND.	6 Dēra Dūn.	V. BENĀRES.	24 Jounpūr.
	7 Bareilly.*		25 Benāres.*
	8 Bijnūr.		26 Gorruckpūr.*
	9 Morādābād.*		27 Bustī.
	10 Budāon.		28 Azimghar.
III. ĀGRA.	11 Shāh-jehānpūr.*	VI. JHĀNSĪ.	29 Mirzāpūr.*
	12 Terāi.		30 Ghāzīpūr.
	13 Āgra.*		31 Jhānsī.
	14 Muttra* (Mat'hura).		32 Jalonn.
	15 Furruckābād.*		33 Lullutpūr.
	16 Mynpūrī.	VII. KUMAŌN.	34 Kumaŏn.
	17 Etawah.		35 Gurhwāl.
	18 Etah.		36 Ājmir(Rājputāna).

The places marked * are the great cities.

The population of this great territory is about 30,000,000. Population.
It is nearly equal in area to Great Britain.

§ 10. (3.) The PANJĀB is under a Lieutenant-Governor, and is divided into thirty-two districts, under ten Commissioners. (Comp. ch. xi. § 46.) The Panjâb.

There are six Cis-Satlaj States, to whose rulers the right of adoption has been given. (§ 24.)

Cashmīr and the Trans-Satlaj States may be here mentioned.

The treaty of Umritsīr, 16th March 1846, put Golāb Sing in possession of *Cashmīr* (ch. xi. § 34), between the Indus and the Ravi. The Mahārāja died in 1857, and his *Cashmīr.*

INTRO. § 10, 11.

The Panjâb. Oudh.

Sikh protected States.

son, Rumbir Sing, succeeded. The right of adoption has been granted to him.

There are also the Râjas of *Kapurthala*, *Mandî*, *Chamba*, and *Sukhêt*, and the Sirdârs Shâmshîr Sing Sindhanwâla, and Têj Sing, who are included in the list in § 24.

Bhâwalpûr.

The Khân of Bhâwalpûr is protected by the terms of a treaty made in 1838. He receives a pension for his services in 1849. (Ch. xi. § 35.)

(Comp. ch. xl. § 1, &c.)

The following is a list of the sub-divisions of the Panjâb territory :—

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. DELHI.	{ 1 Delhi. 2 Gurgâon. 3 Kurnal.	VII. RÂWAL PINDÏ.	{ 19 Râwal Pindî. 20 Jhîlam. 21 Gujarât.
II. HISSAR.	{ 4 Hissar. 5 Rohlak. 6 Sirsa.	VIII. MÛLTÂN.	{ 22 Shâhpûr. 23 Mûltân. 24 Jhung.
III. UMBÂLA.	{ 7 Umbâla. 8 Lûdiâna. 9 Sinla.	IX. DÊRAJÂT.	{ 25 Montgomery. 26 Muzaffirghar. 27 Dêra Ismael Khân.
IV. JULLINDHUR.	{ 10 Jullindhur. 11 Hushiarpûr. 12 Kangra.	X. PESHÂWAR.	{ 28 Dêra Ghâzi Khân. 29 Bannu. 30 Peshâwar. 31 Kohât. 32 Hazara.
V. UMRITSÏH.	{ 13 Umritsir. 14 Sealkôt. 15 Gurdaspûr.		
VI. LÂHÔR.	{ 16 Lâhôr. 17 Ferôz-pûr. 18 Gujranwâla.		

The population of this territory is nearly 15,000,000. It is about the size of Italy.

Oudh.

§ 11. (4.) OUDH is entrusted to a Chief Commissioner, under whom are four Commissioners, with twelve districts. (See map.)



The Central India Agency.

INTRO. § 11, 12.

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. LUCKNOW.	{ 1 Lucknow. 2 Oonao. 3 Durriâbâd.	III. FYZÂBÂD.	{ 7 Baraitch. 8 Fyzâbâd. 9 Gonda.
II. KHYRÂBÂD.	{ 4 Sitâpûr. 5 Hurdul. 6 Mahundi.	IV. BAISWÂRA.	{ 10 Sultanpûr. 11 Pertabghar. 12 Roy Bareilly.

The population is 8,500,000. It is about equal in extent to Holland and Belgium together.

§ 12. (5.) The CENTRAL INDIA, or INDÔR, AGENCY. Here are no less than seventy-one states.

This large district includes Mâlhwâ, Bandêlkhand, and other districts between the Chambal and the Jamna. The *principal* tributary States of Central India are six in number:—Gwâlîôr, Indôr, Bhôpâl, Dhâr, Dêwas, and Jowra.

The agent to the Governor-General in Central India resides at *Indôr*. This is the capital of the Mahârâja Holkâr. (Comp. ch. v. § 160.) Connected with this are *Dêwas* and *Bagli*. He has besides seven agencies under him. These are:—

1. The political agent of Gwâlîôr. This is the capital of the Mahârâja Sindia. (Comp. ch. v. § 161.)

2. The political agent of Bhôpâl. (Ch. v. § 96.) This is the capital of the Rânî of Bhôpâl. Connected with this are the petty districts of Râjghar, Narsinghûr, Kilchipûr, Kurwâi, Muxudanghar, Muhammedghar, Patharea, Basôda, and Larâwat.

3. The Bhîl agent and political assistant. Under him are Dhâr, Jhabbûa, Ali-Râjpûr, and Jobutt. (Ch. v. § 165.)

4. The Deputy Bhîl agent. Under him are Mânpûr (a British Pergunnah), Burwânî, and other smaller districts.

5. The political agent of Western Mâlhwâ. He superintends Jowra, Rutlam, Sita-mhow, Sillâna, and Jhalra Patân.

Central India Agency.

Six States.

Governor-General's Agent and seven subordinates.

Sindia's Dominions.

Bhôpâl.

(Ch. x. § 102.)

Bhîl Agency.

Deputy Bhîl Agent.

Western Mâlwa.

INTRO. § 12, 13.

The Central India Agency.

Gûna.

6. The political agent of Gûna. Under him are Râgûghur, Ghurra, Parone (or Narwâr), Omri, Bhadowra, Dunâoda, and Sirsî.

Bandêlkhand.

7. The political agent of Bandêlkhand. These states are thirty-five in number, and include Rêwa, Ooreha, Duttîa, Sumpur, Punna, Churkarî, Chatterpûr, and Adjyghur.

(Comp. ch. x. § 70.)

Opium.

Opium is one of the great products of Mâlwa. The revenue from this was 21,660,600 rupees in 1868-69.

Education, railways, and other products and means of civilisation, have effected slow but real changes in this whole district.

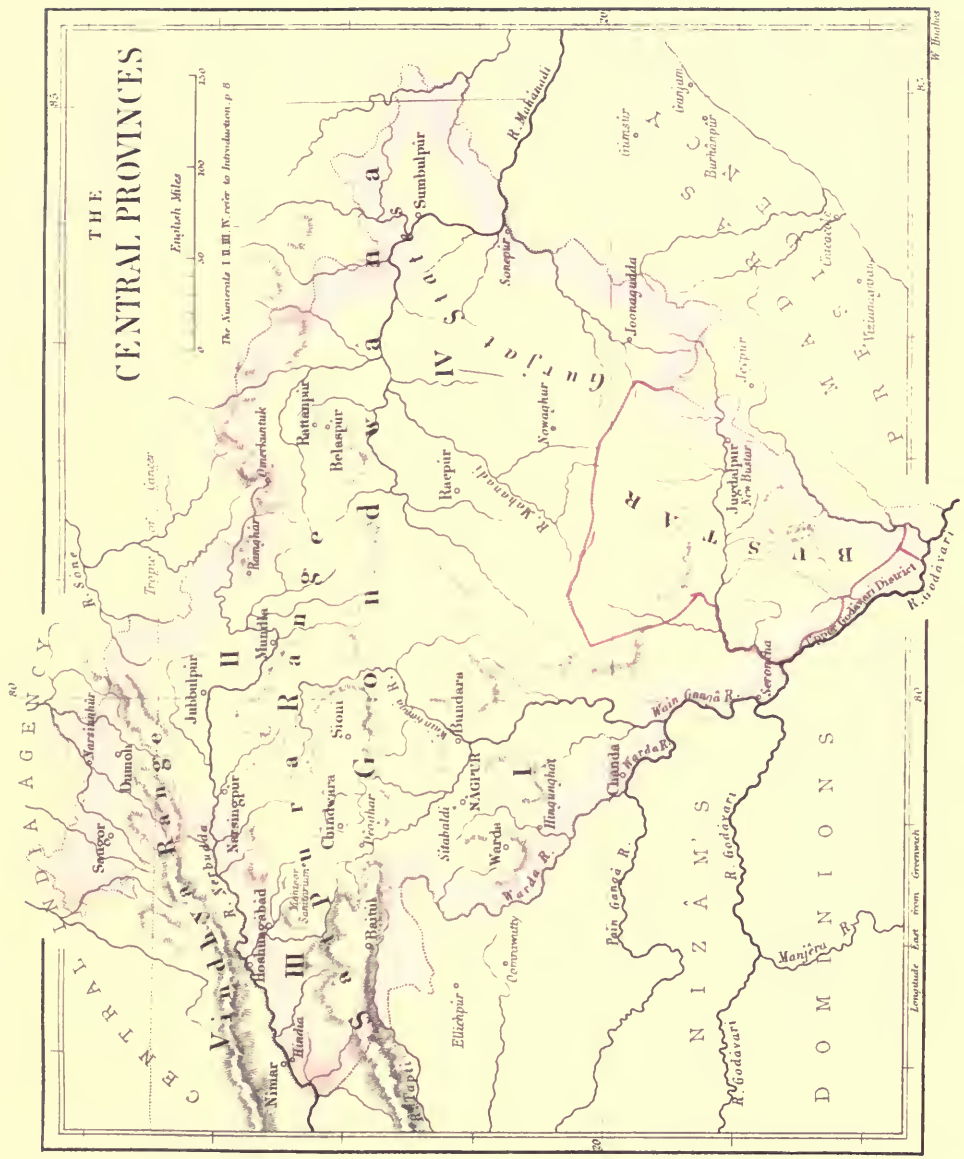
Central Provinces.

§ 13. (6.) The CENTRAL PROVINCES. These include a great portion of the tableland of Central India. Here the Nerbudda, the Taptî, the Mahânadî, and several important tributaries of the Godâvarî, have their rise. Here was the kingdom of the Eastern Mahrattas, founded by *Raghuji Bhonslê I.* (Ch. v. § 45-159.)

It is about the size of the Madras Presidency, or as large as Great Britain and Ireland together.

It is divided, as shown in the following table, into four Commissionerships, in which are eighteen districts and fourteen Feudatory Chieftainships.

COMMISSIONER-SHIPS.	DISTRICTS.	COMMISSIONER-SHIPS.	DISTRICTS.
I. NÂGPUR.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Nâgpur. 2 Bundara. 3 Chanda. 4 Warda. 	III. NERBUDDA.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10 Hoshungâbâd. 11 Baitâl. 12 Narsinghûr. 13 Chindwâra. 14 Nimar.
II. JUBBULPÛR.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5 Jubbulpûr. 6 Saugor. 7 Dumoh. 8 Sioni. 9 Mundla. 	IV. CHATISGHÛR. (Rattanpûr).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 15 Raepûr. 16 Belaspûr. 17 Sumbulpûr. 18 Upper Godâvarî.





W. Hughes.

Rājputāna. Mysore. Birma.

INTRO. § 13-15.

The population is a little above 9,000,000.

The chief feudatories are the *Bustar Rāja*, the chief of a wild tribe of mountaineers, *Kharond*, and *Makrāi*.

This province is called *Gondwāna*, as being the residence of the Gonds (or Khōnds, who are nearly identical), an antient race, of very savage habits. (Ch. x. § 133.)

RĀJPŪTĀNA. This immense region stretches from 23° to 20°, north latitude, and from 69° 30' to 78° 15', east longitude, and contains an area of 123,000 square miles, with a population of about 10,000,000. It consists of twenty provinces, of which two, viz., *Ājmir* and *Mairwarra*, are British territories, while the other eighteen states are independent, under British protection, with a political agent immediately under the Governor-General. (Comp. § 36.)

Rājputāna.

These are under the N.W. Provinces. § 9.

§ 14. (7.) **MYSORE** (Maisūr) is under a Commissioner, and though geographically within the limits of the Madras Presidency, is directly subject to the Bengāl Government.

In regard to military matters Mysore is under Madras. Its population is 3,500,000.

The following are the divisions of Mysore :—

DIVISIONS.	{	I. NANDĪRŪG. II. ASHTAGRĀM. III. NĀGAR.
------------	---	---

Mysore.
Comp. Map.
Chap. xii. § 1.

The population is nearly 4,000,000. (See ch. xii.)

§ 15. (8.) **THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN BIRMA.** Population 2,300,000. This comprises all the maritime districts on the east side of the Bay of Bengāl. They consist of *Arakān*, *Pegu*, and the *Tenasserim* provinces. (Comp. ch. x. § 79-140.)

Birma.

See Map.

INTRO. § 15, 16.

Birma. The Madras Presidency.

British Birma.
(Burmah.)

The following is a table of the Commissionerships and Divisions of British *Birma* :—

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. PEGU.	1 Rangoon. 2 Bassein. 3 Myanoung. 4 Prome. 5 Tongá.	II. TENASSERIM. III. ARAKÂN.	6 Amherst. 7 Tavoy. 8 Mergui. 9 Shoaygheen. 10 Akyáb.

The population is about 2,500,000.

Madras Pre-
sidency.

§ 16. (II.) The MADRAS PRESIDENCY. (See map.)
Population 26,500,000.

This includes twenty Collectorates. Within its limits are the protected states of

Protected States.

(i.) TRAVANCORE. Population 1,000,000. (Comp. ch. x. § 61.)

(ii.) COCHIN. Population 300,000. (Ch. x. § 64.)

(iii.) VIZIANAGARAM and JEYŪR. These are both in the Vizagapatam district.

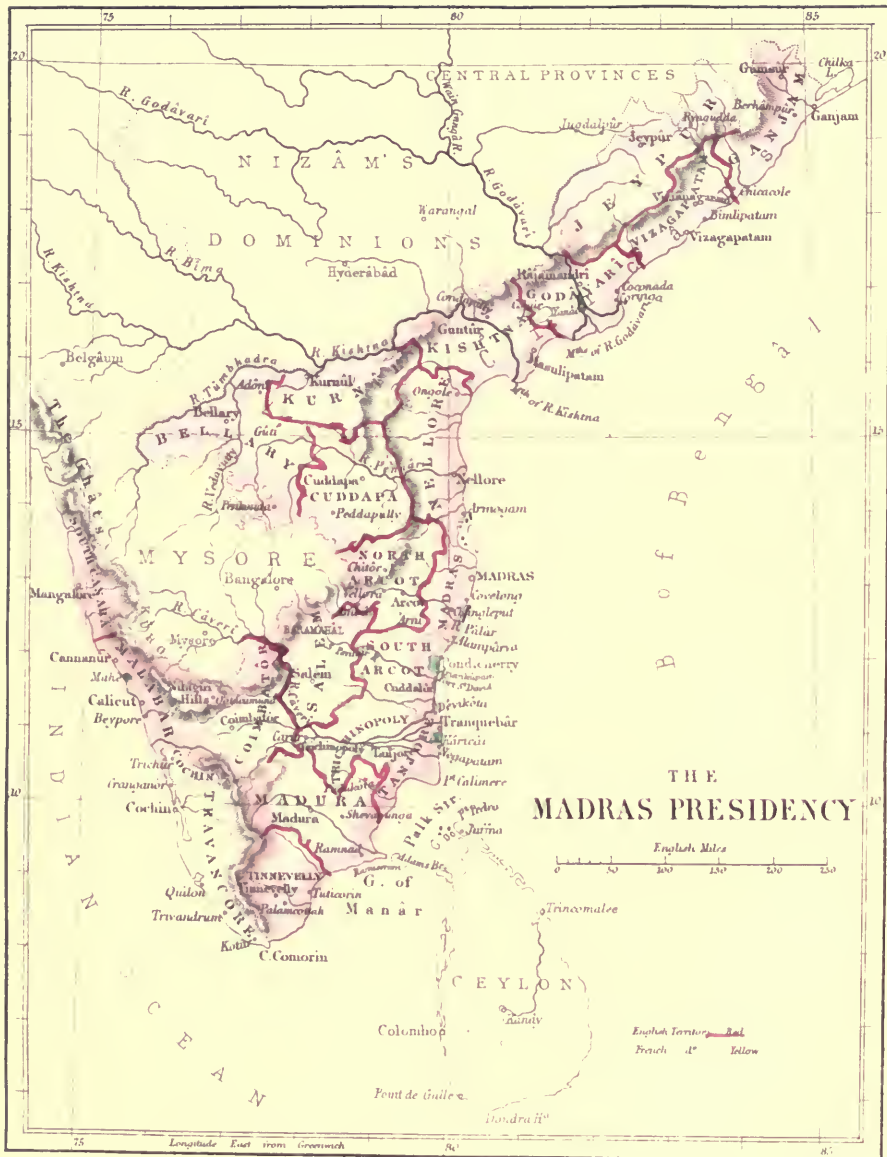
Vizianagaram is under a Mahārāja, Gajapata Rāz. It contains eleven Tāklúks, and a population of 570,000.

Jeypūr is in the hills, forming the Eastern Ghâts. Here are found the Khònds. (Ch. x. § 133.) Its population is about 400,000.

(iv.) PUDUKÔTA. Population 60,000.

The Rāja is often called the Tondimām Rāja. His estates have been guaranteed to him as a reward for services rendered by his ancestors during the wars in the Carnatic.

The following are the Collectorates of MADRAS. There is but one Commissionership :—



The Bombay Presidency.

INTRO. § 17, 18.

DISTRICTS.	DISTRICTS.
1 Madras City.	12 South Arcot (Cuddalôr).
2 Ganjam.	13 Tanjore.
3 Vizagapatam.	14 Trichinopoly.
4 Godâvari (Râjamandri).	15 Madura.
5 Kishna (Guntâr).	16 Tinnevely (Palamcottah).
6 Nellore.	17 Coimbatôr.
7 Cuddapa (<i>Kadapa</i>).	18 Salem.
8 Bellary (<i>Ballârî</i>).	19 South Canara (Mangalore).
9 Kurnûl.	20 Malabâr (Cannanûr).
10 Madras (Chingleput).	21 The Nilagiri Plateau. (Commissioner). (Ootacamund).
11 North Arcot (Arcot).	

The population is nearly 23,000,000. The area is a little more than that of Great Britain with Ireland.

§ 17. There are also the French settlements of

- (i.) *Pondicherry*, on the Coromandel coast ;
- (ii.) *Mahé*, on the Malabâr coast ;
- (iii.) *Kâricâl*, on the Coromandel coast ;
- (iv.) *Chândernâgôr*, on the Hûgli ; and
- (v.) *Yanôn*, on the Orissa coast. They have a total population of about 229,000.

French Settlements.
Ch. vii. § 7 ; viii. § 31.
Ch. vii. § 7 ; xii. § 25.
Ch. vii. § 7.
Ch. vii. § 7 ; ix. § 8.

§ 18. (III.) The BOMBAY PRESIDENCY. (See map.) This includes twenty-one Collectorates. Within its limits are,

- (i.) The Gaekwâr of Barôda. Population 330,000.
- (ii.) The four Kolhâpûr Râjas. Population 500,000.
- (iii.) The Râo of Katch. Population 500,000.

The Bombay Presidency.

Protected States.
Ch. v. § 122.
Ch. v. § 47.
Katch.

NOTE.—KATCH is governed by a Râo and chiefs whose tribe name is Jhârejas. It came fully under the subsidiary system in 1819. There has been great difficulty in repressing female infanticide there. The most populous town is *Mandari*.

Comp. ch. v. § 122.

INTRO. § 18.

The Bombay Presidency.

Gujarât.

(iv.) The petty states of Gujarât. Population 400,000. Among these are :

1. Pahlumpûr, Radhanpûr, and many petty states around.
2. The *Mâhi-Kânta*, divided among many petty chiefs, of which the Râja of Edar and Ahmednagar is the chief.

Its area is 4000 square miles.

3. The *Rêwa Kânta*. Here is the Râja of Rajpipla.

Lesser chiefs are those of Dêoghar Baria, Mohun, Lûnawâra, Soruth, Balasinôr, and others.

"This beautiful province for hundreds of miles may vie with the finest parks in England, covered with verdure and the most luxurious vegetation."

Kâttiwâr.

(v.) The petty states of Kâttiwâr. Population 1,500,000.

NOTE.—A large portion of the *Kâttiwâr* peninsula belongs to the Gackwâr of Barôda. But there are several chiefs who hold their territories directly as feudatories of the British Government. These are the chiefs of—

- | | |
|---------------|----------------|
| 1. Jûnaghar. | 4. Porebunder. |
| 2. Nowanagar. | 5. Wudwar; and |
| 3. Bhônagar. | 6. Râjkôt. |

To the first three the right of adoption has been conceded. (§ 24.)

Or, Wâri.

(vi.) The Satârâ Jâgîrs. (Ch. v. § 166.)

(vii.) Sâwant-Wâdî. Population 120,000.

(viii.) Southern Mahratta Jâgîrs. Population 420,000.

These are Jamkandî.

Kunwâr.

Mirâj.

Mûdhôl.

Nargund.

Sangli.

Savanûr; and

Shedbâd.

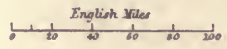
The following is a list of the Commissionerships and Collectorates of the BOMBAY PRESIDENCY. (See map.)

DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.	DIVISIONS.	DISTRICTS.
I. NORTHERN COM- MISSIONERSHIP.	1 Bombay Island. 2 Ahmedâbâd. 3 Kaira. 4 Panch Mahâls. 5 Broach. 6 Sûrat. 7 Tanna. 8 Kândesh.	II. SOUTHERN COM- MISSIONERSHIP.	9 Pûna. 10 Ahmednagar. 11 Shôlapûr. 12 Ratnagerry. 13 Belgâum. 14 Dhârwâr. 15 North Canara. 16 Satârâ.	III. SIND COM- MISSIONERSHIP.	17 Karâchî (Westerly Mouth of the Indus). 18 Hyderâbâd (On the Fulalî, Branch of the Indus). 19 Shikarpûr (Very pop- ulous). 20 Frontier Upper Sind. 21 Thurr and Parkur.

75

80

THE NIZAM'S DOMINIONS



Longitude East from Greenwich

W. Hughes

Berâr. Straits Settlements. Ceylon.

INTRO. § 19-23.

The population is about 13,000,000. The area slightly exceeds that of the Madras Presidency.

§ 19. There is also the Island of *Goa*, which, with a small tract of surrounding country—*Diû* and *Damân*—are the sole remainder of the vast Portuguese dominion in the East. The population of this feeble remnant of “Portuguese India” is about 400,000 inhabitants.

Portuguese India.

§ 20. BERÂR is managed by the resident of Hyderâbâd for the Nizâm. Cultivation is rapidly on the increase.

Berâr. See map of Nizâm's Territories.

DIVISIONS. { I. OOMRAWUTTY (AMRAVATI).
II. AKÔLA.
III. MEHKUR (MAIKER).
IV. WOON.

Its population is one million and a half. (Comp. ch. iii. § 16 [13].)

It is a little larger than Denmark.

§ 21. There are besides these the “Straits Settlements,” of which there are three—Singapore, Penang, and Malacca. These were transferred to the Colonial Office, and with them the history of India is no further concerned. (Comp. ch. vi. § 13, 20; ch. x. § 82.)

Straits Settlements.

§ 22. Ceylon does not fall within our subject, being a Crown colony, having no political connection with Peninsular India. A slight sketch of its history and geography will be found in § 37.

Ceylon.

§ 23. Chapters vii., viii., and ix. will show how rapid and how wonderful in every way has been the attainment by Great Britain of this dominion.

Progress of British power.

We subjoin a table, giving the date of the acquisition of each portion of the Indian Empire:—

INTRO. § 23.

British Indian Territories.

1	Madras (with five miles round)...	1639	Ch. vii. § 6, b.
2	Bombay ...	1669	Given by Portugal to Charles II. in 1661. Ch. vii. § 6, 9.
3	Fort St David ...	1691	Ch. viii. § 6.
4	Calcutta and villages around ...	1696	Ch. vii. § 6, r.
5	The Twenty-four Pergunnahs ...	1757	From Mir Jaffir. Ch. ix. § 11.
6	Masulipatam and surrounding country ...	1758	From the Nizâm. Ch. ix. § 14.
7	Burdwân, Midnâpûr, and Chit-tagong ...	1760	From Mir Kâsim. Ch. ix. § 16.
8	Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa ...	1764	From Shâh Âlam II. Ch. ix. § 28.
9	The Five Northern Circârs ...	1764	From Shâh Âlam II. Ch. iii. § 16.
10	Chingleput (round Madras) ...	1765	From the Nuwâb of the Carnatic.
11	Guntûr ...	1788	From the Nizâm of Hyderâbâd. Ch. x. § 21.
12	Baramahâl (Salem) ...	1792	From Tippû. Sir T. Munro.
13	Dindigal ...	1792	Do. do. Ch. x. § 22.
14	Malabâr ...	1792	Do. do.
15	Kanara, Coimbatôr, Wynaad, and Nlagiri Hills ...	1799	After Tippû's fall. Ch. x. § 42; xii. § 56.
16	Ceded Districts of Hyderâbâd...	1799	The Nizâm, for subsidiary force. Ch. iii. § 16.
17	Tanjore ...	1800	By consent. Ch. x. § 44.
18	Furruckâbâd ...	1801	Ch. x. § 39.
19	Ceded Districts of Oudh ...	1801	Do.
20	Kuttack ...	1803	Conquest. Ch. v. § 134.
21	Delhi, Agra, Bandêlkhand ...	1803	Lord's Lake conquests. Ch. v. § 135.
22	The Carnatic ...	1807	For debts. Ch. x. § 44.
23	Cessions from Nipal ...	1815	Ch. x. § 74.
24	Pûna and Tracts of Mahratta territory ...	1818	Ch. v. § 165.
25	Arakân, &c. ...	1824	Ch. x. § 79.
26	Cachâr ...	1832	Lapsed. Since famous for tea-plantations.
27	Assam ...	1833 1839	} Lapsed.
28	Kâtgr ...	1834	Ch. x. § 90.
29	Bûtân (the Dûars) ...	1841	Taken in consequence of aggressions.
30	Kurnâl ...	1841	Treason of the Nuwâb. Ch. x. § 112.
31	The Cis-Satlaj States ...	1843	
32	Sind ...	1843	Ch. x. § 125.
33	The Jullindhur Doâb (Panjâb)...	1845	Ch. xi. § 34.
34	The Panjâb ...	1848	Ch. xi. § 44.

The Feudatories of England.

INTRO. § 23, 24.

35	Pegu	...	1852	Ch. x. § 140.
36	Tula Rám's Hill Dists. of Cachár	...	1853	Lapsed.
37	Berár	...	1853	Ch. iii. § 16 (13).
38	Nágpur	...	1854	Ch. x. § 144.
39	Jhánst	...	1854	Ch. x. § 147.
40	Oudh	...	1856	Ch. x. § 150.
41	Penang, Malacca, and Singapore	...	1866	Transferred to Colonial Office. Ch. x. § 82.

§ 24. This slight sketch of Indian Political Geography would not be complete without a more definite statement of the *Feudatories* of England. (Comp. ch. x. § 187.)

Feudatories.

1	<i>Adjyghur</i> Rája	...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12; ch. x. § 70.
2	Akulikôt Rája	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 45 and 166.
3	Alipura Jaghirdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
4	<i>Bansda</i> Chief	...	Gujarât.
5	<i>Baoni Nuwâb</i>	...	Bandêlkhand.
6	<i>Banswâra</i> Chief	...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
7	Bija Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
8	<i>Behrî</i> Chief	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
9	Behut Jaghirdâr	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
10	<i>Belaspâr</i> Chief (Kuhlôr)	...	Between Satlaj and Jamna. Panjâb.
11	<i>Benâres</i> Rája	...	Hindû. Ch. ix. § 36; x. § 4, 11.
12	Beronda Rája	...	Bandêlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
13	Bagul Chief	...	Hill State in Panjâb.
14	<i>Blûpâl Begum</i>	...	Mâlwa. C.I. Agency. Ch. v. § 48; x. § 102.
15	Bhônagar Chief	...	Bombay. Kâttiwâr Peninsula. § 18.
16	Bughat Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
17	Budji Chief (Blujee)	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
18	<i>Bhartpâr</i> Mahârâja	...	Jât Principality. § 36; ch. v. § 137; x. § 82.
19	Bikanîr Mahârâja	...	Râjpûtâna. § 36.
20	Bijâwar Rája	...	Bandêlkhand. § 12.
21	Bija Chief (Beejah)	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
22	Bândi Rája	...	Râjpûtâna.
23	Bulsun Chief	...	Hill State. Panjâb.
24	Banganpully Jaghirdâr	...	Madras Presidency. Cuddapa.

25	Bassahr Chief	...	Hill State. Panjáb.
26	Bustar Rája	...	Nágpur. Central India.
27-32	Six Kalinjtr Chobeys	...	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
33	Cambay Nuwáb	...	Gujarát.
34	Cashmír Mahárája	...	Sikh. Ch. x. § 7.
35	Churkari Rája	...	Bandéلكhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
36	Chamba Chief	...	Trans-Satlaj State. Panjáb. § 10.
37	Chatterpúr Rája	...	Bandéلكhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
38	Cochin Rája	...	Hindú. § 16; ch. x. § 64.
39	Cooch Bahár Rája	...	E. Bengál.
40-54	Sixteen Chiefs, Tributary Me- háls	...	Cuttack.
55	Déwas Chief (Púar Rája)	...	Málwá. C.I. Agency. § 12.
56	Dhár Chief, Rája	...	Málwá. C.I. Agency. § 12.
57	Dhaml Chief	...	Hill State. Panjáb.
58	Dholapár Rána (Góhud)	...	Ját. § 36; ch. v. § 137.
59	Dhurwiji Chief (Jaghírdár)	..	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
60	Dójana Nuwáb	...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
61	Durkóti Chief (Thákúr)	...	Hill State. Panjáb.
62	Dharampár Chief	...	Gujarát.
63	Dungarpúr Chief	...	Rájpútána. § 36.
64	Duffékár of Ját	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
65	Duttia Rája	...	Bandéلكhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
66	Edar Chief (Thákúr)	..	Gujarát. Máhi-Kánta. Bombay. § 18.
67	Furreedkót Rája	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjáb.
68	Gerouli Jaghírdár	...	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
69	Gurhwál Rája	...	N. W. Himálayas. Faithful in the mutinies. Introd. § 9.
70	Gaekwár of Baróda	...	Mahratta. § 18; ch. v. § 122, 89.
71	Góribár Jaghírdár	...	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
72	Holkár Mahárája	...	Mahratta. § 12; ch. v. § 160, 75.
73	Hyderábád Nizám	...	Muhammedan. Ch. iii.
74	Jeisalmír Chief	...	Rájpútána. § 36.
75	Jeypár Mahárája	...	Rájpútána. § 36; ch. x. § 102.
76	Jhind Rája	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjáb. Ch. xi. § 9.
77	Jhalláwar Rána	...	Rájpútána. § 36.
78	Jignl Jaghírdár	...	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
79	Joolbul Chief	...	Hill States. Panjáb.
80	Janaghar Nuwáb	...	Káttiwár. Gujarát. § 18.
81	Jódkpár Chief	...	Rájpútána. § 36; ch. x. § 102.
82	Jowra Nuwáb	...	Central India Agency. Málwá.
83	Jussú Jaghírdár	...	Bandéلكhand. § 12.
84	Karond Rája	...	Central Provinces.
85	Keonthul Chief	...	Hill States. Panjáb.

The Feudatories of England.

INTRO. § 24.

86	<i>Kerowlī</i> Chief	...	Rājputāna. § 36.
87	<i>Kishnagar</i> Chief	...	Rājputāna. § 36.
88	Khulsia Chief	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjāb.
89	<i>Kolhāpūr</i> Rāja	...	Mahratta. § 18 ; ch. v. § 47.
90	Koomharsein Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
91	Koonhiār Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
92	Kota Chief	...	Rājputāna. § 36.
93	Kothar Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
94	Kothī Jaghīrdār	...	Bandēlkhand. § 12.
95	Kunnya Dhāna Jaghīrdār	...	Bandēlkhand. § 12.
96	<i>Kapurthala</i> Rāja	...	Sikh Protected. Trans-Satlaj. § 10.
97	<i>Katch</i> Rāo (Cutch)	...	Mahratta. § 18.
98	Logassi Jaghīrdār	...	Bandēlkhand. § 12.
99	<i>Loharoo Nuwāb</i>	...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
100	Makrāī Chief	...	Central Provinces.
101	<i>Malleir-Kotta Nuwāb</i>	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjāb.
102	Mūdhōl Chief	...	Bombay. Southern Mahratta.
103	Mandi Chief	...	Trans-Satlaj. Panjāb. § 10.
104	Mungal Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
105	<i>Myhere</i> Chief	...	Bandēlkhand. § 12.
106	Mylōg Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
107	<i>Mysore</i> Mahārāja	...	Chapter xii.
108	Nabha Rāja	...	Cis-Satlaj State. Panjāb. Ch. xi. § 9.
109	Nagōde Chief (Oocheyra)	...	Bandēlkhand. § 12.
110	Nahun Chief (Sirmūr)	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
111	Nafaghar Chief (Hindōr)	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
112	Nimbalkur of Phultun	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
113	Nowanagar Chief	...	Kāttiwār Peninsula. § 18.
114	Nyagāon Rebai Jaghīrdār	...	Bandēlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
115	<i>Oudipār</i> Mahārāja (Mēwār)	...	Rājputāna. § 36 ; ch. x. § 102.
116	Pahari Chief	...	Bandēlkhand.
117	<i>Patowālī Nuwāb</i>	...	North-Western Provinces. Delhi.
118	Pāhlunpār Rāja	...	Gujarāt. Bombay. § 18.
119	<i>Pudukōta</i> Chief	...	Hindū. Carnatic. Madras P. § 16.
120	<i>Punna</i> Rāja	...	Bandēlkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
121	Pant Prithi Nidhi	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
122	Pant Suchēo (Pāna Collte)	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
123	Pertabghar Rāja	...	Rājputāna. § 36. R. Agency.
124	<i>Five</i> Putwurdhuns	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166. Bombay P.
125	Pattiāla Mahārāja	...	Protected Sikh State between Jamna and Satlaj. Ch. x. § 8.
126	<i>Radhanpār Nuwāb</i>	...	Gujarāt. Bombay Presidency.
127	Rājputāla Chief	...	Between Kāndēsh and Gujarāt. Bombay Presidency. § 18.

INTRO. § 24, 25.

The Feudatory States.

128	Rāmdrūg Chief	...	Bombay.
129	Rāmpār Nuwāb	...	Rohilkhand. The descendant of the Rohillas. Ch. ix. § 36.
130	Rēva Rāja	...	Bandélkhand. § 12.
131	Sāwant-Wādī Chief	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 166.
132	Sirōht Chief	...	Rājputāna. § 36.
133	Shāhpūra Rāja (Intro. § 9)	...	North-Western Provinces, a Rājput descended from Surāj Mul. Ch. iii. § 20.
134	Sindia Mahārāja	...	Mahratta. Ch. v. § 45.
135	Sohāwul Chief	...	Bandélkhand. § 12.
136	Sukhēt Chief	...	North Bank of the Satlaj. Sikh. § 10.
137	Sucheen Nuwāb	...	Near Sūrat. Gujarāt.
138	Sundār Chief	...	Ceded Districts. Ch. x. § 40.
139	Sumpūr Rāja	...	Bandélkhand. C.I. Agency. § 12.
140	Sirdār Shamshtir, Sindhauwāla Sing	...	Sikh. Panjāb. § 10.
141	Surla Chief	...	Bandélkhand. § 12.
142	Tehrī Chief (Oorcha), and Husht Bhya Jaghirdārs (4)	...	Bandélkhand. § 12.
143	Tēj Sing	...	Sikh. Panjāb. § 10.
144	Tonk Nuwāb	...	Rājputāna. § 36; ch. v. § 153.
145	Toree Chief	...	Rājputāna. § 36; ch. v. § 153.
146	Travancore Mahārāja	...	Hindū. § 16; ch. x. § 61.
147	Turoch Chief	...	Hill State. Panjāb.
148	Ulwar Chief (Machēri)	...	Rājputāna. § 36.

Twelve Chief States.

§ 25. The following table exhibits twelve of the chief FEUDATORY STATES :—

	SQUARE MILES.	POPULATION.	ANNUAL INCOME.
1 Nizām of Hyderabad	95,337	10,666,080	£1,650,000
2 Mahārāja Sindia, of Gwāliōr.....	2,500,000	1,110,910
3 Gaekwār of Barōda	4,399	1,710,404	600,000
4 Mahārāja of Jeypār	15,250	1,900,000	500,000
5 Mahārāja of Travancore.....	6,653	1,262,647	448,063
6 Mahārāja of Cashmīr	25,000	700,000	400,000
7 Mahārāja of Bāhpār	35,672	1,783,600	350,000
8 Mahārāja Holkār	8,318	576,000	330,000
9 Mahārāja of Pattīāla	5,412	1,586,000	300,000
10 Mahārāja of Oudipār ..	11,614	1,161,140	266,127
11 Mahārāja of Bhārtpār ..	1,974	743,710	263,692
12 Begum of Bhōpāl	6,764	663,656	240,000
Total.....	6,458,792

India—Hither and Further.

INTRO. § 26-28.

II.

SKETCH OF THE GENERAL GEOGRAPHY
OF INDIA.

§ 26. After this brief survey of the political relations of Great Britain to this country, we may proceed to a somewhat closer examination of the general geography of India.

(I.) *India*, in its widest acceptance, includes both the peninsulas separated by the Bay of Bengál. It is divided into—

India.

(i.) *Further India*, or India beyond the Ganges. This consists of the Indo-Chinese peninsula, and the islands of the great Indian Archipelago.

Further India.
(Ch. x. § 79, 82.)

(ii.) *Hither India*, or India within the Ganges, Hindústán.

Hither India.

§ 27. This territory is divided into—

(1.) The *Himálayan region*, occupying the slopes and the valleys between the various ranges of those sublime mountains.

Himálayan Region.
§ 33.

Here are the districts of—(1) Assam, (2) Sikhim, (3) Bûtán, (4) Nípal, (5) Kumaôn, (6) Gurhwál, (7) Sirmúr, and (8) the famed valley of Cashmír. (See sketch map.)

Hill Districts

Along the southern boundary of Nípal is the *Terái* or *Tariyánt*, a long narrow belt of low land, covered with jungle and very deadly.

§ 28. (2.) The great plain extending from the Brahma-putra to the Indus, and from the Himálaya mountains to the high tableland of the Southern Peninsula. This includes—(1) Bengál; (2) Bahár; (3) parts of Orissa; (4) Oudh, the antient provinces of; (5) Alláhábád; (6) Agra; (7) Delhi; (8) the Panjáb; and (9) part of Sind.

The Great Northern Plain.

Compare § 8, 9,
10, 11.

INTRO. § 28-32.

North-Western India.

Rivers. § 34.

This region is watered by the Brahma-putra, the Ganges, the Jamna, and the Indus, with their numerous and important tributaries. (See sketch map.)

This was antiently divided into *Hindûstân* and *Pûrb*.

From Allâhâbâd eastward was the *Pûrb* or *front* land. Hence the kings of Bengâl were sometimes called *Pûrbias*.

The North-Western Desert. § 36.

§ 29. (3.) The desert between the Aravulli hills and the Indus, comprising portions of Râjputâna and Sind. This belongs to the great plain, but differs from it in physical character, being for the most part barren. (See map.)

The Dakhan.

§ 30. (4.) The Dakhan or Southern Peninsula. This is a vast tableland, possessing an average elevation of 2000 feet above the level of the sea. (Ch. iv.)

Its Boundaries.

Its northern border consists of the Vindhya chain (from 2000 to 3000 feet high), a tract of high country from the border of Gujarât to the Ganges, between the 23d and 25th parallels of north latitude.

The Fourfold Boundaries.

There is the Vindhya chain; at its base flows the Nerbudda; south of it is the Sâtpura range, and then the Taptî, completing the "*fourfold girdle round the waist of India.*"

The Eastern and Western Ghâts.

§ 31. From the extremities of this transverse boundary run to the south two chains called the Western and Eastern Ghâts, which join at the Nilâgiri tableland (in north latitude 11°), whose highest peak is 8750 feet. (See sketch map.)

The Coasts.

§ 32. (5.) The lower land between the Eastern and Western Ghâts, and the sea on either hand. This belongs to the Dakhan, but historically must be considered apart from it.

The Mountains of India.

INTRO. § 32, 33.

a. From the mouth of the Mahânadî to the Kishtna are the *Northern Circârs*.

Northern Circârs.
(Ch. iii. § 16.)

b. The region between the Kishtna, the Eastern Ghâts, and the Ghâts after their union at the Nîlagiris to Cape Comorin, is the *Carnatic*, sometimes divided into northern, central, and southern. The name is a mistake, a mere corruption of *Karnâtaka*, with which it has really no connection.

Carnatic.
(Ch. vii. viii.)

c. The narrower district between the Western Ghâts and the sea is divided into—(a) the Konkan, (b) Goa, (c) Canara, (d) Malabâr, and (e) Travancore with Cochin. This is the region connected with the names of Sivajî, Albuquerque, Hyder, and Tippû.

Western Coast.
(Ch. v. vi. xii.
x. § 61.)

Some slight notice of necessary geographical particulars is given as each district is mentioned in the history.

§ 33. We may now take a separate survey of the mountains of India. The student is advised to draw sketch maps.

Mountains.

(I.) The *Himâlaya* range (= abode of snow), the escarpment of the plateau of Central Asia. This is the highest chain in the world. North of Afgânistân it is called the Hindû Koosh. The northern is the Kailâsa range. The highest peaks are—

The Himâlayas.

- | | | |
|--|---------|--------------|
| (1.) Nanda Dêvi in Kumaôn, | . . . | 25,749 feet. |
| (2.) Dhâvala-Giri in Nîpal, | . . . | 26,861 " |
| (Here the <i>Gunduck</i> rises. § 34.) | | |
| (3.) Mount Everest, Nîpal, | . . . | 31,000 " |
| (4.) Kunchinganga | " . . . | 28,620 " |
| (5.) Jumouri | " . . . | 25,500 " |
| (6.) Chimalarî | " . . . | 23,944 " |

This chain has forty peaks, exceeding Chimborazo in height (21,424 feet).

(II.) The *Vindhya* mountains. These extend through Bahâr, Allâhâbâd, and Mâlhwâ, along the north bank of

The Vindhya.

INTRO. § 33, 34.

Hills and Rivers of India.

Western Ghâts.

the Nerbudda, to the neighbourhood of Broach. They nowhere exceed 6000 feet in height.

(III.) The *Western Ghâts*, extending from the Taptî to Cape Comorin. (Comp. ch. v. § 4.)

(Parani.)

The Palni hills, near Madura, are an offshoot of these.

Eastern Ghâts.

(6.) The *Eastern Ghâts* extend, but not continuously, from Orissa to the Nilagiri plateau, where they join the *Western Ghâts*. The highest peak in Southern India is Dodda-betta (= *big-hill*), on the Nilagiris, which is 8760 feet high.

To the south of these, about sixty miles distant, are the *Animalli* hills (Ânai-malai = *Elephant hill*), which are almost unexplored.

On the N.W., between the Nilagiris and Mysore, is the valley of Wynaad (Wainâd) celebrated for its coffee plantations.

Suleimân and Hâla Mountains.

(7.) The *Suleimân*, with the *Hâla* mountains, run from north to south, dividing India from Afgânistân and Belû-chistâu. The highest peak, Takht-i-Suleimân, is 11,000 feet high.

(= *Solomon's Throne*).The Sâtpura Range.
(Ch. v. § 2.)

(8.) The *Sâtpura* hills divide the basins of the Nerbudda and the Taptî.

They are called also the *Injâdrî* mountains.

Aravullis.
(Comp. § 36.)

(9.) The *Aravulli* mountains cross Râjpûtâna from south-west to north-east.

Sewâlik Hills.

(10.) The *Sewâlik* hills, a sub-Himâlayan range, between Sirmûr and Gnrhwâl.

Râjmahâl Hills.

(11.) The *Râjmahâl* hills are to the north of Mûrshedâbâd, at the bend of the Ganges, southward.

The Garrows.

(12.) The *Garrows* are to the east of the Brahmaputra, where it takes its great southern bend.

The Shevarois.
(Siva-râya.)

(13.) Near to Salem, in the Carnatic, are the Shevaroy hills, the highest point being 5000 feet.

RIVER SYSTEM.

§ 34. The river system of India consists of the following:—

The Brahma-putra.

(1.) The *Brahmaputra*. This rises in Tibet, flows due

The Rivers of India.

INTRO § 34.

east, under the name of the Tsanpu, skirting the Himâlayas, then west, and south-west, and south, through Assam and Eastern Bengâl; where, near Dacca, it is joined by many streams, and takes the name of Mêgna. Then, joining the Ganges, and many smaller rivers, it rushes with a mighty tide into the Bay of Bengâl.

(2.) The *Ganges* and its tributaries. The various streams that form the *Ganges*, and its great branch, the *Jamna*, rise beyond the Himâlayas. These unite at *Allâhabâd*.

The Ganges and its Tributaries.

The *Bhagratî* and *Alcananda*, which rise in *Gurhwâl*, unite at *Dêvprayâga*, and form the *Ganges*.

Tributaries of the Ganges :—

a. On the north :—1. The *N. Bhagîratî*; 2. The *Râm Gangâ*; 3. The *Tîsta*; 4. The *Gûmtî*; 5. The *Gôgra*; 6. The *Gunduck* (or *Sâlagramî*); 7. The *Kôsi*.

The *Raptî* is a tributary of the *Gôgra*.

b. On the south :—1. The *Sône*; 2. The *Hûglî*; 3. The *Damûda*; 4. The *Kûsi*.

The *Hûglî* is the name given to the *S. Bhagîratî* after it is increased by some smaller streams.

Tributaries of the Jamna :—

On the south :—1. The *Chambal* (§ 36); 2. The *Sind*; 3. The *Betwa*; 4. The *Kâlî*.

The *Sîpra*, in *Âjmir*, is a tributary of the *Chambal*, as is the *Parbatî*.

The Jamna, or *Jumna*.

(3.) The *Indus* and its tributaries. The *Indus* rises in Tibet in the *Kailâsa*, or northern range of the Himâlayas, near the sources of the *Satlaj*, and not far from those of the *Ganges*. It flows north-east, skirting *Cashmîr*; then enters the *Panjâb* to the east of the *Mahaban* peak; and so through *Sind* into the *Arabian Sea*.

The Indus and its Branches.

Tributaries :—

1. The *Kâbul*.

Tributaries of the *Indus*.

The five rivers of the Panjâb.	2. The Jhîlam (Hydaspes).	}	Unite at Trimu Ghât.
	3. The Chinâb (Acesines).		
	4. The Ravi (Hydraotes).	}	Unite at Ahmedpûr.
	5. The Biâs (Hyphasis).		
	6. The Satlaj.	}	All join.
	= Ghara.		

The Nerbudda.

(4.) The *Nerbudda* (Narmada = *softener*) rises in Gondwâna near the Sône, at *Oomerkautak*, flows from east to west, and forms a part of the great division between Hindûstân and the Dakhan.

The Taptî
Northern Pârna.

(5.) The *Taptî* rises in Gondwâna, and flows nearly east to the sea near Sûrat. The Northern *Pârna* is its only tributary of importance.

The Mahânadî.

(6.) The *Mahânadî* (= *great river*) rises in Gondwâna; and after a winding course of 550 miles, flows, by many mouths, into the Bay of Bengal, near Kuttack.

Its only important tributary is the *T'el*.

The Godâvari.

(7.) The *Godâvari* rises in the Western Ghâts, at Trimback near Nasik (about 53 miles from the Indian Ocean), and runs across the peninsula, in a generally south-east direction, to Râjamandrî and Coringa.

Tributaries of
the Godâvari.
(Ch. v. § 2.)*Tributaries* :—

1. Wain-Gangâ.		4. Pain-Gangâ.
2. Manjêra.		5. Northern Warda.
3. Southern Pârna.		6. Indravatî.

(Wain = Vâna, an arrow = the arrow Ganges.)

The Kishna.
(KRISHNA =
black.)

(8.) The *Kishna* rises at Mahâbalêshwar, near *Satârâ*, and flows across the peninsula to near Masulipatam.

The Rivers of India.

INTRO § 34.

Tributaries :—

On the north,

- | | |
|---------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Bîma. } | } (Hyderâbâd
is on it.) |
| 2. Sîna. } | |
| 3. Musî. } | |
| 4. Nîma. | |
| (Ch. v. § 2.) | |

On the south,

- | | |
|-----------------|----------|
| 1. Gutpûrba. } | } Tûmb- |
| 2. Malapûrba. } | |
| 3. Tûnga. } | } hadra. |
| 4. Bhadra. } | |
| 5. S. Warda. } | |
| 6. Hugrî. | |

Tributaries of
the Kishtna.
(Ch. xii § 1.)Bhadra = ex-
cellent.
(Ch v. § 15.)

NOTE.—1. Bîma = terrible. It rises about 40 miles N. of Pâna, and passes within 15 miles of it.

2. Sîna. Rises 20 miles W.N.W. from Ahmednagar, falls into the Bîma.

3. There are two small rivers called the Mûta and the Mûla, at the junction of which stands Pâna. These streams after their union fall into the Bîma.

(9.) The *Pennâr* rises near *Nandûdrâg*, in Mysore, runs north to Gâti, then east, divides the Northern and Central Carnatic, and falls into the Bay of Bengâl, near Nellore.

The Pennâr.

(10.) The *Pâlâr* rises near the Pennâr, flows through Mysore and the Central Carnatic, past *Arcot* into the sea, near Sadras.

The Pâlâr.
= Milk-river.

(11.) The *Câverî* (*Chaberis*) rises in Kûrg, flows through Mysore, forms an island on which stands Seringapatam, divides Coimbatôr from Salem; at Carûr, turns east, forms the island of Sirangam, near Trichinopolÿ; thence is divided into two branches, of which the northern is called the Colleroon, and falls into the sea at Dêvikôta; while the other splits into many little streams, reaching the sea at Negapatam and Tranquebâr.

The Câverî.
(*Kâvêri* or
Cauvery.)

(Ch. xii. § 1.)

The *Bhavâni* (*Bowâni*), which rises in the Nilagiris, is one of the tributaries of the Câverî.

(12.) *Lesser rivers* are—

(a.) The *Lâni* rises near Âjmir, and falls into the Rann of Katch. This is a salt river.

The Lâni.

(b.) The *Banass* rises in the Aravulli hills, and falls into the Rann of Katch.

The Banass.

INTRO. § 34-36.

Rājputāna.

The Māi.

(c.) The *Māi* rises in Mālwā, near Māndū, and falls into the Gulf of Cambay.

The Vaigai.

(d.) The *Vaigai* rises in the Western Ghāts, and flows past *Madura* into the Gulf of Manār near Ramnad.

The Tāmbara-pūrnī.

(e.) The *Tāmbarapūrnī* rises in the Western Ghāts, and flows past *Palamcottah*.

The Punār.

(f.) The *Punār* (or S. Pennār) rises among the Nandî-drûg hills, in Mysore, and flows into the sea at Cuddalôr.

The Gundigāma.

(g.) The *Gundigāma*, which rises in the ceded districts, and divides the N. Carnatic from the N. Circārs.

The Sabmurika.

(h.) The *Sabmurika* rises in Bahār, and flows into the Bay of Bengāl near Balasôre.

The Brāhmanī.

(i.) The *Brāhmanī* (or Bahminī) flows into the Bay of Bengāl near the Mahānadī.

The Byturnī.

(j.) The *Byturnī* falls into the Bay of Bengāl near Pt. Palmyras.

§ 35. As certain parts of India will not come prominently and separately before us in the history, we give here a general sketch of their history and geography for reference.

These are—(1) Rājputāna, (2) Ceylon, (3) The lesser islands on the Indian coast.

Rājputāna.

§ 36. *Rājputāna*. (See Intro. I. § 13.)

A. This immense district is divided into twenty provinces or states.

Of these (1) ĀJMĪR and (2) MAIRWARRA are imperial possessions.

Eighteen are separate and independent states, under British protection.

They are—

I. Rājput principalities.

Imperial Possessions in Rājputāna.

Independent States of Rājputāna.

Rājputāna.

INTRO § 36.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Mēwār or Oudipūr. (Ch. iii. § 6.) | 8. Kishnagar. |
| 2. Jeypūr. | 9. Jeisalmír. |
| 3. Mār wār or Jódhpūr. | 10. Ulwar. |
| 4. Bândî. (Ch. v. § 136.) | 11. Sirôhî. (In the S.W.) |
| 5. Bikanîr. | 12. Dungarpūr. |
| 6. Kota. | 13. Banswāra. |
| 7. Kerowlî. | 14. Pertabghar. |
| | 15. Jhallāwar. |

(Ch. v § 153.)

Mār wār = *Sandy*.

II. Jât principalities.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 16. Bhartpūr. (Ch. v. § 137.) | 17. Dholapūr or Gôhud. (Ch. v. § 137.) |
|-------------------------------|--|

Divisions of Rājputāna.

III. Muhammedan principality.

18. Tonk. (Ch. v. § 153.)

Tonk.

Bândî, Kota, and Jhallāwar form the old district of *Harâotî*.

B. Rājputāna is an irregular pentagon, bounded on the north and north-east by Bhāwalpūr, *Harîāna*, *Gurgāon*, *Muttra*, and *Āgra*; east by *Sindia's* territory; south by *Holkār's* dominions, the *Māhî Kānta*, the *Rēwa Kānta*, *Palanpūr*, and *Gujarāt*; and west by *Sind*.

c. The hills are—

(a.) The *Aravulli* chain, running from north-east to south-west, dividing the province into two portions. This is the water-shed. The highest peak is Mount Abu, which is 5800 feet above the level of the sea. Here is an asylum, founded by the late Sir H. Lawrence in 1854, when he was agent to the Governor-General in this province, for soldiers' children. In these hills the wild tribes of *Bhîls* and *Grassias*, who live by plunder, have their home.

(b.) There are also sandstone hills in various parts of Rājputāna. On one of these stands *Jódhpūr*.

(c.) The *Mokhundra* range, the pass through which was

To the N.E. of Mālwa.

Boundaries.
(These are the old names for two districts lying to the S. of the Panjāb.)

Hills of Rājputāna.
The Aravullis.

Mount Abu.

Mountain Tribes.

= Yuddhapūr —
City of war.
The Mokhundra Range.

INTRO. § 36, 37.

Râjputâna. Ceylon.

Chambal.
(The *Sambus* of
Arrian.)

rendered memorable by *Monson's retreat*. (Ch. v. § 137.) It is in Harâotî.

D. a. The river *Chambal* rises between Mândû and Mhow, enters R. at Hingluzghur, separates Bûndî from Kota, and leaves Jeypûr, Kerowlî, and Dholapûr on the west, while Sindia's dominions skirt its eastern bank. It falls into the Jamna.

Tributaries of
the Chambal.

Its tributaries are—the (1) Kâlî Sind (Ahû, Newâj), (2) Parbatti, (3) Banass.

b. The Bânganga and its tributary the Ghumbîr. This springs from the hills near Jeypûr, and flows through Bhartpûr into the Jamna.

The Dhûnd.
The Lûni.

c. The Dhûnd rises in Jeypûr.

d. The Lûni. This is a salt river, issues from the Âjmir lake, and falls into the Rann of Katch.

Lakes.

E. Splendid artificial lakes are found in this district. The finest are at Râjnagar, Saunhur, and Deybur.

F. The districts to the west and north-west of the Aravulli hills are mostly desert, with a few interspersed fertile spots. The eastern and central portions are more level, more fertile, and, consequently, more populous.

Ceylon.

§ 37. (2.) CEYLON is about 150 miles from Cape Comorin.

From Point Pedro (9° 46' north) to Dondra head (5° 56' north) is about 270 miles. Its average breadth is about 100 miles. The highest peak of its inland mountains is 600 feet. It was originally under various chieftains, who were all subdued by the king of Candy. It was then conquered by the Dutch (A.D. 1603–1656). From them it was taken by the English in 1796. They conquered the whole island in 1819. Its proper name is *Singâla*, from whence *Ceylon*. Its Sanskrit name is *Lanka*. The Arabs called it *Serendîb*. The antient Romans knew it by the name of *Taprobane* (= Dîpu-Râvana, Râvana's island). Its inhabitants are *Singalese*, who speak a dialect of *Pâli*,

History of
Ceylon.

(Ch. vii. § 4.)

Islands connected with India.

INTRO. § 37, 38.

allied to antient Sanskrit ; Tamilians from the Continent ; and Indo-Portuguese. The Singalese are mostly Buddhists.

(Ch. i. § 11.)

Its chief towns are Jaffna, Colombo, Trincomalee, Point-de-Galle, and Candy. It is a Crown colony.

Towns in Ceylon.

§ 38. The other lesser islands, connected more or less with India, are—

Lesser Islands connected with India.

A. The *Andamans* in the Bay of Bengál. These are two, the greater and the lesser *Andaman*. The inhabitants are very degraded. These islands are used now as a penal settlement. Port Blair is the chief settlement. Port Cornwallis is on the east side of the Great Andaman. Barren Island is 50 miles east of the Great Andaman.

The Andamans.

Barren Island.

B. The *Nicobár* Islands, in the Bay of Bengál. These are a group to the south of the former. Their inhabitants are very savage. A valuable species of cocoa-nut is brought from them.

The Nicobárs.

c. The *Laccadives* (= 100,000 *islets*), in the Arabian Sea, about 75 miles from the coast of Malabár. The inhabitants are Moplas. Coir (the cocoa-nut fibre) is exported from them to Cochin. These islands are British territory. They belonged to the Bibî of Cannanûr, and were annexed in 1803. They were discovered by Da Gâma in his first voyage.

The Laccadives.

D. *Maldives* (= Malaya Islands), in the Arabian Sea, about 1200 in number, divided into seventeen clusters called Attollous. They are inhabited by Arab colonists. Their chief calls himself Sultân. They speak Hindûstânî.

The Maldives.

III.

ARRANGEMENT OF THE SUBJECT.

§ 39. The student of Indian history and geography may profitably begin by taking a general survey of the field which he is afterwards to examine more minutely. The introductory chapter enables him to do this. He will then notice—

FIRSTLY, *What has been stated regarding antient India.*

This includes all that demands our attention before the time of Mahmud of Ghazni, A.D. 1000.

In this division of the subject must be considered—

- i. Hindû legends and traditions. To this may be added all that can be gleaned from purely Hindû sources.
- ii. Information gathered from European sources.

The student will examine—

SECONDLY, *The history of India from the earliest appearance of the Muhammedans therein, to the (so-called) first battle of Pânipat, A.D. 1526.*

This includes notices of—

i. Muhammedans before the Ghaznivides. A.D. 711–977.

ii. The Ghaznivides. A.D. 977–1152.

iii. The Lâhôr Muhammedans, and especially Muhammed of Ghôr, whose slaves founded the empire of which Delhi became the capital.

iv. The Muhammedan power in Delhi, from Kutb-ud-dîn to Ibrahîm Lôdî.

The next grand division is—

Contents of the History.

INTRO. § 39.

THIRDLY, *The history of the Mogul Empire from A.D. 1526, the first battle of Pânipat, to the death of the last Mogul Emperor, Muhammed Bahâdur, A.D. 1859.*

The student must consider—

FOURTHLY, *The history of the Dakhan; and especially the rise, revolutions, sub-divisions, and struggles of the Muhammedan powers in the Dakhan, from A.D. 1294, the invasion of Alla-u-dîn Khiljî, to the present time.*

We come to—

FIFTHLY, *The history of the Mahrattas, from the birth of Sivajî, A.D. 1627, to the present time.*

It will now be expedient to turn to—

SIXTHLY, *The Portuguese in the East, from A.D. 1498, when Vasco-da-Gâma landed in Calicut, to the present time.*

Of lesser importance are—

SEVENTHLY, *The other European Companies who strove to obtain a share in the Eastern trade, to A.D. 1744.*

This prepares us for—

EIGHTHLY, *The rivalries and wars of the French and English East India Companies, to the surrender of Pondicherry to the English, A.D. 1761.*

The student must then turn to—

NINTHLY, *The foundation of British power in Bengâl, the events of 1765, and the interval to the appointment of the first Governor-General.*

This leads to—

TENTHLY, *The Governors-General of British India, from Warren Hastings, 1774, to the present time.*

- A separate chapter must be given to—

ELEVENTHLY, *The history of the Panjâb;*

And to—

TWELFTHLY, *The history of Mysore.*

NOTE.—In these twelve chapters the student's attention will be directed to four points :—

(1.) HISTORICAL FACTS, which must be distinctly mastered, and the student must accustom himself to re-state them in his own language.

(2.) PERSONS. The student must not pass over any person of historical importance, without obtaining a fair view of his entire history.

(3.) PLACES. These must be looked for on the map, and the foot-notes studied.

(4.) CONTEMPORARY EVENTS. No matter of Indian history is thoroughly known till it is inseparably connected in the mind with its corresponding event in European history.

CHAPTER I.

ANTIEN T INDIA.

From the Earliest Times to the beginning of authentic continuous Indian History at the rise of the Ghaznîvides.

I. HINDÛ LEGENDS AND TRADITIONS.

§ 1. It has been said that in the history of India no *date* of a public event can be fixed before Alexander, B.C. 327 ; and no connected relation of the national transactions can be attempted until after the Muhammedan conquest, 1000-1024 A.D.

Uncertainty of Antient Indian History.

§ 2. The most antient Hindû books are the *Vêdas*, written in the sacred language of the Hindûs, the Sanskrit, and supposed to have been arranged in their present form about 1400 years B.C. [The Exodus from Egypt, 1491.] The Vêdic system of religion, consisting mainly of the worship of the personified elements, is now entirely obsolete in India.

The Vêdas.

Date B.C. 1400.

The Vêdic System.

The Sanskrit is the most copious and refined of all languages. It contains a vast store of interesting and valuable literature, proving that the antient Hindûs were not inferior even to the Greeks in mental powers.

Sanskrit.

The Institutes of Menu (MANU). (*Mānava-Dharma-Sāstra*.)

§ 3. The next work of consequence is the Institutes of *Menu*, the lawgiver. He gives an account of the state of Hindû society at the time he wrote, which is variously dated from B.C. 900 to B.C. 300. But the materials are older than the work itself; and it may be supposed to represent mainly the state of things in India eight centuries before the Christian æra.

Facts to be gained from Menu. Castes.

§ 4. In connection with *Menu* may be noted—

(1.) The division into the four *castes* of Brâhmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sûdras; or the *sacerdotal*, the *military*, the *industrial*, and the *servile* classes.

The Twice-born.

(2.) The three first classes are called "twice-born" (a title given to all who have been invested with the sacred thread), and were evidently conquerors from Central Asia, while the Sûdras were a conquered race.

Common Origin of Races in Europe and India. Indo-Germanic Languages.

(3.) The proved philological fact of the common origin of the Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, Slavonic, and Celtic languages seems to show that the ancestors of the various tribes of men, who use dialects belonging to this great family of languages, have spread abroad from some central home, whence the twice-born found their way as immigrant conquerors into Hindûstân. The original inhabitants were, for the most part, driven into the mountains, where they now dwell.

Changes in Castes.

(4.) This antient system of caste has been much changed. There are more than 150 different castes in India at this time.

Brâhmins.

Of the antient castes the Brâhmins alone remain, and they have departed in many essential respects from the rules and practices of their forefathers.

Vêdic Religion.

(5.) The religion of Menu is mainly Vêdic, and essentially different from Modern Hindûism; in this, and in every other respect, the Hindûs having deteriorated since the days of Menu.

Village Communities.

(6.) In one respect the Hindû social system has been

The Solar and Lunar Races.

CHAP. I. § 5, 6.

little altered since the days of Menu. The village communities, forming little republics, still exist, and manage their own affairs as far as they are permitted, having rude municipal institutions, effectual for the purposes of government and protection.

These townships are under *Headmen*, who are supposed to possess the confidence of both the Government and the people, and who hold a portion of land from the Government, while they also receive fees from the people.

Besides the headman there are an accountant, a watchman, a money-changer, a smith, a barber, and other functionaries, who receive payment from the village revenues.

Village Functionaries.

§ 5. The first notice we have of the Hindûs in Hindûstân is a passage in Menu, in which two tracts of country, called *Brahmāvarta* and *Brahmārshidêsa*, are spoken of as the early residences of the people.

Antient Homes of the Hindû Race.

The *Brahmāvarta* is the tract between the Saraswatî and Caggar rivers, about 100 miles to the N.W. of Delhi. The *Brahmārshidêsa* is the country to the east of this, up to the Jamna, and all to the north, including North Bahâr. Here dwelt the antient princes and sages of Hindû mythology. Here was the magnificent Sanskrit language perfected. Here the decimal notation was invented.

Brahmāvarta.

Brahmārshidêsa.

§ 6. The Purânas (antient mythological works) begin with *Oudh* (Ayodhya), whence the princes of the Solar and Lunar dynasties sprang. The former were supported by the Brâhmans and the latter by the Kshetriyas.

The Purânas. Solar and Lunar Races.

Râma, whose history has doubtless a foundation in fact, is the great hero of the *Solar* race. His story is told in the *Râmâyana*, an epic of which versions exist in all the languages of India. He invaded the Dakhan, which he found filled with monkeys, *i.e.*, with Gônds, Koles, Khônds, and other uncivilised aborigines, by whose aid he con-

Râma.

Râmâyana.

CHAP. I. § 7, 8.

The Mahâ Bhârata.

B.C. 1200.

quered Lanka or Ceylon. (Perhaps B.C. 1200.) Traces of this expedition exist.

His kingdom probably merged in that of which, in later days, Kanouj was the capital. Sixty princes of his race are enumerated.

The Mahâ Bhârata.
Probably written 240 B.C.
Pândûs and Kurus.
(About 59 miles N.E. from Delhi.)

§ 7. The MAHÂ BHÂRATA is a legend of the *Lunar* dynasty. It gives an account of the war between the kindred families of the *Pândûs* and *Kurus*, assisted by many tribes, speaking different languages, for the territory of *Hastinâpûra*. Krishna, now worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu, was an ally of the Pândûs. He had founded a principality in Gujarât. This war was fought probably from 1400 to 1300 B.C. The great battle was fought at Tanêshwar, 30 miles west of Delhi.

B.C. 1400 to 1800.

The successors of the Pândûs seem to have reigned in Delhi, the antient name of which was *Indraprastha*. Twenty-nine of these are mentioned in legendary histories.

Bahâr.

§ 8. In the Mahâ Bhârata mention is made of the king of *Magadha*, or Bahâr.

He was the head of many chieftains.

Sahâ-dêva.

(1.) *Sahâ-dêva* was king at the time of the war.

The Origin of Buddhism.

(2.) The thirty-fifth in succession from him was Ajâta-Satru, in whose reign flourished Sâkya or Gôtama, the founder of Buddhism, the most widely-extended religion in the world. His death probably took place in B.C. 543.

(Comp. § 11.)

Nanda.
About 400 B.C.
Chandragupta.
315 B.C.

(3.) The sixth king from Ajâta-Satru was *Nanda*.

(4.) The ninth from Nanda was *Chandragupta*, called Sandracottus by the Greeks. (§ 20.)

Asôka; the Patron of Buddhism.
B.C. 26J-220.

(5.) The third from Chandragupta was the famous patron of Buddhism, ASÔKA (B.C. 260-220), who assumed the name of *Piyadâsi* (= *beloved of the gods*). Edicts of his, favouring Buddhism, have been found sculptured on rocks in Cuttack, Gujarât, and elsewhere.

The most celebrated of these are—(1) At *Girnar*, near Jûnagar; (2) At

The Hindû Religions.

CHAP. I. § 9, 10.

Kâpur-di-Gîri, near Peshâwar; (3) At *Dhaulti*, in Orissa; and (4) On Lâths or pillars at Delhi and Allâhâbâd.

Under these kings, Magadha rose to great eminence. Splendid roads ran across the country from Palibothra (probably on the site of, or not far from, the modern Patna) to the Indus and to Broach. Maritime expeditions introduced the Hindû religion into Jâva in B.C. 75.

Magadha.

§ 9. The æra of Vikramâditya, King of Oujein in Mâlhwâ, is B.C. 57; and that of Sâlivâhana, whose capital was Paithun on the Godâvarî, is A.D. 78. (§ 23.)

The Two Great Æras, or B.C. 50, A.D. 78.

The former is current in Hindûstân, and the latter in the Dakhan. The Hindû legends tell us that, about two centuries before the Christian æra, a race called the *Agnikulas* (= *the generation of fire*) arose to fight against the Buddhists. Of these the Prâmaras were the chief. They propagated Hindûism far and wide. The Buddhists retreated to Ceylon. From the Prâmara (contracted to Puar) sprang Vikramâditya.

The Agnikulas.

The Prâmaras. (= Puars.)

§ 10. The present Hindû religion, or the aggregate of the religions which go under the name of Hindûism, mainly sprang from the Purânas and other poetical works we have mentioned.

The Hindû Religions.

Three gods, Brahma the Creator, Siva the destroyer, and Vishnu the preserver, are acknowledged, though the worship of Brahma is almost unknown.

The Three Great Divinities.

Deified heroes, such as Râma and Krishna, are worshipped as incarnations of Vishnu. The wives, concubines, attendants, children, and even vehicles of these gods and demi-gods are worshipped. Thus 333,000,000 of beings are included in the Hindû Pantheon.

Demi-gods.

Demon worship, the remains of the Scythic religion of the aborigines, still prevails very extensively, and has even invaded the Brâhmanical systems.

Demons.

The religions of the Buddhists and Jains have been at times extensively prevalent.

Buddhism

§ 11. *Buddhism* originated in S. Bahâr at Gaya (Gya). Its founder was Gôtama, who died 543 B.C. It rejected Brâhmanism and caste, and in the reign of Asôka (§ 8) was triumphant throughout Hindûstân. It spread into Ceylon about the end of the third century B.C., and afterwards into Tibet and China. (A.D. 65.) The Brâhman after a long struggle succeeded in expelling it from India before the end of the twelfth century. Its greatest opponent in the Dakhan was *Sankara Âchârya*, who flourished in the eight or ninth century A.D. The magnificent cave temples evacuated by the Buddhists were afterwards in many cases, as at Ellôra, taken possession of by the Brâhman and filled with sculptures of their own.

Sankara Âchârya.

The Jains.

§ 12. The *Jain* system is midway between the pseudo-spiritual Buddhism and the grossly material Brâhmanism. The Jains retain caste, and acknowledge the whole Hindû Pantheon, but regard certain saints, called *Tîrthankâras* (= those who *by ascetic practices* have crossed the ocean of human existence), as superior to the gods.

This system originated about 600 A.D., and declined after 1200 A.D. It chiefly prevailed in the South and in Gujarât. Jains abound still in Gujarât and in Kanara. They have always been a learned people. Tamil literature owes to them its finest compositions. Jain authors were the real refiners of that exquisite language. They were much persecuted in Madura, and finally rooted out from there by *Kâna Pândiyôn*, their leaders being impaled, probably in the eleventh century.

(Comp. ch. iv. § 5.)

Sanskrit Literature.

§ 13. The chief Sanskrit works have been referred to in the preceding sections. There are, however, an innumerable host of important compositions extant in Sanskrit in

Information regarding India from European Sources.

CHAP. I. § 14-16.

almost every department of literature, especially excelling in whatever can be evolved by contemplation.

Indian civilisation was very antient, and of a high order.

The dramas still existing are about sixty. Of these the most celebrated is the Sakontalâ of Kâlidâsa (the Hindû Virgil), who lived in the fifth century.

Kâlidâsa.

The great epics are the Râmâyana and the Mahâ Bhârata. (§ 6, 7.)

Epics.

§ 14. The *Purânas* are inexhaustible storehouses of mythological lore. They are the sources of the popular religion of India.

Purânas.

§ 15. The Hindûs have ever been addicted to the study of *Philosophy*, and six systems are enumerated, which were recognised by the Hindûs, though more or less inconsistent with their religious tenets. These systems, greatly modified by Western influences, still possess great power over the minds of the people in all parts of the land.

Philosophy.

In these are discussed, with great subtlety, most of the metaphysical questions which have exercised the intellect of the philosophers of antient Greece and of modern Europe.

Of these systems the Vêdânta, which is a system of Pantheism in its modern form, teaches that there is really nothing existing but the Supreme, and that all souls are finally to be absorbed into the Divine essence. This is the only philosophy which exercises much practical effect on the minds of the people at the present time.

Vêdânta.

II. INFORMATION REGARDING INDIA FROM EUROPEAN SOURCES.

§ 16. The references in antient writers to India are vague. Solomon's apes, peacocks, and ivory came probably from Ceylon. Hindû merchants in very antient times

Antient Writers on India.

sailed westwards, and the harbours of the Malabâr Coast and of Ceylon were crowded with vessels from the west; but we have no authentic details of those times. The conquest of India by Bacchus is mere poetical fable. The expeditions of Semiramis have no authentic foundation.

Sesostris, 1308
B.C.

§ 17. SESOSTRIS.

It is difficult to say how much confidence should be placed in the account given us by Diodorus Siculus of the conquests of *Sesostris*. He was a king of Egypt in 1308 B.C. Aiming at universal empire, he fitted out a fleet of 400 ships, which conquered all the regions from the Red Sea to India.

Meanwhile, he himself led an army by land across the Ganges to the Eastern Ocean. His conquests, even if real, had no permanent result.

The Antient Persian Invasion,
513 B.C.

§ 18. DARIUS, THE SON OF HYSTASPES. B.C. 518-485.

Raised to the throne of Persia by chance or artifice, he was a worthy ruler. He conquered Eastern Kâbul, the Panjâb, and part of Sind. He aimed at something more than mere conquest: he desired to fuse the conquered provinces into one homogenous empire. He divided his empire into twenty Satrapies, of which India was one. The Indian tribute is said to have been paid in gold, and to have amounted to £1,290,000 sterling—a sum equal to 2.5ths of the whole tribute paid by the other nineteen.

The Panjâb under Persia.

Skylax, the Persian Admiral.

Darius contented himself with the conquest of the Panjâb; but under his direction, Skylax, his admiral, explored the Indus, sailing down the stream into the Indian Ocean, round Arabia, up the Red Sea, to Egypt.

The Antient Grecian Invasion.
Alexander the Great.

B.C. 330-323.

§ 19. Alexander the Great, the conqueror of Persia,

after the defeat and death of Darius, passed on towards India, ever the goal of each conqueror, whose wealth was to recompense the soldier for all his toils. In 330 B.C., he

Invasion of Alexander the Great.

CHAP. I. § 19.

founded the important frontier city of Herât, and wintered at "Alexandria apud Caucasum," probably Beghran, near Kâbul. He then founded the Bactrian kingdom.

Herât.

After three years spent in these Scythic regions, he passed through the Khyber Pass, crossed the Indus at Attock in April 327 B.C., and encountered and defeated Porus at Gujârât on the bank of the Jhilam, on the spot where the Sikhs sustained their last crushing defeat. (Ch. xi. § 42, 43.)

Gujârât.

Taxiles, who ruled over the country from the Indus to the Jhilam, seems to have aided Alexander.

Taxiles.

Porus, too, whom Alexander treated generously, became his faithful ally.

Porus.

From thence he advanced to the banks of the Satlaj, being intent upon the conquest of Magadha, of the magnificence of whose capital, Palibothra, he had heard. But his soldiers refused to advance, and with deep sorrow and mortification he again turned his face towards Greece. His first care was to construct a fleet to convey his troops down the Satlaj to the Indus, and thus home. But first he erected twelve huge altars, on which he offered sacrifices to the gods for his victories. The army then embarked with due libations to the river, and sailed down the stream with extraordinary pomp.

Alexander compelled to return.

The Fleet on the Indus.

At or near the mouth of the Indus was an antient city called Patâla, whose site cannot be verified. The Râja of this region treated Alexander with kindness, and he remained there for some time. He then left his Admiral Nearchus to proceed by sea, while he himself with a part of the army marched back through Belûchistân. Nearchus sailed on the 9th September 326 B.C., and arrived at the mouth of the Euphrates, after a voyage which is considered to be one of the most memorable in antient history. He joined Alexander, who died in 323 at Babylon.

The Greek Admiral Nearchus. B.C. 326.

B.C. 323.

Alexander's views were enlarged. Added to his wonderful military genius was a wish to connect all nations

The Designs of the Great Conqueror.

CHAP. I. § 20-22.

The Greeks in India.

by the ties of commerce and mutual self-interest. His conquest of India, if he had been permitted to complete it, would doubtless have been a great benefit.

This was the period when the Hindûs had reached their highest point of cultivation.

The Bactrian Kingdom.

§ 20. The Bactrian kingdom on the death of Alexander fell to Seleucus, one of his ablest generals, who became King of Syria. Chandragupta was then King of Magadha, having taken *Pataliputra* (Palibothra) from the Râja of the Prasii. (§ 8.) He is said to have been the illegitimate son of the preceding king, by a woman of the barber caste, and to have possessed extraordinary ability and energy. Against him Seleucus marched, and a great battle was fought, with what issue is uncertain; but a treaty was made, and Seleucus gave his daughter in marriage to the Indian king, and gave up to him the provinces east of the Indus for a subsidy of fifty elephants.

Chandragupta and Seleucus, B. C. 312.

Megasthenes.

Megasthenes was appointed the Greek ambassador at the Court of Palibothra. He has given full accounts of the state of India at that time. The stories of the grandeur of Chandragupta, of his army, and of his capital, are incredible.

Fall of the Greek Kingdom of Bactria.

The Greek kingdom of Bactria fell under a Tatâr tribe from Transoxiana about B. C. 126. Numerous coins belonging to these kings have been found in the Panjâb and in the Trans-Indus provinces.

Descendants of Chandragupta.

§ 21. The family of (Sandracottus) Chandragupta retained the kingdom for ten generations, and were followed by three Sûdra dynasties, the last of which, the *Andhras*, ended in A. D. 436. (§ 8.)

Bengâl.
(Comp. ch. ii.
§ 19.)

§ 22. In Bengâl, a dynasty of Pâla kings was followed by one of Sênas, which last was subverted by the Muhammedans in A. D. 1203. They are said to have reigned over

Dynastic Changes.

CHAP. I. § 23-28.

great part of India. But there were contemporary dynasties reigning in Kanouj, Delhi, Ajmîr, Mêwâr, and Gujarât, of which little is known certainly.

§ 23. We come then to Vikramâditya in Oujein (§ 9), whose successor after many generations was Râja Bhôja (from whom Bhôpâl takes its name), who reigned till about the end of the eleventh century.

Oujein or Ôjein.

§ 24. The grandson of Bhôja was conquered by the Râja of Gujarât. But Mâlwa recovered its independence, and was finally subdued by the Muhammedans in A.D. 1231. (Ch. ii. § 23.)

Mâlwa.

§ 25. Gujarât in the second century had a Râjpût dynasty called the Balabhî princes, who at length emigrated in A.D. 594, and founded the kingdom of Mêwâr. They are thought to have been driven out by Persians under Noushîrvân (A.D. 531-579). (Comp. ch. iii. § 6, 12.)

Gujarât.
The Balabhîs.

§ 26. The Chauras, also Râjpûts, succeeded in Gujarât. Their capital was Anhalwâra, now Paithun (A.D. 746-931). To these succeeded the Salônkas, who were finally subdued by Allâ-ud-dîn-Khiljî in A.D. 1297. (Ch. ii. § 16.)

The Chauras.

§ 27. In Kanouj, the Rathôrs obtained power in A.D. 470, and retained it till subdued by the Mussulmân in A.D. 1193. (Ch. ii. § 16.) The Rathôrs founded the present dynasty of Mârwâr.

The Rathôrs.

§ 28. The following table will assist the memory :—

ANTIEN T HINDŪ STATES.

1	MAGADHA, I.	...	§ 19-21.
2	MĀLWĀ, I.	...	§ 9, 24.
3	GUJARĀT	...	Balabhis. Chauras. § 20.
4	MĀWĀR, I.	...	§ 25.
5	KANOŪJ	...	Rathōrs. Ch. II. § 16, 17.
6	BENĀRES	...	Subverted 1193.
7	MITHILA	...	Kingdom of Rāma. Oudh.
8	DELHI	...	Subverted 1195. A.D.
9	ĀJMĪR	...	Do. do.
10	MĀRWĀR	...	The Rathōrs. § 27.
11	SIND	...	Conquered by Muhammed of Ghôr.
12	CASHMĪR	...	Ch. XI. § 7.
13	PĀNDYA kingdom of MADURA.	...	Ch. IV. § 5, 6.
14	CHŌLA of KĀNCHIPURAM	...	Ch. IV. § 7.
15	ÇĒRA of TRAVANCORE	...	Ch. IV. § 8.
16	BALĀLA of DWĀRA SAMUDRA.	...	Ch. XII. § 2.
17	WARANGAL	...	Ch. IV. § 12.
18	PAITHUN—SĀLIVĀHANA	...	Ch. IV. § 94.

TABLE OF PLACES HAVING DIFFERENT NAMES.

§ 29. The following Table will be of use to the Student :—

Allāhābād	...	S. Prayāg = confluence.	
Amū R.	...	Oxus.	
Bahār, South	...	Magadha	... § 8.
North with Oudh	...	Mithilā.	
Belūchistān	...	Gedrosia	{ Alex. marched through it towards the close of the summer of 325 B.C.
Biās R (Beas)	...	Hyphasis, Hypanis.	
Broach, Barōch, Barūch	...	Baryagaza	{ In the Periplus. Ch. IV. § 14.
Barcelōr	...	Tyndis	... Periplus.
Ceylon	...	S. Lanka, an. <i>Taprobane</i> ...	Ch. I. § 6.
Cochin	...	Colchi	... The Periplus.
Chināb R.	...	Acesines.	
Delhi	...	Indraprashta.	
Jamna R.	...	Erranoboas.	

Table of Places having different Names.

CHAP. I. § 29.

Jhîlam R.	...	Hydaspes.	
Herât	...	Artachoana.	
Himâlâya M.	...	S. Himavat.	
Hindûstân	...	S. Bhârata Varsha.	
Hindûstân proper	...	{ S. Madhya Dêsa (= <i>mîl-</i> <i>dle region</i>).	
Hâglî (Hooghly)	...	Magnum Ostium.	
Kâbul—River	...	Cophenes.	
Kanouj (Canouje)	...	Kanyâkubja.	
Mangalore	...	Musiris	... The Periplus.
Masulipatam	...	Mesolia	... Do.
Nelisuram	...	Nelkunda	... Do.
Oudh	...	Ayodhya, or <i>K'çhalu</i> .	
Oudh, and part of the } Lower Doâb }		S. Panchâba.	
Paitan (Paithin, Pycun)...		Plinthana (?)	... In the Periplus.
Pattan	...	Anhalwâra	{ Antient capital of Gu- jarât. Ch. I. § 26.
Palibothra	...	S. Pâtaliputra (Patna?).	
Ravi R.	...	Hydraotes.	
Satlaj R.	...	Hysudrus.	
Sâtpura Hills	...	S. Injâdri.	
Solimân M.	...	Imaus Mons.	

CHAP. II. § 1-3.
A.D. 1001.

The Afgâns.

CHAPTER II.

The History of the various Afgân Dynasties that ruled in India till the time of Bâber, 1526.

Struggles of
Hindûs against
Muhammedans.
1001-1740.

§ 1. From about the beginning of the twelfth century of the Christian æra the history of India is chiefly occupied with the struggles of the Hindû races against Muhammedan conquerors of various tribes. This period lasted about 750 years (from 1001 to 1740): from the first expedition of Muhammed of Ghaznû to the taking of Delhi by Nâdir Shâh.

Afgâns followed
by Tatârs.

§ 2. The general name *Afgâns* (= Pathân) may be given to the Muhammedan invaders and rulers of Northern India before the establishment of the Mogul (or Mongul) dominion by Bâber in A.D. 1526. Of these there were many dynasties. Their history is given in this chapter. The name Afgân was given to the various warlike tribes inhabiting the mountains of Ghôr and other districts bordering on Kâbul and Persia. They were originally fire-worshippers, and then converts to Muhammedanism.

§ 3. The following is a summary of this portion of Indian history:—



W. Hughes.

Afgān Dynasties.

CHAP. II. § 3.

		A.D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
I.	Introductory : the birth of Muhammed ...	569	Justinian Emperor of Constantinople, 527-565.
	<i>Hijra</i> , or flight to Medina....	622	
	Conquest of Persia ...	632	Edwin V. Bretwalda slain by Penda, 633.
II.	First appearance of Muhammedans in India, under		Tārik landed at Gibraltar, 711. Battle of Xeres, and death of Roderic, 712.
	(I.) Mohālib ...	664	The Muhammedan conquest of Spain by Tārik and Mūsa, A.D. 713, 714.
	(II.) Muhammed Kāsim ...	711	
	Invades Sind ...	711	
	The Muhammedans expelled from India ...	750	Charles Martel's overthrow of the Saracens, between Poitiers and Tours, 732 A.D. Charlemagne, 800. Alfred the Great, 871-900.
III.	THE GHAZNĪVIDES.		
	Alptegin, a Tūrki slave, Muhammedan governor of Khorasān, being deprived of his government, flees to Ghazni, where he makes himself independent	961	King Edgar, 959-965.
	Sabuktegin, son-in-law of Alptegin, succeeds ...	977	
	Jeipāl, King of Lāhōr, and probably Rājput King of Delhi, attacks Sabuktegin and is defeated. The Muhammedan dominion is extended to the Indus ...	978	Hugh Capet, 987-996.
	Mahmūd of Ghazni, son of Sabuktegin, succeeds ...	997	
	His twelve expeditions into India ...	1001 to 1024	Massacre of Danes, 1002. Danish kings in Britain : 1013 to 1042.

		A.D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
	In the tenth of these, Lāhōr and its territory were permanently annexed to the Ghazni-vide dominions ...	1022	Canute the Great, 1016-1035. Macbeth murders Duncan, 1039.
	Death of Mahmūd ...	1030	
	Muhammed succeeds, and is dethroned by Masāud I. ...	1030	The Norman Conquest, 1066. The Crusades, 1095 to 1270.
	Beirām ...	1118	
	Ghazni sacked and burnt by Allā-ud-dīn Ghōrī ...	1152	Henry II., the first of the Plantagenets, 1154-1189.
IV.	THE GHŌRIANS.		
	Muhammed Ghōrī, or Shāhāb-ud-dīn, invades India repeatedly, till his death ...	1153 to 1206	Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164. Conquest of Ireland, 1172. John, 1199-1216.
V.	THE SLAVE KINGS.		
	(I.) Kutb-ud-dīn, the first independent Muhammedan ruler in Delhi ...	1206	
	(II.) Āram ...	1210	
	(III.) Altamish ...	1211	
	IRRUPTION OF THE MO(S)GULS.	1217	Magna Charta, 1215. Henry III., 1216-1272.
	(IV.) Rukn-ud-dīn ...	1236	
	(V.) Sultāna Rezīa ...	1236	
	(VI.) Beirām ...	1239	
	(VII.) Masāud III. ...	1241	
	(VIII.) Nāsir-ud-dīn Mahmūd ...	1246	
	(IX.) Balban (Balīn) ...	1266	The first regular Parliament, 1265.
	(X.) Kei Kobad ...	1286	Conquest of Wales, 1283.
	Slain by Jelāl-ud-dīn Khiljī ...	1288	Edward I., 1272-1307.

Afgān Dynasties.

CHAP. II. § 3.

		A. D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
VI.	HOUSE OF KHILJĪ (a tribe of Tatārs or Tartars).		
	(I.) Jelāl-ud-din Khiljī (Ferōz Shāh) ...	1288	
	His nephew, Allā-ud-dīn, invades the Dakhan ...	1294	Edward II., 1307-1327.
	(II.) Assassinate his uncle and succeeds him ...	1295	Death of Wallace, 1303.
	(III.) Mubārīk Khiljī ...	1317	Battle of Bannockburn, 1314.
VII.	HOUSE OF TUGHLAK.		
	(I.) Gheīāz-ud-dīn Tughlak... Conquest of Warangal ...	1321 1323	Edward III., 1327-1377.
	(II.) Jūna Khān (Sultān Muhammed III.) ...	1325	
	Vijaya-nagar (Btjanagar) founded, and Hindū power restored ...	1344	Battle of Cressy, 1346.
	Foundation of the Bāhmiul dynasty of Kulbūrga ...	1347	Rienzi, 1347-1354.
	(III.) Ferōz Tughlak ...	1351	Battle of Poitiers, 1356.
	(IV.) Gheīāz-ud-dīn Tughlak II. ...	1389	
	(V.) Abūbekr Tughlak ...	1389	
	(VI.) Nāsir-ud-dīn Tughlak..	1394	
	(VII.) Muhammed Tughlak	1412	Dismemberment of the empire. Union of Calmar, 1397. Usurpation of Henry IV., 1399.
	TAMERLANE TAKES DELHI.	1398	
VIII.	THE SELĀDS.		
	[Doulat Khān Lōdī ...	1412]	
	(I.) Khizr Khān ...	1414	Agincourt, 1415.
	(II.) Mubārīk ...	1421	
	(III.) Muhammed ...	1435	
	(IV.) Allā-ud-dīn ...	1444	

CHAP. II. § 4, 5.

AfĠân Dynasties.

		A.D.	CONTEMPORARY EVENTS.
IX.	THE HOUSE OF LÔDÎ.	1450	The first Portuguese Viceroy,
		to	1505.
		1526	House of Tudor, 1485-1603.
	(I.) Behlûl Lôdî ...	1450	
	(II.) Sikander Lôdî ...	1483	Bosworth field, 1485.
	VASCO DA GÂMA lands in Calicut ...	1498	Henry VIII, 1309-1547.
	(III.) Ibrahim Lôdî ...	1518	Death of Ximenes, 1517.
	FIRST BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT.	1526	Battle of Pavia, 1525. Death of Wolsey, 1530.

The First Invasion of India by Muhammed Kâsim, 711.

Sind.

Kâsim's Death.

The Rise of the Ghaznivides.

§ 4. Beyond merely piratical expeditions, which reached Mûltân in 664, there was no systematic Mussulmân invasion of India till the time of the Khalif Walid, when Muhammed Kâsim, nephew of the Governor of Basra (Bussora), landed at Dêwâl; a city somewhere near the modern Karâchî, and, after many severe engagements, conquered the whole of Sind. His attempt to conquer Hindûstân is said to have been frustrated by Bappu, the Rajpût of Chîtôr, from whom the Rânas of Oudipûr trace their descent. His career was cut short, it is said, by a Hindû princess, who brought against him a false accusation, that cost him his life. From that time the Muhammedan sway in Sind seems to have been merely nominal for five hundred years.

NOTE. — In 664 there was a powerful dynasty in Sind, whose capital was Alôr: its ruins are near Sukkur.

§ 5. We now come to the race which effected the permanent conquest of a great part of Hindûstân. A dynasty of Tatârs called the Samânîs, ruled in Khorasân and Transoxiana, often called *Maver-ul-Nahar* = *the land of the rivers*, in the ninth century. Their capital was Bokhâra. The fifth prince of that dynasty was Abdûlmelk, who had

Mahmūd of Ghazni, Founder of the First AfĠĀn Dynasty.

CHAP. II. § 6, 7.
A. D. 976.

a Tŭrkĭ slave called Alptegin, who rose to be Governor of KhorasĀn. Driven from thence by the revolutions consequent on the death of his master, he retreated to Ghazni, where he made himself independent. He died A. D. 976.

Alptegin, Master of the Father of Mahmūd.

§ 6. A slave of his, called SabukteĠin, married his daughter, and succeeded him. JeipĀl, RĀja of LĀhōr, attacked him in the valley beyond PeshĀwar, but was repulsed. SabukteĠin now advanced in his turn, and JeipĀl, with the RĀjas of Delhi, Kanouj, Kalinjĭr and Ājnmĭr, met him in battle.

The First War between India and Ghazni.

SabukteĠin, Father of Mahmūd.

The Muhammedan was victorious, and, after plundering the adjacent districts, took possession of the country up to the Indus. SabukteĠin died in 995.

995-1001.

THE FIRST AFGĀN DYNASTY.

I. § 7. He left a son, MAHMŪD, probably illegitimate, then in his thirtieth year. He had been the companion of his father in his expeditions, and shared his ambition. He made himself fully independent in the government of KhorasĀn, obtained a confirmation of his right from the Khalif at BĀghdĀd, and assumed the title of SultĀn.

Mahmūd of Ghazni, 995-1030.

Strengthens his position.

India was the field to which he was led by his desire of plunder, not less than by the ambition of spreading the Muhammedan faith in those idolatrous regions. He is known in history as the "Iconoclast."

Motives that led him to Invade India.

His first expedition into India was made in A. D. 1001. He was attended by 10,000 chosen horse. His standard was black, a fitting emblem of his deeds. He defeated JeipĀl of LĀhōr, near PeshĀwar, took him prisoner, crossed the Satlaj to *Batinda*, which he stormed, and then returned to Ghazni. *Batinda* was a fortress of prodigious

His First Expedition, 1001.

CHAP. II. § 8, 9.
A. D. 1001.

Mahmūd of Ghazni's Invasions of India.

(Ch. xi. § 8.)
Suicide of Jeipāl.

strength, one of the residences of the Râja of Lâhôr. It now belongs to the Râja of Pattiâla.

Jeipāl, weary of disasters, abdicated in favour of his son Anang Pâl, and ordered a funeral pyre to be erected, which he ascended, setting fire to it with his own hands.

Second Expedition, 1004.
Third Expedition, 1005.
Fourth Expedition, 1008.

§ 8. Mahmūd's second expedition, in 1004, was against the Râja of Bhatia, near Mûltân. His third, in 1005, was against Abûl Fath Lôdî, chief of Mûltân. His fourth, in 1008, was a more important one against Anang-Pâl, who had formed a confederacy of the neighbouring Râjas, and advanced to meet him, with all the ardour of men defending their independence and their faith. Mahmūd gained a victory, bought with immense loss. He then directed his course to Nâgarkôt (now Kangra), on the southern slope of the Hinâlâyas, a wealthy shrine, which he took and plundered, returning to Ghazni with incalculable wealth in gold and precious stones.

(N.W. of Lâhôr.)

(Ch. xi. § 5.)
Fifth Expedition, 1010.

His fifth expedition to India was in 1010. In this he took Mûltân.

Sixth Expedition, 1011.
(About 30 miles from Delhi.)

The sixth expedition was to Tanêshwar, between the Saraswatî and the Jamna, which he sacked. Mahmūd meanwhile made inroads into the mountain districts of Ghôr, and finally, in 1016, took Samarkhand and Bokhâra. But the great business of his life was to despoil India. His seventh and eighth Indian expeditions were into Cashmîr. In these he encountered great perils.

Seventh and Eighth Expeditions, 1014, 1015.

Ninth Expedition, 1017.

§ 9. The ninth expedition in 1017 was on a larger scale. Mahmūd was now determined to penetrate into the very heart of Hindûstân. His army consisted of 100,000 horse and 20,000 foot, gathered from all parts of his dominions. He marched from Peshâwar along the foot of the mountains, crossing the Panjâb rivers as near to their source as possible, and presented himself before Kanouj. This was a stately city, full of incredible wealth; and its king, sometime

Kanouj
(Canya-Kubja,
W. of the Ganges,
65 miles W.N.W.
from Lucknow).

Mahmūd of Ghazni's Expeditions into India.

CH. II § 10, 11.
A. D. 1017.

styled Emperor of India, kept a splendid court. The king threw himself on the generosity of Mahmūd, who admitted him to his friendship, and, after three days, left his city uninjured.

From thence he advanced to Muttra, sacred as the birth-place of Krishna, which was given up to the soldiers for twenty days. Its temples struck Mahmūd with admiration, and kindled in him the desire to cover the barren rocks of Ghazni with similar edifices. Hindū slaves after this were sold at two rupees each.

Muttra (properly *Ma'hura*, on the W. bank of the Jamna. 30 miles N. N. W. from Agra).

§ 10. His tenth and eleventh expeditions were undertaken in A. D. 1022 and 1023. In these he attacked, but unsuccessfully, the Rāja of Kalinjīr. In the first of these expeditions Jeipāl II. (son of Anang-Pāl) opposed him, and *the result was the permanent occupation of Lāhōr by a Muhammedan garrison. A viceroy was stationed there. This was the foundation of the Mussulmān empire in India.*

Tenth and Eleventh Expeditions, 1022, 1023.

Lāhōr occupied, 1021, first permanent Muhammedan Settlement in India.

§ 11. Mahmūd now made his last and greatest effort. He resolved to plunder and destroy the celebrated shrine of Sōmnāth, in Gujarāt. The march was long, including 350 miles of desert; and Mahmūd made extraordinary preparations for it. He passed through Ājmīr to Anhalwāra, the antient capital of Gujarāt, all fleeing before him. The struggle before Sōmnāth was terrible, and lasted three days. The Rājput princes assembled from all parts to defend their holiest shrine, and nothing but the bravery and enthusiasm of Mahmūd himself gained the victory. For one hundred years the shrine remained desolate. It was rebuilt by Komār-Pāl, the great Jain, who died in A. D. 1166.

Twelfth Expedition, 1024. Sōmnāth.

The treasure obtained was immense. Mahmūd remained in Gujarāt a year. Delighted with this beautiful region, so different from his rocky and barren home, he seriously debated the possibility of settling there altogether. His

CH. II. § 12, 13.
A. D. 1030.

Death of Mahmūd of Ghaznī. His Successors.

homeward march was attended with terrible sufferings and privations. *Anhalawāra* was the Tyre of India. Its commerce was very extended. Its population was large. Its Jain Rājā ruled over twenty-eight princes.

Death of Mahmūd of Ghaznī, 1030.

§ 12. He died at Ghaznī on the 29th April 1030, in his sixty-third year. Shortly before his death, he caused the vast treasures he had acquired to be brought and spread before him, and took his farewell of them with tears, but could not bring himself to distribute any portion of them to his old companions.

His fondness for his treasures.

His character.

He was active, prudent, and enterprising. He encouraged arts and literature, though habitually avaricious; and devoted large sums to the maintenance of a university and the support of learned men. Among others, Unsuri and the renowned Ferdousī, the Persian Homer, flourished at his court. The latter celebrated his praises in the renowned *Shāh hāmeḥ*.

University in Ghaznī.
Learned men.

Ghaznī becomes a splendid City.

He founded a mosque, which he called "the Celestial Bride," and which, for the splendour of its architecture and adornments, was the wonder of the East. His nobles and generals, too, vied with one another, incited by his example, in the magnificence of their palaces; so that the bare crags of Ghaznī were converted by the wealth of India into the most magnificent city in the world.

Successors of Mahmūd, 1030.
His Twin Sons.
Muhammed I.

§ 13. There was a contest for the throne between Muhammed and Masāud, the twin sons of Sultān Mahmūd. The former was first crowned, but speedily dethroned and blinded by Masāud.

1039.

The Seljuks, a Tūrki tribe, now invaded Ghaznī, and Masāud was compelled to withdraw to India. We need not pursue the history of Ghaznī further.

1040.

The Muhammedan power was now at home in the Panjāb. Lāhōr had taken the place of Ghaznī.

The Downfall of the Race of Mahmūd of Ghazni.

CH. II. § 14, 15
A. D. 1040.

§ 14. Masāud, who was generous and valiant, though unfortunate, was now dethroned, and the blind Muhammed again placed on the throne. In 1040, Maudūd, son of Masāud, overcame his rivals, and contrived to reinstate himself in Ghazni.

Masāud I.

Maudūd,
1040-1049.

1043.

The Rāja of Delhi meanwhile revived the spirit of the Hindūs, and drove the Muhammedans from every stronghold except Lāhōr itself. Sultān Abūl Raschid, the eldest son of Mahmūd I., who strangely succeeded the grand-nephew, in 1051 recovered the Panjāb. Soon after, all but three of the house of Mahmūd of Ghazni were assassinated.

Masāud II., one of the three survivors, resided at Lāhōr, and carried the Muhammedan arms beyond the Ganges, 1098.

Masāud II.,
1098-1114.

§ 15. Beirām, his son, succeeded in 1118. He was a patron of learning, and reigned long and prosperously; yet he achieved the ruin of his race by an act of treachery. Kutb-ud-dīn Sūr, the Prince of Ghōr, in the hills east of Herāt, had married Beirām's daughter. Some quarrel arose, and Beirām murdered his son-in-law. The result was a war, in which *Allā-ud-dīn Ghōrī*, a brother of the murdered prince, took Ghazni, and gave it up for seven days to his victorious army, by whom it was utterly devastated. His name is thus handed down to us among those of the ruthless destroyers and scourges of the world. "Burner of the world" is his title in history.

Beirām,
1118-1153.

His Treachery.

The Sack of
Ghazni, 1152.

Beirām fled toward India, but died broken-hearted on his journey. His son Khūsru and his grandson Khūsru Malik reigned in Lāhōr to 1186, when, with the latter, the race of Sabukteġin became extinct.

The Extinction
of the Race of
Mahmūd of
Ghazni.

CHAP. II. § 16.
A. D. 1186.

The Second Afgān Dynasty. Wars of Muhammed of Ghôr.

SECOND DYNASTY : THE GHÔRIANS.

Muhammed
Ghôrî, 1180.

II. § 16. Khûsrû Malik was dethroned and put to death by a nephew of the destroyer of Ghaznî, whose name was Shahâb-ud-dîn or *Muhammed Ghôrî*, the first and last of his family that ruled in India. He is the real founder of the Muhammedan dominion in Hindûstân.

After his conquest of Lâhôr in 1186, he had still to conquer the Râjpût princes of India. These were chivalrous and enthusiastic, but disunited and in many things frivolous. (Comp. ch. i. § 24-27.)

Râjpût Kings.

Hindûstân Proper had been till recently under the sway of four of these princes:—(1.) The King of Delhi of the Tomara tribe; (2.) The King of Âjmir of the Chouhan tribe; (3.) The Râthôr chief of Kanouj; and (4.) The Baghila chief of Gujarât, whose capital was Anhalwâra. The Tomara and Chouhan tribes had just been united under Pritwî Râja, King of Âjmir.

Pânipat. (First
Battle.)

With this prince, who was the Paladin of the Râjpût race, the Ghôrian fought his first battle on the plains of Pânipat, and sustained a complete defeat in 1191. He then returned to Ghaznî, till, having assembled another army, in 1193 he again met his old antagonist, not far from the former spot, between Tanêshwar and Kurnal; but this time he was victorious, and Pritwî Râja, being made prisoner, was slain in cold blood. Âjmir was then taken,

Decisive Battle of
Tanêshwar, 1194.
(Comp. ch. i. § 7;
ch. ii. § 8.)
Âjmir taken.

sacked, and its inhabitants either slain or sold as slaves. Muhammed then went back to Ghaznî, leaving Kutb-ud-dîn, who had been his slave, as his viceroy. He returned the next year, defeated the Râthôr Râja of Kanouj, and took Kanouj and Benâres. Thus fell the second great Râjpût state.

Kanouj taken.

Further Con-
quests of the
Ghôrian.

The Râthôrs fled to Mârwâr, where their descendants long reigned. The conquest of Gujarât, Oudh, Bengâl, and Bahâr soon followed; and before the death of Muham-

Kutb-ud-dīn founds the Slave Dynasty.

CH. II. § 17, 18.
A. D. 1206.

med in 1206, there was a settled Muhammedan dominion over nearly the whole of Hindūstān, except Mālwā.

He was assassinated by a band of Gakkars, a wild tribe having their home in the mountains north of the Panjāb, and who had been subjected by him. With him Indian history ceases to have any connection with the Ghōrī dynasty.

Death of Muham-
med of Ghōr,
1206.

§ 17. It was about this time that the celebrated Bhōja Rāja died in Ūjein. (Ch. i. § 23.) His grandson was taken prisoner, and the country conquered by the Chālukya Rāja of Gujarāt; but it soon regained its independence.

Bhōja Rāja of
Ūjein.

THE THIRD DYNASTY OF AFGĀNS.

III. § 18. Muhammed of Ghōr, having no sons, was in the habit of training, and in fact adopting, young Tūrki slaves taken in war, who were chiefly of noble extraction, and of promoting them to offices of trust. This was a common practice with other Muhammedan rulers, and gave rise to the numerous dynasties of "Slave kings." Muhammed's nephew, Mahmūd, was his nominal successor; but Eldoz, one of these slaves, seized on Kābul and Kandahār, while another of them, KUTB-UD-DĪN, retained possession of Delhi and the provinces subject to it. He is thus the first Muhammedan Emperor of Delhi, and *the founder of the first Slave dynasty of Indian rulers.*

I.
Kutb-ud-dīn.

The Slaves of the
Ghōrians.

Or *Ildecuz.*

= The pole-star
of the faith.

1206.

It had taken *two centuries* to advance the Muhammedan power from Ghaznī to Lāhōr, and from Lāhōr to Delhi. The Indian kingdom has henceforth only an occasional and accidental connection with the countries beyond the Suleimān mountains.

The Muham-
medan power
advances step
by step.

CHAP. II. § 19.
A. D. 1206.

India in 1206, when Delhi became the Capital of a
Muhammedan Empire.

The year A. D.
1206, an æra.

§ 19. As A. D. 1206 is thus a great æra in Indian history, it is desirable to take a survey of the whole country at that period.

Bengâland Bahâr
in 1206.

(1.) BENGÂL AND BAHÂR.—These had yielded (1203), without a struggle, to Bakhtiâr Khiljî, a slave of Kutb-ud-dîn. He removed the capital from Nuddea to Gour, then a place of vast extent. The king of Bengâl at the time was Lakshman Sêna. (Ch. i. § 22.) These provinces never made an attempt in after days to shake off the Muhammedan yoke thus imposed upon them. Their next great change was in 1765. (Ch. ix. § 28.)

Mâlwa.

(2.) MÂLWÂ was still independent. (§ 17.) It was not subdued by the Muhammedans till 1231, when Altamish annexed it to Delhi. (§ 23.)

Hindû
Kingdoms.

(3.) The ÂJMER, KANOUJ, and DELHI kingdoms had been entirely subdued. (§ 16.) With Pritwî Râja the chivalry of these kingdoms seemed to die. These cities remained under the Mussulmâns till they came under Christian England.

Gujarât.

(4.) ANHALWÂRA, capital of Gujarât, had been taken in 1196 (§ 11) by Muhammed Ghôrî again. It was finally destroyed by Allâ the Sanguinary. (§ 32.)

(Sometimes called
Nehrwalla.)

The Dakhan.

(5.) The *Bellâla* Râjas were reigning at Dwâra-Samudra, and the *Andhras* at Warangal. (Ch. iv. § 9-12.) These divided the South of India.

Ch. xii. § 2.

(*Dowlâtâbâd*.)

(6.) A race allied to the *Bellâlas* had just established their dominion at *Dêogiri*. (Ch. iv. § 14, 15; xii. § 2.)

Sind in 1206.

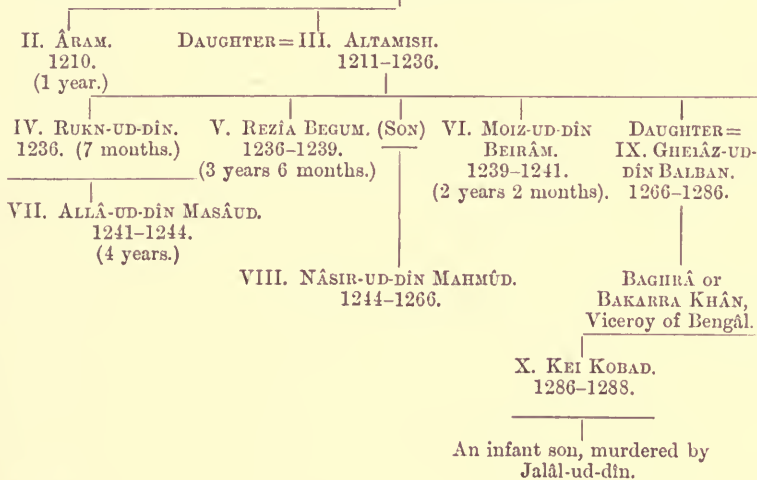
(7.) Sind was held by Nâsir-ud-dîn, another slave, who had married a sister of Kutb, and who now ruled as his viceroy.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE FIRST DYNASTY OF
SLAVE KINGS.

(Ch. ii. § 18-30.)

I. KUTB-UD-DĪN EIBUK,¹

Founder of the first Slave dynasty, the first independent Muhammedan ruler of Delhi. Viceroy, 1193-1206; independent, 1206-1210.



MEMORANDA :—

1. This dynasty lasted eighty-two years.
2. KUTB, his son-in-law, ALTAMISH, and BALBAN, Altamish's son-in-law, were all slaves.

¹ = Broken finger.

CH. II. § 20-22.
A.D. 1210.

Slave Kings of India, 1206-1288.

3. During this period India happily escaped the destruction that befell Central and Western Asia from the Mogul hordes under Ghengiz Khân.

4. EVENTS OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY:—John Lackland, 1199-1216; Henry III., 1272; Edward I., 1307; Magna Charta; Simon de Montfort; Conquest of Wales; Crusades; Guelfs and Ghibellines; Hanseatic League; Marco Polo, the traveller.

§ 20. Kutb ruled about twenty years as viceroy, and four years independently after the death of Ghôrî. He was a great warrior, generous to his subjects, and faithful to his master. His generosity passed into a proverb.

The lofty *Kutb Minar* in Delhi preserves his memory.

II.
Aram, 1210,
1211.

§ 21. His son *Aram* ruled for one year, and was dethroned by *Altamish*. He was a weak ruler, and his viceroy everywhere rebelled against him.

III.
Altamish, 1211-
1236.

§ 22. *Altamish* was a slave of Kutb, who had given him his daughter in marriage. He reigned from A.D. 1211 to 1236.

Altamish signifies *sixty*, that being the number of tomams paid for him by Kutb.

Ghengiz Khân,
1217.

It was in 1217 that the alarm reached India of the advance of the Moguls under Ghengiz Khân. He had gained the supremacy over all the Tatâr tribes, and in 1210 was acknowledged Khân of the Tatârs from the wall of China to the Volga. He overran all Central and Western Asia, and in his course overthrew Muhammed, the Sultân of Kharism, who had slain his ambassadors. Muhammed's son, Jalâl-ud-din, contested every inch of ground with the Moguls, until driven to the Indus. He there fought a great battle, and, being defeated, took refuge in India. *Altamish* courteously but firmly refused by protecting him to afford to Ghengiz Khân a pretext for invading India. Thus, for the time, India escaped the ravages of the Moguls. These

(*Kharism* or
Khiva, the an-
cient *Chorasmia*,
N. W. of Balkh.)

The wise conduct
of *Altamish* saves
India from a
Mogul Invasion.

The First Slave Dynasty, 1206-1288.

CH. II. § 23-26.
A.D. 1226.

attacks were, however, constantly repeated till they became successful in 1526.

§ 23. Altamish now subdued Nâsir-ud-dîn and Gheiâz-ud-dîn, a successor of Bhaktiyâr Khiljî, who had made themselves independent in Sind and Bengâl.

The Victories of
Altamish.
(Comp. § 19.)

1231.

He also reduced Rintambôr in Râjpûtâna, Mândû, Gwâlîôr, and Ūjein. With these victories he completed the subjugation of Hindûstân. He received investiture from the Khalîf of Bâghdâd. He died in 1236.

His Death in
1236.

§ 24. *Rukn-ud-dîn* succeeded his father, and was deposed in seven months by his sister *Rezîa*.

IV.
Rukn-ud-din,
1236.

§ 25. *Rezîa* Begum was a beautiful and well-educated woman, and an energetic and skilful ruler. She is remarkable as the only female who has personally ruled in Delhi. Nûr Jehan's name was added to that of her husband's on the coins (iii. § 7); and Queen Victoria is "Empress of India." But *Rezîa* was the only queen that ever occupied the throne of the Indian empire. Dressed in a tunic and cap like a man, she sat daily administering justice. Her fondness for favourites marred the effect of her virtues and talents. A Tûrkî chief called *Altûnia* rebelled, defeated her, and took her prisoner. She won over her captor, and married him; but the nobles carried on the civil war, which ended in the defeat and death of herself and her husband. She reigned three years and six months. India was a prey to rapine, full of rebellions, reduced almost to desolation.

V.
Rezîa Begum,
1236-1239.

1239.

§ 26. *Beirâm*, her brother, a weak and cruel man, succeeded. The Moguls now invaded Lâhôr, and he was imprisoned and slain by his own soldiers, after a reign of two years and two months.

VI.
Beirâm,
1239-1241.

CH. II. § 27-29.
A. D. 1241.

The First Slave Dynasty. Balban.

VII.
Masūd III.,
1241-1246.

§ 27. Masūd, son of Rukn-ud-dīn, succeeded. Two invasions of the Moguls were repelled in this reign. He was cruel and licentious, and was deposed after a reign of four years.

The best of the
Dynasty,
often called
Mahmūd II.

§ 28. Nāsir-ud-dīn Mahmūd was a grandson of Altamish, and was of retired and studious habits. Affairs were left in the hands of a Tūrki slave of Altamish, called Gheīāz-ud-dīn Balban, who had married an aunt of the emperor, and whose daughter Mahmūd himself had married. The emperor led the life of a dervish, and defrayed all his personal expenses by copying books. He kept no servant, and the queen performed all the duties of the household.

VIII.
Mahmūd II.,
1246-1266.

Moguls defeated.
Rebels subdued

The invasions of the Moguls continued, but were successfully repelled. Various Hindū chiefs had rebelled during the late reigns; these were again reduced to obedience.

Embassy from
the Mogul Chief.

An embassy was sent by Hulākū Khān, grandson of Ghengīz Khān, and the destroyer of the Bāghdād Khalifate, to Mahmūd's court. It was received with great pomp. Mahmūd died in 1266, after a prosperous reign of more than twenty years.

Death of Nāsir-
ud-dīn Mahmūd,
1266.

IX.
Balban, 1266-
1286.
The Slaves' Com-
pact.

§ 29. *Balban* (or Balin) succeeded, having long possessed all the kingly power. Originally a slave, he had, in the reign of Altamish, entered into a covenant of mutual support with forty other slaves, who rose, most of them, to high stations. He now put most of these to death, placed none but the highly-born in positions of trust, and in every act of his government manifested a selfish and narrow mind.

Kings in exile.

Many kings, driven from their kingdoms by the Moguls, took refuge at this time in Delhi.

Literary
Characters.

Princee Muhammed, his eldest son, was a great patron of literature. Amīr Khūsru, a Persian poet, resided at his

The First Slave Dynasty. Balban. Kei Kobad.

CHAP. II. § 30.
A. D. 1266.

court, and Sâdî, the greatest of Persian authors, sent him a copy of his works.

Mêwât was as usual in a state of disorder and insurrection. To quell this, Balban is said to have slain 100,000 men. He also wisely cleared it of forests, which laid it open to cultivation. A revolt in Bengâl, made by Tughral, the governor, was also crushed.

Insurrections in Râjpûtâna and Bengâl.

The great misfortune of Balban's life was the death of Muhammed, the heir-apparent. He fell in opposing an irruption of the Moguls into his viceroyalty of the Panjâb. Balban died of grief in his eightieth year.

Death of the Heir-apparent.

He has been the subject of excessive praise and blame from differing writers.

§ 30. Balban's second son was Baghrâ (or Bakarra) Khân, Viceroy of Bengâl, to whom, in fact, independent powers were given. The late king had appointed Kei Khûsrû, son of Prince Muhammed, his heir; but the Omrahs, to avoid a civil war, placed Kei Kobad, son of Baghrâ Khân, on the throne, while Khûsrû went to his father's government of Mûltân.

Disputed Succession.

KEI KOBAD was eighteen years of age at his accession, and was entirely under the influence of his Vazîr, Nizâm-ud-dîn, who encouraged him in every vice. Aiming at the throne, he procured the assassination of Kei Khûsrû. Baghrâ Khân, hearing of the state of affairs, marched with an army from Bengâl to rescue his son from the influence of the crafty Vazîr. Nizâm-ud-dîn induced the king to go forth to oppose his father; and when the latter insisted on an interview with his son, imposed upon him so many humiliating ceremonies, that the old man burst into tears. Kei Kobad, overcome at the sight of his weeping father, sprang from the throne, and embraced him. Though a reconciliation thus took place between the father and the son, Baghrâ Khân found that he could not combat the influence of the infamous Nizâm-ud-dîn, and soon returned

X.
Kei Kobad,
1286-1288.

The Evil Vazîr.

Meets his Father.

CHAP. II § 31.
A. D. 1288.

Death of K-i
Kobad, 1288.

The Vazir slain,
and the Emperor.

I.
Jelâl-ud-dîn
Khiljî, 1288
(sometimes call-
ed *Ghiljîe*).

His character.

Moguls.

1294.

First Muhamme-
dan Invasion of
the Dakhan.
(Karrah, on the
S.W. side of the
Ganges, 45 miles
N.W. from Allâ-
hâbâd.)

(§ 16.)

1295.

Assassination of
Jelâl-ud-dîn,
1295.

The First Slave Dynasty. The Khiljîs. First Invasion of
the Dakhan.

to Bengâl. Kei Kobad plunged anew into debaucheries, which ended in an attack of palsy. Alive now to the wicked designs of the minister, he caused him to be poisoned, but was himself assassinated by Jelâl-ud-dîn, head of the Khiljî tribe, in 1288.

Thus ended the "*Dynasty of the slaves of the Sultân of Ghôr.*" (See table.)

THE FOURTH AFGÂN DYNASTY.

IV. § 31. *Jelâl-ud-dîn Khiljî*, or Ferôz Shâh, was the founder of the next dynasty of Afgân kings. He is supposed to have put to death the infant son of Kei Kobad, and then, with affected reluctance, to have mounted the throne. No other crime is laid to his charge. Clemency, degenerating into weakness, was the characteristic of his government. Invasions of the Moguls were made and repelled, as in the former reigns.

The chief event of the reign, however, is the invasion of the Dakhan by his nephew Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, governor of Karrah. Setting out with 8000 chosen horse, he crossed the Nerbudda, and made for Dêogiri, where Râm Dêo Râo Jadow, a prince of great power and influence, was reigning, whom he subdued. The spoil taken was immense, and a large ransom was paid by the Râja. (Ch. iv. § 15, 16.) This was just a century after the battle of Tanêshwar, which gave the Ghôrians possession of Delhi (1194). He also took and sacked Ellichpûr.

On his return, which took place after an absence of less than a month, he contrived that his aged uncle should meet him almost unattended; and while the old man was patting his cheek affectionately, and assuring him of his confidence, Allâ gave the signal to a band of assassins, who

The Fourth AfĠān Dynasty. *Khilji II.*, Allā the Sanguinary.

CHAP. II. § 32.
A. D. 1295.

stabbed him to the heart, cut off his head, and carried it on a pole through the camp.

Jelāl-ud-dīn was seventy-seven years old at the time of his death, having reigned seven years.

§ 32. The extraordinary man whose crimes had now placed him on the throne of Delhi has gained for himself the title of "the sanguinary;" but his reign of twenty-one years may be considered to have been, on the whole, successful, if not glorious.

(1.) His first act, when seated on the throne, was to murder the two sons of Jelāl-ud-dīn.

(2.) He then strove to efface the remembrance of the crimes by which he had won the empire by the excellence of his administration. He learnt to read and write, and became the patron of learned men. But his avarice and fierce temper marred the effect of his general policy of conciliation.

(3.) In 1297 he sent an army to bring Gujarāt, which had regained its freedom, finally under the yoke. Pattan, or Anhalwāra, was now utterly destroyed.

(4.) The most memorable result of this conquest of Gujarāt was the capture of a handsome young eunuch, a slave, called Malik Kāfūr, who, coming into the king's possession, speedily rose to the highest offices, became the scourge of the Dakhan, and at last the murderer of the blood-stained Allā.

Koula Dêvī, the wife of the Rāja of Gujarāt, and said to be the handsomest woman in India, was also taken captive.

(5.) In 1298 occurred another and more serious Mogul invasion. Two hundred thousand horsemen marched upon Delhi, committing every species of atrocity on their way. Allā went out to oppose them, and with the aid of his able general, Zafur Khān, inflicted on them a terrible chastisement. But Zafur Khān had distinguished himself too

II.
Allā-ud-dīn
Khilji, the Sanguinary.

Murders.

Efforts to reign well.

Gujarāt subdued, 1297.
(§ 19.)

The Infamous
Malik Kāfūr,
1298.

The Moguls.

CHAP. II. § 32.
A.D. 1299.

The Fourth AfĠān Dynasty. Khilji II., Allā the Sanguinary.

greatly; and the jealous Allā contrived to leave him unsupported during the pursuit, so that he was cut off, dying with a bravery worthy of his reputation. There were several other Mogul irruptions in this reign. The invaders were unsuccessful, and vast numbers of them perished in these attempts.

Attempt to Ass-
assinate Allā,
1299.

(6.) In 1299 Allā's nephew, Prince Soleimān, made an attempt to imitate his example, and to assassinate his uncle. Allā was left for dead, but, recovering his senses, rode into camp wounded as he was, confronted the usurper, who, forsaken by the army, was seized and put to death. Two other nephews rebelled, and were first blinded and then beheaded.

Rājputāna, 1300-
1303.

(7.) The conquest of Rintambōr, in 1300, and of Chitōr in 1303, established his power in Rājputāna. The Rājputās, as usual, when driven to despair, put their wives and children to death, and then met death among the enemy. This they call *JONAR*. Padmanī, the queen, a woman of exquisite beauty, with the wives of all the warriors, threw herself on the funeral pile prepared in the centre of the fated city. Chitōr eventually came into the hands of the son of the former Rāja, the ancestor of the present Rāna of Oudipūr.

The *Johar*.

Chitōr.

Malik Kāfūr in
the Dakhan.

(8.) Malik Kāfūr made four great expeditions into the Dakhan in 1306, 1309, 1310, and 1312, from which he brought back immense treasures to Delhi. (Ch. iv. § 16; xii. § 2.)

In one of these expeditions the Princess Dēwal Dēvī, daughter of the Rāja, was captured. She was married afterwards to Khizr Khān, eldest son of Allā. Their history is the subject of a popular poem.

Assassination of
Moguls, 1311.
(Compare Ethel-
red the Unready,
and the Danes.)

(9.) The year 1311 was marked by another of Allā's "sanguinary" acts. There was a great multitude of Mogul converts in his pay. These he suddenly dismissed, and, on their raising a disturbance, he caused 15,000 of them to be massacred, and their families sold as slaves.

(10.) Kāfūr now acquired absolute power over Allā's

The Fourth AfĠān Dynasty. The Khiljis. Allā-ud-dīn.

CHAP. II. § 33.
A. D. 1317.

mind, which, as well as his body, was giving way under the influence of habitual intemperance. He became jealous of every one, imprisoned his queen and his two eldest sons, and caused his brother Alaf Khān, and his great general Alp Khān, to be murdered. Rebellions broke out, and in the midst of these Kāfūr hastened his death by poison.

Kāfūr's pernicious Influence.

(11.) Allā was not without genius; but his want of mental discipline and judgment led him into the wildest schemes. He sometimes contemplated proclaiming himself a second Muhammed, and at other times aimed at universal conquest, and assumed the title of the second Alexander.

Allā is Poisoned, 1317.

His Mixed Character.

Two of his sayings are recorded:—"Religion has no connection with civil government, but is only the business, or rather amusement, of civil life;" and "The will of a wise prince is better than the opinions of variable bodies of men."

His Sayings.

§ 33. Kāfūr now placed the youngest son of Allā, an infant, named Ōmar, on the throne. He then blinded the two eldest sons of Allā, and sent assassins to murder Mubārik, the third son. But Mubārik gained over the army, put Kāfūr to death, and ascended the throne. His first acts were to put out the eyes of his infant brother, and to murder the officers to whom he was indebted for his own preservation. He then made Khūsūr Khān, a converted Parwārī slave from Gujarāt, his Vazīr.

III.
Mubārik Khilji.

Kāfūr's Death.

His first acts were meritorious. He released 17,000 persons imprisoned by his father, and strove to undo the effects of his arbitrary acts.

Khūsūr Khān.

His First Acts.

He then marched to the Dakhan, seized Harpāl, the rebellious son-in-law of Rām Dêo, and flayed him alive.

The Dakhan.

The remainder of his reign was spent in unspeakable debaucheries.

Infamous Debauchery.

Khūsūr, in whose hands all power was placed, made a successful expedition to Malabār, returned with abundant

Mubārik Assassinated by Khūsūr, 1321.

CHAP. II. § 34.
A. D. 1321.

The Fifth Afgân Dynasty. House of Tughlak. Gheîáz-ud-dîn I.

(Ch. iv. § 18.)

The whole Dy-
nasty lasted but
33 years.

spoil to Delhi, assassinated his master, and exterminated his whole family.

Thus perished the last of the Khiljî family, after a dominion of thirty-three years. (From 1288 to 1321.)

THE HOUSE OF TUGHLAK.

(1321-1412.)

THE FIFTH AFGÂN DYNASTY.

Death of Khûsrû,
1321.

I.
Gheîáz-ud-dîn
Tughlak, 1321-
1325.

Dakhan.
(Or Alaf Khân.)
1322.

Bengâl,
1325.

His Death, 1325.

V. § 34. The infamous Khûsrû was himself put to death by Gheîáz-ud-dîn Tughlak, Governor of the Panjâb, who by universal consent ascended the throne. He was the son of a Tûrkî slave of Balban, by a woman of the Jât tribe. The army, as is usually the case in such revolutions, were the chief instruments in his elevation; but, as no single member of the old royal house survived, he was saved from the crimes that generally attend a change of dynasty.

Now came the expedition to Telingâna, under his son Jûna Khân (or *Jonah*). (Ch. iv. § 19.)

The king himself at this time paid a visit to Bengâl, which was still under Baghrâ Khân, son of Beirâm, his old master, to examine into complaints of oppression. The viceroy was confirmed in possession, and the royal umbrella was conceded to him by the son of his father's slave!

On his return he met with his death by the fall of a magnificent pavilion, erected for him by his son Jûna, whose opportune absence threw upon him a grave suspicion of being the contriver of his father's death.

Jûna Khân Tughlak, or Sultân Muhammed II, the
Magnificent Madman.

CHAP II, § 36.
A. D. 1325.

§ 36. Jûna, on his accession, assumed the title of Sultân Muhammed Tughlak.

II.
Jûna Khân Tugh-
lak, 1325.
His Character.

He was a prince of unrivalled munificence, eloquent, accomplished, learned in Arabic, Persian, Greek philosophy, mathematics, and physical science. He was a strict Muhammedan, moral, brave, and energetic. Yet his wild schemes, and his general conduct as a ruler, show him to us rather in the light of one insane than as a man possessed of these various excellences.

Inconsistent.

(1.) His first act was (after the manner of Ethelred the Unready) to buy off the Moguls, who had as usual invaded the Panjâb.

He buys off the
Moguls.

(2.) He then made an expedition into the Dakhan, which for the time he reduced to order.

His Expedition
into the Dakhan.

(3.) His next plan was to invade Persia; but his vast army was disbanded after the consumption of all his treasure.

Invasion of
Persia.

(4.) He then projected the conquest of China, which was to replenish his coffers. A hundred thousand men marched across the Himâlayas; but attacked by the Chinese, and worn out with fatigue and famine, hardly a man returned.

Attempted Inva-
sion of China.

(5.) He then strove to introduce copper tokens, as an approach to a paper currency, which he had heard of as existing in China. But as his government was insolvent, this, of course, only added to his own embarrassments and the sufferings of the people.

Meddles with
the Currency.

(6.) When the people, driven to despair by his exactions, fled to the woods, he more than once ordered out his troops and hunted them down, thus exterminating the inhabitants of large districts.

Extermination
of People.

(7.) At this time Bengâl rebelled and remained independent until the accession of Shâh Shâh. (Ch. iii. § 4.)

Rebellion of Ben-
gâl, 1340.

(8.) Now also arose that rebellion in Gujarât which led to the establishment of the Bâhmanî kingdom in the Dakhan. The Governor of Mâlwâ had treacherously massacred forty Mogul Amirs. The remainder rebelled, took

Rebellion in
Mâlwâ, 1347.

CHAP. II § 37.
A. D. 1347.

Jûna Khân Tughlak, or Sultân Muhammed II.

General Insurrection in the Dakhan, 1347.

refuge in the Dakhan, and made common cause with other Mogul Amirs there. The king in person went against them, defeated them, and shut them up in Dowlatâbâd, but was suddenly recalled to Gujarât by tidings of more serious disturbances there.

His departure was the signal for a general rise in the Dakhan. The insurgents had proclaimed Ishmael Khân their king; but he, feeling his inability to command in such critical times, resigned in favour of Zuffir Khân. (Ch. iv. § 20.)

Death of Muhammed III., 1351.

(9.) Jûna Khân (or Sultân Muhammed), who had pursued the Gujarât rebels to Tatta in Sind, died there in 1351, after a reign of about twenty-seven years. His death was caused, like that of our Henry I., by eating fish to excess.

Transfer of Capital to Dowlatâbâd.

(10.) One of his many freaks was the attempt to transfer the seat of empire from Delhi to Dowlatâbâd. The people of Delhi were compelled to migrate to the new capital, and many thousands perished in this insane attempt, which was afterwards abandoned.

(11.) Another whim of his was to procure a confirmation of his title to the kingdom from the nominal Khalif of Egypt, who now was looked upon as the head of Islâm. On obtaining this, he struck out from the records of the kingdom the names of all his predecessors.

Ibu Batuta

(12.) In 1341, a traveller from Tanjiers, *Ibu Batuta*, visited Delhi. He was received with great respect, and appointed to the office of judge by the king. Seeing, however, some evidence of Muhammed's capricious and cruel temper, he resigned his office. The king, without taking offence, attached him to an embassy to China, and thus honourably dismissed him. His accounts of Indian affairs are highly interesting.

His History.

III.
Ferôz Tughlak,
1351-1388.

§ 37. Jûna Khân, or Muhammed III., was succeeded by his nephew *Ferôz-ud-dîn Tughlak*, who reigned from

Ferōz Tughlak. Mahmūd Tughlak.

CHI. II. § 38, 39.
A. D. 1388.

1351 to 1388, when he died at the age of ninety, ten years before the invasion of India by Teimūr.

He received embassies from both Bengāl and the Dakhan, thus acknowledging the independence of those provinces.

His reign was marked by a course of humane and liberal legislation. He greatly promoted the erection of public works of every kind; the most important of these being the canal that goes by his name, running from the head waters of the Jamna to Hissar. Ferōz-pūr, near the Satlaj, was founded by him.

Embassies.

Great Public Works.

§ 38. He was succeeded by his grandsons, *Gheīz-ud-dīn* and *Ābu-bekr*, who reigned for five months and one month respectively. Both were deposed, and the former murdered.

IV.
Gheīz-ud-dīn II,
V.
Ābu-bekr, 1330.

Then *Nāsir-ud-dīn Tughlak*, eldest son of Ferōz, who had assisted in the government in his father's time, and had been expelled for mismanagement, returned and de-throned his nephew. He reigned from 1390 to 1394.

VI.
Nāsir-ud-dīn,
1330-1394.

His son *Humāyūn* succeeded him, but died at the end of forty-five days, and another brother, *Mahmūd Tughlak*, ascended the throne in 1394.

Death of Nāsir-ud-dīn.

§ 39. Mahmūd was a child. His nominal reign lasted till 1412 A. D., but before that time *the kingdom of Delhi had in fact ceased to exist*. Four provinces had rebelled—Mālwa, Gujarāt, Kāndēsh, and Jounpūr. Delhi itself was torn with civil strife.

VII.
Muhammed
Tughlak, 1394-
1412.

The Dakhan was wasted by a terrible famine, called by the natives *Dūrgā Dēvā*, which lasted twelve years from 1396.

In the midst of all came the Tatār chief *Teimūr Lenc* (Tamerlane, *Teimūr* the lame), and laid Hindūstān waste, and was declared Emperor of Delhi. His son, *Pir Muhammed*, took Ooch and Mūltān, 1397.

Teimūr the Ta(r)-tār, 1398.

CH. II. § 40-43.
A. D. 1401.

Teimûr the Tatâr, 1398.

Mâlhwâ, 1401.

§ 40. The temporary independence of Mâlhwâ dates from about A. D. 1401. Dilâwar Khân Ghôri was its first king. He was succeeded by Hoshung (Hûshang) Ghôri in 1405. He built Mândû, whose ruins attest its former extent and grandeur, and removed the capital from Dhâr to that place, where Râja Bhôja had fixed it. (Ch. i. § 23.) (Comp. ch. iii. § 3, for the history of Medni Rât.) This kingdom was annexed by Bahâdar Shâh of Gujarât in 1526-1531. (§ 41.)

Gujarât, 1391.
(Comp. ch. iii.
§ 4.)

§ 41. Gujarât became independent in the year 1391 under Muzaffir Shâh. He was continually at war with Mâlhwâ. In 1398, on Teimûr's invasion, Mahmûd Tughlak fled to Gujarât, but was ill received. From thence he went to Mâlhwâ.

Ahmed Shâh of
Gujarât, 1416

Muzaffir's grandson was Ahmed Shâh (1416-1449), who built Ahmednagar and Ahmedâbâd. He was continually at war with the Râjpûts. Mahmûd Bêgara succeeded to the throne in 1449 and reigned till 1511. (Comp. ch. vi. § 10.)

Bahâdar Shâh reigned from 1526-1537. (Ch. vi. § 16.) He conquered Mâlhwâ. (Comp. ch. iii. § 4.)

Jounpûr (*Jawn-
pûr, Juanpoor*),
1394-1476.
(On the banks of
the Gûmtî, about
42 miles from
Benâres.)

§ 42. Jounpûr was rendered independent by Khâja Jehân, the Vazîr of Mahmûd Tughlak. Its territory extended from Kanouj north-west to the boundary of Bengâl, and South Bahâr south-east. Its independence lasted from 1394-1476.

Teimûr, 1398.

§ 43. Teimûr greatly resembled Ghengiz Khân. He was a Turk, and had subdued all Central and Western Asia. His chief cities were Bokhâra and Samarkhand. His tomb is in the latter. He reached Delhi in December 1398.

Massacre in Del-
hi, December 13.

There he first massacred all his prisoners above fifteen years of age, a vast multitude. He then gave up Delhi itself to indiscriminate pillage. This led to a general mas-

End of the Tughlak Dynasty. The Four Seiads.

CH II. § 44-46.
A. D. 1399.

sacre, which lasted five days, during which the monster feasted and enjoyed the sight. He then proceeded to a mosque to "offer up his sincere and humble tribute of praise to the Divine Majesty!" He afterwards proceeded to Mîrut, where a like tragedy was acted; and thence to Hardwâr and Jamna, and so left India, taking with him an immense booty and an innumerable crowd of slaves.

Mîrut.
He leaves India,
March 1399.

§ 44. Delhi remained desolate for some time after his departure; but at length *Mahmûd* was nominally restored, and died there in 1412.

Mahmûd re-
stored.

WITH HIM ENDED THE TUGHLAK DYNASTY, which was the last of the dynasties of *Slave kings*.

§ 45. DOULAT KHÂN LÔDÎ. This chief, for fifteen months after the death of Mahmûd, retained possession of Delhi, but was expelled in 1414 by *Khizr Khân*, viceroy of the Panjâb.

DOULAT KHÂN
Lôdî, 1413.

THE SIXTH DYNASTY.

VI. § 46. THE FOUR SEIADS. From 1414-1450 Delhi was held by four rulers, who professed to regard themselves as Viceroys of the Mogul. They scarcely possessed any territory beyond the walls of Delhi.

THE SEIADS,
1414-1450.

Their names were—

(1.) SEIAD KHIZR KHÂN—1414-1421.

He was just and generous; and when he died all Delhi wore black for three days.

(2.) SEIAD MUBÂRIK—1421-1435.

Benevolent, and of most amiable temper.

(3.) SEIAD MUHAMMED—1435-1444.

A weak and dissolute prince.

(4.) SEIAD ALLÂ-UD-DÎN—1444-1450.

CH. II. § 47, 48.
A. D. 1450.

The Lodis. Pânipat.

THE SEVENTH DYNASTY.

THE LODIS, 1450.

§ 47. THE THREE KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF LÔDÎ—the last of the Afġân dynasties.

The Lôdis were a powerful family, and had excited the jealousy of preceding kings.

I.
BEHLÛL LÔDÎ,
1450-1488
(Or BEHÛL).

(1.) BEHLÛL had gained possession of Sirhind and the Panjâb, and now drove Seiad Allâ-ud-dîn from Delhi. He afterwards conquered Jounpûr. He reigned from 1450-1488.

II.
SIKANDER LÔDÎ,
1488-1518.

(2.) His brother, SIKANDER LÔDÎ, succeeded him, and reigned to 1518. He re-annexed Bahâr ; but the kingdom was little more than a number of nearly independent principalities.

May 22, 1498.

Sikander was an excellent and accomplished prince, but a fierce persecutor of the Hindûs.

During this reign the Portuguese landed in Calicut. (Ch. vi. § 2.)

III.
IBRAHÎM LÔDÎ,
1518-1526.

(3.) His son *Ibrahîm* was unlike his father. He disgusted the chiefs by his haughtiness and cruelty.

Bâber called in.

One of them, Doulat Khân Lôdî, governor of the Panjâb, called in Sultân Bâber, the Tatâr ruler of Kâbul, who took Lâhôr and burnt the city, and then advanced on Delhi with an army of 12,000 men. Ibrahîm met him at Pânipat with a much larger army. Ibrahîm was killed in the battle, which ended in the complete triumph of Bâber.

(First) Battle of
Pânipat.
(About 50 miles
N. by W. from
Delhi.)
The End of the
Afġân Dynasties,
1526.

§ 48. Thus ended the dynasties of the Afġâns, who, under different names, had ruled a large portion of Hindûstân, making Delhi or Âgra the seat of government, for 320 years. (1206-1522.)

The Bâhmini
Kingdom also
dismembered.

At the same time the great Bâhmini kingdom of Kulbûrga was broken up into five parts. (Ch. iv. § 21.)

The Mogul Emperors.

CH III. § 1, 2.
A. D. 1526.

CHAPTER III.

The Mongul (Mogul) Emperors of India.
A. D. 1526-1857.

§ 1. The first battle of Pānipat opened India to Bāber and his Patāns. From the accession of Bāber, who was thus the founder of the *Mogul dynasty*, to the death of Muhammed Shāh, the twelfth emperor of this dynasty, was 222 years.

1526-1748.

No royal family in history has produced such a series of distinguished rulers, splendid and great, though not certainly good, according to our ideas of goodness.

Character of the whole Dynasty.

§ 2. This chapter will trace the history of this powerful line of emperors from Bāber, their founder, to Muhammed Bahādar Shāh, the last who bore the title of Emperor of Delhi, and who died in prison, in a distant land, dishonoured and unpitied.

The Summary of the Chapter.

The following table is given for reference :—

CHAP. III. § 2.
A.D. 1526-1857.

Table of Mogul Emperors, 1526-1857.

THE MO(N)GUL EMPERORS.

¶ I. BÂBER	1526-1530	This period was marked by a series of wonderful men in every part of the world.
II. HUMÂYÛN	1530-1556	He was in exile sixteen years.
III. AKBAR	1556-1605	Came to the throne two years before Queen Elizabeth, and survived her two years.
IV. JEHÂNGÎR	1605-1628	Sir T. Roe. Nûr Jehân.
V. SHÂH JEHÂN	1628-1658	The architect. De-throned.
VI. AURUNGZIB (or, ÂLAM-gîr I.)	1658-1707	The deceitful and bigoted; the last of the great Moguls.
¶ VII. Shâh Âlam I. (or Bahâdar Shâh)	1707-1712	Concession to the Mahrattas.
VIII. Jehândâr Shâh	1712-1713	The Seiads. Murdered.
IX. Farukhshîr	1713-1719	The Peishwas. Assassinated.
X. Rafi-ud-darajât	1719-Feb.	} Mere puppets of the Seiads, removed by poison or disease within three months.
XI. Rafi-ud-dowla	1719-May	
XII. Muhammed Shâh	1719-1748	The Empire broke up. Nâdir Shâh.
¶ XIII. Ahmed Shâh	1748-1754	Blinded and deposed.
XIV. Âlamgîr II.	1754-1759	Plassey. Murdered.
XV. Shâh Âlam II.	1759-1806	Rescued by Lord Lake.
XVI. Akbar II.	1806-1837	A mere pensioner.
XVII. Muhammed Bahâdar	1837-1857	The helper of the mutineers.

The Life of Sultân Bâber, 1482-1530.

CHAP. III. § 3.
A. D. 1482.

§ 3. (1.) SULTÂN BÂBER demands our especial attention, as being the founder of the Mogul Indian Empire, and the first of a dynasty of renowned emperors, under whom India rose to the highest prosperity.

I.
BÂBER.
Summary of
Bâber's History,
1482-1530.

(2.) He was born A. D.	1482	} 22	(120 miles E. of Bokhâra.)
Became King of Kokhân.....	1494		
Conquered Samarkhand.....	1497		
Driven away, after many struggles, again occupied Kâbul.....	1504	} 22	
Again in Samarkhand.....	1511		
Lost all, but Bactria.....	1514		
Gained Kandahâr.....	1522	} 4	
Called in by D. K. Lôdi.....	1524		
Won first battle of Pânipat.....	1526		
Subdued the Râjputâs.....	1527-28	} 4	
Conquered Bahâr and Bengâl.....	1529		
And died.....	1530		

(3) He was descended, by the father's side, from Teimûr (Tamerlane) the Tatâr; but his mother was a Mogul, connected with the tribe of Genghiz Khân. This race was detested by him; yet, strange to say, from it his dynasty got the name, now generally corrupted into *Mogul*.

Bâber's Descent.

(4.) His real name was Zahir-ud-din-Muhammed (= the light of the faith).

Name.

He assumed (1507) the title *Pâdshâh*, a Persian word signifying *king*, and this became the characteristic title of the Mogul Emperors.

Bâber, i. e., "the lion," was originally simply an epithet applied to him for his bravery. (Comp. Richard *Cœur-de-Lion*.)

(5.) Different members of Teimûr's family held Samarkhand, Bokhâra, Balkh (Bactria), Kâbul, and Kokhân (then Ferghâna). This last was Bâber's hereditary dominion.

The Race of
Teimûr.

(6.) His life, till 1524, was a succession of struggles, in the course of which he sometimes extended his sway as far as to Kandahâr, and sometimes was a fugitive; thrice occupying his paternal city of Samarkhand, and thrice expelled from it.

(7.) His uncertain tenure of power in those regions caused him to turn his attention to India, which had now for some time been in a state of anarchy; the Lôdis possessing little beyond Delhi and Âgra. By one of the revolted chiefs, Doulat Khân Lôdi, the viceroy of the

Bâber's First
Attempts on
India.

CHAP. III. § 3.
A.D. 1519.

Bâber's Entrance into India, 1519-1526. The First Mogul Emperor.

Unsuccessful Expeditions.

Results of the Battle of Pânipat.

State of the Empire at the Period of the Mogul Conquest, 1526.

Bahâr.
Mâlwa.
Râjputâna.
Bengâl.
Dakhan.
Portuguese.

Bâber's Intentions.

Sanga, the Râjput, of Chitôr.

Final Struggle of the Râjputs.

Panjâb, he was invited to seize upon what he considered to be his inheritance, as he was descended from the conqueror Teimûr. It was not until after four unsuccessful expeditions (1519-26) that he gained his end.

(8.) The (FIRST) battle of Pânipat (Ch. ii. § 47) gave him nothing but the small tract around Delhi and Âgra.

From the spoils of Âgra he sent a coin of the value of about tenpence to every man, woman, and child, slave or free, in the district of Kâbul, where he had reigned for twenty-two years; besides rich gifts to the chief Muhammedan shrines in Asia.

(9.) The other parts of the Empire were still held by revolted chieftains. From the time of the magnificent madman Muhammed Tughlak (1351), there had been no real empire of Delhi. (Ch. ii. § 36.)

Thus Bahâr was in the possession of Muhammed Shâh Lohâni; a part of Mâlwa and the surrounding districts were held by Sanga; Chandêri and the adjaacent country by Medni Râi; and Bengâl by an Afghân chief. The Dakhan, which had been independent since 1347, was now divided into five Mussulmân kingdoms, besides the Hindû kingdom of Bijanagar, called by Europeans *Narsinga*. (Ch. iv. § 22, 23.) The Portuguese had conquered Goa in A. D. 1510, and, though the great Albuquerque had died in A. D. 1515, they were still very powerful on the western coast. (Ch. vi. § 12-15.)

(10.) It was evidently the general impression, even among Bâber's own troops, that after plundering Âgra and Delhi, he would, like Teimûr, return to the regions west of the Indus. This intention, however, he emphatically disclaimed. He had come to found a Tatâr Empire in India.

(11.) Prince Humâyûn, Bâber's eldest son, was accordingly employed to reduce to obedience the various Mussulmân chieftains. In four months this was effected from *Gwâlîôr* to *Jounpûr*.

(12.) A more stubborn enemy was the Hindû *Sanga*, a Râjput prince. The Râjas of Mârwar and Jeypûr had joined him, as also Medni Râi of Chandêri. *This was the last great struggle of the Râjputs for empire.* Sanga had formerly intrigued against the Lôdîs, and now resolved to expel, if possible, the Mussulmâns from India. The ques-

Bâber's Death and Character, 1530.

CHAP. III. § 3.
A. D. 1527.

tion to be answered was, "Shall there ever again be a Kshetriya Empire of Hindústân?"

The decisive battle of Sikri (Fatihpûr Sikri, near Âgra), (February 1527), and the storming of Chandêri (January 1528), firmly established the Mogul throne. The defenders of this last fortress perished to a man in the desperate struggle. Thus fell Medni Râi, who was next to Sanga as a Râjpût leader.

Sikri.
Chandêri.

(13.) Bahâr and Bengâl were next attacked, and by May 1529 these provinces had submitted to Bâber's arms.

(14.) Bâber's death was remarkable. Humâyûn, his eldest son, was dangerously ill, when Bâber conceived the idea of offering his own life for his son's, according to a well-known eastern custom. In the accomplishment of this loving resolve, he walked round the bed of the sick youth three times, praying solemnly to God that the disease might be transferred to himself. After this act, he exclaimed, in the full belief that his prayer was heard, "I have borne it away." And, strange to say, Humâyûn recovered from that hour; while the father, whose health was already decaying, began rapidly to decline. With exhortations on his lips to his children and courtiers to concord, he died December 26, 1530. His remains were carried to Kâbul, where a simple but beautiful tomb was erected to his memory.

Bâber's Death.

His Burial.

(15.) His character is a mixed one—

a. He inherited somewhat of the ferocity of his Tatâr ancestors, and was inhuman in his treatment of conquered enemies.

b. Yet there is a simplicity and absence of affectation in his character that excites the sympathies of all who read his *Memoirs*, which, like other great warriors, he wrote himself, and which are models of easy elegance, giving the liveliest picture of the man.

c. His undaunted bravery, patience in adversity, perseverance, and elasticity of mind, are truly admirable. No more inflexible spirit ever wrestled with adversity and overcame it.

d. He seems to have been addicted to the immoderate use of wine, by which he lessened his dignity and shortened his life.

His Character.

CHAP. III. § 4
A. D. 1530.

Humâyûn, Second Mogul Emperor, 1530-1556. His Enemies.

II.
HUMÂYÛN, 1530-1556.

§ 4. The *Second* Mogul Emperor was HUMÂYÛN. He reigned nominally from A. D. 1530 to 1556; but spent nearly sixteen years of this period (1540-1556) in exile.

Summary.

(1.) This emperor is famous alike for his *lenity* and for the misfortunes in great part caused by it; for the fortitude with which he bore his adverse fortunes, and the bravery by which at length he retrieved them.

His Treatment of his Brothers.

(2.) He had three brothers—Kâmrân, Hindâl, and Mirza Askari. To the first he rashly gave up Kâbul, Kandahâr, the Panjâb, and the countries on the Indus. Sambal (east of Delhi) was given to Hindâl, and Mêwât (Machêri or Alwâr) to the youngest. His generosity, or weakness, thus stripped him of his fairest dominions.

Humâyûn, in fact, had nothing but newly-conquered territory to govern, and only his father's veteran army and renown to support him.

Bahâdar Shâh.

(3.) BAHÂDAR SHÂH of Gujarât (1526-1537), (Ch. ii. § 41), was his first antagonist.

Gujarât.

Gujarât had long been independent. (Ch. vi. 16.)

The king of that country then was the greatest that ever governed it. Kândêsh, Berâr, and Ahmednagar had acknowledged him as their feudal superior. He had conquered and annexed Mâlhwâ. Humâyûn, irritated at his harbouring some fugitive rebels, attacked him, and wrested from him a great part of his dominions. He regained all in the following year.

1534.

1535.

The scaling of the walls of the fort of Champnîr (where the treasures of the kingdom were heaped up) by 300 men, of whom Humâyûn himself was one, was the great exploit of this war.

This antient but now deserted city was a few miles S. E. of Barôda. The fort of Pâwangarh is higher up the hill. It is surrounded by walls fifteen feet high and one and a half miles in circumference.

Shîr Khân Sûr's Contest with Humâyûn.

(4.) The next antagonist was SHÎR KHÂN SÛR, an Afgân (of the tribe of Sûr, descendant of one of the followers of the Lôdîs), who now held Bahâr and Bengâl, which he had conquered. He was called *Shîr Khân* = *lion-lord*, from having killed a tiger by a single blow of his

Humâyûn's Flight. Akbar. The Second Mogul Emperor,
1530-1556.

CHAP. III. § 4.
A. D. 1538.

sabre. Humâyûn made several expeditions against him, and at length laid siege to Chunâr and took it. Shîr Khân was himself engaged in completing the conquest of Bengâl at the time. Humâyûn advanced as far as *Gour*, then the capital of Bengâl. Meanwhile the rains came on—nothing could be done in Bengâl; and Shîr Khân, issuing from his retreat in the hill-fortress of Rôhtas, retook the cities and forts on the Ganges, surprising Humâyûn between Patna and Benâres.

1538.

NOTE.—Rôhtas was an almost impregnable fortress, which the Sîr took by treachery from the Hindû Râja to whom it belonged. He found vast treasures in it. It is eighty-one miles S.E. from Benâres.

The Emperor had time only to leap on horseback and plunge into the stream, in which he would have been drowned had he not been rescued by a water-carrier. He thus reached Âgra almost alone. His brothers had been plotting against him; but they now aided him to prepare for the approach of the victorious Shîr Shâh.

1539.

(5.) He sustained another decisive defeat near Kanouj, and was compelled to flee to Lâhôr; but Kâmrân himself had retired to Kâbul, and Humâyûn, deprived of that shelter, fled to Sind. There he wandered for a year and a half, and at length directed his course to Mârwär. Repulsed thence, he made his way across the desert to Amerkôt, where he arrived with seven companions, after enduring unspeakable hardships.

Humâyûn's Re-
verses, 1540.

(Comp. Destruction of a Scotch
Army in the Sol-
way morasses,
and the Birth
of Mary Queen
of Scots, 1542).

(6.) Here his son AKBAR was born [§ 6 (3)]. Deserted by his brothers, Humâyûn pursued his flight and reached Persia, 1544. In April 1543, his faithful general, Beirâm Khân, who had escaped from the battle of Kanouj, joined him. The infant Akbar was sent to Candahâr.

Birth of Akbar,
1542.

(Death of Queen
Katherine
Howard.)

(7.) The Persian Shâh, Tamasp, did not treat him generously, but used every unworthy expedient to induce him to become a Shîa, like the Persians, and to introduce that system thenceforward into India.

His Treatment
in Persia, 1544.

CHAP. III. § 5.
A.D. 1544.

Shias and
Sunnis.

Humâyûn's Efforts to Regain his Empire, 1545.

Humâyûn and his Brothers.

Shîr Shâh Sûr, 1540-1545.

The Restored Afgân Dynasty of Sûr, 1540-1556. (Humâyûn.)

NOTE.—The *Shia* and *Sunni* are the two great sects into which the Muhammedans are divided.

- A. The *Shias* (1.) Reject all traditions, and cling to the simple Kurân.
(2.) Disavow the three Khalifs who immediately succeeded Muhammed.
(3.) Seldom visit Mecca; but go to Kerbelâ instead, where Husain was slain.
(4.) They alone observe the Muharram.
(5.) They are called heretics by the Sunnis: are the *Protestants* of Muhammedanism.
(6.) The Persians, and nearly all Indian Muhammedans, are of this sect.
- B. The *Sunnis* (1.) Hold the *Sunnat*, or traditions, as a supplement to the Kurân.
(2.) Acknowledge as Khalifs after Muhammed, *Abû-Bkr*, *Omar*, and *Osmân*. Then, and fourthly, *Ali*.
(3.) Afgâns, Turks, Arabs, and Rohillas are of this sect.

At length, however, he gave him 14,000 horsemen, to aid in restoring him to his kingdom. Thus aided, he took Candahâr and Kâbul. It is said that during the siege of the latter place, Kâmrân exposed the young Akbar on the walls, threatening to put him to death if Humâyûn should persist in the siege. Humâyûn seems to have behaved inhumanly, in slaughtering the prisoners.

(8.) In 1548, the four brothers, Humâyûn, Hindâl, Kâmrân, and Mirza Askerî were reconciled; but Kâmrân, ever treacherous, again rebelled, and was at length defeated and blinded (1553). These dissensions weakened the cause of the house of Teimûr; but, in 1555, Humâyûn was in a condition to attempt to regain his Indian dominions.

The history of the restored Afgân dynasty must now be traced.

§ 5. THE RESTORED AFGÂNS, OR SÛR DYNASTY, FIVE IN NUMBER. (A.D. 1540-1556.)

HUMÂYÛN IN EXILE: HIS RETURN AND DEATH.

(1.) SHÎR SHÂH is often branded as a usurper. Yet, descended from the ancient Afgân conquerors, a native of India, and the expeller of the Moguls, who had only

The Restored Afgân Dynasty of Sûr. Humâyûn's Return
and Death.

CHAP. III. § 5.
A. D. 1545.

reigned fourteen years, his claim to the throne was at least as good as Humâyûn's.

(2.) Nor did his method of ruling give his subjects cause to regret the revolution. He was, in his government of India, wise, benevolent, and active; though ambitious, and, in one case certainly, treacherous and cruel. This was in the atrocious massacre of the garrison of Raisin (in Mâlwa), a fortress said to have been built by Râma. It was surrendered on the express stipulation that the lives of its defenders should be spared. They were slain, because *faith is not to be kept with infidels!*

His wise
Government.

(3.) He was killed at the siege of Kalinjîr (in Bandêl-khand), A. D. 1545. He is said to have made a road from Bengâl to the bank of the Îndus, and from Âgra to Mândû, with a caravanserai at every stage, and wells at intervals of a mile and a half all along.

His Death.
His beneficent
Works.

His tomb is to be seen at Sasserâm, between the Ganges and the Sône.

34 miles S. from
Buxâr.)

(4.) The second of this restored dynasty was SELÎM SHÂH. (A. D. 1545-1553.)

[The same year died Selîm Mahmûd Shâh III. of Gujarât, and Bûrhân Nizâm Shâh of Ahmednagar.]

Selîm Shâh Sûr,
1545-1553.

He seems to have possessed great ability, and to have laboured for the improvement of the country.

(5.) Selîm's son, Ferôz, succeeded; but, after three days, was murdered by his uncle, MUHAMMED ADIL SHÂH (or Adalî), who is the third of the restored dynasty.

Muhammed
Adalî Sûr
(Adalî = the
foolish).

He was a despicable tyrant. His Vazîr was Hêmu, a Hindû of low origin but of great ability. This man had been a petty shopkeeper. He fought with the courage of a Paladin.

(6.) Rebellions soon ensued, and the empire was divided into five portions, under rivals—members of the Afgân royal family (1555.) IBRAHÎM SÛR; one of these, got possession of Delhi, and is reckoned the *fourth* of the

Humâyûn's
Return, 1555.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A. D. 1556.

Akbar, the Third Mogul, 1556-1605.

dynasty. This was the moment when Humâyûn made up his mind to invade India. He soon gained possession of Lâhôr, and, driving SIKANDER SÛR, another of the rivals (called the fifth of the dynasty), to the Himâlayas, regained Âgra and Delhi.

Humâyûn's
Death, 1556.

(7.) He had, however, regained at his death but a very small portion of his dominions; for SIKANDER soon reappeared in the Panjâb, and Hêmu, with the army of Adalî, was in Bengâl. While Prince Akbar, then thirteen years of age, was in the Panjâb with Bairâm Khân, Humâyûn fell from the stairs leading to the top of his palace, and was killed. He had paused on the steps, hearing the Muezzim's call to prayer, and seated himself. When trying to rise, assisted by his staff, he fell on the polished stair, and, there being only a low parapet, fell headlong over. He died in a few days, six months after his return (1556).

Humâyûn's
Character.

(8.) He was superstitious; kindly-hearted on the whole; indulgent; very dilatory in all his movements; and too incessantly occupied in warfare to be able to do anything for his adopted country.

III.
Accession of
AKBAR, 1556-
1605.

§ 6. The *Third* Mogul Emperor was AKBAR. (1556-1605.)

His Mother.

(1.) Akbar's real name was Jalâl-ud-dîn (= *the glory of the faith*) Muhammed. His surname is *Akbar* = the Great.

(2.) His mother's name was Hamida, a native of Khorasân, of obscure family.

His Birth.
1542.
(Mary Queen of
Scots was born
the same year,
and amid similar
disasters.)

(3.) He was born at Amerkôt, in Sind, while Humâyûn was fleeing from the ambition of Shîr Shâh, and from the treachery of his brothers and his subjects. [§ 4 (6).]

It is said that his father, unable to give the presents usual on such occasions, broke up a pod of musk, and distributed it among his adherents, with the wish that "his son's fame might be diffused throughout the world like the odour of that perfume."

(4.) He fell into the hands of his uncle Kâmrân, December 1543, and remained at Kandahâr and Kâbul till 1555.

(5.) When Humâyûn died [§ 5 (7)], Akbar was thirteen

Akbar, the Third Mogul, 1556-1605.

CHAP. III, § 6.
A. D. 1556.

years and four months old. It was a very much disputed inheritance to which he succeeded.

Sikander, with the title of King of Delhi and of the Panjâb, was in arms near Sirhind, and Hêmu was on the borders of Bengâl.

His Rivals.

A young brother of Akbar, Mirza Hakîm, had been made King of Kandahâr by Humâyûn, but was dispossessed by Soleimân of Badakshân, one of the same family, placed there by Bâber.

(6.) The real ruler, and the restorer of the race of Teimûr, was *Beirâm Khân*.

Beirâm Khân.

He was styled "the king's father," and had unlimited powers as regent. A Persian and a Shîa, he had been sent to aid Bâber in his earlier struggles; and had been the most faithful and able of the adherents of the house of Teimûr.

(7.) Hêmu, who had taken both Âgra and Delhi, and had assumed the title of Râja Vikramâditya, after a heroic resistance, was overthrown and captured. Beirâm wished Akbar to earn the title of Ghâzî, or champion, by slaying the Hindû. Akbar refused to strike a defenceless captive. Beirâm slew the infidel. The facts are significant. *Sikander* also soon after submitted.

Hêmu's Death.

The Battle was fought at *Pânipat*, November 5, 1556.

(8.) Beirâm's inflexibility, military talents, and energy, were essential to Akbar at this period; but the regent occasionally exceeded his powers, and alienated the *Omrah*s unnecessarily.

Beirâm's Regency.
1556-1560.

Akbar himself was persuaded to assume the supreme power in his eighteenth year (A. D. 1560).

1560.

Beirâm, after much vacillation, *broke out into rebellion*; but was soon overcome, and threw himself on the mercy of Akbar, who treated him with the utmost generosity and affection. Beirâm now set out to visit Mecca, the Muhammedan way of retiring from public life; but was *assassinated* in Gujarât.

Beirâm's Rebellion and Death, 1560.

(9.) Akbar was now emperor *in reality*.

His training had been such as to fit him for his most difficult task. Brought up among hardships; fighting at

Akbar's early Training.

CHAP. III. § 6
A.D. 1560.

Akbar, the Third Mogul, 1556-1605.

the age of thirteen like a hero by the side of Beirâm Khân to recover his father's throne; compelled by the character of Beirâm to exercise in boyhood and youth the utmost *prudence* and *self-restraint*; and, aware that a single false step now might lose all, he ascended the throne with *sober* and *prudent resolves* to govern well and wisely. He was, in addition to this, a perfect specimen of an accomplished Muhammedan knight.

His Prospects on his Accession, 1560-1567.

(10.) The adherents of the house of Teimûr in India were few.

Akbar and his chiefs were a small band of strangers in the land, far more so than William and his Normans after the battle of Hastings.

His territory was merely the Panjâb and the district around Delhi.

(11.) He had first to conquer his own feudatory nobles. Khân Zemân, one of Akbar's generals, Râz Bahâdur in Mâlwa, Adam Khân, Abdullah Khân, and Asaf Khân, with three other generals, made war against him; and in such struggles he was engaged until his 25th year (A.D. 1567).

His Struggles with the Râjpûts. (Comp. ch. i. § 28.)

(12.) The next five years (A.D. 1567-1572) were spent in reducing the Râjpûts to submission.

The chief of these were—

(a.) The Râja of Jeypûr (Ambêr), Bahâra Mal.

Akbar eventually married his daughter (1561), and Selim, his eldest son, was married to another princess of the same family, daughter of Râj Bhagavân Dâs (1585). This Râja was the first who formed such an alliance. Selim's brother-in-law, Râja Mân Sing, was one of Akbar's great generals (24).

(Ch. ii. § 32.)

(b.) The Râna (of Chitôr, or) Oudipûr, Ūdi Sing, son of Râna Sanga. [§ 3 (12).] Here there was an obstinate and bloody war, and Akbar was victorious, taking *Chitôr*, which then ceased to be their capital.

1567.

(Or *Ouddeypore*, or *Ūdipûr*.)

In 1580, Râna Pertâb (son of Ūdi Sing) regained a part of his dominions and founded Oudipûr.

(c.) The Râna of Jodhpûr or Mârwar Maldêo. This

Akbar, the Third Mogul. His Conquests, 1556-1605.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A.D. 1567.

chief for a time was in disgrace, but his son was a chief much favoured afterwards by the emperor.

Akbar also married a daughter of the Râja of Mâr-wâr.

In regard to these marriages, it seems probable that to them the vigour of the imperial race for so many generations was partly due. The influence they had in softening prejudices and uniting Hindûs and Muhammedans, was very great. The Chitôr family alone refused all such imperial alliances, and despised the other Râjpût families for permitting them.

The Oudipûr, or Mâr-wâr, Râjas are considered to be the most distinguished in Hindûstân. They trace their descent from Râma, the great head of the Solar race. In A.D. 524, their capital, Bababhipôr, in the Gulf of Cambay, was invaded by a Persian king, son of Noushîrvân the Great, whose daughter was married into their royal family. The Queen of Noushîrvân was a Christian, daughter of Maurice, Emperor of Constantinople. Gôha, who married the Christian princess, founded the state of Edar. From him, Bappu, the antagonist of the Muhammedans, descended. (Ch. ii § 4.) Hence the Râja of Oudipûr is the descendant of a Christian princess, related to the Christian emperors of the Eastern Roman Empire.

The Intermarriages of the Moguls with the Râjpûts.

(Comp. ch. i. § 27, 28.)

(Comp. ch. ii. § 4.)

(13.) Akbar now annexed *Gujarât* to his empire. (It had been independent from 1391. Ch. ii. § 41.)

Gujarât, 1573.

Bahâdar Shâh [§ 4 (3)] died in 1537. The dissensions that followed his death were so great that Akbar was requested to put an end to the anarchy by taking the kingdom, which, after some severe fighting, he did (A.D. 1573). Ahmedâbâd became the residence of a viceroy, generally a prince of the blood royal.

Muzaffir Shâh, the king, became one of Akbar's courtiers. He rebelled afterwards, and committed suicide (A.D. 1593).

(14.) His next conquest was that of *Bahâr, Bengal, and Orissa*.

The Eastern Provinces reduced, 1575-1592.

Dâûd Khân, an Afgân, had taken possession of these provinces. His defeat and death ended the contest (1576). There were, however, serious rebellions afterwards, and both Râja Tod Mal and Râja Mân Sing were employed as viceroys in re-establishing order. Akbar's power was severely tried by these rebellions. Râja Mân Sing, son of Bhagavân Dâs, was the conqueror of Orissa. Orissa was subdued in 1592, and now *no remains of the Afgân power were to be found in Hindûstân*.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A.D. 1581.

Akbar, the Third Mogul. His Dakhan Conquests, 1556-1605.

The Panjâb,
1581.

(15.) Akbar's brother, Mirza Hakim, of Kâbul, invaded the Panjâb, A.D. 1581. Akbar repelled the invasion, and occupied Kâbul, which afterwards was held by Mirza Hakim in subordination to Delhi.
Râja Bhagavân Dâs, of Jeypûr, Akbar's brother-in-law, was made governor of the Panjâb. The fort of Attock was then built by Akbar.

Attock, 1581.
(= *limit* or *barrier*.)

Cashmîr, 1586
(Ch. xi § 6)
(or *Cashmere*).

(16.) The next conquest was that of *Cashmîr*. (See Geog. Ind.) The emperor went there in person, and defeated the chief, who became one of the Omrahs of the Delhi Court.

Hill Tribes on
the Border,
1586-1600.
(Ch. xi. § 4.)

(17.) This was followed by a war with various Afgân tribes around the plain of Peshâwar, such as the Yusufzies and Roshenîyas.

These, in one instance, gained a considerable victory over the imperial troops, but were afterwards reduced to some kind of order, though they continue independent to this day.

Sind, 1592.

(18.) *Sind* was added (in 1592) to the list of Akbar's annexations. The chief whom he subdued became a commander of 5000 in the Mogul army, and was appointed governor of Tatta.

This was the wise policy always adopted by Akbar.

The first Sepoys
in India.

The Portuguese aided the Sind chief, and it is said that natives, dressed and drilled as Europeans, fought in this war. These were the *first sepoy*s in India.

Kandahâr, 1594.

(19.) *Kandahâr* too came again under Akbar's sway, owing to dissensions among the Persians.

Thus Akbar's hereditary dominions beyond the Indus, and Hindûstân to the Nerbudda (except Oudipûr), were now completely under his sway. *Thirty-eight years of his reign had thus been consumed, and he was now fifty years of age.*

The Dakhan.

(20.) He now attempted the re-conquest of the Dakhan. (Ch. iv. § 22.)

Summary.

The chief events in the history of the Dakhan, belonging to Akbar's reign, are—

- (a.) *The battle of Talikôt*, 1565. (Ch. iv. § 29.)
- (b.) Confederacy of the kings of Bijapûr and Ahmednagar against the Portuguese, A.D. 1570. (Ch. vi. § 19.)
- (c.) The two sieges of Ahmednagar, A.D. 1595, 1599. (Ch. iv. § 24.)
- (d.) The annexation of Kândesh, A.D. 1599, 1600.

Akbar, the Third Mogul. Ahmednagar, 1556-1605.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A. D. 1595.

(21.) The dissensions in *Ahmednagar* between the Hindû and Abyssinian nobles so increased, that *Morâd* (second son of Akbar) and Mirza Khân (son of Beirâm Khân) were sent to take the divided city.

The Siege of
Ahmednagar,
1595.

The city of Ahmednagar was then in the hands of the celebrated CHÂND BIBÎ (daughter of the Sultân Husain Nizâm Shâh, widow of Ali Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr, and great-aunt of the infant Sultân, Bahâdar Nizâm Shâh), one of the great heroines of the history of India and of the world. She made peace with her father-in-law, the King of Bijapûr, conciliated the Abyssinian nobles, and defended the city with astonishing skill and bravery against Prince Morâd, who was now pressing the siege. A breach was made in the wall, and the defenders were on the point of giving up the city, when the Sultâna appeared in full armour, veiled, with a drawn sword in her hand; and, standing in the breach, she renewed the struggle, which ended at night-fall by the withdrawal of the Mogul armies. The dawn beheld the breach thoroughly repaired, and the Regent, who had not quitted her post, ready to meet the assailants. But Morâd abandoned the siege, and a peace was concluded.

Chând Bibî.

Akbar now left the Panjâb (in the vicinity of which he had been from 1584), and, in 1599, arrived at Burhân-pûr. Dowlatâbâd had been taken, and Prince Dâniyâl (Akbar's third son), with Mirza Khân, was sent on again to besiege Ahmednagar.

Akbar in the
Dakhan, 1599.
(*Burhân-pûr*, the
antient capital
of Kândêsh, on
the N.W. bank
of the Taptî.)

Civil dissensions had again broken out, and the heroic Chând Bibî was murdered by the opponents of her little grand-nephew.

The Moguls then soon took the city, made a great slaughter of the traitors, and took the young king prisoner. He ended his days in the usual prison, Gwâliôr.

Ahmednagar
Taken, 1599.
(Ch. iv. § 21.)

The kingdom itself survived under the great Abyssinian, Malik Ambar [§ 7 (5), p. 95], and was not finally subdued till the time of Shâh Jehân, A. D. 1637.

(22.) Akbar next annexed *Kândêsh*. Asîrghar was taken, and Prince Daniyâl made viceroy. Here ended Akbar's exploits in the Dakhan. He left it in A. D. 1601. Âb-ul-Fazl, the great statesman, was left in command in the Dakhan. (Biog. Ind.)

Kândêsh, 1601.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A. D. 1601.

Akbar, the Third Mogul. His Sons, 1556-1605.

The Dakhan at
Akbar's Death.

At the death of Akbar his possessions in the Dakhan were Kândêsh, a great part of Berâr, the fort of Ahmed-nagar, and the surrounding districts.

(23.) Akbar was unfortunate in his sons.

Selîm, born 1569.

(a.) Selîm (= *safety*), who afterwards succeeded him, rebelled in 1601; but Akbar's prudence put down the rebellion, and the Prince was, notwithstanding, made Viceroy of Bengâl and Orissa. He lived, chiefly at *Allâhâbâd*, in drunkenness and debauchery. He caused Âb-ul-Fazl to be set upon and murdered on his way back from the Dakhan.

(= *House of God*.)

Morâd, born 1570
at Sikri.
Daniyâl, born
1572.

(b.) Morâd (Mûrâd = *desired*) died early (1599).

(c.) Daniyâl (Daniel = *judge of God*) died in 1604, of intemperance. He married a daughter of the Shâh of Bijapûr, Ibrahim Âdil Shâh II. Ferishta, the great historian, was sent to attend the Princess to Burhân-pûr.

1601.

Akbar's Failing
Health.

(24.) Akbar's health at length began to fail. Sorrow for the death of Daniyâl is said to have hastened his end. When it became clear that he could not recover, the usual intrigues regarding the succession to the throne commenced.

His Successor.

The choice lay between Selîm, the only surviving son of the emperor, and Selîm's son, Khûsrû, who had been appointed nominal governor of Orissa in 1593, when he was a mere child.

Selîm's drunkenness and the memory of his rebellion were obstacles to his succession. Moreover, Râja Mân Sing, of Jeypûr, brother of Khûsrû's mother, and the great general Azîz (or Azîm Khân), his father-in-law, were in the young prince's favour.

Selîm is Nomin-
ated.

Akbar himself ended the strife by nominating Selîm as his successor, in the presence of the Omrahs, and causing him to gird himself with his favourite scymitar.

Akbar's Last
Moments.

The dying emperor then addressed the Omrahs, expressing his hope that there would be no dissension between those who had for so many years been the sharers of his toils and the companions of his glory.

Akbar's Character, Religion, Policy, 1556-1605.

CHAP. III. § 6.
A. D. 1605.

He then asked their forgiveness for any offences he might have been guilty of against them ; and, repeating the Muhammedan confession of faith, died, in profession, a good Mussulmân. He was buried near Agra.

October 13, 1605.

(25.) To complete the sketch of the life and times of this, the greatest of Eastern rulers, we must add some particulars—

- A. Of his character and personal peculiarities.
- B. Of his religious sentiments.
- C. Of his policy.
- D. Of his friends and companions.

(26.) A. *Akbar's character and personal peculiarities.*

(a.) In person he was strongly built and handsome ; very affable and captivating in manners ; sober and abstemious ; not taking animal food for a fourth of the year ; spending little time in sleep ; and fond of hunting and athletic sports. He rode from Ajmir to Agra (220 miles) in two days, and often walked thirty or forty miles in a day.

Akbar's Personal Character.

(b.) He was very studious, most methodical in the despatch of business, understood Sanskrit, encouraged every kind of literature, and superintended many important literary undertakings.

Studious.
(Comp. him with Alfred the Great.)

(c.) He was very affectionate, both to his family and friends, humane and compassionate.

Humane.

When he heard of Selim's causing a man to be flayed alive, he exclaimed, that he wondered that the son of a man who could not bear to see even a dead beast flayed, should be guilty of such cruelty.

(27.) B. *Akbar's religion.*

(a.) Earlier in life he was a consistent Muhammedan ; but in 1579 he openly professed latitudinarian sentiments, quite inconsistent with orthodoxy.

His unsettled Faith.

(b.) He studied Hindû works of science and religion, and made himself acquainted, of course very imperfectly, with the tenets of the Christian religion, though under most unfavourable circumstances. Regular discussions were held, in which Brâhmanas, Muhammedan doctors, and even Christian priests took part. His leanings seem to have been to the last of these.

Ecclectic.

(28.) c. *Akbar's policy.*

(a.) This was a policy dictated by his good sense, benevolent feelings, comprehensive intellect, and wide experience.

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Akbar, the Third Mogul. His Policy, 1556-1605.

Impartiality.
(Comp. Euro-
pean History,
and observe how
Toleration was
there unknown.)

Revenue Sys-
tems.

Divisions of the
Empire.

Military System.

Âb-ul-Fazl.

(b.) He desired to treat all his subjects alike, to abolish the distinction of Hindû and Muhammedan, and thus to fuse the discordant elements of his empire into one homogeneous whole.

(c.) In revenue matters he introduced great reforms, not involving new principles so much as an accurate and painstaking adjustment of the burdens of taxation, making them press equally on all.

He laboured to reduce the expenses of the collection of the revenue, and to prevent the extortions of government officers. His greatest revenue officer was Râjah Todar Mal. (See Biog. Ind.)

(d.) The empire was divided into eighteen Sûbâhs, each under a Viceroy. The laws in regard to punishments issued to these were humane, forbidding mutilation in any case. The provinces were: (1) Kâbul, (2) Lâhôr, (3) Mûltân, (4) Delhi, (5) Âgra, (6) Oudh, (7) Allâhâbâd, (8) Âjmir, (9) Gujarât, (10) Mâlwa, (11) Bahâr, (12) Bengâl, (13) Kândêsh, (14) Berâr, (15) Ahmednagar, (16) Orissa, (17) Cashmîr, and (18) Sind. The list, however, varies continually.

A province under a viceroy was called a Sûbâh, and the viceroy was called a Sûbâhdâr. Their deputies, having charge of districts, were *Nuwâbs* (= deputy).

(e.) *The army.* To introduce *submission, economy, and efficiency* into such an army as his, was a hard task.

The soldiers were to be paid in cash, not by assignments of land. There were not more than 450 officers, each commanding above 200 men, in all his vast armies. Thirty officers, exclusively princes, each of whom held the command of 5000.

Much corruption seems to have existed in this department to the last.

(29.) D. *Akbar's friends, companions, and officers* were all men of renown.

(a.) ÂB-UL-FAZL (= *the father of excellence*). This

Akbar, the Third Mogul. His Friends, 1556-1605.

CHAP. III. § 7.
A D. 1605.

eminent man, and the next in our list, *Feizi*, were sons of a learned man, who taught divinity in *Âgra*. He and his brother were Akbar's most intimate friends and counsellors.

Âb-ul-Fazl rose to the highest military commands, and was prime minister. He died in the forty-seventh year of the reign (1603).

He was the author of the celebrated *Ayîn Akbarî* (or *Institutes of Akbar*), which contain a minute account of every department of government, and everything connected with the emperor's establishments, public and private.

He was killed by assassins employed by *Selîm* (23), at *Oorcha*, in *Mâlwa*.

(b.) *FEIZI* (= *most excellent*), the elder brother of *Âb-ul-Fazl*, like his brother a most intimate friend of the emperor, was employed on an embassy to the *Dakhan*. He was the first *Muhammedan* that studied *Hindû* literature, from which he translated many works. He was moreover a poet, and more studious, but less a man of the world than his brother.

The brothers translated the *Mahâ Bharata* into *Persian* verse. This great work consisted of 100,000 couplets.

(c.) *Râja Todar Mal*. He was a great military leader, and also the great finance minister who carried out the extensive revenue reforms which have been referred to.

He is described as *sincere, honest, vindictive*, and a *very bigoted Hindû*. From 1580 to 1582 he was *Viceroy of Bengâl*, and ably put down a rebellion there. He was also distinguished in the *Afgân* wars. *Râja Bhagavân Dâs* and *Râja Todar Mal* both died in 1589. These men were the contemporaries of *Burleigh* and *Sully*, and rival those great ministers in renown; as their master more than equalled *Henri le Grand*, or our own *Elizabeth*.

§ 7. JEHÂNGÎR, THE FOURTH MOGUL EMPEROR. (A.D. 1605-1627.)

(1.) His name was *Selîm*. On his accession he took the title of *Jehân-gîr* (= *the world's conqueror*).

His Death in the same year as Queen Elizabeth.

Ayîn Akbari.

(Oorcha, Orcha or Ūrcha.)

Feizi.

Todar Mal.

(28, c.)

The First Bourbon, and the Last Tudor.

IV.
JEHÂNGÎR.
(James I.,
Charles I.)
Summary.

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A. D. 1605.

Jehângîr, the Fourth Mogul, 1605-1627.

1602, 1603.

1605.

1611.

1615.

Jehângîr's First Steps.

Accessible.

His Religious Opinions.

Inconsistency.

His Sons.

Khûsrû.

Khûsrû's Rebellion.

(2.) We shall have to notice in his history :—
(a.) His youthful intemperance and violent temper.
(b.) His rebellion against his father.
(c.) His murder of Âb-ul-Fazl.
(d.) His divergence from his father in religious matters.
(e.) His treatment of his son Khûsrû.
(f.) His queen, Nâr Jehân (= *light of the world*).
(g.) Sir T. Roe's embassy.
(h.) The history of Muhâbet Khân, his great general ; and
(j) Affairs in the Dakhan, chiefly connected with the great Malik Ambar.

(3.) Jehângîr was, on the whole, judicious in his first measures.

A. He adopted and even developed his father's measures of reform.

B. He took great pains to give all men opportunities of approaching him. A chain was hung from a part of the wall of the citadel, to which all had access. This chain was connected with a bell in the emperor's private room. Thus every suitor could make himself heard.

C. He was, however, more rigid than his father in his attention to observances of the Muhammedan faith. He restored to the coin the inscription which announces, not only the indisputable truth that "there is one God," but also the declaration, offensive to Hindûs, that "Muhammed is His Prophet." Though not religious, he was scrupulous in the use of the forms of religion.

D. Himself a drunkard during his whole life, he punished all who used wine.

(4.) Jehângîr was as unfortunate in regard to his sons as Akbar had been.

A. His eldest son, Khûsrû, had long been at enmity with him. The mother of this prince was a Râjpût princess, whose death had been caused by Jehângîr's (Selîm's) ill-treatment. Akbar had designed to disinherit Selîm for his violence and debauchery.

On his father's accession, therefore, Khûsrû thought

Jehângîr, the Fourth Mogul, 1605-1627.

CHAP. III. § 7.

A. D. 1605.

himself not safe, and fled to the Panjâb, where a large army gathered around him.

Jehângîr's army was however victorious, and Khûsrû was seized on the bank of the Jhîlam, as he was trying to make his way to Kâbul.

And now Jehângîr made a display of that cruelty which marked his character, and to which Akbar had ever been so averse.

He caused 700 of Khûsrû's adherents to be impaled in a line leading from the gate of Lâhôr. The miserable prince was conducted along the line to "receive the homage of his servants."

He was deeply affected by the spectacle. He was kept a prisoner, though not in very close custody, till his death in 1621.

B. From 1623 to the death of the emperor, we shall find his third son *Khurram*, or Shâh Jehân, in rebellion. He was, at first, Jehângîr's favourite.

(5.) The interest of the affairs of the Dakhan is connected with *Malik Ambar*.

Ahmednagar was taken in 1599 [§ 6 (21)], but *Malik Ambar*, an Abyssinian noble of splendid abilities, founded a new capital which was called *Khîrki* (a name afterwards changed by Aurungzîb to Aurungâbâd), where he maintained the government of the young king. He introduced Râja Todar Mal's revenue system into the Dakhan, and held his ground against the Moguls until his death in 1626. With this death vanished all hope of a better order of things in the Dakhan. The nominal king was Murteza Nizâm Shâh.

Prince Parvîz, the emperor's second son, was Viceroy of the Dakhan; residing at Burhânpûr till his death in 1626.

(6.) In 1611 the great event of the emperor's life, his marriage with the celebrated Nûr Jehân (= *light of the world, or light of the palace*: Nûr Mahâl), took place. She was of a noble Persian family, which being reduced

Jehângîr's
Cruelty.

1605.

Shâh Jehân.

Malik Ambar.

Malik Ambar
in Ahmednagar,
1599-1626.

Parvîz

Nûr Jehân.

CHAP. III. § 7.
A.D. 1611.

Jehângîr, the Fourth Mogul, 1605-1627.

Her Early His-
tory.

to poverty, her father emigrated to India. On the way, at Kandahâr, Nûr Jehân was born. To such poverty were they reduced that the infant, the mighty empress of world-wide renown, was exposed on the high road, where a merchant saw the child and compassionately took it for his own. The child's own mother was employed by him as its nurse, and even in her infancy Nûr Jehân made the fortune of her family, for to the kind assistance of the merchant they owed their advancement.

Jehângîr (then Prince Selîm) had seen and loved her when as a girl she accompanied her mother, who had free access to Akbar's harem.

To remove her from the Prince's sight, she was, by Akbar's advice, married to a young Persian, who was made governor of Burdwân.

Nûr Jehân be-
comes Empress.

But when Jehângîr became emperor, he attempted to induce Nûr Jehân's husband to divorce her. Her husband refused, and in the quarrel that ensued was accidentally killed. Nûr Jehân was sent to Delhi, but she, looking upon the emperor as the murderer of her husband, rejected his overtures with disdain. After a length of time, however, a reconciliation took place, and Nûr Jehân became Empress of India. Her name was put on the coinage with the emperor's. Her influence was unbounded. Her father, and her brother, Asaf Khân, were wise ministers, and though Jehângîr still indulged in nightly drunken debauches, the affairs of the kingdom were henceforth managed with prudence and humanity.

War with Oudi-
pûr, 1612-1614.

(7.) The war with the Râna of Mêwâr, or [§ 6 (12)] Oudipûr, was brought to a successful issue by Shâh Jehân, who treated the vanquished Râna with distinguished kindness. His dominions were restored to him on submission, and his son became one of the military leaders of the empire.

Sir T. Roe sent
by James I.,
1615.

(8.) Sir T. Roe came as an ambassador from James I., in 1615 to 1618. He passed from Sûrat, through Bur-

Jehângîr, the Fourth Mogul, 1605-1627.

CHAP. III. § 7.
A. D. 1615.

hânpûr and Chîtôr to Âjmîr, where he met the emperor, on his way to Gujarât. He found the cities of the Dakhan much neglected, and the country generally less prosperous than it had been in Akbar's time. The splendour of the court astonished him. He describes Jehângîr's nightly drunken orgies. He mentions having to bribe Asaf Khân with a pearl of value.

The French traveller *Bernier* was in Jehângîr's court, and Ferishta was there at the same time as envoy from Bijapûr.

Jehângîr was well inclined to Christianity, which two of his nephews had embraced.

(9.) Intrigues, to ensure the succession to Prince Sheriâr, the emperor's youngest son (married to Nûr Jehân's daughter by her first husband), disturbed the peace of the empire, and led to Shâh Jehân's rebellion.

Prince Parvîz, and the renowned general Muhâbet Khân, were sent against the rebel, and drove him from the Dakhan, whence he made his way to Bengâl, where he for a time established himself; but soon after submitted to his father.

(10.) Fresh troubles, however, arose from Nûr Jehân's jealousy of Muhâbet (= *awful*) Khân, the most eminent man in the empire. His family had come from Afgânistân, and he had fought under Akbar, and now had been raised to the highest position by Jehângîr. He was a friend and partizan of Prince Parvîz, while Nûr Jehân designed Prince Sheriâr to succeed.

Muhâbet was sent for to court, but, finding his disgrace resolved upon, planned and executed a stroke of unexampled audacity. He took the emperor prisoner on the banks of the Jhîlam. Nûr Jehân strove in vain to liberate her husband, and at length resolved to share his captivity. She narrowly escaped being put to death by the victor. Muhâbet was now supreme, and retained his power for nearly a year.

Shâh Jehân's
Rebellion, 1621.His Submission,
1624.Muhâbet Khân's
Quarrel with Nûr
Jehân, 1625.Jehângîr a Prisoner,
1626.

CHAP. III. § 8.
A.D. 1626.

Shâh Jehân, the Fifth Mogul, 1627-1658.

1626.

Death of the Emperor,

of Parvîz,
of Malik Ambar, and
of Mirza Khân.

1627.

Birth of Sivaji,
1627.

Jehângîr's Justice.

Tobacco.

V.
SHÂH JEHÂN.

Summary of Shâh Jehân's Reign.
Khân Jehân Lôdi, 1629.
Shâhji.

Nûr Jehân at length succeeded in effecting the escape of the emperor, and Muhâbet was compelled to fly to the south, where he joined Shâh Jehân.

(11.) Meanwhile the eventful years A.D. 1626 and 1627, were fatal to several of the great personages whose history is of importance.

Parvîz died at Burhânpûr.

Azîz (= *dear*), another of Akbar's great generals, and *Malik Ambar*, about the same time.

Mirza (= *secretary*) *Khân* (the great son of Beirâm Khân), somewhat later.

At length the emperor too died, on his way from Cashmir to LAHÔR, in his sixtieth year.

The man destined to change the face of India, Sivaji, was born in May of the same year (ch. v. § 9).

(12.) Jehângîr, notwithstanding his intemperance and violence, was remarkable for his sincere love of justice, and his endeavours, by himself hearing all cases referred to him, to remedy all the evils which existed in the state.

His maxim is said to have been: "That a monarch should care even for the beasts of the field, and that the very birds of the heaven ought to receive their due at the foot of the throne."

Like his contemporary, James I., he was an opponent to the use of *tobacco*, then being introduced into both East and West. Royal edicts and treatises have failed to arrest its wonderful spread through the world.

§ 8. The fifth Mogul Emperor, SHÂH JEHÂN, A.D. 1627-1658.

(1.) A. In this reign Nûr Jehân's brother, Asaf Khân, is a distinguished person.

B. Muhâbet Khân still continues conspicuous (1634).

C. The rebellion of Khân Jehân Lôdi led to extensive wars in the Dakhan.

D. Shâhji, the father of Sivaji (the founder of the Mahratta sovereignty), comes into notice (ch. v. § 7).

Shâh Jehân, the Fifth Mogul, 1627-1658.

CHAP. III. § 8.
A D. 1627.

e. The minister Saad Ullâ Khân is a remarkable person (died, 1655).

Saad Ullâ Khân.

f. The character and fortunes of the emperor's four sons, and the dissimulation and unfilial conduct of Aurungzîb, are especially to be noted.

His Four Sons.

g. His skill as an architect, exhibited in the Tâj Mahâl and other buildings, is to be admired.

An Architect.

(2.) Shâh Jehân, on the death of his father, hastened from the Dakhan to Âgra. Sheriâr, and two of his cousins who opposed him, were defeated and put to death. In fact, none of the race of Bâber were left alive but the emperor's own children.

1628.

Nûr Jehân at once retired into absolute obscurity, having a magnificent jointure. She died in A.D. 1646.

Nûr Jehân's
after-life.

The two great men were Nûr Jehân's brother, *Asaf Khân* [§ 7 (6)], and *Muhâbet Khân* [§ 7 (10)], who were highly rewarded by the new emperor for their fidelity to his cause.

The Great Men
of the Age.

Khân Jehân Lôdi, an Afgân general of Jehângir, was Viceroy of the Dakhan.

In the Dakhan kingdom of Ahmednagar, Malik Ambar's son, Fath Khân, was soon set aside by *Murteza NIZÂM SHÂH* [§ 7 (5)], who now ruled for himself, but brought his kingdom to the verge of ruin. This destroyed the last hope of a successful resistance to the Mogul arms.

Ahmednagar
Affairs.
(Comp. ch. iv.
§ 24.)

(3.) The rebellion of Khân Jehân Lôdi. At first he seemed to aim at independence; but soon submitted, and was removed from the viceroyalty of the Dakhan to Mâlwa, Muhâbet Khân succeeding him.

Rebellion of
Khân Jehân
Lôdi, 1628-1630.

Khân Jehân, suspecting that the emperor distrusted him, raised the standard of revolt in Agra itself. He was encountered and defeated on the banks of the Chambal, but escaped; and allying himself with the King of Ahmednagar, Murteza Nizâm Shâh, transferred the war to the Dakhan. Muhammed Âdil Shâh, of Bijapûr, refused to aid him. Abdullah Kutb, Shâh of Golconda, also held aloof. Khân Jehân was finally defeated and slain in Bandêlkhand, near Kalinjir.

1630.

(4.) Shâh Jehân's general still carried on the war, to punish Murteza Nizâm Shâh, who was put to death by Fath Khân.

The Dakhan was now a prey to the threefold evils of war, pestilence, and famine.

In 1634, Muhâbet Khân was recalled to court, and the Moguls made no progress in the Dakhan, until Shâhjî,

Shâhjî.

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A.D. 1631.

Shâh Jehân, the Fifth Mogul, 1627-1658.

Final Subju-
gation of
Ahmednagar.
1637.

Destruction of
Portuguese
Power in Ben-
gâl, 1631.

Ali Merdan
Khân, 1637.

His Canal in
Delhi.

Kandahâr, 1649.

Saad Ullâ Khân.

father of Sivajî (ch. v. § 7), set up a new pretender to the throne of Ahmednagar, and took possession of the territory around. Sultân Shuja was viceroy of the Dakhan, and was recalled with the general.

Shâh Jehân now took the field himself, brought both Bijapûr and Golconda to terms, and subdued Shâhjî, who entered the service of Bijapûr. Thus Ahmednagar was extinguished (ch. iv. § 24).

(5.) An episode connected with Portuguese affairs in Bengâl must here find place. The Portuguese had established a settlement near the antient fort of Satgong. This they called *Golin*, or the granary, corrupted afterwards into Hûglî. At Chittagong, too, they had a flourishing factory, defended by 1000 Europeans, 2000 natives, and eighty ships. To the Mogul governor of Dacea they were objects of great suspicion. He complained to Shâh Jehân that they had mounted cannon on their fort, and had grown insolent and oppressive. "Let the idolaters be expelled," was the emperor's command; and it was obeyed, after terrible slaughter. Thus was the power of the Portuguese in Bengâl for ever destroyed. The English were rising. (Comp. ch. vii. § 6, k.)

(6.) Ali Merdan Khân, governor of Kandahâr, at this time gave up that province to Shâh Jehân from disgust at the tyranny of his master, the King of Persia. He became a trusted general of the emperor, and especially rendered himself useful as an architect. A canal at Delhi attests his skill, and bears his name. It was repaired and fully restored by Lord Hastings in 1822.

(7.) Kandahâr was soon retaken by the Persians, and though besieged by the emperor's sons, Aurungzîb and Dârâ, was never retaken.

(8.) A.D. 1653-1655 saw the completion of the great revenue settlement of the Dakhan, and the death of Saad Ullâ Khân, the most able and upright minister that has ever appeared in India.

Shâh Jehân, the Fifth Mogul, 1627-1658.

CHAP. III. § 8.
A. D. 1652.

(9.) Shâh Jehân sent Aurungzîb as viceroy into the Dakhan, and that prince seemed determined to recompense himself for failures beyond the Indus by subjugating Bijapûr and Golconda. The immediate cause of his attack on the latter kingdom was an appeal from Mîr Jûmla, prime minister of that kingdom, formerly a diamond merchant, who had some disagreement with his master Abdullâh Kutb Shâh. Under the pretext of sending his son Sultân Muhammed to Bengâl, to espouse the daughter of Prince Shuja, he marched on Hyderâbâd, took it, and invested the hill-fort of Golconda, compelling the king to pay tribute and marry his daughter to Sultân Muhammed. Mîr Jûmla became one of Aurungzîb's favourite generals. He was proceeding to humble Bijapûr in the same way, when news reached him of Shâh Jehân's sudden and dangerous illness. Aurungzîb had determined, at all hazards, to be his father's successor.

1652.

War with Golconda and Bijapûr.

1657.

(10.) Shâh Jehân had four sons and two daughters.

Shâh Jehân's Family.
Dârâ.

A. Dârâ Shako was in his forty-second year, frank, generous, a free-thinker (and thus obnoxious to the Muhammedans, who beheld in him another Akbar), imprudent, and daring. Dârâ, like his great-grandfather, was deeply interested in theological studies. He studied Sanskrit, and translated the Upanishads into Persian.

B. Shuja was forty years old, an effeminate sensualist. He chiefly resided at Râjmahâl, as Viceroy of Bengâl.

Shuja.

C. Aurungzîb was thirty-eight years old, a master of dissimulation, an accomplished soldier, of handsome person, a bigoted Muhammedan, and, above all, intensely ambitious.

Aurungzîb.

D. Morâd, the youngest, was brave and generous; but dull in intellect, self-willed, and an abandoned sensualist.

Morâd.

E. The eldest daughter was Padshâh Begum, the favourite, and a great supporter of Dârâ.

Padshâh Begum.

F. The younger daughter, Roshen-râi, was an active and intriguing partisan of Aurungzîb.

Roshen-râi.

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A.D. 1657.

Shâh Jehân, the Fifth Mogul, 1627-1658.

1657.

Commencement
of Struggles be-
tween the Prin-
ces, 1657.

(11.) On the news of their father's illness reaching them, in spite of Dârâ's efforts to conceal it, both Prince Shuja, then Viceroy of Bengâl, and Prince Morâd, Viceroy of Gujarât, assumed the royal title, and prepared to march on the capital. Aurungzîb more cautiously advanced to the northern boundary of his province, secured Mîr Jûmla, the general, and entered into a negotiation with Morâd. He represented to that weak prince that he himself was only desirous of going to Mecca, that he would unite with Morâd to oppose the infidel Dârâ, and his idolatrous general, Jeswant Sing, and then would seek a reconciliation with his father.

Shuja Defeated.

Dârâ now met and defeated Shuja near Benâres, and the discomfited prince returned to Bengâl.

Aurungzîb de-
feats Dârâ at
Ûjein, 1658.

Aurungzîb joined Morâd in Mâlhwâ, and a battle between their combined forces and those of Jeswant Sing was fought near Ûjein, in which the princes were victorious. Aurungzîb still treated Morâd as his superior. Dârâ now advanced one day's march from Âgra to meet Aurungzîb, and a severe engagement took place. Dârâ's elephant was struck with a rocket and became ungovernable. This compelled him to alight. The sight of his elephant with empty howdah spread a panic through his army. The battle and the cause were lost by this trifling circumstance. Dârâ fled to Delhi. Aurungzîb rendered devout thanks to heaven for his victory, and congratulated Morâd on his acquisition of a kingdom! Three days after he entered Âgra, and, finding it impossible to shake the old emperor's attachment to Dârâ, sent Sultân Muhammed to make his aged grandfather prisoner in the citadel.

Battle of Âgra.

(12.) Thus ended Shâh Jehân's reign in 1658, though he lived till December 1666.

Shâh Jehân
taken Prisoner
by his Grandson.
(Oliver Crom-
well's Death.)

Character of
Shâh Jehân's
Reign.

This reign was the most prosperous in the annals of the empire, which enjoyed almost uninterrupted tranquillity. Delhi was rising in all its splendour. Those buildings at new Delhi and Âgra, which are still the admiration of the

Aurangzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

CHAP. III. § 9.
A. D. 1658.

world, were erected under his superintendence. The splendour of his court, his peacock throne, worth six-and-a-half millions sterling, and the grandeur of his buildings, mark him out as the most magnificent of Indian emperors.

Splendour of
the Court.

Delhi is called by Muhammedans, Shâh-Jehân-Âbâd. Old Delhi was founded 57 B.C. by a Hindû Râja.

The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, the Mausoleum of Mumtâz Mahâl, Shâh Jehân's queen, built of white marble, decorated with mosaics of many-coloured precious stones, is in solemn brilliance unsurpassed by any human erection.

His Buildings.

(13.) Shâh Jehân left 24,000,000 sterling in coin, besides vast stores of wrought gold, silver, and jewels.

Wealth.

His youth had been spent in rebellions and intrigues; but as a ruler he was beneficent and generous.

Character.

§ 9. AURUNGZÎB (= ornament of the throne) or ÂLAMGÎR I., A. D. 1658-1707: the Sixth Mogul Emperor.

VI.
AURUNGZÎB.
(Cromwell's
Death.
Restoration.
Charles II.
James II.
William III.
Mary II.
Anne.)
Summary of Au-
rurzîb's Reign.

(1.) His title was Âlam-gîr (= conqueror of the universe). By this he is known in Indian history.

(2.) Summary.

A. Observe the miserable *duplicit*y and *unnatural cruelty* by which he obtained the throne.

B. His policy was *intolerant*—the opposite of that of Akbar.

C. His constant contests with the Mahrattas, especially Sivajî. He killed Sambajî and imprisoned Sâhu. (Ch. v. § 32.)

D. His subjugation of the Dakhan kingdoms. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

E. The English had a firm footing in India before his death. (See ch. vii. § 6.)

(3.) After gaining possession of Âgra and imprisoning his father, Aurungzib was proclaimed emperor, though he was not crowned for a year afterwards.

He had still to pursue Dârâ, and to meet Shuja, who

Aurangzib
assumes the
Dominion, 1658.

CHAP. III. § 9.
A. D. 1659.

Aurungzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

Final Defeat
and Death of
Dârâ, 1659.

was advancing from Bengâl. The former fled to Mûltân, and from thence to one after another of the Râjpût chiefs. He was at length betrayed by the chief of Jûn, taken to Delhi, where he was paraded through the streets, and at length put to death as an apostate from Muhammedanism. Aurungzib affected to weep over his brother's head!

Shuja's Defeat,
1660.

Shuja was soon overthrown by Mîr Jûmla. Meanwhile Aurungzib's son, Muhammed Sultân, deserted to Shuja, married his daughter, and then again joined Mîr Jûmla. He was kept in prison for seven years in Gwâlîôr by his father.

Death of Shuja,
1660.

Shuja and all his family perished in Arakân, whither he had fled.

Soleimân, son of Dârâ, was also taken, and consigned with all the other members of the family to Gwâlîôr, where he soon died.

Death of Morâd,
1661.

Morâd, on some frivolous excuse, was put to death, A. D. 1661.

Thus by a series of murders Aurungzib had now made his throne secure.

Death of Mîr
Jûmla, 1662,
1663.

(4.) Mîr Jûmla, after subduing Assam, died near Dacca, while planning the conquest of China. Thus was the emperor relieved of the presence of a minister and general whose abilities and renown excited his jealous fears.

Aurungzib's Ill-
ness, 1662.

(5.) Aurungzib had now a violent illness, which shook the foundation of his power.

Intrigues.

Jeswant Sing, the powerful Râjpût chief of Jôdhpûr, whose dominions extended from Gujarât to Âjmrî, and Muhâbet Khân (son of the great general) from Kâbul, combined to effect the release of Shâh Jehân.

Intrigues were also made by various parties to place his sons Moazzim, Akbar, or Azam, on the throne. By energy and promptitude he defeated all these projects.

Sivajî, 1662.

(6.) It was now that Sivajî came to an open rupture with the emperor. (Comp. ch. v. § 17, &c.)

Shayista Khân.

Shayista Khân, son of Nûr Jehân's brother, Asaf Khân,

Aurangzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

CHAP. III. § 9.
A. D. 1663.

was then viceroy of the Dakhan, and resided at Aurungâbâd. Driven from thence by Sivajî, he was made viceroy of Bengâl in 1663.

The expeditions of the emperor's generals into the Dakhan, Sivajî's visit to Delhi, his escape, his treaty with Aurungzib, and his career till his death in 1680, are given in ch. v. § 15-26.

(7.) Shâh Jehân died in A. D. 1666.

About this time Little Thibet and Chittagong were added to the emperor's dominions.

Disturbances in Afgânistân followed, which do not concern Indian history. In 1676, the Satnarâmis, near Nârnôl, rebelled. These fanatics imagined themselves invincible, and Aurungzib with his own hand wrote texts from the Kurân, to be fastened on the standards of his troops to dissolve the spells of the rebels. They were defeated and dispersed; but this led to the imposition of the Jizya, a poll-tax on all infidels.

This fanatic proceeding shook the very foundations of the Mogul dominion.

(8.) Discontent now spread throughout every class of Hindûs. The system of Akbar had been formally abandoned. A letter, ascribed to Jeswant Sing, is still extant, in which the writer expostulates with the emperor on his intolerance. He commends the former princes of the house of Teimûr for their liberality, declares that the empire is going to ruin, and that every species of misgovernment and oppression is rife throughout the land. Jeswant Sing died in 1677.

(9.) Aurungzib's arbitrary conduct towards the widow and children of Râja Jeswant Sing, kindled the enmity of the Râjpûts into a flame.

Dûrga Dâs, Râm Sing of Jeypûr, Râj Sing of Mêwâr, and others, combined to protect the children of Jeswant Sing, and to resist the payment of the hated and iniquitous jizya.

Sivaji, 1662-1680.

The Fanatics of Nârnôl, S. W. of Delhi, 1676.

The Jizya imposed.

Discontent excited by the Emperor's Bigotry. Jeswant Sing's wise Advice.

Râjpût Rebel-lio., 1678.

CHAP. III § 9.
A. D. 1680.

Aurungzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

Cruelty towards
the Rebels.

The emperor exerted himself with his usual energy. His sons, Moazzim from the Dakhan (afterwards Shâh Âlum I.), Azam from Bengâl, and Akbar, were sent into the Râjpût country, where, by the emperor's orders, all the horrors of the most ruthless war of extermination were visited upon the unhappy people. This cruel policy, successful for the time, for ever alienated the high-spirited Râjpûts.

Rebellion of Ak-
bar, 1680.

Dârga Dâs adopted a policy the most calculated to wound the emperor. He induced Akbar, his favourite son, then twenty-three years of age, to rebel, promising him the assistance of the Râjpût chiefs. Akbar had soon 70,000 men under his command. But the emperor was again successful, and Akbar, his army having been wiled or terrified into desertion, fled to the Konkan, where he became a fugitive among the Mahrattas, and where Sambajî received him. Disgusted with Sambajî's manners, he soon retired to Persia, where he died in A. D. 1706. (Ch. v. § 28.)

Peace with the
Râjpûts, 1681.

(10.) In 1681, Aurungzib made peace with the Eastern Râjpûts.

Ajit Sing.

It was stipulated that Ajit Sing, son of Jeswant Sing, should be restored to his father's dominion of Mârwar when he came of age. (Comp. § 10.) There was, however, and could be, no real peace.

Wars in the Dak-
han, 1683-1707.

(11.) The wars of Aurungzib in the Dakhan are the most important. He was weakening and ruining the Muhammedan kingdoms of the Dakhan and the antient sovereignties of India when he should have aided them and strengthened them in their contest with the common enemy, the plundering Mahrattas. (Ch. v. § 29-37.)

His general Khân Jehân effected nothing against the Mahrattas.

Dilir Khân, who succeeded him, invaded Golconda and Bijapûr without any decisive results. (He died in 1684, neglected by the emperor.)

Aurungzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

CHAP. III § 9.
A.D. 1683.

Aurungzib arrived at Burhânpûr in 1683, and spent two years there and at Aurungâbâd before advancing to Ahmednagar.

The magnificence of his progress surpasses anything recorded in history. A million of persons were assembled together in his camp.

(12.) In this expedition several armies were kept continually in motion, under Prince Moazzim, Prince Azam, Prince Kâm Baksb, Khân Jehân, and the emperor himself.

Mogul Armies.

The great Mogul warriors around him were Dilîr Khân, Dâûd Khân Pannî, Ghâzî-ud-dîn I. (father of the great Nizâm-ul-mulk), Tokarrah Khân, Assad Khân, and his more celebrated son, Zulfikâr Khân, and a multitude of others. The last warrior is said to have fought nineteen battles with the Mahrattas in six months.

The Mogul Leaders.

But in warlike character the Mogul nobles had deteriorated. Arrayed in wadded garments, covered with plate armour, and surrounded by everything that was gay and splendid, they seemed better adapted for the splendours of a tournament than for actual war against the hardy Mahrattas.

Their Degen-
eracy.

(13.) Bijapûr was taken, and its monarchy finally destroyed in A.D. 1686. The chief agent in the capture was Ghâzî-ud-dîn I., father of Nizâm-ul-mulk, though the emperor himself was present. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

Bijapûr taken,
1686.

(14.) Golconda fell in the following year. But of his new conquests the emperor never had more than mere military possession. We find Cuddapa, Conjeveram, and Pûnamalî occupied by the imperial troops in the same year. (Ch. iv. § 25.)

Golconda taken,
1687.

(15.) The capture and death of Sambajî, and the captivity of Sâhu, belong to Mahratta history. (Ch. v. § 32.) The emperor's camp for some years after this was at Brimhâpurî, on the Bîma.

Sambajî.

(16.) The aged emperor was *apparently successful*. He took Satârâ in April 1700, and in the following months

The Wars
against the
Mahrattas.

CHAP. III. § 9.
A. D. 1700.

Aurungzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

His Suspicious
Character.

nearly all the Mahratta strongholds were seized. But the empire was tottering on the verge of ruin. He himself was eighty-one years of age. These sieges involved an immense waste of treasure and life. Every obstacle existed, arising from floods, pestilence, heat, and the nature of the country. (Ch. v. § 34-37.)

The peculiarity of the situation was this: the emperor himself did everything. His vigour alone kept things in order. The minutest detail of war or government was attended to by himself. Jealous of his sons, who might remember too well his conduct to Shâh Jehân, he neither trusted them nor employed them when he could avoid it.

Sultân Moazzim.

This distrust of all about him, the offspring of guilt, was the torment of the emperor, and one of the causes of ruin of the Mogul empire. As an evidence of it, we find Moazzim falling under unjust suspicion, imprisoned for six years (1687-1694), and then sent as governor to Kâbul.

Mahrattas re-
cover them-
selves, 1700.

In 1701 Sir W. Norris, an English ambassador, visited Aurungzib in his camp.

(17.) The Mahrattas, with an elasticity that ever marked them, began to recover themselves, soon re-took some of their forts, and so embarrassed the emperor that he withdrew to Ahmednagar, which he re-entered in 1706. He had been twenty years engaged in these fruitless, harassing wars. The waves of Mahrattas swept over his track as soon as he retreated. He had made no real impression upon them. They had learned to conquer and despise their Mogul foes.

s Death, 1707.

(18.) Aurungzib entered Ahmednagar but to die. His death was a melancholy one. Troubled with remorse, harassed by anxieties, conscious that after his death all he had tried to effect would be rendered vain by the contests of his sons for the throne, and the universal decay, which he could not but perceive in every part of the state, he gave utterance in his last moments to the most affecting expressions of despairing sadness. "Wherever I look, I

Aurangzib, the Sixth Mogul, 1658-1707.

CHAP. III. § 9.
A. D. 1707.

see nothing but the Divinity. I have committed many crimes. I know not with what punishments I may be visited." Such were some of his latest words.

He died February 21, 1707, in the eighty-ninth year of his age. His tomb is at Rauzah, six miles from Dowlat-âbâd.

Aurangzib is the emperor most admired by the Muham-medans.

He was austere, a devotee, just, laborious.

Yet he was unsuccessful. He did not maintain discipline, seeming afraid to alienate by punishing. Mistrustful of all around him, cold-hearted, and in all his dealings with Hindûs partial and prejudiced, he was the very reverse of *Akbar*. We find him even in 1683, at Burhânpûr, levying the jizya from all Hindûs under his sway in the Dakhan as well as in Hindûstân. If Akbar was the real founder, *Aurangzib* was the destroyer of the Mogul dominion in India. With Aurungzib, it has been said, the empire of the Moguls passed away.

His Character.

Contrast between
Aurangzib and
Akbar.

(19.) At this critical period in the history of India, the thoughtful student will pause and survey the stage from which so distinguished an actor now disappears.

Survey of India
at this Period.

A. Of the Moguls themselves, the next section will tell us all that is necessary.

Moguls.

B. In the Dakhan the Mahrattas (ch. v. § 37), apparently humbled, are in reality placed, by the destruction of the Dakhani kingdoms, in the most favourable position for founding a permanent dominion. The Peishwâs are coming. (Ch. v. § 40.)

Mahrattas.

C. The English merchants have now factories on every part of the coast (ch. vii. § 6), and the three Presidency towns and forts of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, are under a regular government, promising stability and development.

English.

D. The French, too, are flourishing. The rivalries have not begun. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

French.

E. In England Queen Anne is on the throne. Marlborough, the Zulfikâr Khân of England, is in the zenith of his glory. (Blenheim, 1704.) Gibraltar had been taken (1704). The parliaments of England and Scotland were united in the year Aurungzib died.

Europe, 1702-
1714.

CHAP. III. § 10.
A.D. 1707.

Shâh Âlam I., the Seventh Mogul, 1707-1712.

1707.
Whig and Tory
Factions in
England.
Somers, 1708,
to R. Walpole,
1721.
Portuguese.
Dutch.

Coming Events.
Bengâl.

Khâfi Khân.

English in Ben-
gâl in 1686.

VII.
SHÂH ÂLAM I.

Civil Wars on
the Death of
Aurungzib.

The battle of Almanza, in the wars of the Spanish Succession, was gained by the Duke of Berwick the same year.

The Act of Settlement had been passed. A powerful aristocracy in England, like the clique of Omrahs in Delhi, governs the kingdom.

F. The Portuguese had sunk to their present level. (Ch. vi. § 20.)

G. The Dutch were busily engaged in trade. (Ch. vii. § 4.)

H. Soon Dupleix (1731), Clive (1743), and Hastings (1750), will be in India. Fifty years will bring us to PLASSEY (1757).

I. Meanwhile Mir Jaffir (or Mûrshed Kûli Khân), the founder of Mûrshedâbâd, was viceroy of the three Sûbâhs of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa.

(20.) The chief historian of those times is styled Khâfi Khân. The emperor strove to prevent any history from being written. Mir Muhammed Hushîm, however, composed his history in the latter part of the reign, but concealed it. Hence his title, Khâfi Khân (= *the concealed*).

This historian himself was sent to Bombay in 1695, on a mission. A ship bound to Mecca had been seized by English pirates; and "although the Christians have no skill at the sword, by bad management the vessel was taken," says the report. (1693.)

Aurungzib ordered the English factors to be seized at his ports, and the English laid hold of the emperor's officers.

The historian says that he was received by elderly gentlemen in rich clothes, who laughed more heartily than became so grave an occasion, but were intelligent and acute.

There was no lack of dignity, order, or military display.

This was not the only case in which the English merchants came into collision with the officers of Aurungzib.

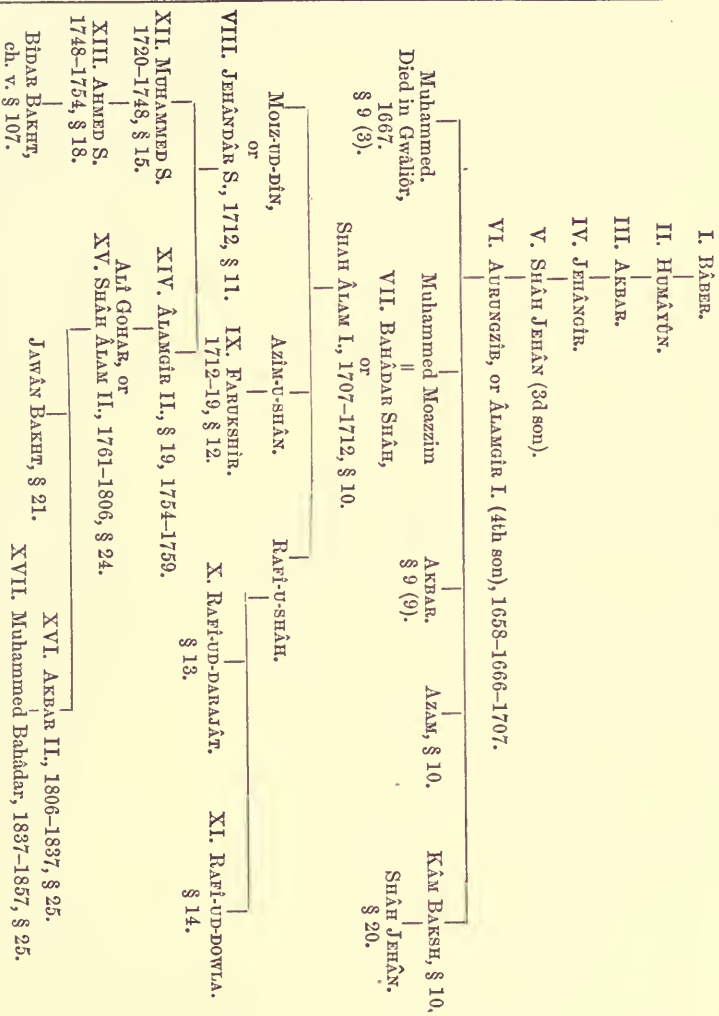
Sir Josiah Child made a futile attempt to effect a settlement in Bengâl, by force of arms, in 1686.

This incident excited great enmity in the emperor's mind against the English. In 1690, however, Mr Charnock made his peace with the emperor.

§ 10. The SEVENTH Mogul emperor was BAHÂDAR SHÂH (= *the valiant king*), or SHÂH ÂLAM (= *king of the universe*) I., A.D. 1707-1712.

(1.) On the death of Aurungzib, there was the usual contest between the sons of the deceased emperor. (See table.) These were three, Moazzim, Azam, and Kâm Baksh.

MOGUL EMPERORS TO ILLUSTRATE CHAP. III. § 9-25 (1526-1857).



CHAP. III. § 10.
A. D. 1707.

Shâh Âlam I., the Seventh Mogul, 1707-1712.

The deceased emperor had willed that the eldest should be emperor, taking Delhi for his capital, and governing the north and east. Azam was to share the dominion, having Âgra as his capital, and governing the south and south-west. To Kâm Baksh were assigned the kingdoms of Golconda and Bijapûr.

June 1707.

Moazzim and *Azam* simultaneously claimed the crown. A bloody battle was fought south of Âgra, in which Azam and his sons were slain.

February 1708.

Kâm Baksh refusing to acknowledge *Moazzim*, a battle was fought near Hyderâbâd, where he was defeated and killed.

The Seventh Mogul.

(2.) *Moazzim* assumed the title of *BAHÂDAR SHÂH*, but is oftener called *SHÂH ÂLAM I.*

Omrâhs.

His great Omrâhs were :—

A. *Assad Khân*, a distinguished general in *Aurungzib's* Dakhan wars. He died in 1716. The last of the antient Mogul nobility.

B. *Zulfikâr Khân*, the son of A, viceroy of the Dakhan. [§ 11 (5).] (Ch. v. § 37.)

C. *Monim Khân*, the *Vazir*, an able and well-intentioned minister.

D. *Dâûd Khân Pannî*, one of *Aurungzib's* *Pattan* officers, acting for B [§ 12 (6).] [Ch. vii. § 7 (8).]

Others were coming into notice, especially those by whom the empire was destined to be dismembered.

The Mahrattas.

(3.) *The Mahrattas.*

Their power was now rapidly increasing.

SÂHU was released by Prince *Azam*:

There was civil war among the Mahrattas. The Mogul Government supported *SÂHU*, and allowed him the *Chout* or fourth of the revenue. (Ch. v. § 38, 39.)

Râjpûts.

(4.) *The Râjpûts.* [§ 6 (12).]

There were three great Râjpût princes at that time, and they made a league for the protection of their country against the Muhammedans. They were:—

A. The Râna of *Oudipûr*. His name was *Râna Umra* (1700-1716).

Jehândâr Shâh, the Eighth Mogul, 1712-1713.

CHAP. III. § 11.
A.D. 1707.

b. The Râja of Mârwâr, Ajit Sing [§ 9 (9)], son of Jeswant Sing [§ 12 (7)]. He was the acknowledged leader.

c. The Râja of Jeypûr, Jey Sing II., a great mathematician and astronomer.

They obtained from Bahâdar Shâh an acknowledgment of virtual independence.

(5.) *The Sikhs.*

These were the disciples of *Nanak*, who flourished in the time of Bâber. He taught a comprehensive and tolerant monotheism, and sought to comprehend Hindûs and Muhammedans in one. The leading notions of Sufiism and the Vêdanta are blended in his system. Persecution changed an inoffensive sect into a military commonwealth.

Guru Govind, their tenth Guru or spiritual chief, in 1675 completed their organisation. He was slain by a private enemy, but his relatives and followers were visited with every species of cruelty.

Banda was now their leader. Their hatred to the Mussulmâns, inflamed by long persecutions, broke out into the most fearful atrocities.

Bahâdar Shâh in person went against them, drove them into the hills, but failed in capturing Banda, and the check to the Sikhs was merely temporary. (Comp. § 12 and ch. xi.) In this struggle the emperor spent his last five years.

(6.) This emperor died February 1712.

§ 11. JEHÂNDÂR SHÂH, A.D. 1712-1713. *He was the eighth Mogul Emperor.*

(1.) Though the weakest of the four brothers, Mirza Moiz-ud-dîn, through the influence of Zulfikâr Khân, overcame his rivals, and, with the usual slaughter of kindred, ascended the throne.

(2.) Zulfikâr's motive for aiding him was the belief that the weakness and incapacity of the emperor would

The Sikhs.

Banda. Struggles in which both Sikhs and Muhammedans are guilty of great Cruelties.

Death of Shâh Alam I.

VIII.
JEHÂNDÂR SHÂH.

His Accession, 1712.

Zulfikâr's Ambition and Arrogance.

CHAP. III. § 12.
A.D. 1712.

Farukhshir, the Ninth Mogul, 1713-1719.

The Two Seiads.
They Espouse
the Cause of
Farukhshir.

throw all power into his hands. His arrogance disgusted the Omrahs even more than the low debauchery of his master.

(3.) Farukhshir, the second son of Azim-u-Shân, the second son of Bahâdar Shâh (see Table), escaped the slaughter, and solicited the aid of two valiant, able, and powerful noblemen, henceforth to be very prominent in this history, SEIAD HUSSAIN ALI, Governor of Bahâr, and his brother SEIAD ABDULLAH, Governor of Allâhâbâd.

Death of Zulfikâr
and Jehândâr
Shâh, Feb. 1713.
The Life of
Zulfikâr Khân.

(4.) These Seiads, the king-makers of India, espoused his cause warmly, and in a battle near Âgra defeated Zulfikâr and his puppet emperor, Jehândâr. The former was strangled and the latter was also put to death.

(5.) This is the place for some continuous account of the celebrated rival "king-maker," Zulfikâr Khân. His father was Assad Khân, head of one of the oldest noble families in the empire.

(Ch. v. § 34.)

He distinguished himself under Aurungzib in the war with the Mahrattas, A.D. 1690 (ch. iii. § 9); in the course of which, disgusted at being nominally under the prince Kâm-Baksh, he held traitorous intercourse with the Mahrattas, but at length took Ginji. His and his father's influence gave Bahâdar Shâh the throne, and by that emperor he was made Viceroy of the Dakhan. His advice led to the release of Sâhu. He raised Jehândâr Shâh to the throne, and was his Vazir; and he fell a victim to his own treachery. For, having surrendered his master to the Seiads, he was, by their order, strangled.

(The Treaty of
Utrecht, 1713.)

IX.
The NINTH Mogul,
FARUKHSHIR.

§ 12. FARUKHSHIR, A.D. 1713-1719.

(1.) The personal history of the emperor is now of much less importance than that of the powerful Omrahs who exercised the sovereignty in his name, and their four rivals.

The Seiads.

(2.) The Barha Seiads (= *descendants of the prophet*)

Farukhshir, the Ninth Mogul, 1713-1719.

CHAP. III. § 12.
A. D. 1713.

were a powerful tribe in Bahâr, where they had been long settled. The brothers *Hussain Ali* and *Abdullah Khan* were men of much courage and ability. They had been promoted by Azîm-u-Shân, the emperor's father, when he was Viceroy of Bengâl. The former was now made Vazir, and the latter commander-in-chief.

(3.) Nizâm-ul-mulk (= *regulator of the kingdom*), born in 1644, and died in 1748), (see Table), at that time was a veteran warrior, a man of consummate cunning, and a prominent person from this period till his death in A. D. 1748. His descendants are the Nizâms of Hydrâbâd.

(4.) Sâdat (= *propitiousness*) Khân, originally a merchant from the Persian province of Khorasân, was the coadjutor and rival of the Nizâm-ul-mulk, held a high military command, and founded the modern kingdom of Oudh. His descendants are the present ex-princes of Oudh.

(5.) Of less importance is Mir Jûmla, a personal favourite of the emperor, who plotted unsuccessfully against the Seiads; was for a time Governor of Bahâr; and, finally, was dismissed to his native town of Mûltân. He must not be confounded with others bearing this title.

(6.) A warrior of renown was Dâud Khân, who acted for a time as Viceroy of the Dakhan, but was now removed to Kândêsh and Gujârât.

He fell in a desperate attempt to overthrow the power of Hussain Ali. These two failed in their attempts against the Seiads: the two former, in due time, as we shall see, succeeded.

(7.) Farukhshîr married a Râjpût princess, daughter of Ajit Sing, the Râja of Mârwar. This marriage was the condition of a peace with the Râjpûts.

It will be seen that the Muhammedan emperors often married Hindû ladies. This, doubtless, was a main reason why the Mogul emperors were never bigoted Muhammedans. The mixture of races tended to preserve the imperial family from degeneracy. [§ 6 (12).]

Nizâm-ul-mulk.
(His name was Chên Kilich Khân. His other title was Ghâzi-ud-dîn (II.) Âsaf Jâh.) (§ 16.)
Sâdat Khân, the Ruler of Oudh. Died 1739.
§ 17.

Mir Jûmla
(= *prime minister*).

Dâud Khân.
(Ch. vii. § 7 [8].)

Farukhshîr's
Queen, 1715.

Intermarriages.

CHAP. III § 12.
A.D. 1716.

Farukhshir, the Ninth Mogul, 1713-1719.

Surgeon
Hamilton.

(8.) A matter of importance in the history of British India is connected with this marriage.

At the time it was pending (A.D. 1716), a deputation from the small British factory at Calcutta was sent to the emperor. It happened that with the deputation was a Scottish surgeon, Gabriel Hamilton (a name to be had in honour), and, as the emperor's marriage was delayed by his sickness, the services of the British doctor were sought for. The emperor gratefully left it to Hamilton to choose his reward, and he, with rare disinterestedness, asked, on behalf of the Company, for the zemindārship of thirty-seven towns in Bengāl, and exemption from dues on their goods. This in a remarkable degree strengthened the position of the British in India. (Ch. vii. § 6. s.)

The Sikhs.

(9.) The most important event of this reign is the effectual check given to the progress of the Sikhs. (Comp. § 10.)

The Sikhs' Sufferings.

Their leader still was *Banda*, under whom they were guilty of great atrocities, and who was at length overcome and sent, with 740 persons (saved for the purpose from a general massacre), to Delhi. They were there exposed to every insult from the justly enraged population. *Banda* was the victim of the most inhuman barbarities, while his followers were beheaded on seven successive days.

They met torture and death with the most heroic courage, disdaining to a man to purchase life by renouncing their faith.

They were nearly extirpated. In 1839 there were only 500,000 of them.

This massacre took place at *Nandair*, near *Bêdar*.

(10.) The Mogul territories were now mercilessly ravaged by the *Mahrattas*.

Nizâm-ul-mulk
in the Dakhan.

Nizâm-ul-mulk (3) was made Viceroy of the *Dakhan* in 1713; but was soon removed to make way for the all-powerful *Seiad Hussain Ali*, who was so unsuccessful that he made a treaty with *Râja Sâhu*, acknowledging his

1717.

Muhammed Shâh, the Twelfth Mogul, 1719-1748.

CH. III. § 13-15.
A.D. 1717.

claim to his father's possessions, with all later conquests. (Comp. ch. v. § 42.)

A body of 10,000 Mahrattas actually marched with Hussain Alî, to enable him to make good his position at Delhi against all rivals. One of their leaders was the first Peishwâ, Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, where he remained till he obtained in 1720 a ratification of this treaty from Muhammed Shâh. (Ch. v. § 40.)

The Mahrattas aid Hussain, 1717.

The utter degradation of the empire is hastening on.

(11.) The vacillating Farukhshîr made several plots to rid himself of the Seiads, but Hussain Alî anticipated them by assassinating the unfortunate emperor.

Assassination of Farukhshîr.

1719.

§ 13. The Seiads now set up a youth called Rafî-ud-darajât, who died in three months, of consumption. (A.D. 1719, February—May.)

X.
The Tenth Mogul, 1719.

§ 14. They then selected Rafî-ud-dowla, who died in a few months. These two names are not in the Muhammedan lists of emperors.

XI.
The Eleventh Mogul, 1719.

§ 15. (1.) They at length chose Roshen Akhter (see Table), who took the name of MUHAMMED SHÂH and was the last emperor that sat on the peacock throne of Shâh Jehân. He owed his ultimate success mainly to the firmness and ability of his mother. Thus, within twelve years after Aurungzib's death, five princes had occupied the throne.

XII.
MUHAMMED SHÂH'S Accession, 1719, Sept.

(2.) *This emperor's reign, which lasted from A.D. 1719 to 1748, is one of the most eventful of the whole series.* The first great event was the overthrow of the king-makers. This was effected chiefly by a combination between Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdat Khân. The former openly rebelled, marched southward to recover his old vicerealty of the Dakhan, and overthrew the generals sent against him by the Seiads, whose prestige was now well-nigh destroyed.

The Overthrow of the Seiads, 1720.

CHAP. III. § 15.
A. D. 1720.

Muhammed Shâh, the Twelfth Mogul, 1719-1748.

	<p>The Seiads were Shâs, and their opponents were Sûnis.</p>
Hussain's Death.	<p>Hussain Alî, taking with him the emperor, left Delhi for the Dakhan to oppose him, but was assassinated on the march.</p>
The Battle of Shâhpûr (or Pâdshâh-pûr), 1720.	<p>The surviving brother, Abdullah, acted with energy, set up another emperor in Delhi, and marched to meet the conspirators, but was defeated in <i>the battle of Shâhpûr</i>, between Delhi and Âgra; soon after which Nizâm-ul-mulk returned and took the office of Vazîr.</p>
Nizâm Independent, 1724.	<p>(3.) The Râjput's now made good their independence in Âjmir, under Râja Ajit Sing, the late emperor's father-in-law.</p>
Sâdat Khân Independent.	<p>(4.) Nor did Nizâm-ul-mulk long remain at court. Disgusted with the laxity that prevailed there, he retired to the Dakhan, where he became from that time virtually independent. (§ 16.)</p>
(Ch. v. § 45.)	<p>(5.) Sâdat Khân, the Persian adventurer, who had not been long in India, following his example, proceeded to make himself independent in Oudh, of which he was governor. (§ 17.)</p>
	<p>Thus was the disintegration of the empire rapidly proceeding. The great Mahratta chieftains were rising to importance at this very period.</p>
Nâdir Shâh.	<p>(6.) The attacks made by the Mahrattas upon the empire, and their struggles with Nizâm-ul-mulk will be most fittingly recorded in the history of the Mahrattas (ch. v. § 49, &c.) For ten years the old Tûrkomân was an efficient barrier against these formidable foes of the empire. But it was chiefly during this weak reign that the Mahrattas extended their supremacy.</p>
	<p>(7.) At this time (A. D. 1738) occurred the Persian invasion of India by the terrible Nâdir Shâh, "<i>the boast, the terror, and the execration of his country.</i>" This famous warrior, a shepherd from the shores of the Caspian, had delivered Persia from foreign invaders, and had usurped</p>

Muhammed Shâh, the Twelfth Mogul, 1719-1748.

CHAP. III. § 15.
A. D. 1738.

the throne of the country which he had liberated. (Ch. v. § 50.)

It is said, on what seems sufficient authority, that he was invited to India by Nizâm-ul-mulk and Sâdat Khân; that he reproached them in Delhi with their perfidy, and spat on their beards; that the two disgraced traitors resolved to take poison; that Nizâm-ul-mulk pretended to do so, but Sâdat Khân, outwitted by his rival, really did so, while the former, in after days, was wont to make merry at his too credulous rival's expense. It is certain that Sâdat Khân died while Nâdir Shâh was in possession of Delhi.

Death of Sâdat Khân.

(8.) The Peishwâ, Bâjî Râo, died in 1740. (Ch. v. § 53.) This led Nizâm-ul-mulk, whose power in Delhi was supreme, again to leave court for the Dakhan (1741). His eldest son, Ghâzî-ud-dîn (III.), and his relative, Kamr-ud-dîn, were left as the emperor's confidential advisers. [He died the same year as the emperor, A. D. 1748.]

Dakhan Affairs, 1741.

Death of Nizâm-ul-mulk.

(9.) The Rohillas at this period rose into importance. The district now called Rohilkhand was occupied by Alî Muhammed, an Afgân freebooter, in 1744. (Ch. v. § 53.)

(10.) And now appeared one of the great invaders of India, one who changed the whole history of the land, who six times passed the Attock—the first time in the army of Nâdir Shâh, and the last time to break the Mahratta power at the second battle of Pânipat—AHMED SHÂH ABDÂLÎ. (Ch. v. § 58.)

The Afgân Invader, Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî.

(Or fourth.)

NOTE.—He rebuilt Kandahâr, and made it his capital. He had been Nâdir's treasurer, and made off with all the money on his master's assassination, June 8, 1747.

This was his first appearance, but the valour of Prince Ahmed and the Vazîr (1748) for the time rolled back the tide of invasion.

(Ch. v. § 58.)

From this expedition Ahmed Shâh was recalled by the tidings of the death of his father.

CHAP. III. § 16.
A.D. 1748.

Muhammed Shâh, the Twelfth Mogul, 1719-1748.

The Battle of
Sirhind: the
Two Ahmeds,
1748.
The Death of
Kamr-ud-dîn,
and of Muham-
med Shâh, 1748.

The battle of *Sirhind*, where the Abdâlî was defeated, was the last great effort of the Mogul empire.

(11.) During this expedition, in 1748, the faithful Vazîr Kamr-ud-dîn was killed by a shot while praying in his tent. He was Muhammed's faithful friend and companion, and his death hastened that of his master, which happened in April 1748, after a troubled reign of thirty years.

(12.) During this reign the north-eastern Sûbâhs became virtually independent. (§ 9.)

Mûrshed Kûli Khân was succeeded in 1725 by Shuja-ud-dîn, who died while Nâdir Shâh was in Delhi.

His son was overthrown by a servant of his father, *Alî-Yardi Khân*, a man of talent and experience, whom the emperor confirmed in his usurped dominion. (Comp. ch. v. § 57.)

§ 16. This is the place for a summary of the history of that kingdom which Nizâm-ul-mulk founded in the Dakhan.

Summary of the
History of the
Nizâm's King-
dom.
June 29, 1751.

1751.
The Mahrattas
Bribed by both
Parties.

Bussy in the
Dakhan.

1751.

(1.) [See Table.] The events immediately following his death will be found in ch. viii. § 16-20. We there see Salâbut Jung, the third son of the wily old Tûrkomân, installed in Aurungâbâd, under the protection of the all-powerful Bussy. His appointment was confirmed by the emperor Ahmed Shâh.

(2.) The eldest son, Ghâzi-ud-dîn III., had then avoided a contest for his father's dominions. He now, despising the weak and effeminate Salâbat, induced Bâlâji Bâji Râo, the third Peishwâ, to aid him in an effort to overthrow him. Salâbat, by a bribe of two lakhs, induced the Peishwâ to retire. (Ch. v. § 61.)

(3.) Meanwhile Bussy consolidated his power; and, maintaining strict discipline, kept his French force in a state of admirable efficiency.

Bussy saved Salâbat by a masterly march on Pûna, and by two brilliant victories over the Mahratta horse and the entire army of the Peishwâ. An armistice being concluded, Salâbat and Bussy returned to Aurungâbâd, where Ghâzi-ud-dîn, with a large army, soon arrived, and would perhaps have succeeded in seating himself on the throne, had not the mother of the fifth son of Nizâm-ul-mulk, Nizâm Alî, who hoped to see her own son on the throne,

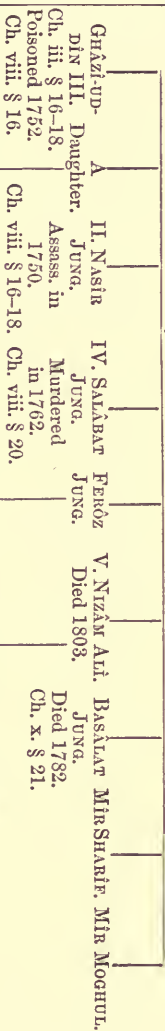
TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE CHAP. III. § 16.
THE NIZÂMS OF HYDERÂBÂD.

Ghâzi-ud-dîn I. (ch. iii. § 9 [12]).

Chen Kitch Khan, or Asaf Jah, or

Ghâzi-ud-dîn II., or

I. NIZÂM-UL-MULK (ch. iii. § 12). Died, 1748 (ch. viii. § 14).



III. MUZAFFER JUNG.
Assassinated in
1751.
Ch. viii. § 16-20.

GHÂZI-UD-DÎN IV.
or, MIR SHAHÂB-UD-DÎN.
Murderer of Alamgîr II., 1759.
Ch. iii. § 19, 20.

VI. MIRZA SIKANDER JÂH.
Died 1828.

VII. NAZIR-UD-DOWLAT.
Died 1857.

VIII. AYZÂL-UD-DOWLAT.
Died 1869.

CHAP. III. § 16.
A. D. 1752.

Affairs of the Nizâm.

administered poison to him (1752), and thus removed one of the two persons who stood between Nizâm Ali and the elevation which he afterwards attained.

(4.) The cession of a large tract of country north of the Wain Gangâ, induced the Mahrattas to depart, leaving Salâbat unmolested. Hyderabad now became the capital. (Ch. v. § 62.)

NOTE.—It was founded in 1585 by Muhammed Kutb Shâh. Its antient name was Bhâgnagar. It is on the river Musî, a tributary of the Kishtna. Secunderâbâd is about three miles to the north.

(5.) In 1753, Bussy, having been ill-treated by the Subâdar, managed things with such a firm and skilful hand, that he contrived to obtain, as the price of his forgiveness, a grant of the Northern Circârs, stretching along the coast for nearly 400 miles from the Chilka lake to the Pennâr, possessing an area of 17,000 square miles, well watered by the Kishtna and Godâvari, and yielding an annual revenue of £400,000. This was by far the most valuable possession up to that time acquired by any European power in India.

(6.) In 1755 Bussy accompanied Salâbat on an expedition to Mysore; in 1756 he was compelled by intrigues to defend himself against Salâbat, who had been induced to dismiss him; and in 1758 he saved Salâbat from falling beneath the intrigues of his brother Nizâm Ali, and the minister Nawâz Khân. Nizâm Ali was commander-in-chief, and an inveterate traitor. Basâlat Jung was minister, and in the interest of Nizâm Ali.

(7.) On the 18th June 1758, Bussy was recalled by Count Lally, and was compelled to retire from the Dakhan when he was arbiter of its destinies. (Ch. viii. § 31.) This was a terrible blow to Bussy and Salâbat.

The Marquis de Confleurs, who was left in charge of Masulipatam, mismanaged affairs, and alienated the people; and in the following year Colonel Forde, sent by Clive from Calcutta, drove the French from the Northern Circârs, and obtained a grant of them from the terrified Salâbat Jung.

This was confirmed by the emperor in 1765. (Ch. ix.)

(8.) Now came the contest between the Peishwâ, Bâlâji Râo, and Salâbat Jung. (Ch. v. § 68.)

(9.) Salâbat Jung was dethroned in 1761 by his brother Nizâm Ali, and was put to death by him in 1763. Nizâm Ali then invaded the Carnatic, but was stopped by the English. Negotiations were entered into for an imperial grant of the Northern Circârs, which was given; but with unaccountable timidity, the Madras Presidency actually negotiated with Nizâm Ali, and by the treaty of 1766 agreed to hold the Northern Circârs under the Nizâm, and to pay

The Northern Circârs ceded to the French, 1753.

- (These are—
1. Guntûr.
2. Condapilly.
3. Ellôra.
4. Râjamandri.
5. Chicacole.)

Bussy recalled by Lally.

The French driven from the Northern Circârs, 1759.

Nizâm Ali.

The Northern Circârs.

Madras timidity.

Affairs of the Nizâm. Oudh.

CHAP III, § 17
A. D. 1798.

him eight lakhs a year as a tribute for them! Guntûr alone was not to be taken by the English till the death of Basâlat Jung, to whom it had been given as a jâghîr.

(10.) The affairs of the Nizâm are now mingled up with those of the Mahrattas and with Mysore, and must be studied in chaps. v. and xii.

(11.) In 1798 Lord Wellesley made a treaty with the Nizâm, by which a contingent of 6000 troops was to be supported by the Nizâm, and the French expelled. This alliance has not been broken.

The districts of *Ballâri* (Bellary) and *Kadapa-Kârpa* (Cuddapa), commonly called the "ceded districts," were made over in 1800 for the support of this contingent. Major (Sir T.) Munro was appointed collector, and held the appointment for eight years. There he died, when visiting them as G. of Madras. (Ch. x. § 84.)

(12.) Nizâm Ali died in 1803, four days after the great war began. Metcalfe was Resident at Hyderâbâd from 1820 to 1827. (Ch. x. § 105.) He introduced great reforms. The scandals connected with the house of Palmer & Co. must be studied in his life.

Sikander Jâh, his son, was put on the throne by Lord Wellesley. The Hyderâbâd authorities scandalously neglected their obligations during the war of 1803, yet Lord Wellesley generously made over Berâr, taken from Nâgpur, to the Nizâm.

He died in 1828. Nazîr-ud-dowlat succeeded him. He died in 1857. The next Nizâm was *Afzâl-ud-daulat*. He died in 1869.

(13.) In 1853 arrangements became necessary to secure the payment of the British contingent, maintained according to the treaty of 1801. This the Nizâm could not secure; and certain districts in Berâr, referred to above, chiefly cotton-growing lands, were made over temporarily to the British Government. The result has been every way beneficial. Those districts themselves had been given to the Nizâm by the English. No royal house has so profited by English protection, under which the dynasty of the old Tûrkômân may long flourish in peace.

This notice would not be complete without reference to the able and enlightened minister Sir Salar Jung, who from 1853 has directed the affairs of Hyderâbâd.

§ 17. The other kingdom then rendered virtually independent, viz., that of Oudh, was annexed to the British empire by Lord Dalhousie in 1856.

It had never peace or prosperity from the days of the famous "Persian pedlar," who founded it, till its annexa-

Guntûr.
(Ch. x. § 21.)Hyderâbâd
brought under
the Subsidiary
System, 1798.
(Ch. x. § 40.)
The ceded Dis-
tricts.
Munro.

Berâr.

Lord Dalhousie
assumes the
Management of
this District.
(Ch. x.)Summary of
Oudh History.
(Ch. x. § 14.)(Comp. ch. ix.
§ 13.)

CHAP. III. § 18.
A. D. 1748.

Ahmed Shâh, the Thirteenth Mogul, 1748-1754.

(Ch. x. § 73.)

XIII.
AHMED SHÂH,
1748.

The Great
Omrahs.

Ghâzi-ud-dîn
IV, grandson of
Nizâm-ul-mulk,
1752.

Holkâr in Delhi.

tion. From Sâdat Khân to Vajîd Alî Shâh, who was deposed, eleven princes had governed Oudh, including both those rulers.

In 1819, by the advice of the Governor-General, Lord Hastings, the Nuwâb assumed the title of king, and renounced all dependence upon the King of Delhi. Its government went on from bad to worse, till there was no alternative. It was reserved for Sir John Lawrence, in 1867, to make such final arrangements as seem likely to insure the prosperity and contentment of that splendid province.

§ 18. The thirteenth Mogul emperor was AHMED SHÂH, a son of Muhammed Shâh. His great antagonist was his namesake the Abdâlî, who now made his second invasion; and peace was purchased, contrary to the wishes of the Omrahs, by the premature cession to him of the provinces of Lâhôr and Mûltân, in 1748. The great men of his court were Mîr Munu, son of the late Vazîr, and Viceroy of the Panjâb; Safder Jung, nephew of Sâdat Khân, and his successor in Oudh; Ghâzi-ud-dîn, eldest son of Nizâm-ul-mulk; and a son-in-law of the late Vazîr, who bore the title of Khân Khânân.

Ghâzi-ud-dîn III. soon left for the Dakhan, where he was poisoned. [§ 16 (3).] He left behind him a nephew, Mîr Shahâb-ud-dîn, or Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV., then a bold boy of sixteen, destined to become the most notorious man of his time. Between him and Safder Jung were renewed the feuds of the grandfather of the one and the uncle of the other.

The Mahrattas, under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and Jayapa Sindia, espoused the Mogul cause; the Jâts, under Surâj-mal, Râja of Bhartpûr, aided the Persian. The weak emperor feared to side with either, and was treacherous to each in turn. (Ch. v. § 64.)

Holkâr, by a bold movement, drove the emperor into Delhi, which he took. The nobles then, at the instigation

Âlamgîr II., the Fourteenth Mogul, 1754-1759.

CHAP. III. § 19.
A.D. 1754.

of Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV., pronounced Ahmed unworthy to reign, 1754. He was blinded and consigned to prison, where he died.

Death of Ahmed Shâh.

The Mogul empire was in a wretched state. Gujarât, Bengâl, Bahâr, Orissa, Oudh, Rohilkhand, the Panjâb, the Dakhan, both the portions occupied by the sons of the old Nizâm, and that possessed by the Mahrattas, and the Carnatic, were fairly severed from the empire.

Dismemberment of the Empire.

Delhi waited to see what puppet the young king-maker would place on the throne.

§ 19. ÂLAMGÎR II., the *fourteenth* Mogul emperor, was uncle to the last emperor. (See Table.) Nothing more need be said of him than that he was assassinated by order of Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.) in November 1759.

XIV.
ÂLAMGÎR II.,
1754-1759.

The Nuwâb of Oudh, Safder Jung, died about this time, and was succeeded by Shuja-ud-dowla. (Ch. ix. § 13.) Confusion, rapine, and anarchy prevailed throughout Hindûstân.

Oudh.
II. Safder Jung.
III. Shuja-ud-dowla.

The interest of the reign centres in two persons, the king-maker Ghâzî-ud-dîn (IV.) and Alî Gohar, the heir-apparent, a gallant and generous man, thirty-two years of age at his father's accession, and afterwards emperor under the name of Shâh Âlam II.

The King-maker and Alî Gohar.

The former, by his proceedings in Lâhôr, brought upon the empire, and on Delhi in particular, the calamities of another invasion by the dreaded Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. Mîr Munu had died in Lâhôr, 1756, but the Abdâlî confirmed his infant son in the government, under the guardianship of the widow and Adîna Beg Khân, a Mogul of great experience, but a traitor who had always encouraged the Afgân invasions. The Panjâb soon fell into great disorder, in consequence of which the Sîkhs increased rapidly, and all were discontented. Ghâzî now thought his time was come for recovering the province, but he forgot the terrible Abdâlî, who would certainly resent any

(Ch. v. § 59.)

The Abdâlî in the Panjâb, 1756.

Ghâzî-ud-dîn's Expedition to Lâhôr.

CHAP III. § 20.
A. D. 1757.

Âlamgîr II., the Fourteenth Mogul, 1754-1759.

interference with his arrangements. Accordingly he set out upon an expedition, taking with him the heir-apparent, seized upon the regent and her daughter, to whom he had been betrothed, carried them to Delhi, and appointed Adîna Beg governor of the province. Ahmed immediately crossed the Attock (it was his fourth invasion), and marched to Delhi. The adroit Ghâzî, by the intercession of his mother-in-law, was pardoned, and rose higher than before, being employed by the conqueror to collect tribute and pillage.

The Abdâlî entered it 11th September 1757. (Comp. September 1857. Ch. x. § 25.)

A pestilence hastened the Afgân's return to Kâbul. He left his son Teimûr Shâh his viceroy in Lâhôr, and a Rohilla chief, Nazib-ud-dowla, chief minister at Delhi.

Ghâzî, as soon as he was relieved of the Abdâlî's presence, expelled Nazib, imprisoned the emperor's friend, and laid hands upon the heir-apparent himself. In fact, he gave way without restraint to the despotic violence and cruelty of his natural character. The prince, however, escaped (much as Edward I. escaped from the clutches of Simon de Montfort), and after many wanderings, engaged (1759) in the expedition, the result of which is given in ch. ix. § 13.

§ 20. This was the time (1758) when Ragunâtha Râo (Ragobâ), at the suggestion of Ghâzî and the invitation of Adîna Beg (again a traitor), made that showy and splendid, but ill-judged and disastrous, expedition into Lâhôr, which led to the ruin of the Mahratta power, in the terrible overthrow of the *second* battle of Pânipat (1761).

He overran the Panjâb, and returned triumphant, but with no spoil; having incurred a ruinous expense, and roused an enemy the most terrible the Mahrattas ever encountered, the Abdâlî; who now made his fifth, last, and most terrible invasion of Hindûstân.

The Abdâlî in
Delhi, 1757.

(Ch. x. § 110.)

The Outrages of
Ghâzî-ud-din IV.

Ragobâ's ill-fated
Expedition.
(Ch. v. § 69.)

(Or fourth.)

The Abdâlî's
Last Expedition.

Shâh Âlam II., the Fifteenth Mogul, 1759-1806.

The Afgân advanced towards Delhi in September 1759, prepared to take full vengeance upon the whole Mahratta race. Ghâzî, whose restless and cruel ambition had thrown everything into confusion, now consummated his crimes by the murder of the harmless emperor, whose headless trunk was thrown into the Jamna. This was in November 1759.

The assassin then set up a son of Kâm Baksh (see Table), by the title of Shâh Jehân ; but was obliged to flee from Delhi, and take refuge with Surâj Mal, the Jât leader.

[From this time the villain Ghâzî disappears, as does his puppet emperor, from history. In 1790 he was found by the English police in Sûrat, and was, by the order of the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, allowed to depart for Mecca, and has not been since heard of.]

The Abdâlî now a second time entered Delhi with fire and sword (1760), but soon retired to his camp at *Anupshukur*, on the Ganges. The issue of his struggle with the Mahrattas is given in chap. v. § 70.

§ 21. The Mahrattas, under Sivadasha Râo, captured Delhi, where they elevated Jawân Bakht, son of the absent Shâh Âlam, to the throne. There was a proposal to place Viswas Râo on the throne, but this was judged inexpedient.

After the second battle of Pânipat, the victorious Abdâlî again occupied Delhi ; from whence he sent an embassy to SHÂH ÂLAM, or Alî Gohar, acknowledging him as emperor, and placing his son Jawân Bakht, as regent. He then quitted India.

§ 22. The proceedings of Shâh Âlam, who was fighting against the English in Bahâr, while the Abdâlî was crushing the Mahrattas at Pânipat, are given in chap. ix. § 18. Until Christmas Day 1771, the emperor was an exile, for the most part in Allâhâbâd, where he kept up a kind of court, a British pensioner. It was not worth his while to

CH. III. § 21, 22.
A. D. 1759.

Delhi Occupied.

The Murder of
the Emperor.

The End of
Nizâm-ul-mulk's
Grandson,
Ghâzî-ud-din.

Abdâlî at Delhi
for the Second
Time, 1760.
(W. of the
Ganges, 68 miles
E. S. E. from
Delhi.

The Mahrattas
before the Second
Battle of Pânipat.

XV.
The Nominal
Emperor SHÂH
ÂLAM II., in
Exile.

CH. III. § 23, 24.
A. D. 1770.

Shâh Âlam II., the Fifteenth Mogul, 1759-1806.

attempt to return to Delhi, where Nazib, the Vazîr, and the young prince managed affairs with great prudence.

Once more the Abdâli came on the stage to assist Nazib. Having defeated the Sîkhs in several actions, he advanced to Pânipat ; but soon returned finally to Kandahâr.

Affairs in 1770.

§ 23. At the end of 1770 we find Nazib-ud-dowla, a virtuous and wise minister, dead, and his son Zabîta Khân filling his place. The Mahrattas occupy Delhi, where the prince regent and royal family reside. Shâh Âlam is still a pensioner in Allâhâbâd. At this time the Mahrattas made overtures to the emperor, offering for a large sum of money to restore him to his position in Delhi. The English dissuaded him from putting himself into their hands, but imposed no restraint.

Shâh Âlam joins the Mahrattas.

In 1771 he thus, escorted by an English force, crossed the borders of the district of Allâhâbâd, to join his new friends the Mahrattas ; and from that time the Mogul sovereign never claimed the right to interfere in the provinces to the east of that boundary. (Ch. v. § 81.)

There were now two great parties in Delhi, the Mussulmâns, anxious to retain their scanty possessions, and the Mahrattas, striving to recover what they had lost at Pânipat.

Zabîta and his army were soon driven out of Delhi, and the Mahrattas were supreme. (Ch. v. § 85.)

(Ch. v. § 107.)

§ 24. We shall not pursue the history of the ruler of Delhi in detail. A few particulars will suffice to connect it with the other parts of the work.

Gholâm Kâdir's Atrocities.

The eldest son of Zabîta Khân was Gholâm Kâdir, who on his father's death in 1786, succeeded to his estates. This young chief asserted his claim to the honours possessed by his father, openly rebelled against the emperor, got possession of Delhi and of Shâh Âlam's person, and

Akbar II., the Sixteenth Mogul. Muhammed Bahâdar, the Seventeenth Mogul, 1806-1837.

CH III. § 25, 26.
A.D. 1788.

under the pretence that he had concealed treasures, after heaping every species of indignity on the poor old emperor, struck out his eyes with his dagger. His sons and grandsons had been previously tortured before his eyes, August 1788. One of these was the Muhammed Bahâdar, who permitted, if he did not instigate, similar atrocities in the same place in Delhi in 1857. (Ch. x. § 15.)

Shâh Âlam II.
is Blinded.

The poor blind emperor was soon rescued by the Mahrattas, but remained in extreme penury until, in 1803 (September 16), he was rescued by Lord Lake. (Ch. v. § 130.)

He died Dec.
18, 1806.

The sceptre of Hindûstân then passed into the hands of the British Government.

Retribution fell on Gholâm Kâdir, for, falling into the hands of Sindia, he was horribly tortured, mutilated, and at length his head was sent to be laid at the feet of his sightless victim in Delhi. (Ch. v. § 107.)

§ 25. The eldest son of Shâh Âlam, whose regency we have read of, after many attempts to place his father in his rightful position, disappeared from the scene in 1770.

The second son, **AKBAR**, succeeded to the nominal dignity in 1806, and was the **SIXTEENTH MOGUL EMPEROR**.

His son, **MUHAMMED BAHÂDAR SHÂH**, succeeded in 1837. He was the *seventeenth and last* of the emperors of the race of Teimûr the Tatâr. For his crimes and his fate, see chap. x. § 28.

XVI.
Shâh Âlam's
second Son,
AKBAR II.,
succeeds, 1806.
(19th Nov.)
XVII.
The Last Mogul.

His sons and grandson, infamous for their barbarous treatment of English women and children, were shot by Captain Hodson, near Humâyûn's tomb, September 22, 1857.

§ 26. This sketch shows us seventeen emperors of one family reigning in succession in Delhi; a circumstance without a parallel in Indian history.

Of these, only six can be considered as real sovereigns.

Their history exemplifies the two ways in which the course of

CHAP. III. § 27.
A. D. 1857.

The Extinction of the House of Teimûr. Characteristics
of its Rule.

Struggles for
the Throne.

Oriental dynasties always run. There is first a kind of "natural selection," by which, at the death of a ruler, the strongest surviving scion of the race, after conquering and putting to death the weaker members of the family, ascends the musnud. This, in the case of the Moguls, kept the reins of empire for nearly two centuries in vigorous hands.

Puppet Em-
perors.

Then, when there are no strong men to dispute the succession, the authority falls into the hands of powerful ministers, who place the imperial puppet on the throne, consign him to oblivion, and govern in his stead.

From Akbar to Shâh Âlam I., the former course was pursued; there was a contest at each vacancy, and the strongest grasped the reins; after that time, the latter alternative prevailed, and till the rescue of Shâh Âlam II. by Lord Lake (from which time there was really no emperor), we see a succession of powerful and unscrupulous men, consisting of Zulfikâr Khân, the Barha Seiads, Ghâzi-ud-din, Gholâm Kâdir, Mahâdaji Sindia, and Doulat R. Sindia, supreme in Delhi.

What did the
Moguls do for
India?

§ 27. In bringing this summary of the Mogul history to a close, we pause to ask, what this splendid line of emperors did for India? Magnificent palaces, mausoleums, mosques, and minârs, attest their wealth and taste; but we find among their remains scarcely any traces of those works which really contribute to the welfare of a people.

Their Works.

The few roads made by Muhammedan rulers were for the passage of their troops; and their canals and tanks were mostly for the supply of the royal palaces.

Everything seems to prove that the *people* were little considered. These rulers, with the splendid exception of Akbar, governed India solely with a view to their own dignity and convenience.

Their Contests.

The Moguls had to contend with Afgâns, Râjpûts, and Mahrattas. (Nâdir Shâh occupied Delhi without opposition.) Against the Afgâns they strove with varied success: the Abdâlî was their undoubted conqueror. The Râjpûts they were able first to subdue, and then to attach to themselves. Aurungzib never really mastered the Mahrattas, and they soon occupied Delhi. The English have succeeded to their dominion; yet with the Moguls England has fought no battle.

England released Shâh Âlam II. in 1803, pensioned his son, and transported his grandson—the justice of whose doom no one will be willing to dispute.

Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, 1294.

CHAP. IV. § 1, 2.
A.D. 1022.

CHAPTER IV.

A Summary of the History of the Dakhan.

§ 1. About three hundred years after the first entrance of the Mussulmâns into India under Muhammed Kâsim (A.D. 711), the first permanent establishment of a Muhammedan dominion was made in Lâhôr by Mahmûd of Ghaznî (ch. ii. § 10), A.D. 1022.

Progress of Muhammedan Power in India, 711. (Târik and Mûsa Conquer Spain.) 1022.

This did not affect the Dakhan. There various flourishing kingdoms existed, governed by Hindû Râjas. (Comp. ch. ii., Table, § 3.)

Nearly three hundred years after this (A.D. 1294), the Muhammedan banner was carried across the Nerbudda by Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî, the nephew, murderer, and successor of Ferôz Shâh. (Ch. ii. § 31, p. 64).

1294. First Muhammedan Invasion of the Dakhan.

The Dakhan became an extended battlefield from that time to 1819. Muhammedans are seen fighting against Hindûs, the Mogul emperors against the Dakhan Muhammedan States, the Mahrattas against both, Hyder Alî against the Mahrattas; and, finally, we see the English giving peace to the whole.

§ 2. The Dakhan is the country south of the Nerbudda and Mahânadî rivers, or all south of the Vindhya range.

Use of the term Dakhan.

In general we now restrict the name to the high table-land between the Taptî and Kishtna.

Here was the cradle of the vast Mahratta confederacy. Here, too, were the Dakhan Muhammedan kingdoms, and here was the Bijanagar Hindû kingdom, so long their rival. Here Nizâm-ul-mulk made for himself a lasting dominion. Here was also the scene of Hyder'Ali's usurpation and of Tippû's cruelties. Here the Portuguese flourished. Here the French and English fought.

Early Settlers in the Dakhan.

§ 3. The early inhabitants of this region are called in native works foresters, goblins, and even demons. But a considerable degree of civilisation must have existed in the south, ten centuries before the Christian æra.

The sage *Agastya*, in the seventh century A.D., seems to have done much to introduce science and philosophy in the south. He is identified with the star Canopus. To him is attributed the foundation of the science of Tamil grammar and medicine. None of his works are extant, though many books pass current under his name.

Languages of the Dakhan.

§ 4. Five languages were antiently enumerated as spoken in the Dakhan—Tamil, Kanarese, Telugu, Mahratta, and Uriya. To these we must add the language of the Gonds and other mountain races, with the Tuluva and Malayalim, which are dialects of the one antient Drâvidian language, of which Tamil, Kanarese, and Telugu are offshoots. These are independent of Sanskrit, though they have been enriched by copious additions from that language. Mahratta and Uriya are radically Sanskrit dialects.

The *Tuluva* is the language of South Kanara. It most resembles Kanarese; but contains a great admixture from all the vernaculars of South India.

The Tamil Kingdoms in the South.

§ 5. In the extreme south two kingdoms, both Tamil, existed—the Pândya and the Chôla. We are told that in

Early History of the South.

CHAP. IV. § 6-8.

the thirteenth century "not a span was free from cultivation" in these provinces. The Pândyan capital was Madura. That of the Chôla kingdom was Conjeveram (Kâncipuram).

Prop. *Madhura*.

The Pândya kingdom was probably founded in the fifth century B.C. Many traditions exist regarding the Pândyôns. Several of them were distinguished Tamil authors.

The last of the Pândyas was Kûna Pândya, whose probable date is the middle of the eleventh century A.D.

§ 6. In Madura the Nâyakan princes (the first of whom was *Visvand'tha*, probably from Vijaya-nagar, an officer of the famous Krishna Râya, 1559) ruled, till conquered in A.D. 1736 by the Nawâb of Arcot. It is said to have been in 1400 a city "like Delhi." Its rulers were perpetually at war with the Chôla kings.

Madura,
The Nâyakan
Princes.

The origin of the Poligars (= *tent-men*) of the south is thus told: *Visvand'tha* placed each of the seventy-two bastions of the Madura fort under a chief, to whom he assigned villages on feudal tenure. Their descendants were the Poligars of South India.

The greatest of these Nâyakan princes was *Tirumala*, who died in 1659.

In the Madura kingdom lived the three great Jesuit missionaries, Robert de Nobilibus (1606-1648), John de Britto (1674-1693), and R. C. Beschius (1726).

De Britto died a martyr, having been cruelly put to death by the Sêthupathi of Ramnad.

We learn from De Nobilibus that in 1610 the Madura college contained 10,000 students.

§ 7. The Chôla kingdom was in later times subject to Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar); and at length was merged in the Mahratta kingdom of Tanjore. (Ch. v. § 17.)

The Chôla
Kingdom

§ 8. The Çêra kingdom comprehended Travancore,

CH. IV. § 9-12.

Various Dynasties in the Centre and East.

The Çêra King-
dom

Malabâr, and Coimbatôr. It existed from the first to the tenth century A.D.

The Western Coast was probably colonised by Brâhmans from Hindûstân. The tradition is that Parasu Râma caused the sea to retire from the foot of the Ghât, and gave the districts of Malayalam, Malabâr, and Canara, thus recovered, to the Brâhmans.

The Zamorin.

In the ninth century the southern part broke up into many small principalities, one of which (Calicut) was ruled by the Zamorins in A.D. 1497, when Vasco da Gâma landed there. They continued to rule there till the invasion of (Hyder) Alî in 1766. Their ancestor is said to have been Mân Vikrama, a man of the cowherd caste.

(Ch. xii. § 16.)

The Ballâla
Râjpûts in the
Kanarese Coun-
try.

§ 9. A powerful dynasty called the family of Ballâla, who were Râjpûts, reigned over the Kanarese country in the eleventh century. Their capital was Dwâra Samudra (= *ocean-gate*), about 100 miles N.W. of Seringapatam. (Ch. xii. § 2.) They were subverted by the Mussulmâns, about A.D. 1310. (§ 17.)

The Telugu
Country.

§ 10. The Yâdavâs, from the ninth to the end of the twelfth century, ruled over the eastern portion of the Telugu country. These Yâdavâs were Râjpûts, and came from Kâttiwar. They ruled at Vijaya-nagar before the foundation of the great state there in 1336.

The Châlûkyas.
Kalyâna, in
the Map.

§ 11. Râjpûts of the Châlûkya tribe ruled in Kalyân, about 100 miles west of Hyderâbâd. The capital of one branch of this family was at one time Râjamandri (from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century). They finally fell under Warangal. Before that it is said to have been at Shrikâkola (Chicacole), and the dynasty is said to have been of the Pândava race.

§ 12. More important are the Kings of Andhra, or

The Mahratta Country.

CH. IV. § 13-15.

Telingâna, whose capital was Warangal (founded about A.D. 1088), about eighty miles east of Hyderâbâd. In A.D. 1323 Warangal was taken by the Muhammedans. (§ 19, p. 137.)

Warangal (or Orankal).

It soon regained its independence, and became the seat of the Râjas of Telingâna. They were at perpetual war with the Bâhminî kings, until Warangal was destroyed by Ahmed Shâh (A.D. 1435).

(Ch. ii. § 36)

§ 13. Orissa was governed by princes of the Kêsari family till A.D. 1131. The Gajapatis ruled in Kuttack till 1568. Râjas from the north, of a race called the "*Ganga Vansa*," are also mentioned. It was annexed by Akbar, A.D. 1578. (Ch. iii. § 6.)

Orissa.

§ 14. As belonging to the Mahratta country (Mahârâshtra = *great kingdom*), we read in the "Periplûs" (a Greek work, attributed to Arrian, and probably written in the second century A.D.), of Baryagaza (= *Baroach*), Plinthana (= *Paithun*), and Tagara (not now certainly known).

The Mahratta Country.

[The "Periplûs" describes a voyage from the Red Sea to Musiris, supposed to be Mangalore.]

Tagara was a famous Râjpût city, probably on the banks of the Godâvarî, a little N.E. of Bhîr, though some think that it was the modern Dowlâtâbâd. At Paithun, on the Godâvarî, reigned Sâlivâhana, said to have been the son of a potter, A.D. 77. This date forms the æra still in use south of the Nerbudda. From Paithun, the capital was, it seems, removed to Dêoghar, the modern Dowlâtâbâd.

Tagara.

Sâlivâhana, 77.

(*Paithun* is 32 miles from Aurungâbâd, on the N. Bank of the Godâvarî.)

Our knowledge of the Mahrattas dates from the combination and development of the race under Sivaji.

§ 15. In the beginning of the twelfth century, Râjas

Dowlâtâbâd.

CH. IV. § 16, 17.
A. D. 1294.

Allâ-ud-dîn-Khiljî, the Sanguinary. Kâfûr.

allied to the Ballâlas of Andhra, ruled in this Dêogiri (= *hill of the gods*), [Dêoghar, or Dowlatâbâd]. Some traditions trace these kings up to Sâlivâhana. The whole country at this period was divided among a great number of petty independent Râjas.

These were very wealthy, and the Dakhan seems to have enjoyed peace and prosperity under their rule.

Allâ-ud-dîn
Khiljî, 1294.

§ 16. Allâ-ud-dîn Khiljî (*the Sanguinary*), in A. D. 1294, with 8000 cavalry, marched through Berâr to Ellichpûr, and from thence to Dêogiri (Dêoghar), where Râm-dêo-Râo-jadow was then reigning. After a show of resistance the Râjpûts agreed to pay an immense ransom, and to cede Ellichpûr and its dependencies. The weakness of the Hindû states in the Dakhan was thus unveiled to the unscrupulous Mussulmân leaders; and the Muhammedans, by the unauthorised and rash zeal of Allâ, obtained a footing in the south. The student will notice that this beginning of the work, which Aurungzîb nearly accomplished, of bringing all India under one dominion, was contemporaneous with the attempt of Edward I. (1272-1307) to reduce all Great Britain under one dominion; a work which the union of the English and Scottish Parliaments, in A. D. 1707, the year of Aurungzîb's death, may be said to have accomplished. (Ch. ii. § 31.)

In surveying the ruins of the vast Muhammedan states, which from this time existed in the Dakhan, we must acknowledge that their existence there was unattended with any real benefit to the people.

Kâfûr's Expeditions.
(Malik = *king*.)

§ 17. Three great expeditions into the south were undertaken during the reign of Allâ-ud-dîn, under Malik Kâfûr (ch. ii. § 32), A. D. 1303, 1310, 1312.

Kâfûr seems to have taken Madura in the last of these expeditions.

In the course of these Râm-dêo was induced to visit

Khiljis and the Tughlaks.

CH. IV. § 18-20.
A.D. 1318.

Delhi, where his treatment was so generous, that he returned the attached and faithful vassal of the emperor. The Ballála Râjas of Karnata were also conquered. (§ 9.) Warangal made tributary, and the whole of the south ravaged as far as Râmêshwar (Râmiseram), where a mosque was built, as the sign of Muhammedan supremacy.

It seems doubtful whether the Râmêshwar here mentioned is not Cape Râmas, near Goa. This seems more probable.

§ 18. Harpâl, a son-in-law of Râm-dêo, strove to throw off the yoke; but was overcome and flayed alive by Mubârik Khiljî (A.D. 1318), who led the expedition himself. (Ch. ii. § 33.) At the same time Malabâr was conquered by Khûsrû, who avenged the crimes of Allâ-ud-dîn by the murder of every member of his family. (Ch. ii. § 33.)

Mubârik Khiljî,
1318.

Khûsrû.

§ 19. Jûna Khân, the second of the house of Tughlak, both before and after his accession, led armies into the Dakhan. (A.D. 1322-1356.)

Jûna Khân,
1322-1351.
(Ch. ii. § 34.)

After a severe repulse, he finally took Warangal. (A.D. 1323.) Fugitives from this place founded Vijaya-nagar (Bijanagar, § 7), on the banks of the Tûmbhadra, A.D. 1336. It was twenty-four miles in circumference, and its ruins are of the highest interest. From time immemorial there had been a Hindû city on this site.

Warangal.

Bijanagar.
(Sometimes called *Anna-gândî*. It is 29 miles N.W. of Bellary.)
Mâdhava Vidhyâranya.

Mâdhava Vidhyâranya, a learned Brâhman, was prime minister here, and is still a great authority in the south in philosophy and grammar. (A.D. 1336.)

This kingdom became the most powerful south of the Nerbudda. (§ 29.) From 1490 to 1515 it was at its zenith of prosperity, and ruled over the whole Carnatic.

Jûna Khân also took Bîdar.

The Great Revolt
in the Dakhan,

§ 20. As this emperor's reign was marked by the

CHAP. IV. § 21.
A. D. 1347.

The First Independent Muhammedan State.

in the time of
Jūna Khān,
1347.

This was the
time of Edward
III. and the
Black Prince.
Zuffir Khān.

The Foundation
of the Bāhminī
Dynasty, 1347.

establishment of the powerful Hindû kingdom of Vijayanagar, so was it also by the establishment of the *first independent* Muhammedan kingdom in the Dakhan. The Amîrs of the Dakhan had incurred the displeasure of Muhammed Khān, by sheltering some rebellious nobles from Gujarât. These broke out into rebellion, and at length ZUFFIR KHÂN, an Afgân, was recognised as their leader, and having overthrown the imperial general, was elected their sovereign. He had been the slave of a Brâhman called Gangu, who is said to have foretold his rise, and to have shown him singular kindness.

He assumed the title of Sultân Allâ-ud-dîn Hussain Gangu Bâhminî, the last two titles (= the Brâhman Gangu), being in honour of his old master and benefactor. This was A. D. 1347. The new sultân was wise and conciliating, as well as brave. He reigned for ten years, at peace with the Hindû kings.

The capital of this kingdom was *Kulbûrga*, west of Golconda, 107 miles W. from Hyderâbâd. Here was the seat of a very antient Hindû sovereignty.

This was the grand rebellion by which the power of Delhi was driven north of the Nerbudda, not to cross it again till the days of Akbar.

This kingdom was at its zenith in 1378 to 1422, under Mahmûd Shâh Bâhminî I., and his nephew Ferôz Shâh. The poet Hafiz, the Persian Horace, even set out to visit Kulbûrga ; but, frightened by a tempest, gave up the idea.

Ahmed Shâh Bâhminî builds Ahmedâbâd, Bîdar, in 1440.

Bîdar (Vidar'ha) was the capital in the very antient times of Bhîma Sēna, whose daughter Damayantî married Nala, so famous in Sanskrit poetry.

The Bâhminī
Kings from
1347-1526.

§ 21. This dynasty of Bâhminî kings, eighteen in number, reigned in the Dakhan for more than 150 years. (A. D. 1347 to 1526, see Table.)

The Bâhminî Kings of Kulbûrga.

CHAP. IV. § 21.
A. D. 1347-1526.

§ 21. The Bâhminî Kings of Kulbûrga (1347-1526).

		A. D.
I.	<i>Allâ-ud-dîn Hussain Gangu Bâhminî.</i> The founder,	1347-1358
II.	<i>Muhammed Shâh I.</i> Continual war with the Hindû kingdom of Bijanagar, in which half a million Hindûs perished,	1358-1375
III.	<i>Mujâhid.</i> Invaded the Carnatic. Assassinated,	1375-1378
IV.	<i>Dâud Shâh.</i> Assassinated after one month and five days,	1378
V.	<i>Mahmûd Shâh I.</i> Encourager of literature,	1378-1397
VI.	<i>Gheîâz-ud-dîn.</i> Assassinated,	1397
VII.	<i>Shams-ud-dîn.</i> Assassinated,	1397
VIII.	<i>Ferôz Shâh.</i> The most magnificent of the dynasty. Sent an embassy to Teimûr,	1397-1422
IX.	<i>Ahmed Shâh I.</i> Founded Ahmedâbâd, Bidar,	1422-1435
X.	<i>Allâ-ud-dîn II.,</i>	1435-1457
XI.	<i>Humâyûn Shâh Zalîm</i> (the Cruel),	1457-1461
XII.	<i>Nizâm Shâh,</i>	1461-1463
XIII.	<i>Muhammed Shâh II.,</i>	1463-1482
XIV.	<i>Mahmûd Shâh II.</i> Murder of Khâjî Jehân Gawân,	1482-1518
XV.	<i>Ahmed Shâh II.,</i>	1518-1520
XVI.	<i>Allâ-ud-dîn III.</i> Murdered,	1520-1522
XVII.	WULLI-ULLA-SHÂH (a pensioner),	1522-1526
XVIII.	KULLÎM-ULLA-SHÂH. Died a pensioner in Ahmednagar,	1526

CII. IV. § 23, 24.
A.D. 1489-1689.

The Kings of Bijapûr and Ahmednagar.

§ 23. The *Âdil Shâhî* Kings of *Bijapûr* (1489-1686).

		A. D.
I.	<i>Yusuf Âdil Shâh</i> . The Portuguese establish themselves in Goa,	1489-1510
II.	<i>Ismael</i> . Conqueror of Bidar,	1510-1534
III.	<i>Mullâ</i> ,	1534
IV.	<i>Ibrahim I.</i>	1534-1557
V.	<i>Ali</i> . Destruction of Bijanagar. Husband of <i>Chând Bibi</i> ,	1557-1579
VI.	<i>Ibrahim II.</i> Splendid mausoleum,	1579-1626
VII.	<i>Muhammed</i> . Continual struggles with Sivajî. Splendid mausoleum,	1626-1656
VIII.	<i>Ali Âdil Shâh</i> ,	1656-1672
IX.	<i>Sikander</i> . A prisoner,	1672-1689

§ 24. The *Nizâm Shâhî* Kings of *Ahmednagar*.

		A. D.
I.	<i>Ahmed Nizâm Shâh</i> ,	1490-1508
II.	<i>Burhân I.</i> A distinguished scholar,	1508-1553
III.	<i>Husain</i> . Battle of Talikôt. Father of <i>Chând Bibi</i> ,	1553-1565
IV.	<i>Murteza I.</i> (the "Madman"). The great minister <i>Sajâbat Khân</i> died 1589,	1565-1584
V.	<i>Mîrân Husain</i> (the "Parricide"),	1584
VI.	<i>Ismael</i> ,	1584-1589
VII.	<i>Burhân II.</i> ,	1589-1594
VIII.	<i>Ibrahim</i> ,	1594
IX.	<i>Ahmed II.</i> ,	1594-1590
X.	<i>Bahâdar</i> . (<i>Chând Bibi</i>),	1590-1590
XI.	<i>Murteza II.</i> <i>Malik Ambar</i> . Annexed,	1637

Dismemberment of the Great Bâhminî Dominions.

CH. IV. § 22, 23.
A. D. 1526.

The date of its extinction (A. D. 1526) is remarkable also as the date of the foundation of the Mogul Empire in India. (Ch. iii. § 1.) The last real king of the dynasty was Muhammed II. (1463-1486), who subdued Amber Râi of Orissa, and added the Konkan to his dominions, 1477. Mahmûd II., his successor, was a weak prince. Khâji Jehân Gawân, was the able minister of Muhammed II. He took Conjeveram. By him the kingdom was divided into eight provinces. He was treacherously slain.

Khâji Gawân.

§ 22. The governors of the provinces into which this great Dakhani kingdom was divided after the murder of Gawân, made themselves independent at different periods after A. D. 1489, thus forming, with the Bîjanagar kingdom, six powerful kingdoms of the Dakhan, which the successors of Bâber eventually subjugated. The struggles between the Muhammedan powers in the Dakhan and the Mogul emperors afforded an opportunity to the Mahrattas, as we shall see, to rise upon the ruins of both. No greater misfortune could have befallen the Mussulmân dominion than this civil strife.

Six Dakhan
Kingdoms.

§ 23. Âdil Shâh founded the Bîjapûr kingdom, A. D. 1489. From him this dynasty was called the Âdil Shâhî. The kingdom survived till 1686, when it was destroyed by Aurungzîb. (Ch. iii. § 9, see Table.)

The Bîjapûr
Kingdom, 1489-
1686.

The founder, Yusûf Âdil Shâh, was descended from Agha Morâd (Amurath II.) of Constantinople. He was a great Omrah of Muhammed Shâh II. of Kulbûrga.

Yusûf Âdil Shâh.

Its struggles with Sivajî are related in chap. v. § 12, &c. The Mahrattas were very numerous in the armies of this state. The Muhammedan kings fomented dissensions among the Hindû tribes.

The splendid ruins of Bîjapûr still bear witness to the extraordinary grandeur of the city. The dome of the

The Ruins of
Bîjapûr.

CH IV. § 24-26.
A. D. 1490.

Ahmednagar. Golconda. Berâr.

tomb of Muhammed Âdil Shâh is 130 feet in diameter, little less than that of St Peter's at Rome. The limits of the Bijapûr state may be roughly stated to have been from the Nira on the north to the Tûmbhadra on the south, and from the Bîma and Kishtna on the east, to the sea from Goa to Bombay on the west. (See Map.)

Ferishta, the great historian, resided at the court of Ibrahim Âdil Shâh II., from 1589 to his death, which happened about 1612. (Ch. iii. § 6 [23].)

Ahmednagar
Kingdom, 1490-
1637.

§ 24. The second of these kingdoms was that of *Ahmednagar*, governed by the Nizâm Shâhî dynasty. This was founded by Malik Ahmed, son of Nizâm-ul-Mulk Byherî, an apostate Brâhman of Bijapûr, who chiefly brought about the murder of Gawân. He asserted his independence in A. D. 1490. This kingdom remained till 1637, when it was finally destroyed by Shâh Jehân. The history of the sieges of Ahmednagar and its capture in 1600, will be found in chap. iii. § 21. (See Table.)

For the history of Malik Ambar, see chap. iii. § 7 (5).

The dominion of this state extended over the Sûbâh of Aungûbâd and West Berâr, with a portion of the Konkan from Damân to Bombay. Ferishta was born in Ahmednagar about 1570, and left that kingdom for Bijapûr in 1589.

The Golconda
Kingdom, 1572-
1678.
(*Golconda* is a
fortress on a
hill, 3 miles
W N. W from
Hyderâbâd.)

§ 25. The Golconda, or Kutb Shâhî dynasty, was the third of the Dakhani Mussulmân kingdoms. It was founded by Kutb-ul-Mulk in 1512. It extended from Bijapûr and Ahmednagar to the sea on the east. The kingdom of Golconda was finally subverted by Aurungzîb, A. D. 1687. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

The Patân chiefs of Savanûr, Kûrpa, and Kurnûl, made themselves virtually independent after this.

The Berâr King-
dom, 1484-1574.

§ 26. The Berâr kingdom was founded in 1484, by

The Hindu Kingdom of Vijaya-nagar.

CH. IV. § 27-29.
A.D. 1484.

Fath-Ullâ Ummad-ul-Mulk, and in 1574 was annexed to the Ahmednagar state. The dynasty was called the Ummad-Shâhî. The capital was Ellichpûr.

(Or *Imâd Shâhî*.)

§ 27. It is sufficient to name the Barîd Shâhî dynasty, whose capital was Ahmedâbâd-Bîdar, and the kingdom of Kândêsh, to which Burhânpûr belonged, and which in 1599 was incorporated by Akbar. (Ch. iii. § 22.)

Barîd Shâhî.

NOTE.—BÎDAR is seventy-three miles from Hyderâbâd. Its walls were six miles in circumference. (‡ 20.)

§ 28. The history of these kingdoms of the Dakhan is connected with that of the Portuguese, from A.D. 1498 till the middle of the seventeenth century. (See ch. vi.)

Portuguese in
the Dakhan,
1498.

§ 29. The Hindû kingdom of Vijaya-nagar (Bîjanagar or Narsinga) long maintained its place among the powers of the Dakhan. To Europeans it was known, strangely enough, as the kingdom of Narasinga. Its limits nearly corresponded with those of the Madras Presidency. This *Nara-singha* founded a new dynasty in 1490. He built the forts of Chandragiri and Vellora (*vêlûr* = *javelin town*). But in 1565, the jealousy of the Muhammedan kings of Bîjapûr, Ahmednagar, Golconda, and Bîdar, led them to combine to effect its destruction. They were Alî Adil Shâh, Husain Nizâm Shâh, Ibrahim Kutb Shâh, and Alî Barîd.

Vijaya-nagar, or
Bîjanagar, or
Narasinga.The Confederate
Muhammedan
Kings.

The king then was Râm Râja, the seventh of the dynasty of Narsinga, son-in-law of the Krishna Râya, famous in the vernacular literature of the south.

Râm Râja.

A battle took place at Talikôt on the Kishtna. The confederates behaved with great barbarity after their victory. Râm Râja's head was exhibited at Bîjapûr for a hundred years after, covered with oil and red paint.

Battle of Talikôt,
1565.
(The Flodden
Field of the Hin-
dûs of South
India.)

The Hindû provinces subject to the Vijaya-nagar king-

CHAP. IV. § 30.
A. D. 1565.

Broken up into Various Histories.

dom now fell into the hands of Naicks (Nâyakar), Zemindârs, or Poligârs (= *tent-men*).

The Bijanagar kingdom was, however, perpetuated in a feeble way at Ponkonda, Vellora, Chingleput, and Chandragiri. The ruins of Bijanagar are at *Humpi*.

The brother of Râm Râja settled at Chandragiri, eighty miles N.W. of Madras, near Tripetti. He made a grant to the English, in A. D. 1640, of the site of the city of Madras (ch. vii. § 6, *l.*), on the payment of an annual rent of twelve hundred pagodas. Seven years after this, he was a fugitive; and his conqueror, the Sultân of Golconda, gave the English a new lease on the same terms.

§ 30. The history of the Dakhan will now fall under the following topics, which will be considered in their places:—

(1.) The efforts of the Mogul emperors to subjugate the Muhammedan kingdoms of the Dakhan, from A. D. 1595 (AKBAR) to A. D. 1688, when the work was nominally completed by Aurungzib, twenty years before his death. (Ch. iii. § 6 [20], &c.) The Mahrattas were, however, never really conquered by this emperor. He reduced the Muhammedan kingdoms, but their subjugation gave ampler scope to the rising Mahratta power. We have therefore,

(2.) The Mahratta history. (Ch. v.) The Mahrattas rule in Delhi, and were only hindered by Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî from swaying all India.

(3.) During the reign of the twelfth Mogul emperor, the empire fell to pieces. At this period we have the establishment of the power of the Sûbadâr of the Dakhan on an independent footing by Nizâm-ul-mulk, A. D. 1723. (Ch. iii. § 12, &c.)

(4.) In the south, of almost equal importance is the history of Mysore. (Ch. xii.) Hyder and Tippû maintain a long struggle with Mahrattas and English. The conquest

Struggles of the French and English.

CHAP. IV. § 30.
circa 1761.

of Mysore rendered the issue of the Mahratta wars certain.

(5.) But the most important portion of Dakhan history is that of the struggles of the French and English in the Carnatic, which result, after many brilliant achievements, in the establishment of the authority of the latter over all the South of India. (Ch. viii.)

CHAP. V. § 1.
A. D. 1627.

Six Divisions of Mahratta History.

CHAPTER V.

The History of the Mahrattas, from the birth of Sivaji,
A. D. 1627, to the present time.

Summary of
Mahratta His-
tory.

Aurungzib.

Shâh Alum I.
Muhammed
Shâh.
Shâh Alum II.
Warren Hast-
ings.

Marquis Wel-
lesley.

Lord Hastings.

§ 1. To make the summary of Mahratta history more intelligible, it is necessary to divide it into six periods :—

I. Their founder, or rather temporary restorer, Sivaji's life, A. D. 1627-1680.

II. From Sivaji's death to the liberation of Sâhu, 1680-1708, on the death of Aurungzib.

III. To the (third) *second* battle of Pânipat, 1761.

IV. From 1761 to 1774, and the FIRST MAHRATTA WAR (with the English), 1774 to 1782. PÂNIPAT to SALBÂI.

V. From 1782 to 1803, and the SECOND and THIRD MAHRATTA (*English*) WARS, 1803, 1804, and 1805. BASSEIN and ASSAÏ.

VI. Minor events subsequent to A. D. 1805, including the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR.

CHAP. V. § 7.
A.D. 1627.

The Ancestors of Sivajî. Shâhji.

the "subsidiary system" gave peace to the land. (Ch. x. § 36.)

§ 7. There were many very respectable and wealthy chiefs among the Mahrattas in the times of the early Muhammedan kings; and multitudes of Mahrattas were in their armies, and even in civil employments under them.

The Bhonslê
Family.

Râjpûts by
Descent.

Sivajî's Grand-
father.
(Ch. iv. § 23.)

Shâhji.

Supposed Pre-
diction of Sivajî's
Greatness.

Shâhji in Bija-
pûr, 1637.

Shâjî in the
Dakhan.

One family especially, of the name of *Bhonslê*, which traced its descent from the royal house of Oudipûr, had its principal residence at Verôle (or Ellôra), near Dowlât-âbâd. Of that family was the renowned SIVAJÎ MAHÂ RÂJA (Table, § 27). His father was Malojî, commander of a party of horse in the service of Murteza Nizâm Shâh (A.D. 1577). Their tutelary divinity was the goddess Bhavânî of Tôljapûr.

Malojî's eldest son was Shâhji. He was high in favour in the Ahmednagar court. It was told him by the goddess, according to Mahratta legends, that one of his family should become king, restore Hindû customs, protect Brâhmans and kine, and be the first of a line of twenty-seven rulers of the land. Shâhji fought under Malik Ambar, and in the wars of the Bijapûr Government against Muhâbet Khân. [Ch. iii. § 7 (5).]

In 1637, when the Ahmednagar dynasty was finally destroyed, Shâhji sought employment under the Bijapûr Government, of which Muhammed Âdil Shâh was then the king. [Ch. iv. § 24; ch. iii. § 8 (4).]

He was then sent into the Carnatic, where a jâghîr, consisting of the districts of Kolâr, Bangalore, Ooskotta, Bâlapûr, and Séra, was given him. He never returned to reside in the Dakhan.

NOTE.—1. KOLÂR (Colar), town and district; forty miles E.N.E. from Bangalore. This was the birthplace of Hyder.

2. BANGALORE, seventy miles N.E. from Seringapatam.

3. OOSKOTTA, sixteen miles N.E. from Bangalore.

4. SÉRA, ninety-two miles N. by E. from Seringapatam.

5. BÂLAPÛR, twenty-three miles N. from Bangalore.

Sivaji's Early Training.

CHAP. V. § 8-11.
A. D. 1627.

§ 8. He had three legitimate sons, Sambajî, who was with him, and SIVAJÎ, who lived chiefly with his mother Jijî Bâi. Venkajî, sometimes called Êkojî, the third son, was by a second wife. He seems to have occupied Tanjore in 1675.

Shâhji's Sons.

The history is now chiefly concerned with Sivajî, *who may be considered the founder of the Mahratta power, or rather the restorer of that Hindû power which had existed in Déoghar before Allâ the Sanguinary invaded the Dakhan.*

§ 9. Sivajî was born at the fort of Sewnerî, near Junîr, in A. D. 1627, the year in which Jehângîr died.

Sivaji's Birth and Early Training, 1627-1646. (48 miles N. of Pûna.)
His Guardian.

When his father left for the Carnatic, he remained under the guardianship of a Brâhman manager, called Dadajî Konedêo, a faithful and intelligent servant of Shâhji. The jâghîr under his management, which was the foundation of Sivajî's fortunes, consisted of twenty-two villages south of Satârâ, the districts Indâpûr and Barâmatî, and the Mâwals near Pûna.

His Hereditary Jâghîr.

In 1636 Prince Aurungzib was temporarily appointed Viceroy of the Dakhan for the first time. (Ch. iii.)

Aurungzib in the Dakhan, 1636.

§ 10. Sivajî was early taught all that it was considered necessary for a Mahratta chieftain to know, but he never could write his name. He was brought up a zealous Hindû, thoroughly versed in the mythological and legendary stories current among his countrymen.

Early Training of Sivaji.

His hatred of Muhammedans prepared him for that life of intense hostility to Aurungzib which he led.

Hostility to Muhammedans.

§ 11. From his boyhood he seems to have planned his after career; and he was but nineteen years of age when he seized the hill-fort of Tornea, twenty miles S.W. of Pûna.

Tornea, 1646. (Battle of Marston Moor, 1644. Comp. Cromwell's Rise.)
Treasure.

He found a large treasure in the ruins near this fort; and this he spent in building another, which he called Raighur.

CH. V. § 12, 13.
A. D. 1646.

Sivaji's Early Exploits.

"*The Mountain Rat.*"

Born in a fort, his greatness arose from his forts, and in a fort he died. From this circumstance Aurungzib contemptuously called him "a mountain rat."

Sivaji's Rapid Progress.

§ 12. His advance was now rapid. He obtained possession of Kondaneh (Singhur), Sôpa, and Pâraudar. Meanwhile he tried every art to deceive the Bijapûr authorities, who probably thought they could crush him whenever they pleased.

His Contests with Bijapûr.

Muhammed Âdil Shâh was still King of Bijapûr.

Shâhjî, Sivaji, and the King of Bijapûr.

His suspicions being at length roused by the acts of open violence to which Sivaji proceeded, he sent for Shâhjî, built him up in a stone dungeon, leaving only a small aperture, which was to be closed if, in a fixed time, Sivaji did not surrender himself.

Sivaji's Intrigues with Shâh Jehân.

Sivaji now boldly entered into correspondence with Shâh Jehân, who by his artful representations was induced to forgive Shâhjî, admit him into the imperial service, and to give Sivaji himself the command of 5000 horse.

By the emperor's intercession Shâhjî's life was saved, but he remained a prisoner for four years.

Sivaji avails himself of the disturbed state of affairs, 1651.

§ 13. Sivaji evaded the fulfilment of his promise to enter the imperial service, and in A. D. 1651 actually carried his marauding expeditions into the Mogul territory.

In 1652, Prince Aurungzib for the second time became Viceroy of the Dakhan, and invaded the territories of Golconda and Bijapûr. (Ch. iii.)

Sivaji now attacked both parties by turns, and availed himself of every turn of fortune to increase his power and possessions.

The Murder of Afzal Khân.

CHAP. V. § 14.
A. D. 1656.

In 1656, Muhammed Âdil Shâh died, and was succeeded by his son, Ali Âdil Shâh, a youth of nineteen.

(Ch. iv. § 23.)

§ 14. In 1659, the Bijapûr Government made an attempt to crush Sivaji, which he rendered unsuccessful by an act of treachery celebrated in Mahratta history,—*the murder of Afzal Khân.*

The treacherous
Murder of Afzal
Khân, 1659.

This officer allowed himself to be enticed by Sivaji's pretended humility into the wild country in the neighbourhood of Pertabghar, where Sivaji then was. By bribing Afzal Khân's Brâhman messenger, he induced that unfortunate and unwary officer to consent to a conference below the fort, where the jungle was purposely cut away.

(Pertabghar is
41 miles S.S.W.
from Pûna.)

Sivaji's adherents were disposed in the neighbouring thickets, and everything arranged for the effectual crushing of the Bijapûr troops. At the appointed time Afzal Khân, armed only with a sword, advanced in his palanquin to the interview, with only one armed attendant.

Sivaji had prepared himself for this morning's work by seeking his mother's blessing, performing his religious duties with scrupulous accuracy; and had put on complete armour beneath his cotton dress. In his right sleeve was a dagger called the *Bichwa*, or scorpion, from its shape. On the finger of his left hand was a *Wagnuck*, a steel instrument with three crooked blades, resembling the claw of a tiger. He now, with studied dissimulation, advanced, manifesting every sign of timidity; and, to encourage him, Afzal Khân dismissed his one attendant.

They met, and in the midst of the customary embrace Sivaji struck the *wagnuck* into the bowels of Afzal Khân, who was despatched after a short resistance.

The signal for the onset was now given, and the Bijapûr troops were surrounded and cut up. Sivaji, as was his wont, treated the prisoners with humanity.

The decisive advantage gained by this act of detestable treachery greatly benefited Sivaji's position, and estab-

Sivaji's Reputa-
tion for Cunning
and Daring.

CH. V. § 15, 16.

A.D. 1662.

Sivaji's Dominions in 1662.

lished his reputation among a people to whom cunning was the highest excellence.

Sivaji in 1662.

(The S. Warda, rising near Honāwar, and falling into the Tūmbhadra near Savanūr.)

§ 15. Without giving details of his campaigns, we may briefly state that, by the end of 1662, he possessed the Konkan from Kalyān to Goa, about 250 miles of coast; and the table-land above from the Bīma to the Warda, about 160 miles in length, and in breadth at its widest, from Sôpa to Jinjîra, about 100 miles. (See map.) Through the intervention of his father he now was at peace with Alî Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr. He took up his abode at this period in Raighur.

Aurungzib was lying sick at this time. (Ch. iii. § 9 [5].) Bombay had just been ceded to the English. (Ch. vii. § 6.) The Portuguese had ceased to be feared or respected. (Ch. vi. § 20.)

His Affair with Shayista Khân, 1662. (He was Viceroy of Bengâl in 1663.)

§ 16. Shayista Khân (ch. iii.) was now Viceroy of the Dakhan, and Sivaji, at peace with Bijapûr, attacked the Moguls and ravaged the country to Aurungâbâd, where the viceroy lived.

Shayista Khân marched southward, and, after storming Châkûn, took up his abode in Pûna, in the very house where Sivaji was brought up.

The Surprise of Shayista Khân.

Sivaji now performed one of those exploits which more than anything else make his name famous among his countrymen. With a part of his men at nightfall he slipped unperceived into the city, mingling with a marriage procession, passed through the out-offices of the well-known house, and almost surprised the Khân in his bed-chamber. The Mogul escaped with the loss of two fingers, but his son and attendants were slain. Sivaji made off, and ascended his hill-fort of Singhur (twelve miles off) amidst a blaze of torches. If this adventure did nothing else, it inspirited his men, and taught them to despise the Moguls.

Sivaji's Assumption of the title of Râja.

CH. V. § 17-19.
A. D. 1663.

§ 17. His next exploit was the sack of Sûrat. (Ch. vii. § 6.) This was particularly offensive to Aurungzib, as pilgrims to Mecca embarked from Sûrat, hence called Bâb-ul-Makkah, *the gate of Mecca*.

The Sack of
Sûrat, 1663.

In 1664 Shâhji died. He was possessed, at his death, of Arni, Porto Novo, and Tanjore, in addition to his jâghîr. This was the foundation of the Tanjore kingdom.

Death of Shâhji,
1664.
(§ 7; 12; 27.)

Sivaji at this time assumed the title of Râja and began to coin money. He also collected a fleet of eighty-five ships, sailed down the coast, sacked Barcelôr, and plundered the adjacent country. He even attacked some vessels conveying pilgrims to Mecca, and thus doubly roused the indignation of Aurungzib, ever the champion of the Muhammedan faith.

Sivaji's Naval
Affairs.

§ 18. The emperor now sent Râja Jey Sing (of Jeypûr) and Dilîr Khân into the Dakhan to chastise Sivaji, and to reduce Bijapûr. Jeswant Sing and Prince Moazzim returned to Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

Sivaji's Submis-
sion.

Sivaji after a while submitted, and surrendered twenty of his forts, retaining twelve as a jâghîr from the emperor. His son Sambaji was to become a commander of 5000 horse in the Mogul army. He was also to have certain assignments of revenues, called chout (or *the fourth*), and Surdêshmukhî (or 10 per cent), on some districts of Bijapûr. This was the ground for the ill-defined claims of the Mahrattas in after times to plunder and extort monies from the inhabitants of every province of the empire.

Foundation of
Mahratta Claims.

Sivaji then joined the imperial army, and so distinguished himself in the invasion of Bijapûr that the emperor wrote him a complimentary letter, and invited him to Delhi.

§ 19. Sivaji accordingly, in March 1666, with his son set out for the court.

Sivaji in Delhi,
1666.

CH. V. § 20-22.
A.D. 1666.

Aurungzib in vain tries to Subdue him.

His Escape.

Aurungzib received him haughtily; and Sivajî, finding himself slighted, and, in fact, a prisoner, contrived to escape with Sambajî, and reached Raighur in December. (Shâh Jehân died that month. Ch. iii. § 9.)

Bad Policy.

Thus did the emperor foolishly lose an opportunity of converting an enemy into a firm friend and vassal.

Sivajî again In-
dependent.

§ 20. Jey Sing was unsuccessful in his attacks on Bijapûr, and was recalled. Sultân Moazzim was made Viceroy of the Dakhan, and Jeswant Sing accompanied him. Dilîr Khân remained also as a check on both. Such was Aurungzib's jealous policy.

Sivajî now openly, for a time, resumed his old attitude of defiance; but soon, through the intercession of Jeswant Sing, obtained most favourable terms from Aurungzib, and in fact was left in perfect independence, though doubtless this was done with the intention of crushing him when an opportunity should present itself.

In 1668 he compelled the courts of Bijapûr and Golconda to pay him tribute.

He employed the years 1668 and 1669 in revising and completing the internal arrangements of his kingdom.

The Mahratta
Kingdom
founded.

The Storm of
Raighur.

§ 21. At this time Sultân Moazzim and Jeswant Sing were regularly receiving money from Sivajî. This coming to the knowledge of Aurungzib, he wrote to threaten both with punishment, if the "mountain rat" were not seized. Sivajî, now roused into activity, began to seize upon the forts around. Especially is the storming of Raighur famous, in which affair Tannajî Malusraî, one of his most famous warriors, was slain. He also a second time sacked Sûrat, but the English again successfully defended their factory.

The Second Sack
of Sûrat,
October 1670.

Sivajî En-
throned, 1674.

§ 22. In 1674 Sivajî was solemnly enthroned at Raighur. He was then weighed against gold, and the sum,

Sivaji's Expedition to the Carnatic.

CH. V. § 23-25.
A. D. 1674.

16,000 pagodas (about ten stone), given to Bráhmans. From that time he assumed the most high-sounding titles, and maintained more than royal dignity in all his actions.

Sivaji a Rája.

At the time of his enthronement, Mr Henry Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1707-1709), was at Raighur negotiating a treaty between Sivaji and the English.

The former agreed, among other things, to give compensation to the English for their losses at Rájapûr.

§ 23. In 1676 Sivaji undertook his celebrated expedition into the Carnatic. His object was to enforce his claims to half the possessions of Sháhji.

His Carnatic Expedition, 1676.

In his way he had an interview with Kutb Sháh of Golconda, when a treaty was negotiated between them.

An instance of the immense hold which superstition had on his mind occurred on this march. He visited a temple of Bhaváni on his route, and was wrought up to such a pitch of enthusiasm by the penances and ceremonies he performed there, that he drew his sword to sacrifice himself before the image of the goddess. He was prevented from consummating the sacrifice, and his future victories and glories were announced by the priests of the temple.

His Superstition.

§ 24. He soon made himself master of the whole of his father's jâghîr, took Gingî, Vellora, and many places in the neighbourhood, and came to an agreement with his half-brother Venkaji, or Êkoji, then in Tanjore, by which a portion of the revenues of the whole territory in his possession was to be paid him annually.

Sivaji's Conquests in the South, 1677.

In Tanjore, 1677.

On his return he plundered Jâlna, and was attacked by Dilîr Khân's orders on his way to Raighur with the plunder; but succeeded in beating off his assailants and making his escape. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

§ 25. Sivaji had now a great affliction in the bad conduct of his son, Sambaji; who, being put under restraint

His Son Sambaji.

CH. V. § 26, 27.
A. D. 1680.

Sivaji's Death. Sambaji's Worthless Character.

for outrageous conduct, actually went over to Dilîr Khân, who strove to use him in the furtherance of intrigues against his father ; but, on the emperor ordering that he should be sent a prisoner to Delhi, the Mogul general connived at his escape.

His Death, 1680.

§ 26. Sivaji's last days drew near. He died at Raighur of fever, brought on by a swelling in his knee-joint, on the 5th April 1680.

His Character.

To Sivaji must be conceded a high place among the men who have accomplished great things, and whose name and fame will endure.

His Descendants Feeble.

With him the dynasty may be said to have fallen. None of his descendants had any vigour or ability.

Mahratta greatness depended on the feudatory chieftains and officers of the kingdom.

II. MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE DEATH OF SIVAJÎ (1680) TO THE LIBERATION OF SÂHU (1708).

The Second Râja, Sambaji, 1680-1689.

§ 27. Sambaji succeeded to the throne, after overcoming a faction that wished to supersede him, and to set up Râja Râm, a younger son. (See Table.)

His Cruelty.

He began his reign under most unfavourable circumstances. His father had foreseen the troubles that his unrestrained passions would bring on his people. He began by putting to death Soyera Bâi, the mother of Râja Râm, and by this and other executions gained a character for relentless cruelty.

§ 27. TABLE OF MAHRATTA RĀJAS.

SHĀHJĪ § 7.

I. SIVAJĪ (A.D. 1627-1680). § 9-26.

II. SAMAJĪ. Killed 1689. § 32.
 III. SIVAJĪ II. or SĀHJĪ. Regent 1690. Released 1708. Died 1748. § 38-59.

RĀJĀ RĀJ = TĀRĀ BĀI. § 34.
 Regent 1690. Died 1700.

SIVAJĪ. Died 1712.

SAKARJĪ (I.) § 47.

IV. RĀJ RĀJĀ. § 59.
 Died 1777.

Founder of the Kolhāpūr State, 1729. Died 1760.

V. SĀHJĪ II. § 94.

His adopted son SIVAJĪ (II.) succeeded. Died 1812.

VI. PĀRĀJĀ S. § 164.
 Deposed 1839. Died 1847.

VII. APRĀ S. 1848.
 Lapsed.

ABĀ SĀHEB (III.).
 Died 1822.

BAWĀ S. (IV.) Died 1837.
 SIVAJĪ, or
 BARĀ SĀHEB.

THE MAHRATTAS IN TANJORE.
 I. ĒKĀJĪ, or VENKĀJĪ (half-brother of SIVAJĪ) 1837.
 First overthrew the native RĀjās of Tanjore.

II. SIVAJĪ

III. SĀHJĪ

IV. TOKAJĪ

SAHJĪ. Ch. vii. § 7 (17).

BARĀ SĀHEB.

PĀRĀJĀ SING (illegitimate).

Usurped the throne, 1741.

TĒLĀJĪ (died in 1787).

AKHĀ SING, deposed in 1799.

SĀHJĪ (1799-1832).

SIVAJĪ, died in 1855.

NOTE.—The chief dates are 1637, 1773, 1800, 1855 (comp. ch. x. § 44).

CH. V. § 28-32.
A. D. 1683.

Sambaji's Defeat.

Prince Akbar.

§ 28. As he had been a fugitive from his father, so now Muhammed Akbar, the fourth son of Aurungzib, fled to him for refuge.

This prince, after engaging in several fruitless attempts to overthrow his father's power, disgusted at Sambaji's character and conduct, quitted his protection in 1688, and passed over to Persia, where he died in 1706. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

Aurungzib's
Great Expedition.

§ 29. Sambaji besieged Jinjira, but in vain, and was engaged in petty hostilities with the Portuguese and English, when tidings reached him of the design of Aurungzib to undertake the subjugation of the entire Dakhan. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

Aurungzib in
Burhânpûr, 1683.

Sultân Moazzim was sent as Viceroy to Aurungâbâd for the fourth time, and the emperor soon followed (A. D. 1683), and took up his abode at Burhânpûr.

Wars with the
Portuguese.

§ 30. Sambaji's wars with the Portuguese were distinguished by the barbarities committed by both parties: neither gained any decided success.

The Brâhman
Kulusha.

§ 31. Sambaji's minister was a Brâhman called Kulusha, who was learned, but totally unfit to govern a great state. The Râja himself was brave, but imprudent; and, when not in the field, gave himself up to the most degrading vices.

Sambaji's De-
bauchery.

§ 32. During all Aurungzib's victorious course from 1683 to 1689, Sambaji was most unaccountably in a state of nearly total inactivity.

His Capture.

He was finally surprised in a state of intoxication at Sangamêshwar, with Kulusha.

Sambaji was offered his life on condition of becoming a Mussulmân. "Tell the emperor," said he, "that if he

SÁHU. RÁJA RÂM. TÀRA BÂI.

CH. V. § 33-35.
A.D. 1689.

will give me his daughter, I will do so." He added words of bitter insult to Muhammed.

The enraged emperor ordered a red-hot iron to be passed over his eyes, his tongue to be torn out, and his head to be cut off. He and his minister suffered at Tolapûr, in August 1689.

His death aroused the Mahrattas to form schemes of vengeance, but did not daunt them.

§ 33. Sambajî left a son six years old, whose name was Sivajî; he is known in history by the name of Sâhu (Shâo), meaning thief, a nickname given to him by the emperor. This boy and his mother were taken prisoners soon after. He remained a prisoner till after Aurungzâb's death. He is considered the third Râja of the Mahrattas.

His Death, 1689.
The Murder of Sambaji and of Kulusha, 1689.

The Third Râja.
Sâhu.

His Names.

§ 34. Meanwhile Râja Râm, the half-brother of Sambajî, was declared regent, and making a rapid flight, established his court at Gingî. Thither the emperor first despatched Zulfikâr Khân and Dâûd Khân Pannî [Ch. iii. § 9 (12)], and afterwards the Prince Kâm Baksh; but owing to various intrigues, the place was not taken till 1698, and then Râja Râm was allowed to escape and take refuge in Visâlgurh.

The Regent
Râja Râm.

In 1700 the emperor in person took Satârâ; and in the same year Râja Râm died.

Satârâ taken,
1700.

His widow, Târa Bâi, assumed the regency, and the strife between the Moguls and Mahrattas was kept up till the emperor's death.

Târa Bâi.

§ 35. The contrast between the splendour of the Mogul camp and army and the rude and irregular hordes of the Mahrattas at this time is very striking. The emperor's army consisted chiefly of a vast assemblage of choice cavalry, men of imposing stature and appearance, splendidly armed and mounted, and chosen from every province

The Splendour
of the Moguls.

CH. V. § 36, 37.
A.D. 1700.

The Moguls and Mahrattas Compared.

The Mogul Encampment.

of the empire. He had also large bodies of well-disciplined infantry, and his artillery was served by European gunners. Vast numbers of elephants attended the army. The accounts given of the pomp and luxury of the camp are well-nigh incredible. Enormous tents reproduced all, and more than all, the splendours of the palaces of Âgra and Delhi. In his encampment the emperor was surrounded with greater magnificence than probably any potentate of any age or nation. And it is still more astonishing to learn that an exact duplicate of all the encampment was provided, so that when the army was on its march, the emperor and his court found at each halting-place the whole apparatus of luxury and state.

Its Prodigious Luxury.

The Expense.

The expense must have been enormous, and exhausted the revenues of Hindûstân. Meanwhile the sight of all this display was intended to strike awe into the minds of the various nations of the Dakhan.

The Mahratta Encampment.

§ 36. To us the rude encampment of the Mahrattas presents a more interesting subject of contemplation; for, in the long run, these were the conquerors. There, a few thousand irregular horsemen, assembled in some wild region, with little provision and no superfluities of any kind. They slept with their horses' bridles in their hands, swords by their sides, and their spears stuck into the ground by their horses' heads, with a blanket or horse-cloth extended on the point of their spears for a shade. Their one idea was plunder, and the caravans with supplies and treasure, which were always on their way from Hindûstân, afforded them rich and constant booty.

Mahratta Manners.

Aurungzib's Last Years.
The one real Man.

§ 37. It was thus that the last years of Aurungzib were passed. Zulfikâr Khân distinguished himself greatly, amidst the sloth, corruption, and vice of the Mogul armies.

Degeneracy of the Moguls.

The emperor was old. He had trusted none, and was beloved by none. His sons were prepared to contest the

Aurungzib's Last Struggles.

CHAP. V. § 38.
A. D. 1707.

throne upon his death. Everywhere was uncertainty, distrust, and confusion; yet the emperor persisted to the last in his endeavours to reduce the Mahrattas. Fort after fort was stormed; but the depredations of the Mahrattas multiplied and extended in every direction. Patriotism and the lust of plunder were the motives that kept them on the alert. The Moguls were degenerating fast; and it became daily more evident that the death of the emperor would be the signal for a general breaking up of the decayed empire. On one occasion, the year before Aurungzib's death, his armies sustained a complete defeat, and the aged emperor himself narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. He now returned to Ahmednagar, where he died, February 21, 1707. (Ch. iii. § 9.)

His Death, 1707.

Whatever judgment may be passed upon Aurungzib in other respects, he signally failed in his schemes against the Mahrattas.

His Failure.

III. MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE LIBERATION OF SÂHU, 1708, TO THE (SECOND) BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT (1761).

§ 38. Sâhu, the grandson of Sivaji, was still a prisoner. Aurungzib behaved to him with unvarying kindness, made arrangements for his marriage with two Mahratta heresses, and restored to him his grandfather's famous sword Bha-vânî, and the sword of the murdered Afzal Khân. There was even an intention at one time of releasing him, and of granting to the Mahrattas a percentage on the revenues of the districts they occupied, on the condition that they maintained tranquillity therein, and remained faithful to the Imperial Government.

Sâhu in Delhi.

He is kindly treated.

The Swords.

CII. V. § 39, 40.
A. D. 1708.

Sâhu's Release,
1708.
His Reception in
the South.

The Events of
1712.
Death of Shâh
Âlam I. and of
Zulfikâr Khân.
Nizâm-ul-Mulk
in the Dakhan.

The First Peish-
wâ, 1712.
Bâlâjî Vish-
wanâth.

The Peishwâs.

Sâhu's Character.

Sâhu's Release and Succession. BÂLÂJÎ Vishwanâth.

§ 39. Azam Shâh carried out this plan, and, in 1708, Sâhu obtained possession of Satârâ, though Târa Bâi and her son Sivajî affected to consider him an impostor, and strove to maintain their position, till the death of the latter in 1712.

This year also witnessed the death of Shâh Âlam I. (ch. iii. § 10, 11), which was soon followed by the murder of the renowned Zulfikâr Khân, and of his nominee Jehân-dâr Shâh. At this time, also, the famous Nizâm-ul-Mulk was first appointed Viceroy of the Dakhan. (Ch. iii. § 12.)

§ 40. Sâhu's power was consolidated by the wise measures of his able minister, BÂLÂJÎ VISHWANÂTH, who about this time (1712) was received into his service. Bâlâjî was first sent on an expedition against *Angria*, who had made himself master of the coast south of Bombay, and succeeded in bringing him to terms. This was so acceptable to Sâhu that Bâlâjî Vishwanâth was, on his return, made PEISHWÂ, or prime minister:—an office which had carried little authority with it before his time, but which his ability soon made paramount, and which he was able to make hereditary in his family. From this time the Brâhman Peishwâs are the real heads of the Mahratta confederation, the Râjas, the descendants of the great Sivajî, being merely nominal rulers, living in splendour, as state prisoners, in Satârâ. Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, the Peishwâ, acted the part in India (1714–1720) towards the descendants of the great Sivajî, that Pepin, the mayor of the palace, performed in France, in 752, towards the descendants of the great Clovis.

Vishwanâth was, in fact, the fifth Peishwâ; but he is commonly reckoned the first, from the greater importance which he gave to the office.

§ 41. Sâhu was in manners a Muhammedan, indolent

Bâlâjî Vishwanâth and Bâjî Râo.

CH. V. § 42-44.
A. D. 1717.

and luxurious, delegating his power to his Peishwâ, and openly acknowledging himself a vassal of Delhi; yet under Bâlâjî the Mahratta power was at this time extended and consolidated in a most remarkable manner. The weakness of the Mogul emperor, Muhammed Shâh, greatly facilitated the progress of the Mahrattas.

§ 42. Negotiations between Sâhu and the court of Delhi were set on foot, in consequence of which, in 1718, Bâlâjî in command of a large contingent was sent to Delhi, to assist the Seiads. This was the beginning of Mahratta influence in Delhi, with which, till 1803, they were henceforth to be so closely connected. At this time the Seiad Hussain, by treaty, ceded to them the *Chouth*, or fourth part of the revenues of the Dakhan, the *Surdêshmukî*, or additional ten per cent., and the *Swarâjî*, or absolute control of the countries about Pûna and Satârâ.

The Mahrattas in Delhi, 1717, 1718.

(Chap. iii. § 12.)

These included Pûna, Sôpa, Indâpûr, Wai, the Mâwals, Satârâ, Kurâr, Kuttao, Mân, Phultûn, Mulkapûr, Tarla, Panâla, Azerah, Junîr, Kolhâpûr, and a great part of the Konkan. From this time the Mahrattas seem to be ubiquitous.

(In *Wai* the Pândus are said to have lived in Exile. Ch. i. § 7.)

§ 43. An elaborate revenue system was now devised by Bâlâjî, by which, while the Mahrattas extended and enforced their exactions, the Brâhman influence more and more predominated. Bâlâjî did not long survive his return. He died in October 1720, soon after the battle of Shâhpûr, which destroyed the power of the Seiads, and established Muhammed Shâh upon the throne of the decaying empire. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

Bâlâjî's Death, 1720.

§ 44. BÂJÎ RÂO (I.), the eldest son of Bâlâjî, succeeded to the title of Peishwâ. He is generally styled the SECOND PEISHWÂ, and retained the office till his death in 1740.

The Second Peishwâ, 1720-1740. Commonly called the NÂNÂ.

CHAP. V. § 45.
A.D. 1724.

The Sindia Family.

The Rise of
various Mahratta
Leaders.
Comp. § 75.
Comp. § 77.
Bâji Râo's great
Chieftains, 1724.

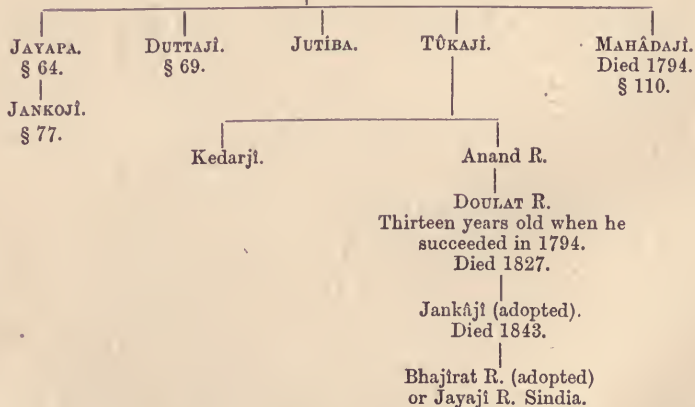
§ 45. About the year 1724, several Mahratta officers, who afterwards became independent leaders, or founders of states, rose to distinction. The first of these was Mulhârjî HOLKÂR, a cavalry soldier of the Sûdra caste. (Indôr was assigned to him in 1733.) The second was Rânojî SINDIA, a descendant of an old Râjpût family, who was at one time the Peishwâ's slipper-bearer, and was promoted for his fidelity in this humble position. The third was UDAJÎ PUAR (ch. i. § 9), an enterprising warrior of Mâlwâ. The fourth was PILAJÎ GAEKWÂR (or cowherd), son of Damajî, who by valour and treachery rose to eminence.

(His son Syajî succeeded him in 1768.)

§ 45. THE SINDIA FAMILY. Chap. v. § 45.

A SÛDRA FAMILY.

RÂNOJÎ S. Died 1754.



BĀJĪ RĀO, the Second Peishwā.

CH. V. § 46, 47.
A. D. 1727.

The fifth was FATIĪ SING BHONSLĒ. When Sāhu was fighting with Tāra Bāṭ in 1708, a woman rushed in and threw her child at his feet, crying out that she dedicated him to the Rāja's service. This child was called *Fatih*, in commemoration of the victory. He was made Rāja of *Akulkōt*. (Comp. ch. iii. § 15.)

§ 46. Bājī Rāo's great design was to extend Mahratta power in Hindūstān. In a debate before SĀHU, he said, "Now is our time to drive strangers from the land of the Hindūs, and to acquire immortal renown. By directing our efforts to Hindūstān, the Mahratta flag in your reign shall fly from the Kishtna to the Attock. Let us strike at the trunk of the withering tree (the Mogul Empire), and the branches must fall of themselves!"

Bājī Rāo's Plans.

Universal Mahratta Dominion!

Sāhu, roused for the moment to the display of something like the spirit of his grandfather, replied, "You shall plant my flag on the Himālaya. You are the noble son of a worthy father."

Sāhu and his Peishwā.

In the year 1727, a long and desultory war between Nizām-ul-Mulk and Bājī Rāo began, the results of which on the whole were favourable to the Mahrattas. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

1727.

§ 47. The founding of the Kolhāpūr Rāj was the first great schism among the Mahrattas. *Sambajī*, the son of Rājīs Rāī, the younger wife of Rāja Rām, was the rival of Sāhu, and Nizām-ul-Mulk strove to foment the rivalries between the courts of Kolhāpūr and Satārā, but the former never attained any great influence. It comprised the Konkan from Salsi to Ankolah. (See Gen. Table.) By treaty in 1731, the independence of Kolhāpūr was acknowledged by Sāhu.

The Kolhāpūr State, 1730. (§ 166.)

NOTE.—*Kolhāpūr* was the seat of a very antient Hindū kingdom. It was then under Bijanagar; subjugated by the Muhammedans in the fifteenth century; and finally came into Sivaji's hands. In 1818, the Rāja, Abā Sahēb, heartily aided the English.

CH. V. § 48-50.
A.D. 1734.

Bâjî Râo, the Second Peishwâ.

The Mahrattas
in Mâlwâ.

There were troubles in 1843. The contingent aided the mutineers in 1857, and the whole S. Mahratta country was ready to rise. Colonel Le Grand Jacob successfully repressed the incipient rebellion.

§ 48. By 1734 Mahratta power was, through the connivance of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, fully established in Malwâ, where Jey Sing, the Râjput governor appointed by the emperor, was entirely under their influence. Dia Bahâdûr, a Brâhman, had been made Sûbadâr, and so oppressed the people that Bâjî Râo was invited to come to their relief.

In 1741, Bâjî's sons, Bâlâjî and Chimujî, were appointed Sûbadârs of Mâlwâ by Muhammed Shâh.

In Delhi, 1736.

§ 49. In 1736, Bâjî Râo, with his Mahrattas, after a partial defeat inflicted on them by Sâdat Khân, appeared under the walls of Delhi, and now Nizâm-ul-Mulk was induced for a time to return and assist the harassed emperor.

He collected troops from every quarter, and, marching into Mâlwâ, met Bâjî Râo near Bhôpâl. Both armies were large and well supplied. Nizâm, at first successful in driving them from Delhi, afterwards allowed himself to be surrounded, and unable to escape from the blockade, was compelled to sign a convention, granting to the Peishwâ the whole of Mâlwâ and the territory between the Nerbudda and the Chambal, and to engage to try to obtain fifty lakhs of rupees from the emperor as payment of the Peishwâ's expenses.

This was Nizâm's severest misfortune.

The Humiliation
of Nizâm-ul-
Mulk.

§ 50. Soon after this the tidings of the arrival of Nâdir Shâh reached Bâjî Râo.

He was greatly excited by the intelligence. "There is now," said he, "but one enemy in Hindûstân. Hindûs and Mussulmâns, the whole power of the Dakhan must

Nâdir Shâh,
1739.

Bâjî Râo's Ex-
citement.

Bâji Râo, the Second Peishwâ. His Death.

CH. V. § 51-53.
A. D. 1739.

assemble, and I shall spread our Mahrattas from the Nerbudda to the Chambal."

Nâdir Shâh's retreat soon followed, and among others he addressed letters to Sâhu and to Bâji Râo, bidding them obey Muhammed Shâh, whom he had replaced on the throne, and threatening to return and punish them if they should disobey.

Nâdir Shâh's
Letter to Bâji
Râo and Sâhu.

§ 51. There was now war between the Portuguese and the Mahrattas. The principal exploit that marks it is the storming of *Bassein*, May 1739, by the troops of Chimnajî Appâ, the Peishwâ's brother. This was the greatest siege ever undertaken by the Mahrattas. Holkâr and Sindia were both present.

The Storming of
Bassein, 1739.

The place is memorable in after Mahratta history (§ 88).

NOTE.—*Bassein* (Wasai) is on an island N. of Salsette. It is in ruins, not having been inhabited for half a century. There are the tombs of *Lorenzo Almeyda* (ch. vi. § 10), and of the great *Albuquerque*. (Ch. vi. § 14.)

- (1.) Taken by Portuguese, 1534.
- (2.) Lost by them, 1739.
- (3.) Taken by *Godlard*, 1780 (§ 101).
- (4.) Treaty in 1782.

§ 52. Bâji Râo, after settling his northern frontier, putting his affairs in Mâlhwâ in order, making treaties with the Râja of Bandêlkhand and the Râjpûts, set himself to achieve the conquest of the Dakhan and the Carnatic.

Bâji Râo's last
Acts.

Nizâm's second son, Nâsir Jung, was then at Aurungâbâd as his father's representative, and, after a fruitless campaign, Bâji was obliged to make peace with him.

The Peishwâ's end was drawing near. He had suffered much annoyance from the rivalry of Damajî Gaekwâr (founder of the Barôda State), Raghujî Bhonslê (founder of the Nâgpur State), and Fatih Sing Bhonslê.

The Peishwâ's
Troubles.

§ 53. Bâji Râo died in 1740 (28th April). This is an æra in Indian history.

State of India
about 1740.

CH. V. § 54, 55.
A.D. 1740.

Summary. Bâji Râo's Character. The Carnatic.

Delhi, the 12th
Mogul.

(1.) Muhammed Shâh is on the throne of Delhi, which has just been robbed by Nâdir Shâh of thirty millions of pounds sterling (1739). (Ch. iii. § 15.)

Persia.

(2.) Nâdir Shâh, the Persian, is reigning from Mûltân to Ispahân. (Assassinated in 1747.)

Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

(3.) Nizâm-ul-Mulk is Umîr-ul-Omrah, or chief of the nobles in Delhi; but at this time transfers his title to his eldest son, Ghâzi-ud-dîn, and marches to the Dakhan, where his second son, Nâzir Jung, is planning to make himself independent. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

Oudh.

(4.) Sâdat Khân is just dead. His son, Safder Jung, succeeds him in Oudh (1739). (Ch. iii. § 17, 18.)

Bhartpûr.

(5.) The Jâts have recently finished the fortifications of Bhartpûr, a city to be afterwards twice besieged by *Lake* and *Combermere*.

Alî-wardî Khân.
(Ch. iii. § 15.)

(6.) Alî-wardî Khân has made himself master of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa (1740).

Rohillas.

(7.) The Rohillas, under Alî Muhammed Khân, have recently established themselves in Rohilkhand. (Ch. iii. § 15; ch. ix. § 36.)

Carnatic.
(§ 55.)

(8.) Dôst Alî succeeded as Nuwâb of Arcot, in 1733. His son-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, obtained possession of Trichinopoly in 1736. [Ch. vii. § 7 (13, &c.)]

(9.) Syaji, grandson of Venkaji or Êkoji, Sivaji's brother, is ruler of Tanjore.

(10.) The English and French have not as yet risen above the rank of petty traders. (Comp. ch. vii.)

(11.) The Portuguese were humbled by the loss of Bassein. (§ 51.) They never recovered the blow.

(12.) The Mysore state enjoyed peace under its native rulers. (Ch. xii. § 11.)

Hyder Ali was just entering the service under Nandirâj. He was then just twenty-one years of age.

The Character of
Bâji Râo.

§ 54. Bâji Râo was ambitious, a thorough soldier, hardy, self-denying, persevering, and, after his fashion, patriotic.

He was no unworthy rival of Nizâm-ul-Mulk, and wielded the mighty arm of Mahratta power with incomparable energy.

1740.
The Mahrattas
in the Carnatic.
*First Battle of
Ambûr.*
(This Pass is
a little north of
Chitôr.)

§ 55. This year the Mahrattas invaded the Carnatic, attacked Dôst Alî, Nuwâb of Arcot, in the neighbourhood of the Dâmâlchêri pass, routed and slew him. They were bought off by his successor, Safdar Alî, who engaged them to attack Trichinopoly, and dislodge Chandâ Sahêb, his

BĀLĀJĪ BĀJĪ RĀO, the Third Peishwā. The Abdālī.

CH. V. § 56-58.
A. D. 1741.

brother-in-law, of whose growing power he was jealous. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

Trichinopoly was taken (March 26, 1741). Chandā Sahēb was carried captive to Satārā, and Morārī Rāo was left in charge of the city, which he held till 1743, when he was made chief of Gūti, and evacuated the Carnatic.

Chandā Sahēb, a Captive, 1741.

§ 56. Bālājī Bāji Rāo, commonly called the THIRD PEISHWĀ, succeeded his father, not, however, without opposition. At this time, Raghuji Bhonslê may be looked upon as Rāja of Berār; Ananda Rāo Puār, as Rāja of Dhār; Damajī Gaekwār, as independent in Gujarāt; Mulhār Rāo Holkār, in the south of Mālwa; Jayapa Sindia, in the north-east of Mālwa; Fatih Sing Bhonslê, in Akulkôt; while Sambajī reigned in Kolhāpūr. Shāo was in his luxurious retirement in Satārā. Pūna about this time became the residence of the Peishwās, and may be regarded as the capital of the widely-extended Mahratta confederacy.

The Third Peishwā, 1740-1761.

The Mahratta Chiefs.

Pūna the Residence of the Peishwās.

§ 57. Bālājī now applied to the emperor (Muhammed Shāh) for confirmation in his office. He was appointed Sūbadār of Mālwa. (§ 48). This was granted through the mediation of Rāja Jey Sing and Nizām-ul-Mulk. The provinces of Bengāl, Bahār, and Orissa, were the scene of continual wars between Alī-wardī Khān and Raghuji Bhonslê, which ended in the establishment of the Mahratta power in Kuttack in 1751.

Bālājī's Confirmation by the Emperor.

Mahratta Depredations in Bengāl, Bahār, and Orissa.

Alī-wardī at length agreed to pass *chout*.

Bhaskar Pandit, a general of Raghuji, defeated Alī-wardī, and took prisoner Hubīb Khān, one of his generals, whom he induced to enter the Mahratta service. This man repeatedly ravaged Bengāl; and it was on this account that the Mahratta ditch was dug. (Ch. vii. § 6.)

Hubīb Khān.

§ 58. Now began the invasions of Hindūstān by Ahmed Shāh Abdālī, which ended in the terrible overthrow of the

The Abdālī's First Expedition, 1747.

CII. V. § 59-63.
A.D. 1748.

Bâlâjî Râo, the Third Peishwâ.

(Ch. iii. § 15.)

Mahrattas at Pânipat in 1761. On this occasion he was defeated at Sirhind, by *Ahmed Shâh*, the son of the emperor.

The Death of Sâhu, 1748. His Successor, Râm Râja.

§ 59. Sâhu died in 1748, and was succeeded by Râm Râja, the posthumous son of the second Sivajî, whose birth had been kept a secret (1712); but Bâlâjî, with true Brâhman duplicity, contrived to maintain his ground, and to involve in ruin those who would have made the death of the Râja an occasion for attempting to shake his power.

Târa Bâi's Intrigues.

§ 60. Târa Bâi, the grandmother of the Râja, took occasion, when Bâlâjî was absent on an expedition against Salâbat Jung and M. Bussy (ch. iii. § 16), to imprison Râm Râja, whose fidelity to the Peishwâ could not be shaken, and to call in Damaji Gaekwâr to "rescue the Mahratta state from the power of the Brâhmins."

Bâlâjî and the Nizâm.

(*Dânda Râjapûr*, 49 miles S. by E. from Bombay.)

§ 61. Bâlâjî's energy enabled him to overcome this confederacy. His war with Salâbat Jung and Bussy, though he sustained a great defeat from the French at Râjapûr, was terminated by an armistice in April 1752, without dishonour to the Mahrattas.

The Progress of the Nâgpur Chief, 1752.

(*Balêshwar*, the principal seaport, 103 miles from Kuttack.)

§ 62. Meanwhile Raghuji Bhonslê had secured the whole province of Kuttack as far as *Balasôre*, and had wrested from the Hyderâbâd dominion all the districts between the Wain Gangâ and the Godâvarî. (Comp. § 134.) He died in 1755, and was succeeded by his eldest son Janoji. (§ 72.)

Ragobâ.

§ 63. It is about this time that *Ragunâtha Râo* (or *Ragobâ*), brother of Bâlâjî, who was to play such an important part in the first (English) *Mahratta war*, begins to appear in history. He was brave but rash, full of ambition, foolish and headstrong. Whatever he undertook was showy

His Character.

Various Mahratta Chiefs. Angria.

CII. V. § 64, 65.
A. D. 1751.

but ill-considered. He invariably ruined every cause he undertook.

In 1751 we find him in Surat (at the time Clive was in Arcot), of which he vainly strove to get possession; and in 1755 he took Ahmedâbâd, the capital of Gujarât, which was in charge of Damajî Gaekwâr.

He returned to the Dakkan in 1756; and the indolence of Bâlâjî gave to him and to Sivadasha Chimnaji (son of Chimnaji Appâ, brother of Bâjî Râo) the chief management of affairs.

(Commonly, *Sewadasha Râo.*)

§ 64. Of the other Mahratta chiefs the most active now were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr (see Table), and Jayapa Sindia. The former was the chief aider of Mîr Shahâbodîn or Ghâzî-ud-dîn IV. (ch. iii. § 18) in the deposition of Ahmed Shâh and the elevation of Âlamgîr II. in 1754.

Holkâr and Sindia.

§ 65. The English at the time came into closer contact with the Mahrattas. Along the western coast there were several chiefs of Abyssinian descent, called Sîdîs (a corruption of *Seiad*, a name generally given to Africans in India). The most important of these was the Sîdî of Jinjîra, an island in the harbour of Râjapûr. His ships swept the whole western coast. Another chief of great power was *Tulajî Angria*, one of a race of pirates whose headquarters were at *Viziadrûg* or *Gheriah*, and *Saverindrûg*. The Sîdî of Jinjîra was from 1733 an ally of England.

The Pirates on the Western Coast.
Sîdîs.

Jinjîra.

(Gheriah, 82 miles N. N. W. from Goa.)

Several attempts were made by the English, in concert with the Peishwâ, to rescue Sûrat from the Sîdî of Jinjîra, and to prevent the piracies of Angria. Commodore James took *Saverindrûg* in March 1755; and in 1756 (Colonel Clive with Admiral Watson, by direction of the Bombay Government, undertook the utter destruction of the pirates' stronghold. This was effected. (Ch. viii. § 27.)

Angria.
(Ch. ix. 8.)

The English destroy the Pirates' Stronghold, 1755, 1756.

A treaty between the Bombay authorities (Governor

CH. V. § 66-68.
A. D. 1757.

The Zenith and Nâdir of Mahratta Prosperity.

(Or *Fort Victoria*,
73 miles S. by E.
from Bombay.)

Bouchier, 1750-1760) and the Peishwâ was concluded in October 1756, by which, among other things, ten villages, including Bankût, with the command of that river, were given to the English.

The Mahrattas
in Mysore, 1757.

§ 66. The year 1757, which the battle of Plassey has rendered memorable in English history, was marked by an invasion of the Carnatic by the Peishwâ in person. Mysore was then under the power of Nandirâj, the Dîwân of Chick Kistna Râyâr; and Hyder Alî, an adventurer, whose rise resembled that of Sivajî, was then coming into notice. The Mahrattas levied tribute from Mysore (though a brave resistance was made), as well as from the Nuwâb of Arcot, Muhammed Alî, then under British protection. (Ch. xii. § 12.)

Sûrat.

§ 67. In 1759, after various intrigues, the Bombay Government obtained the town and port of Sûrat, in spite of opposition from Pûna. A pension was given to the titular Nuwâb. The title became extinct in 1842.

The Battle of
Udghîr, 1760.
(*Udaya-giri* =
the hill of the
sunrise, 40 miles
N. N. W. from
Bidar.)

§ 68. In 1760 the Mahrattas obtained their greatest success, as in 1761 they sustained their most disastrous defeat. The battles of ŪDGHÎR and PÂNIPAT respectively mark the attainment of their highest elevation, and the destruction of their hopes of ever ruling India.

The Mahrattas
after the Battle
of Udghîr.

ŪDGHÎR. The Peishwâ had obtained possession of Ahmednagar, to wrest which from him, *Salâbat Jung* and Nizâm Alî marched against him. The result was a complete victory to the Peishwâ, whose chief officers were Sivadasha Râo and Ibrahim Khân Ghardî, an able Mussulmân in the Mahratta service. A treaty followed, by which Dowlatâbâd, Asîrghar, Bîjapûr, and the province of Aurungâbâd were made over to the Mahrattas.

Moguls humbled.

The Moguls were thus confined within the narrowest limits.

Events which led to the Second Battle of Pānīpat.

Had the Mahrattas now possessed lofty and patriotic aims, they might have become rulers of India.

§ 69. The Peishwā was encamped on the bank of the Manjēra, near Ūdghīr. He was triumphant; but he was to hear tidings there which would break his heart.

§ 70. I. It is necessary to give a summary of the events which led to the SECOND BATTLE OF PĀNIPAT, before entering upon an account of the battle itself. (See ch. iii. § 19, 20.)

(1.) Mūltān and Lāhōr had been conquered by Ahmed Shāh Abdālī in 1748. (Ch. iii. § 18.)

(2.) Mir Munu, who was made viceroy of these conquests by him, died in 1756, and left a widow. Great confusion ensued, and the Sikhs greatly increased.

(3.) Mir Shahābodīn, Vazīr of Delhi (grandson of Nizām-ul-Mulk, commonly called Ghāzī-ud-dīn IV.), invaded this province, claiming the daughter of Mir Munu, who had been betrothed to him, seized on the widow, carried her to Delhi, and appointed Adina Beg governor.

(4.) This brought the Abdālī across the Indus for the fourth time. He marched on Delhi, took it, plundered it, and also Muttra; and left it in 1756 (the year of the Black Hole), leaving Nazīb-ud-dowla, a Rohilla chief, in charge of Ālamgrī II.

(5.) Mir Shahābodīn allied himself with Ragobā, and by force recovered Delhi and the charge of the emperor's person. Like all Ragobā's doings, this was foolish. The Abdālī was not to be trifled with.

(6.) Ragobā invaded Lāhōr, making a splendid but temporary conquest (May 1758). This was the cause of the war of the Mahrattas with Ahmed Shāh Abdālī, and from this may be dated the beginning of the decline of the Mahratta power.

(7.) The Rohilla, Nazīb-ud-dowla, and Shuja-ud-dowla, Nuwāb of Oudh, took up arms in self-defence against the Mahrattas; and Ahmed Shāh Abdālī crossed the Indus for the fifth time, to aid the confederates against the hated Hindū race. He was, however, as much an object of terror to the one party as to the other.

(8.) Mir Shahābodīn now put Ālamgrī II. to death, and set up Shāh Jehān, son of Kām Baksh (Table, p. 76), as emperor.

(9.) Ali Gohar (Shāh Ālam II.) escaped, and became a tool in the

CH. V. § 69, 70.
A.D. 1760.

Mahrattas fail.

The Tidings from
the North-West.

Or the Fourth.

The Events
which lead to
the Second Battle
of Pānīpat, 1761.

Mir Munu,"
(Ch. iii. § 19)
Ghāzī-ud-dīn
III.

The Abdālī's
Fourth Invasion.

Ragobā and
Ghāzī.

The Foolish Lā-
hōr Expedition.

Ahmed S. Ab-
dālī's Fifth Inva-
sion.

The Pretender.

Shāh Ālam II.

CHAP. V. § 70.
A. D. 1761.

The Flodden Field of the Mahrattas.

Ghâzi Flees.

hands of Shuja-ud-dowla of Oudh. (Ch. ix. § 13.) His history is intimately connected with that of the English under Clive.

(10.) Mr Shahâbodîn, abandoning his puppet emperor, sought refuge with Surâj Mal, Râja of the Jâts. All waited the issue of the Abdâli's resistless invasion.

The Battle of
Delhi.
Abdâli.

(11.) The Mahrattas, under M. R. Holkâr and Duttajî Sindia, retreated along the west bank of the Jamna, before Ahmed Shâh Abdâli, and lost two-thirds of their number near Delhi. Here Duttajî and Jutiba were killed.

Sikandra.
(About 31 miles
S. E. from Delhi.)

(12.) A further slaughter of Holkâr's troops by the Afgâns took place at Sikandra, near Delhi.

The Second
Battle of Pân-
pat, 1761.

§ 70. II. The battle itself: *the Flodden-field of the Mahrattas.*

Northward.

(1.) Sivadasha Râo Bhâo and Viswas Râo, son of the Peishwâ, now marched northward to recover the lost reputation of the Mahrattas, and to drive the Afgâns beyond the Attock. Ūghîr had unduly elated them.

The Elation of
the Mahrattas.

The struggle to be final : it was to give all India to a Hindû power.

Their Forces.

(2.) They had 20,000 chosen horse, 10,000 infantry and artillery, under Ibrahim Khân Ghardî, who had been trained by Bussy, though now in Mahratta employ (§ 68).

The Mahratta
Army.

(3.) The Mahrattas (and it was a sign of decay), contrary to old custom, took the field with great splendour. All Mahratta chiefs were ordered to join them.

The Leaders
and Allies.

Among those present were Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, Jankoji Sindia, Damajî Gaekwâr, Jeswant Râo Puar, and representatives of every Mahratta family of consequence. Surâj Mal, the Jât chieftain of Bhartpûr, was their principal ally.

Total.

The total number of Mahratta troops assembled was 55,000 horse, 15,000 foot, and about 200,000 Pindâris and followers. They had 200 pieces of cannon.

In Delhi.

The Muhammedans had 46,800 horse, 38,000 foot, and 70 pieces of cannon.

(4.) Without much difficulty they occupied Delhi, and the ambitious Sivadasha Râo proposed to place Viswas Râo, the eldest son of the Peishwâ, on the throne, and thus to assume the empire of Hindûstân. This was postponed till the Afgâns should have been driven across the Indus.

The Vazîr of
Oudh.

(5.) Sivadasha Râo, by his arrogance, alienated the Jât leader and his Râjpût allies ; and while the Hindûs were thus splitting up, the Abdâli induced Shuja-ud-dowla of Oudh to join his fellow

The Flodden Field of the Mahrattas.

CHAP. V. § 71.
A. D. 1761.

Muhammedans ; though he never became a violent enemy of the Mahrattas, and often acted the part of a mediator.

(6.) The Mahratta leader now raised Jawân Bukht, son of Ali Ghôr (Shâh Âlam II.) to the throne, and marched out of Delhi. The Abdâli crossed to the western bank of the Jamna, and followed the Mahrattas to Pânipat, where they strongly intrrenched themselves.

A Pretender.

(7.) From October 28 to January 6, 1761, continual skirmishes took place ; but the Abdâli, adopting a Fabian policy, steadily refused a general engagement. The improvident Mahrattas were without provisions or money, and were, in fact, closely besieged.

Fabian Policy.

(8.) On the 7th January Sivadasa Râo sent a note to their friendly mediator, Shuja-ud-dowla, saying, "The cup is now full to the brim, and cannot hold another drop ;" and the whole Mahratta army, prepared to conquer or die, marched out to attack the Afgân camp. From daybreak till 2 P.M. the rival cries of "*Har, Har, Mâdêo,*" and "*Din, Din,*" resounded. The Afgâns were physically stronger, and in this terrible struggle their powers of endurance at last prevailed against the fierce enthusiasm of the Mahrattas.

The Battle.

(9.) By 2 P.M. Viswas Râo was killed. In despair Sivadasa Râo descended from his elephant, mounted his horse, and charged into the thickest of the fight. He was seen no more. Jeswant Râo Puar also was killed.

Death of the
Mahratta
Leaders.

(10.) Holkâr left the field early, with some imputation on his fidelity to his cause. Damaji Gaekwâr also escaped. Thousands perished in the flight, and the remainder were surrounded, taken prisoners, and cruelly beheaded the next morning. Among these were Jankojî Sindia and Ibrahim Khân Ghardi.

The Day after
the Battle.

(11.) Of the few who escaped to bear the tidings to the Peishwâ, who was still encamped on the banks of the Godâvarî, was Bâlâjî Jenârdin, who afterwards became so famous under the official title of the Nânâ Farnavis (*the lord of the records*). The announcement of the disaster was made in these figurative words : "*Two pearls have been dissolved, twenty-seven gold mohurs have been lost, and of the silver and copper the total cannot be cast up.*"

The Tidings.
Bâlâjî Jenârdin.

§ 71. The Peishwâ never recovered the shock, and died at Pûna in June.

Death of Bâlâjî
B. Râo, 1761.

He was cunning, sensual, and indolent, but charitable and kindly ; and his memory is respected by his countrymen.

His Character.

CHAP. V. § 72.
A. D. 1761.

The Fourth Peishwâ, Mâdu Râo.

The whole Mahratta race was thus thrown into mourning in 1761: their hope of supremacy in India had vanished, while every family bewailed its dead.
(Compare here ch. iii. § 21.)

IV. MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE SECOND BATTLE OF PÂNIPAT TO THE END OF THE FIRST MAHRATTA WAR (1761-1782).

PÂNIPAT TO SALBÂT.

§ 72. The fourth Peishwâ was MÂDU RÂO, the second son of Bâlâjî Râo, the younger brother of the unfortunate Viswas Râo, who was appointed to the office by Râm Râja, the nominal Râja, who was still in confinement in Satârâ.

Mâdu Râo succeeded at the age of seventeen, and died in 1772, at the early age of twenty-eight. He was the most heroic of the line. His uncle, Raguânâtha Râo (Ragobâ), was his guardian.

This was the time for the Moguls to avenge their defeat at Údghîr, and regain their ascendancy in the Dakhan; but they only succeeded in obtaining some cessions in Aurungâbâd and Berâr.

Nizâm Ali's imprisonment and murder of his brother, Salâbat Jung, took place in 1762-63. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Dissensions prevailed during this period among the Mahratta leaders, and Ragobâ had to wage a civil war before he could gain his full authority as regent. He had also to fight with Nizâm Alî, who was stirred up by Janojî Bhonslê of Berâr, who hoped to make himself supreme in the Mahratta confederacy. Ragobâ behaved with much courage and prudence, and though Pûna was once sacked

The Fourth Peishwâ, 1761-1772.
MÂDU (or *Mahâ-déo*) RÂO.
Sometimes called *Bullal*.

Mâdu Râo, a Hero.

The Mogul Opportunity wasted.

Ragobâ's Difficulties.
(He succeeded Raghujî in 1755, § 62.)

Holkâr. Ahalyâ Bâi. Indôr Affairs.

CH. V. § 73-75.
A. D. 1761.

by Nizâm Alî, at length defeated the Moguls and made an advantageous peace.

§ 73. At this time, and for many years after, Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavis (a young man, just rising into importance), were the ablest Mahratta statesmen; while Trimbuck Râo Mamâ and Harî Pant Phâkre were the greatest soldiers in the service of the Pûna Government.

The Four Ablest Mahrattas, 1761-1772.
[§ 70, II. (11)].
(Mamâ = *uncle*).

§ 74. There was now rising, in the Carnatic, an enemy to the Mahrattas, who, imitating Sivajî, was laying the foundations of a kingdom. This was Hyder Alî. (Ch. xii. § 13.)

Hyder Alî, 1760.

To oppose Hyder, in 1764 the young Peishwâ led an army across the Kishtna. The issue of the campaign was favourable to the Mahrattas, and Hyder was compelled to abandon all he had taken from the chiefs of that nation, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees.

Mâdu Râo and Hyder Alî, 1764.

February 1765.

At this period, the nation which was eventually to crush the Mahrattas was rapidly gaining dominion in India. To the English there were three powers only that could offer any opposition. *These were the Mahrattas, Nizâm Alî, and Hyder.* (Comp. ch. viii.)

The English in 1764.

The Four Powers.

While Mâdu Râo continued his inroads upon Hyder's dominions at intervals, the English were waiting for an opportunity of effecting the subjugation of both.

§ 75. In 1766, *Mulhâr Râo Holkâr* died. For forty-two years he had been one of the bravest spirits among the Mahrattas (§ 45).

INDÔR Affairs.
Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, 1724-1766.

Like David, from a shepherd he had become a king!

He had only one son, Khandî Râo, who died in 1755; and his grandson, Mallî Râo, died soon after his grandfather. The widow of Khandî Râo, whose name was AHALYÂ BÂI, succeeded to the supreme authority in Indôr, and held it till her death in 1795. She was one of the most extra-

Ahalyâ Bâi, 1766-1795.

CHAP. V. § 76.
A.D. 1766.

Indôr Affairs. Ahalyâ Bâi. Ragobâ.

ordinary women that ever lived. She adopted, by consent of the Peishwâ, an experienced soldier called *Tûkajî Holkâr*, who was no relation to the family. He assumed command of the army, and one of his descendants still rules in Indôr (§ 118, 140, 160).

Lat. 22° 41' N., Long. 75° 50' E. It was a small village till Ahalyâ Bâi made it her permanent encampment.

The Double
Government in
Mâlâwâ.
Her Character
and History.

Tûkajî always paid to Ahalyâ Bâi filial reverence. She ruled, while he was commander-in-chief.

She was devout, merciful, and laborious to an extraordinary degree; and, by her wise administration, raised Indôr from a village to a wealthy city. She was well educated, and possessed a remarkably acute mind. She became a widow when she was twenty years old, and her son died a raving maniac soon after. These things coloured her whole existence. She lived an ascetic life. In many things like our own Queen Elizabeth, in one she far excelled her: she was insensible to flattery.

Worshipped.

While living, she was "one of the purest and most exemplary rulers that ever existed," and she is now worshipped in Mâlâwâ as an incarnation of the Deity.

Dissensions in
Pûna.

Mâdu Râo's
Difficulties.

§ 76. We return now to Pûna. In 1769, while Hyder was dictating to the astonished Government of Madras the famous treaty (ch. xii. § 21), Mâdu Râo was involved in difficulties, arising from the restless ambition of his uncle Ragobâ, and of Janojî, the Râja of Nâgpur. His conduct towards his uncle was as wise and forbearing as that of the latter was treacherous and inconsistent. Mâdu yielded him all respect; but maintained his own authority. The Berâr Râja—never faithful to the Peishwâ, hating, as he did, Brâhman ascendancy—was ever ready to intrigue or fight against the Pûna Government. The Peishwâ succeeded, however, in bringing him to complete submission.

CH V. § 77-79.
A. D. 1769.

Mahādaji. Sindia. Rām Sāstrī.

Ragobā in
Prison.

Ragobā himself was taken prisoner and confined in Pūna, till released by Mādu Rāo just before his death (1772).

Sindia, the
Founder of the
Gwālīor State.

§ 77. The affairs of the other great Mālhwā, or SINDIA, branch of the Mahrattas demand attention. Rānojī was the founder of the family (§ 45-56). His son Jayapa succeeded him, and was assassinated in 1759. His son Jan-kojī, the third of the line, was executed the day after the battle of Pānipat (§ 70). An illegitimate son of Rānojī, by name MAHĀDAJĪ, became, 1761, the head of the family. He had been wounded at the battle of Pānipat, and was lame ever after. We shall find him the chief rival of the Nānā Fārnavīs, and virtually independent after the treaty of Salbāī.

Mahādaji, 1761-
1794.

Till his death in 1794, he was the most prominent Mahratta leader.

Rām Sāstrī.

§ 78. Mahratta history is ennobled by the character of Rām Sāstrī, who was Mādu's tutor and spiritual guide. Profoundly learned, a pattern of integrity and of prudence, he reproved princes, awed the most dissolute, showed a bright example of industry, zeal, and benevolence, and is still revered as the *Sir Matthew Hale* of the Mahrattas.

Mādu Rāo in the
Carnatic, 1770.

§ 79. The last great effort of Mādu's life was his expedition into the Carnatic, to enforce the payment of the tribute, which Hyder, relying on his treaty with the English, had dared to withhold. (Ch. xii. § 22.)

The campaign of 1770 was unfavourable to Hyder; but Mādu Rāo was compelled by sickness to return to Pūna, and Trimbeck Mamā was left in command.

Hyder Defeated
at Chèrkūī.

After a terrible defeat, upon the infliction of which the Mahrattas greatly prided themselves, the Mysore army was shut up in Seringapatam. The siege was unsuccessful; but a peace, by which Hyder virtually yielded all demands, was made in April 1772. (Ch. xii. § 22.)

Mahrattas in Hindûstân.

CH. V. § 80-82.
A. D. 1769.

§ 80. In 1769 the Mahrattas again crossed the Chambal, being the first time that they had ventured to show themselves in Hindûstân, in any force, since their terrible disaster in 1761.

They then levied tribute from the Râjpût states, and overran the districts occupied by the Jâts; and in the neighbourhood of Bhartpûr dictated an agreement, by which sixty-five lakhs of rupees were to be paid as tribute by the latter people.

1769.
The Mahrattas
again in Hin-
dûstân.

§ 81. And now began the series of transactions which put Shâh Alam II., the nominal Emperor of Delhi, into the absolute power of the Mahrattas; and made them, in fact, masters, for the time, of the empire. (Ch. iii. § 18.)

The Mahratta
Supreme in
Delhi, 1770-
1805.

(1.) They overran Robilkhand, 1771. This was the remote cause of the famous Rohilla war. (Ch. ix. § 36.)

(2.) They again took possession of Delhi, under Mahâdâjî Sindia, with a body of 30,000 men.

(3.) Having maintained a friendly intercourse with Shuja-ud-dowla, Nuwâb of Oudh and nominal Vazîr of the empire, they took Shâh Alam II., who left British protection, and placed him on the throne in Delhi (ch. iii. § 23), December 1771. For this they received £100,000.

Visajî Kishen, Tûkajî, Holkâr, and Mahâdâjî Sindia, were the leaders.

§ 82. Mâdu Râo, who had long been sick, died on the 18th November 1772, in his twenty-eighth year. His early death was as great a calamity to the Mahrattas as the defeat at Pânîpat. He was the *Black Prince* of the race.

The Death of
Mâdu Râo, 1772.
(Hastings in
Calcutta.)
(Ch. ix. § 35.)

He was brave and prudent; bent on promoting the welfare of his people; firm in maintaining his own authority; and, with many difficulties to encounter, a successful ruler.

His Character.

At the period of his death, the Mahratta revenue may be calculated at £7,000,000 sterling. The army at the

CH. V. § 83-86.
A. D. 1772.

Mádu Ráo succeeded by Nárâyana Ráo. Ragobâ.

command of the Peishwâ, at this period, numbered not less than 100,000 magnificent horsemen, and a fair proportion of foot and artillery.

THE FIFTH PEISHWÂ, 1772-1773.

(§ 73.)

§ 83. On the death of the Peishwâ, his younger brother, Nárâyana Ráo, succeeded him, in his eighteenth year. (Table, p. 219.) His uncle, Ragobâ, now released, was his guardian. Sakarâm Bappu was prime minister, and Nânâ Farnavis one of the high officers of state.

The young Peishwâ himself was ambitious of military distinction.

Concord did not long prevail, and Ragobâ was again put under restraint in the palace of the Peishwâ. (1773, April.)

The Murder of Nárâyana Ráo, 1773.

Aug. 30, 1773.

In August, Nárâyana Ráo was murdered. A conspiracy, which Ragobâ favoured, had been formed to seize the young Peishwâ; but the murder seems to have been planned by Anandâ Bâi, the wicked wife of Ragobâ. When the assassins attacked the poor youth, he ran to his uncle's apartments, and begged him to defend him. This Ragobâ tried to do, but in vain.

Ragobâ Nominal Peishwâ.

§ 84. Ragobâ now assumed the dignity of Peishwâ (1773), and pushed on the war with the Nizâm and Hyder with vigour and good fortune.

(or *Najib*, or *Najuf*.)

§ 85. Meanwhile in Hindûstân, the Emperor Shâh Âlam II., incited by Nazîb Khân, strove to free himself from the Mahratta yoke; but was at last defeated in a battle at Delhi, in December 1772. This made the Mahrattas more than ever masters of the emperor. (Ch. iii. § 23.)

The Affairs of Nâgpur. (§ 150, 159.)

§ 86. Janoji Bhonslê, the Râja of Nâgpur, died in May, 1773; and there was a petty civil war about the succession. Raghuji, the nephew and adopted son of Janoji, succeeded. Mûdaji and Sabaji, his uncles, were rivals for the office of regent. (See Table, p. 219.) Sabaji was killed in 1774, and Mûdaji remained supreme.

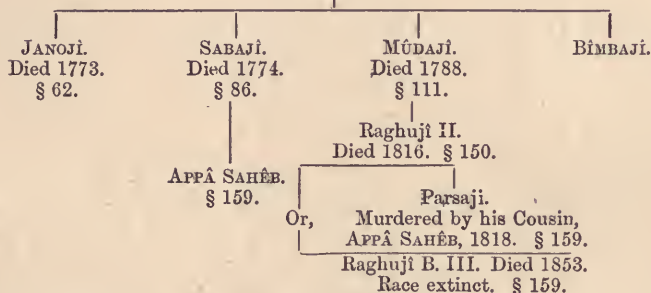
§ 86. THE BHONSLÊ FAMILY OF BERÂR. Chap. V.

A KSHETRIYA FAMILY.

RAGHUJÎ BHONSLÊ. Râja of Berâr, 1734.

Takes Kuttack, 1752. Died 1753.

Ch. v. § 45.

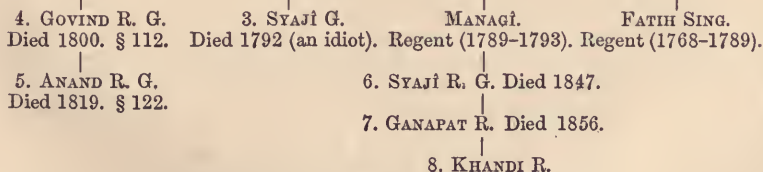


§ 89. THE GAEKWÂR FAMILY.

DAMAJÎ. Died in 1721.

His son was 1. PILAJÎ GAEKWÂR.* Murdered in 1732. § 45.

2. DAMAJÎ G. Died 1768. § 56.



* First occupied Songur in 1719, Barôda in 1730.

CH. V. § 87-90.
A.D. 1774.

Negotiations between Ragobâ and the Bombay Government.

Ragobâ Super-
seded, 1774.

§ 87. A revolution was now pending at Pûna. A strong confederacy was formed against Ragobâ, of which Sakarâm Bappu, Nânâ Farnavis, and Hari Pant Phâkre were the heads. A battle was fought, in which Ragobâ, with whom was Morârî, Râjâ of Gûti (§ 55 and ch. viii. § 22), was victorious, and Trimbuck Mamâ was killed; but his cause was ruined by the birth, in April 1774, of Nârâyana Râo's posthumous son, Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, whom, rejecting Ragobâ's claims, we may call the *Sixth Peishwâ*. (See Table, p. 219.)

Mâdu Râo Nârâ-
yana, Sixth
Peishwâ.
Born April 18,
1774.

Negotiations
with the Bombay
Government.

§ 88. Ragobâ advanced to the banks of the Taptî, where he hoped to be joined by Sindia and Holkâr. There he entered into a negotiation with the Bombay Government, under Mr Hornby (Governor from 1776 to 1784), promising to cede to the English *Salsette, the smaller islands near Bombay, and Bassein, with its dependencies*, as the price of their assistance.

(Comp. § 61.)

While these negotiations were pending, Ragobâ's son, Bâjî Râo Ragonâth, was born at Dhâr, 1774. He in due time became the *seventh*, and last, of the Peishwâs.

Birôda Affairs.*

§ 89. There was now a dispute about the succession to the Barôda Râj. *Govind Râo* and *Fatih Sing*, sons of Damaji, were rival claimants. (See Table.)

Ragobâ espoused the cause of the former.

I.
The Treaty of
SÛRAT, 1775.

§ 90. The long-pending treaty between the Bombay Government and Ragobâ was signed March 6, 1775, at SÛRAT. The Bombay Government had already occupied Salsette, fearing that the Portuguese would re-conquer it.

It was a wrong step, doubtless: and it led to the *first Mahratta war*; but at the time it must have seemed the best for the British interests. Salsette was of great importance.

Colonel Keating. Arras. The Treaty of Pûrandar.

CH. V. § 91, 92.
A. D. 1775.

§ 91. We have now to give a summary of the first war of the Mahrattas with the English, 1775-1782. [W. Hastings in Calcutta to 1785.]

The Bombay Government now sent Lieutenant-Colonel Keating, and a force of 1500 men to Sûrat, to conduct Ragobâ to Pûna, and instal him as Peishwâ.

By this time all the Mahratta chiefs, except Govind Râo (one of the Gujarât rivals), were in arms against Ragobâ and his English allies. Holkâr and Sindia had been detached from his cause by great efforts on the part of the Pûna regency.

Keating, after some fruitless negotiations, marched from the neighbourhood of Cambay towards the bank of the Mâi, and reached the plain of Arras, where he gained a complete, but dearly-bought victory. This was the first time the English had met the Mahrattas in a regular engagement.

An engagement took place also by sea, and Commodore Moor was there successful. All things seemed favourable to Ragobâ, who made some valuable cessions of territory to the Bombay Government.

Yet Ragobâ was unpopular with the whole Mahratta people, by whom his real character was duly estimated (§ 63).

§ 92. The Supreme Government, with Warren Hastings at its head, assumed the administration of all the Company's affairs in India, according to the provisions of the regulating act, on 20th October 1774.

They pronounced the treaty with Ragobâ to be "impolitic, dangerous, unauthorised, and unjust;" and sent Colonel Upton to Pûna, who concluded the treaty of Pûrandar (near Pûna) with Sakarâm Bappu and Nânâ Farnavis on 1st March 1776. Ragobâ was to be abandoned, but Salsette retained. Mr Hastings, however, thought the war

Keating's First Steps.

Mahratta Combination against Ragobâ.

The Battle of Arras, 1775. May 15.

Victory.

Sea-fight.

Ragobâ despised by his own People.

The Calcutta Government Interferes, 1774.

II.
The Treaty of Pûrandar, 1776.

CH. V. § 93-95.
A. D. 1776.

The First Mahratta War.

should be carried on, as the Bombay Government had embarked in it.

Mr Hornby, then at the head of the Bombay Government, was a sincere and able man. He believed Ragobâ to be innocent, and Mâdu Râo Nârâyana to be a supposititious child. Ragobâ had, in fact, been pronounced guilty by Râm Sâstrî after careful investigation (§ 78).

The Supreme Government seems to have been right in principle, but wrong in the peremptory and sudden manner in which they set at nought the acts and the opinions of their better-informed countrymen on the western coast.

Ragobâ at Sûrat.

His Efforts.

The Appeal Home.

All Combine to Restore Ragobâ.

Satârâ Affairs.

SÂHU II., 1777!
Gangâ Bâi.

The English Support Ragobâ.

St Lubin's Mission.

§ 93. The Bombay Government still clung to Ragobâ's cause, denounced the treaty of Pûrandar as injurious to British interests, and received Ragobâ himself with two hundred followers into Surat, where he appealed to the Directors and to King George III.

The Court of Directors approved of the treaty of Sûrat, and encouraged the Bombay authorities to break through the treaty of Pûrandar; and, at last, the intrigues of the Pûna Government with the French compelled the Supreme Council to coincide with Bombay in espousing the cause of Ragobâ, 1777.

§ 94. Râm Râja died December 12, 1777, and was succeeded in his nominal dignity by his adopted son, who was called Sâhu Mahârâj (§ 59).

Gangâ Bâi, the mother of the Peishwâ, poisoned herself about this time.

§ 95. It was now time for some decisive action on the part of the English.

An adventurer called St Lubin, a mere charlatan, had induced the French Government (according to his own statement) to send him to Pûna, to ascertain what might be gained by an alliance with the Mahrattas.

Goddard's Great March. The Convention of Wargâom.

CH. V. § 96, 97.
A. D. 1778.

Nânâ Farnavis encouraged him. But the Pûna regency was distracted by party intrigues. Moraba Farnavis, a cousin of the Nânâ, and even Sakarâm Bappu, joined in a conspiracy to restore Ragobâ; and the Supreme Government now united with the Bombay authorities in the resolution to bring him back to Pûna.

Intrigues in
Pûna.

§ 96. Troops were now despatched by land from Calcutta, under Colonel Leslie, who, delayed on his march, was recalled, and died in October 1778.

Troops sent
Overland from
Calcutta by
Warren Hastings.
Goddard in
Command.

Colonel Goddard, one of the great military heroes of British Indian history, then assumed command, and reached Sûrat on 6th February 1779.

His route lay through Khemlassa, Beilsa, Bhôpâl, Husangâbâd, Burhânpûr, to Sûrat.

His Route.

He was treated by the Nuwâb of Bhôpâl with a kindness which laid the foundation of an amity which has ever since subsisted between that state and the British.

Bhôpâl.

He entered by the way into some fruitless negotiations with Mûdajî, the protector of Berâr (§ 86). The Nâgpur Râja aided him, however, with money and provisions.

(§ 150-163.)

This wonderful land-march was projected by Hastings, and filled India with astonishment. In England it was termed "a frantic military exploit;" but, without some such heroic phrensies, the English would not have been now paramount in India.

A "Frantic Military Exploit."

§ 97. Meanwhile, shame and disaster had befallen the Bombay army.

The Convention
of Wargâom or
Taligâom, 1779.

The story of the *Convention of Wargâom* is one which the historian would more willingly pass over in silence.

After many discussions and much intrigue, it was resolved at Bombay to send a force direct to Pûna, to place Ragobâ there as regent.

This army left Bombay November 22, 1778, landed at

CHAP. V. § 97.
A. D. 1779.

The Convention of Taligâom, or Wargâom.

(or *Panwell*).

Panalla, ascended the ghâts to Khandâla, December 23, and on the 9th January reached Taligâom.

Egerton and Carnac.

The expedition was under the command of Colonel Egerton, with whom were associated Messrs Mostyn and Carnac, of the Bombay Civil Service. Mr Mostyn (an able man, often employed in Mahratta affairs) died at the very outset.

Mr Mostyn.

"Stewart Phâkre."

Captain Stewart, an officer so brave that the Mahrattas called him "Stewart Phâkre" (*the hero Stewart*), fell near Kârlî.

At *Taligâom* the two gentlemen who were responsible came to the determination to retreat. Two thousand six hundred British troops were led back by their weak, sickly, and inexperienced commander and his civilian colleague. When within eighteen miles of Pûna, Colonel Cockburn took the command.

Hartley.
The Disastrous
Retreat.

Of course their retreat was known at once. The army was pursued; and though Captain James Hartley especially distinguished himself, it was considered impossible to retreat farther than *Wargâom*, and negotiations were commenced with Nânâ Farnavis.

The Terms of
the Convention.

There were two Mahratta authorities with whom Mr Carnac could negotiate, Nânâ Farnavis and Mahâdajî Sindia, who were rivals, though both essential to the conduct of Mahratta affairs at the time. The latter, indeed, affected to be a mediator between Farnavis and his enemies.

With Sindia, to whom Ragobâ had given himself up, the "*convention*" was at last concluded, Hartley protesting. He and the sepoys would have occupied Pûna with scarcely an effort, if they had been permitted.

Everything, according to this abortive and ill-omened "*convention*," was to be restored to the position in which it was in 1773.

An order was to be sent, forbidding the advance of the Bengâl troops; which, of course, they did not obey.

The First Mahratta War (English).

CH. V. § 98-100.
A. D. 1779.

Broach was to be made over to Sindia, with 41,000 rupees in presents to his servants! (§ 102.)

Two hostages, Mr Farmer and Lieutenant Stewart, were given. *Such was the miserable Convention of Wargdom, January 1779.*

The Bombay Government, under the able Governor Hornby, and the Court of Directors, disallowed the convention, as beyond the powers of those who concluded it; and dismissed Colonel Egerton, Colonel Cockburn, and Mr Carnac from the service.

Hartley was applauded, and made lieutenant-colonel at once.

If Farnavis exultingly thought that the English would be overcome, as the Portuguese in 1739, he was soon undeceived.

The Convention Void.

Punishment.

Reward.

§ 98. Goddard had now (§ 96) reached Sûrat (having marched from Burhânpûr, a distance of three hundred miles, in twenty days), with instructions to negotiate a peace with Pûna, on the basis of the treaty of Pûrandar, with a provision for the exclusion of the French.

Goddard's Negotiations.

The Mahratta chiefs at the commencement of this war, it must be remembered, were Nânâ Farnavis, the wily statesman, his old rival Sakarâm Bappu, and Mahâdaji Sindia, all in Pûna; Fatih Sing and Govind Sing Gaekwâr, rivals in Gujarât; Mûdaji Bhonslê, guardian of his nephew, Raghuji of Berâr; Tûkaji Holkâr, and his patroness, Ahalyâ Bâi, in Mâlwa.

Pûna in 1779. The Chiefs of the Mahratta Nation.

This year Hastings sent Mr Elliot to Mûdaji, offering to form an alliance with him, and even to make him Peishwâ. This Mûdaji declined. (Ch. x. § 11.)

Poor old Sakarâm Bappu was no match for his wily colleague, and was thrown into prison. Hurried from fort to fort, he died at last miserably in Raighur (1778).

Death of Sakarâm Bappu, 1778.

In Calcutta, Hastings, Francis, Barwell, and Sir Eyre Coote were in authority.

Calcutta Authorities.

§ 99. Hyder Ali was engaged in constant hostilities with the Mahrattas. In 1778 he paid a large sum as the price of the departure of Hari Paut Phâkre. (Ch. xii. § 23.) More or less at this period he held all the Mahratta lands south of the Kishtna.

Hyder and the Mahrattas.

Gûti was taken 1776, after a siege of nine months; and Morâri Râo (ch. viii. § 22-24) was taken prisoner. He died a captive.

§ 100. To return to Colonel Goddard.

Ragobâ had now joined him as a fugitive. With him were Amrit Râo, his adopted son, and Bâji Râo (the last of the Peishwâs, born 1775). Nânâ Farnavis demanded, as

Negotiations broken off.

CHAP. V. § 101.
A. D. 1780.

The First Mahratta War (English).

preliminary concessions, the surrender of Ragobâ and of Salsette.

Active hostilities were commenced January 1, 1780. The forts of Dubhoy (*Dubhâi*, fifteen miles S.E. of Barôda) and Ahmedâbâd were taken by storm.

A treaty was made with Fatih Sing, by which the English acknowledged him as Gaekwâr of Barôda.

April 2 and 14,
1780.

Sindia and Holkâr now joined their forces to oppose Goddard, who defeated and drove them off, but could then do no more.

Popham, 1780.

Hartley defended the Konkan, where Kaliân was taken. Captain *William Popham*, aided by Captain *Bruce*, was sent from Bengâl to attack Mâlwa and effect a diversion. He took Lahâr, a strongly fortified place, about fifty miles W. of Kalpi, and afterwards Gwâlîôr, in the most heroic style, by escalade. These were left in the hands of the Râna of Gôhud (§ 103).

Gwâlîôr stormed,
August 4, 1780.

Gwâlîôr was the chief fort of Sindia; and was regarded as an impregnable fortress. (August 4, 1780.) (See Geo. Ind.) The Râna of *Gôhud* was the ally, whom Hastings was maintaining as a check on Sindia, whose army was totally routed, March 24, 1781.

(22 miles N.E.
from Gwâlîôr.)

Soon after this he made peace with Hastings.

Combinations
against the
English.
Hyder's Great
Invasion of the
Carnatic.
Hornby left to
himself.

§ 101. Now came Hyder's memorable invasion of the Carnatic, July 1780. (Ch. xii § 27.)

All the resources of Bengâl were required to meet this terrible attack. Bombay was left to itself. "We have no resource," said Governor Hornby, "but such as we may find in our own efforts."

Triple Alliance
against Britain.

The English were engaged in two great wars. The strength of India, east and west, was arrayed against them. The Nizâm, the Mahrattas, and Hyder formed a triple alliance. (Ch. xii. § 26.)

Warren Hastings was the saviour of British India at this period.

The End of the First Mahratta War. Salbâi.

CH V. § 102, 103.
A. D. 1780.

Hartley kept the Konkan with admirable skill and bravery, while Goddard took *Bassein*. (December 11, 1780.)

Hartley.
Bassein Taken.

Goddard was compelled to retreat (and it was his only failure in the war) by the combined forces of the Mahrattas, and no great advantages were afterwards gained.

Goddard's unsuccessful Expedition.

§ 102. The terms of a peace were arranged in January 1782, but it was not concluded till the end of that year. Nânâ Farnavis delayed signing it till the 20th December, after he had received intelligence of Hyder's death, which happened December 7. It is called the treaty of SALBÂI. Mahâdajî Sindia was the Peishwâ's plenipotentiary. Its chief provisions were—

The Peace of Salbâi, 1782.
(Near Gwâlîôr, Sindia's Camp.)

(1.) Ragobâ was to have 25,000 rupees a month, and live where he chose. (He chose *Koperghôm*, on the Godâvari, where he died in 1783. His son Bâjî Râo was then nine years old.)

Conditions of Peace.
Ragobâ.

(2.) All territory was to remain as before the treaty of Pûrandar.

Territory.

(3.) All Europeans, except the English and Portuguese, were to be excluded from the Mahratta dominions.

Foreigners Excluded.

(4.) Hyder (who died while the treaty was being negotiated) was to be compelled to relinquish his conquests from the English, and from the Nuwâb of Arcot in the Carnatic. (Ch. xii. § 31.)

Hyder.

(5.) Broach was given to Sindia, for his humanity to the English, after the Convention of Wargâom. (§ 129.)

Sindia's Reward.

V. MAHRATTA HISTORY FROM THE TREATY OF SALBÂI TO THE TREATIES OF 1805.

§ 103. The effect of the treaty of Salbâi was to favour greatly Sindia's desire to form an independent Mahratta dominion. He no longer regarded himself as a feudatory of the Peishwâ. About this time he took possession of Gwâlîôr from the Râna of Gôhud, who had forfeited his

Sindia Aggrandises himself.

CH. V. § 104-106.
A. D. 1784.

The Mahratta War with Tippû.

October 1784.

claim to British protection. He then turned his attention to Delhi, where he obtained supreme authority, and was made by Shâh Alam II. commander-in-chief of the forces, and manager of the provinces of Delhi and Âgra.

The Disgraceful
Treaty of Man-
galore, 1784.

§ 104. Meanwhile *Tippû* (ch. xii. § 36) was allowed to cajole the Madras Government into a treaty, which was signed at *Mangalore*, in which no mention was made of the treaty of *Salbâi*, an omission most unfair to the Mahrattas, and unjust on the part of the English. Against this treaty, Hastings, now powerless, emphatically protested.

Sindia.

§ 105. Sindia, in 1785, was so elated by his position at Delhi, as to make a claim on the British Government for *Chouth* for their Bengâl provinces. Mr Macpherson, whose character Sindia doubtless wished to test, compelled him, by a most energetic and peremptory requisition, to disavow this claim. (Ch. x. § 17.)

The Mahrattas
and Tippû.

§ 106. From 1784 to 1787 the Mahrattas, in alliance with Nizâm Alî, were at war with Tippû. (Ch. xii. § 38.)

The English
refuse to join
in the War.

Nânâ Farnavis made great attempts to induce the English to join them, but in vain. While the treaty of *Salbâi* had bound the English and Mahrattas not to assist each other's enemies, the English were not prepared to assist in an offensive war against Tippû, to whom they were bound by the unfortunate treaty of *Mangalore*. Lord Cornwallis, in fact, announced it as the English rule, *to engage in none but defensive wars!*

1. *Badâmi*, a strong hill-fort, 55 miles N.E. from Dhârwar.
2. *Kittûr*, 19 miles W.N.W. from Dhârwar.
3. *Nargund*, 31 miles N.E. from Dhârwar.)

Nothing remarkable was effected during the war, at the conclusion of which, *Badâmi*, *Kittûr*, and *Nargund* were ceded to the Mahrattas, and Tippû engaged to pay forty-five lakhs of rupees as tribute. The *Tûmbhadra* river was then fixed as the boundary of the Mysorean's dominions.

The Mahrattas and Lord Cornwallis.

CH. V. § 107, 108.
A. D. 1785.

§ 107. From 1785 to 1789 the chief interest connected with Mahratta history is centred in Mahâdajî Sindia, who was vigorously prosecuting his schemes in Hindûstân. He was engaged in severe struggles (nominally on behalf of the emperor) with Pratâb Sing, the Râja of Jeypûr, as well as with the Râja of Jôdhpûr, and many of the lesser Muhammedan Jaghîrdârs, from whom he tried to extort tribute. During these conflicts, he met with several great reverses. A part of his troops were under the command of a Frenchman, General De Boigne.

Mahâdajî Sindia,
1785-1789.

Gholâm Kâdir, son of the Rohilla chieftain Zabîta Khân, now appeared on the scene. He was the hereditary enemy of Sindia. This infamous person, in the course of the struggle, occupied Delhi, and was guilty of unparalleled atrocities there. The wretched emperor was deprived of his eyes, and every member of his family exposed to deadly insult. (Ch. iii. § 23.)

Gholâm Kâdir.

Sindia soon recovered Delhi, and reinstated the fallen monarch. Gholâm Kâdir was taken and put to a horrible death. Bîdar Bakht, whom he had made emperor, was also slain. (Ch. iii. § 24.)

Shâh Âlam II.
Blinded.Gholâm Kâdir's
Punishment.

Sindia was now fully bent on making himself an independent sovereign. The Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, felt so jealous of his intrigues, that he sent a minister to reside at the court of the Peishwâ, as a check upon Sindia.

§ 108. Tippû did not long keep peace with the Mahrattas, and in the end of 1789 made his attack on the Travancore lines (ch. xii. § 40), which led to a declaration of war against him by Lord Cornwallis, and to a treaty between Nizâm Alî, Nânâ Farnavîs, and the English, to humble the Mysore state (1790).

Combination
against Tippû,
1789.

The Mahratta contingent was commanded by Parêshrâm Bhâo. They were dilatory in their movements. Another army under Harî Pant Phâkre was also sent. They did

The Mahrattas
before Seringa-
patam, 1792.

CH. V §109, 110.
A.D. 1790.

Mahādaji Sindia in Pûna. His Death.

little else than plunder and attend to their own interests; yet Lord Cornwallis, according to the terms of the treaty, made over to them (in February 1792) a share of Tippû's dominions, lying between the S. Warda and Kishtna.

Sindia in Pûna.

§ 109. Mahādajî Sindia continued supreme at the Mogul Court: the mayor of the palace. In 1790 he had procured from Shâh Âlam II., for the third time, the title of Vakîl-i-Mutlâq, or chief minister for the Peishwâ. Sindia and his heirs were to be perpetual deputies of the Peishwâ in this office, which was now made hereditary.

June 11, 1792.

To convey the patents and insignia of this office to the Peishwâ, Sindia now marched to Pûna. His arrival filled Nânâ Farnavîs with apprehension. The ceremony of investing the Peishwâ, now in his sixth year, with the insignia of office, was most splendid. Much was made too of an order issued by the emperor, in deference to the Mahrattas, forbidding the slaughter of cows in Hindûstân. Sindia's one object was to make himself supreme at Pûna; but he affected extreme humility; carried a pair of slippers as a memento of his hereditary office (§ 45); and would receive no title but that of Patêl, or village headman.

July 1792.

Sindia's Feigned Humility.

It was now a game of skill between the Nânâ and Sindia.

War between Sindia and Holkâr, 1792.

§ 110. Meanwhile in Hindûstân the jealousy between Holkâr and Sindia led to a battle between the former and Sindia's generals, De Boigne, Perron, Gôpâl Râo, and Lackwa Dâda. This bloody battle was fought at Lakairi, near Âjmîr. Holkâr's army was utterly routed, and retreated to Mâlwâ. Sindia took and burnt Ūjein.

Lakairi.

Death of Mahādajî Sindia, 1794.

Sindia, thus powerful everywhere, would probably have succeeded in overthrowing the Brâhman influence altogether, had he not died suddenly at Wanaolî, near Pûna, 12th February 1794.

Doulat Râo Sindia. The Sidis.

His career was most eventful. The chief Mahratta leader for thirty-three years (comp. § 77), he mediated between the Peishwâ and the English, and at the same time ruled the puppet emperor with a rod of iron. His objects were three:—(1.) to aggrandise his own family, and found for it a really independent sovereignty; (2.) to overthrow Brâhman ascendancy in Pûna; (3.) and to maintain unity among the Mahratta princes, so as to make Hindû influence supreme in India.

He was succeeded by his grand-nephew Doulat Râo Sindia (Table, § 45), then in his fifteenth year (§ 161). He was not really a Mahratta in feeling; but always regarded himself as the principal sovereign of India.

§ 111. In Berâr, Mûdaji, the regent, died in 1788, and Raghuji Bhonslê now assumed the dominion (§ 86). His title was Sêna Sahêb Sûbah, or Commander-in-Chief of the Mahratta Empire (§ 150).

§ 112. In Ahmedâbâd or Barôda, Fatih Gaekwâr died in 1789. His brother, Manaji Râo, became regent for Syaji; but dying in 1793, Govind Râo at last was acknowledged by all parties as regent (§ 122).

§ 113. On the coast, piracy, though checked by the expedition of 1756, still continued. The Peishwâ's fleets at Bassein and Vijiadrûg, occasionally annoyed English vessels. At Kolâba, Manaji Angria also committed occasional depredations.

In Jinjîra, the Sidis, though often attacked, retained their ground, and retained their little dominion, when the power of the Peishwâ had ceased to exist.

There were nests of pirates at Mâlwan and Sâwant-Wâdî; and piracy on the western coast was not finally put down till 1818 (§ 145).

§ 114. Nânâ Farnavis was now the only Mahratta statesman. The Mahratta confederacy still maintained the nominal supremacy of the Peishwâ; but the people were losing their adventurous spirit, and each chieftain

CH. V. § 111-114.
A. D. 1794.

Sindia's Policy.

Mahâdaji Sindia's Plans.

Doulat Râo Sindia, 1794-1827.

Nâgpur Affairs.

Barôda Affairs.

Piracy on the Western Coast.

Disunion and Decay, 1794.

CHAP. V. § 115.
A.D. 1794.

The Mahrattas and the Nizâm. Kûrdlâ.

The Last Gathering of Chiefs.

The Battle of Kûrdlâ, 1795. (59 miles S. E. from Ahmednagar. Surrounded by hills, having one pass on the W.)

(Mâdu Râo Nârâyana, Sixth Peishwâ. Comp. § 87.)
The Young Peishwâ's Reflections after Kûrdlâ.

Nânâ Farnavis and Ragobâ's Sons.

was gradually becoming independent of any central authority.

The disputes between Nizâm Alî and the Nânâ, regarding arrears of tribute, grew more and more complicated. Sir John Shore (timidly refusing to perform the duties to which the English were pledged by the treaty of 1790), would not interfere. (Ch. x. § 30.) The Nizâm was left to his fate. War was begun in December 1794.

Under the Peishwâ's banner, *for the last time*, came all the great Mahratta chiefs. Doulat Râo Sindia, Tûkajî Holkâr, Raghujî Bhonslê from Nâgpur; and Govind Râo from Barôda, and all the lesser chieftains were there.

At Kûrdlâ (March 1795), a victory was obtained by the Mahrattas, more the result of a panic among the Moguls than of Mahratta bravery. But Nizâm Alî was obliged to treat. An obnoxious minister, Mashîr-ul-mulk, who had resisted the Mahratta claims, was surrendered. Raymond, a Frenchman, was in command of the Hyderâbâd troops; while Perron was with Sindia's contingent. When the Hyderâbâd minister was surrendered, the young Peishwâ was seen to look sad; being asked the cause by the Nânâ, he replied, "I grieve to see such a degeneracy as there must be, on both sides, when the Moguls can so disgracefully submit, and our troops can vaunt so much of a victory obtained without an effort." The sad, moralising young Peishwâ was just twenty-one years of age.

Large territorial concessions were then made, including Dowlatâbâd.

§ 115. The Nânâ was now in the zenith of his power and influence; but he lost his popularity by his treatment of Ragobâ's sons, whom he imprisoned in Sewnerî. Bâjî Râo was the eldest, and was most accomplished, winning in his manners, and a general favourite.

The Nânâ forcibly prevented all intercourse between the young Peishwâ and his cousin; and this so irritated the

The Elevation of Bâjî Râo II.

young prince, that he threw himself from a terrace of his palace, and died in two days.

Bâjî Râo II. (see Table) succeeded him. But the Nânâ proposed that the late Peishwâ's widow should adopt a son, who should be placed on the Musnud.

After endless intrigues, Doulat Râo Sindia and the Nânâ united in the elevation of Bâjî Râo, and in December 1796 he was placed on the Musnud, with Farnavis once more prime minister. The Nânâ no doubt aimed at setting aside the Peishwâ, as the Peishwâs had superseded the Râjas. He made himself *hereditary Divân*. But he had no son to take his place.

§ 116. BÂJÎ RÂO II., though of most prepossessing manners and appearance, was a worthless man, fitted to bring to ruin, as he did, the state which had the misfortune to receive him for its ruler. He was the counterpart of Belial in Milton.

His first endeavour was to rid himself of Doulat Râo Sindia, and of the Nânâ.

The former was continually in Pûna, where he overruled the young Peishwâ, who determined to send him back to Hindûstân. But first the ruin of the Nânâ must be effected. It was determined, with the aid of Sindia, to seize him. Pûna for a day and a night was a scene of bloodshed and confusion. The Nânâ was sent a prisoner to Ahmednagar. Shirzî Râo *Ghâtgê*, father-in-law of Sindia, was made minister, and was allowed to plunder, torture, and kill the inhabitants of Pûna at his pleasure. He was an execrable monster. The Peishwâ was also assisted by his adopted brother, Amrit Râo.

Most disgraceful scenes were enacted in Pûna. Sindia now wished to return to Hindûstân; but could not find funds to pay his troops, and several battles, resulting from domestic quarrels, took place. The Nânâ was liberated, and at the earnest request of Bâjî Râo, who even paid

CHAP. V. § 116.
A. D. 1796.

The Suicide of
Mâdu Râo Nârâ-
yana, THE
SIXTH PEISHWÂ.
Oct. 22, 1795.
(§ 158.)

Bâjî Râo II.
The Seventh and
last Peishwâ.

His Character.

(Paradise Lost.
B. II.)

Pûna in Con-
fusion.

Ghâtgê.
(§ 141, 137.)

Bâjî Râo and the
Nânâ Farnavis
reconciled.

CH. V. § 117-119.
A. D. 1796.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr. The Nânâ's Death.

him a midnight visit in disguise, threw himself before the old minister, and swore that he had never consented to his seizure. The Nânâ again became minister.

Nizâm Ali comes under the Subsidiary System, 1796.

§ 117. Lord Mornington (Marquis of Wellesley) was now Governor-General. Nizâm Alî concluded a treaty, by which he dismissed his French soldiers; received six British battalions; and, in fact, came under the famous *subsidiary system*. (Ch. x. § 16.)

Now came the war of the English with Tippû. The Peishwâ, who had promised to help against Tippû, was secretly laying his plans to aid him, when the sudden intelligence arrived of the capture of Seringapatam, and the death of the Tiger of Mysore. (Ch. xii. § 54.)

Britain had no rival now in India, except the Mahrattas. That struggle must come!

Tûkaji Holkâr, and his Successor, Jeswant Râo Holkâr, 1795. (§ 75.)

§ 118. Tûkaji Holkâr died in 1795. He left four sons. The eldest was imbecile. The second was Mulhâr Râo, who was killed this year in a fray at Pâna, and the third, who was illegitimate, was called JESWANT RÂO. He eventually succeeded to the government. Meanwhile he became a great freebooter, and a formidable rival to Sindia. Bhîls, Pendâris, Mahrattas, and Afgâns now flocked to Indôr, like ill-omened birds of prey. He had soon an army of 70,000 men.

Mahratta Affairs in 1799.

§ 119. The century closed with universal confusion in Mahratta affairs. Civil war, in which the Râja at Satârâ, the Kolhâpûr chief, Sindia, and the Peishwâ's own officers were engaged, raged throughout the whole country.

Death of Nânâ Farnavis, 1800.

The death of Nânâ Farnavis, which happened in March 1800, sealed the ruin of the Peishwâ's Government. "With him," said the resident, Colonel Palmer, "has departed all the wisdom and moderation of the Mahratta Government."

Dundia Wág. Holkâr and Sindia.

CH. V. § 120, 121.
A. D. 1800.

He was an astute statesman, personally timid ; on the whole, a patriot. He firmly opposed the introduction of the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM into Pûna ; respected and admired the English, but politically regarded them ever with fear and aversion.

The Nânâ's
Character and
Policy.

§ 120. At this time a fugitive from Seringapatam, called Dundia Wág, entered the service of the Kolhâpûr Râja ; but afterwards left him, and, collecting troops, proceeded to plunder the Carnatic. Major-General the Honourable *Arthur Wellesley* attacked, pursued, and finally destroyed the freebooter and his troops.

Dundia Wág,
1801.

§ 121. In the end of 1800, Sindia returned to Mâlwa, where several bloody battles were fought between him and Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

Doulât Râo Sin-
dia and Jeswant
Râo Holkâr.

At this time the Peishwâ cruelly put to death Wittajî Holkâr, who had been long a prisoner in Puna. (Table.)

The infamous Ghâtgê joined his father-in-law Sindia's army, and under his command the troops gained a complete victory over Holkâr ; and the result was the pillage of Indôr, in revenge for that of Ūjein. (§ 110.)

Ahalyâ Bâi's sacred city was laid waste.

Jeswant Râo was now nearly ruined. Sindia's and the Peishwâ's troops gained several great advantages over him ; but he, by a skilful march, arrived unexpectedly in the neighbourhood of Pûna, and there gained a decisive victory, October 25, 1801.

Holkâr in Pûna,
1801.

This battle had the most momentous results. The Peishwâ fled to Singhur, and immediately offered to Colonel Barry Close, the British resident, an engagement to subsidise six battalions of sepoy, and to pay twenty-five lakhs of rupees annually for their support. He eventually passed over to *Bassein* and put himself under British protection. The entanglement of affairs was very strange.

The Peishwâ
under British
Protection, 1801.
Affairs that Led
to the Treaty of
Bassein.

CH. V. § 122, 123.
A. D. 1801.

The Treaty of Bassein, 1802.

Strange Entanglement of Mahratta Affairs.

The real Râja of the Mahrattas was in Satârâ, a mere puppet. (Table, § 27.) His chief minister and real sovereign, Bâji Râo II., the seventh Peishwâ, was driven from his capital by his feudatory, Holkâr, with whom Sindia was at war. The British have to mediate. THE MAHRATTA CONFEDERATION IS AT AN END. This is 122 years after the death of the founder, the great Sivaji.

Ahmedâbâd or Barôda Affairs.

§ 122. Meanwhile at Barôda (which had now become the capital of the Gaekwâr's dominions, instead of Ahmed-âbâd), on the death of Govind Râo (§ 112), the disputes about the succession compelled the English to interfere. They took the part of Râojî Appâjî as minister of the heir, Anand Râo (Table, § 89), who was of weak intellect.

Comes under the Subsidiary System, 1803.

Barôda was taken, a subsidiary force received, and the state came under the SUBSIDIARY SYSTEM, January 1803. (Comp. § 138.) This was ratified by the Peishwâ in the treaty of Bassein.

Major Walker, a distinguished administrator, became the first resident. Infanticide was abolished, and good order introduced through his wisdom, energy, and benevolence.

Sârat.

Sârat was finally taken possession of by Governor Duncan in 1799.

The Treaty of Bassein, 1802.

§ 123. To return : Holkâr soon began to plunder Pûna, and set up a new Peishwâ, a son of Amrit Râo. This hastened the signing of THE TREATY OF BASSEIN, 31st December 1802. This celebrated treaty disunited forever the Mahrattas, and gave the English complete authority over them. By it the Peishwâ engaged (1.) to receive a subsidiary force, and to pay twenty-six lakhs for its maintenance annually ; (2.) to receive no European of any hostile nation into his dominions ; (3.) to give up all claims to Sârat, and to leave his disputes with the Nizâm and the

The Conditions of the Great Treaty of Bassein. The Fourth Treaty.

Preparation for the Second Mahratta War.

CHAP. V. § 124.
A. D. 1803.

Gaekwâr to British mediation ; (4) to remain the faithful ally of England.

Full protection to him and to his territories was guaranteed by the British ; and this, it will be seen, was not a small matter, nor one easy of accomplishment.

Thus did Bâji Râo II. sacrifice his independence, and that of the race and people ; but the blame must rest on the shoulders of the ambitious chieftains, whose dissensions for ever ruined the Mahratta interest.

Protection.

Mahratta Independence at an End.
The Cause of this.

§ 124. We are now approaching the history of the second war of the Mahrattas with the English. (A.D. 1803–1804.) Doulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê were both opposed to the treaty of Bassein, and prepared for war. Sooner or later war with these chieftains was inevitable.

The War caused by the Treaty of Bassein.

General Wellesley had to reinstate the Peishwâ in Pûna. Jeswant Râo Holkâr was in possession of Pûna, Sindia at Burbhânpûr with an army. Raghujî was preparing for war.

Wellesley's and Stevenson's Armies.

Two armies were now marched, by the command of the Governor-General. One under Major-General Arthur Wellesley, assembled on the northern frontier of Mysore ; and the other, under General Stevenson, consisting of the Hyderâbâd subsidiary force, was encamped at Purinda, on the eastern border of the Peishwâ's territory.

General Wellesley reached Pûna by forced marches on 20th April. He had always maintained that India would never know peace till the English were supreme in Pûna.

The Peishwâ was reinstated in May. Holkâr retreated to Mâlwa, and Stevenson advanced to the Godâvarî to protect the country.

The Peishwâ Reinstated, 1803.

The two chieftains, Doulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê, still pretended to be well inclined to the British ; but demurred to the treaty of Bassein. General Wellesley, to whom the whole authority, political as well as military, had been entrusted, required that Sindia should withdraw

Sindia and Raghujî in Opposition to the British.

CHAP. V. § 125.
A. D. 1803.

Wellesley, Lake, and their Companions.

to Málwá, and Raghujî Bhonslé to Berâr, when he would remove the British troops.

This they refused to do, and the SECOND MAHRATTA WAR began.

Preparations
for the Second
Mahratta War.

§ 125. The Marquis Wellesley at once determined to attack the confederates at every point. He acted as his own minister of war. The British troops were stationed in the following places :—

In the Dakhan.

(1.) GENERAL WELLESLEY had 8930 men, and was encamped near Ahmednagar.

(2.) General Stevenson had 7920 men, on the bank of the Godâvarî.

(3.) General Stewart, with a covering army, was stationed between the Kishtna and Tûngabadra.

In Gujarât.

(4.) In Gujarât there were 7352 men, under General Murray, holding the various forts ; of whom 5000 were ready for field service.

In Hindûstân.

(5.) In Hindûstân GENERAL LAKE had 10,500 men.

(6.) At Allâhâbâd 3500 men were ready to act on Bandêlkhand.

In Orissa.

(7.) 5216 men were prepared to march on Kuttack, the extreme eastern point of Raghujî Bhonslé's dominions.

A glance at the map will show how completely the Mahratta powers were thus within the meshes of a mighty net.

The Mahratta
Forces.

To oppose these were Doulat Râo Sindia's troops and those of Raghujî Bhonslé, consisting of 50,000 horse, 30,000 infantry, commanded by Europeans, numerous and well-served artillery, and a great multitude of irregular troops ; but the leaders possessed neither courage nor military skill.

Sindia's troops, and, in fact, all his dominions in Hindûstân, were under M. Perron, who had succeeded the veteran De Boigne. Sindia himself had remained near Pûna from the date of his accession.

The Battle of Assaî.

CH. V. § 126, 127.
A. D. 1803.

Jeswant Râo Holkâr remained in Mâlhwâ, plundering, and striving to maintain an appearance of neutrality.

The Mahratta dominion now extended from Delhi to the Câverî, and from the mouth of the Mahânadî to the Gulf of Cambay, over a population of 40,000,000.

Their whole armies numbered 210,000 infantry and 100,000 cavalry.

§ 126. The first great blow, promptly delivered, was the capture of *Ahmednagar*, Sindia's great arsenal, August 12, 1803.

Stevenson took Jâlna, September 9.

Ahmednagar
Taken.(40 miles E. from
Aurangâbâd.)

§ 127. The second great blow was the VICTORY OF ASSAÎ. The whole Mahratta army was now strongly encamped near the village of Bokerdûn and Jaffirâbâd.

Assaî, 1803,
September 23.
(*Assye* or *As-
saye*.)

On 23d September, Wellesley learned that the confederates were encamped on the Kailnâ, near its confluence with the Juah; both being tributaries of the Pârna, which is a main affluent of the Godâvarî. In the fork of the two first rivers is the fortified village of Assaî. He resolved to attack them at once.

The Battle of
Assaî.

On the advance of the British troops, the Mahrattas began a terrible cannonade. The 74th Regiment, the 19th Light Dragoons, and the 4th Native Infantry, nobly contested the field. Three hundred and sixty men formed the whole 19th; but with a long huzza, they charged the whole Mahratta force, among whom were eight of De Boigne's trained battalions.

The enemy's line gave way, were forced into the Juah at the point of the bayonet by the advancing line of British infantry, and the battle was won: "but *one third of the British troops lay dead upon the field.*"

The Bayonet
Charge.

Doulat Râo Sindia and Raghujî Bhonslê fled from the field early in the day, almost at the first shot.

Terrible Loss.
The Coward
Leaders.

Stevenson joined Wellesley on the evening of the 24th.

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CH. V. § 128-130.
A. D. 1803.

Lake's Campaign in Hindûstân, 1803.

Burhânpûr and
Asîrghar Taken.

§ 128. The next undertakings were the reduction of the city of Burhânpûr, and of the fort of Asîrghar. These were accomplished (October 21), by Colonel Stevenson. Sindia had now nothing left in the Dakhan.

The Campaign
in Gujarât.

§ 129. In Gujarât, the city of Broach, Sindia's only seaport (§ 102), the fort of Pâwanganr and the town of Champnîr (ch. iii. § 4) were taken (September 17).

Lake's Victories,
1803.

§ 130. In Hindûstân, General Lake (Biog. Index), with the same powers that Wellesley possessed in the Dakhan, marched from Khânpûr against Sindia's army under Perron.

Lake's Three
Months of 1803.
(Coel, 50 miles
N. by E. from
Agra. Alîghar,
53 miles N. from
Âgra.)

(1.) He first took Coel and the adjacent fort of Alîghar August 29. Alîghar was always regarded as impregnable. The 78th Highlanders took it, with wonderful gallantry, by storm. Two hundred and eighty-one guns were captured in it.

Perron.

(2.) At this time Perron and his staff, who had long been objects of jealousy to the Mahratta officers, retired from Sindia's service. M. Louis Bourquin succeeded Perron.

Bourquin.

Battle of Delhi.

(3.) He met the English under the walls of Delhi, and was defeated in a battle skilfully fought by Lake, September 11.

The Nominal
Emperor Re-
scued.

(4.) Delhi surrendered. The person and family of Shâh Âlam II. came into Lord Lake's power. (Ch. iii. § 24.) So did Britain's power extend in less than fifty years after the battle of Plassey.

Sindia's French
Officers.
Âgra Taken.

(5.) Bourquin and the other French officers surrendered. (6.) Âgra was besieged and taken, October 18. Immense treasure was found there, and promptly distributed among the army.

The Battle of
Lâswari, No-
vember 1, 1803.
(73 miles N.W.
of Âgra.)

(7.) Lake now set out in pursuit of another wing of Sindia's army, the "*Dakhan Invincibles*," which retired before him to the hills of Mêwât. He overtook it (Nov-

Raghuji Bhonslê Yields. Dêogâom.

CH. V. § 131-134.
A.D. 1803.

ember 1), near Lâswarî, and a most severely contested battle was fought. The veterans trained by De Boigne died heroically in the field. The victory was, however, complete, and it laid all Sindia's dominions in Hindûstân, from Delhi and Âgra to the Chambal, at Lake's feet.

Its Consequences.

Thus was this formidable French-Mahratta power forever broken.

§ 131. Colonel Harcourt was sent against Kuttack, which he took (October 10). By the 14th of October, the whole district of Kuttack was conquered.

Kuttack.

§ 132. Colonel Powell cleared Bandêlkhand. (From September 16 to October 13.)

Bandêlkhand.

Shâm Shîr Bahâdar, who had taken possession of the country, was driven out. He was an illegitimate son of the Peishwâ, Bâji Râo. His son, Ali Bahâdar, was the ancestor of the present Nuwâbs of Banda. (Table, § 158.)

§ 133. In the Dakhan, negotiations for peace were entered into by the Mahratta chiefs, but in a vacillating and deceitful manner.

Argâom.

Wellesley, following up the Nâgpur army, now attacked the confederates at Argâom, and gained a complete victory.

November 28.

Gâwîlgarh, a celebrated stronghold of the Râja of Berâr, was taken December 15, by Colonel Stevenson. This strong fortress is on a high hill between the sources of the Taptî and the Pârna rivers.

Gâwîlgarh (15 miles N.W. from Ellichpûr.)

§ 134. On 17th December, Raghuji Bhonslê, utterly discomfited, signed a treaty, by which—

Treaty with the Râja of Nâgpur. The Peace of DÊOGÂOM. THE FIFTH MAHRATTA TREATY. ITS CONDITIONS. (Intro., § 20.)

(1.) He ceded Kuttack and Balasôre. (Comp. § 62.)

(2.) He gave up all his territory west of the N. Warda (the great cotton fields), and south of the range of hills on which Gâwîlgarh stands.

CH. V. § 135, 136.
A. D. 1803.

{ Doulat Râo Sindia is Humbled. Sirji Anjengâom.

Mountstuart
Elphinstone

(3.) He agreed to submit to British arbitration all disputes between himself, the Nizâm, and the Peishwâ; and

(4.) He engaged to admit no foreigners hostile to Great Britain into his service.

This is called the TREATY OF DÊOGÂOM. The Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone (one of the most celebrated of British-Indian statesmen, who twice refused to fill the office of Governor-General), was the first resident at the Nâgpur court.

Sindia makes
Peace.
The Treaty of
Sirji Anjengâom.
The SIXTH Great
Mahratta Treaty.

§ 135. Very reluctantly, on the 30th December 1803, did Doulat Râo Sindia sign a treaty, by which he ceded to the English all his territory between the Jamna and the Ganges; all north of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, and Gôhud; the forts of Ahmednagar and Broach and their districts; all between the Adjunta Ghâts and the Godâvarî.

Malcolm.

Major (Sir) John Malcolm was the first resident at Sindia's court. This is called the TREATY OF SIRJÎ ANJENGÂOM.

Sindia, in February 1804, agreed to come completely under Lord Wellesley's subsidiary system. The treaty was signed at Burhânpûr.

Other Minor
Treaties.

§ 136. Treaties were also made with the Râjpût chiefs of Jeypûr, Jôdhpûr, Bûndî, and Machêri; the Jât Râja of Bhartpûr, the Râna of Gôhud, and Ambajî Ingliâ, who had obtained a portion of the Gôhud territory.

Most of the Râjpût chiefs had been subdued by Holkâr and Sindia, and had suffered greatly.

Thus ended *the Second Mahratta War*.

It really lasted about four months. Skilful combination, vigour, and bravery mark every operation. (Comp. Chronological Index, 1803.)

The Third Mahratta War. Holkâr, 1804, 1805.

CHAP. V. § 137
A. D. 1804.

§ 137. The British had now (1804) three armies in the field—one at Jaffirâbâd ; one at Pûna ; and one, under Lord Lake, in Hindûstân.

War with
Jeswant Râo
Holkâr.

The two former were preserving peace in the newly assigned districts, and the last was watching Jeswant Râo Holkâr, who was ravaging Hindûstân, and had taken into his pay the disbanded soldiers of Sindia and the Râja of Berâr.

This chieftain, after many negotiations, proceeded to plunder Âjmir, and to threaten the Râjpûts under British protection. He demanded also cessions of territory, and it became evident that war with him was inevitable. An army of 80,000 men attended him in his forays. It was necessary that this predatory horde should be scattered.

Holkâr's Lawless
Proceedings.

This war began in April 1804, and lasted till December 1805. Holkâr was our antagonist, but Sindia also was involved in it. It was ended by an unsatisfactory and hollow peace.

It may be called the *Third Mahratta War*. We shall give a summary only of the events connected with it.

The Third Mah-
ratta War, 1804,
1805.

(1.) The fort of Tonk Râmpûra was stormed, May 16. Indôr was taken by Colonel Murray, August 24.

1804.

(2.) Colonel Monson was driven from the Mokhundra Pass to Delhi, losing his guns and baggage, and many of his troops, July 8—August 31. This almost rivals the Convention of Wârgâom (§ 97), or the defeat of Baillie. (Ch. xii. § 27.) The disgrace was soon wiped off.

Monson's Defeat.
(Intro., § 36.)

(3.) This emboldened Holkâr to attack Delhi, but he was nobly repulsed by Colonel Ochterlony, the resident, October 8—14.

(4.) General Frazer and Colonel Monson gained a complete victory at Dig. General Frazer fell, November 13. Colonel Monson took 87 guns, among which were fourteen that he had lost.

Battle of Dig,
1804.
(57 miles N. W.
from Âgra.)
Futihghur.
(On the W. bank
of the Ganges,
90 miles N. W.
from Lucknow.)

(5.) General Lake fell upon Holkâr's troops at Futihghur and cut them up, November 17.

CHAP V. § 137.
A. D. 1805.

The Third Mahratta War, 1805.

Siege of Dîg.

(6.) Lake besieged Dîg, which was stormed, December 23. Sir C. Metcalfe, then a young civilian, was present as a volunteer at this siege.

Holkâr's Utter Humiliation. (*Galna*, a strong hill-fort, 87 miles N.W. from Aurangâbâd.)

(7.) Thus all Holkâr's forts, Chanda, *Galna*, and his capital, Indôr, had been captured. He had lost all he possessed in Mâlâwâ, as well as in the Dakhan.

First Siege of Bhartpûr, 1805. (31 miles W. by N. from Agra.)

(8.) Dîg and Bhartpûr belonged to the Jât Râja, who had behaved treacherously to his allies the British.

(9.) Bhartpûr was now rashly and inconsiderately besieged. (January 2, 1805.) It is a fortified town, six or eight miles in circumference, surrounded by a very lofty mud wall, and was regarded as impregnable by the Hindûs. The Râja was resolute in his defence, and Lord Lake was not prepared for such a siege. Four assaults failed.

Lake utterly unprepared for such a Siege.

Meanwhile Holkâr and his friends were surprised and cut up on every side, by General Lake and his active officers.

The Jât Râja comes to Terms.

On the 16th April, the Râja came to terms, and though the city had not been taken, paid twenty lakhs of rupees, and renounced Holkâr's alliance.

Bad Effect of this Failure.

This was certainly a gain; but the ill success of the siege left a bad impression, which was not removed till Lord Combermere took the city in 1825. (Ch. x. § 81.)

Unfaithfulness of Doulat Râo Sindia.

(10.) Doulat Râo Sindia now broke faith, after the death of his great minister, *Wittal Pant*; seized Mr Jenkins, the assistant resident; with his father-in-law, the infamous Ghâtgê, and Ambajî Ingliâ espoused, though not quite openly, Holkâr's cause. He was annoyed, and justly so, at the denial to him of Gwâlîôr and Gôhud.

Lord Cornwallis.

(11.) Now came the second appointment of Lord Cornwallis, July 30, 1805. His mission was to restore peace at any sacrifice! Lord Lake conducted the negotiations.

Peace at any Price!

Treaty with Sindia.

(12.) A new treaty was made with Sindia, on the basis of that of Sirjî Anjengâom. Gôhud and Gwâlîôr were taken

The Peace of 1805. Sir G. Barlow.

CH. V. § 138, 139.

A. D. 1805.

from the Râna of Gôhud, who was unfit for government (§ 135).

Thus Sindia was conciliated.

The Gôhud Râna was to be supported by revenues assigned by Sindia. The pergunnahs of Dholapûr, Bâri, and Râjakera, were given to Râna Kirut Singh, and have since formed the *Jât Chiefship of Dholapûr*. (Intro., § 36.)

Jeswant Râo Holkâr was driven by Lord Lake into the Panjâb, where he obtained no assistance from the Sikhs. He sued for peace, and, fortunately for him, Sir G. Barlow's (ch. x. § 50 53) policy permitted him to obtain it on ludicrously easy terms. (November 1805.)

One thing is to be especially deplored here. The Râja of Bûndî, and other Râjpût chieftains, who had been our faithful allies, were left unprotected to the vengeance of Holkâr and Sindia. This Lord Lake earnestly deprecated, but in vain. Metcalfe, too, remonstrated in emphatic language.

Of course, troubles must again arise with these Mahratta chiefs. Mehîdpûr, and the events of 1818, will be required to bring these affairs to a satisfactory termination.

§ 138. The treaty of Barôda, April 1805, finally brought the Gaekwâr under the subsidiary system. This treaty was precisely similar to that of Bassein. (Comp. § 122.)

VI. EVENTS SUBSEQUENT TO 1805. THE DECADENCE
OF THE MAHRATTA STATES.

§ 139. We are now approaching the last period of Mahratta history.

The causes of the downfall of the Mahrattas were, as we have seen :—

The Râna of Gwâliôr.

The Chief of Dholapûr.

Peace with Jeswant Râo Holkâr.

British Desertion of the Lesser Chiefs.

The Treaty of Barôda.

(Sir G. Barlow, 1805-1807. Ch. x. § 49.)

The Downfall of the Mahrattas.

CII. V. § 140-142.
A. D. 1805.

Causes of the Mahratta Downfall.

(§ 103.)

(1.) The excessive aggrandisement of Mahādaji Sindia, making him independent of the Peishwā; and, in fact, a rival to him. His example was not lost on the other Mahratta chieftains.

Disunion.
(§ 82.)

(2.) The dissensions consequent on the death of Nārāyana Rāo, the quarrels and rivalries of Ragobā, Nānā Farnavis, Bāji Rāo II., Jeswant Rāo Holkār, and Doulat Rāo Sindia, completely disintegrated the confederation.

Differences of
Caste.

(3.) The confederation had within itself elements of disunion, and consequent weakness. The Peishwā and his councillors were Brāhmins; Sindia and Holkār were Sūdras; Raghujī Bhonslō was a Kshetriya (§ 45).

The English now
Supreme in
Delhi.

(4.) Shāh Ālam II. was now in the power of the British. Under the shadow of the new paramount power, the corruption and disorder which favoured the rise of the Mahrattas cannot exist.

Death of Jeswant
Rāo Holkār.
Disorders in
Indōr.
(Comp. § 160.)

§ 140. Jeswant Rāo Holkār, after committing many atrocities (Table, p. 179), went mad in 1808, and died so in 1811. His state was now in a condition of extreme disorder. It was administered by Tulsi Bāi, a concubine of Jeswant Rāo Holkār, in the name of Mulhār Rāo Holkār, an illegitimate son of that chief. The army had become totally unmanageable.

Sindia in
Gwāliōr.

§ 141. In 1810, Doulat Rāo Sindia made Gwāliōr his headquarters. His father-in-law, Ghātḡ, died that year, having been killed while resisting an order for his arrest. The influence of this ruffian on Doulat Rāo Sindia was most pernicious. He was a determined enemy of the British power.

Amīr Khān.
(§ 153.)

§ 142. The name of *Amīr Khān* appears frequently in the history of this period. He was an Afgān adventurer, who aided Jeswant Rāo Holkār in his early struggles (1800), became his greatest general, took the controul of affairs during his insanity, and was bent on establishing himself in Rājputāna (1809). (§ 148-153.)

A great contest arose among the Rājput princes for the hand of *Krishna Kumārī*, the beautiful daughter of the Rāna of Oudipūr. In the course of this, Mān Sing of Jōdhpūr sustained a terrible defeat. Amīr Khān fomented the quarrels. He even induced the Rāna of

Pûna from 1811 to 1813.

CH. V. § 143-146.
A. D. 1809.

Oudipûr to murder his daughter, on whose account these quarrels had arisen. With her own hand the lovely princess took the bowl of poison offered to her by her father, and saying, "This is the marriage to which I was foredoomed," drank it off.

With Amîr Khân there were many contests.

§ 143. We return to Pûna. From 1803 to 1810, Colonel Sir Barry Close was Resident there. Bâji Râo was full of hatred to the English, while sensible of the strength which their troops gave him. He professed the utmost cordiality, but intrigued with Sindia; and his great delight was to humble and oppress the families that had been opposed to his party. He had never ceased to regret the treaty of Bassein. He was not destitute of ability; but was intriguing, superstitious, and avaricious.

Bâji Râo II.

His utter want of Trustworthiness.

§ 144. In 1811, the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, who had been on General Wellesley's staff in 1803, and who had just returned from his celebrated mission to Kâbul (ch. x. § 69), was appointed Resident. He knew the people and the work, and *had much direct personal intercourse with the natives.*

Elphinstone in Pûna. (Lord Minto, 1807-1813.)

His Influence among the Natives.

§ 145. In 1811, while various arrangements were made for the settlement of the southern Mahratta country, the Râja of Kolhâpûr ceded the harbour of Malwân to the British, with the islands of Malwân and Sindidrûg, and engaged to renounce and discourage piracy, which was thus finally put down.

Piracy put Down.

The Dessâi of Sâwant-Wâdî made over Vingorla with a similar object (§ 113).

§ 146. We are now introduced (1813) to the man whose connection consummated the ruin of the Mahrattas. *Trimbuckji Dainglia* was a spy, and had risen, by every

Trimbuckji Daingli a.

CHAP. V. § 147.
A. D. 1813.

Trimbuckji, Bâji Râo II., and Mountstuart Elphinstone.

His Infamous
Character.

infamous compliance, to the position of chief favourite of Bâji Râo, who found in him a kindred spirit. This man hated Europeans, and laboured with success to impress his master with the idea that he could restore the Mahratta power to the state in which it was under the first great Peishwâs. His cruelty and violence in the exercise of the office of prime minister, which he soon obtained, were unbounded. The government was now exceedingly corrupt and oppressive.

His Plans.

Bâji Râo was induced by this wretched man to open communications with Sindia, Holkâr, and Raghuji Bhonslê, and his design was to restore the Mahratta confederacy.

Disputes between
Bâji Râo II. and
the Gaekwâr.

§ 147. The province of Gujarât was then much under British influence. The Resident was Colonel Walker, and his measures delivered it from anarchy. (See § 122.) There were disputes between Bâji Râo and the Gaekwâr's Government, regarding debts due to the Pûna court, and Gangâdhur Sâstrî was sent to discuss the matter. The Sâstrî, a Brâhman, was assassinated by Trimbuckji's agents, with Bâji Râo's concurrence, at the sacred shrine of Punderpûr. This outrage filled every mind with horror. Mr Elphinstone required the punishment of the assassin, and Trimbuckji was confined in the fort of Tanna, on the island of Salsette. From thence he escaped, through the contrivance of a Mahratta horse-keeper, who, while cleaning his master's horse outside the fort, sang the whole plan of escape to the prisoner within: another Blondel to a strange Cœur-de-Leon.* Trimbuckji was now supplied

(Lord Moira,
1814-1813.)

The Assassination
of the Sâstrî.

(On left bank
of the Bima, 110
miles S.E. from
Pûna.)
History of Trim-
buckji.
His Escape,
September 1816.
(§ 158.)

* Bishop Heber, who saw him there, says :—"The groom's singing was made up of verses like the following :—

Behind the bush the foemen hide,
The horse beneath the tree ;
Where shall I find a knight will ride
The jungle paths with me ?

The Pindâris.

CHAP. V. § 148.
A. D. 1814.

secretly with money by the Peishwâ, and proceeded to raise troops and organise an insurrection to drive the British from the country.

Mr Elphinstone, with the utmost forbearance, prudence, and firmness, tried to bring Bâjî Râo to a better mind, and to induce him to retrace his steps. It was, however, necessary, at last, to assume a most decided tone. A new treaty was prepared, and Bâjî was compelled to sign it (1817), circumscribing his power. Ahmednagar was ceded to the English. Trimbuckjî was to be given up; but he managed to elude his pursuers.

Mr Elphinstone's
Efforts in Pûna.

Bâjî Râo Coerced.

§ 148. The Marquis of Hastings (Lord Moira, ch. x. § 73) had succeeded (October 1813), and it became evident that the Patâns, under Amîr Khân (§ 142), and the Pindâris must be put down.

Lord Hastings.
(Moira, 1814-
1823.

The *Pindâris* were a collection of the lowest freebooters, the very refuse of all the lawless, predatory hordes that infested the Dakhan. They had followed, like obscene beasts of prey, the armies of the early Mahratta chieftains, by whom assignments of land had been made to them along the banks of the Nerbudda.

The Pindâris.

Their Origin.

Mulhâr R. Holkâr had given them a golden flag.

Their first conspicuous leader was *Kharîm Khân* (a Rohilla by birth), who had been imprisoned by Sindia in Gwâliôr, and was not released till 1810. Another was *Chîtu* (by birth a Jât), who was kept in confinement by Amîr Khân till 1816.

Their Leaders,
Kharim Khân
and Chitu.

Armed with Mahratta spears, every fifteenth man having a matchlock, and about two-fifths of them well armed and mounted, these dastardly brigands sallied forth, plundering, burning villages, torturing the people, and committing every imaginable excess.

The Nature and
Method of their
Expeditions.

'There are five-and-fifty coursers there,
And four-and-fifty men;
When the fifty-fifth shall mount his steed,
The Dakhan thrives again.'"

+

CH. V. § 149-151.
A. D. 1816.

Nâgpur. Lord Hastings' Plans.

When the Mahratta chieftains ceased to be engaged in endless wars, these Pindâris lost their occupation, as jackals attending those expeditions. They now began plundering on their own account, and gradually increased the field of their operations, and the daring of their exploits. Their army in 1812 did not fall short of 60,000 horsemen.

Their Oppor-
tunity.

Secret En-
couragement.

§ 149. The beginning of the war in Nîpal was unfavourable to the English. (Ch. x. § 74.) This encouraged the Mahrattas to contemplate the renewal of their confederacy. They therefore secretly abetted the Pindâris and Patâns in their excesses ; but the time had not come for any open hostilities.

Changes in Berâr
and Bhôpâl.

March 22, 1816.

Nâgpur fully under
the Subsidiary
System.

§ 150. In March 1816, Vazîr Muhammed, Râja of Bhôpâl, and Raghujî Bhonslê of Berâr died. (See Table.) *Parsajî* succeeded in Nâgpur ; but being idiotic, his cousin, *Appâ Sahêb* became regent.

With him a treaty was made, by which the Nâgpur state came fully under the *subsidiary system*. Yet he too was secretly in the conspiracy, of which Bâjî Râo II. was the head, against the English supremacy.

Arrangements
for the Pindâri
War, October 16,
1817.

§ 151. Now came on what we may call the FOURTH MAHRATTA WAR. It really lasted from October 1817, to February 18, 1818 ; though all the forts were not taken till April 1819.

The chief battles were :—

- A. Kirki (§ 154), November 5, 1817.
- B. Nâgpur (§ 159), November 26, 1817.
- c. Mehîdpûr (§ 160), December 21, 1817.
- D. Korigâom (§ 155), January 1, 1818.
- E. Ashtê (§ 157), February 19, 1818.

Lord Hastings, in 1817, resolved to put down finally, not only the Pindâris, but all the predatory powers of Central India. This was required by humanity, not less

Preparations for the Pindâri War.

CHAP. V. § 152.
A. D. 1817.

than by policy. The Nizâm's dominions, and the Northern Circârs, were invaded and pillaged. The Pindâris had thrown down the gauntlet, and the Governor-General was bound to take it up.

The treaties of 1805 had been virtually annulled, by the intrigues of Sindia and Holkâr, and by their constant violation of them. Both of these courts were scenes of intrigue and disorder. Their armies were utterly lawless and rebellious.

The Governor-General's plan was to surround the infested districts with troops, and thus to hem in and destroy the ravagers and their allies. Lord Hastings himself left Calcutta early in July 1817, for the scene of conflict.

Five divisions of troops were in the field under Sir Thomas Hislop. One division was stationed in Gujarât. Four divisions, under the personal command of the Marquis himself, marched from Bengâl, and a reserve force was posted at Adwânî. Contingents were left at Pâna, Hyderâbâd, and Nâgpur.

Sir Thomas Hislop was to advance into Mâlhwâ, crossing the Nerbudda at *Hindia*. A force from Nâgpur was to advance by Hoshungâbâd. The others were stationed in Berâr, and in Kândêsh, at Rewâri, Âgra, Sikandra, and Kalinjîr. The Gujarât force was to enter Mâlhwâ, by Gôhud. Other troops were on the Upper Sône, and on the Upper Nerbudda. (See map.) The whole British force amounted to 116,000 men, having 300 guns.

§ 152. The Governor-General first took up his position with the main army near Gwâlîôr, where Sindia was compelled to sign a treaty, by which he engaged fully to cooperate with the British in restoring peace and order, by the extermination of all the predatory hordes: a measure of which he especially was to reap the fruits. His cooperation was very insincere and tardy.

The Troops.

(Here is the best
Ford.)

Sindia.

CH V. § 153. 154.
A. D. 1817.

The Attack on the Pûna Residency.

Amîr Khân.

§ 153. *Amîr Khân* now made an agreement by which his Jaghîr was guaranteed to him, and he agreed to disband his lawless troops. [The family still possess Tonk. His grandson, Muhammed Alî Khân, succeeded to power in 1864.] Many other chieftains of Râjputâna and Central India put themselves fully under British protection, which was not freely afforded them. Among these were Zalim Sing of Kôtah, the Râjas of Bhôpâl, Bândî, Jôdhpûr, Oudipûr, and Jecypûr. Sir C. Metcalfe was then Resident at Delhi, and arranged the treaties with these chieftains.

Malcolm.

§ 154. Sir John Malcolm was appointed the agent of the Governor-General, with ample political powers, in the Dakhan. Bâjî Râo deceived Sir John by his protestations; but Mr Elphinstone was thoroughly convinced of his treacherous designs.

Bâjî Râo Treacherous.

Now we must relate what we may consider to be the first great episode of the Pindârî War.

The Attack on the Pûna Residency, November 5, 1817.

The Peishwâ was even then maturing his plans for an attack on the Residency. Mr Elphinstone, aware of his duplicity, would give him no pretext for a rupture, by any open preparations, or by an exhibition of distrust. The Peishwâ's troops were gathering round and humming in the British. Mr Elphinstone, from the terrace of the Residency, could hear the din of their preparations; but with quiet dignity he made only such unostentatious arrangements as the merest prudence demanded. He brought the British troops together to Kirki, four miles from Pûna. Bâjî Râo had determined to spare no one of the whole British residents except two persons—Dr Coats, who had cured him of an illness, and Major Ford, the commandant.

Elphinstone's Coolness.

Massacre Planned.

The Peishwâ's prime minister and commander-in-chief was Bappu Goklâ (nephew of an officer called Dhundu Pant), a chivalrous and honourable officer, the last of

The Heroic Defence of Korigaom.

CHAP. V. § 155.
A. D. 1817.

the great Mahratta warriors. (Ch. x. § 12 ; comp. § 157).

When it was evident that the attack was about to begin, Mr Elphinstone withdrew to Kirki, and a battle ensued between the Mahratta army, which consisted of 18,000 horse, and 8000 foot, with fourteen guns, and Major Ford's troops, consisting of 2800 rank and file, of whom 800 were Europeans.

The Mahrattas were easily defeated and driven off. The Peishwâ, however, plundered the Residency, and murdered several officers who were seized while travelling.

§ 155. General Smith, who was encamped near the Chanda hills, now marched on Pûna. Bâji Râo fled before him. The English general occupied the city, and then pursued the Peishwâ, who fled to Mâhulî (Mowlee), a sacred place near Satârâ, at the confluence of the Yenâ and Kishtna, then to Panderpûr, then to the north of Junîr (where he fortified himself at Bâmanwârî), and finally to the south. There the Râja of Satârâ (§ 94) and his family joined the English general.

Meanwhile a battalion, consisting of about 500 men, belonging to the 1st Regiment, was sent for from Serûr by Colonel Bar, who then commanded in Pûna.

It marched on the 21st December 1817, attended by 300 irregular horse, all under the command of Captain Francis Staunton. On reaching Korigaom (January 1, 1818), they found 25,000 Mahratta horse on the opposite bank of the Bima. These, with 5000 of the Peishwâ's infantry, attacked the British troops, who were exhausted by a long night-march, were without food or water, and compelled to fight under a blazing sun. The conflict raged all day, and at nightfall the Peishwâ's army retreated. The Peishwâ himself, from a height two miles distant, beheld the fight. Captain Staunton lost 175 men in killed and wounded ; but the Mahrattas lost about 600 men.

The Battle of
Kirki.

English Victory.

Bâji Râo Pur-
sued.(40 miles N. E.
from Pûna)The Heroic De-
fence of Kori-
gâom, January 1,
1818.
(Or *Corregaum*,
on the Bima, 17
miles E. N. E.
from Pûna.)

Ch. V. § 156-158.
A. D. 1818.

The Fall of the Peishwás.

This was the most heroic event of the war : the *famous defence of Korigdom.*

Bâji Râo Pursued.

Munro.
(Ch. iii. § 16)

§ 156. The Peishwâ now fled towards the Carnatic. On the bank of the Gutpurbâ he found General Thomas Munro, commissioner of those ceded districts (afterwards Governor of Madras), with troops he had raised on the spot, ready to oppose him. He then fled towards Shôlapûr.

Satârâ Occupied.

§ 157. On February 10, 1818, Satârâ was taken. The next day the Bhagwa Jenda (or swallow-tail flag of Sivaji) was hoisted, and a proclamation was issued, declaring that Bâji Râo and his family were excluded from all share in the government, which was assumed by the Governor-General, reserving a small tract around Satârâ for the comfortable and dignified maintenance of the Râja.

The decisive battle, where Goklâ fell, was fought at *Ashî*, between Shôlapûr and Punderpûr, February 19.

The Peishwás from 1714 to 1818.

Thus fell the house of Bâlâjî Vishwanâth, which from 1714 (contemporary with the English house of Brunswick), had in reality swayed the Mahratta sceptre. (See Table.)

Bâji Râo Surrenders.

§ 158. Bâji Râo, after wandering about with his army, suffering great privations, and looking vainly for help from the Mahratta chiefs, themselves in great straits, surrendered to Sir John Malcolm, who guaranteed him the princely pension of eight lakhs of rupees per annum.

The Sequel of his History.

Bitûr, near Khânpûr, was assigned as his residence. There he died in January 1853. (Ch. x. § 147.)

(§ 147.)

Trimbuckjî managed to evade his pursuers, till he was seized by Lieutenant Swanston, and was retained a prisoner to the period of his death, in the fort of Chunâr, on the Ganges.

Bâji Râo had no sons. He adopted Sirik Dhundû Pant (§ 154), commonly called the Nânâ Sahêb. This

§ 158. THE PEISHWÁS.—Chap. V. § 40-157.

I. BĀLĀJĪ VISHWAKĀTH A.D. 1714-1720. § 40.

II. BĀJĪ RĀO (I.) A.D. 1720-1740.
The Greatest of the Peishwás. He sought
out men of talent. § 44.III. BĀLĀJĪ BĀJĪ RĀO. A.D. 1740-1761.
Died broken-hearted after hearing of
disaster of Pānīpat. § 56 to 70.Chimnaji Appā. § 48.
Sivadasna Chimnaji.
§ 63-70.Rajunaktha Rāo.
(Ragoonak.)
The cause of the second
Mahratta War. § 63-102.Shamsahir Bahādar.¹VISWAS RĀO.
Killed at Pānīpat, 1761.
§ 69-70.IV. MĀDUR RĀO.
A Great warrior.
A.D. 1761-1772.
§ 72.V. NĀRĀYANA RĀO.
Assassinated, 1773. § 83.VI. MĀDUR RĀO NĀRĀYANA.
Committed suicide, 1795.
Posthumous son, 1774. § 115.Amarit Rāo. (Adopted son.)
Made an agreement
with the English in 1803.
Lived at Tircha.
Died in 1824.²VII. BĀJĪ RĀO (II.)
A.D. 1795-1853. § 116.
(Adopted son.)
The infamous
NĀNĀ SĀHĒR.¹ He was the son of a Muhammedan concubine. His descendants were the titular Nuvāhs of *Bandra*. In 1804 a pension of four lakhs of rupees was given him. This was forfeited by his descendant *Alī Bahādar*, who joined in the rebellion of 1857. He was sent to Indor. § 132.² His grandsons joined in the rebellion of 1857. The younger is now in Bareilly, a ward of the British Government, having a pension of 30,000 rupees a year.

CHAP. V. § 159
A D. 1818.

The Treachery of the RĀja of Berār.

man, infamous for the Khānpūr massacres (ch. x. § 30), perished in the Nīpal jungles.

Thus ended the line of the Peishwās.

Nāgpur Affairs.
(He would be Mūdajī II.,
comp. § 98.)

§ 159. *Appā Sahēb* (§ 150), (sometimes called Mūdajī Bhonslê), regent of Nāgpur, procured the murder of Parsajī, though this was not then known, and so succeeded him.

He determined to abet the Peishwâ in his schemes. Mr Jenkins was then Resident. It was the fortune of several of the great administrators of British India to be distinguished in the field. Elphinstone, Jenkins, and Malcolm were conspicuous in these wars for coolness and military skill.

Appā Sahēb did not show his real colours till November 24. He was not aware then that the Peishwâ had made his attack, and failed, but a few days before (November 5).

Mr Jenkins had about 1400 men fit for duty. Appā Sahēb's troops were about 18,000. Thus the Mahratta army was twelve times more numerous than the British.

The Residency was at Sītābaldī, two hills to the west of Nāgpur. The attack was foiled chiefly by the gallantry of Colonel Hopeton Scott and Captain Fitzgerald. It began on the evening of November 26, and was not finally repulsed till about noon the next day. In gallantry it equalled Korigāon.

Reinforcements soon arrived under General Doveton. Appā Sahēb surrendered. The fort of Nāgpur, still held by the Arab mercenaries, was stormed. Appā was reinstated with the most stringent provisions for his fidelity to the British power. He began almost immediately to intrigue again, was arrested by Mr Jenkins, and sent, by command of the Governor-General, to be imprisoned at Allāhābād; but escaped on the road, joined Chītu the Pindārī chief, was in the fort of Asīrghar when it was

The Attack on
the Nāgpur Re-
sidency, Nov. 26.

The Battle of
Nāgpur.

Continued Treachery of the RĀja.
The End of Appā Sahēb.

The Final Defeat of the Pindâris.

CHAP. V. § 160.
A. D. 1818.

taken (§ 162), and after many wanderings took refuge with the Sikhs, and finally at Jôdhpûr, where he lived and died in utter obscurity (1840).

A grandson of the late Raghuji Bhonslê was put on the Musnud, assuming his grandfather's name. From this time Nâgpur may be considered to have been under British government; and under the wise management of Mr Jenkins, the Resident, it flourished greatly.

A treaty was signed by this Râja, when he attained his majority in 1826, renouncing all dependence upon the Râja of Satârâ, and all connection with that prince or any other Mahratta power; and confirming in all essential particulars the former subsidiary treaty made with Appâ Sahêb.

Raghuji dying in 1853 without issue, his dominions were annexed.

Under successive British commissioners the whole district has since attained unprecedented prosperity.

§ 160. We must return from these two episodes, recording the fortunes of the last Peishwâ, and of the Nâgpur Râj, to the *Pindâris*.

They were under three leaders—Chîtu, Kharîm, and Wasîl Muhammed (§ 148).

This last was the son of Hîra, a distinguished Pindâri leader under Mahâdajî Sindia.

Sir John Malcolm, in concert with the generals of the other divisions, gradually drove them from their haunts across the Nerbudâ.

Chîtu finally took refuge in Holkâr's camp, near *Mehîdpûr*, on the right bank of the Sipra. Tulsî Bâi, the regent (§ 140), had at length been compelled by the chiefs around her to join the confederacy against the British, and had marched to that place, where a great and decisive battle was fought.

Tulsî Bâi was put to death by her troops, because they

Settlement of
Nâgpur.Its Prosperity.
Treaty.Annexation of
Nâgpur, 1853.
(Comp. ch. x. §
144.)The Defeat of the
Pindâris.Battle of Mehîd-
pûr, 1817, or
Maheîdpûr.

CHAP. V. § 161.
A. D. 1818.

Holkâr, Sindia, and the Pindâri Leaders.

suspected her of a design to treat with the English. She was a woman of great beauty, tact, and intellect; but vindictive and dissolute.

Mulhâr Râo Holkâr's troops were now about 20,000 in number, and were encamped on the Sîpra, a tributary of the Chambal. They were a splendid body of cavalry, full of enthusiasm. Sir J. Hislop and Sir John Malcolm crossed the river, attacked the enemy's strong position, carried it, dispersed them, and gained a complete victory, December 21, 1817.

Treaty of MUNDISÔR.
The SIXTH Great
Mahratta Treaty.

At Mundisôr (or Mandeshwar), in Râjputâna, January 6, 1818, a treaty between the young Mulhâr Râo Holkâr and the Governor-General was signed. By this treaty he abandoned all authority over the Râjpûts, and placed himself absolutely under British protection, thus securing his territories and his dignity.

Mulhâr Râo Holkâr died childless in 1833, at the age of twenty-eight.

After some disputes, Hari Râo Holkâr, son of a brother of Jeswant Râo, was installed at Indôr, March 1834. He died in 1843. His adopted son, Khandî Râo (no relation), died the following year. Tûkaji Râo II. then succeeded. He attained his majority in 1852.

Sindia's History
See Table, § 45.

§ 161. Doulat Râo Sindia, overawed by the near approach of Lord Hastings' army, remained quiet, and there is nothing more of importance to record of him. He retained his dominions in peace.

He died in March 1827, after a reign of thirty-four years.

His adopted son, Jankojî, succeeded; but quarrels between him and Baija Bâi, widow of Sindia, and daughter of the infamous Ghâtgê (§ 141), increased by the indecision of Lord W. Bentinck, ended in the expulsion of the Bâi.

For the conclusion of the history of Gwâliôr, see chap. x. § 124.

The Restoration of the Râja of Satârâ.

CH. V. § 162-164.
A. D. 1818.

§ 162. Of the three Pindârî leaders, *Kharîm Khân* surrendered to Sir J. Malcolm in February 1818; *Wasîl Muhammed* gave himself up to Sindia, and subsequently poisoned himself; and *Chîtu* only remained. He was driven from one place to another, his followers gradually forsaking him, until he was devoured by a tiger in the jungles near Asîrghar.

The Pindârî
Leaders.

The fort of Asîrghar itself, however, was not taken by General Doveton until April 9, 1819. This was the last exploit in the war: here the Mahrattas made their final effort.

Thus in about four months (from October 1817 to February 1818) had the Pindârîs been destroyed; the armies of Holkâr, of the Peishwâ, and of Nâgpur routed; the whole of Central India brought fully under British authority; and, in fact, the Mahratta empire finally extinguished.

Thirty hill-fortresses were taken in a few weeks. This war was remarkable for the vigour with which the enemy were followed up, and driven from all their fastnesses.

§ 163. The conclusion of the Pindârî war was marked by a general arrangement with the lesser chiefs, whom the Mahrattas had hitherto oppressed, bringing them under British protection.

Conclusion of
the Third Mah-
ratta War.

The Râja of Bândî (§ 136), the Râja of Bhôpâl (§ 96), and those of Jeypûr and Jôdhpûr, were among those who received additional territory.

§ 164. After the surrender of Bâjî Râo, the Râja of Satârâ was, with great pomp, restored, seated on the throne by the British authorities.

The Râja of
Satârâ restored,
April 11, 1818.

He immediately issued a proclamation, making over the government to Captain Grant Duff, the author of the "Mahratta History." He complained bitterly of Bâjî Râo, who, among other things, had given an order to the Killidâr of the fort of Wassota (west of Satârâ), where the Râja and his family were confined, to put them all to

Grant Duff.

The Râja's First
Proceedings.

CHAP. V. § 165.
A.D. 1818.

The Settlement of the Mahratta Country.

Pratâb Singh. 17

death, rather than allow them to fall into the hands of the British. The Râja's name was Pratâb Singh (son of Sâhu II.), then in his twenty-seventh year. (Table.)

His Dominions.

The territory assigned to him was the tract between the S. Warda and the Nîra, from the base of the Syhadri mountains to Panderpûr.

[The whole proceeding was unwise.]

Fall of the Râja of Satârâ.

The Râja intrigued against his benefactors, and in 1839, Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay (1839-1841), gave him every opportunity of retracing his steps; but he was obstinate, and was deposed, his brother being raised to the nominal dignity. Satârâ was annexed by consent of the home authorities in 1849. The ex-Râja died in October 1847, and the Râja himself in April 1848.

(Comp. ch. x. § 144.)

The Settlement of the Mahratta Country, 1819.

§ 165. The real history of the Mahrattas may close with a summary of the settlement by British authorities of the country thus conquered. FOUR wars had been waged, with which the names of *Warren Hastings*, *Lord Wellesley*, and Lord Hastings are to be connected. The climax had been reached.

General Munro.

General Thomas Munro reduced all the country to Shôlapûr, including Badâmi.

Forts.

General Pritzler's force took Singhur, Pûrandar, and Wassota, before April 10.

Raighur.

The Bombay Government conquered the Konkan. Raighur, the famous capital of Sivaji, the strongest fort in the East, was taken May 7, 1818.

Other Forts, 1818.

The forts from Pûna to Ahmednagar, and those in the Chanda range, were taken by Major Elridge, Colonel M'Dowell, and Colonel Cunningham.

Political Officers.

The whole country was now divided among various British officers, who gradually brought it into order. Captains Grant Duff, Robertson, Henry Pottinger (afterwards Governor of Madras, 1848-1853), and Captain Briggs (translator of "Ferishta," and author of the "Muhammedan History"), were employed under Mr

Conclusion of the History of the Mahrattas.

CH. V. § 166, 167.
A. D. 1819.

Elphinstone, who became Governor of Bombay in November 1819, and held that office till he was succeeded by Sir J. Malcolm in 1827.

The Bhils of the mountains adjoining Kândesh were reduced to submission by Sir John Malcolm. Till his removal to Bombay, as the successor of Elphinstone, he laboured in Central India with rare benevolence and wisdom, and his name is regarded with the highest veneration in those districts to this day.

The Bhils of
Central India.

§ 166. The Râja of Kolhâpûr, who had been a faithful adherent of the British, was rewarded with the districts of Chickuri and Menouli.

The old hereditary Jaghirdârs, the Râja of Akulkôt (§ 45), the Pant Suchêo of Bhôr (one of the eight hereditary ministers of the Mahratta empire), the Prati Niti of Satârâ, the Dufflê, the Nimbâlkur of Phultun, the Waikar of Wai, and others secured their estates.

The *Sâwant Wâdi* state was included in the treaties of 1819. The Phatwardan, the Bhâwa of Râmrûg, and the Ghorepuray of Mûdhôl, are the chief of the Southern Mahratta Jaghirdârs.

Liberal pensions were given to all who had just claims.

From that time to this the progress of the Mahratta country has been rapid and unbroken. This, however, can best be studied in the voluminous and highly interesting published selections from the records of the Bombay Government.

Mahratta Jaghirdârs.
The Satârâ Jaghirdârs.

§ 167. Thus have we traced a faint outline of the story of this most remarkable Indian race, whose rise, as a ruling power, was coeval with our own. A people, among whose ancestors were men like Sâlivâhana, Sivaji, the first four Peishwâs, Râm Sâstrî, Nânâ Farnavis, Mulhârji Holkâr, Rânoji Sindia, and Ahalyâ Bâi, deserves to rank among the foremost.

We have traced them from Tornea, where the youthful Sivaji performed his first exploit; to *Udghîr*, where they obtained their greatest victory over a Muhammedan army; to *Pânipat*, where they received the blow which for ever enfeebled them; to *Bassein*, where they triumphed as no other Indian race has triumphed, over a European foe; to *Arras*, where they first, in an open battlefield, met an English army; to *Kurdllâ*, where all their confederate hosts mustered for the last time; to *Assai*, where the great Wellington taught them that Mahratta horsemen could never hope to stand against the British bayonet; to Delhi, where Lake took the Mogul emperor out of their hands; to Laswârî, where all Hindûstân was wrested from their grasp; and to Mahîdpûr, where they fought their last national fight with us. Thus we have traced their history through triumphs and defeats. Maintaining a not unequal war for forty years with the greatest of the Moguls, we have seen them at length supreme in Delhi itself. Over the Portuguese they triumphed. They have conquered and ruled from the banks of

Recapitulation
and Conclusion.

Conclusion of the History of the Mahrattas.

the Indus to those of the Cáveri; from the shores of Orissa on the east, to Gujarát on the west. The matchless genius of the Wellesleys, of Lake, and of many other Britons hardly inferior to these, was required to effect their overthrow.

Wargáom and the Mokhundra Pass seemed for a moment to give them a hope of overcoming even Britons themselves; but, in a vast number of exciting conflicts, we have seen them beaten down; until, while scions of the race still reign in Gwáliór, Indór, and Baróda, upheld by British power and guided by British councils (and long may they so reign in peace and progressing prosperity), in the other seats of antient Mahratta dominion, English commissioners and collector-magistrates hold sway. If their career, for the most part, was one of restless aggression, of unscrupulous treachery, and of devastating warfare; if their great aim was to plunder the districts they overran; if they have conferred no moral or intellectual benefits on mankind; if their subjugation was the greatest blessing that could be conferred upon the unhappy regions wandered over and trodden down by their countless hosts: we cannot, for all this, cease to regard their history as one of the most interesting episodes in the annals of the human family.

Henry of Lancaster, 1460.

CHAP. VI. § 1.
A. D. 1419.

CHAPTER VI.

The Portuguese in India.

§ 1. Englishmen have a special interest in the history of Portuguese maritime discovery. John of Gaunt, "time-honoured Lancaster," had a daughter, Philippa, by his first wife, Blanche of Lancaster, who was married to John I. of Portugal. Their third son, Prince Henry, being intent upon encouraging maritime enterprises to the utmost, took up his abode at Sagres (near Cape St Vincent), from whence he could see the fleets sailing forth on their errands of discovery. This good Prince was, till his death in 1460, the great patron and promoter of navigation in Portugal.

The Beginning of Portuguese Maritime Enterprise, 1419-1460.

Prince Henry of Portugal.

— "The Genius, then,
Of Navigation, that in hopeless sloth
Had slumbered on the vast Atlantic deep
For idle ages, starting, heard at last
The Lusitanian Prince, who, heaven-inspired,
To love of useful glory roused mankind,
And in unbounded commerce mixed the world."

He died in 1460; but his labours produced abundant fruit before the end of the century. All Europe felt the impulse.

(*Marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile, 1460.*)

CH. VI. § 2, 3.
A. D. 1420.

Vasco da Gâma. State of India.

The Progress of
Discovery.

The Western
Coast of Africa.

Diaz rounds the
Cape, 1486.

Da Gâma reaches
India, 1498.

(Cabot was mak-
ing discoveries in
America.)

Summary of
Indian Affairs.

§ 2. After the discovery of Madeira in A. D. 1420, and of the Cape de Verde islands in A. D. 1460, the great object the Portuguese navigators had in view was to complete the circuit of Africa. This grand design they accomplished, and in doing so changed the whole face of European affairs.

In 1486, Bartholomew Diaz, an experienced and enterprising navigator, passed the most southerly point of Africa, naming it the Cape of Tempests; but King John II., who had far more comprehensive views, called it the Cape of Good Hope. A new route of navigation to the East had now been discovered.

In 1497, Vasco da Gâma was sent out by King Emmanuel, the enlightened patron of sea-adventure; passed the northern extremity of the mighty continent, without encountering any storms or dangers; and, skirting the eastern coast of Africa, procured a pilot at Melinda, from whence he steered boldly across the Indian Ocean, and cast anchor off Calicut, on the 11th of May 1498. Vasco da Gâma now knew that his name would rank with that of Columbus; and that his own country might again vie with Spain, enriched as she was with the wealth of the New World. All Europe too was aware that a new æra had dawned upon the human race.

§ 3. The emperor reigning in Delhi at that time was Sikander, the second of the house of Lôdf. (Ch. ii. § 47. A. D. 1488-1517.)

The Bâhmanî dynasty, then ruling in the Dakhan, was, under the weak Mahmûd II., falling to pieces. (Ch. iv. § 21.)

The Bîjapûr kingdom, established A. D. 1489 by Yûsuf Âdil Shâh, possessed the Konkan, between the Western Ghâts and the coast, from Goa to Bombay. (Ch. iv. § 22, 23.)

Vasco da Gâma. State of India.

CH. VI. § 4, 5.
A.D. 1498.

South of Goa the country was still under petty Râjas. (Ch. iv. § 8.)

India at the close of the Fifteenth Century.

The most considerable of these was the Tamurin or Zamorin of Calicut.

The Mamelukes reigned in Egypt from 1382 to 1517. Khânsu Ghôri was their chief at this period.

The Usbeks in 1498 got possession of Bokhâra.

Bâbér was then engaged in his arduous struggles west of the Indus. (Ch. iii. § 3.)

§ 4. The Râja of Calicut was a Hindû. The port was open to merchants of every nation; but the trade was in the hands of the Muhammedans (or Moors) from Arabia, Egypt, and the eastern coast of Africa. Muhammedanism had made great progress in Malabâr owing to the efforts of these Arabian traders. Of these converts the Mâpillas (Moplas) are the descendants.

Da Gâma in Calicut. (Ch. iv. § 8.)

These men, who trafficked in every great part of India, Africa, and the Mediterranean, were the rivals and bitter enemies of the Portuguese, and often combined with their fellow Muhammedans in India.

Da Gâma landed in great pomp, and had an interview with the Râja, who received him with kindness; which, however, was soon turned into suspicion by the artifices of the Muhammedans. Finding his armament insufficient, he returned to Portugal, where he arrived in August 1499, and was ennobled and amply rewarded by Emmanuel, King of Portugal (1498-1521), whose reign was thus rendered memorable by the foundation of the Portuguese power in the East.

Returns to Lisbon, 1499.

§ 5. The next expedition, under *Alvarez Cabral*, sailed in A.D. 1500.

Cabral.

He was accompanied by eight friars, with instructions to propagate Christianity wherever they came, and to carry fire and sword into every country that refused to

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CHAP. VI. § 6.

A. D. 1500.

Alvarez Cabral.

receive it. Thus they irritated the Muhammedans by their cruel intolerance.

Discovery of
Brazil, 1499.

Cabral, in sailing southward through the Atlantic, was carried too far towards the west: a fortunate accident, for he thus discovered the fertile, finely wooded coast of Brazil, which has ever since been a possession of the Portuguese, and which now, under a prince of the royal family of Portugal, is a flourishing, independent empire.

Death of Bartho-
lomew Diaz, 1500.

In the storms this expedition encountered while passing the Cape, Bartholomew Diaz, who had first rounded it, (§ 2) perished.

Cruelty of Cabral.

Cabral arrived at Calicut in September 1500. He was at first received with kindness, but jealousies soon arose. He captured a ship belonging to the Moors, who in revenge attacked the factory and massacred fifty of the Portuguese. Cabral revenged himself by burning the Moorish ships and bombarding the town, after which he withdrew to Cochin, a city second at that time to Calicut only. Here he was well received, as at Cannanûr also. The Râjas of these places were at enmity with their nominal superior the *Zamorin*.

Conduct of the
Portuguese in
India.

He reached Lisbon, July 31, 1501, where the story of his disasters excited strong interest.

The Portuguese had been wanting in tact. They had not tried to conciliate; but had behaved with the arrogance of conquerors. Yet in regard to trade they were in the event eminently successful. By their command of the seas they secured an absolute monopoly of all Indian products, which now found their way to Europe only round the Cape, the routes by the Persian Gulf and Red Sea being closed.

Venice, Genoa, and Amalphi saw with dismay the sources of their opulence dried up.

§ 6. Vasco da Gâma was soon at the head of a new

Gâma's Second Expedition. Duarte Pacheco.

CH. VI. § 7, 8.
A. D. 1502.

expedition, bent on revenging the supposed wrongs of Cabral, and on carrying things with a still higher hand.

He tarnished the lustre of his name by seizing a Moorish ship, and burning it with all its crew. Anchoring off Calicut, he demanded redress for the injuries sustained by Cabral; and when some delay occurred, collected fifty natives from different captured ships, cut their throats, sending their hands and feet on shore to the Zamorin.

Gâma's Cruelty,
1502.

After this the natives contrived to get him into their power; but he escaped and set sail for Portugal. This expedition seems to have been entirely fruitless.

Meanwhile a squadron under Vincente Sodre cruised about the mouth of the Red Sea, to cut off the Moorish vessels; and thus the Portuguese made themselves masters of the Arabian Gulf. Vincente Sodre, after many acts of piracy, perished at sea.

§ 7. The next expedition, in 1504, was under the two brothers Alphonso and Francisco Albuquerque and Saldanha.

Albuquerque,
1504.

Alphonso Albuquerque is the greatest name in Indo-Portuguese history (§ 12). He was not uniformly successful, nor perhaps always prudent. The comparison of his history with those of Clive and of Duplex will be most instructive.

At this period, the Zamorin, enraged at the countenance afforded to the foreigners by the Râja of Cochin, had attacked and driven him from his capital to the island of Vipeen, where he was rescued by Albuquerque. After an unsuccessful attempt to arrange matters with the Zamorin, the Albuquerquees returned to Europe, leaving the fleet in the hand of Duarte Pacheco.

§ 8. *Duarte Pacheco* was a man of rare valour, a most able commander, and far-sighted politician. His exploits

Duarte Pacheco
1504.

CH. VI. § 9, 10.
A.D. 1504.

Defence of Cochin. Almeyda, the First Portuguese Viceroy, 1505.

The famous De-
fence of Cochin.
The First Great
European Victory
in India.

1504.
1746.
1757.

resemble those of the French *Paradis*, while his end was that of *Dupleix*. (Ch. viii. § 24.)

His great exploit was the defence of Cochin, and the signal defeat of the formidable armaments of the Zamorin. No sooner had the Albuquerque departed, than the Zamorin again attacked Cochin with an overwhelming force. Pacheco took the command of the Cochin forces, consisting of a few hundreds of native soldiers and 400 Portuguese. With these he defeated an army of 50,000 men, trained by some Milanese deserters, and aided by a fleet of 160 vessels. Not one of the defenders fell. A second attack and a third were similarly repulsed, with great slaughter, and Pacheco had at length the satisfaction of seeing the Zamorin's armament return to Calicut utterly defeated.

Thus Pacheco taught to the nations of the *West* (though the lesson was overlooked), what *Paradis* demonstrated two hundred years afterwards (in 1746) (ch. viii. § 5), and what Clive again proved at Plassey (in 1757), that no native army, however large, can stand against a handful of men disciplined and led by skilful European officers. This is not because native troops are deficient in courage. They are not so. Science and discipline give the European force its tremendous advantage.

§ 9. *Lope Soares* soon superseded Pacheco, who had spent his fortune in his country's service. The latter was made Governor of Elmina, where false accusations being brought against him, he was sent home in chains. He was honourably acquitted, but died in obscurity.

Soarez took Cranganôr. By his overbearing temper he destroyed the prospect of peace with the Zamorin, and returned to Europe.

(16 miles N. of
Cochin. Taken
1505. Then by
the Dutch in
1663.)

The First Portu-
guese Viceroy,
1505 or 1508.

§ 10. FRANCISCO ALMEYDA, the first Portuguese *Viceroy of India*, was sent out in A.D. 1505.

Rapid Extension of Portuguese Power.

CHAP. VI. § 10.

A. D. 1505.

He received an embassy from Vijayanagar (or Narsinga) (ch. iv. § 19, 29), bringing splendid presents, and offering the Râja's daughter in marriage to Prince John (afterwards John III., 1521-1557), son of King Emmanuel.

(Bijanagar.)

During Almeida's time a dreadful tragedy took place at Quilon, where a Portuguese factor interfered with the Moors, who retaliated by burning a church with thirteen men in it. This he avenged by burning their fleet.

This year the Mameluke Sultân of Egypt, Khânu Ghôrî (§ 3), fitted out a fleet to contest with the Portuguese the empire of the Arabian Sea, instigated by the Venetians, who were jealous of the monopoly of Indian productions now possessed by Portugal. A terrible naval battle was fought off *Chaul*, which lasted two days. The Egyptians were aided by the King of Gujarât, Mahmûd Bégara, who sent a fleet under Aiâz Sultânî (Malikâz). Mahmûd had fitted out his fleet originally to destroy pirates; but he zealously aided the Sultân in his project of sweeping the infidels from the Eastern seas. The Mussulmân fleet on this occasion gained an advantage. (Ch. ii. § 41.)

War with Egypt.

The death of Almeida's heroic son, and the humanity and courtesy of Aiâz, are especially to be noted in this affair.

Young Lorenzo Almeida was wounded. The combined fleet of the Mussulmân were overwhelmingly superior to his own, and his ship had got ashore; yet he made heroic efforts to maintain the fight till the advancing tide should float his ship. He kept the whole squadron of the enemy at bay, and when his thigh was broken by a shot, caused himself to be lashed to the mast, whence he cheered on his men, till he fell mortally wounded by a ball in the breast.

The Death of
Young Almeida.

Aiâz treated the survivors tenderly, and wrote a letter of condolence to Almeida, who bore his loss with the spirit of an antient Roman.

Almeida discovered Ceylon in 1507.

CH. VI. § 11, 12.
A. D. 1508.

Great Victory off Diû. Death of Almeyda.

The Second Portuguese Viceroy, 1508-1515.

(85 miles N. by E. from Bombay; = Dêvâlâya, temple of God.)
1509.

Death of Almeyda, 1509.

Albuquerque, 1508.

§ 11. Meanwhile (in 1508) Alphonso Albuquerque landed the second time in India, bringing a commission to supersede Almeyda.

ALBUQUERQUE is therefore the *second Viceroy*, or Governor-General of Portuguese India.

Almeyda, refusing to yield to him, sailed on an expedition to attack the Mussulmân fleet, and to avenge the death of his son.

He attacked Dabul on his way, and burnt the city, with the most dreadful and atrocious cruelty.

He then sailed to the Gulf of Cambay, where he met the combined fleets off Diû.

He was completely successful, but stained his victory with the blood of his prisoners. This put an end to the designs of the Sultân. Portugal remained supreme in the Arabian Gulf.

On his return to Cochin, he was with difficulty persuaded to resign his office to Albuquerque, and set sail for Portugal. On the way home, he landed on the African coast, and fell in a miserable scuffle with a band of Hotentots.

Thus ignobly perished (in 1509) the first Portuguese Viceroy.

§ 12. ALBUQUERQUE, his successor, from the first burned with ambition to reduce all India beneath the sway of Portugal. The anarchy which prevailed throughout the land at the time favoured his design. The Muhammedan empire north of the Nerbudda was in that state of disorganisation which soon after (1526) invited Bâber to its conquest; and the Bâhminî Dakhan kingdom was in the course of dismemberment by its viceroys. (Ch. iv. § 22.)

He nearly lost his life in an abortive attack on Calicut.

1509.

His next project was to seize Goa, which is situated on

Albuquerque, the Second Portuguese Viceroy, 1508-1515.
Conquest of Goa.

CH. VI. § 13, 14.
A.D. 1509.

an island, on the west coast, and then belonged to Bijapur. He was instigated to this by a pirate, Timmuji.

He took possession of it easily; but was soon driven out by Yusûf Âdil Shâh in person.

A second attempt was successful after a protracted contest. He had thus got, what he justly considered to be essential to Portuguese supremacy in the East, a spacious harbour and a considerable city.

He immediately sent embassies to the different native courts, and received their envoys with great splendour.

He encouraged intermarriages between his officers and respectable native families, and acted the part of a Romulus to this new Rome.

Conquest of Goa,
1510.

The Founder of
Goa.

§ 13. *Ormuz*, an island which commands the entrance to the Persian Gulf, had been nearly taken by Albuquerque on his way out. He now fitted out a splendid expedition, which easily wrested it from its petty ruler; and this place soon became the centre of the trade between India, Persia, and Western Asia. A splendid city rose on this uninviting spot. A.D. 1510.

Ormuz, 1510.

An expedition planned by him against *Aden* failed.

Having secured such an admirable emporium as Ormuz in the Arabian Gulf, he now, with far-seeing wisdom, resolved to establish a city in the Eastern Archipelago, which should command the trade between India, China, and the vast islands of the Eastern seas. He fixed upon *Malacca*, and not without difficulty captured it from its Malay founders in 1511.

Aden.
Albuquerque's
Comprehensive
Schemes.

Malacca, 1511.

Here too a splendid city speedily rose. He strove here, as everywhere else, to join the natives and Portuguese by the bond of a common interest, treating them as friends and equals. Albuquerque also sent embassies to Siam, Jâva, and Sumatra.

His Policy to-
wards Natives.

§ 14. But Albuquerque was growing old, and, strange

CHAP. VI. § 15.
A. D. 1515.

Lope Soarez,
1515.

Death of Albu-
querque, 1515.

The Portuguese
Empire in its
highest state of
glory.

(Diu, an island
= *Dwipa*.)

The Extent of
the Portuguese
Empire, 1515.

(Bombay was ac-
quired in 1530
from the Chief of
Tanna.)

Albuquerque's Death. Lope Soarez, the Third Portuguese Viceroy.

to say, was superseded by LOPE SOAREZ, the *third Portuguese Viceroy*. He had been in India before (§ 9).

Thus did Portugal prove signally ungrateful to her greatest men. So, at a later period, was France. Clive and Hastings too had to bear severe persecutions, though they outlived them. (Ch. ix. § 32; x. § 13.)

Albuquerque, dismissed without a reason, and without anything that might have softened the blow, died broken-hearted.

In a ship near Goa he breathed his last, tranquil at length as death drew near, and was buried on shore (A. D. 1515). A splendid monument still attests his merits. He was violent in some of his actions; yet his general administration led to such splendid results, and his personal qualities were of so high an order, that his countrymen unanimously style him "the great."

§ 15. The Portuguese empire, if so it can be called, was now at its zenith of glory. A few additions were made afterwards, and during the reigns of Emmanuel and his son John III. (1498-1557), they acquired many settlements, some of which still belong to Portugal. These were a few stations on the eastern coast of Africa, the island of Ormuz, Diu in Gujarât, Goa, and some lesser places on the west coast of India, several settlements in Ceylon, a few inconsiderable stations on the Coromandel coast, Malacca on the Malayan Peninsula, and some factories on the Malacca islands. Their possessions thus extended over 12,000 miles of coast. Over this immense area they had about thirty factories in the most favourable positions. Their real strength was at sea; and their empire was not the dominion over extensive kingdoms, but the more really beneficial one of an absolute command of the lucrative trade between the East and the West, without rival or controul. Their great object was to exclude all other nations from a share in this wealth-bestowing enterprise.

Capture of Diû. Murder of Bahâdar Shâh. Siege of Diû.

CH. VI. § 16, 17.
A. D. 1534.

We shall see in the sequel how quickly this imposing fabric fell to ruin.

§ 16. But we must resume the history. The circumstances under which *Diû* become a Portuguese city (1534) are remarkable. Bahâdar Shâh was King of Mâlwa from A. D. 1526. (Ch. ii. § 41.) The troubles of the times enabled the Viceroy of Gujarât to maintain, in general, their independence (ch. iii. § 4, 6); but Humâyûn (1531) made an expedition against Bahâdar, which was nearly successful.

The Capture of
of Diû, 1534.

Then Bassein was taken (1534).

This was the time chosen by Nunho Cunha, then the Portuguese viceroy, to attack Diû. The attack was unsuccessful; but Bahâdar entered into negotiations with the Portuguese, which resulted in their occupation of Diû, and the erection of a fort. There was, however, much jealousy on both sides. Bahâdar one day went on board the ship where the viceroy was sick, or pretended to be so, and an inexplicable tumult arose, in which Bahâdar was killed and many others, both natives and Portuguese. The suspicion cannot be avoided that treachery was designed by the latter. About the same time they took Damân. These two small places still remain under the power of Portugal.

1538-1545.

§ 17. The year 1538 is memorable for the *siege of Diû* by the Gujarât forces, aided by the Pasha of Egypt, under orders from his superior, Solimân the Magnificent, the Ottoman Sultân of Constantinople. Gracio de Noronha was now viceroy. But to the brave *Silveira* must be ascribed the glory of the gallant defence. The besiegers did not desist from the attempt, till the Portuguese, who had fought with unparalleled determination, were reduced to forty persons.

Siege of Diû,
1538.

OH. VI. § 18, 19.
A.D. 1545.

Juan de Castro. Luis de Ataíde.

The greatest man connected with the Portuguese in India is FRANCIS XAVIER, born 1506, in Navarre, of an illustrious family of royal descent, companion of Ignatius Loyala, and one of the founders of the order of Jesuits. He came out under the patronage of John III., who appointed Martin Alphonso de Souza viceroy in 1541, especially because he was zealous for the propagation of Christianity.

Xavier preached, baptized, and founded missions, which still flourish along the coast of Southern India, in Malacca, in the Spice Islands, and in Japan. He died on the Island of *Chang Chuen*, in an attempt to introduce Christianity into China (1552). His body is buried in Goa. He was canonised, and is generally styled the "*Apostle of the Indies.*" He was one of the greatest men of Christendom.

§ 18. In 1545, JUAN DE CASTRO, one of the most celebrated of the Portuguese viceroys, arrived, and found the port of Diû hard pressed. He relieved it, took possession of the native city, and gave it up to indiscriminate plunder and massacre. He then made a triumphal entry into Goa, with the royal standard of the Gujarât king dragged in the dust. It was well said in reference to this, that "Juan de Castro conquered like a Christian, but triumphed like a pagan."

This great viceroy was disinterested, brave, and successful; but his cruelties tarnished his fame, and prepared the way for the downfall of the Portuguese power in India.

In fact, Indian history is full of accounts of expeditions in which the coast was ravaged, and villages burnt and plundered by the Portuguese.

§ 19. In 1571 a combination was formed by Alî Âdil Shâh of Bijapûr, Murteza Nizâm Shâh of Ahmednagar, and the Zamorin, to drive the Portuguese out of India. Goa was besieged by a mighty host under Âdil Shâh, and Chaul by another at the same time under Murteza. But the valour of the Portuguese, and the skill of their viceroy, *Luis de Ataíde*, prevailed, and after a ten months' siege,

His Cruelty and
Pride.

Confederation
against the Por-
tuguese, 1571.

Decay of Portuguese Empire. Loss of Possessions.

CH. VI. § 20, 21
A. D. 1580.

Goa was saved. The other attacks too were repulsed. (Ch. iv. § 23.)

The Portuguese settlements in India were now divided into three distinct governments, Ceylon, Goa, and Malacca. But the sure progress of decay was felt in all.

§ 20. From 1580 to 1640 Portugal was under the sway of Spain; and during that period, though isolated acts of heroism were occasionally performed, the trade of Portugal declined, her colonies languished, and her sceptre gradually passed into the hands of the Dutch. (Comp. ch. iii. § 8 [5].)

Decay of Portuguese Power,
1580-1656.

We find the degenerate successors of Albuquerque trembling before Sivaji in 1662, paying tribute to the Mahrattas, although at times valiantly opposing them, and, alas! surpassing them in barbarity.

In 1739 (ch. v. § 51) the Mahrattas took Bassein after a terrible siege. This was a great triumph to that rising power.

Sad is the record of the wresting from Portugal of her Eastern possessions one by one.

In 1607 the Moluccas were seized by the Dutch.

In 1622 Persia seized upon Ormuz, and the Imâm of Muscat gradually stripped them of most of their possessions on the east coast of Africa.

In 1640 Malacca was occupied by the Dutch. It was taken from them by the British in 1795, restored in 1818, and finally again came under England in 1824. (Ch. x. § 82.)

In 1656 they were driven from Ceylon by the same indefatigable enemy.

§ 21. The causes of this rapid decline are, however, sufficiently obvious.

(1.) Spain had laid her benumbing hand upon the unhappy mother country. Philip II., too well known to

Causes of the
Decline of Portuguese Power in
India.

England, ruled her. His tyranny and jealousy are the first causes of the decline of the Portuguese in India.

(2.) The Dutch, having gained their independence, broke the monopoly, and entered upon their new career with an energy which enabled them to triumph over their rivals.

(3.) The Portuguese power rested solely on their supremacy at sea. When this passed into other hands, their Indian empire collapsed.

(4.) The Inquisition was introduced into India as early as 1526. Sword and faggot were the ordinary means of conversion. The intolerance of the Portuguese lost them the confidence of the natives.

This intolerance was shown by the Portuguese especially in their treatment of the Christians of Travancore, who are now called *Syrians*, and whose ancestors were converted in the fourth century.

They repeatedly carried away the Syrian bishop and imprisoned him; and in a synod at Diamper, in 1599, *Menezes*, Archbishop of Goa, decreed that all the Syrian books should be destroyed, and proceeded to the employment of the most cruel measures to reduce the Syrians to obedience to the Papal See. This, however, he failed to effect.

(5.) They were, from first to last, cruel in their treatment of enemies. They never gained in the East a reputation for wisdom or humanity. Without this, no such dominion can hope to endure.

(6.) The successors of Albuquerque were, with one or two exceptions, corrupt and incapable, while in cruelty and violence they surpassed the founders of the empire.

The later viceroys were beneath contempt.

§ 22. The present possessions of Portugal in India are *Goa*, *Damân*, and *Diû*, with a population of about 500,000.

(Diamper, 14 miles E. from *Cochin*.)

Portuguese Possessions in India in 1869.

Attempts to reach India by Sea.

CH. VII. § 1, 2.
A. D. 1492.

CHAPTER VII.

The History of the European Companies, which, after the Portuguese, strove to obtain a share in the Eastern Trade to A. D. 1744.

§ 1. In antient times, each empire, as it rose, aimed at the conquest of India as its crowning triumph. In the middle ages, the trade with India raised the imperial republics of Venice and Genoa to a surprising pitch of greatness.

Antient Commerce with India.

Venice and Genoa.

In modern times, the maritime powers of Europe have vied with one another in their efforts to obtain a monopoly of the Eastern trade.

§ 2. The desire to find a western route to India led Columbus to the discovery of America. The hope of discovering a north-eastern or north-western passage to India was one of the great incitements to European sailors to undertake voyages into the arctic regions the records of which contain such examples of heroic effort and endurance. The voyages of Willoughby, Chancellor, Cabot, Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, and many others, to the north-west and north-east, though they failed in their main object, were brilliantly successful in enlarging the bounds of geographical knowledge.

Influence upon Maritime Affairs of this desire to reach India. Columbus, 1492.

English Navigators.

CH. VII. § 3, 4.
A. D. 1498.

Vasco da Gâma,
1498. (Comp.
ch. vi. § 2.)

European Powers
in India.

The Dutch, 1580.
(Union of
Utrecht, 1579.
Maurice of
Orange, 1585-
1625.)

Dutch Rivalries
with the Portu-
guese, 1594.

1621.

1610.

The Dutch in India.

The determination to find a route by sea to India led to those expeditions which, in A. D. 1498, were, as we have seen, crowned with success, when Vasco da Gâma landed at Calicut.

The Portuguese showed Europe the way to the East. The record of their successes and failures has been given in chap. vi.

§ 3. The Portuguese were followed in succession by the Dutch (A. D. 1594); by the English (A. D. 1600); by the French (A. D. 1668); and by the Danes (A. D. 1616).

§ 4. The Dutch had no sooner freed themselves from the tyranny of Spain (1609), than they turned their attention to the Eastern trade. They endeavoured first of all to find a northern route by sea to India and China.

This failing, they sent out four ships under a man called Houtman, who had obtained some knowledge of the East (A. D. 1594).

The destination of these and of several succeeding expeditions was the Eastern Archipelago, where they carried on a thriving trade in spices.

They soon began to try to supplant the Portuguese, and easily expelled them from the Moluccas.

This led to open war between the two nations; and in 1605 the Dutch expelled the Portuguese from Amboyna and Tidor, and fully established their own supremacy in the Eastern seas. The name of *Amboyna* is connected with a mournful occurrence, commonly called the *Massacre of Amboyna*, in which ten Englishmen, one Portuguese, and nine Japanese were put to death by the Dutch, for a supposed conspiracy.

In 1656, the Dutch drove their rivals from Ceylon, where they themselves established large and prosperous factories. [Ceded to England in 1799.]

They at length founded the colony of Batavia, on the

The Danes in India, 1616-1845.

CH. VII. § 5, 6.
A.D. 1640.

north-west coast of Jāva, which is still the capital of the Dutch settlements in the East.

In 1640, they drove the Portuguese from Malacca, and now their only rivals in the Eastern seas and islands were the English. They very soon lost their supremacy.

Their chief settlements in India were at Negapatam (taken from Portugal, 1660), Sadras, Pulicat, and Bimlipatam. These have all fallen into the hands of the British (1783). (Ch. xii. § 30.)

(Peace of Versailles.)

NOTE.—Pulicat is on the coast, twenty-three miles N. from Madras. There is a lake near it, forty miles in length and six in breadth. The Dutch were here in 1609. The English took it in 1795.

Sadras is on the coast, forty-two miles S.W. from Madras. It was a populous and flourishing Dutch settlement in 1647.

Bimlipatam is on the sea-coast in the Northern Circārs, sixteen miles N.N.E. from Vizagapatam.

§ 5. The Government of Denmark has only held two settlements in India, at *Tranquebār* (bought from the Rāja of Tanjore, A.D. 1616), and at *Serampore*, on the Hūgli.

The Danes in India, 1616.

These were sold to the English in A.D. 1845.

February 22.

Both places have been celebrated for the laborious and learned men who were there engaged in translating the Holy Scriptures into the vernacular languages of India, and in other works connected with the propagation of Christianity in the East. The memory of Ziegenbalg (1706-1719) and Fabricius (1739-1791), who lived in Tranquebār, and of the noble band of the Serampore missionaries, Carey, Ward, and Marshman, will ever command the respect of all who know how to value self-denying, benevolent, and heroic effort.

Tranquebār and Serampore memorable places.

Schwartz, another excellent missionary (1750-1798), resided for eleven years in Tranquebār, and afterwards in Trichinopoly and Tanjore. He was sent as an envoy to Hyder in 1779. (Ch. xii. § 25.)

(From 1800.)

§ 6. (a.) The example of the Portuguese and Dutch

CHAP. VII. § 6.
A.D. 1583.

English East India Company, 1600-1615.

The First English
in India, 1583.

was not lost upon the English. One of the first Englishmen who visited India was a man of the name of Thomas Stevens, of New College, Oxford, who went to Goa in 1579. The narrative of his travels excited immense interest in England. He was principal of a college in Salsette in 1608. Then came the travels of Storey, Newberry, Leedes, and Fitch. They carried a letter from Queen Elizabeth to Akbar. Storey remained in Goa as a monk. Leedes took service under the Emperor Akbar.

The First English
East India Com-
pany formed,
Dec. 31, 1600.
(Spenser died in
1599.)

(b.) Accordingly in A.D. 1600, the most extraordinary chartered body, as to its constitution and fortunes, that was ever formed, the British East India Company, was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. At the time no great enthusiasm was shown. It was proved by the promoters of the undertaking that spices, indigo, and silk, could be bought for one third of the price in Malabár that we were giving in Aleppo or Alexandria; but money came in slowly. There were twenty-four directors and a governor. The first "chairman of the Court of Directors" was Thomas Smythe, Esq.

Second Company,
1608.

(c.) The second company was formed in A.D. 1608, and the two were united by King William III.

Captain
Hawkins, 1608.
(Milton born.)

(d.) Meanwhile an expedition under Captain Hawkins arrived in Súrat in 1608, with letters to Jehângîr, from James I, and from the East India Company.

Middleton, 1609.

(e.) Sir H. Middleton arrived at Súrat in 1609. Here the Company's first factory was established in 1611.

1611.

(f.) Jehângîr, in the year of his marriage with Nûr Jehân, gave permission to the English to establish four factories in his dominions. This firman was signed in 1613.

Sir Thomas Roe's
Embassy, 1615.

(g.) The embassy of Sir Thomas Roe (in 1615) was of more importance. He was received with great kindness,

English East India Company, 1616-1639.

CHAP. VII. § 6.
A. D. 1616.

and had ample opportunities of seeing the emperor's court and capital.

(Jehāngīr, 1605-1627.)

In 1616 we find an English factory at Ājmīr.

(*l.*) New Delhi was then in course of erection, and the magnificent buildings which have shed such a glory over the memory of Shāh Jehān, were beheld by our countrymen in their foundation and growth. (Ch. iii. § 8.)

(Shāh Jehān, 1627-1658.)

(*i.*) In 1616, the Company had factories at Sūrat, Calicut, and Masulipatam. They had also a settlement at Bantam in Java, and to this the Indian settlements were subordinate.

(Shakespeare died, 1616.)

(*j.*) The year 1624 is rendered remarkable by the concession to the Company of the power to punish their servants, even capitally. They had thus become rulers! This is looked upon as an æra in their history. This year permission was given to the English to trade with Bengāl, but they were restricted to the one port of Piplī in Midnāpūr.

The Company become Rulers, 1624.

(*k.*) During the reign of Shāh Jehān (in 1636), Mr Boughton, an English surgeon, was sent according to the emperor's request to attend his sick daughter; and, succeeding in curing her, he obtained from the emperor's gratitude extensive privileges for his countrymen.

Mr Boughton, 1636.

(*l.*) In 1639, Fort St George, or Madras, was founded by Mr Francis Day. The Coromandel coast was, in fact, found more convenient for the purchase of "piece goods," muslins from Dacca, and cotton goods from the Dakhan. The factory had previously been placed at Armogam, thirty-six miles N. of Pulicat (1625). The Hindū governor offered to build a fort for the English at his own expense, and to exempt the trade from customs-duties, if the English would settle there. (Ch. iv. § 29.)

Madras Founded, 1639.

Armogam.

(*m.*) Madras was fortified at the command of Charles I. He blamed the Company for "*neglecting to establish fortified factories where the king's subjects could reside with safety.*" (Ch. iv. § 29.)

Madras Fortified.

CHAP. VII. § 6.

A. D. 1640.

English East India Company, 1640-1698.

The Times of the
Great Rebellion,
1642-1660.

(*n.*) Curious it is indeed to reflect, that while the contests of the reign of Charles I. were going on; while Pym and Hampden were contending against arbitrary power; while Laud and Strafford were dying with a courage worthy of a better cause; while the battles of the civil war raged; and while Charles himself was being beheaded to make way for a military despotism, these factors were quietly laying the foundations of an empire which was to be handed over to the Queen of England two centuries later.

In 1640 we first hear of a factory at Hûglî.

(*o.*) In 1653, Madras was made a separate presidency. Cromwell, very characteristically, wished to abolish the Company's monopoly, but was prevailed upon to grant a charter in 1657.

In 1661 Charles II. issued a new charter.

The Defence of
Sûrat, 1664.

(*p.*) The military reputation of the English was extended through the defence of Sûrat, by Sir G. Oxenden (Governor of Bombay, 1665-1667), when attacked by Sivaji in 1664. (Ch. v. § 17.)

All fled but the English. They resisted the invader, and protected the inhabitants.

1667.

Aurungzîb testified his admiration and gratitude by remitting certain duties and charges payable by them to the imperial treasury.

Bombay, 1668.

(*q.*) In 1668, Bombay, which had been given as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, was made over to the Company, and made the chief presidency in India. It was made the chief seat of the British Government in 1683. As early as 1664 they traded with Malabâr, and in 1708 obtained a grant of Tellicherry. It was in 1688 that the "tea trade" was first heard of.

(*r.*) In 1696, the villages of Chuttanatti, Calcutta, and Govindpûr, were purchased from Azîm-u-shân, grandson of Aurungzîb.

In 1702 the rival company, which had been formed in 1698, was amalgamated with the old one.

English East India Company, 1698-1725.

CHAP. VII. § 6.
A. D. 1698.

At this time the Company was authorised to raise troops for the defence of their settlements.

(s.) A fort was ordered to be built and called Fort William, in honour of King William III.

Calcutta, 1698.

The history of Calcutta to 1756 is little else than a record of the efforts of the British merchants to resist the exactions of the Nuwâb of Mûrshedâbâd. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

In 1715 a deputation was sent to the Emperor Farokhshîr, to secure a greater degree of protection from the native powers. [Comp. ch. iii. § 12 (8).]

They were successful, and Calcutta was thereupon declared a separate presidency (1715).

Presidency.

The use of the term *presidency* requires explanation. The establishment at each principal seat of trade consisted of merchants, senior and junior, who conducted the trade; factors, who ordered goods, inspected them and dispatched them; and writers, who were the clerks and bookkeepers. A writer after five years became a factor; after three years more, a senior merchant. From these last the members of council were chosen, and one of them was selected as president of the factory.

Establishments at the Presidencies.

The President.

Soldiers, sepoy, and peons made up the establishment.

The directors doubted the expediency of accepting the territory granted by Farukhshîr; for, say they, "as our business is trade, it is not politic for us to be encumbered with much territory." The letters of the directors abound in injunctions to their servants to be just, humane, unostentatious, and economical.

Moderate and Humane Counsels of the Directors.

Defensive Works.

At the same time the heads of the presidencies are encouraged to proceed with all the works of a *defensive* character, all *offensive* warfare being quite foreign to their plans.

No Extravagance Allowed.

Their president, in A. D. 1725, charged them with 1100 rupees for a "chaise and pair of horses." This they disallow: "If our servants will have such superfluities, let

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A.D. 1725.

French East India Company, 1604. Martin, the First Great Frenchman.

them pay for them." All extravagance is to be discouraged. "In some shape or other we shall have to pay for it." "It leads to penury."

Yet these *presidencies* became *provinces*. Merchants gave way to governors. Profits were replaced by revenue. Trade gradually was exchanged for dominion.

The Nuwâb of Bengâl, Jaffir Khân, died in 1725, and was succeeded by his son Shuja-ud-dîn-Khân. One of his Omrahs was the adventurer Ali-wardî-Khân. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

In 1742 the Mahrattas attacked Bengâl, demanding *Chout* (ch. v. § 57). It was then the Mahratta ditch was dug to afford protection against a repetition of the attack.

For the further history of the British settlements in Bengâl, see chap. ix.

French East
India Company,
1604.

§ 7. (1.) Various French East India Companies were formed, and expeditions made by that nation, from A.D. 1604.

Colbert, 1661.

(2.) But the celebrated Colbert has the merit of establishing the Company on a firm footing, in 1664, Louis XIV. declaring that trade to *India* was not beneath the dignity of a noble. This Company was dissolved in 1769.

Caron, 1668.

(3.) Their first settlement in India was at Sûrat, where both the English and the Dutch had flourishing factories. The leader was François Caron.

1669.

(4.) In 1669 they obtained a settlement at Masulipatam.

1672.

They took Trincomalee and Meilâpûr (or St Thomé) from the Dutch in 1672; but lost them again in 1674, the English being neutral.

1674.

April 1674.

(5.) They now bought a piece of land from the Bîjapûr Government, on which they erected the city called now Pondicherry (Puthu-chêri). [Comp. iii. § 9 (13).]

I
François Martin,
the Founder of
Pondicherry.

François Martin, an honoured name in French history, was its founder. He died in 1706.

The Early French in India. Martin. Pondicherry. Mahé.

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A. D. 1677.

(6.) Martin's first great danger was from Sivajî, who, during his great expedition to the Carnatic, his last great effort, threatened Pondicherry; but was conciliated by the judicious measures of the French Governor. (Ch. v. § 23-24.)

May 1677.

(7.) His next enemies were the Dutch, who in 1693 attacked and took it.

Martin in Pondicherry.

In connection with this, the reply of Râm Râj (ch. v. § 34), to the Dutch, who offered to buy Pondicherry from him, deserves to be remembered.

Râm Râj gives an Honest Answer.

"The French," said he, "fairly purchased it, and paid a valuable consideration for it; and all the money in the world would never tempt me to dislodge them."

But poor Râm Râj was soon cooped up in Gingî; and the Moguls received the Dutch bribe, and aided them in their attack.

The Dutch take it, Sept. 8, 1693.

(8.) In 1697 the Peace of Ryswick was signed, Pondicherry was restored; and Martin returned in triumph to enlarge and fortify it, and to raise it by skilful policy, good government, and fair dealing, to the rank of a great commercial city. He was an able man, and a magnanimous and disinterested patriot. Mr Thomas Pitt, grandfather of the Earl of Chatham, was then Governor of Madras (1698-1700). It was at this time (1700-1702) that Aurungzîb's great general, Dâtûd Khân Pannî, paid a visit to Madras, and demanded 10,000 pagodas as a present. Mr Pitt feasted him, and gave him abundance of the strong waters he loved; but some part of the present, at least, was given.

(William III., Louis XIV.)

(9.) In 1688 the French obtained from Aurungzîb a settlement at Chândernâgôr, when Shayista Khân was Viceroy of Bengâl.

Chândernâgôr, 1688.
(Ch. ix. § 8.)

(10.) In 1725 Mahé was added to the French possessions. Its name was Mahî; but it was taken chiefly by the daring and ingenuity of a young French naval officer, *Bertrand François Mahé de la Bourdonnais*; and the

Mahé, 1725.
(= *Fish.*)
De la Bourdonnais.
Born 1699.
Died 1753.

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A. D. 1731.

The Early French in India. Dumas, the Second Great Frenchman.

Dupleix in
Chândernâgôr.

slight change in the name was made in honour of the captor, who was destined to act a memorable part in the affairs of South India.

(11.) In 1731 JOSEPH FRANÇOIS DUPLEIX was appointed director of Chândernâgôr, which he raised from a well-nigh deserted port to a flourishing emporium. He also amassed by trade, then permitted to the Company's servants, a vast fortune. There he remained till 1741.

Mauritius and
Bourbon, 1672.

(12.) Meanwhile, in the Isles of France and Bourbon, a great colony had been founded.

The Isle of France, originally Cerné, was called Mauritius by the Dutch (in honour of Prince Maurice of Nassau), which name it now bears.

II.
Dumas, 1735-
1741.

The French governor of these islands, M. DUMAS, in 1735, became Governor-General of the French possessions in India, which position he filled till succeeded by Dupleix in 1741.

(13.) DUMAS was worthy of his predecessor, Martin. In his time began that system of interference with the affairs of the Hindû princes, which has led to such mighty results.

Dôst Ali.

In 1710 Sâdat-ulla-Khân was appointed Nuwâb of the Carnatic. He was the first who attempted to make the office hereditary. In 1733 he died at his capital, Arcot; and his nephew, Dôst Alî, succeeded him. He relied greatly on the French, as the only European nation whose position at that time commanded respect.

Arcot and Vellora (Vêlûr = *javelin town*) were the chief towns of the *Payin Ghât*, or *Lower Carnatic*.

1719-1747.

By his influence the right of coining was conceded to the French by Muhammed Shâh, the Emperor of Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

(14.) Meanwhile it must be remembered that Nizâm-ul-Mulk (ch. iii. § 16) was Viceroy of the Dakhan, and Bâji Râo I. the great Peishwâ of the Mahrattas. (Ch. v. § 53.)

§ 7. THE NUWÂBS OF THE CARNATIC. [See Ch. vii.]

I. SÂDÂT-ULLA-KHÂN,¹
From about 1713. Died 1732.
Adopted two nephews, viz. :—

II. DOST ALI. Died 1740 at Ambor.

Baker Ali, Governor of Vellore.

III. SÂDËR ALI.
Murdered 1742 by
Murteza Ali.

DAUGHTER = MURTEZA ALI.

DAUGHTER = CHANDÂ SÂHËB,
a relative of the family.
Supported by the
French. Killed 1732.
His real name was
Husein Dost Khan.
The other was a familiar
nickname.

IV. SÂDÂD MUHAMMAD KHÂN.
Assassinated 1743.

V. ANWÂR-UD-DÛN.
Appointed by Nizâm-ud-Dulk, 1743.
Killed at Ambor, 1749.

VI. MUHAMMAD ALI.
Supported by the English.
Died 1795.

VII. AMOUL-UL-OKHÂN. Died 1801.

VIII. NEPHEW : AZIK-UD-DOWLA. Died 1819.

IX. AZIK ALI. Died 1823.

X. MUHAMMAD GHÔZ. Died 1855.²

¹ These are called the Newayetch Nuwâbs. This tribe were, it is said, driven from Arabia to the western shore of India in the eighth century. Newayetch signifies *New-comer*.

² An uncle of the last Nuwâb, whose title is *Azim Jâh*, is the head of the family. He enjoys a liberal pension. (Comp. ch. x. § 44.)

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A.D. 1736.

The Early French in India. Dumas. Chandâ Sahêb.

Chandâ Sahêb's
First Appearance,
1736.

His Perjury.

Usurpation.

(Ch. viii. § 23.)

Kâricâl gained by
the French.

Tanjore Affairs
and Sâhujî.
(8 miles S. from
Tranquebâr.)

1739.

Mahratta Inva-
sion of the Car-
natic.

(15.) The most prominent person in the Carnatic, however, at that time, was a son-in-law of Dôst Ali, and his Dîwân, whose name was Chandâ Sahêb, who assumed the position of a free lance, and who was enthusiastically devoted to the French, by whom he was always supported. (See Table.)

(16.) In 1736 Chandâ Sahêb made himself master of Trichinopoly by treachery. The Râja of that place had died without heirs; and a dispute arising, the widow, Minâkshi Ammâl, applied to Dôst Ali, Nuwâb of Arcot, for assistance. He sent Chandâ Sahêb, who entered the city, after taking an oath to defend the Râni; but immediately imprisoned her, and assumed the government. In the very choultry where he swore the false oath, he was murdered sixteen years after!

(17.) Another affair in which Chandâ Sahêb was concerned led to important results for the French.

The kingdom of Tanjore was held by Sâhujî, a relative of the great Sivajî (see Table, ch. v. § 27), who was about this time dispossessed by a pretended cousin.

The expelled king offered Dumas the town of *Kâricâl*, and some adjoining villages, as the price of his restoration. Meanwhile, however, he regained his kingdom without French aid. Dumas was disappointed.

Chandâ Sahêb, however, stepped in, offered Dumas to take the coveted villages from Sâhujî, with whom he was at war, and to make them over to the French. This he did, and from that date (1739) Kâricâl and the neighbouring villages have belonged to France. This was Sâhujî's first experience of European affairs; it was not his last. (Ch. viii. § 15.)

(18.) Meanwhile, the Mahrattas, jealous of these Muhammedan conquests, advanced with a large army into the Carnatic, under Râghujî Bhonslê (ch. v. § 55) and Morâri Râo.

Dôst Ali met them near Ambûr, at the Dâmalchêri Pass

The Early French in India. Dumas.

CHAP. VII. § 7.

A. D. 1740.

(about 120 miles N.W. of Madras), but was there defeated and slain (1740).

Death of Dôst Ali, 1740.
The First Battle of Ambûr. (Comp. ch. viii. § 16.)

NOTE.—*Ambûr* is fifty miles west of Arcot, and thirty miles south of Dâmalchêri.

The widow of Dôst Ali, and the wife and son of Chandâ Sahêb, found a refuge in Pondicherry.

Safder Ali, the new Nuwâb, sent his wife and children to Madras, having more confidence in the English. He also fortified himself in Vellora.

Safder Ali, Son of Dôst Ali, Nuwâb of Arcot, 1740.

The Mahrattas made an agreement with Safder Ali, by which he was recognised as Nuwâb of Arcot, paying a large tribute and assisting the Mahrattas to expel his ambitious brother-in-law, Chandâ Sahêb, from Trichinopoly. (Comp. ch. v. § 53, 55.)

Raghuji and Dumas, 1740.

(19.) M. Dumas now showed his firmness and ability. Threatened by Raghuji with destruction, if he did not consent to surrender the fugitives, he replied that "all the French in India would die first." Meanwhile he put Pondicherry into a state of preparation for a siege.

Assassination of Safder Ali.

(20.) Safder Ali and Chandâ Sahêb met in Pondicherry, from whence the former departed to Arcot, where he was soon assassinated (26); and Chandâ Sahêb to Trichinopoly, where his well-merited punishment was in due time to overtake him. The Mahrattas lost no time in investing Trichinopoly, took Chandâ Sahêb prisoner (March 1741), and conveyed him to Satârâ, where he languished for seven years in prison. Morârî Râo was left Governor of Trichinopoly.

Chandâ Sahêb a Prisoner, 1741.

There he formed a romantic friendship with Muzaffir Jung (ch. viii. § 16), a grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk. They were both destined to play an important part in the struggles between the French and English, to have a temporary triumph, and to perish!

Muzaffir Jung and Chandâ Sahêb.

(21.) Raghuji still threatened Pondicherry; but, awed by the firm attitude of M. Dumas, and bribed by a present of French liqueurs, eventually left him unmolested.

Raghuji before Pondicherry. French firmness and liqueurs.

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A. D. 1741.

The French in India. Dupleix, the Third Great Frenchman, a Nuwâb; and La Bourdonnais, the Fourth Great Frenchman.

Muhammed Shâh.

1741.

III.
Dupleix in Pondicherry, 1741-1754.

The War of the Austrian Succession.

Shall there be a French Empire in India?

IV.
La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry, 1746.

His Efforts.

(Nâga-pattanam, = *Dragon-town*, 20 miles S. of Tranquebâr.)

This brave resistance to the Mahrattas was M. Dumas' last act; and, amid the praises of all South India, with the thanks of the aged Nizâm-ul-Mulk, of Safder Ali, and of the Emperor himself, who even conferred on him the title of Nuwâb, he resigned his office to M. DUPLEIX.

(22.) Dupleix immediately assumed the state of a Nuwâb, proceeded to Chândernâgôr for installation; and used every effort to strengthen his position.

In the eyes of the natives the French were now supreme, and Pondicherry impregnable.

(23.) The war of the Austrian Succession now broke out in Europe, lasting from 1744 to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This war had been long expected; and Dupleix had prepared to strike the blow which should expel the English for ever from India. He had already conceived the idea of founding a *French Empire in India*.

The great *Albuquerque*, the splendid *Dupleix*, and the heroic *Clive*, formed the same plan. To Clive alone was destined the honour of accomplishing for his country what these two before him had dared to plan for theirs.

(24.) Meanwhile a worthy coadjutor of Dupleix, who was afterwards to become his rival and enemy, was ready to join him at this eventful period. This was La Bourdonnais (10). Mr Morse was then Governor of Madras (1744-1749), and a squadron of English ships was cruising in the Indian seas, with the design of ruining the French trade.

La Bourdonnais was at that time Governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, which, by his skill, energy, and indomitable perseverance, he had brought into a most satisfactory state. By wonderful efforts he contrived to equip and man a squadron of ships; and, in spite of opposition at home and tempests at sea, he arrived off *Negapatam* in 1746, and engaged the English squadron,

The French in India. Dupleix and La Bourdonnais.

CHAP. VII. § 7.
A. D. 1746.

which unaccountably avoided a general engagement and put into Trincomalee.

(25.) Madras was thus left exposed (July 1746). A French fleet was triumphant in the Madras seas. Dupleix and La Bourdonnais in Pondicherry, and Governor Morse in Madras, were the antagonists. The struggle between the two nations (which lasted fifteen years) must be detailed in the next chapter.

Preparation for
the Struggle.

(26.) It is necessary here to glance at the history of the Dakhan and the Carnatic from 1741 to 1746.

In 1742 Safder Ali (19) was assassinated by his brother-in-law, the treacherous and cowardly Murteza Ali. His family and treasures were now put under the care of the English.

Safder Ali's
Death.
(Mortiz.)

Seiad Muhammed Khân, his son, succeeded; but, as he was a mere youth, all was anarchy in the province.

Now Nizâm-ul-Mulk, Viceroy or Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan in name, but really independent, thought it time to come and claim arrears of tribute long due. The English factory at Madras sent a deputation to wait upon him at Trichinopoly; but they were thought too insignificant to obtain an audience. After reducing all to order, he left Anwâr-ud-dîn, a veteran officer, to guard the infant Nuwâb (1743), who was, however, assassinated the same year. (See Table, p. 251.)

Nizâm-ul-Mulk
in the Carnatic.

Anwâr-ud-dîn (who was always suspected of complicity in the murder of which he reaped the fruit) was now appointed Nuwâb; and the first use he made of his power was to shield the French from the attacks of the English, on the breaking out of the war. But the time soon came, as we shall see, when the English needed the friendly intervention of the Nuwâb on their own behalf. Chandâ Sahêb, it will be remembered, was still in his Mahratta prison, chafing at the thought that the prize he had coveted so eagerly had been grasped by another while he was a powerless captive. *His time will come!*

Anwâr-ud-din,
1743.

TABLE OF EARLY HISTORY OF THE VARIOUS EAST INDIA COMPANIES.

A.D.			
1498	Vasco da Gâma lands at Calicut.		
1510	Conquest of Goa.		
1515	Death of <i>Albuquerque</i> .		
1580)	Portugal under Spain.		
1640)			
1594	Dutch sends ships to India.
1599	Synod of <i>Diamper</i> .
1600	British East India Company.		
1604	First French expedition.	
1605	Dutch supreme in E. Archipelago.
1610	<i>Batavia</i> founded.
1615	Embassy of Sir T. Roe.		
1616	Danes buy <i>Tranquebâr</i> .
1624	Power of life and death given to Company.		
1636	Surgeon Boughton.		
1639	<i>Madras</i> founded.		
1661	Charles II. gives new charter.	Dutch take Ceylon (1656).
1664	Oxenden defends Sûrat.	French East India Company formed.	
1668	<i>Bombay</i> made over to East India Company.		
1672	French in Mauritius, &c.	
1674	Pondicherry founded.	
1683	<i>Bombay</i> made the capital.		
1688	Tea-trade sprung up.		
1696	<i>Calcutta</i> , &c., bought.		
1698	The second Company formed.		
1702	Amalgamation of Companies.		
1715	Surgeon Hamilton.		
1735	<i>Dumas</i> in Pondicherry.	
1739	French in <i>Kâricâl</i> .	
1741	<i>Dupleix</i> in Pondicherry.	Mahrattas take <i>Bassein</i> .
1746	<i>Madras</i> taken.	<i>Paradis</i> gains battle of St Thomé.	

[N.B.—In 1716 a company, called the Ostend East India Company, was established. It lasted for 11 years only.]

Dupleix and La Bourdonnais.

CH. VIII. §1-3.
A.D. 1744.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Rivalries and Wars of the French and English East India Companies, from A.D. 1742, to the Surrender of Pondicherry to the English, A.D. 1761.

§ 1. The period from 1744 to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was an eventful one for India. The two greatest nations of Europe are seen beginning to struggle upon Indian ground for supremacy. The conqueror will rule in time from sea to sea.

1744-1748.

§ 2. We have seen the able and gallant naval commander LA BOURDONNAIS, after the departure of the English fleet, land in Pondicherry.

La Bourdonnais
and Dupleix meet
in India, 1745.

He and Dupleix met on the 8th July 1746. His words were:—"We ought to regard one another as equally interested in the progress of events, and to work in concert. For my part, sir, I devote myself to you beforehand, and swear to you a perfect confidence." Yet the disunion of these two at last ruined their cause. With it we may contrast the generous conduct of Lawrence and Clive.

Profession and
Practice.

§ 3. It must be noted that Dupleix was a genius; a man of lofty, chivalrous mind; a great statesman, full of

Their Characters.

CH VIII. § 4.
A. D. 1746.

Madras Taken by La Bourdonnais.

the most brilliant conceptions ; but no warrior. La Bourdonnais was a soldier, ardent and impetuous ; but not possessed of the transcendent abilities of Dupleix. The latter, too, in India was supreme, though at sea the former was independent.

The Wife of Dupleix.

Dupleix was greatly assisted by his wife, whose name was *Jeanne*, which she changed into Jehân Begum. She was of French extraction, born in Bengâl, and was very useful from her knowledge of native languages and manners.

The First Siege of Madras, 1740.

§ 4. After some delays, by no means creditable to La Bourdonnais, Dupleix prevailed upon him to advance to attack Madras. Governor Morse in vain prayed Anwâr-ud-dîn, the Nuwâb of the Carnatic, to interfere, as he had formerly done in behalf of the French. He had the mortification, too, to hear that the English fleet had actually sailed for Bengâl.

La Bourdonnais had 4000 men, of whom 400 were sepoys, 400 Africans, and the remainder Europeans. The English garrison consisted of 300 or 400 men, and the fortifications were of the slightest description.

Capitulation.

On 21st September, Governor Morse, therefore, was compelled to capitulate. The whole of the English were to be prisoners of war. The town and all in it, with its dependencies, were made over to the French. Conditions of ransom were to be settled afterwards. "*The French did not lose a man in the siege; the English only five.*" Thus Madras was taken, 107 years after its foundation.

The City Ransomed.
The Bribe.

The question now was, what was to be done with the captured city? La Bourdonnais, influenced by a bribe of 100,000 pagodas, agreed to allow the English to ransom the city for four lakhs and 40,000 rupees.

Dupleix refused his consent. His wish was to drive the English out of India ; and, if the conquest of Madras had been followed up, this could have been effected. A storm meanwhile shattered the French fleet, and La Bourdon-

Dupleix and Anwâr-ud-din. Paradis, the Fifth Great Frenchman.

CH. VIII. § 5, 6.
A.D. 1746.

nais, hastily signing the treaty, set sail on the 29th October, having spent about four months on the Indian coast. He thus threw away the opportunity of completely crushing the enemies of his country, and of gaining for himself undying fame.

Unpatriotic Conduct of La Bourdonnais.

He returned to France, and was thrown into the Bastille, where he remained three years. Though acquitted, he died of a broken heart in 1753.

Conclusion of the History of La Bourdonnais, 1746-1753.

We may lament his fate ; but it was hardly undeserved.

The Nuwâb of Arcot interferes.

§ 5. Anwâr-ud-dîn had been no unconcerned spectator of the capture of Madras. Jealous of French aggrandisement, though inclined to favour them, he sent a messenger to Dupleix commanding the French to desist, and threatening to interfere with an armed force. Dupleix unhesitatingly replied, that he was only besieging it for the Nuwâb, to whom he would surrender it when taken. But, when five weeks had passed, and the French flag still floated over the ramparts of Fort St George, Anwâr sent an army to enforce his claims. Dupleix determined not to surrender till he had destroyed the fort, and gave orders to the French officer in command to hold his ground against the Nuwâb's army.

Dupleix deceives the Nuwâb.

The result was a defeat, that should have taught the Nuwâb of how little value his army was before a handful of Europeans.

1746.

M. Paradis (by no means the least of the remarkable Frenchmen who have distinguished themselves in India), with 230 Europeans and 700 native sepoys, put to utter rout the Nuwâb's army of ten thousand men, under his son, Mâphuz Khân.

V.
The Great Victory of M. PARADIS. The Battle of St Thomé. Nov. 4.

This action (which might have been the French Plassey) made Dupleix for a time the Nuwâb's master.

Dupleix Master of the Situation.

§ 6. Dupleix now utterly disavowed the treaty made by La Bourdonnais, and appointed Paradis Governor of

Dupleix Breaks the Treaty.

CH. VIII. § 7-11.
A.D. 1746.

The First Siege of Pondicherry.

Madras. The English prisoners were sent to Pondicherry. Some escaped to Fort St David, a fortified town twelve miles south of Pondicherry, bought by the English in 1691, and now become the chief place on the Coromandel Coast occupied by the British. Among these latter was Clive.

Fort St David
Attacked.

§ 7. The next thing, of course, was for the French to attack Fort St David. The attack failed, and was not resumed when opportunity presented itself. Meanwhile Admiral Griffin, with his fleet, appeared on the coast, threatening Pondicherry, and the English were saved.

Admiral Griffin.

Peace between
Dupleix and the
Nuwâb.

§ 8. Dupleix managed, in the interval, to make peace with the Nuwâb, whose assistance did not, however, materially benefit him; for he, when the French cause seemed to be desperate, did not hesitate to forsake their alliance for that of the English.

Defence of Cud-
dalôr, 1747, 1748.

§ 9. We cannot give the details of the defence of Cudalôr, attacked by Dupleix, in which the skill of the veteran Major Lawrence, who had recently arrived (Jan. 1748) to command the English forces in India, was conspicuous.

The Attack of
Ariankûpam.
Lawrence taken
Prisoner.

§ 10. Two miles from Pondicherry is a small place called Ariankûpam. This place, fortified by the skill of Paradis and defended by Law, was attacked by the English, who were at first repulsed, and Lawrence was taken prisoner. In the end, the French were compelled to abandon it and retire to Pondicherry, where they were now closely besieged.

The First Siege
of Pondicherry,
1748.
Boscowen.
Dupleix makes
Great Efforts.

§ 11. Admiral Boscowen, grand-nephew of the great Marlborough, was commander-in-chief of the English forces, both naval and military; but the wonderful qualities of Dupleix enabled him for five weeks to baffle every

India in 1748.

CH. VIII §12-14.
A. D. 1748.

effort of the English leader, who was inexperienced in military operations. Paradis fell early in the siege. On Dupleix all depended; glorious and successful was his defence.

Death of Paradis.
The Siege Raised.

It was here that "ensign" Clive first gave indications of that wonderful military genius to which British India owes so much.

CLIVE.
(He obtained his Commission in 1747.)

§ 12. Dupleix had for the time saved his country's cause, and far and wide did he cause the note of triumph to be sounded. All India resounded with acclamations, and the French were everywhere regarded as the greatest of European nations.

Dupleix
Triumphant.

§ 13. The news of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle now arrived. Madras was to be restored to its English masters. All things were to revert to the position in which they were before the breaking out of the war in 1744. Bitter was the mortification of Dupleix; but his genius will yet devise other methods for carrying out his cherished plan of expelling the hated English, and founding a French Empire in India.

1748.
The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
Dupleix
Mortified.

Will they succeed?

§ 14. Let us, before we seek an answer to this question, take a survey of the state of affairs in India (in 1748), at the time of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Picture of India
in 1748.

(1.) The twelfth Mogul emperor, *Muhammed Shâh*, the last who possessed even the semblance of power, died in April 1748. The puppet emperor who succeeded him was the victim of the Mahrattas and of his viceroys. From this time there was no real Emperor of Delhi. (Ch. iii. § 18.)

Moguls.

(Nâdir Shâh was assassinated June 8, 1847.)

(2.) *Sâhu*, the grandson of Sivajî (Table) died also in 1748 (ch. v. § 59); and under the third Peishwâ,

Mahrattas.

CH. VIII. § 14.
A. D. 1748.

Summary of Affairs in 1748-1750.

Bâlâjî Râo, now really supreme, the Mahratta power was attaining its greatest extent of dominion. There were four great leaders, Holkâr, Sindia, Raghuji, and Damajî Gâekwâr.

Nizâm-ul-mulk.

(4.) *Nizâm-ul-mulk*, died in June 1748, aged 104 years. The dignity of Viceroy or Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan having become hereditary in his family, this portion of the empire may now be considered to have been finally rent from it.

The Disputed Succession.

The struggles for the succession between his sons led to the most momentous results. (Table, ch. iii. § 16.)

Chandâ Sahêb.
[Ch vii. § 7 (15).]

(5.) Chandâ Sahêb was liberated the same year, and came down to wrest, if he could, the Nuwâbship of Arcot from Anwâr-ud-dîn. (See Table.)

La Bourdonnais.
Dupleix.

(6.) *La Bourdonnais* was in the Bastille. *Dupleix*, baffled and disappointed, but, in the eyes of all the native powers, covered with glory, is devising new schemes for the aggrandisement of France.

Clive.

(7.) *Clive* is an ensign. (Born September 29, 1725; landed in India 1744.) The English, taught by the example of the French, are beginning to train sepoy. *Warren Hastings*, the future Governor-General (born 1732), came to India in 1750. The veteran *Major Lawrence* (Governor of Madras in 1749) sails for England in 1750, to return (in 1752), and with the young hero, Clive, to do great things.

Hastings
Lawrence.

(8.) In Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, *Ali-varî Khân* has made good his position; and is ruling with a degree of talent and justice that reconciles the people to his usurpation. (Ch. iii. § 15.)

Oudh.
Safder Jung.

(9.) Oudh is in the power of Sâdat Khân's nephew, *Safder Jung* (ch. iii. § 18), who is independent; though he condescends to call himself Vazîr of the Empire.

Rohilkhand.

(10.) In Rohilkhand the Afgâns have become virtually independent.

Hyder.

(11.) In Mysore, Hyder was now a rising chief. His son, Tippû, was born in 1750. (Ch. xii. § 11-13.)

The First English Interference in Native Disputes.

§ 15. In 1748 Sâhujî, ex-Râja of Tanjore [ch. vii. § 7 (17)], who had been dispossessed by Prâtab Sing (his illegitimate brother), applied to the English to restore him to his rightful possessions. He offered, as the price of their assistance, Dêvi Kôta (at the mouth of the Colleroon) and the surrounding territory. They consented, and dispatched a body of troops to restore Sâhujî. It was found that the people, who had suffered much under his weak rule, were averse to his return ; but, after an unsuccessful attempt, the English notwithstanding sent Major Lawrence to storm Dêvi Kôta. This he effected ; but Prâtab Sing now came forward, offered to confirm the captors in the possession of the fort and territory, and to give a pension to the ex-Râja, who retired to Madras.

It will be seen that the English thus led the way, though feebly, and without either dignity or consistency, in the adoption of that policy of *interfering in the disputes of native princes*, which Dupleix, with well-matured plans, afterwards adopted on such a gigantic scale.

§ 16. On the death of Nizâm-ul-mulk, his eldest son (see Table) preferred to remain at court (ch. iii. § 18) ; and the succession to the Sûbâdârship of the Dakhan fell, according to his grandmother's supposed will, to Muzaffir Jung. But Nazîr Jung, the second son, who had already rebelled against his father, seized the treasures, gained over the army, and proclaimed himself viceroy.

In fact, six uncles of Muzaffir were his rivals.

The dispossessed Muzaffir repaired to Satârâ to seek Mahratta aid, met there with Chandâ Sahêb, who was impatiently beating his wings against the bars of his prison ; and the two wrote to Dupleix, under whose protection Chandâ's wife and family were living in Pondicherry. [Ch. vii. § 7 (18).]

Dupleix promptly negotiated Chandâ Sahêb's release ; paid the ransom, seven lakhs of rupees, and sent an army of

CH. VIII. § 15, 16.
A. D. 1748.

Tanjore Disputes,
1748.

Dêvi Kôta taken
by the English.
(= the Fort of
the Goddess. It
is 37 miles S. from
Pondicherry.)

The Disputes in
the Dakhan.

Muzaffir and
Chandâ Sahêb
meet.

Chandâ Sahêb's
Release.

CH. VIII. § 17.
A. D. 1750.

The Second Battle of Ambûr. Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn.

The French Scheme.

Two Aspirants to Power.

The Second Battle of Ambûr, 1750.
[Comp. ch. vii. § 7 (15).]
Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn.

The French Party is Triumphant.

French Triumphs.

The Rival Nuwâbs.

400 Europeans and 2000 sepoys towards Ambûr, where Anwâr-ud-dîn (now in his 107th year), at the head of 20,000 troops, was posted. There the French were joined by the released Chandâ (who was burning with impatience to gain for himself a kingdom) with 6000 troops, and by Muzaffir Jung with 30,000.

Their plan was to defeat and dethrone Anwâr-ud-dîn, seat Chandâ Sahêb on the throne of Arcot, and then, with the combined forces of the Carnatic and the French, to oppose Nazîr Jung, and place Muzaffir on the throne of the Dakhan.

The plan was successful. The French leader, M. D'Auteuil, was murdered; but his place was taken by the French Clive, Bussy; Anwâr-ud-dîn and his eldest son were killed fighting gallantly, and the whole of his camp, artillery, and stores fell into the hands of Chandâ Sahêb, who took possession of Arcot the next day.

Muzaffir Jung now proclaimed himself Viceroy of the Dakhan, and appointed Chandâ Sahêb Nuwâb of the Carnatic.

Both then repaired to Pondicherry to offer their thanks to Dupleix, accompanied with the substantial gift of eighty-one villages around Pondicherry. Eight days were spent in magnificent festivities, in which the tokens of French wealth and power were ostentatiously exhibited to the princely victors.

Thus the curtain falls at the end of the first act of this changeful drama.

§ 17. The younger son of Anwâr-ud-dîn, Muhammed Ali, had escaped and fled to Trichinopoly. The question is a difficult one, whether he or Chandâ Sahêb was the rightful Nuwâb?

It must be remembered that these officers were appointed by the Sûbâdâr, but their appointment required confirmation by the Emperor. The office was not *hereditary* under the Moguls.

The First English Interference in these Disputes.

CH. VIII § 18.
A. D. 1750.

Muhammed Alî sought help from the English governor, Mr Floyer, who hesitated to engage in so momentous a conflict.

Muhammed Alî asks for English Aid.

The conquest of Trichinopoly and the capture of Muhammed Alî would have insured Chandâ Sahêb's final triumph; but he delayed, turned aside to plunder Tanjore, and allowed himself to be detained there until Nazîr Jung, with a vast army, aided by the Mahrattas and by Major Lawrence with 600 Englishmen, was in the field.

Chandâ Sahêb Delays.

Chandâ Sahêb, Muzaffir Jung, and their French allies were compelled to retreat. There was disaffection among the French, and distrust everywhere. At Valdâr, in the neighbourhood of Pondicherry, they were routed; Muzaffir was taken prisoner; and Nazîr Jung, now undisputed Viceroy of the Dakhan, took possession of Arcot, and proclaimed Muhammed Alî, Nuwâb of the Carnatic.

Nazîr Jung's Victory.

Muzaffir Prisoner. The Battle of Valdâr, April 1750.

Thus ended the second act in the great drama. The French and English have fairly taken their sides. For the moment Dupleix is mortified, while Lawrence and Clive are triumphant. Nazîr Jung is viceroy. Muhammed Alî is Nuwâb. Chandâ Sahêb is a fugitive in Pondicherry, and Muzaffir is in irons in his uncle's camp.

The French utterly cast down.

§ 18. Dupleix, nevertheless, maintained a firm attitude, sent envoys to Nazîr Jung, who were instructed to demand, in fact, all that they could have asked if they had been victors, and to tamper with the fidelity of the chiefs that made up his army. The Nuwâbs of Kadapa, Kurnûl, and Savanûr and other leaders were corrupted.

The Firmness of Dupleix.

Corruption.

NOTE.—1. KADAPA (Cuddapa, Prop. *Kripa* = *mercy*. Often KĀRPA). Here was a small independent Patân state.

2. KURNÛL (*Kandanûl*), on the Tâmbhadra. It was given as a Jaghîr by Aurungzîb, in 1651, to the father of Dâûd Khân Pannî. (Ch. iii. § 10.)

3. SAVANÛR (*Shâhnûr*). The capital of a small Patân state, forty miles S.E. from Dhârwar.

The French troops too had come to a better mind, and

CH. VIII, §18.
A.D. 1750.

Muhammed Ali Defeated. Gingi Stormed. Bussy, the Sixth Great Frenchman.

Muhammed Ali Defeated.

The Battle of the Punâr.
Sept. 1, 1750.

The Storming of Ginjî, 1750.
(35 miles N.W. from Pondicherry.)

VI.
Bussy,
Born 1718.

Nazîr Jung aroused.

Nazîr Jung Murdered.
Muzaffir Enthroned.

all were burning to wipe off the disgrace of their late defeat.

Moreover Muhammed Alî, who was timid and irresolute, refused to be guided by his English allies. They in consequence left him, and the result was an overwhelming defeat on the banks of the Punâr, a few miles from Cuddalôr.

The storming of Ginjî, to which place the scattered remnant of Muhammed Alî's forces had retired, raised the reputation of the French to its highest point. It was always considered to be impregnable, strongly entrenched between its three hills, each crowned with a citadel. Bussy stormed it in twenty-four hours.

This was an achievement that might be the precursor of the most signal triumphs.

Nazîr Jung, sunk as he was in debauchery, and incapable of pursuing any consistent plan, was startled for the moment into something like vigorous effort. His mind was made up to come to terms with Dupleix, to make any concession, so that the French king-maker would only allow him to remain in a position where he could gratify every desire of his sensual soul.

But, meanwhile, a conspiracy to liberate Muzaffir, and to murder Nazîr Jung had been formed. The conspirators were to desert, display the French standard, and to fall upon their master. While Nazîr Jung was awaiting an answer to his offers of submission to Dupleix, the French moved to the attack under M. de la Touche; and Nazîr Jung, on an elephant, took up his position with the captive Muzaffir on another elephant, guarded by an officer, who was ordered to behead his prisoner on the first appearance of treason; but who, fortunately for Muzaffir, was himself one of the traitors. In the midst of the action the traitors displayed the French standard, and Nazîr Jung gave instant orders to behead Muzaffir; but was himself shot through the heart by the Nuwâb of

The Triumph of Dupleix. Bussy in the Dakhan.

CH VIII. § 19, 20.
A. D. 1750.

Kadapa, and his head laid at the feet of Muzaffir, who had himself expected a similar fate. The prisoner, over whom the sword had been hanging, found himself suddenly, not only free, but a mighty ruler; and resolved to march at once to Pondicherry to thank and consult the now triumphant Dupleix.

Four of his uncles were in the camp at the time in imprisonment.

Pondicherry was intoxicated with joy. This was in 1750.

Thus ended the third act of the imperial drama.

§ 19. Dupleix followed up his now assured triumph by ordering the building of a town on the battlefield, the scene of Nazir Jung's assassination, to be called Dupleix-fattih-abâd, *the town of the victory of Dupleix*, with a pillar bearing on its four sides laudatory inscriptions in different languages. The town was scarcely built, when the pillar was, as we shall see, demolished by Clive (§ 23). Magnificent presents were given to Dupleix and to the French East India Company. Another installation, more imposing than the former, took place in Pondicherry.

The Arrogant
Triumph of
Dupleix.
(About 16 miles
N.W. of Ginji.)

His City and
Pillar.

Dupleix now desired peace; but peace there could not be while Muhammed Ali was the rival Nuwâb of the Carnatic. This difficulty seemed to be removed, when Muhammed himself proposed to acknowledge Chandâ Sahêb, if his father's treasures were given him, and another government assigned to him in the Dakhan.

Muhammed Ali
himself is willing
to Resign.

§ 20. In January 1751, Muzaffir left Pondicherry for Aurangâbâd, which was to be his capital. Bussy was to accompany him, at his own request, with a body of French troops, and to reside at his court. This arrangement, of course, made the French masters of the Dakhan.

Bussy Marches
to the Dakhan.

On the march, when near Kadapa, the same three

CH. VIII. § 21.
A. D. 1751.

Summary of Affairs in 1751.

Muzaffir Jung
Murdered.
Salâbat Succeeds.

Nuwâbs, who were leaders in the conspiracy against Nazîr Jung, conspired, for reasons not clearly ascertainable, to murder Muzaffir, whom they had before saved. A conflict ensued, in which Muzaffir was killed by the Nuwâb of Kurnûl. There happened to be in the camp, in irons, another son of Nizâm-ul-mulk, called Salâbat Jung (Table). Bussy lost no time in releasing him and placing him on the throne.

Salâbat Jung
made Sûbâdâr.

The Successor to
Nizâm-ul-mulk
at last on the
Throne.

Such were the rapid changes of those eventful times. Bussy succeeded in conducting Salâbat in safety to Aurungâbâd, where, on 29th June 1751, he was installed as Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan. Bussy remained with him, the master-spirit of his court. A Frenchman, at this period, really ruled the Dakhan.

Triumphant Po-
sition of the
French at the be-
ginning of 1751.

§ 21. The year 1751 seemed destined to be a most glorious year for France, and disgraceful to England. The vast territory ruled over by the Nizâm was in the power of a French general. The Northern Circârs were really French, since that nation possessed a strong force in Masulipatam. Chandâ Sahêb, whom Dupleix had released and elevated to his present dignity, was Nuwâb of the Carnatic. Muhammed Alî had consented to abdicate. The English held nothing in the Carnatic but Madras, Fort St David, and Dêvi Kota, and had lost any reputation they had ever acquired among the natives; they had, in truth, hardly one respectable name to oppose to those of *Martin, Dumas, La Bourdonnais, Paradis, Bussy, and Dupleix*. Yet to these the historian of the French in India can add but one other distinguished name, that of the rash and unfortunate Lally, who witnessed the final downfall of French power in India; while Lawrence, Clive, and Hastings, whose career had then scarcely begun, were the first names in a long roll of English heroes, statesmen, and administrators, of unrivalled fame.

Trichinopoly Besieged. Clive in Arcot.

CH. VIII. § 22.
A. D. 1751.

§ 22. Muhammed Alî, though seemingly intent on making terms with Chandâ Sahêb and the French, was secretly urging the English to aid him; and, at length, obtaining a reluctant promise of help from them, he determined to defend himself in Trichinopoly. Dupleix resolved to aid Chandâ Sahêb with all his available resources. The English, too, fairly roused at last, made up their minds to support Muhammed Alî to the utmost of their power. All turned on the siege of Trichinopoly. And when the siege became a blockade, and the English were dispirited, it must have been taken, if the genius of Lieutenant Robert Clive had not completely changed the aspect of affairs (1751).

The French and English begin the Struggle.

All depends on Trichinopoly. It is on the point of Surrendering. Clive Appears.

He recommended to the Governor of Madras, Mr Saunders (1751-1755), who was a man of firmness and judgment, a plan which he had devised for relieving Trichinopoly, by carrying the war into the enemy's own country. With 500 men, of whom 200 only were Europeans, and a few light guns, Clive, not more than twenty-five years of age, with officers none of whom had ever been in action, took possession of *Arcot*, put it into a posture of defence, and, his force reduced to 320 men and four officers, make good his position for seven weeks, against 10,000 men headed by Rajâ Sahêb, the son of Chandâ Sahêb. The people, seeing Clive and his men march steadily in a storm of thunder and lightning, said they were fire-proof, and fled before him. The hero contemptuously refused Rajâ Sahêb's bribes, and laughed at his threats. When provisions failed in the besieged town, the sepoys came with a request that they might cook the rice, retaining for themselves only the water it was boiled in, handing over every grain of it to the Europeans, who required, they said, more solid food. Such self-denial and heroic zeal had Clive's influence inspired in these men. Morârî Râo, the Mahratta chief of Gûti, and his 6000 men, who were not far from Ambûr, waiting to see the course of events, joined

The Defence of Arcot by Clive, 1751. Mr Saunders.

Clive's Resources.

(On the Pâlâr, 68 miles W. S. W. from Madras.)

The Fidelity of the Sepoys.

CH. VIII. § 23.
A. D. 1752.

Clive in 1752. Lawrence. French Siege of Trichinopoly.

Clive, saying, "Since the English can so nobly help themselves, we will help them." Mr Saunders exerted himself energetically to aid the gallant garrison; and after a desperate assault, in which he lost 400 men, Râja Sahêb raised the siege. The moral effect of this memorable defence was incalculable.

Clive's Triumphant Progress, 1752.

§ 23. After this, Clive's course was one of continuous victories. On the 25th March 1752, he demolished the town and pillar of Dupleix (§ 19), a measure of importance, as destroying in the eyes of the natives the impression of French supremacy.

Return of Lawrence.

On the 26th March, Lawrence again landed in India. And now the English force marched to relieve Trichinopoly, under Lawrence, the experienced, scientific, veteran soldier, and his subordinate Clive, the youthful hero, and untaught genius; trusting one another and co-operating, without a particle of envy or impatience on either side. An instructive sight!

The Veteran and the Genius!

It should be noted here, that when the Directors voted to Clive, on his first return, a sword of the value of £500, he refused to receive it, till a similar honour had been conferred on General Lawrence. He also settled upon his old commander a pension of £500 a year, when the latter retired.

The French Siege of Trichinopoly Raised.

Remember, Muhammed Alî was blockaded in Trichinopoly. Chandâ Sahêb and Law (the vain and incapable) were pressing the siege. Lawrence and Clive were hastening to its relief. Dupleix and Saunders were at Pondicherry and Madras, making prodigious efforts to aid their respective armies. Bussy, the French Clive, who might have changed the aspect of affairs, was, alas for the French, in Aurungâbâd.

After many struggles, Law and the whole besieging force were invested in Srirangam, a small island, on which stands a very famous temple of Vishnu, and within a long cannon-shot of the Fort of Trichinopoly. The result was that, on the 13th June 1752, Law and his force of 785

Trichinopoly Taken. Death of Chandâ Sahêb.

CH. VIII. 24.
A. D. 1752.

Frenchmen and 2000 sepoys surrendered, with forty-one pieces of cannon and all military stores, to Lawrence, acting for Muhammed Alî.

Surrender of
Law.

Chandâ Sahêb had given himself up on the 11th to the Tanjore commander, Manockjî, who stabbed him to the heart, and his head was laid at the feet of his triumphant rival. It was afterwards given to *Nandirâj*, the Mysore commander, who sent it to Seringapatam, where it was exposed over one of the gates for three days. Thus ended the career of this able, but unscrupulous man. Superior to most about him, free from the sordid and sensual vices of many of his contemporaries, we might have desired for him a better fate!

Death of Chandâ
Sahêb.
June 11, 1752.

Thus too finally fell to the ground the plans of Dupleix for the settlement of the Carnatic. He should now at least have allowed peace to be made.

§ 24. We will here briefly sum up the history of events in the Carnatic from this famous 13th June 1752 to the departure of Dupleix from India, October 14, 1754. It is simply the history of unwearied efforts on his part to retrieve his cause.

Summary of
Events from 1752
to 1754.

The Râja of Tanjore, Pratâb Sîng; the Râja of Mysore's General, Nandirâj (with whom was Hyder Naik, the future usurper); and Morârî Râo with his Mahrattas, had hitherto aided Muhammed Alî. These Dupleix contrived to detach from the English side. He even tampered with Muhammed Alî himself. He at the same time negotiated for peace with Mr Saunders, who refused however to concede any one of the disputed points.

(Ch. xii. § 11.)
Dupleix Tamperers
with the Allies
of the English.

About this time he received from Salâbat Jung a firman containing his own appointment as Nuwâb of the Carnatic and of all south of the Kishtna. Thus emboldened, Dupleix nominated Râja Sahêb (son of Chandâ Sahêb) his deputy; and finding him utterly worthless, appointed

Dupleix made
Nuwâb.

CH. VIII § 24.
A. D. 1753.

End of Dupleix. Peace.

Clive Returns to
England, 1753.
(On the Sea Coast,
22 miles S. from
Madras.)

Murteza Ali [ch. vii. § 7 (26)], who readily accepted the nomination.

Clive, after the heroic capture of the forts of *Covelong* and *Chingleput*, accomplished with the most wretched troops, in the most astonishing manner, left for England in 1753; but Lawrence, feeble in health, yet with undiminished energies as a commander, remained.

The French wrote Dupleix complimentary letters, and made him a Marquis, but sent him no efficient aid.

700 Men Burnt
at Sea, 1752.

The "Prince" with reinforcements, commanded by De la Touche, was burnt at sea.

The Second Siege
of Trichinopoly,
1752-1755.

Another siege of Trichinopoly was now undertaken, in which the English under Lawrence were the successful defenders; and this siege, marked by many most gallant conflicts, lasted till the truce preceding the peace of January 1755.

Dupleix Re-
called.

Meanwhile Dupleix had lost the confidence of the French Government. It must be remembered, that, while all this fighting was going on in India, England and France were at peace! Saunders, not without reason, wrote to the English directors, who communicated it to the Minister, who, in turn, urged it upon the French Government, that there could not be peace in India, or commercial prosperity, while the restless and ambitious Dupleix was in Pondicherry. M. Godeheu was sent to replace him. Whatever may have been the errors of this great man, he was now treated with injustice and contumely, which he bore with dignity and firmness. He left India, October 14, 1754, a ruined man; *for he had spent more than his all in this desperate struggle.* He died broken-hearted, in the utmost poverty, at Paris, November 10, 1764.

Death of Dupleix,
1764.

Truce between
French and
English.

A truce was now agreed upon, October 1754, and a peace followed. Neither party was to interfere further in the concerns of the native princes. The possessions of the two countries in India were to be equalised. Muhammed Ali remained Nuwâb of the Carnatic. The plans of

Clive's Return. Angria.

CH. VIII. § 25-27.
A. D. 1755.

Dupleix were definitely abandoned. Bussy continued in the Dakhan, and the English supported their Nuwâb ; but avowed hostilities between the two nations ceased for the present.

This treaty was signed January 11, 1755. Godeheu—like Cornwallis and Sir G. Barlow in 1805—with feverish haste sacrificed all for peace. Saunders, to whom England owes a debt of gratitude for his unwavering firmness in resisting Dupleix, and for the tact and skill with which he conducted all the negotiations, had the merit of bringing about this result so favourable to England.

Treaty.

Saunders.

§ 25. Peace did not continue long between France and England. Absolute cessation of military operations there was in fact none. The last struggle of the rival companies, however, began in January 1757, and ended in January 1761. The great names connected with it are Clive, Bussy, Count Lally, Colonel Forde, and Sir Eyre Coote.

The Last
Struggle, 1757-
1761.(French War
from 1756 to
1763.)

§ 26. The English assisted the Nuwâb of the Carnatic, Muhammed Alî (of course the French governor no longer bore the title), to collect his tribute in the south from refractory poligars. The French, in like manner, interfered to assist the Mysore regent to collect his dues. Both, in fact, infringed the conditions of the treaty.

Treaty Violated,
1755.

§ 27. Meanwhile, Clive, now a lieutenant-colonel, had arrived in India a second time, as Governor of Fort St David. Admiral Watson was sent with a fleet to watch over English interests.

Clive again in
India, 1756.

Their first business, however, before proceeding to the Coromandel Coast, was to reduce the Fort of Gheriah and dislodge the famous pirate, Tulajî Angria. This was gallantly and effectively done, and thus commerce was freed from a great danger on the western coast. (Ch. v. § 65.)

Clive arrived in Madras in May 1756, and took charge

CH. VIII. § 28-30.
A. D. 1756.

Lally, the Seventh Great Frenchman.

of Fort St David on the 20th of June, the very day of the Black Hole massacre.

It was at this time that a king's regiment, the 39th Foot, was sent to India. It was soon followed by the 79th Foot. The former was at *Plassey*, and still bears on its colours the motto, *Primus in Indis*: first in India.

§ 28. Soon after this, events in Bengál called Clive and Watson thither. (Ch. ix. § 6.) Clive never ceased to feel an interest in Madras affairs, and constantly corresponded with his old friends there.

A large French force was also sent to Hyderábád to assist Bussy. (Ch. iii. § 16.) Neither party could do much at this time in the Carnatic.

The Seven Years' War breaks out, 1756-1763.

Ministry of William Pitt the Elder, 1756-1761.

VII.
Lally, the Destroyer of French Influence in India.
Decay of the French.
(*Plassey*, June 23, 1757.)

§ 29. In the end of 1756 came the long-expected tidings of the breaking out of the war between France and England. It was the seven years' war, destined to strip France of all territory and power in both the East and West; the war in which Wolff won Quebec, and Coote took Pondicherry.

§ 30. *Lally* was the man destined by the French Government to drive the English out of India.

He was, however, destined to see the final overthrow of French power in India. He landed in Pondicherry in April 1758. His powers were all but absolute. It was unfortunate for him that his appointment superseded many of the older officers, and, among others, Bussy. Lally knew nothing of India, and heartily despised all of every race who dwelt in it. He found Pondicherry full of corruption. There were neither ability nor honesty among those who should have seconded Lally's efforts. More especially the admiral, the Count d'Ache, failed to co-operate with him effectually. Yet in a few weeks he took Fort St David. Bussy joined him soon after from the

The Last Campaign. Wandiwash.

CH. VIII. § 31.
A. D. 1758.

Dakhan, but seemed to have no other desire than to take care of his immense gains. His recall was a deathblow to the French interests in the Dakhan. (See ch. iii. § 16.)

After an ill-managed expedition to Tanjore, it was resolved to attack Madras, which was invested in December 1758.

Mr (afterwards Lord) Pigott (Governor of Madras, 1756–1763), the veteran Lawrence, Major Calliaud, and others, were the defenders of the city.

The besiegers were ill disciplined and disaffected; and, in spite of Lally's efforts, no progress was made, until the arrival of Admiral Pocock in the roadstead with the English fleet compelled the French to raise the siege, and to retreat towards Pondicherry in a miserable plight. (February 1759.)

The Second Siege
of Madras, 1758.Siege of Madras
Raised.

§ 31. In 1759 fresh troops arrived from England, under Colonel EYRE COOTE, one of the heroes of British Indian warfare. (Biog. Ind.) Lawrence had sailed for England in ill health.

Lally tried to set up Bussâlat Jung, brother of Salâbat Jung (see Table), as Nuwâb of the Carnatic; but this prince had ceased to trust or respect the French, and the scheme failed.

The great campaign began in December 1759, and the struggle at Wandiwash (Vandivâsam) was the decisive battle which destroyed for ever the idea of a French empire in India. (Comp. ch. xii. § 28.)

Lally and Bussy attacked this town with a force of 1350 European infantry and 150 cavalry. *The native troops refused to engage.*

Coote hastened to the relief with 1900 Europeans, of which 80 were cavalry, and 3350 natives.

The French were defeated and never again rallied. Bussy was taken prisoner. Of him we hear once again.

Colonel Eyre
Coote, Nov. 21,
1759.The Battle of
Wandiwash.
(73 miles S. W.
from Madras.)*(French Loss of
Quebec, Montreal,
and all Canada,
1759, 1760.)**(Death of George
II., 1760.)**(Âlamgir II. put
to Death by Ghâzi-
ud-din, 1760)
Bussy a Prisoner.*

CH. VIII. § 32.
A. D. 1761.

Summary of the Chapter.

He returned to India in 1783 (ch. xii. § 35) to fight again against Coote, failed as before, and died in the Carnatic.

Coote's course was now one of continuous success. Chittapet, Arcot, Timery, Dévi-Kôta, Trincomalee, Alampârva, Kâricâl, Chillumbrum, and Cuddalôr fell successively into his hands, and in January 1761, Pondicherry surrendered. Lally was sent a prisoner to Madras; and thus ended the schemes and labours of Martin, Paradis, La Bourdonnais, Dupleix, Dumas, Bussy, and Lally.

Pondicherry was restored in 1763 at the Peace of Paris. Muhammed Alî was acknowledged Nawâb of the Carnatic, and Salâbat Jung, Sûbâdâr of the Dakhan at the same time. It was again taken, 1778, on the breaking out of the war on account of America, and held till the peace of Versailles, 1783. It was again taken in 1793, and held by the English till the peace of Amiens in 1802.

Lally was himself beheaded in Paris in 1766. The French East India Company ceased to exist in 1769.

Pondicherry
Taken.
(Timery is 6 miles
S. W. of Arcot.)
(Ch. xii. § 17.)

Lally a Prisoner.
(Hyder Usurped
the Kingdom of
Mysore, June
1761.)

Death of Lally.

Summary.
Schemes of
Dupleix.

Madras Twice
Besieged.

Pondicherry
Twice Besieged.

Paradis.

Bussy and Clive.

The Rivals.

§ 32. Let us sum up this chapter.

(1.) The genius of DUPLEIX conceives a stupendous plan; extending, no doubt, in his mind, to the occupation of the throne of the Mogul at Delhi by a Frenchman. He prosecutes his schemes with unspeakable skill, energy, and perseverance. They fail utterly, and involve him in their ruin. His vanity was almost equal to his genius.

(2.) Madras is twice besieged, in 1746 (§ 4), and in 1757-8 (§ 30); successfully and unsuccessfully.

(3.) Pondicherry is twice besieged, unsuccessfully in 1748 (§ 11), and successfully in 1760 and 1761 (§ 31).

(4.) PARADIS shows that native troops cannot stand before Europeans (§ 5). This is the French Plassey.

(5.) BUSSY AND CLIVE are heroes of rival fame. The one takes Ginjî (§ 18). The other takes and defends Arcot (§ 22) in 1751.

(6.) Of the rival candidates set up by the two nations,

Summary of the Chapter.

CH. VIII. § 32.
A. D. 1761.

France maintains hers in Hyderâbâd (§ 24); and England maintains hers in Arcot (§ 24). The original claimants, however, perish ignominiously in the struggle. *All but Muhammed Ali die a violent death.*

(7.) Trichinopoly is thrice besieged, successfully by the English in 1752 (§ 23); and by the French unsuccessfully in 1751 (§ 22), and in 1754-5 (§ 24).

Trichinopoly
Thrice Besieged.

(8.) The English owe much to the steadfastness of Saunders; more to the bravery and skill of Lawrence and Clive; and most of all to the absence of real patriotism in the Frenchmen of the day.

Saunders, Lawrence, and Clive.

Disunion and jealousies weaken the French. Union and MAGNANIMITY give strength throughout to the English.

(9.) It is a war from first to last forced upon the English, who engage in it with reluctance, but prosecute it with the most dogged perseverance.

Characteristics of
the English.

(10.) Afgâns, Moguls, and Mahrattas are contending in the north-west, unconscious that a power is being consolidated in the south-east and north-east, which is destined at last to overwhelm them all. (Ch. v. § 69, 70.)

The North-West.
[The Third (Second) Battle of
Pânipat, 1761.]

CH. IX. § 1-3.
A.D. 1756.

Bengál comes into Importance. *Ali-wardi Khán.*

CHAPTER IX.

The Foundation of British Power in Bengál, 1756-1774.

Circumstances that led to British Supremacy in the North-East, 1756-1765.

§ 1. The foundation, or, at least, the great extension of British power in Bengál is connected with Surája Dowla, the Black Hole, and its attendant cruelties, A.D. 1756; Clive, and the great battle of Plassey, June 23, 1757, which avenged those cruelties, and virtually made England supreme in Hindústán; and the treaty of Alláhábád, by which Sháh Álam II., in August 1765, made over to the English Company the Diwání of the Súbahs of Bengál, Bahár, and Orissa.

The history of the first English settlements in Bengál is given in chap. vii. § 6.

Bengál at first an unimportant British Settlement.

§ 2. During the eventful period from 1744 to 1756, while the struggles in the Carnatic, the history of which we have given in chap. viii., were going on, the English settlements in Bengál were of less importance than either those in the Carnatic or on the western coast.

They were soon to become the most important of all. The great name here is that of CLIVE.

Ali-wardi Khán and the English, 1740-1756.

§ 3. When *Ali-wardi Khán* (ch. iii. § 15) usurped the government of Bengál, he protected the English. He had

Surája Dowla's Accession, and Hatred of the English.

CH. IX. § 3-5.
A.D. 1756.

to contend repeatedly with the Mahrattas, whom he succeeded in repulsing; but the fertile plains of the north-east were repeatedly laid waste.

He frequently demanded contributions from the English, as the price of this protection; but as his exactions were not excessive, and his services in repelling the dreaded Mahrattas were real, they did not complain.

He had permitted them (in 1744) to enclose Calcutta with a moat, called the Mahratta ditch. (Ch. v. § 57.)

The Calcutta
Ditch.

§ 4. But in 1756, the year when the memorable seven years' war broke out, *Ali-vardî* died, and was succeeded by his grandson, Surája Dowla, a young Caligula, guilty of the most detestable cruelties, and full of implacable hatred to the English. He, on one occasion, demanded from them the surrender of a fugitive, which they declined, and thus afforded him a pretext for attacking them.

Death of Ali-
vardi Khân.

His Successor.

Umbrage given.

The idea of the wealth of the infidel merchants fired him with an ambition to plunder their factories.

Avarice.

One of these was at Cossimbazaar, near to his capital, Mûrshedâbâd. This he took, and then marched to Calcutta.

(Or *Kâsimbazâr*.)

NOTE.—The Nuwâb of Mûrshedâbâd was called the *Nuwâb Nazim* (=military) to distinguish him from the Nuwâb Vazîr of Oudh. He was also called *Sûbâdâr*.

There were not, he told his courtiers, 10,000 people in all Europe. The triumph must be easy and final.

His Contempt for
the English.

Among the prisoners he took at Cossimbazaar was a young writer, *Warren Hastings*, who had not been in India six years, and was twenty-four years of age. His after career was destined to be as brilliant in its way as Clive's.

Hastings.

§ 5. The Council of Calcutta were unprepared for such an attack. Their means of defence were inadequate. Drake, the governor, was not a Dupleix, scarcely even a Morse; and they had among them no Clive.

The Attack.

CHAP. IX. § 6.
A. D. 1756.

Calcutta Taken by Surâja Dowla. The Black Hole.

The Nuwâb before Calcutta.

They tried to conciliate the Nuwâb. They then asked help from the Dutch at Chinsura, and from the French at Chândernâgôr, but were refused with taunts. The Nuwâb began to batter their miserable defences on the 18th June (memorable in 1815!) and soon the unhappy garrison was driven within the walls of the fort.

The Flight by Night.

At nightfall the fatal resolution was taken by the governor of escaping down the river. The women and children were sent on board one of the ships, and Drake put off in the last remaining boat. The soldiers of the garrison, and others who were left behind, tried in vain to find means of escape. The ships dropped down the river to Fulta, where the fugitives took refuge.

(About 20 miles below Calcutta, on the left bank of the Hôglî.)

Holwell and the Nuwâb.

Holwell, who was the chief among the deserted party, felt himself compelled to negotiate, and the army of the Nuwâb marched in. The Nuwâb summoned Mr Holwell before him, reproached him with defending the place against the rightful ruler of Bengâl; but assured him no harm should be done to the prisoners.

The BLACK HOLE, 1756.
The First Great Tragedy.

Horrors.

That evening, however, the whole of them, 146 in number, were crammed into a wretched dungeon, ever since called the "Black Hole," eighteen feet square, with two small apertures, which would have been an oppressively confined prison for one person. This night, the horrors of which no pen can describe, or mind adequately conceive, may be considered an æra in Indian history. Scenes of equal atrocity were enacted in the mutinies a century after. These are the things that fix the fate of empires.

The Nuwâb's Conduct.

In the morning twenty-three only were found alive, and they were a fearful spectacle.

The Nuwâb is said to have been free from the guilt of ordering this frightful wholesale murder; but he evidently did not regret it. His great anxiety was to find the treasures which he imagined the English had concealed.

The Avengers.

§ 6. These sad tidings soon reached Madras, where *Oliver*

Clive and Watson in Bengal.

CHAP. IX. § 7.
A. D. 1756.

and *Watson*, just returned from the destruction of *Gheriah* (ch. v. § 65), were soon ready to sail to avenge the cruel injury.

Clive was the Governor of Fort St David. (Ch. viii. § 27.) He had learnt to estimate native power rightly.

Watson was admiral of the fleet.

900 English infantry and 1500 sepoys, full of spirit and devotedly attached to their leaders, constituted the army which was destined to effect a mighty revolution in India.

It was the middle of December before the expedition reached the Hûglî.

No time was then lost. *Budge-Budge* was taken, *Calcutta* re-occupied, and the town of Hûglî stormed. At *Budge-Budge*, *Hastings* fought as a volunteer. There he and Clive first met. There was but seven years' difference in their ages; but Clive had already gained a mighty name. *Hastings* felt the assurance within him that he too could immortalise himself. But his fame was not to be gained on the field of battle. By Clive's advice he remained a civilian.

The storming of Hûglî was the work of a young captain, *Eyre Coote*. He too has a niche among the heroes of British Indian history. Here then are four names associated at this memorable crisis, *Clive*, *Watson*, *Coote*, and *Hastings*. To these must be added those of *Forde*, then a major in a king's regiment, and of *Carnac*.

§ 7. *Surâja Dowla* began to awake from his dream of fancied security. He knew something of the wars in the Carnatic, of *Arcot*, and of *Gheriah*; and now this same Clive was in *Calcutta*! Clive had now acquired the name, by which he is still known, of *Sâbat Khân*, or *daring in war*.

An obstinate engagement took place, and the *Nuwâb's* attacks were repelled at every point. *Calcutta* was re-

Madras Troops
in Bengâl.

Budge-Budge.

(10 miles below
Calcutta, on the
left bank of the
Hûglî.)Clive and *Hastings*.Hûglî Stormed.
Coote.

The Four Names.

Surâja
Frightened.*Calcutta* Re-
taken, Jan. 1757.

CH. IX. § 8, 9.
A. D. 1757.

Further Troubles with the Nuwâb.

Hollow Peace

taken January 2, 1757. Negotiations followed, and a hollow peace was made. The English were allowed to assume their old position, and *vengeance was postponed*.

Watson disapproved. The Nuwâb, he said, should be "well thrashed." Clive now became a diplomatist, and unwillingly consented, from political considerations, to sign the treaty. (February 9, 1757.)

War with France.

§ 8. There was now, strange to say, peace between the English and the author of the horrors of the Black Hole. Meanwhile in Europe the seven years' war had begun. (Ch. viii. § 29.)

The French Settlement taken, May 1757. (Ch. vii. § 7.)

Watson and others wished to attack the French settlement of Chândernâgôr. Clive at first wished for neutrality in India. The Nuwâb was asked for permission to attack the French; but he refused, and even aided them with arms and money. In defiance of his threats, the English forces under Clive attacked the place, and Watson co-operated with the fleet.

Chândernâgôr was thus taken in May 1757.

Watson's Tomb. (Aug. 12, 1757)

On the tomb of Admiral Watson, who died in Calcutta, are these words in relation to the events related above:—

"Gheriah taken, February 13, 1756.

Calcutta, January 2, 1757.

Chândernâgôr taken, March 23, 1757.

Exegisti monumentum ære perennius."

The Perfidy of Surâja Dowla, 1756.

§ 9. The peace between the Nuwâb and the English could not be lasting. The latter began to feel their power; and the former, full of hatred, fear, and distrust, acted in the most violent and inconsistent manner. He intrigued with Bussy, who was at Kuttack in the Northern Circârs (not more than two hundred miles from Calcutta), which had just been ceded to France. [Ch. viii. § 20, ch. iii. § 16 (5).]

The Plot to Dethrone Surâja Dowla. The Forgery and Deceit.

CHAP. IX. § 9.
A. D. 1757.

He at the same time sent conciliatory messages and even money to the Council at Calcutta : in fact, acted like a madman. He had not a friend, even among his own subjects.

And now a formidable confederacy was formed against him. The plotters were Râydu llub, his treasurer ; Mîr Jaffîr, the commander of his troops ; Jagat Seid, the richest banker in India ; with Mr Watt, the English Resident at Mûrshedâbâd ; and the Council at Calcutta.

“He or we must fall,” said Clive.

A Bengâlî named Omichand was the agent employed to transact the business between the English and the Nuwâb. He, of course, was in the plot.

The plan of the conspirators was this. Surâja was to be deposed, the British co-operating with Mîr Jaffîr. The most ample and exclusive privileges were to be granted to the English, and the fullest compensation for their losses ; while a large sum was to be distributed among the members of the English Secret Committee.

A difficulty here arose. Omichand, at the last moment, threatened to disclose the whole, unless a sum of 3,000,000 rupees was guaranteed to himself. To satisfy him it was arranged that a clause should be inserted in the agreement to be signed by Mîr Jaffîr and the members of the English Committee, relating to his claims.

But Clive and his fellow conspirators condescended to cheat the wily Hindû. Two treaties were prepared, one on white paper, the other on red. In the latter Omichand's claims were guaranteed. In the other no mention was made of them. The white was the real treaty. The fictitious one was shown to Omichand, and he was satisfied. Admiral Watson had refused to be a party to this deceit, and his signature was forged !

This plan to dethrone the vicious monster, on whom no one could rely, and whose tyranny his subjects could no longer endure, was justifiable. The dissimulation con-

The Plot.
The Conspirators.

Omichand.

The Plan.

The Price.

The Hitch.

The Nefarious
Expedient.The White and
Red Treaties.

Forgery.

Plot against
Surâja Dowla,
1757.

CHAP. IX. § 10.
A. D. 1757.

The Battle of Plassey. The First Bengal Revolution.

nected with its execution was necessary, it was said; and was defended on the false principle that the "end justifies the means."

Deceit.

But nothing renders deceit right. Clive and his fellow plotters disgraced themselves by fighting bad men with their own weapons.

Plassey, 1757.
(30 miles S. from
Mûrshedâbâd.)

§ 10. All was now ready, and Clive wrote a peremptory letter to the Nuwâb, demanding satisfaction for all injuries, and stating that the British army would wait upon him for an answer. The Nuwâb instantly put his army in motion, and the hostile armies met on the field of PLASSEY. The Nuwâb had 50,000 infantry, 18,000 cavalry, and an enormous train of artillery. Clive had 650 European infantry, 150 gunners, 2100 sepoys, a few Portuguese, and 10 pieces of artillery.

Mîr Jaffîr's Conduct.

Meanwhile Mîr Jaffîr was terrified by the approaching crisis, and ceased to communicate with Clive. The wisdom of attacking the Nuwâb, with such fearful odds against them, seemed to Clive's officers to be doubtful; and, in a council of war (the only one Clive ever assembled), thirteen voted against fighting the enemy, and but seven for it. In the minority was Coote.

The Council of War.

Coote.

Clive makes up his mind.

Clive dismissed the council, took a solitary walk in a grove hard by, and decided in his own mind that the attack must be made *now or never*, and that it should be made *now*. The next morning he crossed the river, and fought the battle of Plassey on the 23rd June 1757. The victory was immediate and decisive, and the loss on the side of the English was only 22 killed and 50 wounded.

Plassey, June 23,
1757.
(Comp. ch. viii.
§ 5, and ch. vi.
§ 8.)
Mîr Jaffîr Nuwâb.

Surâja fled. Mîr Jaffîr, now that victory was assured, joined Clive, who did not condescend to notice his vacillation, but saluted him Nuwâb of Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa. Thus Clive did in Bengâl what Dupleix had done in the Carnatic. (Ch. viii. § 16.)

THE FIRST BEN-
GÂL REVOLUTION,
1757.

Surâja Dowla Dethroned and Killed.

CH. IX. § 11, 12.
A. D. 1757.

The new Nuwâb was, however, but a tool in the hands of those who had made and could unmake him.

A Tool.

Omichand was soon undeceived as to his reward, and was stunned by the blow; but seems to have soon recovered, as we find him afterwards recommended by Clive "as a person capable of rendering great services, and, therefore, not wholly to be discarded."

Omichand Undeceived.

Clive thus degraded himself by his duplicity, and injured that reputation for strict integrity which, in regard to individuals as well as states, is one of the most essential elements of success.

Tricks.

§ 11. Surâja was soon seized, having been betrayed by a man whom he had wronged, and brought before Jaffîr, whose son, Mirân, caused him to be put to death. The poor victim had not completed his twentieth year; and had not been on the throne fifteen months.

Death of Surâja Dowla, 1757.

And now came the division of the spoil. Clive contented himself with between two and three hundred thousand pounds, besides an estate received at a later date; of which immense wealth a great part went, by his generous gift, to form what is called "Lord Clive's fund," and the proceeds were applied from the first to the relief of invalids in the service. Clive was not on the whole mercenary; yet these immense sums, received in this irregular way, demoralised the men who received them, and lowered Englishmen in the eyes of all men.

"Clive's Fund."

Vast treasures, as indemnity for losses sustained, were poured into the Company's coffers; and all shared in the golden harvest.

Gains to the Company, and to Individuals.

What are called the twenty-four Pergunnahs were then given to the Company as a Zâmîndâry. The grant is dated December 20, 1757.

§ 12. Clive was now virtually ruler of these rich provinces. He was made Governor of the Company's settle-

Clive, 1757-1760

CHAP. IX. § 13.
A. D. 1757.

India in 1757.

ments in Bengál. He remained at the head of affairs till 1760. The transactions of this interval we have now to record.

Summary of
Affairs in 1757.

(Ch. iii. § 19.)
Afgâns.

Emperor.

Nizâm.

Mahrattas.

Mysore.

Carnatic.

Shâh Alam II.
Invades the
Nuwâb's Do-
minions, 1759.

Affairs in Delhi.
(Its waters are
so impure, that
he who touches
it loses all his
merit.)
(Comp. ch. iii. §
19, 20.)

(On the S. bank
of the Ganges.)

We must pause, however, to consider the state of affairs throughout India at this moment, June 1757.

(1.) Ahmed Shâh Abdâli made his fourth invasion of Hindûstân this year, and Delhi was sacked by him in September 1757.

(2.) Âlamgîr II. was the nominal Emperor, and Ghâzi-ud-dîn IV. (Table, ch. vii. § 7) was his Vazîr.

(3.) The Mahrattas were intriguing with Salâbat Jung and his brother Nizâm All in the Dakhan. Bussy was in the Northern Circârs. He was peremptorily recalled by Lally in 1758. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Balâjî Bâjî Râo (1740-1761), was Peishwâ. (Ch. v. § 56-66.)

(4.) Seringapatam was attacked by the Mahrattas in 1757, and Nandirâj, the regent, consented to pay them tribute. Hyder was then a rising general. (Ch. xii. § 12, 13.)

(4.) A desultory warfare was carried on between the French and English in the Carnatic. Lally sailed from France, May 1757, and arrived at Pondicherry, April 1758. (Ch. viii. § 30.) Madura was taken in 1757 by Colonel Calliaud.

§ 13. A great danger threatened the new Nuwâb in 1759. Clive too was placed in a dilemma. It was thus. Poor Âlamgîr II. was in the hands of Ghâzi-ud-dîn II., who at last murdered him. His son, Alî Gôhur, afterwards the unfortunate Shâh Âlam II. (by which name we shall call him), escaped from Delhi, crossed the *Karnânâsa* (which divides Oudh from Bahâr) at the very time (November 1859) of his father's murder, the news of which he did not receive for a month.

He then assumed the title of emperor; appointed Shuja-ud-dowla, Viceroy of Oudh, his Vazîr; and, with Nazîb Khân as his commander-in-chief, proceeded to take possession of the eastern districts. The Governor of *Patna* was a Hindû, Râm Nârâyan, who, being defeated by the imperial army, threw himself into *Patna*.

The First Battle of Patna.

CHAP. IX. § 14.
A. D. 1760.

Clive (thus involved in a necessary rebellion against the great Mogul!) wrote to the trembling Mîr Jaffîr and to Râm Nârâyan to re-assure them; and Colonel Calliaud marching promptly to the relief of Patna, defeated the imperial and Oudh forces in February and April 1760, and thus saved the Nuwâb for the time. Captain Knox, another distinguished officer, gained a splendid victory over the Râja of Pûrnia, who was in rebellion. Shâh Âlam now wrote to Clive, who sent him a sum of money on condition that he should evacuate the province of Bahâr, which he did. Thus relieved, Mîr Jaffîr testified his gratitude by bestowing on Clive, as a Jâghîr, the rent due by the Company round Calcutta.

Clive Defends the Nuwâb, and Negotiates with Shâh Âlam II.

The First Battle of Patna, 1760.

Clive's Jâghîr.

Mîrwan, the son of Mîr Jaffîr, a man of energy, but a monster of cruelty, was struck dead by lightning (in July 1760) while marching with Colonel Calliaud.

Death of Mîrwan, 1760.

§ 14. Two other important achievements conclude this portion of Clive's history.

(1.) The *Northern Circârs* were in the hands of the French; but Bussy had been recalled by Lally. (Ch. viii. § 30.) Clive sent an expedition under Colonel Forde in 1759, which drove the French out. He retained for the English only Masulipatam. The battle of Condore and the dashing capture of Masulipatam, with the French leader in it, are among the most glorious exploits of Anglo-Indian warfare.

The Northern Circârs. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

April 7, 1759.

(2.) The fickle Nuwâb now began to intrigue with the Dutch; for his English friends were so powerful that he dreaded their turning against him. The Dutch in Chinsura wrote to their chief at Batavia, and it was arranged that a Dutch armament should attack Calcutta. Clive got intelligence of the intrigue; and, though England was at peace with Holland, attacked the Dutch by sea and land, defeated them utterly, and laid siege to Chinsura. The Dutch, thoroughly humbled, agreed to the terms Clive

The Nuwâb, Clive, and the Dutch.

Humiliation of the Dutch.

CH. IX. § 15, 16.
A. D. 1760.

The Second Bengál Revolution, 1760.

imposed upon them; and Mîr Jaffir's intrigues in that quarter were at an end.

Clive sailed for
England, Feb. 25,
1760.

Clive now sailed for England the second time, 1760. There he was received with great honour by the King, Mr Pitt, and the whole nation. He was raised to an Irish peerage.

The Crisis of
1761.
French and Mah-
rattas humbled.

§ 15. This was the most eventful period of Indian history. The French power in India was utterly broken by Coote (ch. viii. § 31); and soon after the Mahrattas sustained the crushing defeat from which they never fully recovered. (Ch. v. § 69, 70.)

Mr Vansittart,
1763-1765.

But in those stirring times Mr Vansittart, an utterly incompetent person, was acting as Clive's successor in Bengál. There were quarrels between him and his Council; and, till Clive's return in 1765, nothing can be more painful than the annals of the administration.

Intrigues with
Mîr Kasim.

§ 16. After the death of his son, Mîrwan, the affairs of Mîr Jaffir became worse and worse; and he sent his son-in-law, Mîr Kasim, to Calcutta to arrange his pecuniary matters. Mr Vansittart and his Council, being struck with the ability of Mîr Kasim, resolved to dethrone the Nuwâb Nazîm, and to put his son-in-law in his place. The Nuwâb was hopelessly in arrears in his payments to his British allies, was madly extravagant in his expenditure, and evidently looked with no favour upon those by whose hand he had been elevated.

Mîr Jaffir De-
posed, and Mîr
Kasim put on
the Throne, 1760.
Cession to the
Company

Mîr Jaffir was induced to resign and take up his abode in Calcutta; while Mîr Kasim was installed (27th Sept. 1760). He ceded to the English the three provinces of Midnâpûr, Chittagong, and Burdwân, as the price of his elevation.

THE SECOND BEN-
GÁL REVOLUTION,
1760.

Thus, for the second time in four years had the British effected a revolution in Mûrshedâbâd.

The real object of this transaction was to enrich Messrs

Mir Kasim and Mr Vansittart.

CH. IX. § 17-19.
A. D. 1761.

Vansittart and Holwell and the other members of the Bengāl Government.

§ 17. Mīr Kasim began with great energy to carry out reforms. He reduced expenditure ; paid off his English friends ; and, disgusted with his position, resolved to shake off their yoke. He removed his capital to Monghyr, and there quietly gathered together and disciplined his army. This he did with surprising judgment and skill.

Mir Kasim's
Energetic Con-
duct.

(Monghir.)

§ 18. At this time Shāh Ālam II., who dared not return to his capital (ch. iii. § 19-22), was hovering about Bahār with a lawless host. Colonel Carnac attacked and dispersed them ; and Law, the Frenchman (who had escaped from Chāndernāgōr, and broken his parole), with his band was taken prisoner ; but, to the surprise of the natives, was treated with distinguished courtesy. The Emperor himself was persuaded by Colonel Carnac to join him, and accompany him to Patna ; where Mīr Kasim was induced to pay him homage ; and was, in consequence, formally invested with the Sūbādārship of Bengāl, Bahār, and Orissa.

Shāh Ālam II.,
1761.The Second
Battle of Patna.

§ 19. Mīr Kasim's conduct was on the whole vigorous and just ; but he was cruel in his treatment of Rām Nārāyan, the Governor of Patna, whom he despoiled. Mr Vansittart's failure to protect the unfortunate governor is the worst feature in his administration.

Mir Kasim III-
treats the Go-
vernor of Patna.

A quarrel between the Nuwāb and the Calcutta Council soon arose. The cause was the immunity from the payment of transit duties claimed by the servants of the Company. This freedom had been formerly granted by imperial firmān to the Company itself. It was now grossly abused. All the servants of the Company then traded largely on their own private account ; and they claimed freedom from the payment of all inland duties

Quarrel between
the Nuwāb and
the Calcutta
Council.

CH. IX. § 20-22.
A. D. 1762.

War with Mir Kasim.

for themselves, their servants and dependants. Every native, in fact, by hoisting the English flag could evade the payment of all duties. The Nuwâb was defrauded of his revenues, his servants were insulted, and the trade of the country was thrown into confusion.

Abolition of all
Transit Duties.

After attempts at a compromise, in which Mr Vansittart was thwarted by the cupidity of the other members of Council, the Nuwâb in desperation resolved to put his subjects and the English upon an equal footing, by abolishing all transit dues throughout his dominions.

Mir Ellis Seized.

§ 20. War ensued. Some English boats were stopped and examined by the Nuwâb's officers at Patna. Mr Ellis, the Resident, then rashly began hostilities, and seized the city of Patna ; but his European soldiers got drunk, and the native commandant re-captured the city. Mr Ellis and the other Englishmen were taken prisoners. The Nuwâb even ordered every Englishman in his dominions to be seized.

War with Mir
Kasim, 1763.

July 7, 1763.
The THIRD BEN-
GÂL REVOLUTION.
Battle of Gheriah,
1763.

§ 21. The Calcutta Council was now resolved to dethrone Mir Kasim and reinstate Mir Jaffir. This was done by proclamation. This was the third Bengâl Revolution. A severe struggle ensued, and especially at Gheriah a battle was fought, which lasted for four hours, and in which the late Nuwâb's well-trained and disciplined troops showed most determined bravery, and were with difficulty overcome. This was in August 1763 ; Major Adams commanded. The Nuwâb's forces amounted to 28,000 men. The English had 3000. Monghyr was soon taken, and the Nuwâb had only Patna.

The Massacre of
Patna, 1763.

*The Second Great
Tragedy.*

§ 22. Hitherto our sympathies have been with the Nuwâb, whose conduct was spirited, though his cause was hopeless ; but the *Massacre of Patna*, the second great tragedy in British Indian history, places him in the list

The Patna Massacre and its Punishment.

CHAP. IX. § 22.
A.D. 1763.

of men whose name history preserves only to hand down to perpetual infamy.

He cast Rām Nārāyan into the river with weights round his neck. The great bankers, the Seits, friends of the English, were thrown from one of the bastions into the river.

The Nuwâb threatened that he would murder every European the moment the troops advanced. The commanding officer addressed a letter to the prisoners, asking them to suggest some means of releasing them. Their reply was : "There is no hope of escape. Never mind us. Do not delay the advance of the army one hour." The army moved on to the attack, and the ferocious Nuwâb fulfilled his threat. He ordered his officers to kill all the Europeans in prison; but they nobly answered, "No! turn them out, and we will fight with them, but not massacre them." But an executioner was found! Walter Raymond, a German, who had been a serjeant in the French service, and now held a commission in the Nuwâb's army under the name of *Sumru* (a name since notorious enough, and now changed to *Sombre*) volunteered to do the bloody deed. He led a file of soldiers to the house, fired on them unarmed through the venetian windows; and soon forty-eight English gentlemen (Mr Ellis among them), and 100 soldiers, were lying in their blood on the floor.

Patna was taken (November 6, 1763) after a vigorous resistance; and Mîr Kasim fled to Shuja Dowla, Nuwâb of Oudh, where the fugitive Emperor still lingered.

These three now advanced against the English army, and a campaign began, which is one of the most glorious in the British annals. The Nuwâb of Oudh had fought at Pânipat in 1761, under Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. The Emperor was the descendant of Teimûr. Mîr Kasim had shown himself resolute and daring. Their attack upon Patna was repulsed; and their army finally took up its position at Buxâr, on the Sône.

Cruelties.

Noble Conduct of
the Prisoners.The Infamous
Riymond.The English
Take Patna.The Three Mu-
hammedan
Leaders, 1764.
The Combatants
in 1764.

CH. IX, § 23-26.
A. D. 1764.

The Great Campaign of 1764. The Important Battle of Buxâr.

The First Sepoy Mutiny, 1764.

§ 23. And now took place the *first sepoy* mutiny in the Bengâl army. The last and greatest, in 1857, led to the dissolution of that army, and the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Major Munro acted with firmness. A whole battalion attempted to desert to the enemy. They were brought back, and twenty were blown away from guns. This firmness and promptitude at once crushed the mutiny.

Major Munro's Firmness.

The Battle of BUXÂR, Oct. 23, 1764.
(S. E. of the Ganges, 58 miles E N. E. from Benâres.)

§ 24. In October 1764, Munro led his troops against the Nuwâb Vazîr, who was still encamped at *Buxâr* with an army of 50,000 men. He was routed, and 160 pieces of cannon taken. The consequences of this victory were very great. (1.) The Nuwâb of Oudh, long master of the empire, was humbled. (2.) It thus made the English supreme in Hindûstân. (3.) The Emperor himself came to the British camp, and opened a negotiation with the Council at Calcutta for his restoration to the throne. It was reserved for Clive to reap the full fruits of this victory (§ 28).

Shâh Alam II. in the British Camp.

Consequences of this Great Victory.
The Nuwâb of Oudh completely Humbled.
(On S. W. bank of the Jamna, 40 miles S. W. from Khânpûr.)

§ 25. The Nuwâb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-Dowla, retreated towards Delhi, and obtained assistance from the Mahrattas under Mulhâr Râo Holkâr, and the infamous Ghâzî-ud-dîn. (Ch. v. § 81 ; ch. iii. § 18.) But Sir R. Fletcher took Allâhâbâd ; Carnac, advancing to *Kalpi*, dispersed the Nuwâb's army ; and he was obliged to throw himself upon the mercy of his conquerors. *The great central plain of India was now completely in the power of England.*

Death of Mir Jaffir, 1765.

§ 26. The reinstated Mîr Jaffîr died in January 1765. The Calcutta Council, the record of whose proceedings for five years fills our mind with shame and disgust, had made enormous demands of money from him, and it appears that he died partly of vexation. His son, a youth of

Corruption in Bengāl. Clive again in India.

OH. IX. § 27, 28.
A. D. 1765.

twenty, Najīm-ud-dowla, was put on the throne ; the members of the Council received large and undeserved presents ; and the controul of the country was virtually in their hands.

Succession of
Najīm-ud-dowla.

A minister called Muhammed Reza Khān was appointed, while the Nuwāb wished to place in that office a most faithless and profligate man, whose name was Nand Kumār.

§ 27. The Directors of the East India Company, aware of the profligacy of their servants, and alarmed at the state of affairs, now solicited Clive to return to India the third time, with full powers, which he had demanded, 3d May 1765. Mīr Kasim had been expelled from Bengāl. The Emperor Shāh Ālam II. was a suppliant in our camp at Allāhābād. The Nuwāb of Oudh, stripped of everything, waited his doom. The army and its leaders had covered themselves with glory ; but the Council, with Mr Spencer (the successor of Vansittart) at their head, had plunged into the lowest gulf of infamy.

Lord Clive comes
to India a Third
Time, 1765.State of Affairs
when he Re-
sumed the Go-
vernment.

§ 28. Clive's first measure was to enforce the orders of the Directors abolishing the receipt of presents by their servants. He made all sign covenants binding themselves to obey this rule.

Clive's Reforms.

The Covenant.

He then proceeded to Allāhābād. The result of his negotiations was :—

(1.) The Nuwāb of Oudh was restored as an ally of England ;

Clive Arranges
Affairs.

(2.) Corah and Allāhābād were given to the Emperor ; and,

(3.) This personage, the descendant of Bāber, granted to the Company the full sovereignty of Bengāl, Bahār, and Orissa, for which he was to receive twenty-six lakhs a year. This was effected on the 12th August 1765.

Bengāl, Bahār,
and Orissa
granted to the
Company, Aug.
12, 1765.

The puppet Nuwāb of Bengāl was soon compelled to

CH. IX. § 29, 30
A. D. 1765.

Clive's Reforms. Discontent and Mutiny.

The Nuwâb Pensioned.

retire on a pension of forty-two lakhs. This may be called the Fourth Revolution.

The Memorable Ten Months.

§ 29. Thus in ten months (October 1764 to August 1765) had the English overthrown all the powers of Hindûstân, and advanced from a trading Company to the assumption of a virtually independent sovereignty.

An æra.

This period, from the battle of Buxâr to the treaty of Allâhâbâd, is ever memorable in English annals. The year 1765 is an æra in British Indian history.

The only other powers in India at this time were the Mahratta, Hyder, and the Nizâm of Hyderâbâd.

Mâdu Râo and Hyder Alî were then in the zenith of their power. (Ch. v. § 74 ; ch. xii. § 15.)

Clive's Further Reforms.

§ 30. Clive had now to carry out further reforms. The army was accustomed to what was called *double batta* when on the field. This was nominally an allowance of subsistence-money ; but the amount was unreasonably great. In the case of a captain, it amounted to an increase in his pay of 1000 rupees a month. Clive was instructed to stop this anomalous system. He was met by a combination of the European officers, which, in fact, was a mutiny. Two hundred officers agreed to resign in a single day ; and, as the Mahrattas were advancing (ch. v. § 81), they thought themselves necessary to the state.

Double Batta.

The European Mutiny.

Clive overcomes them, 1767.

Clive accepted each resignation, and put the ex-officer in immediate arrest, while he sent to Madras for every available man. Even sepoys were employed in coercing their European officers. Clive's firmness subdued the mutiny in a fortnight. *This was a victory as important as Plassey : he thus saved the dominion which he had founded.*

Sir R. Fletcher, commander of the forces, was implicated in the mutiny, and was sentenced to be cashiered. He was restored and

Corruption Rife in Bengal.

appointed commander-in-chief at Madras, where he was a leader in the opposition to Lord Pigot. (Ch. x. § 10.)

§ 31. Clive's next contest was with the whole services, the members of which universally were engaged in trade, which their position made especially lucrative: to the injury of their character, as it prevented them from doing their duty as public servants. They were now absolutely forbidden to engage in any species of trade, and a compensation was granted; but the question of official salaries was not actually settled till the time of Lord Cornwallis. (Ch. x. § 20.)

§ 32. Clive left India for the last time in 1767, a poorer man than he was when he returned to it in 1765.

He was received in England with great honour; but his reforms had raised up for him a host of enemies. Nor had his course, as we have seen, been uniformly honest and incorrupt. All whom he had punished, or whose corrupt schemes he had thwarted, now leagued against him. The Court of Directors did not support him, as it ought to have done; but when it was proposed to censure him in Parliament, a counter-resolution was passed, "That he had rendered meritorious services to his country."

He died in 1774, ten years after Dupleix.

§ 33. From 1767 to 1772, Mr Verelst was Governor of Bengal. The events of this period are chiefly connected with Mahratta and Mysore history. (Ch. v. § 80-85; ch. xii. § 17, &c.)

The curse of Bengal was the *double government*. The administration was nominally conducted by the Nuwâb's servants; while the European officials vied with them in making haste to become rich by every species of corruption. The governor in vain strove to stem the torrent. It was a sad period. The Muhammedan Government had

CH. IX. § 31-33.
A. D. 1767.

Trading put
down.

Clive leaves
India for the
Last Time, 1767.
His Reception in
England.

His Death, Nov.
22, 1774.
(Ch. viii. § 24.)
Mr Verelst, 1767-
1772.

The Double
Government.

Corruption.

CH. IX. § 34, 35.
A.D. 1772.

Warren Hastings, Governor of Bengal.

been destroyed ; and no vigorous English rule had been substituted.

The constitution of the Home Government of India was equally vicious. The Directors were appointed but for one year, and their chief anxiety was to make the most of their patronage. It was a period of unblushing jobbery and corruption.

The Double
Government De-
stroyed, 1772.

The Great Name
for Thirteen
Years.

§ 34. The Directors resolved in 1772 to abolish the double government, and to assume the direct management, through their own servants, of the revenue of Bengal. WARREN HASTINGS was appointed Governor of Bengal to carry out this sweeping measure. *From 1772 to 1785 the history of British India is the history of this great man.*

Warren Hastings.
Summary of his
History from
1750 to 1772.

(Aug. 1758.)

§ 35. Warren Hastings was born in 1732, seven years after Clive ; landed in India in 1750 as a civilian ; was taken prisoner at Cossimbazaar just before the Black Hole tragedy took place (§ 4) ; joined the fugitives at Fulda ; fought as a volunteer at Budge-Budge (§ 6) ; was sent by Clive, who discerned his abilities, as Resident to Mûrshedâbâd after the battle of Plassey ; was appointed member of Council at Calcutta in 1760, where he supported Mr Vansittart against his corrupt Council ; and returned to England in 1764. There he was summoned to give evidence before the House of Commons ; and his evidence displayed such vigour and breadth of view, that his reputation was made at once ; and he was appointed second in Council at Madras in 1768.

In 1772 he was sent as Governor to Calcutta, which became the seat of Government instead of Mûrshedâbâd. Every arrangement for the constitution of new courts of civil and criminal justice was made by Hastings, and a code was drawn up by him, within six months.

The Rohilla War.

CH. IX. § 36, 37.
A. D. 1772.

§ 36. An account of the affairs connected with the treaty of Benâres, made between Hastings and the Vazîr of Oudh, will close this part of the history of British India.

The Treaty of Benâres, 1772.

The Mahrattas crossed the Ganges on their return home in 1773 (ch. v. § 81); and the Vazîr of Oudh asserted that the Rohillas had offered him forty lakhs of rupees to defend them from those invaders, and that now they denied the debt.

The Rohillas.

Hastings believed and acted upon this statement. He proceeded to Benâres (in August 1773) to meet the Vazîr, and a compact was made that the latter should pay to the English Government forty lakhs of rupees, and that Hastings should lend an auxiliary force to the Vazîr to expel the Rohillas.

Hastings' Treaty with the Nuwâb Vazîr of Oudh.

This was carried out in April 1774. Hafiz Rahmat, the Rohilla chief, who had 40,000 men under his banner, was defeated by Colonel Champion and slain, with 2000 of his men. The Vazîr kept aloof with his troops, till the battle was decided, and then rushed eagerly to spoil the defeated foe. "We," exclaimed Champion, "have the honour of the day, and these banditti the profit."

The Rohilla War, 1774.

The Battle of Râmpûr.

These Afgân strangers, 20,000 in number, now abandoned their usurped possessions, which still bear the name of Rohilkhand; and the province, with its million of Hindûs, came under the power of the Vazîr of Oudh.

Rohilkhand Cleared of the Afgâns.

This was the famous Rohilla war. Hastings was violently attacked for sending British troops as mercenaries to aid the Vazîr in expelling the intruders. (Comp. ch. v. § 53, 81.)

§ 37. The Regulating Act (ch. x. § 2) was passed in 1773; but the judges of the Supreme Court and the new

The Regulating Act, 1773.

CHAP. IX. § 37.
A.D. 1774.

The First Governor-General.

Warren Hastings
Governor-General,
1774.

members of Council arrived in Calcutta, October 19, 1774. Then Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General of British India. The remainder of his history belongs therefore to the next chapter, which gives a summary of the careers of the illustrious men who have filled that high office from 1774 to the present time.

The Regulating Act.

CHAP. X. § 1, 2.
A.D. 1774.

CHAPTER X.

The Governors-General of British India, from A.D. 1774
to the present time.

§ 1. There was, as we have seen, no Governor-General of British India till 1774. Before that date the Governments of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, were independent of one another, and were literally *presidencies*. (Ch. vii. § 7.) Some account of their proceedings has been given in the previous chapters. The history has been brought down to the time when, under Warren Hastings, as head of the Bengal Presidency, the double system of government was destroyed. The Company were now sovereigns.

Previous to 1774. +

From April 1772.

(Ch. ix. § 33.) +

§ 2. THE REGULATING ACT (1773).

What led to this celebrated enactment.

The proprietors and Directors of the East India Company were essentially the partners and managers of a mercantile establishment. Nothing could console them for insufficient dividends. The glorious successes of Clive, their recent acquisition of territory and influence, and the humiliation of their French rivals, could not compensate them for an empty treasury.

Discontent of the
East India Com-
pany.

(Ch. viii. § 30, 31.)

CHAP. X. § 2.
A. D. 1774.

The Regulating Act.

Corruption in
India.

In addition to this, the servants of the Company in many cases neglected their duties, made haste to become rich, and in doing so were guilty of oppression. Parliament determined to interfere.

The Imperial Government, no less than the Directors, desired a reform.

Lord North was then Prime Minister, and England was on the verge of the war with the North American Colonies, which ended in their achieving their independence (1775-1783).

There were mutual jealousies. The ministers and Parliament feared that the Company would, in consequence of recent events, acquire too much influence. The nation in general, on the other hand, feared that, with the patronage of our East Indian Government in their hands, the ministers would become too strong.

The result was a compromise; and the charter of the Company was renewed, some important changes being made in its constitution, with the added provisions that:—

(1.) £400,000 a year should be paid by the Company to the nation;

(2.) That while Madras and Bombay retained their governors and Councils, the Governor of Calcutta, Hastings, should become Governor-General, on a salary of £25,000 a year; and, assisted by a Council, should be supreme over all the British possessions in India; and,

(3.) That a Supreme Court of Judicature, consisting of a Chief-Justice and three other judges, should be established in Calcutta.

Many other minor reforms were made at the same time. This was the first Act of Parliament recognising the Company as a ruling body.

The great mistake in the Regulating Act was, that *the four members of the Governor-General's Council were to have equal authority in Council with himself.*

The Provisions
of the Regulating
Act.

The Grand Mis-
take.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

CHAP. X. § 3, 4.
A.D. 1774.

I. WARREN HASTINGS, 1774-1785.

§ 3. Warren Hastings accordingly became Governor-General, with his Council of four, in October 1774. He held this high office for eleven years. These councillors themselves were badly selected. They were Colonel Monson, General Clavering, Mr Francis (afterwards Sir Philip Francis, the generally supposed author of the "Letters of Junius"), and Mr Barwell.

The New Council.

The last, who had been long in India, invariably supported Mr Hastings. The other three as pertinaciously opposed him; and as the votes of the majority decided every matter, the new Governor-General found himself shorn of all his power by his accession of dignity. The majority of the Council were, moreover, ignorant of India, and full of eager animosity to Hastings, while Francis has seldom been surpassed in the faculty of energetic hatred.

Barwell.

Monson died in September 1776, and Clavering in August 1777. Sir Eyre Coote succeeded the latter.

Hastings struggled against them with wonderful firmness, and with occasional errors in judgment, till the end of 1780, when Francis left the country.

§ 4. The affairs of Oudh first engaged their attention, and their chief aim was to lower Hastings in the eyes of the people. The Vazîr was compelled to make over the Zamîndâry of Benâres to the English; and Cheytc Singh, its Zamîndâr, was elevated to the rank of Râja, and placed on the footing of a feudatory prince, paying a tribute to the Company of twenty-two and a half lakhs a year.

1775.

The District of
Benâres added
to British Terri-
tory.

The affairs of the "Begums" of Oudh have since become too notorious to be omitted here. The Nuvâb Vazîr, Shuja-ud-dowla, died in 1775. His widow and mother, the "Begums," claimed by virtue of a supposed will of the

The Oudh
Begums.
(Ch. ix. § 13, 24-
28.)
Their Absurd
Claim.

CHAP. X. § 5, 6.
A. D. 1775.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

late Nuwâb the whole of the treasure, two millions of rupees, which was heaped up in the vaults of the Zenâna (§ 11). The acknowledgment of this preposterous claim Mr Hastings opposed, but in vain. The young Nuwâb was thus left on his accession with no money, an army to support, and a heavy debt to the English Government.

Nand Kumâr's
Intrigues.

§ 5. Charges were soon poured in against Mr Hastings by men who regarded his power and influence as extinct. The chief of the accusers was Nand Kumâr, a man infamous for his treachery and perfidy, whom the triumvirate took under their protection, and installed as the Titus Oates of Calcutta. In the desk of this worthy were found, after his death, facsimiles of the seals of all the most eminent persons in Bengâl. His accusations against Hastings, though implicitly accepted by the three councillors, were transparently false, and supported by palpable forgeries.

While this was going on, Calcutta was astounded by the intelligence that Nand Kumâr had been arrested on a charge of forgery, at the suit of an eminent native merchant.

Aug. 5, 1776.

This charge was tried in the Supreme Court, the jury found him guilty, and he was sentenced to be hung.

His Execution.

This execution of a Brâhman created a profound sensation, and has been made a matter of accusation against Hastings. For this there is not the shadow of reason. Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief-Justice, but administered the existing law, which has since been altered. There was undue severity, but no injustice.

Hastings Guilt-
less.

Mr Francis and his two associates had the power to suspend the execution, and refer the matter to England; but they declined to interfere. There is not, and there never was, the slightest evidence to connect Mr Hastings, in any way, with the death of this atrocious miscreant.

§ 6. The biography of Hastings must be read by the

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

CHAP. X. § 7-9.
A. D. 1775.

student, who will see him thwarted and misrepresented by the selfishness of the Directors of the East India Company in England, and by the miserable perverseness of his colleagues in India; yet holding on his steady course, and twice saving the British Indian Empire by his vigorous conduct.

Hastings' Steady Conduct.

There are errors in his administration, but they are surprisingly few.

§ 7. The connection of Hastings with Mahratta politics must be studied in chap. v. § 91-103. (From the treaty of Sûrat in 1775 to the treaty of Salbâi in 1782.)

The First Mahratta War.

§ 8. Hastings' conduct in aiding the Madras Presidency in its struggles with Hyder, from 1780 till his own departure from India, contrasts wonderfully with that of the Governors of Madras during the same period. (Comp. ch. xii. § 26.)

He Saves the Carnatic.

§ 9. Madras affairs at this period require some notice.

(1.) In 1773 the Madras Government aided the Nuwâb of Arcot, Muhammed Ali, in an iniquitous war against Tanjore. The Court of Directors condemned this, and removed the President, Mr Wynch (1775).

Madras in 1773.

(2.) Lord Pigot succeeded (1775-1776). As a civilian he had been in India forty years, had amassed a colossal fortune, and had been created an Irish peer. He restored the Tanjore Râja in spite of the Nuwâb's entreaties and offered bribes. He afterwards had great disputes with his Council, who deposed and imprisoned him. The Court of Directors restored him; but he died in April 1777 while in confinement.

Lord Pigot, Governor of Madras. (Ch. viii. § 30.)

Lord Pigot in Madras.

(3.) Sir T. Rumbold succeeded, a Bengâl civilian. Basâlat Jung, brother of the Nizâm, now made over the Guntûr Sirkâr to the English, and dismissed his French troops, whom Hyder at once employed. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

Sir T. Rumbold, 1778-1780.

CHAP. X. § 10.
A. D. 1780.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

Rumbold's character was long considered to have suffered by certain transactions in his government; but he has been fully vindicated.

Mr Whitehill.

(4.) A Mr Whitehill succeeded, and was removed by Hastings (1780-1781).

Lord Macartney.

(5.) Then came Lord Macartney's able and energetic government (1781-1785).

His opposition to Hastings, and the treaty of Mangalore, detract from his reputation. (Ch. xii. § 30-36.)

1780.
Failure of Justice
in Bengál.

§ 10. We now return to Bengál affairs. The judges of the *Supreme Court* established in Calcutta, in striving to "protect natives from oppression, and to give India the benefits of English law," committed many great mistakes.

They interfered between the Zamíndárs and their Ráyats. Their attorneys stirred up strife everywhere. Everything was to be brought under the jurisdiction of the "Supreme Court." They applied English ideas to Indian affairs in an indiscriminating spirit.

Hastings interfered, as far as he could, to protect the landholders from this vexatious interference; and Parliament was petitioned for a change of system; but meanwhile a remedy was discovered.

Sir Elijah Impey
made Supreme
Judge.

It was this: there was a Court of Appeal in Calcutta, called the *Sudder Diwání Adálut*. In this the Governor-General himself and his Council had been appointed to preside. This they could not do; and Hastings offered the appointment of Chief Judge of this Court to Sir Elijah Impey, the Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court. This reconciled all parties, and enabled Impey to turn his attention to the subject of the administration of justice according to such forms as might suit the greater simplicity of native habits.

Amalgamation
of Courts

This, though vehemently decried, and at length disallowed by the Court of Directors at the time, was the system restored in 1860, by the amalgamation of the

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

CHAP. X. § 11.
A. D. 1780.

Supreme Courts in each Presidency with the Company's old Courts of Appeal. The Chief-Justice now directs the whole judicial system in each government, as Hastings desired.

§ 11. Upon Hastings devolved the imperious necessity of providing the money to carry on the various wars which in 1780 were raging in India. Seldom has a heavier burden rested on the shoulders of one resolute man. He bore it nobly, and without flinching.

His Financial Difficulties.

(Ch. v. § 101 ;
xii. § 28-36.)

The Mysoreans, the French, the Dutch, and the Mah-rattas were in the field against the English at once. The difficulty of the crisis was very great. Hastings, and his veteran general, Sir Eyre Coote, were equal to any emergency.

To provide for the expenses of these wars was the onerous duty of Hastings. He has incurred much odium by the means he took to fulfil this pressing duty.

(1.) He demanded from Cheyte Singh (§ 4), whose Zamindâry of Benâres, transferred to the English in 1775, was now held by him as a feudatory or dependent noble, an additional tribute in men and money, in aid of his benefactors and superiors.

The Disturbance in Benâres.

The requisition was a just one.

The Râja or Zamîndâr ungratefully evaded compliance with the demand ; and Hastings proceeded to Benâres for the purpose of enforcing it, as well as of meeting the vakîl of the Râja of Berâr. (Ch. v. § 98.)

Irritated by the ingratitude of the Râja, Hastings somewhat rashly placed him in arrest. The populace rose and massacred the sepoy who carried out the order ; and surrounded the place where Hastings was. The Râja himself escaped from the city.

Hastings was now in extreme peril ; yet he lost no jot of his characteristic self-possession, but negotiated the treaty with the Mahratta chieftain as calmly as if his

The Coolness of Hastings.

CH. X § 12, 13.
A. D. 1781.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

own life had not been in extreme jeopardy. Eventually he retired to Chunâr; troops were sent in from all quarters; the Râja's army of 20,000 men was defeated; and Bijghur, his hiding-place, was taken. The troops, however, seized and divided the treasure found in the fortress.

Hastings was cruelly disappointed; he had failed to supply the wants of the exhausted treasury.

Cheyte Singh escaped to Gwâliôr, where he lived for twenty-nine years. His nephew was placed on the throne. (The present Râja is Isrî Persâd Nârâyan, who is a feudatory prince. See Intro. § 24.)

The Begums of
Oudh.

1781.

(2.) More doubtful is the treatment of the Begums of Oudh (§ 4). The young Nuwâb Vazîr of Oudh represented his inability to pay his dues to the Company, and asked permission to seize the treasures which the Begums had wrongfully appropriated. Charges were, moreover, made against these ladies of abetting Cheyte Singh, and supplying him with men and money. Hastings consented. The Begums were compelled to give up seventy-six lakhs of rupees, which were paid over to the Company.

The whole affair was unjustifiable; and it is a sad sight to behold Hastings mixed up in doubtful transactions with men like the Nuwâb's Vazîr; though his own motives undoubtedly were entirely disinterested.

Discontent of the
East India Com-
pany.

§ 12. The Court of Directors condemned these measures, and Hastings signified his intention of retiring. He proceeded in 1784 to Lucknow, when the Jâghîrs of the Begums were restored. He then addressed letters to all the chiefs and princes of India, taking leave of them; and, after putting everything into perfect order, resigned with dignity a trust which he had held for thirteen years. He left India finally in February 1785.

Hastings Leaves
India.

Hastings in Eng-
land.

§ 13. In England, Hastings was received with favour by

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

CH. X. § 14, 15.
A. D. 1784.

the King, the Ministry, and the Directors. But Pitt had a prejudice against him, though he openly extolled the Indian Proconsul, and even vindicated him in Parliament. Francis, his rancorous foe, was now in Parliament. The renowned orator Burke, and the Whig party in general, combined against him, and it was resolved to impeach him. His trial before the Lords began, with extraordinary formalities and pomp, on the 13th February 1788; and was protracted till the 23d April 1795, when he was completely and honourably acquitted. The trial cost him £100,000. Though thus reduced to comparative poverty, he lived peaceably at Daylesford till his death in 1818. Once only did he again appear in public, and then he was called to give (in 1813) evidence before the House of Commons regarding Indian affairs. On that occasion the whole assembly stood up and uncovered to do him honour.

Impeachment,
1788.

Acquitted, 1795.

Death, 1818.

It was well said that "*if there was a bald place on his head, it ought to be covered with laurels.*"

§ 14. Hastings will always rank among the ablest, most resolute, and most disinterested administrators the world has ever seen. He was pre-eminently a far-seeing politician, labouring calmly and unceasingly to lay the foundations of an empire; where men around him cared only for their own immediate profit, or for thwarting him.

Character of
Hastings.

Hastings was the enlightened patron of Oriental learning. The *Asiatic Society* was established in Calcutta in 1784 under his auspices. Sir W. Jones, Carey, Wilkins, Forster, and Colebrooke, were the illustrious men who first made Sanskrit literature accessible to English scholars.

§ 15. From 1780 to 1784 the affairs of the East India Company occupied a great deal of the attention of Parliament. Lord North, whose policy lost us our North American Colonies, seemed bent on ruining his country in the East, as he had in the West. Mr Burke, Mr Dundas, Mr Fox, and Mr Pitt (the younger), were the great states-

India in the
British Parliam-
ent, 1780-1784.

CHAP. X. § 15.

A. D. 1784.

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

men whose influence was most felt in Indian affairs. Mr Burke's reports on various matters affecting British India aroused all England to feel an interest in our Eastern possessions. Mr Dundas denounced the first Mahratta war, and our treatment of Hyder and Tippu; he also called for the removal of Hastings from Calcutta, Hornby from Bombay, and Rumbold from Madras (§ 9).

But the interest of the student will dwell chiefly upon what are called *Fox's* and *Pitt's India Bills*.

Fox's India Bill,
1784.

Fox's bill aimed at the transfer of British India to the direct government of the Crown. Seven Commissioners appointed by Parliament were to manage the government, and nine assistant-directors the trade. Fox, who was a sincere but mistaken patriot, believed himself to be aiding in the emancipation of millions of men from a galling tyranny. The bill passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Lords, through the personal influence of the King. With this bill fell the *Coalition Ministry* (1784).

Pitt's India Bill,
1784.

William Pitt, the younger (born 1759, died 1806), England's greatest statesman, succeeded as Prime Minister. He immediately introduced his India Bill. Its chief provisions were these:—

The Secret Com-
mittee.

1st. The Court of Directors, still chosen by the proprietors of India stock, were to govern as before in appearance. Three of their number, forming a *Secret Committee*, were to be the real actors.

The Board of
Controul.

2d. In reality the power was transferred to a "Board of Controul," consisting of six privy councillors, whose decisions were final. The president of this board was the *Indian Minister*.

Peace Policy.
Non-interfer-
ence.

3d. The bill forbade the Governor-General to enter upon any war, except in self-defence; or to make any treaty guaranteeing the dominions of any native prince. It was not till Lord Cornwallis made this a condition of his acceptance of the office, that the Governor-General was freed from subjection to his council, and allowed to act in ex-

I. Warren Hastings, 1774-1785.

CH. X. § 16, 17.
A.D. 1784.

treme cases in defiance of the other members of the Government.

4th. The Governor-General's Council was reduced to three, of whom one was to be the commander-in-chief of the Company's forces in India, and the other two Bengál civilians. Similar councils were established at Madras and Bombay.

For sixteen years, Mr Dundas (the *first president of the Board of Control*), filled that position. Parliament, after this, rarely interfered; and for many years showed little interest in Indian affairs.

Mr Dundas.

§ 16. One of the greatest scandals in British history is that connected with the Nuwáb of Arcot's death. His creditors were men in the Company's service, of every grade. The claims were swollen by every species of dishonesty. It became a gigantic system of fraud. To lend money to the Nuwáb was the shortest way to fortune. For sixty years these claims were under investigation, and cost the country millions of money.

The Nuwáb of
Arcot's Debts,
1784.

§ 17. Sir John Macpherson, senior member of Council, acted as Governor-General for twenty months, from February 1785 to September 1786.

Sir John Mac-
pherson.
(Ch. v. § 105.)

The offer of the appointment was made to Lord Macartney, who judiciously demanded additional powers to add weight to an office of so much responsibility. Mr Dundas was offended; and Lord Cornwallis, who eight months before had surrendered himself and a British army to Washington, was immediately appointed Governor-General of India.

Feb. 1786.

CII. X. § 18-21.
A.D. 1786.

II. Lord Cornwallis, 1786-1793.

II. LORD CORNWALLIS, 1786-1793.

His Arrival.

§ 18. The new Governor-General arrived in Calcutta in September 1786. For the state of affairs among the Mah-rattas and Tippû at this period, the student must compare chap. v. § 107, and chap. xii. § 39.

He Reforms the Service.

§ 19. Lord Cornwallis enjoyed the entire confidence of Pitt and Dundas. He came out pledged to avoid all occasions of war. His mission was to be that of a peace-maker and reformer.

His firmness repressed the factious, and he bent all his energies to the removal of corruption from all branches of the service.

Such a reform was never needed more. At this time small salaries were given to the Company's servants; and, as their opportunities were great, they easily yielded to the temptation of enriching themselves by every species of official depredation.

Trading and Cor-
ruption put
down.

§ 20. His first real measure of effectual reform was that of assigning to every officer of Government such a salary as should leave him no shadow of excuse for trading, or attempting to acquire money by corrupt practices. This measure, added to an incomparable firmness and consistency in resisting all jobbery and favouritism, and in punishing all frauds, soon cleansed the Augean stable. The purity of the Indian services soon became (and has continued to be) as conspicuous as their corruption had been notorious.

The Guntûr
Sirkâr.

§ 21. The next step was to claim the Guntûr Sirkâr, which had been assigned by the Nizâm to the British Government on the death of Basâlat Jung. (Ch. iii. § 16.)

In 1788, Lord Cornwallis made a peremptory demand

II. Lord Cornwallis, 1786-1793.

CH. X. § 22, 23.
A. D. 1789.

for its cession. The Nizâm complied at once, but begged for a British contingent to aid him against "Tippû," who had usurped the Bâlaghât. (Ch. xii. § 38 ; v. § 106.)

Lord Cornwallis promised this aid, stipulating, however, that the British troops should not be employed against any power in alliance with England. Of these powers a list was given, and *Tippû's was not there.* This letter was the occasion, though not the real cause, of Tippû's breach of the treaty of Mangalore.

July 1789.

§ 22. Lord Cornwallis was in the Madras Presidency from 1790 to 1792 (ch. xii. § 41), engaged in the conduct of the *Third Mysore War*, the issue of which was entirely favourable.

The First War
with Tippû.

He was censured in England for the acquisition of territory which was the result of this war, but the nation in general approved of his conduct, and he was made a Marquis. He generously gave up to the army his share of prize-money, amounting to £50,000, as did General Meadows.

§ 23. Some attention must be paid to Lord Cornwallis' PERMANENT SETTLEMENT. This is the chief ground of his fame.

The Permanent
Settlement.

The land had been the principal source of revenue under every dynasty. The collectors of this revenue under the Mogul Emperors had, by degrees, converted themselves into Zamîndârs, possessing military authority. These persons our Government did not at first recognise ; but in 1786, the Directors wrote out that all engagements should, as a matter of policy, be made with the Zamîndârs. This was to be done for ten years, and the settlement to be made permanent, if it were found to answer. Lord Cornwallis, by his regulations in 1793, conferred upon these persons the absolute proprietorship of the soil. They were constituted landlords, and the cultivators became

The Zamîndâr
System.The Regulations
of 1793.

CH. X. § 24 27.
A.D. 1793.

II. Lord Cornwallis, 1786-1793.

The Weak Point
in the Settlement.

their tenants. These last were left too much at the mercy of the Zamîndâr, and this was the weak point in the whole settlement. Mr Shore opposed its being made permanent. Lord Cornwallis, Mr Pitt, Mr Dundas, and Mr Charles Grant, decided that it should. The settlement has occasioned much discussion; but on the whole its principle seems to be sound. The system adopted in Bombay and Madras is the Ryotwâr system. (See Index, *Ryotwâr*.)

Under this system the North-Eastern provinces have greatly flourished.

The Civil and
Criminal Courts

§ 24. The reform of the civil and criminal courts next occupied his attention. Sir Elijah Impey's rules were developed into a volume of regulations by Sir George Barlow; and the system of Civil Courts and procedure, which, with some modifications, still exists, was established.

Unfair Exclusion.

The greatest evil of this system was the power it gave to the police of oppressing the people. Natives, moreover, were excluded from all share in the administration of justice, and from all but the most subordinate offices in the public employ. This was remedied in after times (§ 94). It was a serious and inexcusable mistake.

War with France.
(Ch. viii. § 31.)

§ 25. The French Republican Convention declared war against England in February 1793; and Pondicherry was at once taken by our troops. It was held till 1802.

Lord Cornwallis
one of the Founders
of the British
Indian Empire.

§ 26. Lord Cornwallis left India in October 1793. He was firm, dignified, vigorous. His administration consolidated greatly our Indian empire. Clive and Hastings were its founders; Cornwallis gave it system and stability.

§ 27. For the important events which made Mahratta power supreme in Delhi from 1784 to 1803, the reader must consult chap. v. § 107, and chap. iii. § 18.

III. Mr Shore (Lord Teignmouth), 1793-1798.

CH. X. § 28-30.
A. D. 1793.

§ 28. To this period belong the *Declaratory Act*, and the *Charter of 1793*. In 1788 Mr Pitt introduced a bill affirming that the bill of 1784 was intended to transfer to the Crown all real power in regard to Indian affairs. This was the *Declaratory Act*.

The Declaratory Act.

The Company's charter was renewed in 1793 for twenty years, chiefly through the influence of Mr Dundas.

The Charter of 1793.

By it—(1.) The monopoly of the trade to India, and all other exclusive privileges, were continued. Free trade was ruin !

Monopoly Continued.

(2.) Missionaries and teachers were excluded. Knowledge, and especially religious knowledge, would lead to rebellion.

Knowledge Excluded.

On these matters light has slowly dawned on the rulers of *British India* (§ 72, 103, 145).

 III. MR SHORE (SIR JOHN SHORE, LORD TEIGNMOUTH),
1793-1798.

§ 29. Mr Shore was a civilian, mainly instrumental in effecting the permanent settlement. He had attracted the notice of Pitt and Dundas by his able conduct of that affair.

His Former Services.

§ 30. The affairs of Tippû, of the Pûna Government, and of the Nizâm were very much complicated. The Governor-General tried to mediate, but with little effect. (Ch. v. § 114 ; xii. § 47.)

Mr Shore's subsequent neutrality and want of energy emboldened the Mahrattas to attack the Nizâm. (Ch. v. § 114.) The battle of Kûrdlâ humbled the Nizâm, and placed Nânâ Farnavis on the pinnacle of power.

1794.

CH. X. § 31-33.
A.D. 1795.

III. Mr Shore (Lord Teignmouth), 1793-1798.

Mutiny of Bengal
Officers, 1795-
1796.

§ 31. The mutiny of the European officers of the Bengal army, who clamoured for higher pay and every species of privilege, was only checked by a weak and injudicious yielding to the malcontents of nearly all they asked. The Home Government immediately superseded Sir John Shore, and Lord Cornwallis agreed to resume his office for a time; but the evident inclination of the Court of Directors weakly to yield to the discontented officers, led to his subsequent refusal at that time to return to India.

Oudh.
Vazir Ali De-
throned.
(Ch. iii. § 17.)

§ 32. In 1797 the Nuwâb Vazîr, *Asof-ud-dowla*, of Oudh died. In vain had he been exhorted to pay some attention to the welfare of his kingdom. He lived and died a child in intellect, and a debased sensualist. A reputed son of the late Nuwâb, Vazîr Alî, succeeded him; but his proved illegitimacy and worthless character led Sir John Shore to displace him, and to elevate Sâdat Alî, brother of the late Nuwâb. The history of Oudh (ch. iii. § 17) will show how entirely its affairs were in the hands of the British Government. The tribute was seventy-six lakhs a year, and the subsidiary force 10,000 men.

Sâdat Ali placed
on the Throne.

Mr Cherry.

Mr Cherry was then Resident at Benâres, and he negotiated the treaty with Sâdat Alî, then resident at Benâres. Soon after, the new Nuwâb marched to Lucknow, where Sir John was encamped. The Governor-General was in extreme peril from the displaced Vazîr Alî's hordes of lawless soldiers; but he with the utmost calmness and composure maintained his position, and the new Nuwâb was placed on the Musnud, Vazîr Alî being sent to Benâres.

Jan. 1798.

Vazir Ali of Oudh.

(In 1799 Vazîr Alî assassinated Mr Cherry in Benâres, and raised a temporary rebellion; but was defeated and taken prisoner.)

§ 33. Sir John Shore, who was created Lord Teignmouth, sailed for England in March 1798.

IV. Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), 1798-1805.

CH. X. § 34-35.
A. D. 1798.

IV. THE MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY, 1798-1805.

“*The Akbar of the Company's Dynasty.*”

§ 34. (1.) The Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), the FOURTH Governor-General, arrived in India in May 1798, and quitted it in August 1805.

Lord Mornington.

(2.) The most brilliant of the Governors of British India, he is to be compared with *Clive, Hastings, and Dalhousie.*

Summary.
Brilliant Genius.

(3.) He departed altogether, necessarily, wisely, and boldly, from the *non-interference policy.*

His Policy.

(4.) The FOURTH Mysore war was conducted to a happy issue. Tippû's overthrow took place in 1799. Mysore became again a Hindû kingdom. (Ch. xii.)

Tippû.

(5.) The affairs of Oudh were regulated in 1801.

Oudh.

(6.) The Mahratta Confederacy was broken up by the TREATY OF BASSEIN, 1802.

Treaty of
Bassein.
(Ch. v. § 123.)
Second Mahratta
War.
(Ch. v. § 123-136.)

(7.) The second great Mahratta War, which lasted for a few months only, was brought by Lord LAKE and General WELLESLEY (the Duke of Wellington) to a triumphant conclusion.

The Râja of Berâr (Raghujî Bhonslé) and Sindia (Dowlat Râo) submitted to form subsidiary alliances with the British Government, the former in November 1803, the latter in February 1804.

Subsidiary Alli-
ance.
(Ch. v. § 124, 125.)

(8.) The state of Europe, torn by the conflicts of the French Revolution, and also the interference of France in Indian affairs, must be considered in studying this period.

French Influe-
ence.

(9.) Shâh Âlam II. was released from Mahratta thraldom by Lord Lake, September 1803.

Shâh Âlam II.

(10.) The war was renewed with Holkâr, 1805. Lord Lake was still in command.

Third Mahratta
War.

(11.) Bhartpûr was unsuccessfully besieged, 1805; but its Râja submitted.

(Ch. v. § 137.)

§ 35. The new Governor-General was a man of genius, refined by education; possessed of a most comprehensive mind; the friend of Pitt and Dundas; and for four years had been a member of the Board of Controul.

Character of the
Marquis Welles-
ley.

CH. X. § 36-39.
A. D. 1799.

IV. Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), 1798-1805.

The Idea of a
Balance of Power
Destroyed.

§ 36. It is his merit to have destroyed the foolish idea of a *balance of power* among the native princes, of balancing them one against the other, and of secretly encouraging their enmities, in order to obtain power over all, without seeming to interfere with any.

(§ 40.)

His was a bold and wise *policy of intervention*. It has been called the *subsidiary system*. He was not its author; but he developed it, and strove to introduce it into every native state.

Affairs in the
Dakhan.

§ 37. To estimate the work Lord Wellesley had to do, we must compare chap. xii. § 47-51, and ch. v. § 117-123.

Tippû, the Nizâm, and Sindia were alike under French influence, relied upon French officers, and were disposed to aid the French to overthrow our dominions in the East. French emissaries were at Seringapatam, Raymond with 14,000 men at Hyderâbâd, and De Boigne with 40,000 men in Sindia's camp.

Zemân Shâh,
1798.

(§ 110.)

§ 38. Zemân Shâh, the grandson of Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî, the victor of Pânipat, also threatened to invade India. There was thus apparent danger on every hand. This man, in his old age, quite blind, accompanied Pollock's army when it evacuated Kâbul, and ended his life in the Panjâb.

Oudh Affairs in
1801.

(Intro. § 9-23.)

§ 39. Oudh was mismanaged and oppressed by its ruler and his Vazîr. The troops were ill-disciplined and irregularly paid. Sâdat Ali, according to the terms of the treaty which placed him on the throne, was bound to maintain an efficient army, on which condition only the British Government had engaged to defend his throne and kingdom. This Lord Wellesley now compelled him to do. Mr H. Wellesley was sent to negotiate. Districts were ceded for the support of the army, and Oudh was thus placed for the time in security. These important districts comprised

IV. Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), 1798-1805.

CH. X. § 40-43.
A. D. 1799.

Alláhábád, Futteh-púr, Khân-púr, Azimghar, Gorruckpúr, Bareilly, Morádábád, Bijnúr, Budaôn, and Sháhjehánpúr.

§ 40. The first *subsidiary alliance*, formed at this time, was with the Nizâm, whom Kúrdlá (ch. v. § 114) had well-nigh ruined.

1799.

The French force was disbanded, and a corps of British troops, paid by the Nizâm, and officered by Europeans, was substituted for it. If the Nizâm became thenceforth utterly powerless, he was at least rendered *secure*. This is the point to be considered in the whole question of the *subsidiary treaties*. The native states, it is true, lost their *independence*; but they gained a *security*, which they had no other means of obtaining. But for this they must have ceased to exist. The districts of Bellary and Cuddapa were made over by the Nizâm in payment for the subsidiary force. They are called the *ceded districts* of Hyderábád. [Intro. § 23 (16).]

The Nizâm's
Affairs Regu-
lated.

§ 41. The Peishwâ, by the advice of the Nânâ Farnavís, declined the closer alliance; but remained outwardly friendly to the British Government. The other Mahratta powers followed this example. (Ch. v. § 119.)

1798.

§ 42. The capture of Seringapatam firmly established the British power from Cape Comorin to the Kishna. (Ch. xii. § 51.) The collectorates of Kanara and Coimbatôr, with the Wynaad and the Nilagiri hills, were then added to the Company's territories. [Intro. § 23 (16).]

1799.

At this period the Governor-General was appointed by the King as Captain-General in India.

§ 43. The number of great men then in the English service, civil and military, is very remarkable. A great Governor-General seems to have the power of summoning around him, and even of creating, men of genius.

The Great Men
in the Indian
Service.

CH. X. § 44-45.

A.D. 1800.

IV. Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), 1798-1805.

Colonel Sir Barry Close, Sir John Malcolm, the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone, Sir Thomas Munro, Henry Wellesley (Lord Cowley), Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington), Mr Colebrooke, Sir Charles Metcalfe, General Lord Lake, Colonel Collins, Colonel Ochterlony, Major Walker, and Mr Webbe, were among the men who gave effect to the great "Proconsul's" wishes, and many of them were men formed and fitted for great achievements by his influence.

§ 44. The extinction of the Tanjore Râj, as an independent government, took place in 1800.

Tanjore Affairs.
(Table, ch. v. §
27.)

Serfojî, adopted by Tuljajî, was, after some disputes, put on the throne by Lord Wellesley; but so many were the liabilities of the country, that the government was taken over by the English, with the consent of all parties, allowing the Râja an income of a lakh of pagodas, and one-fifth of the revenues. (The Râj itself became extinct in 1857 on the death of Sivajî, having subsisted from 1637. Ch. v. § 7, 17, 24.)

The Carnatic.

In 1801 the Madras Presidency attained very nearly its present dimensions through the formal resignation of the Government of the Carnatic by the Nuwâb, Azim-ud-Dowla, who received a liberal pension. The Nuwâbs, Muhammed Ali and Amout-ul-Omrah, had both been engaged in treasonable communications with Tippû. The collectorates of Nellore, North and South Arcot, Trichinopoly, and Tinnevely, were thus formally added to the Company's territories. (See Table, p. 251. Intro. § 16.)

§ 45. In August 1805, Lord Wellesley left Calcutta, attended by the applause of all right-judging persons. The Court of Directors recorded their opinion of his "ardent zeal to promote the well-being of India, and to uphold the interest and honour of the British Empire."

IV. Marquis of Wellesley (Lord Mornington), 1798-1805.

CH. X. § 46-48.
A. D. 1800.

A sum of £20,000 was granted to him, and his statue was placed in the India House.

§ 46. One of the events which marked his career was the establishment on a grand scale (which was reduced by the Court of Directors) of the College of Fort William, for the education of civilians, and for the promotion of oriental learning. *Charles Theophilus Metcalfe* was the first student in 1800. (Comp. § 96.)

The College of
Fort William.

§ 47. One of the subjects of continual debate during this administration was that of *private trade*. The Company in 1793 allowed 3000 tons annually for this purpose; but the trade of private individuals soon passed this limit. Lord Wellesley wished to throw the trade open. The Court still dreaded *interlopers*, and continued to put off the inevitable day when India should be free to all. His liberality cost him the favour of the Company. From this time there was little cordiality between the two parties.

Private Trade

Wellesley's
Liberality.

(\$ 98.)

§ 48. In 1802 the Court of Directors reduced various items of expenditure sanctioned by the Governor-General, removed Mr Webbe, the able Secretary of the Madras Government, and otherwise interfered in such a vexatious way with his prerogatives, that the Governor-General intimated his intention of returning to England. Lord Clive, the Governor of Madras (1799-1803), son of the great Clive, resigned in consequence, and was succeeded by Lord W. Bentinck (1803-1807). The Marquis was, however, induced to remain another year. That eventful year fixed the destinies of British India.

Vexatious Inter-
ference of the
Court of Direc-
tors.The Second Lord
Clive.

It was the year of the Second Mahratta War.

CH. X. § 49-54.
A.D. 1805.

V. Lord Cornwallis. Sir George Barlow, 1805-1807.

1805.
Lord Cornwallis'
Second Arrival.

V. LORD CORNWALLIS, SECOND TIME. SIR GEORGE
BARLOW, 1805-1807.

§ 49. LORD CORNWALLIS was appointed to succeed the great Marquis, and arrived a second time in Calcutta on 1st August 1805.

§ 50. His main object was to overturn Lord Wellesley's policy, and to terminate the contest with Sindia and Holkâr at any cost. (See ch. v. § 124.)

His Policy.

§ 51. He condemned the treaty of Bassein. (Ch. v. § 123.) He was willing, despite the manly and energetic remonstrances of Lord Lake, to lay British honour at the feet of the successful freebooter Doulat Râo Sindia and Holkâr.

His Death, Oct.
5, 1805.
(On the N. bank of
the Ganges, 41
miles N. E. from
Benâres.)
Barlow's Views.
(He was not Per-
manently Go-
vernor-General.)

§ 52. Death arrested his progress to the scene of war, at Ghâzîpûr, near Benâres.

§ 53. SIR GEORGE BARLOW, as senior member of Council, now succeeded. He entirely agreed with the views of his predecessor. "Lord Wellesley's policy of intervention," he said, "must in its nature be progressive, and must ultimately tend to a system of universal dominion." It has indeed progressed, and England is now the paramount power in India. It must be stated, however, that Barlow steadily refused to depart from the policy of Wellesley in regard to Pûna. He maintained the position which the treaty of Bassein gave the English Government.

Paramount
Powers.

§ 54. But those who are inclined to adopt the reasoning of the Marquis Cornwallis must observe that India has always been under some paramount power. There was the Buddhist, Asôka's dominion. Then came the Afgân dynasties. Then the Mogul emperors. And finally arose

Sir George Barlow, acting, 1805-1807. Vellora Mutiny.

CH. X. § 55-57.
A. D. 1805.

the British dominion, more powerful and beneficent than any that had preceded it.

Lord Wellesley's policy was the only one that afforded a hope for the down-trodden inhabitants of the land. This is now fully recognised.

§ 55. During Sir G. Barlow's tenure of office occurred the *Vellora Mutiny*. There was dissatisfaction among the sepoys in the Madras Presidency on account of a change in their head-dress. Lord W. Bentinck was then Governor of Madras. The discontent was fomented by the sons of Tippû and their retainers, who lived in Vellora.

The Vellora
Mutiny.

(Ch. xii. § 56.)

The family of Tippû had been permitted to live there, under scarcely any restraint, with princely incomes, surrounded by a large Muhammedan population; and there can be no doubt that their agents corrupted the native soldiery.

Tippû's Family.

§ 56. On the 10th of July 1806, at two A.M. the native troops in Vellora rose against the European part of the garrison, consisting of two companies of the 69th regiment, and massacred 113 of them.

Colonel *Gillespie*, who was at Arcot, sixteen miles distant, hearing of the attack, immediately marched to the spot, retook the fort, and dispersed the insurgents.

(§ 74.)

Tranquillity was ultimately restored; but the Vellora mutiny showed, what the greater mutiny of 1857 confirmed, that nothing is too insignificant to excite the most wide-spread panic in India.

Indian Panics.
(§ 159, 160.)

§ 57. On this occasion it was said that the new turban was a kind of hat, and that its introduction was a part of a systematic design to make the sepoys into Christians. The turn-screw attached to the uniform was said to be a cross. Vaccination, which had been recently introduced, was a part of the plan. It was said that all natives who did not

The Causes of
the Outbreak.

CH. X. § 58-60.
A. D. 1807.

VI. Lord Minto, 1807-1813.

A Native Panic.

put up the cross over their doors were to be massacred. Muhammedan Fakîrs vied with Hindû Sanyâsis in fanning the flames.

British Toleration and Fairness.

It is, however, a truth admitting of no dispute, that the world has never seen a government more liberal and entirely tolerant than that which Britain exercises over her Indian Empire. This has been carried to an excess. The Serampore missionaries, Carey, Ward, and Marshman, were for a time prevented from teaching Christianity in the Company's territories.

Tippû's Family Removed.

§ 58. Tippû's family were now removed to Bengâl, where the colony, liberally supported by the Government, still exists. Lord W. C. Bentinck and Sir P. Maitland, the commander-in-chief at Madras, were removed, though no blame attached to either of them.

Sir G. Barlow Removed to Madras.

§ 59. Sir G. Barlow, a good man of business, not of a high order of intellect, of unpopular manners, and destitute of tact, was now superseded by the Ministry (Lord Grenville's), and Lord MINTO appointed. Lord Lauderdale had been nominated, but his appointment was cancelled. Lord Minto had been President of the Board of Controul.

Sir G. Barlow was consoled with the government of Madras, which he held from 1807-1813, when he was finally recalled.

VI. EARL OF MINTO, 1807-1813.

India tranquil.

§ 60. LORD MINTO (who arrived in Calcutta early in 1807, and left it in October 1813) found India in a state of stupor, which the advocates of the "peace-at-any-price" policy called tranquillity.

VI. Lord Minto, 1807-1813.

CH. X. § 61-63.
A. D. 1808.

§ 61. In 1808 disturbances broke out in Travancore, which did not cease till February 1809.

Travancore
Affairs.

(In 1790 Tippû had attacked Travancore. This led to the Third Mysore War (§ 22). (Ch. xii. § 40.)

The petty principalities of Travancore were reduced by Wâji Bâlâ Perumâl (1758-1799), who gradually became the Râja of the whole district.

He was the steadfast ally of Britain; and in 1784 (ch. xii. § 36) he was specially mentioned in the treaty of Mangalore. In 1788 British troops were stationed on his frontier for his protection.

In 1795 a subsidiary treaty had been concluded with this state, which was renewed in 1805.

§ 62. The management of Travancore had for some time been shamefully corrupt. The Resident had interfered, and the Dîwân was irritated. He intrigued with the Dîwân of the neighbouring state of Cochin, and with the French. Sir G. Barlow was then Governor of Madras, and took prompt measures to suppress the rebellion.

The Outbreak.

A vessel with thirty-one privates and a surgeon of the 12th regiment put into *Allepie*. The men were decoyed on shore, seized, tied in couples back to back, and with stones tied round their necks, thrown into the back-water.

(On the Coast,
midway between
Cochin and
Quilon.)

The Resident's house at *Quilon* was attacked, and he escaped with difficulty.

(Coulan, 102
miles N.N.W.
from Cape Como-
rin.)

§ 63. A detachment under Colonel H. Leger marched from Palamcottah to the Arambûli lines, constructed in the pass about twelve miles from Cape Comorin, where there is a broad level opening between the mountains leading up from South Tinnevely into the Travancore country.

The Storming of
the Arambûli
Lines, Feb. 9,
1809.

NOTE.—There are three passes. One into Coimbatôr, called the *Chowghât* (near Trichûr); the second is the *Ariyankôl*, into Tinnevely; the third is the *Arambûli*.

These lines were soon occupied by the British troops under Major Welsh.

CH. X. § 64-67.
A. D. 1809.

VI. Lord Minto, 1807-1813.

Suicide of the
Dîwân.
(The former a
Fortress; the
latter the Resi-
dence of the
Râja.)
His Brother
Hanged.

Kotâr, Nâgarcôil, *Udagiri*, *Pâpanâveram*, Killianôr, were taken, and all the passes seized. The Dîwân finally committed suicide, and his brother was hanged in front of the 12th regiment, in the murder of whose men he had participated.

The Râja denied all cognisance of the acts of his Dîwân.

Cochin.
(Ch. xii.)

§ 64. The Travancore state remained under British management till 1813, when it was restored to the Râja (§ 61).
Cochin was conquered by Hyder Ali in 1776; was transferred by the treaty of 1792 to England, and is tributary. In 1809 an insurrection took place, which was put down. A treaty was then made by which the Cochin territories were placed under more immediate British controul.

Madras Mutiny,
1809.

§ 65. There was great discontent in the Madras European army at this time, in consequence of a reduction in the emoluments of the officers. The commander-in-chief fomented this bad spirit, and was removed. He was lost on his way home, or he would doubtless have suffered the severest punishment. Sir G. Barlow seems to have been wanting in both temper and discretion.

Sir T. Munro,
1810.
(§ 84.)

The Quartermaster-General at the time was Colonel *Munro (afterwards Sir T. Munro), and his unflinching fidelity greatly aided in restoring a better spirit.

Mauritius,
Nov. 1810.

§ 66. It was now found necessary to send an expedition to take the islands of Mauritius, Bourbon, and Rodriguez, from which French cruisers constantly issued and made prizes of our ships. Expeditions in 1809 and 1810 accomplished this result in the most brilliant manner.

Mauritius still remains under the British dominion. Bourbon was restored to France in 1814.

Sir C. Metcalfe,
1808.

§ 67. Lord Minto sent Mr Metcalfe (afterwards Sir Charles and Lord Metcalfe), on an embassy to the sovereign of Lâhôr, the extraordinary *Ranjit Sing*. (Ch. xi. § 24-26).

Treaty with Ran-
jit Sing, 1809.

A treaty was then concluded, by which he bound him-

VI. Lord Minto, 1807-1813.

self not to encroach upon the rights of the Cis-Satlaj states, and to maintain amicable relations with the British Government.

Such an effect is said to have been produced upon that astute chief by the demeanour of the young envoy (then in his twenty-first year), that he never could be persuaded in his after-life to break the treaty he then signed.

§ 68. As the French had at this time subdued the Netherlands, it became necessary for the Governor-General to take possession of the Dutch settlements in the Eastern seas. *Amboyna*, *Banda*, and finally *Jáva*, were taken by a force under Sir S. Auchmuty (April 1812).

Sir S. Raffles was appointed Governor. At the peace of 1814 these conquests were restored to the Dutch.

§ 69. Lord Minto not only made British influence supreme in the Western and Eastern Seas, but he opened negotiations with Sind, Kábul, and Persia, with the object of preventing French intrigues, and securing peace in India. The Amírs of Sind agreed to exclude the French.

Mountstuart Elphinstone was sent to Kábul, where he concluded a treaty with the king, Sháh Shuja. (Comp. § 110 *b*.)

Sir John Malcolm was sent to Persia, and, another envoy having been sent from England at the same time, a treaty was signed by the Sháh, in which he bound himself not to allow the passage through Persia of troops hostile to Britain. It is the glory of Lord Minto to have selected such men as Malcolm, Metcalfe, and Elphinstone.

§ 70. The pacification of Bandêlkhand was also the work of this administration. Kalinjír (ch. ii. § 10) and Ajjghur were taken, and the lawless chiefs reduced to order. Lord Minto was now raised to an earldom; but died shortly after his return to England in 1813. He

CH. X. § 68-70.
A. D. 1809.

First Treaty of Lâhôr.

Metcalfe and Ranjît Sing, 1808.

Dutch Possessions Taken :—
1. One of the Moluccas
2. A Group, 120 miles S.E. from Amboyna.
3. Chief of the Sunda Islands. Restored.

Treaty with Sind, 1809.

Elphinstone in Kábul, 1809.

Malcolm in Persia, 1808, 1809.

Bandêlkhand, 1807-1812.

Lord Minto made an Earl.
His Death.

CH. X. § 71-74.
A.D. 1813.

VII. Marquis of Hastings (Earl Moira), 1814-1823.

was, through the influence of the Prince Regent, recalled before his time, to make way for Lord Moira.

He is justly esteemed one of the greatest of our Anglo-Indian statesmen. He had been one of the managers of the prosecution of Warren Hastings. His Indian experience greatly altered his opinions on all Indian matters.

Renewal of the
Charter, 1813.

§ 72. In 1793 the East India Company's charter had been renewed for twenty years. The time had now come for the reconsideration of the subject. The result was:—

Monopoly De-
stroyed.

(1.) The destruction of the Company's monopoly, in defence of which the Court of Directors made a determined struggle. The trade to China was still to remain in their hands, but the trade to India was thrown open (§ 28).

Ecclesiastical
Establishment.

(2.) An ecclesiastical establishment was formed, consisting of a Bishop of Calcutta, and an Archdeacon at each of the presidency towns.

The learned *Middleton* was the first Bishop of Calcutta. *Heber*, *Wilson*, and *Cotton*, among his successors, have left great names to be inscribed in the roll of British Indian worthies.

VII. THE MARQUIS OF HASTINGS, 1814-1823.
(EARL MOIRA.)

Earl Moira.

§ 73. Earl Moira (afterwards Marquis of Hastings) succeeded. He was a distinguished soldier, an experienced statesman, and a man of noble manners and character. He arrived in Calcutta in October 1814. He found the finances embarrassed, and many disputes with native states pending. He was for nine years an indefatigable, resolute, and successful ruler.

War with Nipal,
1814.

§ 74. The first dispute he had to settle was with the Court

VII. Marquis of Hastings (Earl Moira), 1814-1823.

CHAP. X. § 74.
A. D. 1814.

of Nîpal, where the Ghûrkas had recently made themselves formidable. These were recent conquerors of Nîpal (1767) acknowledged by the British, to whom they paid tribute for the lands about Makwanpûr. The native ruler of Nîpal had encroached on the British territory on every side, and more especially had imprisoned the Zamîndâr of Bûtûwâl, who was under British protection, and had seized his territories. Eighteen English police-officers were murdered in Bûtûwâl; and it became necessary to proceed in the most energetic manner to vindicate the national honour.

(Butool or Butaul, in Oudh.)

Four divisions of troops were sent. One was to march on Katmandû by way of Makwanpûr. The second was to take possession of Bûtûwâl, Sheroâj, and Palpa. The third to penetrate the passes of the Dâra Dûn, occupy that valley, and seize the passes of the Jamna and the Ganges. The fourth, under General Ochterlony was to act against the western provinces, where the flower of the Ghûrka troops were.

Compare the Map, and Intro. § 9. The Plan of the War, 1814.

The advance by the Dêra Dûn into Gurhwâl was slow. *Kalunga*, twenty-six miles north from Hurdwâr, was taken after several failures. Here General Gillespie, the hero of Vellora (§ 56), fell. General Ochterlony occupied, after immense labour, and by great bravery and skill, the heights of Râmgruh; and the Râja of *Balaspûr* was detached from the Nîpal cause. But on the whole the aspect of things was not cheering. The other detachment met with small reverses; and the Ghûrkas were elated, while the English troops were dispirited.

Discouraging Aspect of the War.

The disaffected throughout India, and especially the Mahrattas, rejoiced in the apparent failure of the British arms. (Ch. v. § 149.)

(Belaspoor, on the E. bank of the Satlaj, 70 miles N. E. from Lûdiâna.)

The capture of Maloun, by General Ochterlony, May 1815, was the first very decided advantage gained. The whole of the forts between the Jamna and the Satlaj were then yielded to the British, and Gurhwâl was evacuated.

General Ochterlony's Successes, 1815. (Intro. § 23.)

CH. X. § 75-77.
A.D. 1816.

VII. Marquis of Hastings (Earl Moira), 1814-1823.

Treaty with
Nipal, March
1816.

Negotiations for peace were now set on foot; and, though retarded by the insincerity and vacillation of the Nipal court, resulted at length in a treaty of peace, by which the territories of the Nipal state were reduced to their present dimensions.

To Sir David Ochterlony's judgment and skill Lord Moira was more indebted than to his own temper or wisdom for the successful result of this war.

Rohilkhand,
April 1816.

§ 75. Disturbances, which were soon put down, took place in Bareilly, the chief town of Rohilkhand, where Afgans still abounded.

Mahratta Affairs,
1817-1819.

§ 76. The events of Lord Hastings' administration, as connected with the Mahratta history, have been detailed in chap. v. § 148-164.

They gained for him the applause of the nation. His name is honoured as the man who gave tranquillity and good order to Central India.

They include :—

(1.) The treacheries and downfall of Bâjî Râo II.

(2.) The Pindârî war.

(3.) The treachery and downfall of Appâ Sahêb Râjâ of Nâgpur.

(4.) The restoration of the Râjâ of Satârâ; and,

(5.) The treaties by which the houses of Sindia and Holkâr were deprived of all power of disturbing the tranquillity of India, while their own independence was secured.

In these wars twenty-eight actions were fought in the field, 120 forts captured, and nineteen treaties made with native princes.

Lord Moira was aided by that eminent statesman, George Canning, who, from June 1816 to 1822, was President of the Board of Controul.

Jan. 9, 1823.

§ 77. The Marquis now retired. The Company's revenue had increased during his administration by £6,000,000 a year. He was a worthy follower of the Marquis of Wellesley. Besides his elevation in the peerage, an estate of £60,000 was given him, and at his death (in 1827) a further sum of £20,000 was placed in the hands of trustees for the benefit of his son. His injudicious patronage

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828.

CH. X. § 78, 79.
A. D. 1823.

of the firm of Palmer & Co. of Hyderâbâd caused him much trouble, and brought on him undeserved obloquy. [Comp. ch. iii. § 16 (12).]

VIII. EARL AMHERST, 1823-1828.

§ 78. Mr Canning was nominated to succeed the Marquis of Hastings ; but, being appointed Foreign Secretary, he declined the nomination ; and LORD AMHERST, who had distinguished himself in his embassy to China, became the eighth Governor-General. He landed in Calcutta August 1, 1823.

Mr Canning.

Lord Amherst.

Mr Adam acted in the meanwhile (January 1 to August 1, 1823).

Mr Adam.

He relieved the Nizâm of Hyderâbâd by lending him money to discharge his debts to the gigantic firm of Palmer & Co., and forbade any further pecuniary dealings of that firm with the Hyderâbâd court.

The Nizâm's
Debts.

The firm was ruined, but the Nizâm was saved (§ 77). (Ch. iii. § 16.)

§ 79. Lord Amherst's first undertaking was the war with *Birma*. The last wars took us to the Western Ghâts. This takes to the farthest east of India, and beyond its borders.

War with Birma.
(Comp. Intro. §
15.)

An adventurer from Pegu, called Alompra, in 1753 obtained possession of Âva, enlarged the Birmese territories, subjugated Arakân and Manipûr, and placed Assam under a Birmese chief. He granted to the Company the island of Negrais and some land near Rangoon.

Birmese Inso-
lence, 1818.

There were many causes of complaint against the court of Âva ; but in 1818 a formal demand was made by the Birmese for the cession of Chittagong, Mûrshedâbâd, and

The Insolent
Demand.

CHAP. X. § 79.
A. D. 1823.

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828. The First Birmese War.

Shâhpûrî Occu-
pied, 1823.

Dacca, as belonging to the antient kingdom of Arakân. This was, of course, treated with contempt. In 1823 the island of Shâhpûrî was occupied by thirteen sepoys, for the protection of British subjects. A body of a thousand Birmese expelled them. Cachâr was next attacked, and British troops were sent to aid the fugitive Râja. The arrogance of the Birmese was unbounded, and it became necessary to send an expedition to thoroughly humble them.

NOTE.—There was a British factory at *Dassain*, where all the Europeans were murdered in 1759.

There was then a walled factory at *Rangoon*, where a Resident was appointed in 1796.

French influence was at work in *Âva*, as elsewhere, against us for many years.

The Birmese Ex-
pedition.
(Intro. § 38.)
Sir Archibald
Campbell.
(This is one of
the branches of
the *Irawâdy*.)
Rangoon, May
11, 1824. Keme-
dn.

The Bengâl and Madras troops met at Port Cornwallis, in the Great Andaman, in May 1824, and sailed at once to the mouth of the *Rangoon River*. Sir Archibald Campbell was in command.

Rangoon was taken. The stockades at Kemendîn were stormed, Major R. Sale (the hero of Jellâlâbâd), being the first to scale them. The force had now to endure the monsoon rains, sickness, and want. The commissariat department at Calcutta had failed in its duty. Sir T. Munro, Governor of Madras, saved the army by promptly sending supplies.

Negrals and
Cheduba.
Martaban, Aug.
1824.

Negrals and Cheduba were then carried. Ten stockades were stormed in one day. Martaban was taken, and successful expeditions were undertaken in the Tenasserim coast and in Assam.

Mahâ Bandûla
Killed at Dona-
bew, Feb. 23,
1825.

The most noted Birmese chief, Mahâ Bandûla, now appeared on the scene. At the capture of Donabew that leader was killed by a rocket.

Feb. 1825.

Sir Archibald pushed on to Prome. Meanwhile Arakân was gallantly taken by another body of troops under General Morrison and Commodore Hayes.

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828. The First Birmese War.

CHAP. X. § 80.
A. D. 1825.

Negotiations for peace were now entered into, but broken off by the refusal of the King of Ava (who had not even yet fully learnt the power of the English) to make any concession. The British force advanced, under great difficulties, to Patanagoh, where a treaty was nearly concluded, but again broken off.

Dec. 1825.

NOTE.—Arakân is divided into four districts—*Arakân*, *Râmri*, *Sandoway*, and *Cheduba*. *Akyâb* is the principal harbour. This province was once the seat of a very extended dominion. (Intro. § 15).

Mellôn, on the opposite bank of the Irawâdy, was then stormed, and the troops advanced to the city of Pagahn, where a decisive victory was gained by a British force of 2000 against a Birmese army of 18,000. The English prisoners were now released.

Victory of
Pagahn.

Feb. 1826.

Finally, at Yendabû, within four days' march (forty-five miles) of the capital, a treaty was signed, by which the King of Ava agreed to give up all claims to Assam, Cachâr, and Jyntia; to cede Arakân, Râmri, Cheduba, and Sandoway, with the provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, the *Salwîn* river being the boundary; to pay a crore of rupees as a partial indemnification for the expenses of the war, and as a proof of the "sincere disposition of the Birmese Government to maintain the relations of amity and peace between the two nations." These provinces have wonderfully prospered since their cession. *Akyab* and *Moulmein* have become flourishing ports.

Feb. 1826.
Treaty of Yen-
dabû.Cessions from the
Birmese, 1826.(Or, Martaban
River.)

This ended a just war, carried on with wonderful bravery, and concluded by a peace, the tenor of which remarkably illustrates the moderation of the conquerors.

Summary.

(A second war, in 1852-53, was necessary to ensure the permanent peace and prosperity of Further India.)

(Comp. § 140.)

§ 80. Connected with the *First Birmese War* was the disgraceful Barrackpûr Mutiny.

The Barrackpûr
Mutiny.

CHAP. X. § 81.
A. D. 1826.

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828. Bhartpūr Affairs in 1825.

47th Native Infantry.

Sir E. Paget's Summary Justice.

The 47th N. I., resenting certain minor hardships to which they were temporarily subjected, broke out into open mutiny. Sir E. Paget, the commander-in-chief, hastened to the spot, surrounded the mutineers, and, on their obstinately refusing to submit, caused a battery to open upon them. They fled at once, and some who were taken prisoners were executed. The number of the regiment was erased from the list of the army.

The Taking of Bhartpūr, 1826.

§ 81. The taking of Bhartpūr, which had been assaulted unsuccessfully by Lord Lake (ch. v. § 137) January 18, 1826, is another event which renders this administration remarkable, and which produced a salutary feeling throughout India.

The following is a summary of the events that led to the war with Bhartpūr:—

Rāja Bandhar Sing died without issue in 1823.

His brother, Buldeo Sing, succeeded. Durjan Sâl, son of a younger brother, however, contested the succession.

Disputed Succession in Bhartpūr, 1825.

Sir D. Ochterlony, Resident in Mâlwa and Râjpûtâna, examined these conflicting claims, and the result of his report was that the Governor-General addressed Buldeo Sing a congratulatory letter on his accession, and authorised Sir David to give him formal investiture. The Resident did so, and also acknowledged his son, Balwant Sing, as his successor. Buldeo died the same month (January 26, 1825). Durjan Sâl instantly took possession of the fort, murdered the uncle of the young Rāja, and seized his person. Sir David at once took prompt measures to put down the usurper, but was forbidden to interfere by the Governor-General. This not unnaturally led to his resignation, which was followed by his death in a few weeks. For fifty years a soldier, he had served in every Indian war from the time of Hyder downwards. He was the especial hero of the war in Nîpal, and had distinguished himself as a diplomatist.

Sir David Ochterlony.
15th June 1825.

(Comp. § 74.)

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828. Bhartpûr Affairs in 1825.

CHAP. X. § 81.
A. D. 1826.

Sir C. Metcalfe now arrived from Hyderâbâd to occupy the position of Resident of Delhi and of Râjputâna. The Governor-General was decidedly opposed to interference; but the able paper submitted by the new Resident, and the opinions of the Council, effected a change in his sentiments.

Sir C. Metcalfe
in Delhi.
(§ 105.)

Sir C. Metcalfe's reasoning may be condensed thus :—

His Reasoning.
Intervention a
Duty.

“We have by degrees become the paramount state in India. It is our mission to preserve tranquillity in India. It is incumbent on us to refuse to recognise any but a lawful successor. Our influence is too pervading to allow of neutrality. If we allow anarchy to prevail in Bhartpûr, we invite the return of the confusion and pillage of 1817 and 1818.”

He therefore urged that Balwant Sing should be supported, and a proper regency established. Lord Amherst gracefully yielded to the opinion of this eminent statesman.

Durjan Sâl's
False Hopes.

It was evident that Durjan Sâl relied upon the supposed impregnability of the fortress of Bhartpûr; and supposed, with truth, that all who disliked our ascendancy in India wished him success in his bold defiance of the paramount power.

Lord Combermere, commander-in-chief, marched from Muttra, and the memorable siege began on the 28th December 1825. The vast fortifications of mud could not be beaten down by artillery, but a mine, with ten thousand pounds of powder, made a practicable breach. It was stormed on the 18th January 1826 by two columns under Generals Reynell and Nicholls. The fort was dismantled, and its walls levelled to the ground.

Lord Comber-
mere takes the
Fort, Jan. 1826.

The young Râja was reinstated, and peace restored.

He died in 1854, and his son, Jaswant Singh, a minor, then four years of age, succeeded. This state has been in the interval under a Regency Council, with the supervision of a British Political Agent. The Râja was formally placed on the musnud in 1869.

Bhartpûr Affairs
since 1826.

CH. X. § 82-85.
A. D. 1824.

VIII. Lord Amherst, 1823-1828.

The Straits Settlements.

§ 82. In 1824, Malacca, Singapore, and the Dutch possessions on the Continent of India (Negapatam, &c.), were ceded to England, in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra.

At Singapore arrangements were made with the native chiefs, by which the Company obtained the absolute possession of the island. Our other settlements in that quarter are Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, and the province of Wellesley on the mainland. The island was given by the King of Kirda, in 1786, to Captain Light, the master of a country ship, as a marriage portion with the king's daughter. He made it over to the East India Company, and was made its Governor. The province was purchased. The whole of the Straits Settlements were made over to the Colonial Office in 1866.

Nāgpur.

§ 83. A treaty was concluded with the young Rāja of Nāgpur on his attaining his majority, December 1826. (Ch. v. § 159.)

Sir T. Munro.

§ 84. Sir T. Munro, who had held the government of Madras from 1820, died of cholera near Gūti in July 1827. He was the chief advocate of the *Ryotwār* system. (See Gen. Index.)

Mr Bayley acting Governor-General, 1828, for Four Months.

§ 85. Earl Amherst, who can hardly be numbered among the eminent rulers of British India, quitted India in March 1828; Mr Butterworth Bayley, one of Lord Wellesley's disciples, acting as Governor-General until his successor arrived.

(*Simla* was first occupied as a residence by Lord Amherst.)

NOTE.—*Simla* is in Sirmūr, 7000 feet above the level of the sea. Taken from the Ghūrkas in 1814-16 (§ 74).

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

CH. X. § 86-88.
A.D. 1828.

IX. LORD WILLIAM CAVENDISH BENTINCK, 1828-1835.

§ 86. LORD W. BENTINCK, the ninth Governor-General, arrived in India in July 1828, and quitted it in March 1835.

Lord William
Bentinck.

About the same time Mr Lushington was appointed to Madras, and Sir John Malcolm to Bombay (§ 34). (Ch. v. § 135, 154, 165.) This was but a tardy recognition of the services of this latter great administrator.

Mr Lushington.
Sir John Mal-
colm.

§ 87. The period of Lord Bentinck's administration, which was distinguished by progress, improvements, necessary reforms, the sweeping away of obsolete and injurious institutions, and the introduction of an enlightened and philanthropic policy, was especially marked by:—

Summary of Lord
William Ben-
tinck's Admi-
stration.

- (1.) The re-arrangement of Mysore affairs, and the annexation of Kârg in 1833; (§ 89, 90.)
- (2.) Many economical reforms; (§ 91.)
- (3.) Improvements in the judicial system; (§ 92.)
- (4.) Abolition of Sati and the repression of Thuggee; (§ 93-95.)
- (5.) The downfall of the Oriental system of education, and the establishment of the European system; (§ 96.)
- (6.) Commencement of steam communication with India; (§ 98.)
- (7.) The assassination of Mr Frazer, and its punishment; (§ 100.)
- (8.) Negotiations with the rulers of Sind, Kâbul, and the Panjâb; (§ 101.)
- (9.) Disturbances in Jôdhpûr, Jeypûr, and Bhôpâl; and, (§ 102.)
- (10.) The renewal of the Company's charter in 1833. (§ 103.)

§ 88. Lord W. Bentinck had been Governor of Madras, and was harshly and abruptly recalled in 1806. He was singularly benevolent, upright, firm, and liberal. He was anxious for any appointment, as tending to free his reputation from any stain that might be supposed to rest upon it from his former dismissal. It did so. A statue erected to his honour in Calcutta, with an inscription from the pen

His Character.

CH. X. § 89-91.
A. D. 1832.

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of Macaulay, preserves the remembrance of "*his wise, upright, and paternal administration.*"

Mysore under
British Rule,
1832.
General Cubbon.

§ 89. The administration of Mysore was at this time assumed by the British Government, and placed under the system which still so efficiently provides for the welfare of that flourishing province. General *Sir Mark Cubbon* was appointed Commissioner, and for twenty-five years administered its affairs with astonishing skill and energy. (Ch. xii. § 60.)

Kûrg Affairs,
1834.

§ 90. The principality of Kûrg, on the confines of Mysore, is of great antiquity. The Vîra Râjas are mentioned as existing in A. D. 1583 by Ferishta.

(Ch. xii. § 23, 37,
44.)

It was subdued by Hyder, and in 1779 the heir, Vîra Rajêndra, was excluded from the succession, and imprisoned. Tippû made him a Mussulman by force; but he escaped, and after a long and chivalrous struggle regained his dominions in 1787. His nephew, Vîra Rajêndra Udeiyâr was Râja in 1832. He was a madman. Incest and wholesale murders are among the crimes of which he was guilty. Of the royal house he left no male alive. At length he defied the British authority; and, when every means of conciliation had been exhausted, troops were sent. After a short struggle Markâra was taken possession of, and the Râja was imprisoned for life at Benârcs. As this monster's cruelty had removed every one who could have any pretensions to succeed him, the state came under direct British Government. [The daughter of the ex-Râja, the Princess Gouramma, was baptized in London, 1850, Queen Victoria being a sponsor.] The ten days' war in Kûrg formed the only break in the profound peace of the seven years of Lord W. Bentinck's administration.

April 6, 1834.

Reforms.

§ 91. Lord W. Bentinck had to perform the unpleasant task of carrying out extensive reductions and reforms in the civil and military establishments of the Company.

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CHAP. X. § 92.
A. D. 1829.

The first was the abolition of Batta, or the reduction of it to one-half the former amount. This was an *allowance* given them when in the field, double when they marched beyond the Company's frontier, and reduced to a half when in cantonments where quarters were provided for them. This measure, which was certainly a hard one, aroused much indignation. Lord Combermere opposed it, and resigned. The Duke of Wellington and the home Government, however, strongly upheld it. The measure was, in fact, wholly of home origin, and had been urged on preceding Governors-General. Lord W. Bentinck, himself opposed to it, carried it out, undeterred by the abuse of private individuals, or of the public press. The saving effected was insignificant, and the irritation it produced was great and lasting.

Half-Batta Order.

Committees were also appointed, which reduced the annual civil expenditure by about half a million sterling, and the military by about one million.

Retrenchments.

§ 92. Judicial reforms were also introduced, tending to relieve European functionaries from the overwhelming pressure of work. The whole system in regard to criminal justice was remodelled.

Judicial and Revenue Reforms.

Sadr Amîns were appointed, who were empowered to decide cases to the value of 5000 rupees, and to receive appeals from the inferior Amîns. The vernacular languages were substituted for the Persian in all courts.

Sadr Amîns.

A Court of Appeal was created at Allâhâbâd for the Upper Provinces.

The *Revenue settlement* of the North-west Provinces, carried out by Mr Robert Bird (the Todar Mal of the Company's Government), still confers a blessing upon the millions under our dominion in those districts. This minute and accurate survey of these districts, with the necessary examination of titles, the decision of disputes,

CII. X. § 93, 94.

A. D. 1829.

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

The Abolition of
Sati, Dec. 29,
1829.

and the ascertainment and register of each man's holding, was a work of which England may justly be proud.

§ 93. Lord William's name is more closely connected with the abolition of "Suttee."

"Sati" means a "virtuous woman." It is a term applied to the woman who immolates herself on the funeral pile of her deceased husband. This barbarous superstition had prevailed from remote antiquity, though really un-sanctioned by Hindû authorities; and the rulers were afraid to interfere. Lord Wellesley, in his day, wished to restrain it, and some cautionary measures were then partially enforced. Lord W. Bentinck and his two councillors, Mr Butterworth Bayley and Sir C. Metcalfe, boldly and wisely caused an enactment to be promulgated, making it a punishable crime in any way to aid and abet a "Suttee." Police-officers were authorised to prevent it, and to apprehend all persons engaged in such a transaction. Twenty-five times the attempt was made to perform Suttee afterwards, but the police quietly stopped the consummation of the murderous rite.

Thus was this horrible crime put an end to. In Bengâl, Bahâr, and Orissa, the number of victims had averaged 600 a year!

In the states of Râjputâna the practice is now nearly, if not quite, extinct. On the death, in 1861, of the Mahâ Râna of Oudipûr, the first Hindû prince in India, and the acknowledged head of the Râjputs, none of the wives could be prevailed upon to immolate herself. A favourite slave girl was the victim.

The "Lex Loci."
Offices thrown
open to Natives
of India.

§ 94. A law was also passed by which a convert to Muhammedanism, or to Christianity, was protected from the operation of the Hindû law, which declared such convert an outcast, and deprived him of his share of the family inheritance. This is evidently a just and necessary provi-

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

CHAP. X. § 95.
A.D. 1829.

sion. If this was opposed to the intolerant feelings of some of the people, another of the Governor-General's measures was most popular, as it was certainly just. Natives of India had, from the time of Lord Cornwallis, been excluded from all offices, except the very lowest (§ 24). The Regulations of 1831 threw open many important offices to natives of every class. They are now found in every department of the public service. Thus Lord W. Bentinck shares with Lord Wellesley the honour of being the *Akbar* of the Company's rule.

§ 95. The humane and active measures adopted for the extirpation of the bands of *Thugs*, which then infested Central India, were a boon to the whole country. These Thugs were said by tradition to have sprung from seven tribes, all of the Muhammedan religion, living near Delhi. They nevertheless especially devoted themselves to the worship of Kâli, Dêvi, or Bhavânt, the wife of Siva, who is represented in the legends of the Purânas as having appeared in various terrific shapes for the destruction of demons. Human sacrifices are supposed to be especially pleasing to her.

The Thugs.

Added to this, the Thugs were fatalists of the most thorough kind.

These Thugs travelled in bands, and were accustomed to decoy and murder persons travelling through the forests of Central India, assuming the garb of peaceable pilgrims or merchants.

When a favourable opportunity presented itself, they threw a noose round the neck of their victim, strangled, rifled, and buried him in an incredibly short space of time, every precaution being taken to keep the murder absolutely secret.

Their System of Murder.

Thus multitudes of travellers were perpetually vanishing from the earth, and leaving no trace behind them.

CII. X. § 96, 97.
A. D. 1829.

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Major Sleeman,
1829.
(He was afterwards Resident of Oudh, and Died on his Homeward Voyage in 1856.)

Oriental System of Education.

Macaulay in Calcutta.

English and the Vernacular.

The "Overland" Route to India.

To the Thug this was his profession, his religion, his lawful calling.

From time to time the Company's Government had striven to check these practices; but in 1829 Major Sleeman (afterwards Sir William Sleeman, one of the great philanthropists of our Indian rule) was appointed commissioner for the extermination of Thuggism. Others were appointed to aid him; and the result has been the almost absolute suppression of the crime.

§ 96. The "Oriental system of education" was made to give way to the "European system," by a resolution of Government that "all the funds appropriated to the purposes of education should be employed in imparting to the native population a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of the English language alone. In bringing about the change T. B. Macaulay's (afterwards Lord Macaulay) influence was largely used. He resided in Calcutta from 1835 to 1840 as the fourth or legislative member of the Supreme Council. Mr (Sir Charles) Trevelyan and Dr A. Duff were two other of the untiring leaders of the advocates of English education.

The new school went greatly too far, and it was reserved for Lord Auckland partially to correct the error; but there can be no doubt that immense sums had been wasted in the endowment of Oriental scholarships, and in translations into Sanskrit and Arabic. To promote the intelligent study of the vernacular languages of the country is a very different matter.

The great impulse to native education must, it will be conceded, be given through English. It is for well educated natives to revive and enrich their own vernacular literature. Our education must tend to fit and inspire them to do this work.

§ 97. The commencement of steam communication with

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

CH. X. § 98-101.
A. D. 1830.

India constitutes a great æra in the history of our connection with the East, and, in fact, in the history of half the globe.

The *Hugh Lindsay* made the first voyage from Bombay to Suez. In 1834 the matter was taken up by the House of Commons, and though the Court of Directors were indifferent to the subject, the *Peninsular and Oriental Company*, in 1843, sent their first steamer to Calcutta, and the result has been a system, ever improving, and, in 1868, conferring upon all India the boon of a regular weekly communication with England; the time occupied in the transmission of letters being from twenty-eight to thirty days.

1830.

§ 98. Lord W. Bentinck spent a part of 1834 at Ootacamund, during which time the orders were promulgated which constituted Agra a distinct Presidency, under a Lieutenant-Governor. At this time also all restrictions upon the settlement of Europeans in India were removed.

The Governor-General at Ootacamund.

Outsiders Tolcrated.

§ 99. In 1833 Râmmôhan Roy, a distinguished native scholar and reformer, died at Bristol. He had done much to weaken the attachment of his countrymen to idolatry. Unfortunately he allowed himself to become the agent of the Court of Delhi, which sent him to England to endeavour to obtain an increase to the king's stipend. He was thus lost to his countrymen.

Râmmôhan Roy.

§ 100. In 1834 Mr Fraser, political commissioner and agent of the Governor-General at Delhi, was shot dead by an assassin. He had offended Shams-ud-dîn Khân, the Nuwâb of Ferôzpûr, who instigated the murder. The Nuwâb and his tool were both hanged at Delhi.

Mr Fraser's Murder at Delhi.

§ 101. During Lord W. Bentinck's administration, a fear of Russian intrigues in the countries north-west of

Interference in North-west and Afghân Politics, 1831.

CHAP. X. § 102.
A. D. 1831.

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Opening of the
Indus.

the Indus, led the British Government to interfere in the politics of the Panjâb, Sind, and Afgânistân.

Negotiations were carried on with the various princes through whose territories the Indus flows, for the free passage of vessels laden with British merchandise. Treaties for this object were made with the Amîrs of Sind, the Râja of Bahâwalpûr, and Ranjît Sing, the ruler of Lâhôr. The Governor-General met this great chieftain at Rûpar on the Satlaj in 1831. (Ch. xi. § 25.)

Meeting with
Ranjît Sing at
Rûpar.
Colonel Henry
Pottinger.
(Ch. v. § 165.)

Colonel Henry Pottinger was the envoy to Sind. He found the Amîrs most averse from the idea of any connection with England. They at length yielded.

The result seems to have been that Ranjît Sing espoused the cause of the ex-king of Kâbul, Shâh Shuja. (See § 110.)

Râjpût Affairs.

§ 102. The affairs of the Râjpût and Bhôpâl states require our attention at this period. They illustrate the necessity for constant, firm, and kindly interference on the part of the British Government.

Oudipûr.
[Ch. iii. § 6 (12).]

(1.) *Oudipûr*. Here *Bhm Sing*, who had reigned for more than fifty years, died in 1828; and was succeeded, after many disputes, by *Jwan Sing*.

The present Mâha Râna Sambhâ Sing succeeded in 1861, being then fourteen years of age. The state was consequently under British supervision till 1865.

Mârwar.

(2.) *Jôdpûr* or *Mârwar*. Here the Râja Mân Sing was engaged in perpetual quarrels with his Thâkûrs, with the neighbouring states, and with the British authorities. In 1834 he was finally reduced to obedience. [He died in 1843. Takt Sing of Ahmednagar was elected by the nobles to succeed. It has the reputation of being the worst governed state in India.]

Jeypûr.

(3.) *Jeypûr*. This is the wealthiest state of Râjpûtâna, and full of historical associations.

Here a dispute regarding the regency led to British interference. The Resident was wounded in an affray, and his assistant, Mr Blake, killed, in 1834. The murderers were discovered and punished. [Under its present Râja, Râm Sing, it is well governed and prosperous.]

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

CHAP. X. § 103.
A. D. 1833.

(4.) Bhôpâl became closely allied to England in 1818 (ch. v. § 163). Soon after this the Nuwâb died; and his widow, the able and energetic *Sikander Begum*, assumed the government. She affianced her daughter to her nephew, whom she adopted as heir to the throne, but retained the power in her own hands. He appealed to the Governor-General; but it was not till Sir C. Metcalfe, as Acting Governor-General, interfered in 1835, that this person obtained his rightful authority. He soon died, and his daughter succeeded. She governed, till her death in 1868, with wonderful ability and wisdom. She was faithful in the Mutiny, and was decorated with the grand cross "of the illustrious Star of India."

Bhôpâl.

Sikander Begum.

§ 103. The Company's charter expired in 1834 (§ 72).

The Charter of
1833.

In prospect of this, parliamentary committees were appointed to investigate the Company's management of its extensive affairs. It was almost unanimously agreed that *the monopoly of the China trade* should be abandoned. Thus the Company ceased to possess any commercial character.

It was also decided that the political functions of the Company should not be disturbed.

Some additions to the ecclesiastical establishment were made, including the foundation of Episcopal Sees at Madras and Bombay.

The result of the extinction of the Company as a commercial body was beneficial. It elevated the views and policy of the Directors to somewhat of an imperial character.

The trade with China doubled in the following ten years; and the British exports to India and Ceylon increased in the same period from $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions to $6\frac{3}{4}$.

The dividends of the Company were guaranteed by Parliament at £630,000 a year, to be entirely redeemable in 1874.

Âgra was made the capital of a fourth Presidency, and Sir C. Metcalfe appointed to it; but in 1835 this was changed, and the North-western Provinces have been administered by a Lieutenant-Governor from that time.

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CH. X. § 104, 105.
A.D. 1834.

IX. Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835.

The new charter was granted in August 1833. It came into force in April 1834.

Character of
Lord William
Bentinck.

§ 104. Lord W. Bentinck left India in May 1835. He has been accused of vanity and a love of innovation. He was not a great politician, but his benevolence is unquestioned. Lord Dalhousie alone has surpassed him in the development of the resources of India.

His Administra-
tion.

He was guided by instructions from England in regard to his economical measures, and the policy of non-interference in the affairs of native states, which he carried too far.

Sir C. Metcalfe,
Acting Governor-
General, 1835-
1836.

§ 105. Sir C. METCALFE succeeded provisionally, being senior member of Council in Calcutta at the time. He had just reached *Âgra* to assume his appointment of Governor of the new Presidency.

He had early distinguished himself as envoy (1808) to the court of Ranjit Sing (§ 67; ch. xi. § 25), and afterwards as Resident at Delhi (to 1819) and at Hyderâbâd (to 1827). Thence he went to Calcutta as member of Council. He was afterwards Governor of Jamaica (1839 to 1841), and Governor-General of Canada (1843 to 1845). He was only second to Warren Hastings in genius and knowledge of the requirements of Indian diplomacy.

But Sir C. Metcalfe was only Acting Governor-General.

The high office was offered to Mountstuart Elphinstone, who declined it on the ground of broken health. It was then proposed to make Metcalfe permanent Governor-General.

The Whigs opposed this, on the ground that such an appointment should only be filled from England.

Lord Heylesbury was then appointed; but, on the eve of his departure, the Whigs again came into power, revoked Lord Heylesbury's appointment, and conferred it on Lord Auckland. Metcalfe returned to *Âgra* in 1826, but soon resigned in consequence of the displeasure of the Court of Directors, excited by the "liberation of the press." Great as he undoubtedly was, he had been too long in India, and was unfitted to be in the van of progress.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842.

CII. X. § 106-109.
A. D. 1836.

The one great act of this administration, which lasted till August 1836, was the *liberation of the press*.

The press in India at first had been subjected to a censorship, then to certain stringent rules drawn up by the Government.

It was now freed from all restrictions, save those of the laws that govern all orders of men in the realm. Macaulay, as member of Council, supported the measure.

There was imprudence in Metcalfe's passing such a measure when his tenure of office was merely temporary.

On the whole, however, the measure has proved beneficial, though the experiment was full of danger.

Press Freed. +

X. LORD AUCKLAND, 1836-1842.

§ 106. Lord Auckland, the TENTH Governor-General, arrived in India in March 1836, and left it in March 1842.

§ 107. His administration is marked by :

- A. The disputed succession in Oudh (1837).
- B. The supersession of the treacherous Rāja of Satārā (1839).
- C. The Afgān expedition and disasters (1839-1842). The idea of this expedition was conceived in July 1837; and the catastrophe happened in January 1842; just before Lord Auckland's departure.
- D. The occupation of Kurnūl (1841).
- E. The first Chinese war (1840).

Summary.

§ 108. *Oudh*. Nāsir-ud-dīn Hyder, King of Oudh, a profligate and weak prince, died in July 1837. Two persons had been acknowledged by him as his sons, but afterwards disavowed.

The Begum wished that the elder of these should succeed. The British Resident supported the claim of an uncle of the deceased King, Nāsir-ud-dowla. An insurrection was headed by the Begum, but soon put down.

Oudh Affairs,
1837.

§ 109. *Satārā* (ch. v. § 147-164). The Rāja was deposed by

Satārā, 1839.

CHAP. X. § 110.
A. D. 1839.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afgân Expedition.

Sir James Carnac in 1839. His brother was placed on the throne in his stead. Treachery distinguished the whole dynasty.

The Afgân Expedition, 1839.

§ 110. *The Afgân Expedition.*

(a.) The lands between Persia and the Indus (see Map) inhabited by warlike hordes have often given conquerors to India, from Mâhmûd of Ghaznî to Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî, who was of the great family of the *Sudozyes*.

(*zyc* = son.)

The chief of these tribes was the King of Kâbul. Dôst Muhammed was then on the throne.

(b.) When Mountstuart Elphinstone visited Kâbul in 1808, the sovereign was *Shâh Shuja*,* a descendant of Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî. This king was dethroned shortly after, and the states of Afgânistân were divided among various members of a rival family, called the *Barakzye* tribe. The most powerful of these was *Dôst Muhammed*, who possessed Kâbul and Ghaznî. Ranjît Sing, the ruler of the Panjâb, had seized on Cashmîr and the districts east of the Indus, including Peshâwar. *Herât* was occupied by a descendant of the Abdâlî, and Balkh was annexed to Bokhâra.

(390 miles from Kâbul.)

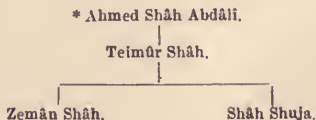
Shâh Shuja.

(c.) Shâh Shuja lived in Lûdiâna, in exile, under the protection of the British power; in fact, he had a pension of 4000 rupees a month from that Government.

An expedition he made in 1834, with the hope of recovering his lost dominions, was unsuccessful, owing to the bravery of Dôst Muhammed. Shâh Shuja returned in 1835 to his old place of exile.

Persia and Russia.

(d.) Soon after this, Persia began to aim at the subjugation of all these provinces up to the Indus, and began by attacking Herât. The Russian Government encouraged



X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afgân Expedition.

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A. D. 1839.

the Shâh of Persia, who was to repeat the exploits of Nâdir Shâh, in these undertakings; and there was a prospect (as many thought) that all Western Asia would soon form one vast confederacy, under Russian influence, thus threatening the tranquillity of British India. The question was:—*Shall England interfere in matters beyond the Indus? And if so, how?*

British Interference Necessary.

The proverb is current in the East:—“*He who would rule Hindûstân must first conquer Kâbul.*” All previous rulers of India had done so. Must England also acknowledge that paramount influence in Kâbul is essential to the lords of Hindûstân?

Captain Burnes (afterwards Sir Alexander) who had been sent as envoy to Kâbul, did much by his representations to determine the British authorities to the policy of active interference.

Burnes.

(e.) Lord Auckland resolved to restore *Shâh Shuja*, whose claims were better founded than those of Dôt Muhammed, and whose cause was believed to be the more popular in Afgânistân. Thus, it was said, we should have a friendly and even dependent power in Kâbul as a bulwark against Russian aggression in the North-West. The whole scheme was foolish. If Lord Auckland had bent his energies to effect a reconciliation between Dôt Muhammed and Ranjît Sing, and had established friendly relations with the Afgân Court, the war would have been rendered unnecessary. Dôt Muhammed was prepared to act as an ally of England: Lord Auckland threw him into the arms of Russia. A treaty was signed, however, between Ranjît Sing, Shâh Shuja, and the British in June 1838, and a British force was marched to the Indus, for the invasion of Afgânistân. Every one acquainted with India regarded the expedition with dismay.

Shâh Shuja to be Restored.

This army, called “*the army of the Indus*,” was drawn from all the three Presidencies, and was under the command of Sir John Keane. One division of it was called

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X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afgân Expedition.

Mr W. H. Mac-
Naghten.

Defence of Herât,
Siege Raised,
Sept 9, 1838.

Army Marches
through Sind to
Kandahâr.

(Its Crest is 5793
feet high. Its
length about 54
miles.)

Enthronement of
Shâh Shuja, 1839.
(280 miles S.W.
of Kâbul.)

Death of Ranjit
Sing, 1839.

the Shâh's army, and the other the Shâhzâda's, being nominally under the command of Teimûr, the son of Shâh Shuja.

(f.) Mr W. H. MacNaghten was appointed envoy and Minister at the Court of Shâh Shuja. He was a profound Oriental scholar, had served in many capacities with honour, and was then Secretary to the Supreme Government.

(g.) Meanwhile the Shâh of Persia's army, 40,000 strong, which had laid siege to Herât, the gate of Afgânistân, was compelled to retreat, mainly through the genius and gallantry of Lieutenant Eldred Pottinger, who had been sent into Central Asia by his uncle Sir Henry Pottinger, Resident of Katch, to pursue ethnological researches. This led to a reduction of the forces sent to Afgânistân, and might well have put an end to the enterprise. The defence of Herât by Pottinger may be compared with Clive's defence of Arcot.

(h.) The "Shâh's army" marched from Ferôz-pûr in December, crossed the Indus, took possession of Bukkur, thence advanced to Shikarpûr, to Dadur, at the entrance of the *Bolân Pass*, and to Kettah, where it arrived March 26, 1839; and was followed by the Bombay force in April.

Kurâchî was taken in February by a naval armament. The Amîrs of Sind were opposed to the passage of our army, but their objections were roughly set aside.

The army passed through the Kojut Pass, and thence to *Kandahâr*, where all had arrived early in May. There Shâh Shuja was solemnly enthroned. The march had been one of terrible privation bravely borne. While the force was recruiting at Kandahâr, tidings reached them of the death of the Panjâb lion, Ranjît Sing, 27th June 1839. A grand meeting between him and Lord Auckland had taken place in November 1838, only second in magnificence to the meeting at Rûpar (§ 101).

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(i.) The force now marched on towards Kâbul, and were surprised to find Ghaznî a well-fortified city. They had no battering-train; but the Kâbul gate was blown open with a charge of 900 lbs. of gunpowder. Major Thompson of the Bengâl Engineers was the real captor of Ghaznî. Brigadier Sale (the immortal hero of Jellâlâbâd) and Colonel Dennie were among the foremost of a band of heroes who stormed the fortress. Thus "the bride of the East" came into the hands of the English.

Storming of
Ghaznî, 1839.

The army moved on and entered Kâbul, August 7, Dôst Muhammed having fled before it to Bokhâra.

An auxiliary force which had marched through the Khyber Pass, having taken Alî Musjid and Jellâlâbâd by the way, arrived at Kâbul early in September.

In Kâbul.

(j.) The Shâh being thus restored to his kingdom, the army was sent back, General Nott and Colonel Sale remaining with a part of the Bengâl force to defend the newly-restored king. This was against Shâh Shuja's wishes. Sir W. MacNaghten was Resident at the court of the restored king. Our difficulties began with the completion of the military enterprise.

Army sent back.
A Subsidiary
Force Retained.

The Bombay force, under General Willshire, on their homeward way, took Kelât, the Khân of which had most treacherously attacked our army on its march towards Kâbul.

(k.) Lord Auckland was now rewarded by being created Earl of Auckland. Sir John Keane was made Lord Keane of Ghaznî. Mr MacNaghten and Colonel Henry Pottinger (afterwards Governor of Madras) were created Barons. Many others were knighted, among whom were Robert Sale and Alexander Burnes. A great many severe, and sometimes disastrous, conflicts had to be engaged in before Afgânistân was even nominally subdued. The last was at Parwân, a village in the Panjshu valley, near the Ghôrband Pass, where Dôst Muhammed sustained a final defeat, and surrendered himself to Sir W. MacNaghten

Honours.

Dôst Muhammed
Surrenders.

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A. D. 1840.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afgân Expedition.

The Calm before
the Storm, 1841.

(November 1, 1840). He was treated with respect, and sent to Calcutta, where he had a pension assigned to him, and was an honoured guest at the Government House.

(*l.*) Profound peace prevailed from that time till the beginning of October 1841. Sir William had been nominated to the Governorship of Bombay, and was on the eve of departure, when the Ghilji chiefs revolted. Sir R. Sale was marching to Jellâlâbâd, on his return to India, and was encountered by the insurgents. He forced the Kûrd Kâbul Pass, made his way with continual fighting to Tazîn, thence to Juduluck, in the direction of Gundamuck, and so to Jellâlâbâd (November 12), which he found invested on every side by hordes of enemies. *Afgânistân had risen.* And the scheme of the insurgents was, that the British should be permitted to set out on their return to India, but should be by degrees cut off, till only one man was left alive, and that he should be placed, deprived of his limbs, at the eastern entrance of the Kyber Pass, with a letter in his teeth, announcing him to be the last survivor of the Afgân expedition. General Sale's skill and bravery prevented the full consummation of this plan.

Afgânistân Rises
against the
British and Shâh
Shuja, 1841.

Jellâlâbâd was a ruinous fortress; but Sale soon put it to rights, dismissed the women and children, and put everything into such a state as to defy his countless enemies.

Kâbul Massacre,
Nov. 2, 1841.

(*m.*) Meanwhile at Kâbul the storm broke on the morning of 2d November 1841. Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated, with his brother and other officers. There were brave men at Kâbul; but an unaccountable apathy seized upon those in command. General Elphinstone, the chief military authority, was old and incapable. Days passed, and the insurrection was allowed to gather strength. The heroic Lady Sale and her daughter were there. Her narrative gives the best account of those painful events. Sir W. MacNaghten seems to have retained his energy and coolness; but he could not command the army. Negotia-

Apathy.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Afgân Expedition.

CHAP. X. § 110.
A. D. 1841.

tions were commenced with the insurgent chiefs; and at length Sir William was induced to meet Muhammed Akbar Khân, a son of Dôst Muhammed, who had deceitfully offered to put an end to the insurrection, upon being assured of the situation of Vazîr to Shâh Shuja, and receiving an immense pecuniary reward. At the conference the British envoy was shot by Akbar Khân, three officers who were with him were seized, and one of them put to death. Even this did not arouse the military authorities. They agreed to bind the British Government to pay fourteen lakhs as ransom, to evacuate the country, and to restore the deposed king. Against this humiliating agreement Major Eldred Pottinger, acting as political agent, protested, but in vain.

(n.) On the morning of the 6th January 1842, the miserable retreat began. Shâh Shuja was left behind. [He was for a time acknowledged as king; but in April 1842, he was shot, and his body thrown into a ditch.] Incredible disorder, piercing cold, want of every necessary of life, and the constant attacks of the bloodthirsty Afgâns, who hovered around, rendered this march one of continual disaster. They struggled through the tremendous pass of Kûrd Kâbul, and a hot fire was opened on them by Ghiljîs on the heights. Lady Sa'le was wounded by a shot. Three thousand perished in the pass.

(o.) Now Akbar Khân appeared again on the scene. He offered to take charge of all the ladies and married officers, and to escort them safely to Jellâlâbâd. To this at length they were obliged to consent, and thus General Elphinstone, Colonel Shelton, Colonel Palmer, Majors Pottinger and Griffiths, with Lady Sale, Lady MacNaghten and a few others, became prisoners in the hands of the murderer of Sir W. MacNaghten. Of the remainder, only one, Dr Brydon, arrived at Jellâlâbâd to tell of the fate of the thousands who had left Kâbul. This was a calamity almost without a parallel in British history.

Murder of Mac-
Naghten, 1841.Deplorable In-
fatuation in
Kâbul.Evacuation of
Kâbul, Jan. 1842.

Army Perishes.

Fighting Akbar
Khân gets many
of the English as
Prisoners into
his hands.

CH. X. § 111, 112.
A. D. 1842.

X. Lord Auckland, 1836-1842. The Opium War.

Nott, Sale, and
Pollock.

There was but one survivor, besides 120 in captivity, out of an army of 15,000 men.

(*p.*) At this time it must be remembered that the able and veteran General Nott was maintaining his post at Kandahâr, Sir R. Sale at Jellâlâbâd, and that General Pollock was at Peshâwar with an army destined to force its way through the Khyber Pass to rescue Sale and his companions. Akbar Khân was now supreme in Afgânistân.

Sir Henry Rawlinson, a man of profound learning and sagacity, added to large experience in Eastern politics, was our political agent at Kandahâr.

The sequel of the history must be reserved for another section (§ 116). Relief will come, and retribution follow.

First Chinese
War, 1840

§ 111. The history of the Earl of Auckland's administration would not be complete without some account of the first Chinese war. The cause of it was the smuggling of opium into China by English merchants.

The Emperor of China, in order to check the pernicious habit of opium eating and smoking among his subjects, had laid a very heavy duty on this drug.

In putting down the smuggling of opium into the country, which naturally became frequent, the Chinese authorities committed unwarranted outrages on the ships and subjects of Great Britain.

To avenge these outrages, and to put our Chinese trade on a proper footing, the war was undertaken.

Troops from India, under Sir Hugh Gough, were sent; and, after a series of brilliant exploits, were successful in bringing the Chinese to terms.

By the treaty of Nankin the island of Hong-Kong was made over to England, and four ports were opened to European ships. These were Amoy, Fu-chow, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

The "Opium War" was popular in England.

Hong Kong
Ceded, 1842.

The Râja of Kur-
nûl Removed,
1841.

§ 112. At this time the Râja of Kurnûl, who appears to have been insane, conducted himself in such a manner as to call for the interference of the British Government. He was removed, to the great relief of his oppressed subjects, and sent to Trichinopoly, where he was in the habit of attending Christian service in the

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844.

CH. X. § 113-116.
A. D. 1842.

Fort Church, in which he was assassinated by a Muhammedan fanatic.

§. 113. The Earl of Auckland left India on the 12th March 1842. His name and fame are connected inseparably with the Afgân expedition; but the impression he left in India was that he possessed high qualities, and might have done much for the country, had his lot not been cast in troublous times, when the fear of Russian aggression hurried England into this ill-fated undertaking. At the beginning of this war there was, owing in part to his good management, a clear balance in the treasury of £10,000,000 sterling; at the close of it there was a large debt. The connection of the British Government with the Hindû temples and worship was terminated in 1842. The state had acted as trustee for the endowments, and had caused various marks of respect to be paid on Hindû festivals. This was now discontinued.

Lord Auckland's
Departure, 1842.
His Character.

XI. LORD ELLENBOROUGH, 1842-1844.

§ 114. Lord Ellenborough arrived in Calcutta, February 28, 1842. He had been President of the Board of Control. He was a statesman of high repute, eloquent, industrious, and energetic.

§ 115. His administration is remarkable for:—

- A. The measures adopted to retrieve the national honour in Afgânistân;
- B. The chastisement of the Gwâliôr Râja;
- C. The conquest of Sind.

Summary.
Lord Ellen-
borough's Ad-
ministration.

§ 116. We must now resume (from § 110) the history of the disastrous Afgân expedition. In March 1842, Ghaznî was evacuated by the British troops, almost all

Ghaznî Evacu-
ated.

CH X. § 117-120.
A. D. 1842.

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. Afgân Disasters Retrieved.

The "Illustrious" Garrison of Jellâlâbâd.

of whom perished. This was disgraceful and disheartening.

§ 117. Jellâlâbâd held out. The annals of warfare contain few things more glorious. An earthquake added to the miseries of this heroic garrison, throwing down defences that had cost them months of labour. Yet not only did they maintain the fort, but, issuing forth, drove Akbar Khân away, and burnt his camp. The heroic Colonel Dennie fell in this sortie. Major Broadfoot and Captain (Sir Henry) Havelock were the most resolute and energetic among the defenders of the fortress.

General Pollock (an old officer of Lord Lake's, who had seen forty years of arduous service), with the relieving force, forced the Khyber Pass on the 5th April, and soon after reached Jellâlâbâd. He baffled the Kyberis, who were bent on obstructing the march, by crowning the heights on either side with his troops.

Nott in Kanda-
hâr.

§ 118. General Nott meanwhile gallantly held Kandahâr. Throughout the war it is to be noted that the Afgâns never for a moment held their ground in presence of a capable general! A body of troops under General England advanced through the Bolân Pass to Kettah; but were driven back in an attempt to advance to relieve General Nott. A second effort was more successful, and they reached Kandahâr; but the enterprise of their leader had no share in the credit of the expedition.

Death of Shâh
Shuja.

§ 119. The unfortunate Shâh Shuja was murdered in April, at Kâbul (§ 110).

Pollock's Glori-
ous March.

§ 120. General Pollock now moved on by way of Gundamuck, Mammû Khail, Tezîn, Kûrd-Kâbul, and Bûthâk to Kâbul, where he arrived on the 15th September. Continual attacks of the enemy were repulsed,

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. Afgân Disasters Retrieved.

CH. X. § 121-123.
A. D. 1842.

and the most glorious victories atoned for the disgraces of the British arms on this same route a year before.

§ 121. General Nott having sent a portion of his troops back to India, by way of Kettah, now marched with the remainder to meet General Pollock at Kâbul. Several smart engagements were fought against Shams-ud-dîn, in which complete and signal success crowned our arms. Ghaznî was again taken, and its citadel utterly destroyed. The gates of the tomb of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, which had eight centuries before been taken from the temple of Sômnâth, were carried off, and finally deposited among old lumber in the fort at Agra! Nott joined Pollock at Kâbul, September 5.

Nott joins Pollock.

The proclamation by which the Governor-General notified the termination of the war was lamentably deficient in good taste. It censured Lord Auckland, and its bombastic reference to the *Sômnâth gates* brought on its author ridicule and rebuke from every quarter. It was dated October 1, 1842.

(Ch. ii. § 11.)

§ 122. The prisoners in the hands of Akbar Khân were happily and strangely recovered, and joined Sir R. Sale at the Urgandî Pass, on the 20th September.

Recovery of the Captives, Sept. 1842.

It had been Akbar Khân's intention to take them to Tûrkistân, and there to sell them for slaves; but their keeper, Saleh Muhammed Khân, was bribed to restore them. Sir R. Sale thus recovered his wife and daughter on his fiftieth birthday.

Great numbers of the Afgâns had retired to Istaliff. Thither our troops followed, stormed the fort, and recovered vast quantities of property stolen from the British in Kâbul.

Istaliff.

§ 123. The army was now withdrawn from Afgânistân, and arrived without serious molestation at Ferôz-pûr.

Settlement of Afgân affairs, 1842.

CHAP. X. § 124.
A. D. 1842.

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. Troubles in Gwālīôr.

Dôst Muhammed and the other prisoners were released, and the whole scheme was definitely abandoned. The war had been undertaken in defiance of the dictates of prudence. One portion of the transaction is humiliating; but the whole leaves on the mind a vivid impression of the indomitable courage and boundless resources of the great majority of our countrymen whose names appear in the history.

NOTE.—Dôst Muhammed was reinstated immediately. From 1842-1855 no intercourse existed between him and the Indian Government (§ 149). He died in June 1863, leaving sixteen sons. Of these, Shîr Ali has, after many struggles, made good his position as Amîr (1868).

Troubles in
Gwālīôr.

§ 124. The troubles at Gwālīôr next demand our attention. Doulat Râo Sindia (ch. v. § 161) died in 1827.

Gwālīôr Affairs
from 1827 to 1843.

His widow, daughter of the infamous Shîrjî Khân Ghâtgô, governed as guardian of her adopted son Jankojî till 1833, when he assumed the actual management. He died, February 1843, childless. His widow, a girl of thirteen, adopted Bhagirat Râo, a relative, and a contest for the regency commenced between the Mahârâj and Mama Sâhib, an uncle of the deceased chief. The Resident espoused the cause of the latter, whom the Queen notwithstanding expelled.

It was evident that affairs in Gwālīôr were fast tending to a state of such utter disorganisation as would have disturbed the peace of the surrounding countries. There was in the city an army of 30,000 infantry, and 10,000 horse, with 200 cannon, and the officers mostly men of European descent. At Lâhôr, too, there was an army of 70,000 Sikhs, officered by Europeans, anxious for some pretext for crossing the Satlaj. The troubles in the Panjâb had begun. (Ch. xi. § 27, 28.)

Battle of Mahâ-
râjpûr, Dec. 29,
1843.
(A few miles
from Gwālīôr.)

The Governor-General rightly judged that prompt interference was necessary. Our troops, accompanied by Lord Ellenborough himself, advanced across the Chambal, and unexpectedly found the Gwālīôr army drawn up at *Mahârâjpûr*. Sir H. Gough, the commander-in-chief, had under



XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. Conquest of Sind.

CHAP. X. § 125.
A. D. 1843.

him Generals Littler, Valiant, and Dennis. A complete victory was gained, but with severe loss. Sir Hugh says in his despatch, that he had not "done justice to the gallantry of his opponents."

On the same day another victory was gained at *Punniâr* by Major-General Grey. In these two battles, the guns, standards, ammunition, and treasure of the enemy were taken; and there was nothing left the Gwâliôr durbar but to throw themselves on the clemency of their conquerors. A council of regency was formed, the British contingent was increased, the debts owed by Sindia's Government to the English were paid, and affairs were put on such a footing as to afford a prospect of stability and tranquillity to the Gwâliôr state. (Intro. § 12.)

Punniâr, Dec.
1843.
(A few miles
from Gwâliôr.)Settlement of
Gwâliôr Affairs.

(Comp. § 178.)

§ 125. The conquest of *Sind* (Intro. § 18), and its wise government by its conqueror, Sir Charles Napier, render this period memorable.

Sind.

In 1786, Sind was seized by a tribe of Belûchîs called Tâlpûrs, whose chief was Mîr Fatih Khân. By him the country was divided between various members of his family. Thus arose the three states of *Hyderâbâd*, *Khyrpûr*, and *Mîrpûr*, in each of which a plurality of Amîrs held sway. These Amîrs—foreigners in the country—dwelt in castles, followed the chase, and treated their subjects much as the Norman barons did their Saxon tenants in the days of King Stephen.

Belûchî
Usurpers, 1786.

Every attempt to trade with the country was discouraged by these Amîrs, who drove away the chief of the British factory from *Tatta*, where an establishment had existed from 1799.

Their Unwise
Management.(The Antient
Pattala)

In 1809 a treaty between the Amîrs and Lord Minto had been signed. In 1820 another treaty permitted free intercourse and trade. In 1832 the Indus was thrown open, as the result of Sir Henry Pottinger's mission (§ 101). In 1838 a British Resident was appointed to

(§ 69)

CHAP. X § 125.
A. D. 1843.

XI. Lord Ellenborough, 1842-1844. The Conquest of Sind.

Hyderâbâd, and the state was thus secured from the attacks of Ranjît Sing.

Sind had always been a dependency of Kâbul, and Shâh Shuja now made demands of arrears of tribute. This led to further British mediation. The Amîrs were certainly in a great measure dependent on England, and yet were bitter and jealous enemies.

The Sind Amîrs.

In fact, the Amîrs seem to have been thoroughly hostile and treacherous ; and an attack upon the Residency, which Sir James Outram defended with consummate bravery, brought matters to an issue.

Imân-ghur, Jan. 9, 1843.

In October 1842, Sir C. Napier was sent to Sind as commander-in-chief and plenipotentiary ; and as he was not a man to be trifled with, he took measures at once to seize and destroy the desert stronghold of Imân-ghur, whither one of the leading Amîrs had fled. This was an exploit of remarkable daring.

Miani, Feb. 17, 1843.

Sir Charles then advanced to Miânî, a place six miles from Hyderâbâd, where the Sindian army was entrenched. A victory was gained, after which six of the Amîrs, three of Khyrpûr and three of Hyderâbâd, surrendered themselves.

Hyderâbâd,
March 24, 1843.

Shîr Muhammed of Mîrpûr was still in arms ; and against him the battle of Hyderâbâd was fought on the 24th March, resulting in a complete victory to the British troops. Mîrpûr was then occupied, and Umerkôt (the birthplace of Akbar) was taken.

(Or Umerkôt.)

Amîrs sent to
Benâres.

Sind was now taken possession of ; the Amîrs, whose tyrannous assumption had lasted about sixty years, were sent to Benâres with liberal pensions ; the Indus was fully opened ; and " Little Egypt " began, under the administration of the great Pro-consul, a new career of unexampled prosperity.

Good Govern-
ment of Sir C.
Napier.

The feeling, however, then prevailed, and posterity will deliberately confirm the opinion, that the war was unrighteous. It is the one annexation upon which the

XII. Lord Hardinge, 1844-1847.

CII. X. § 126, 127.
A.D. 1844.

British nation can look with no satisfaction. Good has, however, arisen out of *manifest evil*.

The Bengal and Madras sepoyes refused to garrison Sind, without extra allowances. This was one indication, amongst many, of the decay of discipline in the "Sepoy army."

§ 126. Lord Ellenborough returned to Calcutta in February 1844, and set himself vigorously to the task of governing the empire, the bounds of which he had so much enlarged; but in a few months he was recalled (and, on the whole, rightly so) by the Court of Directors, from whom he had differed on many points. This was an extreme exercise of power on the part of the court, and it was censured by the Duke of Wellington and the country generally; but the wisdom of their choice of a successor reconciled the nation to this vigorous act of the twenty-four princes of Leadenhall Street.

Lord Ellenborough Recalled, 1844.

Was it Right or Wrong?

Lord Ellenborough left Calcutta in August 1844.

He was ambitious, fond of display, and self-reliant; but industrious, able, disinterested, a true friend of the army, and a man of undoubted genius.

His Character.

To Mr Wilberforce Bird, his second in Council, many useful measures, such as the extinction of slavery in India, are to be ascribed.

Mr Wilberforce Bird.

XII. LORD HARDINGE, 1844-1847.

§ 127. *Sir Henry* (afterwards Lord) *Hardinge*.

(1.) *Summary*. A. His appointment was made to satisfy all parties. He was a highly distinguished soldier and statesman, an intimate friend of the Duke of Wellington, under whom he had fought in the Peninsula and at Waterloo, where he lost an arm.

B. The great events of his administration are connected with the *first Panjáb war*, and its four battles (gained in fifty-four days), *Mádkí*, *Feróz-sháh*, *Atwál*, and *Sobráon*.

Summary of Lord Hardinge's Administration.

CH. X. § 128-132.
A. D. 1846.

XII. Lord Hardinge, 1844-1847. The First Panjáb War.

c. His impartial arrangements in regard to religion.
d. The efforts to put down infanticide, human sacrifices, &c., in Gámsúr.

The First Panjáb War, 1845, 1846.

§ 128. At this time the Panjáb was in a state of miserable anarchy. (Ch. xi. § 26, 27.)

Four Great Battles.

The Sikhs were the aggressors. They crossed the Satlaj, December 1845. They were repulsed, December 18, at *Mádkí*, by Lord Gough; again, December 21 and 22, at *Feróz-sháh*, by Lord Gough and Lord Hardinge, after a very severe contest; again, January 23, 1846, by Sir Harry Smith, at *Altivál*; and finally, by Lord Gough, Lord Hardinge, and the whole British forces, at *Sobráon*, February 10, 1846, after a most gallant and determined resistance. (Ch. xi. § 28-32.)

Treaty of 1846.

§ 129. Dhulip Sing, the youngest putative son of Ranjít Sing, was now recognized as Rája of the Panjáb; the Doáb between the Biás and the Satlaj (the Jullindhur Doáb) was annexed to the British empire; and indemnity for the expenses of this unprovoked war was paid by the Sikhs. (Ch. x. § 33.)

Cashmír.

§ 130. Cashmír was then made over to Goláb Sing, a Rájput, the most prominent Sikh leader, who paid £1,000,000 of the tribute. This was on many accounts a wise arrangement. His son now rules over that province in peace; and measures for the improvement of the country have been adopted at the suggestion of the British Government, and more especially of the late Sir H. Lawrence. Still its management is hardly satisfactory.

Honours.

§ 131. Sir Henry Hardinge and Lord Gough were both raised to the peerage for their gallant exploits. (Ch. xi. § 34.)

It seemed as if wars must now cease in our Indian possessions. Between February 1843 and February 1846, eight great battles had been fought, and the three armies of Sind, Gwáliór, and the Panjáb, numbering 120,000 men, annihilated. For a few years after this, India enjoyed peace, the fruit of war. A large reduction in the army was now made.

Lord Hardinge's Liberal Policy.

§ 132. Lord Hardinge, while averse to any undue interference with the religious prejudices of the people of India,

XII. Lord Hardinge, 1844-1847.

CH. X. § 133-136.
A. D. 1846.

promoted education ; and, among other wise enactments, forbade the prosecution of Government works on the Sunday.

§ 133. His administration was happily marked by vigorous, and ultimately successful, attempts to put down infanticide, Satî, and human sacrifices. These horrible crimes were still committed in many parts of India ; but in Gûmsûr and some other parts of Orissa and in Gondwâna, among the Khonds and other hill-tribes, the most revolting cruelties were often perpetrated. The chief of these was called the Meriali sacrifice. The Khonds, according to Captain Macpherson's report, sacrificed as many as twenty-five human victims at one festival. These were kidnapped, or bought, and were tortured, before being actually sacrificed, with every refinement of cruelty.

Tuhuman Customs put down.

This has now been effectually put down, chiefly by those laborious, earnest men, Captain Macpherson, Colonel Campbell, and their assistants.

§ 134. Free-trade was promoted ; duties paid for the introduction of merchandise into some of the large towns, such as Lûdiâna, Umbâla, and Sûrat, were abolished ; and the real prosperity of the country was promoted by this noble ruler, who was as wise and beneficent an administrator as he was a brave and determined warrior.

Encouragement to Trade.

§ 135. The Tâj Mahâl at Âgra, and other architectural remains, were repaired and restored ; and every means adopted to check the rash and careless habits by which the many interesting monuments of past times were destroyed in various parts of the land.

Ancient Buildings.

§ 136. The Engineering College at Rûrkî, planned by the benevolent and laborious Lieutenant-Governor of the

The Rûrkî College.

CH. X. § 137, 138.
A. D. 1848.

XIII. Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1856.

Departure of
Lord Hardinge.

North-West Provinces, Mr Thomason, was sanctioned and promoted by Lord Hardinge.

Scarcely any Governor-General gained so much influence over the minds of men in India as this admirable man. He left Calcutta early in 1848, after a government of forty-two months' duration.

XIII. EARL OF DALHOUSIE, 1848-1856.

§ 137. THE EARL OF DALHOUSIE, thirteenth Governor-General.

Summary of Lord
Dalhousie's Ad-
ministration.

(1.) *Summary.* Arrived in Calcutta, early in 1848, departed early in 1856. He died soon after, worn out with his Indian work. He assumed the supreme power in India in his thirty-sixth year. He may be called the last of the *Company's* Governors-General.

(2.) The first great event of this administration was the *second Panjáb war*, with its *two battles and one siege* :

(Ch. xi. § 40.)

Chillianwallah,.....January 13, 1849.
Gujárá,.....February 21, 1849.
Máltán, taken.....January 21, 1849.

(3.) The commencement of railways and electric telegraphs in India was owing to Lord Dalhousie's energetic influence.

(4.) The "*Lex loci*" was passed in 1851.

(5.) The *Second Birmese war*. Pegu annexed (1852-3).

(6.) Peace with Dóst Muhammed (1855).

(7.) Annexation of OUDH (1856).

(§ 44.)

(8.) Tanjore (1856) and Nágpur lapsed for want of heirs (1853).

His Plans and
Policy.

§ 138. Lord Dalhousie came out as a "peace Governor," as many before him had done whom circumstances hurried into war. When war broke out a second time in the Panjáb, the Governor-General in Calcutta said :—"I have wished for peace ; I have longed for it ; I have striven for it. But, if the enemies of India desire war, war they shall have ; and, on my word, they shall have it with a vengeance."

Lord Dalhousie's
Declaration.

XIII. Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1856. The Panjâb. Birma.

CH. X. § 139, 140.
A. D. 1848.

In October 1849 a modified form of trial by jury was introduced. A law, called the "Lex loci," was passed, ordaining that no penal consequences should attend the change of religion by any man.

The "Lex loci."

§ 139. A. The second Panjâb war began with the outbreak in Mûltân (ch. xi. § 35-43), under Mûlrâj. (April 1848.)

The Second Panjâb War, 1848.

Messrs Agnew and Anderson were basely murdered.

B. A conspiracy was formed in Lâhôr at the same time to massacre all the British officers in the Panjâb, and to make a complete revolution in the province.

Mûltân.

C. Lieutenant Edwardes (afterwards Sir Herbert Edwardes), General Sampson Whish, Lord Gough, and General Gilbert are the names that most attract our attention in this short and glorious war.

Edwardes, Whish, Gough, and Gilbert.

D. The result was the annexation of the Panjâb, which was placed under a Board of Commissioners, of whom Sir Henry Lawrence was president. Sir John Lawrence was second. Mr Mansel and Sir R. Montgomery were the others. Under these, fifty-six gentlemen were employed as assistants. A general disarming of the people from the Biâs to the Satlaj now took place. 120,000 weapons were surrendered. The result was a decrease of crime throughout the whole province.

The Annexation of the Panjâb.

Lord Dalhousie was made a Marquis.

Lord Gough, beloved by the army, left India in May 1849.

§ 140. The second Birmese war, which soon followed, ended in the annexation of Pegu. It arose from the oppression of British subjects by the King of Âva and his officials. The arrogance of the Birmese seems to have suffered no abatement by the first war, which was so disastrous to them. Commodore Lambert by sea, and General Godwin by land, soon brought the Birmese to their senses. In annexing Pegu (December 21, 1852), by which the kingdom of Birma was deprived of the whole of its seaboard, Lord Dalhousie gave the King of Âva a severe lesson, secured a rich province for his country, and threw open a noble river to the trade of the world. Pegu had not been subdued by the Birma sovereign more than about a century. The war was concluded June 30, 1853, after

The Second Birmese War, 1852.

(Comp. § 79.)

CH. X. § 141-143.
A.D. 1853.

XIII. Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1856.

lasting eighteen months, and costing a little less than two millions sterling. The marvellous energy, skill, and forethought with which Lord Dalhousie himself arranged every detail of the expedition astonished all India.

NOTE.—Rangoon, the capital of Pegu, is one of the branches of the Irawādy, called the Syrian River. It is now a place of extensive trade. (Comp. § 79.)

Changes in the
Panjāb, 1853.

§ 141. In 1853, the Panjāb Board of Commissioners was abolished, and Sir John Lawrence was made Chief Commissioner. Sir Henry became agent to the Governor-General at Ājmīr. Infanticide was suppressed by the co-operation of the Panjāb nobles themselves.

The most magnificent system of roads and canals was planned and commenced under Colonel (Sir R.) Napier. Roads extending for 2200 miles, and a grand canal 465 miles in length, will perpetuate the renown of Sir R. Napier and Lord Dalhousie.

Deaths in 1853.

The same year Sir Walter Gilbert (the "flying General" of the Panjāb); and Sir Charles Napier (who assumed the command of the Indian army in May 1846) died; Colonel Mackeson, Commissioner of Peshāwar, was stabbed by an Afgān fanatic; and Mr Thomason, Lieutenant-Governor of Āgra, just appointed Governor of Madras, was taken away in his fiftieth year.

Railways, 1853.

§ 142. The year 1853 saw the opening of the first Indian railway, from Bombay to Tanna. To Mr Rowland Stephenson India is chiefly indebted for the introduction of railways. The extension since that time has been most rapid and beneficial.

Telegraphs.

§ 143. Telegraphic communication, under the energetic superintendence of Dr O'Shaughnessey (now Sir William O'Shaughnessey Brooke), began to extend itself over the length and breadth of the land.

XIII. Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1856.

III, X, § 144-149.
A. D. 1853.

§ 144. In December 1853, the Râja of Nâgpur died without issue. (Ch. v. § 159.) Lord Dalhousie, as lord paramount, refusing to acknowledge the Hindû right of adoption, annexed this state. This "annexation policy" has been fiercely condemned, and as warmly defended. It is one of the distinguishing characteristics of Lord Dalhousie's brilliant administration.

Nâgpur Affairs.
Dec. 11, 1853.

§ 145. The renewal of the Company's Charter, for the last time, occupied the attention of the Imperial Parliament during several months of 1853.

Renewal of the
Charter, 1853.
(§ 103.)

The Court of Directors was reduced from twenty-four to eighteen; six of these were to be appointed by the Crown; civil appointments were thrown open to competition; the Macaulay code was introduced; Bengâl was put under a Lieutenant-Governor; and the Company's Sudder Courts were blended with Her Majesty's Supreme Courts at the presidency towns.

Changes.

§ 146. Early in 1854, Colonel Cautley's great Ganges Canal, 500 miles long, was opened with great ceremony; and its author left India with unanimous applause.

The Ganges
Canal, 1854.

§ 147. The Râja of Jhânsî and the chief of Kerowli both died childless in 1854. The dominions of the former were "annexed;" we shall see more of Jhânsî affairs. Those of the latter were handed over to Madden Pâl, a new relative of the late chief, by whom it is still well governed. The Mahârâja has been appointed Grand Commander of the Star of India.

Jhânsî and
Kerowli, 1854.
(Kerâoli.)

§ 148. Mr Halliday was appointed first Lieutenant-Governor of Bengâl; and Lord Harris succeeded Sir H. Pottinger as Governor of Madras. Colonel (Sir James) Outram succeeded Colonel (Sir William) Sleeman as Resident of Oudh.

Local Officers.

§ 149. In 1855, a treaty was made with the restored Dôst Muhammed; a loan for public works was opened; and the crime of torturing people to extract evidence, or to compel payment of arrears of taxes—a crime often

Events of 1855.

CH. X. § 150, 151.
A. D. 1856.

XIII. Lord Dalhousie, 1848-1856.

committed by native officers—was put an end to. Of this last measure, Sir J. Lawrence in the Panjâb, and Lord Harris in Madras, were the most zealous promoters. An outbreak of the Santhals among the hill ranges of Râj-mahâl was put down only by the proclamation of martial law in the disturbed districts, and the vigorous measures of General Lloyd.

The Annexation
of Oudh.
(Ch. x. § 82 ; iii.
§ 17.)

Feb. 7, 1856.

(§ 164, 174, 184.)

Close of Lord
Dalhousie's Ad-
ministration,
1856.

Death in 1860.

§ 150. The annexation of Oudh is the greatest event of this period. Oudh, by the treaty of 1801, was under the especial guardianship of the British power. It had been shamefully ill-governed. Intervention was a duty of common humanity. Colonel Sleeman urged it, and Lord Dalhousie advised it. The Home Government commanded annexation, and Vajid Ali ceased to reign. The king wept and put his turban into Colonel Outram's hands, but would sign no treaty. He receives £120,000 sterling a year. Oudh will require another reference before we close this history.

§ 151. Lord Dalhousie left Calcutta, 6th March 1856. utterly broken down by eight years of unspeakable anxieties and toils. He very closely resembled, but in many points excelled, his great predecessor, the Marquis of Wellesley, who governed and mightily extended the British dominions in India fifty years before.

Every part of the empire felt his influence. The Panjâb, Pegu, and Oudh were added to our dominions. A vigorous and beneficial impulse was given to every department. Every means of improving India, and of communicating to her all the advantages of Western civilisation, was adopted.

A pension of £5000 a year was voted to him.

The renown of James Andrew Ramsay, Marquis of Dalhousie, who died 19th December 1860, will never perish.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Persian War.

CH. X. § 152-156.
A.D. 1856.

XIV. LORD CANNING, 1856-1861.

§ 152. Lord Canning, the fourteenth Governor-General, succeeded on the 29th February 1856. He was a scholar, a statesman of experience, and a man of wonderful coolness, patience, and firmness.

Lord Canning.

His administration may almost be said to begin and end with the "sepoj war."

§ 153. Lord Dalhousie's influence had stirred up throughout India an intense desire for progress and reform. The tendency was undoubtedly to throw everything into an English shape, and to urge on a civilisation which may be called "epidemic" rather than "endemic;" rather forced upon the country from without, than arising from the development of higher principles within the minds and hearts of the people of India.

Intense Anglican
Feeling.

§ 154. An important though unpopular reform among the high-caste soldiers of Bengal was carried out in 1856; all sepoys enrolled in future were to be enlisted for general service, as soldiers should be.

Reforms in the
Bengal Army,
1856.

§ 155. The Persian war began in November 1856, and was ended by a treaty signed in Paris in March 1857. It was caused by the insolent behaviour of the Persian Court, which had never forgiven the English for hindering their acquisition of Herât [§ 110 (*g*).]

The Persian
War, 1856-57.

The island of Karrack was taken (December 4, 1856). An engagement was fought at Kushair, and a few days after Bushair, the object of the expedition, surrendered. The loss of life was very trifling.

§ 156. An additional treaty was now signed by our old enemy Dôst Muhammed, by which he bound himself to

Treaty with Dôst
Muhammed.

CH. X. § 157-159.
A. D. 1857.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861.

aid us against Persia, by maintaining an army of 18,000 men, the British Government paying him £120,000 per annum to maintain this army. Sir J. Lawrence and Major Edwardes were the main authors of this beneficial arrangement.

Sir James Outram in Persia.

§ 157. The gallant Sir James Outram, the Bayard of India, had now joined the Persian expedition as its commander-in-chief. On the 5th February he drove the enemy from their entrenchments at Barasjûn (forty-six miles from Bushair), and on the 7th the battle of Kûshâb was fought, in which the Persian army was well-nigh annihilated.

Peace with Persia.
March 4, 1857.

Muhamrah, commanding the passage of the Euphrates and the water-approach to Ispahân, was taken on the 26th with scarcely any loss. This ended the war; a truce was granted to the prayer of the Persians, and plenipotentiaries signed a peace in Paris, March 4.

The Persians made amends for the slights they had put upon the British power, and formally renounced all claim upon Herât and Afgânistân.

China, 1857.
(§ 111.)

§ 158. Disturbances now took place in China. Theman darins of Canton were the aggressors, and the Chinese Governor Yeh offered a reward for the head of every Englishman. After some severe reprisals on our part, and two bombardments of Canton, Lord Elgin was sent on a special mission to Pekin.

Yeh.

Hearing the news of the troubles in India, he brought up to Calcutta all he could spare of his troops. On his arrival at Canton, in conjunction with the French plenipotentiary, Baron Gros, he ordered an attack on that city. Yeh was taken prisoner and sent to Calcutta, where he died. The expedition then proceeded to Shanghai, and was nearing Pekin, when the childish Emperor agreed to treaties with England, France, America, and Russia, by which all commercial privileges were conceded to those powers.

Commercial Treaty with China.

The Sepoy Mutiny, 1857.

§ 159. Now broke out the *Sepoy Mutiny*. We cannot give its full history; but will sketch an outline, which the student must fill in for himself.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. Causes of the Sepoy Mutiny.

CH. X. § 160, 161.
A. D. 1857.

The Bengâl native army had been in an unsatisfactory state for some time. Sir C. Napier had given the warning that the Bengâl sepoys were not to be trusted.

The want of intercourse and sympathy with their men on the part of the European officers, the taking away of authority from the officers commanding regiments, the issue of the Afgân war, a want of firmness in the attitude of the Government towards its sepoy army, a dread of the violent introduction of Christianity, and of changes affecting their caste and customs, and the annexation of Oudh, from which a great majority of the sepoys came; all these, and many more reasons, having weight with none but un-instructed Oriental minds, rendered the sepoys ready for revolt.

§ 160. Early in 1857 the new Enfield rifles were introduced into the Indian army, and the absurd report was spread abroad that the cartridges issued had been smeared with the fat of pigs and of cows, that Mussulmân and Hindû alike might be defiled.

The "Greased Cartridges."

§ 161. The mutiny began at Berhâmpûr, in the 19th Regiment, which was disbanded in March 1857.

Soon after occurred the disgraceful circumstance which gave a name to the mutineers.

The First Outbreaks.
March 1857.
Mangal Pândî.

A poor young sepoy called Mangal Pândî, of the 34th Regiment, maddened with *bhang*, rushed out of his hut, called upon his comrades to unite in defence of their religion, and levelled his piece at the serjeant-major. The piece missed fire, but not one soldier interfered to hinder his reloading it. He then attacked his adjutant and another officer. He at last aimed at General Hearsay, but, changing his purpose, turned his weapon against himself. He fell wounded, and ten days after was hung with a Jemadâr, who had stood by without doing his duty.

Mutineers after this were generally called *Pândîs*.

Pândîs.

CII. X. § 162-164.
A.D. 1857.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

Emissaries of
Rebellion.

§ 162. Fakirs and other emissaries were now in every village and bazaar from the slopes of the Himālayas to Cape Comorin, spreading the most atrocious falsehoods, uttering the wildest prophecies of the downfall of British power, and striving to excite a rebellion.

Chappatties.

Small flat cakes of flour and water, called chappatties, were sent from village to village, and were passed on by the villagers, who only learnt from this token that some great struggle was impending. The English in India were seated over a mine ready to explode.

Nānā Dhundu
Pant.

§ 163. Meanwhile the adopted son of the late Peishwā, who lived at Bhītūr, near Khānpūr (ch. v. § 158), was the mainspring of disaffection. His secretary, Azīm-ulla Khān, a plausible miscreant, had been sent to England as the agent of Dhundu Pant, and had been treated there with a foolish consideration, to which he had no right whatever. He and his master now pass hither and thither, lying and plotting. The old King of Delhi and his sons were ready for anything that might give them a chance of restoring the Mogul dominion, forgetting that they owed their very existence to the English, who had saved them from the Mahratta oppressor in 1803.

Ingratitude of
the Mogul.
(Ch. iii. § 25.)

The Conspira-
tors.
(§ 150.)

§ 164. The ex-King of Oudh, in Calcutta, was in the conspiracy. And Mān Sing, chief of the Pūrbias, from which tribe very many of our sepoys came, with the members of the families of the dispossessed Mahratta chiefs of Nāgpur and Satārā, was in the secret; but our own Government was in profound ignorance of the extent and nature of the danger.

The Saviours of
the Empire.

Yet never were more resolute and able men in India than the Englishmen who saved the British Indian Empire in that eventful crisis. Lord Canning, Sir H. Lawrence in Lucknow, Sir John Lawrence at Lāhōr, and Lord Elphinstone in Bombay, are to be added to an illustrious

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

CH. X. § 165, 166.
A. D. 1857.

band of warriors, whose deeds surpass anything of the kind in both antient and modern history.

§ 165. Incendiary fires at the various cantonments, insolence of demeanour, murmurs against the officers, were now constant.

The 10th May witnessed the first great outbreak of the rebellion, at Mirut. Ninety-five troopers of the 3d Light Cavalry had refused to use the cartridges issued, though every assurance was given them that they had been prepared in the same way as those they had always used. These men were sentenced to imprisonment for various terms. To rescue them, the whole of the natives in Mirut rose, massacred every one of European parentage of every class and age, burnt the station, and marched off to Delhi. No adequate effort to check them was made by the old General in command.

The Outbreak at
Mirut, May 10,
1857.
(About 39 miles
N.E. from Delhi.)

§ 166. On the 11th May the same horrible scenes were acted in Delhi. The commissioner, Mr Fraser, the captain of the king's guard, Captain Douglas, Mr Jennings, the Residency chaplain, and his daughter, were murdered in the palace, in the sight of the king; and, almost certainly, with his sanction.

The Massacre at
Delhi, May 11,
1857.

Yet this scene of carnage and sickening treachery is connected with one of the grandest feats of heroism that history records.

When the tidings of the Mirut massacre reached Delhi, nine officers, commissioned and non-commissioned, managed to close the gates of the arsenal, the greatest in the North-West of India. They then made some hasty preparations for defence, and laid a train of powder from the magazine to some distance. Alone, those heroes defended their post till swarms of assailants were, by means of scaling-ladders, surmounting the walls. Then the train was fired, and the little band made their way through a sally-port on

Willoughby and
his Heroic Com-
rades.

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CH. X. § 167-169.
A. D. 1857.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

the river face, covered with wounds. They were Lieutenants Willoughby, Raynor, and Forrest; Conductors Shaw, Buckley, and Scully; Sub-Conductor Crow; Sergeants Edwards and Stewart. Scully fired the train, and was seen no more. Willoughby, their young leader, scorched and crippled, died of his wounds at Mirut.

From the city, now a pandæmonium, many Europeans escaped; but what pen can describe the miseries of the fugitives, or the calm Christian courage with which they were borne!

General Insurrections, May 1857.

§ 167. The occupation of the Mogul capital by the rebels was the signal for risings and massacres in almost every station in Bengál and the North-West. The Mirut massacre was premature. What would have been the result if this gigantic plot had fully ripened!

Ferôz-pûr, Bareilly, Morâdâbâd, Shâhjuhânpûr, Khânpûr, Jhânsî, Benâres, Allâhâbâd, Hansi, Hissar, Futioghur, Dînapûr, Jullindbur, and many other places, furnished sad tales of perfidy and cruelty.

Lâhôr.

§ 168. At Lâhôr, Messrs Montgomery, M'Leod, and Brigadier Corbett disarmed the sepoys, whose traitorous inclinations were evident, in a prompt and masterly style.

The Panjâb Saved.

At Peshâwar, Reid, Cotton, Chamberlain, Nicholson, and Edwardes, communicating with Sir John Lawrence by telegraph, disarmed the native troops, and hung a few native officers, traitors caught in the act. These measures saved the Panjâb.

The 55th N.C. at Murdân mutinied. Swift, inexorable, awful punishment followed.

Sir John Lawrence comes to the Rescue. (Ch. xi. § 8.)

§ 169. Sir John Lawrence had now leisure to come to the rescue of the Cis-Satlaj stations: to save the empire.

The Sikh chiefs, our feudatories, stood nobly and loyally by the paramount power. The ruler of Cashmîr, the

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

CII. X. § 170-172.
A. D. 1857.

Râjas of Jhînd, Kapurthala, and Pattiâla ; the old Sirdârs, Têj Sing, Shamsîr Sing, Jouâhîr Sing, and many others, raised Sikh troops, and armed their retainers to aid their former foes. Thus fresh relays of troops were constantly sent from the Panjâb to the scene of action.

Fidelity of the
Cis-Satlaj Pro-
tected States.

§ 170. Thither we must now return. "On to Delhi" was the watchword. Each regiment, as it mutinied, marched off to swell the army that was to restore the Empire of the Mogul ! On the other hand, every detachment of British troops and allies was destined to the service of wresting from the hands of the rebels a place whose very name was strength to them.

Delhi.

At Mainpûrî, a young lieutenant, called De Hantzow, with wonderful "courage, patience, good judgment, and temper," almost alone, withstood the roaring tide of mutiny. Not a rupee was taken from the treasury, not a life was lost.

Lieutenant de
Hantzow.

§ 171. Mr Colvin, the Lieutenant-Governor of Âgra, failed in energy ; and his proclamation, offering immunity to all who would give up their arms, and go quietly home, was ridiculed as an attempt to "wash out with rose-water the reek of a blood-stained rebellion."

Mr Colvin.

Sternier, wiser men were soon on the spot.

§ 172. The memories of Khânpûr are among the saddest in the history of British history. There, under Sir Hugh Wheeler, aided by Captain Moore, the garrison held out gallantly for three weeks (June 6th to 27th), in wretched buildings, suffering every privation, and surrounded by a vast multitude of savage enemies. They were then enveigled by the miscreants *Dhundu* and *Azîm-ulla* into a surrender. Numbers were shot in the boats which were, as they imagined, to carry them to Allâhâbâd ; and the others, women and children, were cut to pieces in a small

The Khânpûr
Massacre, June
1857.

CH. X. § 173, 174.
A. D. 1857.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

room, and their bodies, still quivering with life, thrown into a well.

Thus, while many and terrible were the scenes of treacherous carnage during these mutinies, Khânpûr and Delhi will remain associated in English minds with the names of *the Black Hole*, of *Patna*, of *Seringapatam*, and of *Vellora*, as having been rendered especially infamous by the atrocities there perpetrated.

Neill and Havelock.

§ 173. Meanwhile two of the heroes of the war were on their way to the fatal spot. They were Lieutenant-Colonel James Neill and Sir Henry Havelock. Neill, when the station-master at Howrah would have started the train without some of his soldiers, simply put him under arrest till all had arrived. British troops began to pour into Benâres, and were passed on to the upper provinces. On 17th June Sir P. Grant, from Madras, took the place of the commander-in-chief, General Anson, who had died of cholera.

Mr Gubbins in Benâres.

Benâres was kept safe, under incredible difficulties, by Mr Frederick Gubbins, the sessions judge, aided by Sûrat Sing, a loyal state prisoner, the Râja of Benâres, and a few others.

Khânpûr.

On the last day of June Havelock reached Allâhâbâd, and Neill left for Khânpûr.

The battle of Khânpûr was fought on the 16th of July. The Bîtûr troops were completely routed. Major Renaud and Captain Beatson, two noble soldiers, died about this time of wounds and cholera.

By the 25th July Havelock marched into Oudh, and his subordinate Neill was inflicting condign punishment on the butchers of Khânpûr.

Sir H. Lawrence in Lucknow.

§ 174. In Lucknow, which he had held, aided by Banks, Inglis, and Fulton, Sir H. Lawrence was killed, on the 2d July, by the bursting of a shell. In him England lost one

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

CH. X § 175, 176.
A. D. 1857.

of her best, most generous, and heroic men. The defence was maintained by the survivors with equal spirit. It was not till he had three times crossed the Ganges, that Havelock (on the 25th September), after innumerable victories, made his way into Lucknow. The chivalrous Sir James Outram was now in command; but he waived his right, and entered the city as a subordinate of Havelock, from whom he would not take the glory of effecting the relief of the city, for which he had undergone so much.

Brigadier-General Neill was killed in the final advance. He was in his forty-eighth year, when his brilliant career thus terminated.

Outram was now master of Lucknow, but he could do nothing more than hold the place.

§ 175. The defence of Arrah must not be forgotten. This place is on the west of the Sône, and a little to the S.W. of *Dinapûr*, where three native regiments had mutinied. For a whole week *Arrah* was kept by two gentlemen of the names of Wake and Boyle, with a small band of Sikh and English refugees, against upwards of 3000 rebels. Their fortress was an open bungalow! On the 2d August Major Vincent Eyre gained the brilliant victory of *Bîbî-gung*; which was followed up by other successes, and by which the rebel Koer Sing was driven into the jungles, and that part of the country cleared of rebels.

§ 176. But the great interest of the rebellion centres in Delhi. We must pass from the banks of the *Gûmtî* to those of the *Jamna*. On the 8th June, Sir H. Barnard, after a severe action, took possession of the heights near Delhi, and the siege began. The besieged had everything in their favour. The city, thoroughly fortified, was seven miles in circumference. Its defenders were almost countless, and they had an inexhaustible supply of heavy guns and ammunition. The *Jamna* flowed beneath its eastern

Havelock Relieves it.

Sir James Outram.

Death of Neill.

The Heroic Defence of Arrah.

(*Dinapûr* is on the S. bank of the Ganges, about 10 miles W. of Patna.)
(*Arrah* is 35 miles W. from Patna.)
Eyre.

Siege of Delhi.

CH. X. § 177, 178.
A. D. 1857.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

Taken Sept. 20,
1857.

Battle of 23d
June.

Heroes of Delhi.

Muhammed Bahâdar Shâh's
sons shot.
(Ch. iii. § 25.)

Other places.
Sind, Bombay,
and Hyderâbâd.

Indôr.

Ghûrkas.

Lord Clyde's Re-
lief of Lucknow.

Death of Have-
lock, Nov. 25,
1857.
Gwâliôr.

wall, and the well-defended bridge over it freely admitted reinforcements and supplies.

The besiegers (more besieged than besieging) were few, sickly, overworked, many of them raw recruits, and their guns did not suffice even to check the enemies' fire. We cannot give the details of those patient, prudent, and valiant operations, which ended in the capture of Delhi on the 20th of September 1857.

There was a great struggle on the centenary of Plassey, 23d June, but the mutineers were triumphantly repulsed.

Sir H. Barnard died of cholera on 4th July. Wilson, Baird Smith, Hodson of the Guides, Nicholson, and Hope Grant, among a multitude of others, distinguished themselves.

The King of Delhi was taken prisoner by Hodson, and his two sons and grandson shot.

§ 177. The rebellion was now really put down. Sind was kept quiet by Sir Bartle Frere and General Jacob. Lord Elphinstone was equal to the emergency in Bombay. General Fraser, with the able and patriotic Sir Salar Jung, maintained tranquillity in the Nizâm's dominions.

The Indôr mutineers were disposed of by *Greathed's* flying column.

Nîpalese troops under Sir Jung Bahâdar did good services.

§ 178. The relief of Lucknow and the rescue of the garrison by Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde), was another great event.

Sir H. Havelock died 25th November, and his name will live as a man of the purest and bravest type.

The Gwâliôr contingent mutinied in the middle of October, dethroning their Râja, but only for a short time.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Sepoy Mutiny.

CH. X § 179-181.
A. D. 1857.

Whitlock's Madras column in Bandêlkhand annihilated the forces of the Râja of Banda.

Cotton and Edwardes guarded the North-West frontier.

§ 179. The murderers of Englishmen and women met on all sides with their just punishment, swiftly and inexorably inflicted.

Muhammed Bahâdar Shâh, the last Mogul, was brought to trial (January 27 to March 9). He was skilfully defended, but found guilty of murder, treason, and arson, and was sentenced to transportation for life to Birma. His favourite wife, Zînat Mahâl, and his youngest son, Jamma Bakht, accompanied him.

In Maulmain he died.

§ 180. Lord Canning was at the time blamed much for his statesman-like and Christian "clemency;" but justice was done while vengeance was disclaimed. Lucknow was finally taken, and the re-conquest of Oudh completed in March.

Khân Bahâdar of Bareilly, the Mûlvi of Faizâbâd, the Begum of Oudh, Prince Ferôz Shâh of Delhi, and the infamous Nânâ of Bîtûr, were still in arms in Rohilkhand. Bareilly was taken and Rohilkhand cleared in May. The rebel leaders, however, escaped for the time.

§ 181. Sir Hugh Rose, in Central India, made one triumphant, and scarcely paralleled march, from Bombay to Indôr, Sâgar, Jhânsî, Kalpî, and at last to Gwâlîôr. His opponent was Tantia Tôpî, a relative of the Nânâ. Kalpî, the great arsenal of the rebels, was stormed on the 25th May.

The strong fortress of Jhânsî, defended by its heroic but cruel Rânâ, was taken; and she escaped to fall in battle at the siege of Gwâlîôr.

Punishment of Murderers.

Trial of the Last Mogul Emperor. Condemnation, Deportation, and Death.

Lord Canning's Clemency.

The Rebel Leaders.

Sir Hugh Rose.

Kalpî.

Jhânsî.

CH. X. § 182-185.
A.D. 1858.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. Sepoy Mutiny. The Transfer.

Gwâliôr.

Gwâliôr was taken, and the noble young Mâhârâja restored, in the middle of June 1858.

Tantia Tôpî.

Tantia Tôpî, the brave but cruel leader, was taken, tried, and hanged in April 1859, as his share in the Khânpûr massacres deserved.

The Nânâ.

The Nânâ perished, it is supposed, in the Nipal jungles. The Begum escaped to Katmandû.

Peel and Venables.

§ 182. Among others, Sir W. Peel, commander of a naval brigade, and Mr Venables, an indigo planter, lost their lives, after covering themselves with glory.

§ 183. The storming of Delhi, the final capture of Lucknow, and Sir H. Rose's campaign in Central India are among the masterpieces of modern warfare.

Oudh.

§ 184. Lord Canning, in July 1857, declared by proclamation the lands of Oudh forfeited, save in the case of six loyal landowners, offering indulgence to all who threw themselves on British mercy. As his "clemency" had been blamed before, so now he was accused of undue severity. But, in fact, this measure of confiscation was meant to prepare the way for a plan for placing the loyal among the banded aristocracy of Oudh on a footing of greater security and respectability.

Assumption of the Government of India by the Crown.

§ 185. On the 2d August 1858, a bill received the royal assent, placing British India under the direct authority of the Crown.

The Government of the Court of Directors came to an end, 1858.

The machinery of government in England was to consist of a Secretary of State for India, aided by a Council of fifteen. Eight of these must have served in India for ten years.

Pension to Sir J. Lawrence.

The Directors of the East India Company, at one of their last meetings, voted to Sir John Lawrence a pension

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. India Taken by the Crown.

CHAP. X. § 186.
A. D. 1858.

of £2000 a year, thus nobly closing their wonderful career.

Other great changes have followed, The local European army has been abolished. The Civil Service has been thrown open to public competition, as have the engineer and artillery services.

Changes.

§ 186. The proclamation issued by the English Government on the assumption of the direct controul of British India will fittingly close this chapter. Translated into every language of the country, it was read aloud, in every station in India, on the 1st November 1858.

The Queen's
Proclamation,
1858.

“ Proclamation by the Queen in Council to the Princes, Chiefs, and People of India.

“ Victoria, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Colonies and Dependencies thereof in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia, Queen, Defender of the Faith.

“ Whereas, for divers weightier reasons, we have resolved, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, to take upon ourselves the government of the territories in India, heretofore administered in trust for us by the Honourable East India Company.

India taken by
the Crown.

“ Now, therefore, we do by these presents notify and declare that, by the advice and consent aforesaid, we have taken upon ourselves the said Government; and we hereby call upon all our subjects within the said territories to be faithful, and to bear true allegiance to us, our heirs and successors, and to submit themselves to the authority of those whom we may hereafter, from time to time, see fit to appoint to administer the Government of our said territories, in our name and on our behalf.

Allegiance due.

“ And we, reposing especial trust and confidence in the loyalty, ability, and judgment of our right trusty and well beloved Cousin and Councillor, Charles John, Viscount Canning, do hereby constitute and appoint him, the said Viscount Canning, to be our first Viceroy and Governor-General in and over our said territories, and to administer the government thereof in our name; and generally to act in our name and on our behalf, subject to such orders and regulations as he shall from time to time receive from us through one of our principal Secretaries of State.

Viceroy.

CHAP. X. §189.
A. D. 1858.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Queen's Proclamation.

Officers Con-
firmed.

"And we do hereby confirm in their several offices, Civil and Military, all persons now employed in the service of the Honourable East India Company, subject to our future pleasure, and to such laws and regulations as may hereafter be enacted.

Treaties Con-
firmed.

"We hereby announce to the Native Princes of India that all Treaties and Engagements made with them by or under the authority of the Honourable East India Company, are by us accepted, and will be scrupulously maintained, and we look for the like observance on their part.

Native Princes
Respected and
Protected.

"We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression upon our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall sanction no encroachment on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity, and honour of Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government.

India one with
England.

"We hold Ourselves bound to the natives of Our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty which bind us to all other subjects, and those obligations, by the blessing of Almighty God, we shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfil.

Impartiality.

"Firmly relying Ourselves on the truth of Christianity, and acknowledging with gratitude the solace of religion, we disclaim alike the right and desire to impose our convictions on any of our subjects. We declare it to be our Royal will and pleasure that none be in any wise favoured, none molested or disquieted, by reason of their religious faith or observances, but that all shall alike enjoy the equal impartial protection of the law; and we do strictly charge and enjoin all those who may be in authority under us, that they abstain from all interference with the religious belief or worship of any of our subjects, on pain of our highest displeasure.

Toleration.

Offices thrown
open.

"And it is our further will that, so far as may be, our subjects, of whatever race or creed, be freely and impartially admitted to offices in Our service, the duties of which they may be qualified by their education, ability, and integrity, duly to discharge.

Rights of Succes-
sion.

"We know and respect the feelings of attachment with which the natives of India regard the lands inherited by them from their ancestors; and we desire to protect them in all rights connected therewith, subject to the equitable demands of the state; and we will that generally, in framing and administering the law, due regard be paid to the antient rites, usages, and customs of India.

Usages.

The Rebellion.

"We deeply lament the evils and misery which have been brought upon India by the acts of ambitious men, who have deceived their

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861. The Queen's Proclamation.

CHAP. X. § 186.

A.D. 1858.

countrymen by false reports, and led them into open rebellion. Our power has been shown by the suppression of that rebellion in the field. We desire to show our mercy by pardoning the offences of those who have been thus misled, but who desire to return to the path of duty.

“Already in one province, with the view to stop the further effusion of blood, and to hasten the pacification of Our Indian dominions, Our Viceroy and Governor-General has held out the expectation of pardon, on certain terms, to the great majority of those who in the late unhappy disturbances have been guilty of offences against Our Government, and has declared the punishment which will be inflicted on those whose crimes place them beyond the reach of forgiveness. We approve and confirm the said act of Our Viceroy and Governor-General, and do further announce and proclaim as follows :—

Amnesty.

“Our clemency will be extended to all offenders, save and except those who have been, or shall be, convicted of having directly taken part in the murder of British subjects; with regard to such, the demands of justice forbid the exercise of mercy.

“To those who have willingly given asylum to murderers, knowing them to be such, or who may have acted as leaders or instigators in revolt, their lives alone can be guaranteed; but in apportioning the penalty due to such persons, full consideration will be given to the circumstances under which they have been induced to throw off their allegiance; and large indulgence will be shown to those whose crimes may appear to have originated in too credulous acceptance of the false reports circulated by designing men.

“To all others in arms against the Government, we hereby promise unconditional pardon, amnesty and oblivion of all offence against Ourselves, Our Crown, and dignity, on their return to their homes and peaceful pursuits.

“It is Our Royal pleasure that these terms of grace and amnesty should be extended to all those who comply with their conditions before the 1st day of January next.

“When by the blessing of Providence internal tranquillity shall be restored, it is Our earnest desire to stimulate the peaceful industry of India, to promote works of public utility and improvement, and to administer its Government for the benefit of all our subjects resident therein. In their prosperity will be our strength; in their contentment our security; and in their gratitude our best reward. And may the God of all power grant to us, and to those in authority under us, strength to carry out these our wishes for the good of our people.”

Promotion of the good of India.

CHAP. X. § 187.
A. D. 1858.

XIV. Lord Canning, 1856-1861.

To this prayer all India said, Amen.

The subsequent history of British India shows how thoroughly these principles have been carried out. May it ever be so!

State of India
after the Mu-
tiny.

§ 187. The mutiny thus swept away the last relics of the empire of the Moguls, and the last who could claim in any sense to represent the Peishwâ. Lord Canning in 1860 thus wrote :—"The Crown of England stands forth the unquestioned ruler and paramount power in all India, and is for the first time brought face to face with its feudatories. There is a reality in the suzerainty of England which has never existed before, and which is not only felt but eagerly acknowledged by the chiefs."

The "Magna
Charta" of our
Indian Feuda-
tories.

Then was issued the Sunnud, or patent of nobility, by which the 153 feudatories of Britain (see Table in Intro. § 24) are constituted nobles of the English Empire.

To these has since been added the adopted son of the late Mâhârâja of Mysore. (Ch. xi. § 63.)

The Patent of
Indian Nobility.

The patent runs thus, with the necessary alterations in the case of the forty-one Muhammedan chiefs :—

"Her Majesty being desirous that the Governments of the several Princes and Chiefs of India, who now govern their own territories, should be perpetuated, and that the representation and dignity of their Houses should be continued; in fulfilment of this desire, this Sunnud is given to you to convey to you the assurance that, on failure of natural heirs, the British Government will recognise and confirm any adoption of a successor made by yourself or by any future chief of your state that may be in accordance with Hindû law and the customs of your race. Be assured that nothing shall disturb the engagement thus made to you so long as your house is loyal to the Crown and faithful to the conditions of the treaties, grants, or engagements, which record the obligations to the British Governments."

(Signed) "CANNING."

"11th March 1862."

The Seventeen Governors-General to 1869.

CHAP. X. § 188.

§ 188. TABLE OF THE GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF
BRITISH INDIA.

1774-1869.

I.	Warren Hastings.....	1774-1785	First Mahratta War. Hyder.
	Mr Macpherson.....	1785	Acting.
II.	Lord Cornwallis	1786-1793	Third Mysore War. Permanent Settlement.
III.	Lord Teignmouth.....	1793-1798	Neutrality.
	[Mr Shore.]		
	Sir A. Clarke.....	...	Acting.
IV.	Marquis of Wellesley...	1798-1805	Fourth Mysore War. Second and Third Mahratta Wars. Subsidiary System.
	[Lord Mornington.]		
V.	Lord Cornwallis	1805	Peace-at-any-price policy.
	Sir George Barlow.....	1805-1807	Non-intervention. Vellora Mutiny.
VI.	Lord Minto	1807-1813	Travancore. Embassies.
VII.	Marquis of Hastings.....	1814-1823	The Pindāri War. Nīpal. Mahratta Settlement.
	[Earl of Moira.]		
	Mr Adam		Acting.
VIII.	Lord Amherst.....	1823-1828	First Birmese War. Bhartpūr.
	Mr W. B. Bayley.....		Acting.
IX.	Lord W. Bentinck	1828-1835	Mysore. Kārg. Reforms. Progress. Peace.
	Sir C. Metcalfe	1836	Acting. Freedom of Press.
X.	Lord Auckland	1836-1842	Afgān Expedition. First Chinese War.
XI.	Lord Ellenborough.....	1842-1844	Afgānistān. Sind. Gwāliōr.
XII.	Sir H. Hardinge	1844-1847	First Panjāb War. Progress.
	Mr Bird	Acting.
XIII.	The Marquis of Dalhousie.....	1848-1856	Second Panjāb War. Second Birmese War. Annexation. Progress.
XIV.	Viscount Canning.....	1856-1861	Mutinies. Extinction of the Company's Dominion.
	(First Viceroy.)		
XV.	Lord Elgin.....	1861	
XVI.	Sir John Lawrence.....	1869	Oudh Settlement.
XVII.	The Earl of Mayo.....	1869	

CHAPTER XI.

The Panjâb.

Importance of
this Part of
Indian History.

§ 1. The history of the Panjâb is the beginning and end of Indian history. It will therefore be useful to the student to have a summary of the leading facts regarding the "Land of the Five Rivers."

The Panjâb a
Battlefield.

Although the Panjâb formed, from the very first, a part of the Mogul Empire, a great portion of it on the west was nothing but a battlefield, where Afgâns, Sikhs, and others were constantly fighting, sometimes against one another, and oftener against the Emperor himself. Its shape is an irregular triangle, containing more than 50,000 square miles. Its population, when it was conquered by the English, was 4,000,000.

Area and Popu-
lation.

Divisions.
Five Doâbs.

§ 2. A study of the map will show that the territory historically connected with the Panjâb consists of:—(1) Five Doâbs (Intro. § 9); (2) the Trans-Indus frontier, or Dêrajât; (3) the Hazara valley; (4) Golâb Sing's territory, or Cashmir; and (5) the Cis-Satlaj districts.

Inhabitants.

In the central plains are now found Sikhs and Jâts. Along the valley of the Indus and the north-western borders, Patâns and other Muhammedan tribes abound.

THE PANJÂB

English Miles



The Numerals & Figures refer to the Table in Introduction, p. 6.



Longitude East from Greenwich

The Panjāb Doābs.

CHAP. XI. § 3, 4.

§ 3. The Doābs are :—

- (1.) The *Julindar*, between the Satlaj and Biās.
- (2.) The *Barī*, between the Biās, Satlaj, and Ravī.
- (3.) The *Retchnā*, between the Ravī and Chināb.
- (4.) The *Jetch*; between the Chināb and Jhīlam.
- (5.) The *Sind-Sagār*, between the Jhīlam and the Indus.

The *Barī Doāb* is the most important, as it contains the central home of the Sikh nation, and the three most important cities of Lāhōr, Umritsīr, and Māltān.

From the base of the lower Himālayan ranges southward, there extends a strip of country, varying in breadth from fifty to eighty miles, watered by the innumerable affluents of the Panjāb rivers, unsurpassed in the world for fertility.

Here are Lāhōr, Umritsīr, Dīnanagar, Battāla, Sealkōt, Gujarānwāla, Rāmānagar, and Gujarāt.

The centres of all the Doābs are wastes overgrown with grass and bushes, inhabited by lawless, nomad, pastoral tribes. Yet the whole is covered with ruins of cities and temples. These cities and monuments are Muhammedan.

The sterile Sind-Sāgar Doāb is divided into two parts by the Salt Range, which, broken by the Indus, stretches over to the Suleimān mountains. Its inexhaustible veins of rock salt are of immense value. There are three considerable towns in this Doāb, viz., Rāwal Pindī, Chakawāl, and Pind Dādan Khān.

§ 4. The Trans-Indus frontier, with the Dērajāt, or *encamping grounds* of the three great Afgān chiefs in the invasions of Ahmed Abdālī. (Ch. iii. § 18.) Here we have :—

- (1.) The province of *Peshāwar*.

This contains the divisions of *Eusofzye*, *Hastnagar*, and *Peshāwar* proper. The city of *Peshāwar*, the frontier cantonment of British India, is eighteen miles from the entrance of the Khyber Pass. It was held by Yār Muhammed, brother of Dōst Muhammed, under Ranjīt Sing.

The Five Doābs.

*(Beas.)**(Chināb.)**(Jhelum.)*

The Bari the most important. (Prop. Anrīla-Saras = the fountain of nectar.) The Fertile Sub-Himālayan Plain.

The Centres of the Doābs.

The Salt Range.

The Trans-Indus Frontier.

Peshāwar (or, *Peishāwar*).
(Zye = son.)

CHAP. XI. § 5-7.

Hill Tribes. Cashmir.

The Valleys.

- (2.) The Valley of Kohât.
- (3.) The Valley of Bannu.
- (4.) The Valley of Mawât.
- (5.) The Valley of Esa Keyl.
- (6.) The Tank Valley.

The Dêrajât
(= place of
tents.)

- (7.) The Dêrajât, with Dêra Ismael Khân, Dêra Fatih Khân, and Dêra Ghâzî Khân.
- (8.) The important eommercial towns of Kâlabâgh and Mithan-Kôt.

Hill Tribes.

Various lawless hill tribes inhabit the skirts of the Suleimân range. The Afrîdis, who hold the Khyber and Kohât Passes, are the most important.

§ 5. In the Jullindhur (or Julindar) Doâb is the protected state of Kapurthala.

The Kapurthala
Râja.

The Râja is the only representative of the Sikh Khâlsâ.

Nâgarkôt
(90 miles N. E.
from Umrîtsîr.)

In the north of the Trans-Satlaj territory is Kangra, formerly Nâgarkôt, which was celebrated in Muhammedan times. (Ch. ii. § 8.)

Hazara.

§ 6. The district of *Hazara*. This is the extreme north-west angle of the Sind-Sâgar Doâb, between the rivers Jhîlam and Indus. It consists of a series of valleys, en-crested by hills, and has an area of 2500 square miles. The Caggars, or Ghakkars (ch. ii. § 16), were aborigines of Hazara.

The Caggars.

Cashmir.

§ 7. *Cashmîr*. This is an extensive upland plain, situate among the Himâlaya mountains, more than half-way up their height. It is elliptical, and widens toward Islamâbâd. It is about sixty miles from north to south, and 110 miles from east to west. It was once the bed of a large lake, said to have been drained by Kâsyapa. It is watered by the Jhîlam, which traverses it from east to west. Rice, wheat, barley, and a variety of fruits are produced at different elevations. It is especially famed

Produce of Cash-
mîr.

Cashmīr. Cis-Satlaj States.

CHAP. XI. § 8.

for its shawls, made from the wool of the Tibetan goat. Saffron is also produced largely.

Cashmīr had been governed by Hindū chiefs from remote antiquity, but was overrun by Mahmūd of Ghaznī, in A.D. 1012. (Ch. ii. § 8.) The Tatār chiefs held it till it was conquered by Akbar. [Ch. iii. § 6 (17).]

Ahmed Shāh Abdālī next took possession of it. (Ch. iii. § 22.) The Afgān governor made himself independent in 1809. In 1846 the British made it over to Golāb Sing, whose son now rules it. (Ch. x. § 129.)

Its chief towns are Srinagar, on the Jhīlam, and Islam-ābād.

§ 8. The *Cis-Satlaj States*.

(1.) The first of these, *Pattiāla*, a protected state. The division of the Sikhs south of the Satlaj was called the *Mālwā Sikhs*, in distinction from those of the Panjāb, who were called *Manjhā Sikhs*. Of those on the south, the chief was the *Phulkean* tribe (from *Phul*, their ancestor, a peasant), and at the head of these is the Rāja of Pattiāla. They are Jāts. His territories were enlarged after the mutinies of 1857, as an acknowledgment of his unwavering fidelity to the paramount power. From 1808 (ch. x. § 67) a political agent has been stationed at Umbāla, for the protection of these Cis-Satlaj chiefs. The great-grandfather of the present Rāja, Allā Sing, was a poor peasant, but raised himself. In this state is *Batinda* (ch. ii. § 7), a grand old fortress, exceeding any of those erected by the Moguls.

(2.) *Jhīnd*, also a protected state. The origin of this state is like that of Pattiāla. The Rāja, Surūp Sing, was faithful in 1857, and was the first man who appeared in arms before Delhi, on the British side, after the outbreak. He was rewarded with a lakh of rupees per annum.

(3.) *Nabha* (or *Nabba*), the third protected state. The Rāja of this small territory is a relative of the two preced-

Summary of
Cashmīrian His-
tory.

Cis-Satlaj States.

Pattiāla.
(Pati-ālaya = the
chief's abode.)

(117 miles
N.N.W. from
Delhi.)

Pattiāla Faith-
ful.

English Resident
at Umbāla.
(Ambālaya.)

Batinda.

Jhīnd.
(The Town is 67
miles N.W. from
Delhi.)

The Rāja Faith-
ful in 1857.

Rewarded.

Nabha.

CH. XI. § 9-14.
A. D. 1001.

Summary of Panjâb History to 1414.

Faithful and
Rewarded.

ing Râjas. He was also faithful during the mutinies of 1857, and has been rewarded.

British Territory
South of the
Satlaj.

(4.) The British territory on the south of the Satlaj has been divided into five districts :—(a) Ferôz-pûr, (b) Lûdi-âna, (c) Umbâla, (d) Tanêshwar, (e) Simla.

(Comp. Intro.
§ 10.)

There are altogether, besides the three more important states, six other dependent states, and fifty dependent chiefships in the Cis-Satlaj circle.

Darius and Alex-
ander in the
Panjâb.
B. C. 518.
B. C. 327.

§ 9. The accounts of the conquest of the Panjâb by Darius, and by Alexander the Great [ch. i. (ii.) § 17-18], are the first glimpses of authentic Indian history afforded us.

Porus.

In the time of Alexander, *Porus*, who was the principal chief, possessed but one-eighth of the whole. It was occupied by a multitude of petty rulers.

Bactrians.

§ 10. The Panjâb was then under the Bactrian kings [ch. i. (ii.) § 19] till B. C. 126.

Muhammedans.

§ 11. Mohâlib, in A. D. 664, and Kâsim, in 711, conquered Mûltân, but seem to have advanced no further. (Ch. ii. § 4.)

Jeipâl, A. D. 1001.

§ 12. The next person connected with Panjâb history is Jeipâl. He is called King of Lâhôr, but was probably a Râjpût King of Delhi, who had annexed Lâhôr to his dominions. His contests, and those of his son, with the first Muhammedan invaders, are related in chap. ii. § 6, 7, &c.

Lâhôr occupied
by Muhamme-
dans, A. D. 1022.

Lâhôr the Mu-
hammedan
Capital.]

§ 13. Masâud II. (ch. ii. § 14) resided at Lâhôr, and there Khûsrû Malik, the last of the race of Mahmûd of Ghaznî, died in 1186. (Ch. ii. § 15.)

The Ghakkars.

§ 14. The Ghakkars took Lâhôr in 1203, but were ex-

Summary from 1414 to Akbar's Conquest.

CH. XI. § 15-20.
A. D. 1414.

pelled by Muhammed Ghôrî, who conquered the whole of the Panjâb.

§ 15. For centuries the Panjâb was subject to Delhi, and became the battlefield where the Moguls and Afgâns fought for the possession of India. Its viceroys often rebelled ; but it was not till 1414 that one of these, Khizr Khân, usurped the supreme power, and reigned in Delhi, nominally as a viceroy of Tamerlane. (Ch. ii. § 45-46.)

Under Delhi.

The Four Seiads.

§ 16. The Lôdis were from the Panjâb (ch. ii. § 47), and their accession to the throne of Delhi re-united the province to the empire, if empire it could then be called.

The Lôdis,
A. D. 1450.

§ 17. Doulat Khân Lôdî, the Viceroy of the Panjâb, united with Bâber to invade India.

A. D. 1526.

Lahôr was taken and burnt, as the preliminary to the Mogul conquest of India.

Bâber burns
Lâhôr.

§ 18. The Panjâb was yielded by Humâyûn to his brother Kâmrân, who was compelled to cede it to Shîr Shâh [ch. iii. § 4 (5)] and flee to Kâbul. Shîr Shâh then founded Rôhtas, which he named after his favourite stronghold between the Ganges and the Sône.

Under Kâmrân.

Shîr Shâh Sûr,
1540.

It cost him £1,500,000.

§ 19. Sikander Sûr, a nephew of Shîr Shâh, proclaimed himself king of the Panjâb in 1554, and was driven into Sirhind by the returning Humâyûn, who took possession of Lâhôr early in 1555.

The Sûrs, 1551.

Humâyûn Re-
turns, 1555.

§ 20. Akbar was compelled to repel several invasions of the Panjâb made by his brother Mirza Hakîm ; and in 1581 Râja Bhagavân Dâs was made viceroy. (Ch. ii. § 6.)

Akbar's Brother-
in-law is Viceroy,
1581.

Cashmîr was conquered by Akbar in 1586. The tribes who occupy the hills around the plain of Peshâwar, the

Akbar Conquers
Cashmîr, 1586.

CH. XI. § 21-23.
A. D. 1686.

The Sikhs and their Gurūs.

Yusufzyes and Roshenîyes, gave Akbar much trouble, and were never thoroughly repressed. Their descendants are at perpetual war with the English to this day.

Prince Khûsrû,
1605.

§ 21. Lâhôr was the residence of Khûsrû, who was a near relative of Râja Bhagavân Dâs, and it was the scene of his bitter humiliation. (Ch. iii. § 7.)

The Sikhs.

§ 22. The frequent wars of the Mogul emperors with the Afgâns of Kâbul and Kandahâr rendered Lâhôr of great importance; but the Sikhs, in due time, became more formidable than the Afgâns themselves. The rise of the Sikh power was, in fact, about contemporaneous with our own in India. [Ch. iii. § 10 (5).] To ourselves the SIKH name gives the Panjâb its greatest interest. They have been our worthiest antagonists, and are now among our firmest friends.

Nanak, 1526.

Guru Govind,
1675.

Banda, 1707.

Mis "Disciples."

It was in 1675 that *Guru Govind*, the tenth spiritual chief in succession from Nanak, formed the seat of the Sikhs (= *disciples*) into a religious and military commonwealth, or KHĀLSĀ (= *pure*). In their training there was a combination of the asectic and the knightly character. Cruel persecution converted them into relentless, gloomy fanatics, equally ready to inflict and to suffer the most cruel torments. [Ch. iii. § 12 (9).]

They were saved from utter extermination only by the breaking up of the Mogul empire upon the death of Aurungzib.

The Panjâb
under the Af-
gâns, 1751.

§ 23. In 1738 an invading army again marched through the Panjâb, under Nâdir Shâh; and again three times under the Afgân Ahmed Khân, of the Abdâlî or Durânî tribe, in 1747-1759. From 1751 the province was severed from the Mogul Empire. (Ch. iii. § 15-18, 19, 20.)

The Life of the "Lion of the Panjāb."

CII. XI, § 24-26.
A. D. 1809.

§ 24. The British Government came into contact with the Sikhs in 1809. The chiefs then applied to the Governor-General to protect them from the encroachments of Ranjīt Sing. These chiefs were independent of one another, and were divided into twelve confederacies called MISLS (= *confederations*). (Ch. x. § 67.) The treaty of *Umritsār* was then concluded between Lord Minto and the Rāja (§ 26).

The Sikhs and Ranjīt Sing in 1809.

§ 25. RANJĪT SING was born November 2, 1780, and died 27th June 1839. He first rose into importance in 1798, when he recovered some guns for Zemān Shāh, which had been lost in the Jhīlam. He was then appointed Governor of Lāhōr, by the Afgān monarch, in his eighteenth year. (Ch. x. § 38.)

The Early History of Ranjīt Sing.

In 1803 he proposed to Lord Lake to form a defensive and offensive alliance, on condition that the territory occupied by the Sikhs south of the Satlaj should be made over to him. This was declined.

Seeks the British Alliance, 1803.

The life of the wily Sikh was given up to the one idea of enlarging his territory, and improving his army for this purpose. Colonel Allard and Colonel Ventura, two of Napoleon's old officers, and Generals Court and Avitabile, entered his service in 1822, and under their training the Sikh army became most effective.

His French Generals.

§ 26. In 1809, the Sikh Sirdārs of Jhīnd, Kytul, and Pattiāla appealed to Lord Minto (§ 24). Mr Metcalfe was sent as an ambassador to Lāhōr. A present of horses was afterwards sent to Ranjīt Sing by Lord Ellenborough, when he was President of the Board of Controul. These were conveyed up the Indus by Alexander Burnes, afterwards famous in Kābul. In 1831 Lord W. Bentinck had an interview with Ranjīt Sing at Rūpar, on the Satlaj, conducted with extraordinary pomp and magnificence, when an assurance of perpetual amity was given him by

Charles Metcalfe in Lāhōr, 1809.

Rūpar, 1831.
The Indian
"Field of the
Cloth of Gold."

CH. XI. § 27, 28.
A. D. 1839.

Ranjit Sing and his Successors.

His unswerving attachment to the English. (Ch. x. § 110, n.)

His Army.

Ranjit's Successors, 1839-1845.

II.
Kurruk Sing, 1840.

III.
Nihâl Sing.

IV.
Shîr Sing.

Dhulip Sing.

1845.
Intrigues.

War with England imminent.

the Governor-General. Till his death, which occurred while he was co-operating with the British in the ill-fated attempt to restore Shâh Shuja to the dominion of Afgânistân, he maintained an undeviating course of friendly conduct towards our Government. His army numbered 82,000 men. His artillery consisted of 376 guns and as many swivels. He was the most remarkable ruler in the East in his day.

§ 27. The death of "the Lion of the Panjâb" was the signal for strife and confusion. The chiefs he had held in subjection, and the kinsmen who aspired to succeed, began to contend in the usual method of Eastern kingdoms.

Kurruk Sing, an imbecile, succeeded. He died on 5th of November 1840, after a reign of four months, not without suspicion of poison. His son, *Nihâl Sing*, was killed (by a supposed accident) on the day of his accession, and his uncle, *Shîr Sing*, seized the reins of government, aided chiefly by *Dian Sing*, the favourite minister of *Ranjît Sing*. This man in 1843 caused both *Shîr Sing* and his son to be assassinated, and anarchy ensued till 1845, when, after many bloody episodes, *Dhulip Sing*, son of *Ranjît Sing*, by his favourite wife *Chând Kowr*, was acknowledged as "Mahârâja," *Hîra Sing* being prime minister, and the *Sirdâr*s, or chiefs, constituting themselves a council. To the whole government was given the name of the *KHÂLSÂ*, or the pure.

§ 28. In 1845 (ch. x. § 12) the most prominent persons there were *Gholâb Sing* of *Jumû*, the *Ulysses* of the *Panjâb*; *Lâl Sing*, the paramour of the Queen-mother, and her brother *Jowaher Sing*; and *Chatter Sing*, the commander of the forces. After several massacres *Lâl Sing* became *Vazîr*. It seemed clear that the large and well-trained *Sikh* army would not long refrain from some outrage; and the Governor-General, *Lord Hardinge*, prepared

The First Panjâb War. I. Mûdkî. II. Ferôz-Shâh.

CH. XI. § 29-31.
A. D. 1845.

himself, by increasing the number of British troops between Mîrut and the Satlaj to 32,000 men, with sixty-eight field-pieces. The wily Sikh chiefs saw an easy way of getting rid of a troublesome army by urging them on to cross the Satlaj, and attack the hated English.

§ 29. On 11th December 1845, the Sikh army began to cross the Satlaj, and took up its position not far from Ferôz-pûr. They were numerous, well trained, and glowing with enthusiasm. On the 13th December 1845, Sir H. Hardinge issued a proclamation, setting forth the unprovoked aggression committed by the Sikh soldiery, and calling upon the protected chiefs to aid the British Government against the common enemy. THE FIRST PANJÂB WAR, which lasted exactly two months, had commenced.

The Sikhs cross the Satlaj, Dec. 11, 1845.

The Proclamation of Dec. 13.

The First Panjâb War.

§ 30. The first battle took place between the Umbâla and Lûdiâna divisions of the British army and the Sikhs under Lâl Sing. The armies met at Mûdkî, about twenty miles from Ferôz-pûr. (Lord) Gough's army consisted of 11,000 men, and the Sikhs had 30,000 men, with 40 guns. Under Gough were, among others, the brave generals Sir H. Smith, Sir Walter Gilbert, and Sir J. M'Caskill. The Sikhs were defeated, losing 17 guns. The English had 215 killed and 657 wounded. The charge of the British infantry soon decided the battle. Sir R. Sale and Sir J. M'Caskill, brother heroes of the Afgân war, fell in this battle.

Dec. 13, 1845—
Feb. 13, 1846.I.
MûDKÎ, Dec. 13,
1845.

Sale and M'Caskill fall.

§ 31. The next day the Governor-General, who had joined the camp, waiving his rank as Governor-General, placed himself as second under Sir H. Gough. Sir John Littler, from Ferôz-pûr, with 5000 troops, now joined the main body, and a combined attack was made upon the Sikh encampment at Ferôz-Shâh, about ten miles from Mûdkî, and about the same distance from Ferôz-pûr. The

The Governor-General a Volunteer.

II.
FERÔZ-SHÂH,
Dec. 21, 1845.
(Or, *Feroz-Shuhur*.)

CHAP. XI. § 31.
A. D. 1845.

The First Panjāb War. II. Ferōz-Shāh.

enemy had entrenched themselves in a camp in the form of a horse-shoe, a mile long and half a mile deep. They had upwards of a hundred guns, well appointed and served, and about 30,000 men. An equal number lay on the further bank of the Satlaj. On the 21st December the whole British army was brought in front of this entrenched camp. The assault began an hour before sunset, and during that remarkable night the English and the Sikhs were mingled on the battlefield in utter confusion.

The Night of
Dec. 21.

Sir H. Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough bivouacked with their troops in the bitter cold, without food or covering, waiting with anxiety for the eventful dawn. The Sikhs stood to their guns so nobly, that when night fell, they still held their camp, and our men lay down where they had fought, weary, hungry, and far from enthusiastic. Sir Henry himself, about midnight, led two regiments to silence a battery which was annoying our men. Some talked of retreat, but that would have roused all Upper India against us. Sir H. Gough, Sir H. Hardinge, and their brave subordinates, were not men to speak of retreat. At daybreak Hardinge placed himself at the head of the left, and Gough rode at the head of the right wing, and by one rapid, daring movement, swept the enemy out of their encampment and the village of Ferōz-Shāh. Then, after sweeping the camp and dislodging the enemy from their whole position, "the line," to use Gough's own words, "halted, as if on a day of manœuvre, receiving the two leaders with a cheer, and displaying the captured standards of the Khālsā army." Seventy-three cannon had been taken. Six hundred and ninety-four of the British army had been killed, and 1721 wounded. The British army was too much exhausted to pursue.

The Renewed
Battle, Dec. 22.

Complete Vic-
tory.

Later in the day, Têj Sing, with a fresh body of troops, came down upon the exhausted British force. The ammunition was spent, but Sir H. Gough moved on his cavalry to attack their flanks, and prepared his wearied in-

The First Panjāb War. III. Alīwāl. IV. Sobrāon.

CH. XI. § 32, 33.
A.D. 1846.

fantry for one more charge. But the Sikhs, awed by the resolute demeanour of our men, suddenly retreated, and the field was our own. The Sikhs had suffered terribly, but the loss of the British was also very great, and it was generally felt that we had purchased the victory at too dear a rate.

Dearly Bought.

§ 32. There was now a pause. For a month the British force lay all but inactive, waiting for reinforcements and supplies. The Sikhs again crossed the Satlaj, in front of Lūdiāna, with a train of seventy pieces of artillery.

A Month of
Waiting, Jan.
1846.

On the 28th January was fought the decisive battle of *Alīwāl*. Sir Harry Smith, with a small body of troops, had been sent towards Lūdiāna to deter the increasing bodies of Sikhs from crossing the Satlaj. In this march he was encountered by a body of the enemy under Golāb Sing, at *Buddowāl*, and was not able to attack them, but suffered severely from their fire. This was looked upon by the Sikhs as a victory; but, in a few days, having been reinforced by the brigades of Godby, Wheeler, Forster, and Wilson, he marched out and attacked them at Alīwāl. The Sikhs had been disciplined by General Avitabile, and the gunners were especially efficient. But they were driven into the river by the steady advance of the British soldiers who hemmed them in. They lost fifty-six guns and all their stores of every kind. This victory determined the Muhammedan chiefs on the Cis-Satlaj border, who now openly hailed the defeat of their Sikh oppressors. Golāb Sing too began to negotiate with the British authorities.

III.
Alīwāl, Jan. 28,
1846.

Buddowāl.

Golāb Sing.

§ 33. It only remained for the British to force the passage of the Satlaj, and take possession of the Panjāb. The Sikhs entrenched themselves at *Sobrāon*, on both banks of the Satlaj. Their camp was connected by a strong bridge of boats, that seemed to say the Sikhs were determined to

IV.
SOBRĀON, Feb.
10, 1846.

CHAP. XI. § 34.
A.D. 1846.

The Conclusion of the First Panjāb War.

Shām Sing.

maintain a position in British territory. They had one noble leader, the aged Shām Sing.

The Sikhs driven
into and across
the Satlaj.

Sir Harry Smith now joined the commander-in-chief, and a siege train from Delhi having arrived, Sir Hugh drew out his forces crescent-wise along the whole Sikh front, and the battle began before dawn on the morning of February 10. After a terrific cannonade, kept up for three hours, and replied to with equal energy by the Sikh batteries, it was determined to carry the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet. This was done. Sir Harry Smith, Sir W. Gilbert, and Sir Joseph Thackwell, won the left and centre of the Sikh position in gallant style. Shām Sing, of Attari, in white garments, devoted himself to death, and fell at length on a heap of his countrymen. After two hours of close fighting, the wreck of the Sikh army was in full retreat across the river. Eight thousand of these gallant, but unfortunate and misguided men, fell either in the battle or in the attempt to cross the river. The British had 320 killed, and 2063 wounded. Sir R. Dick fell at the head of his men. Sir H. Hardinge was to be seen riding about in the hottest of the fire. The Panjāb now lay at the mercy of England.

The Panjāb occu-
pied, Feb. 1846.

§ 34. On the 13th February the whole British force crossed the Satlaj, and on the 14th a proclamation was issued taking possession of the Panjāb, and announcing the terms on which its occupation would be relinquished. These were marked by moderation and wisdom.

The Terms.
Annexation.

(1.) The Jullindhur Doāb between the Satlaj and the Biās was annexed.

(2.) Cashmîr and Hazara were retained.

The Mahārāja.

(3.) Dhulip Sing was to be sovereign of Lāhôr, under a council of regency; and a British Resident was appointed, "with full authority to direct and controul all matters in every department of the state till September 1854, when

The Interval between the First and Second Wars.

CH. XI. § 35, 36.
A. D. 1846.

the young Mahârâja would attain the age of sixteen years. The first Resident was Sir Henry Lawrence, and the second Sir F. Currie.

Resident.

(4.) A million and a half sterling was to be paid as part indemnity for the expenses of the war.

Indemnity.

(5.) A British force was left in Lâhôr for the protection of the Mahârâja.

British Contingent.

(6.) Golâb Sing, the Râja of Jumû, the chosen Minister of the Khâlsâ, was appointed Râja of Cashmîr, on the payment of one million sterling. The final arrangement was ratified by the Governor-General on the 26th December 1846. (Comp. ch. x. § 128-131.)

Cashmîr handed over to Golâb Sing.

This treaty was signed at Lâhôr.

First Treaty of Lâhôr.

§ 35. The thanks of both houses of Parliament were voted to the gallant army. Sir H. Hardinge and Sir Hugh Gough were raised to the peerage, and Sir H. Smith was made a baronet. General Gilbert was knighted. A donation of twelve months' batta was also given to the troops. The Governor-General, after arranging these matters, left Lâhôr in January 1847.

Honours.

§ 36. In 1846 a rebellion broke out in Cashmîr against Golâb Sing. The instigator was discovered to be Lâl Sing, the infamous paramour of the Queen-mother. He was sent to the fort of Âgra. The intriguing Chând Kowr herself was sent a prisoner to Shaik-pura, twenty-five miles from Lâhôr, in August 1847, as her constant intrigues destroyed the peace of the kingdom.

Chând Kowr and Lâl Sing, 1847.

In March 1848 Sir F. Currie succeeded Sir Henry Lawrence as Resident of Lâhôr. At the same time, Mûl-râj, the Governor of Mûltân, was negotiating to be relieved from his arduous duties, and Sirdâr Khân Sing, accompanied by Mr Vans Agnew, a Bengâl civilian, and Lieutenant Anderson, proceeded thither to be installed as his successor. These two Englishmen were assassinated with every circumstance of savage wanton barbarity. "You

Sir F. Currie.

Assassination of Vans Agnew and Anderson, 1848.

CHAP. XI. § 37.
A. D. 1848.

The Mûltân Outbreak.

Mûlrâj's Con-
duct.

can kill me if you like, but others will avenge my death," were Anderson's last words.

If Mûlrâj did not actually arrange the assassination, he rewarded the murderers, and summoned his followers to defend the fort. The reason for the change of purpose in Mûlrâj seems to have been the indignity put upon him by appointing a Lâhôr Sirdâr to succeed him. He would, it is said, have gladly resigned the district to be taken absolutely by the British Government.

Mûltân.

§ 37. *Mûltân*, so often mentioned in this history, was a city celebrated for its strength. In the days of Alexander, it was the capital of the Malli, from whom it obtained its name. The province is chiefly inhabited by Jâts (*Getæ, Goths*), descendants of the Scythian invaders. (Ch. i. § 20.) A Muhammedan viceroy ruled there in the days of the Moguls. Conquered by Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî (in 1759), it belonged to Kâbul till 1816, when Ranjit Sing annexed it to the Panjâb. Bhâwalpûr alone remained under its own Muhammedan Khân. Lalla Mûlrâj was governor of the district of Mûltân in 1848. It had been resolved to replace him by Sirdâr Khân Sing, and this was believed to be agreeable to Mûlrâj himself, as well as to all the Sikhs; but the Sikh soldiery joined with Mûlrâj, when they were induced to revolt, and the result was an outbreak, and the murder, as mentioned above, of Messrs Vans Agnew and Anderson. A holy war against Feringhis was now proclaimed. Bhâwal Khân, of Bhâwalpûr, stood firm as our ally. Colonel Cortlandt (commanding at Dera Ismael Khân), and Lieutenant Herbert Edwardes, whose energy and determination speedily gave him the lead, raised a few Sikhs and Patâns, and meeting on the 20th May, won the hard-fought battle of Kineri, on the Chinâb, about twenty miles from Mûltân, on the anniversary of Waterloo, 1848.

Bhâwalpûr.

Bhâwal Khân.

Battle of Kineri,
1848.

The victory of Suddosam, July 1, gained by Edwardes,

The General Insurrection of 1848.

CH. XI. § 38-40.
A. D. 1848.

Cortlandt, and Lake, shut up Mûlrâj in his fort, which was invested ; but troops and guns were wanting for the capture of a strong fort a mile in circumference. Meanwhile it was believed that the outbreak was merely local ; but the restless Queen-mother's influence was at work, and a plot was discovered for the massacre of all the Europeans in Lâhôr. The Queen-mother was then sent to Benâres.

Battle of Saddo-
sam, July 1,
1848.

Chând Kowr.

§ 38. It was not till the 5th of September that a field force, with a siege train, under the command of Major-General Whish, commenced in earnest the siege of Mûltân. The success of the siege was delayed for a while by the treachery of Râja Shîr Sing, who, with five thousand men, went over to the enemy. General Whish, safely and commodiously encamped about seven miles off, was compelled to wait for reinforcements.

General Whish
before Mûltân.

§ 39. Meanwhile the whole Panjâb had risen. Chattar Sing was offering to restore Peshâwar to Dôst Muhammed, as the price of aid from Afgânistân, and Golâb Sing was waiting to see which side was likely to gain. Major George Lawrence was taken prisoner at Peshâwar, and Colonel Abbott was besieged in Attock. It was well that the Sikhs now, since they could not reconcile themselves to the new order of things, should openly and unitedly rise against their rulers, so as to render it necessary to give them the benefit of a strong and beneficial government once for all.

The whole Pan-
jâb rises.

§ 40. The Sikh chiefs were not satisfied. A wide-spread conspiracy, which had long existed in the Sikh army, speedily developed into the SECOND PANJĀB WAR, which lasted till February 1849. The glorious storming of Mûltân (January 21, 1849) ; the questionable victory of Chillianwallah (January 13, 1849) ; and the complete and decisive success at Gujârât. (February 21, 1849), led to

THE SECOND
PANJĀB WAR.

Summary.

CH. XI. § 41, 42.
A. D. 1849.

The Second Panjāb War. Mūltān. Chillianwallah.

Cavalry Skirmish at Rām-nagar.

the final annexation of the Panjāb (March 29, 1849). An army, headed by Lord Gough, had now marched past Lāhōr, across the Ravi, and was encamped on the further bank. The enemy were in force at Rām-nagar, and it was desirable to drive them across the Chināb. This was done; but in a splendid cavalry charge, Colonel Havelock, of the 14th Dragoons, and General Cureton were killed. It was "*a victory where nothing was gained.*"

Storming of Mūltān, Jan. 3, 1849.

§ 41. Meanwhile, at Mūltān, an attack of Mūlrāj upon General Whish's encampment was repelled with immense loss to the enemy, by Edwardes, Cortlandt, and Markham. And now reinforcements having arrived from Bombay, the siege was renewed; and on the 27th December, a combined attack was made on the city, which was stormed, after some days of continuous fighting, on the 3d January; and, after a determined resistance, Mūlrāj surrendered the citadel itself. The bodies of Anderson and Vans Agnew were disinterred, and borne in solemn procession to the topmost point of the citadel, where they were buried. Edwardes was put in charge of the captured city, and General Whish—his work well done—joined Lord Gough. Mūlrāj was sent off a prisoner to the Governor-General at Lāhōr.

Mūlrāj a Prisoner.

I.
Chillianwallah,
Jan. 12, 1849.

§ 42. On the 10th Lord Gough's army moved on, and on the 12th came in sight of Shīr Sing's army, near the now famous *Chillianwallah*. Here, at 3 P.M., in a most unfavourable ground, amid jungles and brushwood, was fought a battle, of which the plan had never been arranged, and in which any but British troops must have been defeated. The enemy were driven off the field, and forty guns taken; yet at nightfall, General Gough had to retire a mile to a convenient camping-ground. The loss was unequalled in any of our Indian battles, being 38 officers, 53 serjeants or havildars, and 511 privates. The wounded

Terrible Loss and
Doubtful Victory.

The Second Panjāb War. The Conclusive Victory of Gujārāt.

CHAP. XI. § 43.
A. D. 1849.

were 1600 of all ranks. The loss of the enemy trebled our own. Shīr Sing, however, fired a royal salute from the heights of Rasūl that evening, and claimed the victory.

Public opinion in India and England was now excited. Lord Gough's rashness was the theme of every conversation; Sir C. Napier was appointed to supersede him, and with half a day's notice was on his way to India. But ere the news had reached England, the glorious, decisive, and almost bloodless battle of Gujārāt had shown how the preceding battle had weakened the foe. Instead of retiring on the Jhīlam, the Sīkhs had taken possession of Gujārāt, not far from Vazīrābād, the scene of Alexander's victory over Porus, and of some great victories won by the Khālsā in former days: *the Pānīpat of the Panjāb*.

§ 43. On the morning of the 20th February 1849, Lord Gough, with an army of 24,000 men, and ninety guns, met for the last time the Sikh army. The battle of Gujārāt completed the overthrow of the Khālsā. Lord Gough himself led on the right, and Sir J. Thackwell the left wing of the army. More use was made on this occasion of our artillery, the terrible effect of which has seldom been more seen than in this battle. The Sīkhs fought bravely, but were driven from the field in utter confusion, and pursued for fourteen miles by our cavalry. By the evening of the 21st fifty-six guns had been taken. Their standards, camp equipage, and stores all fell into the hands of the victors, who lost only ninety-two killed and 700 wounded. General Gilbert, the "flying general," steadily followed up the fugitives, until, on the 8th March, Shīr Sing himself came into the camp. At Hurmak thousands of Sīkhs laid down their arms, and received a rupee each as they added their weapons to the vast pile of swords, matchlocks, spears, shields, and camel-guns. On the 14th, at Rāwal Pīndī, the same scene was repeated, until more than sixteen thou-

Lord Gough's
Rashness Cen-
sured.
Sir C. Napier
Appointed to
Command.

II.
Gujārāt, Feb.
20, 1849.
(60 miles N. of
Lāhōr.)
Splendid and
Decisive Victory.

General Gilbert's
Pursuit.
Shīr Sing's Sur-
render.
The Sīkhs Dis-
banded.

CHAP. XI. § 44.
A. D. 1849.

Annexation of the Panjâb and its Consequences.

The Afgâns
Chased to the
Mouth of the
Khyber.

sand had surrendered. On the 17th, Gilbert was at Attock, and there he pursued Dôst Muhammed's flying troops past Peshâwar, to the mouth of the Khyber Pass. Thus, to use Lord Dalhousie's words, the war was carried on "to the entire defeat and dispersion of all in arms against us, whether Sikhs or Afgâns."

The Annexation
of the Panjâb.

§ 44. The annexation of the whole country of the Five Rivers was the just, natural, and necessary result. The clemency of Lord Hardinge had been thrown away. British officers had been imprisoned and murdered. Every obligation had been violated by these faithless chiefs. On the 28th March, the Mahârâja Dhulip Sing signed in open durbar the treaty which conveyed the realms of Ranjît to the British. A pension of fifty thousand pounds per annum was given to the young Râja. Among other spoils, the Kôh-i-nûr (hill of light), the largest diamond in the world, was taken and set aside for the Queen of England, who wears it now in a brooch at her levees. From a prince of Mâlwa it had been taken by one of the Lôdis; and Ranjît Sing had obtained it from Shâh Shuja, who had inherited it from Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî.

The Justice of
the Annexation.

Dhulip Sing.

The Kôh-i-nûr.

Second Treaty of
Lâhôr.
The Panjâb
Heroes.

This treaty may be called the second treaty of Lâhôr.

The names of the Panjâb heroes—Gough, Gilbert, Thackwell, Colin Campbell, Cheape, Wheeler, Tennant, Edwardes, Lake, Taylor, Herbert, Abbott, and Cortlandt—will ever shine in the annals of British India.

The Fate of the
Panjâb Leaders.

The Sikh leaders were still restless and treacherous; and eventually were sent to Fort William, where they remained in arrest for some years. Mûlrâj was tried for the murder of Vans Agnew and Anderson, and found guilty; but his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life. The Mahârâja Dhulip Sing was thoroughly educated; and, while still a youth, embraced the Christian faith. He subsequently married a Christian lady of Arabic extrac-

The Mahârâja.

Administration of the Panjāb, 1849-1869.

CH. XI. § 45, 46.
A. D. 1849.

tion, and is living in England a dignified and useful life. On him the battle of Gujārāt entailed no real loss.

§ 45. The Governor-General had now to arrange the details of a new system of government for the Panjāb. It was made what is called a "non-regulation" province. A Commission, consisting of Sir Henry Lawrence, Mr John Lawrence (since Governor-General of India), Mr Mansell, and Mr Montgomery, was appointed, to which the administration of the country was intrusted. Assistants, civil and military, were appointed in the five circles of Lāhōr, Jhīlam, Mūltān, Leia, and Peshāwar. The whole number of covenanted and commissioned officers was eighty-four. The names of many of these men have become household words; but the details of their work must be studied in the famous reports of the Panjāb administration.

The Famous Panjāb Commission.

§ 46. In February 1853, it was judged desirable to replace this Board of Commissioners by a Chief Commissioner; and Sir John Lawrence was appointed to that office, which he filled till the assumption of the government of India by the Crown.

The Chief Commissioner, Sir J. Lawrence, 1853-1858.

The history of the Panjāb and its rulers during the rebellion of 1857 must be read in chap. x. § 17, 18.

It has now a Lientenant-Governor, and the province of Delhi has been added to its jurisdiction. (Comp. Intro. § 10.)

The Panjāb during the Mutinies. Its Present Government.

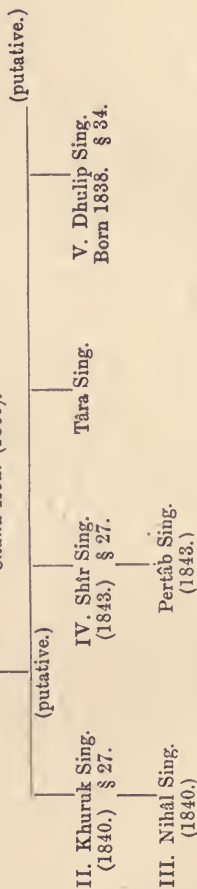
The curious fact that Mahārāja Dhulip Sing presided at a missionary meeting in London in 1869, where "Lord" Lawrence, ex-Governor-General of India, spoke, may fittingly close this chapter.

§ 47. GENEALOGICAL TABLE TO ILLUSTRATE THE HISTORY OF
THE PANJĀB.

CHAPTER XI.

Mahā Sing, of the *Sukurchakee Misl*, = daughter of a Jhnd Rājā.

I. RANJIT SING. (1780, 1809, 1839.) § 25.
Chānd Koor (1863).¹



¹ Her paramour was *Lāl Sing*. (§ 28.)

CHAPTER XII.

The History of Mysore.

§ 1. Mysore (prop. *Maisûr*) is bounded on the north-west by the Collectorate of Dhârwâr; on the north-east and east by the Hyderâbâd Ceded Districts; on the south by the Collectorates of South Arcot, Salem, and Coimbatôr; and on the west by Kanara, Malabâr, and Kûrg.

It is a tableland, with a general elevation of 2000 feet above the level of the sea, having several hills of granite, gneiss, and hornblende, rising in isolated grandeur and crowned with forts. Such are Nandidrûg (4856 feet) and Saverndrûg (4004 feet).

It is divided into four districts:—

(1.) Bangalore; (2.) Ashtagrâm, of which Mysore is the chief town; (3.) Chitradrûg; (4.) Nagar. (Intro. § 14.)

Besides the other places mentioned in the history, *Dèonhalli*, the birthplace of Tippû, is to be especially noted. At Manzerâbâd, on the borders of Kûrg, are large and prosperous coffee plantations.

Many rivers rise in and about Mysore:—

(1.) The Câverî rises in Kûrg. Seringapatam is on an island in its course.

Boundaries of Mysore.

Description.

(Nandidrûg, 31 miles N. by E. from Bangalore.)
(Swarna Dûrga — Golden Fort, 20 miles W. by S. from Bangalore.)
Divisions.
(Chittledrûg.)

Dèonhalli.
(20 miles N.N.E. from Bangalore.)
(70 miles from Seringapatam, N.W.)
Rivers.
(Intro. § 34.)

CH. XII, § 2-4.
A. D. 1507.

The Antient Dynasty.

(2.) The Tûnga and the Badra, whose union forms the Tûmbhadra, and the Hugnî, a tributary of the Tûmbhadra, rise in the Ghâts between Nagar and Kûrg. The Pennâr and Pâlâr rise near Nandîdrûg.

The history of this province is divided into :—

- A. The records and traditions of the antient dynasty from 1507, to the usurpation of Hyder Ali in 1760.
- B. To the death of Hyder, in 1782.
- C. To the death of Tippû Sultan, in 1799.
- D. To the death of the Râja, in 1868.

A. FROM 1507-1760.

Antient Capitals.

§ 2. The whole KarnâtaKa country was in antient times under Balâlâ sovereigns, who were overthrown by Malik Kâfûr in 1310. (Ch. iv. § 9-17.) The capital was then Dwâra Samudra. (Ch. ii. § 28.) Its ruins are at Hallabîd, 100 miles north-west of Seringapatam. Tonûr (or Yâdâvapuri) then became the capital.

Châm Râj, the Six-fingered, 1507.

§ 3. The earliest authentic account of any settled government in the country after this is the history of a Râja or Zamîndar called (Kâm or) Châm Râj the Six-fingered, who possessed a part of the country in 1507.

Foundation of Mysore, 1524.

§ 4. His successor, Betad Châm Râj, in 1524, divided the little sovereignty among his three sons; of whom the youngest, Châm Râj the Bald, became master of the site of the present city of Mysore, where a fort was erected and called Mahisasura, from a buffalo-headed demon, said to have been slain by the wife of Siva. This is the origin of the name Mysore.

Mysore Rises to be an Independent State.

CH. XII. § 5-8.
A. D. 1565.

§ 5. The fall of the great Hindû city of Bîjanagar in 1565 (ch. iv. § 29) rendered the infant Mysore state independent.

The rulers of the various Muhammedan states did not at that time pay any attention to the petty kingdoms in the south.

The expelled Bîjanagar princes for a time took up their abode at Seringapatam, where they kept up a kind of state.

Rises as Bija-
nagar falls.*(Shri-ranga-pat-
nam.)*

§ 6. Gradually the portions of the divided territory were re-united; but it was Râj Udeiyâr (or *Wadeiyâr*) (died in 1617) who, after completing the re-union, extended the limits and greatly consolidated the power of the kingdom.

Râj Udeiyâr,
1617.

Seringapatam became the seat of the government in this reign, the Bîjanagar dynasty having become extinct. This Râja was the chief Hindû prince south of the Kishtna.

Seringapatam,
1610.

§ 7. The greatest of his descendants was Kantî-Rava Narsa Râj (1640-1659), who repelled an invasion of the Bîjapûr state, added to the fortifications of Seringapatam, established a mint, made war with Madura, and annexed several of the neighbouring petty states.

Kantî-Rava
Narsa Râj,
1640-1659,
(= the Deep-
voiced, a lion,
corrupted "*Can-
teroya.*")

§ 8. The crown now passed to a distant branch of the royal family. The two next kings were Dodda (*Senior*) Dêo Râj (1659-1672), and Chick (*Junior*) Dêo Râj (1672-1704).

Mysore between
the Dakhan
Kingdom and
the Mahrattas,
1659-1704.

Mysore, now a considerable state, had to contend with the Muhammedan power in the Dakhan, then in its zenith, as well as with the rising Mahrattas.

Sivajî possessed Ginjî and Vellora; while Tanjore, Bangalore, and other places not far off, were in the hands of Mahratta chiefs. (Ch. v. § 24.) Chick Dêo Râj prudently avoided all contact with the belligerent parties, and set

Chick Dêo Râj,
1672-1704.

CH. XII. § 9-11.
A. D. 1672.

The Decline of the Hindû Dynasty.

Despotic.

(The Jangams
are Wor-shippers
of Siva, and wear
the Lingam.)

Purchase of
Bangalore.

(Ch. v. § 7.)

The Powerful
Ministers, 1731.

Nandi Râj the
Younger.

(Ch. viii § 24)

Siege of Dêon-
halli. Hyder's
first appearance.

himself to bring his own feudatories into absolute subjection. He was the Philip Augustus of Mysore.

His government was most despotic, and his exactions drove many villagers to the neighbouring Nilagiri hills. He put down all opposition, however, by an indiscriminate massacre of the Jangam priests.

He bought Bangalore from the Tanjore Râja (Êkojî or Venkajî) for the small sum of three lakhs of rupees, and obtained from Aurungzib the title of Râja, with the privilege of sitting on an ivory throne. This throne still exists.

§ 9. The next two Râjas were Kantî-Rava and Dodda Kistna, both imbecile. The result was the virtual sovereignty of the two ministers, Dêo Râj and his cousin Nandi-Râj.

They may be said to have completely usurped all the functions of government before 1731; and they actually deposed and imprisoned the next Râja, Châm Râj. The Peishwâs in Pûna were doing the same thing at the same time. (Ch. v. § 40.)

§ 10. In 1733, Mysore was invaded by Dôt Ali, Nuwâb of the Carnatic: he was, however, defeated by Dêo Râj, whose cousin, the first Nandi Râj, had died shortly before. Nizâm-ul-Mulk now demanded tribute at the head of an army (1743), and Dêo Râj thought it better to submit.

§ 11. Dêo Râj had a younger brother, called also Nandi Râj, to whom he now made over the virtual sovereignty. This Nandi Râj (the second) to strengthen his position, married a daughter of the titular king, Chick Kistna Râj. We find him aiding Muhammed Ali in 1752.

In 1749, Nandi Râj undertook the siege of Dêonhalli, where Hyder Naik, then a comparatively young man, distinguished himself as a volunteer. From this time this

The Rise of Hyder Ali.

CH. XII. § 12, 13.
A. D. 1755.

remarkable person is the most prominent figure in the history.

§ 12. In 1755, Dêo Râj was compelled to pay a tribute of fifty-six lakhs of rupees to Salâbat Jung, who was aided by Bussy. There was now a quarrel between the brothers regarding the treatment of the young Râja, whom they kept in a state of splendid captivity.

Mysore Humbled
and Distracted
by Dissensions,
1756.
(Ch. iii. § 16.)

On one occasion Nandi Râj blew open the palace gates, set the trembling Râja on the musnud, and mutilated his principal adherents before his face. About this time (1756) the Mahrattas under Bâlâji Bâjî Râo appeared before Seringapatam, and compelled Nandi Râj to pay a heavy tribute, and to surrender a large portion of territory.

(Ch. v. § 66)

B. TO THE DEATH OF HYDER, 1782.

§ 13. It was now time for some strong hand to grasp the reins, and Hyder Ali stood ready. The history of Mysore henceforth is the history of this daring adventurer and that of his son.

Hyder Ali.

In 1760 he made himself master of the kingdom.

His Usurpation.

He was the grandson of a religious mendicant from the Panjâb, and the son of a brave cavalry officer. He was born at Kolâr in 1702. He entered the Mysore service at the age of thirty, and was soon promoted to the command of 50 horse and 200 infantry, with authority to augment his forces as he could. He was then put into command in the Dindigal district. There by plunder, deceit, and cunning he obtained large funds and a considerable army.

His Origin.

Hyder's History.

He now induced the minister, Nandi Râj, to resign, and had then only the Queen-mother, the young Râja, and their general, Khandi Râo, to contend with.

(A Valley formed
by Spurs of the
W. Ghâts, 75
miles long, and
20 broad.)

After a smart engagement, in which he was defeated,

Contest with
Nandi Râj, 1761.

CH. XII. § 14-17.
A.D. 1761.

Hyder Conquers Bednôr. His Struggles with the Mahrattas.

and some wily negotiations, Hyder, at last, in June 1761, received from the Râja a formal renunciation of the kingdom, three lakhs a year being assigned to the Râja for his support, and one lakh to Nandi Râj. The latter personage, being detected afterwards plotting against Hyder, was consigned to perpetual imprisonment.

Taking of Bednôr, 1763.
(Bednôr.)

§ 14. Hyder now attacked and took Bednôr, where he found immense treasures, which materially aided him in his rise. This was an æra in his history. He afterwards reduced the whole province, which was under a Nâyakan Râja. The son of Chânda Sahêb joined him about this time.

Bednôr, or Nagar, was a great city, the seat of a Viceroy of the Mangatôr Râja. It is now in ruins. Hyder gave it the name of *Hyder-nagar*, or Hyder's town. Here (§ 34) Matthews was taken prisoner and poisoned.

Eighteen miles to the north are the ruins of *IKERY*, the antient capital.

Contest with Mâdu Râo, 1765.

§ 15. In 1765, the warlike Mâdu Râo (ch. v. § 74) determined to chastise the audacious usurper, who had now 20,000 horse and 40,000 foot soldiers under his banners.

Terrible Defeat.

Hyder was signally defeated by the Mahratta hero; he was compelled to relinquish his new conquests, and to pay thirty-two lakhs of rupees.

Ragobâ, the uncle and guardian of Mâdu Râo, was the mediator between the young Peishwâ and Hyder.

Malabâr.

§ 16. In 1766, he invaded Malabâr and took Calicut, the Râja of which burnt himself in his palace to avoid captivity. (Ch. iv. § 8.)

Triple Confederacy against Hyder.

§ 17. A confederacy against Hyder was now formed by the Mahrattas and the Nizâm; into which, unfortunately, the Madras Government was drawn, by the terms of their treaty with the Nizâm.

The Mahrattas under Mâdu Râo, without waiting for

The First Mysore War with England, 1766-1769.

CH. XII. § 18-20.
A. D. 1766.

their allies, passed the Kishtna, and began to plunder; but were bought off by Hyder.

The Nizâm was also bribed by Hyder, not only to forsake the confederacy, but to join in an attack on the English. Colonel Smith, who commanded the British contingent, thus found himself with about 7000 troops and sixteen guns, opposed to an army of 70,000 with one hundred guns.

He defeated them, however, at *Changâma* (Singarpetta) and *Trinomali*, taking sixty-four guns and killing 4000 of the enemy.

NOTE.—*Trinomali* (*Tiru-annâ-malai*) is a place of great repute among the Hindûs. It is a few miles north of the Ponnâr, or Southern Penâr. *Changâma* is a little to the east. They are both in the Collectorate of South Arcot.

§ 18. It was at this time that Hyder's son, Tippû, then seventeen years of age, was employed with a body of 5000 horse in plundering up to the very gates of Madras.

§ 19. The Nizâm now sought for peace, his territories having been invaded by a Bengâl force under Colonel Peach. A peace was signed in 1768, which was in every way discreditable to the Madras Government. In this treaty Hyder was referred to with extreme contempt, as a rebel and usurper; and it was stipulated that the English should take the Carnatic Bâlaghât from him, and hold it under the Nizâm. The influence of Muhammed Alî was injuriously felt in all these negotiations.

§ 20. A force from Bombay now invaded the Western Coast, destroyed the Mysore fleet, and took Mangalore and Honore. Hyder, however, soon drove the assailants away; and the British commander abandoned even his wounded, 260 in number, to the Mysorean's fury.

NOTE.—*Mangalûr*, a very antient city, whose bazaars are crowded with every nation.

Honâwâr. There was a British factory here in 1670. Mr Best and seventeen of his companions were massacred here by the Brâhmans. It belonged to the Râni of Gerssepa. Near it are the famous Gerssepa Falls.

Mahrattas
Bribed, and the
Nizâm.THE FIRST MY-
SORE WAR, 1766-
1769.
(R. Smith came
out with Clive
in 1765.)Battles of Chan-
gâma and Trin-
omali, 1766.

Tippû.

British Treaty
with the Nizâm,
1768.Hyder badly
Treated.Hyder Trium-
phant on the
Western Coast.
(Mangalûr
= *Town of Glad-
ness*. Honâwâr.)

CH. XII. § 21, 22.
A. D. 1769.

Hyder's Struggles with the Mahrattas.

Smith Victorious
in the *Baramahâl*.
(This is a small
Province, having
Mysore on the N.
and W., Salem
on the S., and
the Central Carnatic
on the N.
and E.)
Reverses.

§ 21. The war in the *Baramahâl* and Carnatic was pushed on, however, by Colonel Smith with such energy and success, that Hyder lost eight of his principal forts and all the mountain passes, and was prepared to make considerable sacrifices for peace. The Madras Government foolishly declined. The tide now turned. Colonel Smith had been superseded; and Hyder recovered in six weeks all he had lost, and ravaged the Carnatic almost unchecked. The Madras Council now, in their turn, sued for peace. Smith was again put at the head of the army, and kept Hyder at bay. But the wily Mysorean, sending his guns, baggage, and infantry back, advanced with unexampled rapidity, with 6000 chosen cavalry, to within a few miles of Madras.

Hyder dictates a
Peace, 1769.

Here he dictated a peace, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests, with the stipulation, that "in case either of the contracting parties should be attacked, they should mutually assist one another to drive out the enemy."

Thus ended, in disgrace to the English, the FIRST MYSORE WAR, 1766-1769.

The Mahrattas
Defeat Hyder at
Chêrkûli, March
5. 1771.
(Or *Chirrikûrli*,
not far from
Seringapatam.)

§ 22. Hyder now resolved again to defy the Mahrattas, who were commanded by Trimbuck Mamâ. The result was an overwhelming defeat at Chêrkûli, and he was soon shut up in Seringapatam. Hyder was often drunk at this period; and in a drunken fit once beat Tippû with savage cruelty. Hyder, in his distress, applied, but in vain, for the promised assistance of the Madras Government; and he was at last obliged to purchase the departure of the Mahrattas by a payment of thirty-six lakhs of rupces, the promise of an annual tribute of fourteen lakhs, and the cession of territory to an extent that reduced the kingdom to almost its original size (1772). (Ch. v. § 79.)

The English
Refuse to Help
him.
His Sacrifices,
1772.

Hyder never forgave the English.

Hyder Recovers Himself. League against the English.

CH. XII. § 23-27.
A. D. 1776.

§ 23. The troubles of the Mahratta state gave the in-dominatable Mysorean time to recover himself. He attacked Kûrg; and, the people making a noble resistance, he treated them with savage ferocity, offering five rupees for the head of each male. Seven hundred heads were thus laid at his feet, and paid for by himself.

His Savage Con-
duct at Kûrg.
(Ch. v. § 83.)

Before the end of 1776 he had regained all the lost territory; and had, moreover, taken Bellârî (or Bellary), Gûti, and Savanûr. By 1778 the Kishtna was his northern boundary. In 1779 he annexed Kûrpa.

His Progress,
1776-1779.

(Or Kadapa, or
Cuddapah.)

The Mysore dominion had now reached its utmost extension.

§ 24. During this period Hyder, dreading the Mah-rattas, would willingly have made peace with the English, and offered to assist in carrying Ragobâ to Pâna. (Ch. v. § 90.) His offers were neglected.

Hyder's Offers of
Assistance Re-
jected.

§ 25. On the breaking out of war between France and England in 1778, the English took Pondicherry (held till 1783), and proposed to take Mahé. This Hyder resented. It was in his dominions, and under his protection; but the place was taken in 1779. Hyder angrily protested. The missionary Schwartz was sent as an envoy to him, but could effect nothing.

Hyder Quarrels
with the English
about Mahé,
1779.

§ 26. A confederacy was now formed, consisting of all the Mahratta chiefs (except the Gaekwâr), Hyder, and the Nizâm, to drive the English out of India. They would have succeeded, if Warren Hastings, with incomparable energy and genius, had not come to the rescue. Mr Hornby, the President of Bombay, seconded him with admirable vigour and prudence. (Ch. x. § 9.)

Triple Confede-
racy against the
English.
(Ch. v. § 101.)

§ 27. Hyder was the only one of the confederates that was thoroughly in earnest. Though he was in his seventy-

The Vast Prepa-
rations of Hyder
in 1780.

CHAP. XII. § 28.
A.D. 1780.

The Inauspicious Beginning of the Second Mysore War.

The SECOND MYSORE WAR, 1780-1784.

His Invasion of the Carnatic, July 29, 1780.

Munro.

Baillie.

Baillie's Defeat and Captivity. Pollilore, near Conjeveram, Sept. 10, 1780.

Hastings to the Rescue.

eighth year, he personally superintended every preparation for the war; and in June 1780 he had collected an army of 90,000 men, mostly trained and led by European officers, with a powerful artillery, also under European direction. England has never had to contend in India with a worthier foe.

Having caused solemn supplications for the success of his expedition to be made in every mosque and Hindû temple, he poured his mighty armament down the Chângâma Pass on the 20th of July 1780.

Ruthlessly he laid waste the whole country. Muhammed Alf's commandants treacherously abandoned to him all the forts in his way, and in a few days he was at Conjeveram, fifty miles from Madras. The SECOND MYSORE WAR had begun in good earnest.

Sir Hector Munro, who had distinguished himself in Bengâl (ch. ix. § 37), was commander-in-chief, with 5000 troops; and Colonel Baillie, in command of 2800 men, was on his way to occupy Guntûr. These bodies of troops should have been united; but Munro allowed Hyder to interpose: the result was that Baillie's force was cut up; their stores, baggage, and equipments taken; and Baillie himself, with about 200 men, was taken prisoner, after gallantly sustaining thirteen attacks of the enemy. The lives of the prisoners were saved only by the humane interposition of Hyder's French officers. Munro was no more than two miles distant, and his appearance on the spot would have converted the disaster into a decisive victory. He now retreated to Madras; and thus ended this memorable campaign of twenty-one days.

§ 28. A vessel was immediately sent to Calcutta, to bear the tidings to Hastings of the greatest reverse the English arms had ever sustained in India.

He hesitated not a moment; but bent all his energies to the one task of saving the Carnatic.

The Second Mysore War, 1780-1784.

CHAP. XII. § 29.
A. D. 1781.

In three weeks an army under the veteran Sir Eyre Coote, now commander-in-chief in Bengál, was on its way to Madras, with fifteen lakhs of rupees for the use of the army. Coote reached Madras on 5th November; but was not able to take the field till the 17th of January 1781. Meanwhile Hyder had besieged Arcot, and after six weeks took it, through the treachery of its Bráhmañman commandant. Lieutenant Flint defended Wandiwash in a manner that reminds us of Clive's defence of Arcot; but he was allowed to remain unrewarded.

Sir E. Coote in Madras, Nov. 1781.

Flint's Defence of Wandiwash.

Coote marched towards *Cuddalór*, but was obliged to remain inactive for four months for want of provisions. Hyder now determined to engage him; and, marching 100 miles in two days and a half, took up a strong position near *Porto Novo*. Coote instantly attacked him; and, after a battle which lasted six hours, obtained a decisive victory. Hyder lost 10,000 men. Tippú immediately raised the siege of Wandiwash, which the heroic Flint had thus saved.

(Gúdalúr, 16 miles S. of Pondicherry.)

The Battle of Porto Novo, 1781. (32 miles S. from Pondicherry.)

§ 29. Meanwhile, for the second time, Hastings had sent a large army by land to aid a distant Presidency. (Ch. v. § 96.) Some Bráhmañ sepoys had refused to go by sea; and had mutinied, with circumstances of peculiar atrocity. To remove the difficulty of a sea voyage, Hasting sent them along the coast by land, a distance of 700 miles.

The Second Great Land March.

Colonel Pearce marched on the 7th of January 1781; and, though he lost a great number of men by cholera in Orissa, reached Pulicat in July. Coote, by a masterly movement, effected a junction with this force on the 2d of August.

Colonel Pearce and Coote.

Hyder met Coote's combined forces, at the same spot where Baillie had been defeated, and on the anniversary of that day, according to the lunar year. His astrologers promised him another victory on that lucky spot, and on that auspicious day (August 27). Hyder lost 2000 men,

Coote avenges Baillie's Defeat on its Anniversary. The Second Battle of Polli-lore, Aug. 1781.

CH. XII. § 30, 31.
A. D. 1781.

The Second Mysore War, 1780-1784.

Battle of Sôlinghar, Sept. 27.

and Coote 400 ; but the result, though favourable, was not decisive.

A third great battle was fought at Sôlinghar, near Vellora, 27th September. Coote's victory here was complete. Hyder's loss was 5000 men, while that of the English did not exceed 100.

The Mysorean by this time had learned to tremble at the name of COOTE.

Lord Macartney, 1781.

§ 30. Lord Macartney now succeeded as Governor of Madras. War had been declared with Holland, in consequence of the Dutch having joined the "armed neutrality," a confederacy which aimed at destroying the maritime supremacy of Great Britain. Hyder Ali at once began to negotiate with the Dutch authorities at Negapatam, who gladly made a treaty with him. Lord Macartney, having a force collected from all sides, without the consent of Sir Eyre Coote, sent Sir H. Munro ; and, with the co-operation of the fleet, Negapatam was attacked and taken on the 12th of November. Stores and goods of great value were found there. The noble harbour and town of Trincomalee, in Ceylon, was taken from the Dutch in January 1782.

Intrigues with the Dutch.

(Nâgapatam.)

Trincomalee Taken, (Trincomalee.)

At the peace of Versailles in 1783 these conquests were finally made over to England.

Defeat of Colonel Braithwaite.

§ 31. At this time Colonel Braithwaite, deceived by treacherous spies, was defeated by Tippû with an overwhelming force on the banks of the Coleroon, after a heroic struggle of twenty-six hours. To counterbalance this, the garrison of Tellichêri, after having been besieged for eighteen months, made a sortie, and took 1200 of Hyder's troops prisoners, with all their baggage, ammunition, and cannon. This roused the whole Western Coast and Kûrg against their detested conqueror.

Defeat of Hyder's Troops before Tellichêri, 1782. (Tellicherry.)

Hastings' measures too were beginning to tell on the

The Death of Hyder. War Continued.

CH. XII. § 32, 33.
A. D. 1782.

position of affairs. The treaty of Salbât was signed in January 1782. (Ch. v. § 102.)

§ 32. Hyder was now beginning to despond, when a French armament under Admiral Sufferin appeared at Pulicat. Admiral Hughes encountered and defeated the Frenchman, who, however, succeeded in landing 2000 French soldiers and 1000 Africans at Porto Novo. Several indecisive engagements were fought by sea and land, of which the chief was before *Arni*, 2d July 1782. The French admiral took Trincomalee. Admiral Hughes sailed for Bombay to refit; but his fleet was dispersed by a tremendous gale, October 15. Admiral Bickerton landed 4000 English troops at Madras, and immediately set sail. Madras was a prey to famine, from which the deaths were 1500 a week. To crown all, Sir E. Coote returned at this very crisis to Bengâl. There were disagreements between him and Lord Macartney, and Coote's temper was irritable. He resigned his command ostensibly from ill-health. The prospects of the English were gloomy on every side, when tidings arrived of the death of Hyder, on the 7th of December 1782, at the age of eighty, of a carbuncle.

French Naval Expedition in aid of Hyder.

(74 miles S.W. from Madras. Hyder's Magazines were there.)

Coote Resigns.

The Death of Hyder, Dec. 1782.

Utterly uneducated, by mere force of character and will he raised himself to the lofty eminence on which he so long stood.

C. TO THE DEATH OF TIPPÛ IN 1799.

§ 33. Pûrnia and Kishna Râo, two able Brâhman ministers, concealed Hyder's death; and sent word to Tippû, who was 400 miles distant on the Malabâr Coast. Tippû reached the army on the Coromandel Coast on the 2d of January 1783; and found himself at the head of an army of 100,000 men, with three crores of rupees in his

Tippû takes Command, Jan. 1783.

OH. XII. § 34, 35.
A. D. 1783.

The Second Mysore War, 1780-1784.

Tippû on the
Western Coast,
1783.

(36 miles S. by
E. from Calicut.)

(§ 20.)

Sieges of Bednôr
and Mangalore,
Jan. 30, 1784.

General Stuart's
Failure.

Bussy again in
the Carnatic.

Death of Sir E.
Coote, 1783.

Indecisive Con-
flicts.

Bernadotte.

The French leave
Tippû's Army.

treasury, besides jewels and other valuables to an enormous amount.

§ 34. Tippû, happily for British interests, speedily set out for the Western Coast, where he imagined the greatest danger to be.

There Major Abingdon had reduced Calicut, and Colonel Humberstone and Colonel Macleod had intrenched themselves at *Pondni*.

General Matthews had taken possession of Honore; five large ships belonging to Tippû had been taken; and now Bednôr was given up to Matthews without a struggle.

This intelligence took Tippû to the spot with all his army. Bednôr was re-taken, and subsequently Mangalore; though both were defended with the utmost gallantry. These sieges cost him half his army. Matthews himself was taken prisoner.

§ 35. Meanwhile, General Stuart, who had succeeded Sir E. Coote, was not the commander to retrieve the British fortunes in the Carnatic. Moreover, Lord Macartney seems to have injudiciously controuled him.

The veteran Bussy, with 2300 French troops and 5000 French sepoys, landed at Cuddalôr, April 10, 1783. Sir E. Coote was again sent from Calcutta to take the command; but he expired two days after his arrival at Madras, April 26. He was one of the greatest of generals.

Stuart undertook, in his imbecile way, the siege of Cuddalôr. Sufferin and Hughes fought at sea with no decisive result. In one of the sorties at Cuddalôr, Bernadotte, then a sergeant, afterwards one of Napoleon's Marshals and King of Sweden, was taken prisoner.

Tidings happily arrived at this juncture of the peace of Versailles. Bussy immediately ceased all military operations, and recalled the French officers in Tippû's army.

The Second Mysore War Ended, 1784.

CH. XII. § 36, 37.
A. D. 1784.

Lord Macartney, who had repeatedly found fault with General Stuart, now sent him to England in arrest. (Stuart had arrested Lord Pigot in 1776.)

§ 36. An expedition under Colonel Fullarton was now sent into the heart of Mysore.

Colonel Fullarton Invades Mysore.

He took *Carûr*, Dindigal, Pâlgât, and Coimbatôr; and was on the point of marching for Seringapatam, when Lord Macartney, with strange ignorance of native character, sent envoys to propose a peace; and, despite all the opposition of Hastings (whose Indian career was drawing to a close), and of others, hurried it on, so that Tippû was able to make it appear that the English were suppliants to him for peace.

(52 miles W. by N. from Trichinopoly, near the Câveri.)

Lord Macartney makes Peace on a wrong Basis.

Colonel Fullarton, at the head of his army, would have negotiated more effectually before Seringapatam.

All the surviving British prisoners, whom Tippû had treated with disgusting and savage cruelty, were released; and all conquests on either side were to be restored. Baillie, Matthews, and all the bravest, had already been murdered by the miscreant.

Tippû's Atrocities.

Thus ended the Second Mysore War, in the disgraceful treaty of Mangalore (1784).

Treaty of Mangalore, 1784.

It required another war to undo the evil effects of this foolish treaty. The day it was signed, Tippû assured his French allies that he would as soon as possible renew the war with England.

Effects of the Treaty on Tippû's Mind.

§ 37. He was now at liberty to carry out his own schemes; and it soon became evident that he was ambitious of making himself the greatest, if not the only, ruler in India.

Tippû's Ambitious Schemes.

Tippû's blind and furious zeal for Muhammedanism, his mad hatred of the English, and his ferocity, detract from what would otherwise be almost a great character. In his career, lofty ambition, some military genius, and consum-

His Character.

CH. XII. § 38, 39.
A. D. 1788.

Tippû's Insane Ambition.

Kanara and
Kûrg.

mate bravery were conspicuous; but he was wild and visionary. His character much resembles that of Jûna Khân Tughlak. (Ch. ii. § 36.)

His first two expeditions were into Kanara and Kûrg, whence he carried away upwards of 100,000 persons, whom he forcibly made into Mussulmâns, and then distributed among his garrisons. This was their punishment for taking advantage of the late war to assert their independence.

His Assumption
of Supreme
Authority.

His next step was to assume the title of "Pâdshâh," which properly belonged to the Emperor of Delhi alone; and, from that time, his name was inserted into the public prayers instead of that of Shâh Âlam II., who was the nominal Emperor of Delhi.

Mahrattas and
the Nizâm com-
bine against him.

§ 38. Tippû now had to encounter a great and pressing danger. The Mahrattas under the rule of Nânâ Farnavis (ch. v. § 106), and the Nizâm, combined to crush him, and to share his dominions between them. The result was, that the Mysorean boldly carried the war into the districts north of the Tûmbhadra, took Adônî and Savanûr, and brought the confederates to terms. He agreed to pay arrears of tribute, and to restore the captured towns. They abandoned the war, acknowledging him sole ruler to the Tûmbhadra.

He gains the
Victory.

§ 39. Tippû was now beside himself with pride. He forthwith made an expedition into the Malabâr district, where he offered the Nâyars the option of death or the Kurân.

His Blind
Bigotry, 1788.

He thus converted or expelled the whole population; and destroyed, according to his own account, 8000 temples.

There is no doubt that Tippû, at this period, even aimed at becoming a kind of prophet in the estimation of the people.

Tippû in Travancore.

CH. XII. § 40, 41.
A. D. 1789.

Lord Cornwallis (ch. x. § 18) could not interfere, unless Tippû should first violate the treaty subsisting between himself and the English.

§ 40. This the infatuated Mysorean soon did. Travancore, protected by the Ghâts and by its lines (a wall and ditch covering the whole frontier), had hitherto escaped the horrors of war. Its Râja had formed a defensive alliance with the English a few years before. Tippû now found out various grievances which rendered it necessary for him to punish the Travancore Râja. The harbouring of some fugitive Nâyars was the crowning injury. Accordingly, in December 1789, he made an attack on the Travancore lines; but was repulsed with immense loss, escaping almost alone, his palanquin and all his ornaments, seals, and rings, having fallen into the hands of the enemy.

Tippû attacks Travancore.

His Defeat, Dec. 1789.
Tippû's Loss and Mortification.

His rage was terrible, and he vowed not to leave his encampment till he had taken ample revenge. Three months were passed in preparations, carefully concealed from the English; and in April 1790, he began the work in earnest, and was soon inside the wall. Sir A. Campbell was then Governor of Madras. General Medows became Governor of Madras in 1790; and Sir R. Abercrombie at the same time became Governor of Bombay. Both were employed in the war against Tippû.

He renews his Attack.

§ 41. Lord Cornwallis, now, of course, interfered. A treaty was signed by the Nizâm, in which he ceded Guntûr, according to the terms of the treaty of 1768; and an arrangement was made by which he was to cooperate in the war against Tippû, and to share in the territory which might be taken from him. The Mahratta Government (ch. v. § 108) were also invited to join the confederacy, and were to share in the spoil. Nânâ Farnavîs consented to this; for his fear and hatred of Tippû

Lord Cornwallis interferes.

Another Triple Alliance.

CH. XII. § 42, 43.
A. D. 1790.

The Third Mysore War, 1790-1792.

THE THIRD MYSORE WAR, 1790-1792.

Lord Cornwallis in Madras, 1790.

Advances into Mysore.

Takes Bangalore.

Battle of Arikêra.

Delay in taking Seringapatam.

Hartley and Little, Dec. 8, 1790.

overcame even his reluctance to co-operate with the English.

The Marquis now informed Tippû that his conduct in attacking an ally of England had made him an enemy of the British power. General Medows began the campaign in such a way as to show that an abler general was needed to cope with Tippû. Lord Cornwallis himself then came down from Calcutta to take the command of the army, which advanced up the Ghâts at once by the Mûglî Pass, having deceived Tippû (who was lingering near Pondicherry, anxious to conclude an alliance with the French) by a pretended march to Ambûr.

NOTE.—The principal passes into Mysore from the Carnatic are the *Mûglî*, the *Palikâd*, the *Ambûr*, the *Changâma*, and the *Attûr*.

Bangalore capitulated on the 21st of March. Tippû now marched to defend his capital; and on the 13th of May at Arikêra, a short distance from Seringapatam, was fought a battle, in which Tippû sustained a complete defeat.

At this time Tippû sent an embassy, asking for aid of Louis XVI. of France, who refused to assist him.

§ 42. Seringapatam would now have been taken; but the British force and the Nizâm's contingent were in want of every necessary. Lord Cornwallis was obliged therefore to return towards Madras. A day after his homeward march had begun, the Mahrattas came up. Their dilatoriness had mainly caused the failure of the campaign. Harî Pant, their general, was intent only on plunder.

§ 43. Meanwhile two officers had especially distinguished themselves. These were Colonel Hartley (ch. v. § 98-101) and Captain Little. The former defeated Hussein Ali, before Calicut, taking him prisoner with 2500 of his men. Hartley's force was only 1500 strong. His loss was 52.

First Siege of Seringapatam.

CH. XII. § 44, 45.
A. D. 1792.

Captain Little took *Simoğa*, after thirty-six hours hard fighting. The Mahrattas perpetrated horrible cruelties on the wretched inhabitants, after the English had taken the fort. General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, reduced the whole province of Malabâr.

(*Sri Muga*, on the Tunga, 122 miles N.W. from Seringapatam)
General Abercrombie in Malabâr.

§ 44. Lord Cornwallis employed the remainder of the year in clearing the Baramahâl, and in reducing Tippû's fortresses, deemed by the Mysoreans impregnable; but which were taken with ease by our troops.

Lord Cornwallis in the Baramahâl.

In January 1792, the Governor-General's arrangements were complete, and the British army took the field with a splendour and completeness of equipment which astonished all India. Hari Pant, with a small body of troops, and the Nizâm's son with 8000 men, showy but unserviceable, joined Lord Cornwallis, and on the 5th February the siege began. Tippû had strengthened his defences to the utmost. They consisted of three lines protected by 300 cannons, the earthworks being covered by an impenetrable hedge of thorn. These works were stormed on the night of the 6th, with the loss of 530 killed and wounded. Tippû lost in killed, wounded, and deserters, 20,000 men.

THE FIRST SIEGE OF SERINGAPATAM, 1792.

The siege was pressed on; and Tippû at length, by the advice of his officers, acceded to the terms dictated by Lord Cornwallis. He was to cede half his territories, to pay three crores of rupees, besides thirty lakhs to the Mahrattas, and to give up two of his sons as hostages. The treaty was nearly broken off, when Tippû found that Kûrg was included in the territories to be ceded; but the Governor-General was ready at once to push on the siege, and the Sultân was obliged to yield.

Tippû yields.

§ 45. The Nizâm's troops and the Mahrattas had rendered no assistance, and had even treacherously corresponded with the enemy; but Lord Cornwallis divided the

Unfaithfulness of the Nizâm and the Mahrattas.

CH. XII. § 46, 47.
A. D. 1792.

The Third Mysore War Ended, 1792.

Territory gained. territory and the indemnity money scrupulously with them. The English territorial gain was: (1.) the district of Dindigal; (2.) the Baramahâl; and (3.) the district of Malabâr. Kûrg was restored to its own Râja. (Ch. x. § 90.)

NOTE.—The *Baramahâl* is the district above the Ghâts, of which Salem is the capital.

The Southern
Panjâb.

The territory between the five rivers, the Kishtna, Gut-pûrba, Malapûrba, South Warda, and Tûmbhadra, was thus wrested from the Mysorean, and restored to the Mahrattas.

Honours.

§ 46. Much discussion arose about this treaty. In England it was at length approved of, the thanks of Parliament were voted to Lord Cornwallis, and he was made a Marquis.

Indian Powers
of Recent Origin.

It must be remembered that, of the great powers of India at the time, the Peishwâ, Sindia, Tippû, and the Nizâm, none had existed sixty years; and that the dominion of each was founded on usurpation, fraud, and violence.

English Position
at the Close of
this War, 1792.

England had now shown to all India that her powers far surpassed those of any of these rival states. They had sunk into insignificance in this struggle; while the might of England was felt to be matchless in the East.

The disgraceful convention of Wargâom, and the infamous treaty of Mangalore, were alike forgotten. A new æra had begun.

Thus gloriously ended the Third Mysore War. February 1792.

Peace, 1792-1796.

§ 47. Six years elapsed without any breach of this treaty; and the two hostages were sent back to their father in 1794.

Tippû's Intrigues
with the French.

Tippû meanwhile strengthened himself, nursed his hatred against the English, and entertained a body of

Tippû Prepares again for War.

CH. XII. § 48-50.
A. D. 1798.

French officers, by whom his army, in all its branches, was brought to a state of great efficiency.

The "*Mauritius Proclamation*" brought matters to an issue. This was put forth by the Governor of the Mauritius, and announced that envoys from Tippû had arrived in the island, proposing an alliance offensive and defensive, and asking for troops in order to expel the English from India.

The Mauritius Proclamation, 1798.

A French frigate at this time landed 100 men, civil and military, at Mangalore. These, on reaching Seringapatam, organised a Jacobin Club under the auspices of "Citizen Tippû," planted a tree of liberty, crowned it with the cap of equality, and proclaimed the French Republic, one and indivisible!

"Citizen Tippû!"

§ 48. Lord Wellesley (ch. x. § 37) called on Tippû to disavow his embassy to the Mauritius; and prepared for war. The Madras Presidency was weak in men, and almost bankrupt; the Nizâm and the Mahrattas could not be relied on; but the Governor-General said:—"If Tippû is stronger than we are, he is master of the Dakhan." He resolved that England should at any cost maintain the mastery.

Lord Wellington's determination to put down Tippû.

§ 49. Lord Wellesley first negotiated with the Nizâm (ch. iii. § 16); and a subsidiary alliance was the result (1798). Captain Malcolm (Sir John) contrived to arrange the placing of the Nizâm's army on its new footing without loss of life.

The Nizâm joins the Alliance.

The Peishwâ, while refusing to form a subsidiary alliance, gave an assurance of his fidelity to the existing engagements.

§ 50. Buonaparte was now in Egypt. The Directors wrote out, authorising a war with Tippû; and Lord Wellesley made all his arrangements with promptitude, and

THE FOURTH MYSORE WAR, 1799.

CH. XII. § 51, 52.
A.D. 1798.

The Fourth Mysore War, 1798-1799.

Marquis Wellesley in Madras, 1798.
Tippû's Efforts.

Buonaparte's Letter. (First Consul, 1799.)

Preparations for War.

The British Forces.

The Army sent against Tippû. (37 miles W. from Seringapatam. The seat of an antient Poligâr.)

I.
The Battle of Sedasîr, March 6, 1799.

General Harris's Staff.

sent down to Madras His Majesty's 33d Regiment, commanded by his own brother, Colonel Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington). He himself arrived in Madras, December 31, 1798, and proceeded to negotiate with Tippû, who tried to procrastinate, and wrote to Zemân Shâh, inviting him to join the Holy War, in which the infidel English were "to become food for the swords of the pious warriors." (Comp. ch. x. § 38.)

Buonaparte wrote him that "he had arrived on the borders of the Red Sea, with an innumerable and invincible army, full of the desire of delivering him from the iron yoke of England!"

§ 51. Tippû treated the Governor-General's envoy, Major Doveton's embassy, with contempt; and Lord Wellesley at length informed him, that General Harris, who was advancing with an army into Mysore, would be prepared to receive any embassy he might send.

Lord Wellesley and Lord Clive (Governor of Madras, son of the great Clive), by unparalleled efforts had raised and fully equipped an army of 20,800 men, of whom 6000 were Europeans. To this was added 10,000 of the Nizâm's cavalry, with 10,000 foot under European officers, led by Colonel Wellesley and Captain Malcolm, though nominally commanded by the Nizâm's son. (Ch. iii. § 16.) General Harris was commander-in-chief of the whole combined forces. Colonels Read and Brown were in the Baramahâl and Coimbatôr; and General Stuart led the Bombay troops, who marched from Cannanûr through Kûrg to *Periapatam*. General Hartley, and Colonels Montressor and Dunlop, were with this army.

At Sedasîr, a few miles from Periapatam, the first battle was fought. Tippû's forces, commanded by himself, were routed with the loss of 2000 men.

§ 52. General Harris (under whom were, among others,

Second Siege of Seringapatam.

CH. XII. § 53, 54.
A. D. 1799.

General Baird, General Floyd, Colonel Wellesley, Lieutenant-Colonel Barry Close, Lieutenant-Colonel Agnew, and Captain Malcolm), marched through the valley of Ambûr and the Baramahâl to Râyacotta, where he encamped, March 4. From thence he advanced to Malavelli, twenty-six miles from Seringapatam. Here took place the second struggle. The result was a loss to the Sultân of 1000 men, while the English lost only sixty-nine.

II.
The Battle of
Malavelli, March
27.
(*Malayavali*, E.
of Seringapatam.)

NOTE.—Râya-Kôtai = *King's fort*. It is ninety-two miles from Seringapatam, and the key to the Mysore tableland.

General Harris now crossed the Câverî to the south of Seringapatam. This movement, secretly carried out, was unexpected by Tippû, and threw him into a state of deep despondency.

The Crossing the
Câveri.

§ 53. The whole united army was before Seringapatam by the 15th of April. Tippû was now in despair. He consulted soothsayers; caused prayers to be offered in Muhammedan mosques and in Hindû temples; sent vakils to propose terms of peace; and then, in rage and mortification, refused to yield to the terms imposed by Lord Harris. No trace of common sense, or of generalship, is discernible in his behaviour at this period.

The whole Be-
sieging Army on
the Ground.
Tippû's State of
Mind.

§ 54. The breach on the south-western face of the fortifications was reported practicable on the evening of May the 3d. Before daybreak on the 4th, General Baird, who had for four years been a prisoner in the dungeons of the city, led the troops to the assault. Colonel Sherbrooke commanded the right column, Colonel Dunlop the left, and Colonel Wellesley the reserve: 4376 men were in the trench, waiting for the signal to advance. General Baird, a few minutes before one A.M., ascended the parapet, drew his sword, and, with the exhortation to the troops to

The Breach

The Storming,
May 4, 1799.

Baird.

CHAP. XII. § 55.
A. D. 1799.

The Fourth Mysore War Ended, 1799.

“follow him, and prove themselves worthy of the name of British soldiers,” led on the gallant band.

In seven minutes the British flag was planted on the summit of the breach. The two columns, after encountering many obstacles, and stout opposition from a small band of Mysore troops, met over the eastern gateway. The city was taken.

The Death of
Tippû.

The body of the Sultân himself was found in a palanquin under an archway, beneath a heap of slain. It was buried with military honours the next day in a beautiful mausoleum in the Lâl Bâgh. A terrible thunderstorm raged during the burial.

His Burial.

His Barbarity.

It was ascertained (and it takes away any lingering feeling of pity for the tyrant) that every European prisoner taken during the siege had been put to death by Tippû.

Tippû, the Tiger.

Tippû signifies *tiger*. A tiger was his favourite badge. He kept numbers of them chained in his fort. And this one word best expresses his disposition.

Tippû's Play-
thing.

A curious illustration of Tippû's mingled ferocity and childishness is still in existence. In the palace of Seringapatam was found a clumsy piece of mechanism, which, when put in motion, represented a tiger tearing an Englishman. An arrangement within the machine caused the tiger to growl, and the Englishman to cry out! This, which was the plaything of the Sultân and his court, is in the museum at the India House.

The Surrender
of the Chief
Officers.

§ 55. Pûrnia, the minister; Kamr-ud-dîn, the chief officer; Fatih Hyder, the Sultân's eldest son; and all the principal officers, civil and military, now surrendered themselves. The whole kingdom lay at the feet of the victor. Immense stores, about a million sterling in money, and many costly jewels, were taken in the city; and the collection of state papers revealed the surprising extent and variety of the Sultân's intrigues against the hated English.

State Papers.

Wellesley in
Command.

Colonel Wellesley was made commandant of the captured city, in which he soon restored order and confidence; and

Effects of the Conquest.

CH. XII. § 56, 57.
A. D. 1799.

the Governor-General proceeded to make arrangements for the disposal of the conquered kingdom.

§ 56. The conquest undoubtedly rendered England supreme in the Dakhan. It was the first manifestation of that wonderful energy with which English wars in India have ever since been conducted. It remained to show an example of moderation in the hour of triumph. The arrangements made were these:—

1st. The family of Tippû was justly set aside; and its members were removed to Vellora, where a suitable provision was made for them. (Ch. x. § 55–58.)

2d. The representative of the antient Hindû royal family, a child of five years of age, was living with his mother in an obscure hut in the suburbs. They were brought forth from their obscurity, and the child, whose name was Krishnarâj Udaiyâr Bahâdar, was put upon the throne.

3d. The Company took possession of Kanara, Coimbatôr, and the Wynaad.

4th. The districts of Gurrancotta, Gûti, and others near Hyderâbâd, were made over to the Nizâm.

5th. Some districts were offered to the Peishwâ, but rejected by him.

The commission that sat in Seringapatam to arrange these matters was composed of General Harris, Colonel Wellesley, Mr Henry Wellesley, Colonel Fitzpatrick, and Colonel Close. The secretaries were John Malcolm and Thomas Munro.

§ 57. The history of the ancestor of the new Râja is curious. When the puppet Râja Châm Râj died (in 1775), the direct male line was extinct. Hyder had been accustomed to exhibit, on the feast of the *Dasara*, the poor Râja on a throne of state to his subjects. To keep up the pageant, he resolved to appoint another Râja.

Effects of the Conquest.

Tippû's Family.

Restoration of the Antient Dynasty.

The New Râja.

Territory taken by English.

The Nizâm's Share.
(Or *Gurrankonda*, 130 miles N. W. from Madras, in the Bâlaghât.)
The Seringapatam Commission.

The Râja's History.

CH. XII. § 58, 59.
A.D. 1799.

Mysore Affairs from 1799 to 1832.

For this purpose he collected a number of children belonging to all the families related to the royal house. These were introduced into a room, where were scattered abroad in abundance all things that could attract a child. One little fellow selected for himself a lime, which he grasped with his left hand, and a little dagger, which he grasped in his right hand. "This," exclaimed Hyder, "is our Râja. With one hand he takes the fruits of the earth, and with the other the means of protecting his subjects."

The Mysore
Royal Family.

The assembly murmured applause. The little boy, under the name of Châm Râj, was installed as Râja. He died of small-pox in 1795; and Tippû, resolving no longer to maintain the pageant of a Râja, turned the widow and her son, then two years of age, out of the palace, and caused them to be conveyed to a miserable hovel in the suburbs of the city. This son was the Râja now put on the throne by the Governor-General. The story throws light upon Hyder's own character; and shows the slender claim of the family in question to the sovereignty of the land.

Pârnia.

Wellesley.
(Napoleon made
Emperor, 1804.
Trafalgar, Oct.
1805.)

Close.

§ 58. During the minority of the Râja, the able minister Pârnia conducted the affairs of the kingdom. General Wellesley remained, during the intervals of his campaigns, till March 1805, to discharge the duties of Commissioner of Mysore; and by his administration conferred permanent benefits upon the people. Colonel (Sir Barry) Close was the first Resident at the new court.

Pârnia's Retirement.

§ 59. In 1812, Pârnia retired, and a sum of £2,812,500 was then found in the treasury. Pârnia was handsomely pensioned, and Linga Râj was made Diwân, with diminished powers. The Râja soon dissipated the

The Present Administration of the Province.

CH. XII. § 60, 61.
A. D. 1832.

treasure, and so oppressed his subjects that a rebellion broke out.

Bad Govern-
ment.

Everything was venal. The troops were unpaid, and the Râjats were ground down by excessive and arbitrary taxation.

§ 60. In 1832, the British Government interfered, as the treaty of 1799 required them to do. (Ch. x. § 89). The mismanagement had been so gross, and the Râja had been so entirely deaf to advice pressed upon him, that it was felt that the Governor-General could do nothing but take the entire management of the state from his unworthy hands. Sir T. Munro, when Governor of Madras, had visited Mysore, and personally urged amendment upon the Râja, but in vain. Sir Mark Cubbon was the first commissioner under the new system. A liberal pension was assigned to the Râja. The country has been exceptionally prosperous from that time. The administration reports are of exceeding value.

The British Go-
vernment Inter-
feres.

1820.

The Râja set
Aside.

§ 61. The Râja died March 27, 1868, without heirs. He had, however, adopted, in 1865, a distant relative called Châm Râjendra. In 1867 Her Majesty's Government were pleased to recognise this adoption; and the young chief has been proclaimed Mahârâja of Mysore. He is about six years old, and will receive a training suitable to his rank and prospects.

His Death.
Adoption.

The New Mahâ-
râja.

While much difference of opinion exists as to the propriety of again confiding this important district to the care of a Hindû prince, we may be sure that the interests of 4,000,000 of people will ever be carefully watched over by the paramount power.

CONCLUSION.

We here draw our brief survey of Indian History to a close.

The student has now in his hands the clue which will serve to guide him through its intricate mazes.

Intro. § 1-25.

In the *Introduction* his attention has been directed to the spectacle, unique in the history of the world, of a vast Oriental Empire, consisting of many flourishing states, administered by Englishmen under the British Crown.

Intro. § 26-33.

We have surveyed, in a cursory manner, the immense and varied tracts of country to which the title of the Anglo-Indian Empire has been given.

Ch. i. § 1-15.

In the first Chapter we have seen an antient race, possessed of marvellous powers, civilized to a considerable extent, and kindred to our own, spreading itself abroad in Hindûstân. They elaborated great systems of philosophy, and composed splendid poems in a language, the flexibility, copiousness, philosophic structure, and sonorous grandeur of which are the admiration of the learned. They founded and propagated two religions, one of which, no longer possessing votaries in India itself, is yet the most widely extended religious system in the world.

Ch. i. § 16-28.

The history of India then becomes, in a great measure, the record of a series of invasions of Hindûstân by Western and North-Western races, Persians, Greeks, Afgâns, and Ta(r)tars; and the annals of the dynasties which some

Afgân Dynasties.

CHAP. II. III.

of these invaders founded. The antient Persian Empire numbered the Panjâb among its satrapies ; and the Grecian conqueror, by whom that empire was subverted, achieved a wider and a more lasting conquest of North-Western India and the adjacent provinces. Traces of Grecian rule long lingered around the Indus.

B.C. 518.

After the interval (hardly bridged over by a weak and wavering tradition) of nearly a thousand years, the fiery zeal of the Muhammedans led to the conquest of Sind, at the very time that Gebir and Mûsa founded the famous Moorish kingdom in Spain.

Ch. ii. § 4.

A.D. 711.

Nearly three hundred years after this, and about the period of the Norman conquest of England, the Ghaznîvide dynasty established itself on the banks of the Ravi, having passed from Ghaznî to Lâhôr.

Ch. ii. § 6.

995-1186.

Mahmûd of Ghaznî's dominion is followed by that of Muhammed of Ghôr ; and each of these conquerors, or rather plunderers, is said to have made twelve marauding, iconoclastic expeditions into India, north of the Nerbudda.

Ch. ii. § 16.

1186-1206.

About the time of our first Edward, a "slave of the Sultân of Ghôr" made Delhi the capital of a Muhammedan empire in India. Amid many vicissitudes it remained so till England took possession of it. The Muhammedans in about a century made a permanent advance from Lâhôr to Delhi.

Ch. ii. § 19.
1206.

Successive dynasties, five in number, chiefly founded by slaves, exercised dominion in Delhi and Âgra for 320 years ; till, in the time of our Henry the Eighth, Bâber, the founder of the great Mogul empire in India, begins the conquest of Hindûstân. The Moguls and Tatârs had, before this, repeatedly crossed the Indus ; and Teimûr in 1398, had actually for a short time occupied Delhi. His descendant, Bâber, founded the most illustrious and enduring dominion that has ever existed in India.

Ch. ii. § 19-48.

1526.

Ch. iii.

Meanwhile, when our Edward I. was conquering Wales, Allâ "the Sanguinary" was subjugating the Dakhan, where

1294.

Ch. ii. § 31.

CHAP. IV. V.

The Dakhan.

Ch. iv.

Ch. iv. § 20.
1347.

Ch. iv. § 20.

Ch. iii. § 6.

Ch. v.

Ch. v. § 70.

antient Hindû races had hitherto lived undisturbed by the commotions in Hindûstân. Cruel emperors and their generals followed in his footsteps. In the Dakhan, we see, fifty years after Allâ's memorable invasion, arising at Kulbûrga, a Muhammedan kingdom hardly inferior in splendour to that of Delhi itself.

The fragments into which, after about 150 years, about the time of Bâber's conquest of Delhi, that kingdom was broken up, are not again entirely brought under the Mogul dominion, till the time of Aurungzîb, when the Mogul empire itself was hastening to dissolution.

The last great Hindû kingdom in the south, that of Bijanagar, had fallen before the combined armies of these kings in A.D. 1565.

Yet the Hindû races were not extinct. They possess a wonderful vitality.

During the long period of the Mogul ascendancy, we see the Râjpûts, the proud representatives of the antient Hindû Râjas, identifying themselves with their Muhammedan conquerors in a singular manner. Though thus closely connected with the Moguls, their independence survives the downfall of the house of Teimûr.

Moreover, there now arises in the Dakhan a Hindû power, which never for a moment is really at peace with the Muhammedans; which holds itself ever ready to spring upon them, like the tiger of their own jungles on its prey; and which at length reduces the thirteenth Mogul emperor to ignominious servitude. The Delhi Mussulmâns, in fact, overcame their brethren in the Dakhan, only to prepare the way, as it seemed, for a universal Mahratta dominion.

But the Mahrattas themselves, in the plenitude of their power, received a check from an Afgân invader, who crossed the Indus six times; and who, after inflicting a crushing defeat upon those ambitious hordes, declined to ascend the throne of the Moguls.

The Portuguese in India, &c.

CHAP. VI.—IX

Meanwhile, the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope led to a series of more important invasions of India by the nations of modern Europe, who came in the garb of merchants; but who soon began to entertain the design of founding a permanent dominion in the East.

Ch. vi., vii.

Of these, the Portuguese, after a brief but splendid career, sank from absolute incapacity for the performance of the task which they had set themselves.

Ch. vi.

The Dutch followed them; but the decay of their fortunes in Europe prevented the permanent success of their schemes in India.

Ch. vii. § 4.

The English and the French alone remain; and, in the middle of the eighteenth century, it seemed uncertain which of these two races was to govern India.

Ch. vii., viii.

The genius of Clive mainly decided the question in favour of England. He did what Albuquerque and Duplex had failed to do.

Ch. ix.

The year 1760 sees the irretrievable ruin of the French in India.

Ch. viii.

The next year is the date of the disabling blow that fell on the Mahrattas at Pânipat.

Ch. v. § 70

From 1757 to 1765 Britain, chiefly under Clive's guidance, advances by rapid steps to sovereign power in the East.

Ch. ix.

A series of British Governors-General, beginning with the illustrious Warren Hastings, are henceforth the foremost men in India.

Ch. x.

Yet England did not become the paramount power in India without a long series of severe struggles.

There were the wars in the Carnatic with the French, from 1744 to 1761; in Bengál with Surâja Dowla, and other Muhammedan Nuwâbs, from 1757 to 1765, including the glorious ten months in 1765 on the banks of the Ganges; the four Mahratta wars, in the course of which the Mogul Emperor, Shâh Âlam II., was released from

Ch. vii., viii.

Ch. ix.

Ch. v. § 90-100.

Ch. xii.

Ch. x.

Mahratta thralldom, and placed under British protection, and every single Mahratta leader suffered a signal overthrow, which momentous struggles lasted from 1775 to 1819; the four Mysore wars, in which the short-lived but vigorous Muhammedan usurpation in Seringapatam was extinguished, and the antient Hindû Râj restored under the auspices of Britain; the war with Nîpal; two wars with Birma, which transferred the whole sea-board of further India to the sway of England; the lamentable struggle in Afgânistân; the war in which the Amîrs of Sind were stript of their dominions; the brief, but bloody episode of the Gwâlîôr struggle; the two Panjâb wars, in which was subjugated the land of the five rivers, where all other conquerors have begun their conquests: these are the chief of the contests from which England has come forth triumphant. The sad history of the "Sepoy Mutiny," in which England had finally to conquer its own rebellious army, and in the course of which the last of the Moguls, and the sole surviving representative of the Peishwâs were swept away; and which ended in the assumption by the British Crown of the direct government of India, which until then had been under the administration of the ever-memorable British East-India Company, closes the eventful history.

The student's attention may be drawn, with propriety, to one or two inferences.

(1.) It will be discerned, that, while in many cases the English have appeared as the liberators of oppressed races, in none have they overthrown a dominion that had existed before their own advent in the East, and which could be called a legitimate and antient Hindû dominion. The only really antient states of India which were in existence in the beginning of the eighteenth century, those of Râj-pûtâna and of Mysore, are in being still, and owe their continuance to British protection. This is a fact which the student should minutely examine and verify for himself.

British Rule in the East.

(2.) The rise and progress of British rule in the East has been what may be termed *spontaneous*.

Every step has been taken with reluctance, and under the pressure of that imperious necessity which Clive was the first to feel.

The last battle was but the necessary corollary of the first.

(3.) It can hardly be necessary to do more than to direct the attention of the student to the circumstance, that many of England's greatest statesmen and bravest warriors have been concerned in the establishment, guidance, and defence of our Anglo-Indian empire.

May it not safely be affirmed, that the annals of the world afford no examples of constancy, prudence, and fortitude more illustrious than those which shine forth in the pages of British-Indian history? Hence the value and importance of this study.

(4.) And, lastly, if India, during the last eight centuries, has ever enjoyed peace, or had any assured hope of development and progress, it has been under the British dominion. Is it not evident that India now beholds the dawn of a brighter day than she has even yet seen?

If these pages shall help the student to estimate aright his own duties, and to endeavour, in his measure, to help forward the great and necessary work of assimilating more and more these Eastern dominions of our Queen to the most favoured regions of the West in all that is helpful and excellent, they will not have been written in vain.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON INDIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

INTRODUCTION.

- I.—1. Fix the positions of Dondra Head, Singapore, Peshâwar, and the Salwin. § 2.
 2. Draw a sketch map of Bengâl, indicating round it the districts under the same administration. § 9.
 3. What is to be observed regarding Sikhim, Munnipûr, and Tipperah? § 9.
 4. Draw a sketch map of the course of the Ganges from Patna to Hardwar, putting in all the places of importance on its banks. § 9.
 5. Draw a sketch map of the Panjâb territory, exhibiting its ten divisions. § 10.
 6. Give a diagram showing the relative positions of the capitals of the six tributary states of Central India. § 12.
 7. Where is Bandêlkhand? Give the chief states in it. § 12.
 8. What are called the Central Provinces? What rivers have their rise there? § 13.
 9. Fix the sites and mention some particulars about the chief sea-ports of British Birma. § 15.
 10. What dependent Râjas are there in the Madras Presidency? Give a few facts regarding the territory of each of them. § 16.
- II.—1. Mention the founders of Herât, the fort of Attock, Madras, Indôr, Aurungâbâd, and Bijanagar.
 2. What French settlements are there in India? Give their positions. § 17.
 3. What Portuguese settlements are there in India? Fix their positions. § 19. Ch. vi.
 4. Draw a sketch map of the Madras Presidency, inserting the chief town of each collectorate. § 16.
 5. Draw a sketch map of the Bombay Presidency, inserting the chief place of each district. § 18.
 6. What *feudatories* are there within the limits of the Bombay Presidency? § 18.
 7. Draw a sketch map of Berâr. How did it come under British management? § 20.
 8. Give the dates and circumstances of the acquisition of any six portions of territory by the English. § 23.
 9. Give any six feudatories of Britain in India, and fix the position and extent of their states.
 10. What boon did Lord Canning confer on these feudatory chiefs?

* * Put dates to everything throughout.

CHAPTER I., &c.

- III.—1. When does real Indian history begin? § 1.
 2. Which are the most antient Hindû books? § 2.
 3. Distinguish the Vêdic system of religion from that of the Purânas. § 2, 10.
 4. Enumerate the chief Sanskrit compositions. § 2, 6, 7, 13, 14.
 5. Which are the four great Hindû castes? How has the system of caste been modified? § 4.
 6. What do you mean by village communities? § 4.
 7. What tracts of country were called respectively Bramhâvarta and Bramhârshidêsa? What are they remarkable for?
 8. Give an account of the "Institutes of Menu." § 3, 4.
 9. What is recorded concerning Râma? Where is his history given? § 6.
 10. What is the subject of the Mahâ Bhârata? § 7.

CHAPTER I., &c.

- IV.—1. What is the legend regarding Khrishna? § 7.
 2. What Kings of Magadha are important in history? § 8.
 3. When and where did Buddhism originate? § 8, 11.
 4. What king was the distinguished patron of Buddhism? § 8 (5), § 11.
 5. Who was Sankara Âchârya? § 11.
 6. What is known regarding the sage Agastya? Ch. iv. § 3.
 7. Give an account of the Jain system. § 12; ch. iv. § 5.
 8. Who was Parasu Râma? Ch. iv. § 8.
 9. What is the Vêdânta system of philosophy? § 15.
 10. What do you mean by the Periplôs? Ch. iv. § 14.

CHAPTER I., &c.

- V.—1. What invasions of India are mentioned before the birth of Christ? § 16–20.
2. Which of these are of no historical importance? § 16, 17.
 3. Give an account of the antient Persian invasion. § 18.
 4. Give a detailed account of Alexander's expedition to India. § 19.
 5. Give an account of Herât. § 19; ch. x. § 110, c.
 6. Write a summary of the history of the Greek Kingdom of Bactria. § 19, 20.
 7. Who were Skylax and Nearchus? § 18, 19.
 8. Who were the contemporaries of Chandragupta? § 20.
 9. What are the æras of Vikramâditya and Sâlivâhana? § 23, 9.
 10. Draw a sketch map of the Panjâb proper, inserting the Greek names.

CHAPTER II., &c.

- VI.—1. Give the names of the first six Muhammedan invaders of India. Ch. ii. table.
2. Draw a sketch map of Trans-Oxiana. Ch. ii. § 5.
 3. Enumerate the nine Muhammedan dynasties in Delhi before Bâber. Ch. ii. table.
 4. Write a detailed life of Jeipâl I. Ch. ii. § 6, 7; xi. § 12.
 5. Fix the situations of Batinda, Nâgarkôt, and Tanêshwar. Give some account of each of these places. Ch. ii. § 7, 8, 16; xi. § 8.
 6. Why is the tenth expedition of Mahmûd of Ghazni very important? Ch. ii. § 10.
 7. Give some account of Anhalwâra. Ch. ii. § 11; iii. § 4.
 8. Who were Ferdousi, Khâfi Khân, Kâlidâsa, and Ferishta? Where and when did they live?
 9. Three Beirâms (Beyram) are mentioned in this history: give some account of each. Ch. ii. § 15, 26; iii. § 6.
 10. Who were respectively called the Burner of the World, and the Sanguinary? Why?

CHAPTER III., &c.

- VII.—1. Write a list of the Mogul Emperors in three sections—the great ones, the nominal ones, and the mere pensioners. § 2.
2. Write a life of Sultán Báber. § 3.
3. Recount the great struggle of the Rájputs for empire. § 3 (12).
4. Write a life of Humáyún. § 4, 5.
5. Give a summary of the history of the Súr dynasty. § 5.
6. Divide Akbar's life into six periods, and state the chief events in each.
7. Draw a sketch map, showing the eighteen Subáhs into which his empire was divided. § 6.
8. Give an account of the two sieges of Ahmédnagar in this reign.
9. State a few particulars regarding—(1.) Akbar's guardian; (2.) his brother-in-law; (3.) his sons; (4.) his chief friends; (5.) his chief opponents.
10. What are his chief claims to be considered an exceedingly great ruler?

CHAPTER III., &c.

- VIII.—1. Write a sketch of Jehángir's history. § 7.
2. Give a brief account of his queen, and of his great general, Muhábat Khán.
3. Write an account of Sir T. Roe's embassy to his court.
4. What events occurred in 1626-27?
5. Divide Sháh Jehán's life into three periods, and give a summary of the events of each. § 7, 8, 9.
6. What Portuguese affair is important in this reign?
7. Give a brief account of each of Sháh Jehán's children.
8. Divide Aurungzib's life into four periods, and give a short account of the events of each portion. § 9.
9. Compare his character and policy with those of Akbar.
10. Who was Jeswant Sing? What is known of him?

Aurungzib, 1658-1707.

IX. X.

AURUNGZĪB. (Ch. iii. § 8, 9.)

1658-1707.

- IX.—1. Give a summary of Aurungzib's career before 1658. Ch. iii. § 8 (7, 9).
 2. What gave him an advantage over his brothers?
 3. Give details of his treacherous conduct to his relatives.
 4. How did he behave—(1.) to Sivaji; (2.) to Sambaji; (3.) to Sāhu?
 5. Who were his great generals?
 6. In what way did Jeswant Sing act, and how did Aurungzib behave to him and his?
 7. What places are most connected with his history?
 8. Who were his sons? Trace their history to 1707.
 9. How did Aurungzib differ essentially from Akbar?
 10. What conquests did he achieve in the Dakhan?

AURUNGZĪB—Continued.

- X.—1. Wherein was he impolitic?
 2. What connection had he with the English?
 3. Who was the historian of the time? His history?
 4. What circumstances led to the immediate break-up of the Mogul power in 1707?
 5. When did he become Emperor *de facto*, and when *de jure*?
 6. Draw a sketch map, putting in all the places referred to in the summary. § 9 (19).
 7. Had the limits of the empire extended from 1608 to 1707?
 8. Was there anything in English history to parallel the bigotry of Aurungzib about the same time?
 9. What peculiarity of his character most hindered his success?
 10. What was the real result of his policy in the Dakhan?

CHAPTER III. § 10, 11; VII.

- XI.—1. Give an account of the SEVENTH Mogul Emperor.
 2. Who was the EIGHTH Mogul Emperor, and who was his supporter? What was their fate?
 3. Give an account of the Dutch East India Company to 1700.
 4. Give a brief summary of the early history of the French in India to 1725.
 5. What places did the Danes occupy?
 6. Give an account of the English factories in India to 1700.
 7. What especial circumstances in reference to the English East India Company are to be referred to the reigns of Shâh Jehân and Farukhshîr?
 8. What places around the coast were in European occupation in 1725?
 9. Which Mahratta leaders were contemporaries of Zulfikâr Khân?
 10. What was the state of affairs at that period in Mysore, the Panjâb, and in Delhi?

CHAPTER III.

1712-1748.

- XII.—1. Who were the Barha Seiads? Ch. iii. § 12 (2).
 2. What Emperors did they set up, and whom did they depose?
 3. Who were their great rivals?
 4. What treaty did one of them make with a Mahratta leader, and what were its results?
 5. How were they overthrown?
 6. Give a sketch of the history of Zulfikâr Khân. Ch. iii. § 11.
 7. What circumstances are worthy of note connected with the marriage of Farukhshîr? Ch. iii. § 12.
 8. What did the Sîkhs suffer under the government of these Seiads?
 9. Give some account of Âsaph Jâh.
 10. And of Sâdat Khân.

CHAPTER III. § 12-19.

- XIII.—1. Give an account of affairs in Delhi from 1719 to 1738.
2. What was the occasion, and what the result, of the battle of Shâhpûr?
 3. Give a short sketch of the history of the Nizâms of Hyderâbâd.
 4. What provinces became virtually independent during the reign of Muhammed Shâh?
 5. What was the history of the battle of Sirhind?
 6. Write a short account of Nâdir Shâh.
 7. Who was Alî Vardi Khân?
 8. Give the history of AHMED SHÂH.
 9. Write an account of AHMED SHÂH ABDÂLÎ.
 10. Give the life of Ghâzi-ud-din (IV.), grandson of Nizâm-ul-Mulk.

CHAPTER III. § 20-25.

- XIV.—1. How did the Mahrattas get a footing in Delhi? when did they, for a time, lose it? when regain it? and when did they finally lose it?
2. Who was Gholâm Kâdir?
 3. Give the names of the last two Moguls, and a particular or two about them.
 4. In 1757 what was the state of affairs in all the principal centres of political life in India?
 5. Which Mogul Emperors were fugitives? which were assassinated? which were mere puppets? which did most to establish the empire? and which most hastened its downfall?
 6. Who were the Rohillas?
 7. Which Emperor met Clive, and under what circumstances?
 8. How many times, and by whom, was Delhi taken between 1206 and 1803?
 9. Who were the descendants of Ahmed Shâh Abdâlî?
 10. Which six battles were most important in the Mogul history?

CHAPTER V., &c.

- XV.—1. Draw a sketch map of the Mahratta country. Ch. v. § 2-4.
 2. What do we know of the Mahratta people before the rise of Sivaji? Ch. iv. § 14, 15.
 3. How have the hill-forts been connected with Mahratta history? Ch. v. § 5, 9, 11, 18, 21, 22, 26.
 4. Give a brief account of Sivaji's ancestors.
 5. Trace the history of the Mahratta dominion in the Carnatic. Ch. v. § 7, 17, 23, 24, 34, 55, 108. (See Tanjore.)
 6. Give a short life of the great Sivaji. Ch. v. § 9-26.
 7. State precisely the position of the various kingdoms of the Dakhan in 1627. Ch. iv. § 23-29; vi. § 20.
 8. Give an account of Sivaji's conduct towards Afzal Khán and Shayista Khán. Ch. v. § 14-16.
 9. In what matters did Sivaji come into contact with the English? Ch. v. § 17-22; vii. § 6.
 10. Compare Sivaji with Hyder Ali. Why was the success of the former more complete than that of the latter?

CHAPTER V., &c.

- XVI.—1. What is remarkable about the history of Shayista Khán?
 2. Give an account of Sivaji's successor. § 27-32.
 3. Distinguish between Rája Rám and Rám Ráj. § 27.
 4. Write a life of Rája Sáhu. § 33-59.
 5. What was the state of affairs among the Mahrattas from 1683 to 1707? § 30-37.
 6. Who was Bálaji Vishwanáth? Give an account of the transactions with. § 40-42.
 7. Explain the terms *Chout* and *Surdeshmukhi*. § 42.
 8. Write a life of the second Peishwá. § 44-52.
 9. Name the principal Mahratta leaders who rose to eminence about 1724. Which of these founded independent states? § 45.
 10. Give an account of the origin of the Kolhápúr state. § 47.

The English Period.

XVII, XVIII.

'CHAPTERS V., VII., VIII.

1740-1748.

- XVII.—1. Give a sketch of the chief states in India in 1740. § 53.
2. Write an account of Chandā Sahēb.
3. Who were the great French leaders in the Carnatic during this period?
4. Give an account of the first battle of Ambūr.
5. Exhibit the dynasty of Anwār-ud-din in a table.
6. What sons of Nizām-ul-Mulk were alive when he died?
7. Give an account of the first siege of Madras.
8. What powers existed in India in 1748? Ch. viii. § 14.
9. Write an account of Bālājī Bājī Rao.
10. Give a slight sketch of six important persons who died in or about 1748.

CHAPTERS V.-IX.

1748-1765.

- XVIII.—1. Who was Ragobā? Give a sketch of his history. Ch. v. § 63.
2. Who was Clive? Trace his whole Indian career briefly.
3. Give an outline of events that led to the battle of Plassey.
4. What brought about the conflict between the Mahrattas and Ahmed Shāh Abdālī?
5. Give an account of the second battle of Pānipat.
6. Write a summary of affairs in Bengāl during 1765.
7. Who destroyed the French power in the Carnatic? Trace its decline from 1748 to 1760.
8. Who were the rival Nuwābs of Arcot? Discuss their claims.
9. Who were the rival Subādārs of the Dakhan? Give their history.
10. Write an account of Bussy.

CHAPTERS V.-IX.

1765-1782.

- XIX.—1. Write a life of Warren Hastings.
2. Give a sketch of the history of Nānā Farnavis.
3. Give an outline of the history of the life and times of Mādu Rāo, the fourth Peishwā.
4. What caused the first Mahratta war?
5. Who was Goddard? Give an account of his services.
6. Give a summary of the history of the English in Bengāl from 1765 to 1782.
7. What was the Convention of Wargāom?
8. State the particulars of the treaty of Salbāt.
9. Give an account of the Indōr State from its rise to 1780.
10. What do we know of any Governors of Madras and Bombay during this period?

1782-1800.

- XX.—1. Write a full account of Mahādaji Sindia.
2. Give an account of the battle of Kūrdlā.
3. Write a life of the Marquis Cornwallis.
4. What was the permanent settlement?
5. Give an abstract of the history of the fifth and sixth Peishwās.
6. State the more important matters connected with Lord Teignmouth's administration.
7. What are the chief features of the English legislation for India between 1783 and 1793, both dates being included?
8. What Presidents of the "Board of Controul" have been celebrated in history?
9. State fully all you know about the Treaty of Bassein.
10. Give a summary of the state of affairs at all the principal places in India in 1800.

CHAPTERS V.-X.

1800-1805.

- XXI.—1. Write an account of the Marquis of Wellesley's Indian administration.
2. What is the system which is called the *Subsidiary System*?
3. What circumstances caused the nineteenth century to open with favourable auspices to Great Britain in India?
4. Give an account of Jeswant Rão Holkär.
5. Give a slight sketch of the life of Dowlat Rão Sindia.
6. What destroyed the Mahratta confederation? Ch. v. § 139.
7. Give an account of the second Mahratta war.
8. What were the provisions of the treaty of Déogão?
9. What were the provisions of the treaty of Sirji Anjengão?
10. Give a summary of the third Mahratta war.

1805-1819.

- XXII.—1. Give some account of Sir Barry Close, Sir John Malcolm, Sir C. Metcalfe, Mr M. Elphinstone, and Sir T. Munro.
2. Write a brief history of Bãji Rão II.
3. Give, in a table, the battles of the fourth Mahratta or Pindãri war.
4. State a few particulars regarding Trimbuckjt, Appã Sahêb, Amr Khãn, Chitã, Ghãtgê, Gôkla.
5. Give the sequel of the history of the Rãjas of Satãrã.
6. Who were the Pindãris?
7. Which were the principal hill-forts taken from the Mahrattas, to 1819, by the English?
8. Give an account of the Tanjore Mahratta Rãj from its foundation. Ch. x. § 44.
9. State briefly the main circumstances connected with the Nuwãbs of the Carnatic from 1760 to 1801.
10. Give a short history of Sir G. Barlow's career as acting Governor-General, and as Governor of Madras.

CHAPTER X. § 53-78.

- XXIII.—1. What may be said for and against the "Non-intervention Policy" in India?
2. Give an account of the Vellora Mutiny.
 3. Write a summary of Travancore history.
 4. State a few particulars about the Cochin state.
 5. Where are Mauritius and Bourbon important in Indian history?
 6. Give a sketch of Lord Minto's embassies.
 7. Write a summary of the Marquis of Hastings' Indian administration.
 8. What was the cause of the Nipal war? How did it end?
 9. Write a short account of General Sir D. Ochterlony's services.
 10. Who was Mr Adam, and what did he do?

CHAPTER X. § 78-105.

- XXIV.—1. Give an account of the first Birmese War.
2. What territory did England acquire by the treaty of Yendabû?
 3. What mutinies, European and native, have taken place in the armies of England in India?
 4. Give an account of Bhartpûr.
 5. What rendered Lord W. C. Bentinck's administration remarkable?
 6. Give a summary of Kârg history.
 7. What is Thuggee? Who was most successful in its suppression?
 8. Give a short account of the Bhôpâl state.
 9. What changes were made in the Company's charter in 1833?
 10. What did Sir C. Metcalfe do as acting Governor-General? Discuss its propriety.

CHAPTER X. § 106-111.

- XXV.—1. Who were the rulers of Afgânistân from 1760 to 1840 ?
2. Give the descent of Shâh Shuja.
3. Write an account of Dôst Muhammed.
4. Draw a sketch map of Afgânistân, showing the chief places celebrated in the war.
5. Was the expedition wise or foolish ? Why ?
6. How did E. Pottinger, Sale, Nott, and Dennie distinguish themselves ?
7. Give an account of the Kâbul disasters.
8. Why was the garrison of Jellâlâbâd called illustrious ?
9. What do you know about Dôst Muhammed's "fighting" son ?
10. Give an account of the results of the Afgân expedition.

CHAPTER X. § 112-136.

- XXVI.—1. How many wars with China are mentioned ? What have been the results ?
2. What mistakes did the Earl of Ellenborough make as Governor-General ?
3. What was the cause of the Gwâlîôr troubles ?
4. What two battles were then fought, and what was their result ?
5. How was Sind then governed ?
6. What was the occasion of our war with Sind ?
7. What battles were fought in this war ?
8. What were the chief characteristics of Lord Hardinge as Governor-General ?
9. What had been done by our armies between 1843-1846 ?
10. What was done in Gûmsûr and adjacent districts at this period ?

CHAPTER X. § 137-183.

- XXVII.—1. What annexations took place in the Earl of Dalhousie's time?
2. Give a summary of the second Birmese war.
3. The years 1848-1856 were years of great *progress*. Illustrate this.
4. What change in the Company's charter was made in 1853?
5. What were the chief events of Lord Canning's administration?
6. What was the origin and the result of the second Persian war?
7. Give an account of the exploits of Sir James Outram and Sir Herbert Edwardes.
8. Give a sketch of the histories of Sir Henry Lawrence and of Sir J. Lawrence, before he was Governor-General.
9. Distinguish between "epidemic" and "endemic" civilisation.
10. Give a sketch of the principal events of the "Sepoy mutiny."

CHAPTER X. § 161-183.

- XXVIII.—1. Who were the principal traitors in 1857?
2. Who were the great heroes of that rebellion?
3. What native princes were especially loyal to the paramount power?
4. What arrangements were made in 1858 for the government of British India?
5. Give an abstract of the Queen's proclamation.
6. What is the "patent of nobility?" § 187.
7. Give a list of the Governors-General.
8. Select the four greatest, and give reasons for your selection.
9. Who were the most eminent of the Acting Governors-General?
10. What great calamities have befallen the English in India from 1756 to the present?

The Panjáb.

XXIX. XXX.

CHAPTER XI. (X.)

- XXIX.—1. The Panjáb has been the battlefield of Afgáns, Moguls, and Hindús. Illustrate this.
2. Give a sketch of the geography of this province.
 3. Give the history of Múltán in detail.
 4. How many invaders have passed the Attock?
 5. Which are the Cis-Satlaj states?
 6. What Governors-General have had most to do with Panjáb affairs, and how?
 7. Write a history of the rise and progress of the Sikhs to 1809.
 8. Give a life of Ranjít Sing in detail.
 9. Enumerate the various rulers of the Panjáb from the earliest times.
 10. Trace the descent of Dhulip Sing.

CHAPTER XI.

- XXX.—1. Who were Múlráj, Lál Sing, Goláb Sing, and Chánd Kowr?
2. Give in detail the history of the first Panjáb war.
 3. And of the second Panjáb war.
 4. Mention the chief military men connected with the two Panjáb wars.
 5. How has the Panjáb been administered since its annexation?
 6. What is the meaning of the word *Sikh*, of *Khálsá*, of *Misl*, and of *Sing* or *Singh*?
 7. Justify the annexation of the Panjáb.
 8. What great engineering works have been carried out there?
 9. What is now the north-west frontier of British India?
 10. Give a sketch of the history of Cashmír from the earliest times.

CHAPTER XII.

- XXXI.—1. Draw a sketch map of Mysore, putting in all the places mentioned in the chapter. Comp. Intro. § 14.
2. For what are Manzerâbâd, Dèonhalli, Bednûr, and Mangalore remarkable? § 1, 11, 14, 20, 36.
3. Who were the antient sovereigns of the Karnâtaka country, and what was their capital? § 2.
4. Mention the six most important kings of the old Hindû dynasty, and give one particular regarding each.
5. Trace the history of the city of Seringapatam from 1565–1799.
6. What dealings with the Mahrattas had Chick Dêo Râj? § 8.
7. What analogy do you trace between Mysore and Mahratta history? § 9.
8. Give a short history of the life of Hyder Ali.
9. What events happened in 1749, 1760, 1769, 1780, 1782?
10. What part did Warren Hastings take in Mysore affairs? § 26–29.

CHAPTER XII.

- XXXII.—1. How was Sir Eyre Coote connected with Mysore affairs? Give a sketch of his services. Ch. ix., viii., xii.
2. Give a short account of Flint, Baillie, and Matthews.
3. What were the issues of the two battles of Pollilore? § 27, 29.
4. Give a sketch of Colonel Smith's exploits. § 17–21.
5. What was Hyder's great complaint against the English in 1772?
6. Give particulars of any transactions with the Mahrattas in which Hyder was worsted. § 15, 22.
7. Give a summary of the second Mysore war.
8. How did Hyder and Tippû treat Kûrg? § 23, 37.
9. Write a short life of Tippû Sultân.
10. What was the state of Mahratta affairs at the date of the death of Hyder?

Mysore.

XXXIII.
XXXIV.

CHAPTER XII.

- XXXIII.—1. Give particulars of the four treaties made by the English with the Mysoreans. § 21, 36, 44, 56, 60.
2. What did the Marquis Cornwallis accomplish in regard to Mysore?
 3. How was the Marquis Wellesley concerned with Mysore affairs?
 4. What battles preceded the final siege of Seringapatam?
 5. Give a sketch of Hartley's history from the Convention of Wargâom to 1799.
 6. How did Tippû resemble Jûna Khân Tughlak?
 7. Give a short account of each member of the commission that settled Mysore affairs in 1799.
 8. Write a life of the late Râja of Mysore.
 9. What Mahratta chieftains were alive in 1799?
 10. Give an account of three persons whom Tippû sought aid from. § 47, 50.

GENERAL.

- XXXIV.—1. Compare Albuquerque, Clive, and Dupleix, as to their Indian careers.
2. What wars has England waged in India?
 3. Enumerate all the massacres that occur in British Indian history.
 4. What is the general impression produced on your mind as to the results of Muhammedan rule in India?
 5. What was the great fault of the French in India?
 6. What innovations has England made in religious matters in India? Defend them.
 7. What campaign was the most trying to England, and why?
 8. Which Governor-General displayed the greatest genius? Defend your answer.
 9. What great wrongs have been committed by English rulers in India?
 10. What powers were in existence in India in 1650?

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES OF INDIAN HISTORY.



NOTE 1. This table is to connect the several parts of the History. The student should practise himself in writing out all the events in every part of India, in any given year or period.

2. The most important dates are marked (*).

I. Pre-historic Times.

B.C.		
1400	Arrangement of the Vêdas by VYĀSA.	Ch. i. § 2.
1400-1300	The war of the Mahā Bhārata. <i>Sahā Dêva</i> .	Ch. i. § 7, 8.
1308	Invasion of India by Sesostris (mythical).	Ch. i. § 17.
1200	RĀMA's invasion of the Dakhan.	Ch. i. § 6.
800	The date of MENU.	Ch. i. § 3.
543	Ajāta Satru. Death of GÔTAMA, or SĀKYA MUNI.	Ch. i. § 8, 11.

II. Semi-historic Period, from the Invasion of the Panjâb by the Persians to the rise of the Ghaznîvides, B.C. 518—A.D. 978.

B.C.		
518	Persian invasion under DARIUS HYSTASPES.	Ch. i. § 18.
400-500	PĀNDYA kingdom of Madura founded.	
330	HERĀT founded by Alexander.	Ch. i. § 19.
326	Invasion of the Panjâb by ALEXANDER the Great.	Ch. i. § 19.
315	CHANDRA-GUPTA, or Sandracottus.	Ch. i. § 8, 20.
260-220	ASÔKA, or Piyadâsi, the great patron of Buddhism.	Ch. i. § 8.
126	Tartars from Trans-Oxiana conquer the Bactrian kingdom.	Ch. i. § 20.
57	VIKRAMĀDITYA, King of Ūjein.	Ch. i. § 9.
A.D.		
78	SĀLIVĀHANA, King of Paithun.	Ch. i. § 9.
524		Ch. iii. § 6 (12).
600	The JAIN system founded.	
700	AGASTYA in the South.	Ch. iv. § 3.
700-800	SANKARA ÂCHĀRYA.	Ch. i. § 11.
1050	KÛNA PĀNDYA in Madura.	Ch. iv. § 5.

III. From the beginning of Authentic National History in India to 1526.

[See Ch. ii. Introductory Table.]

A. D.		
878-1186	The Ghaznivides.	Ch. ii.
*1022	LĀHŌR becomes a <i>Muhammedan City</i> .	Ch. ii.
1152	Sack of Ghazni by <i>Allā-ud-dīn Ghōrī</i> .	Ch. ii.
1186-1206	MUHAMMED OF GHŌR.	Ch. ii.
*1206-1288	The first slave dynasty in Delhi. (KUTB-UD-DĪN.)	Ch. ii.
1217	GHEŪGĪZ KHĀN. (First Mogul irruption).	Ch. ii.
1288-1321	THE KHILJIS.	Ch. ii.
*1294	<i>The first Muhammedan invasion of the Dakhan.</i>	Ch. iv. § 16.
1303, 1310,		
1312	<i>Malik Kāfūr's</i> invasions of the Dakhan.	Ch. iv. § 17; xii. § 2.
1318	Malabār conquered by Khōsrū.	Ch. iv. § 18.
1321-1412	THE TUGHLAKS.	
1323	<i>Warangal</i> taken by the Muhammedans.	Ch. iv. § 12.
1336	BĪJANĀGAR founded.	Ch. iv. § 19.
*1347	Foundation of the BĀHMĀNĪ kingdom in the Dakhan, till 1526.	Ch. ii. § 36.
*1398	TEĪMŪR in Delhi. Second great Mogul expedition.	Ch. iv. § 21; ii. § 43. Ch. iii. § 3; iv. § 21.
1482		Ch. vi. § 2.
1486		Ch. iii. § 3.
1494		Ch. iv. § 23; ii. § 47.
*1498	VASCO DA GĀMA in Calicut.	Ch. vi. § 2.
1489-1526	The Bāhmānī kingdom breaks up. BĪJĀPŪR kingdom founded.	Ch. iv. § 21, 23.
1500	Cabral in Calicut.	Ch. vi. § 5; ii. § 47; iv. § 21.
1504	<i>Duarte Pacheco in Cochīn.</i>	Ch. iii. § 3; vi. § 8.
1505-1508	FRANCISCO ALMEYDA, the first Portuguese viceroy.	Ch. iv. § 21; vi. § 10.
1507	<i>Chām Rāj</i> , the six-fingered, in Mysore.	Ch. xii. § 3.
1508-1515	Alphonso ALBUQUERQUE, the second Portuguese viceroy.	Ch. iv. § 21, 23; vi. § 12, 14.
1515	Lope Soarez, the third Portuguese viceroy.	Ch. iii. § 3; vi. § 14.
1524	Chām Rāj, the Bald, founds <i>Mysore</i> .	Ch. xii. § 4.

Mogul Period.

IV.

IV. Mogul Period.

A.D.	The first great battle of PĀNIPAT.	Ch. ii. § 47 ; iii. § 13.
1526	BĀBER founds the Mogul empire in India. Mogul emperors. Lōdis driven away.	
	NANAK.	Ch. xi. § 22.
1527	SĪKRĪ. The Rājputs conquered.	Ch. iii. § 3.
1528	Storming of CHANDĒRĪ.	Ch. iii. § 3.
1529		Ch. iii. § 3 (13).
1530	HUMĀYŪN, the second Mogul.	Ch. iii. § 3, 4.
1535	<i>Champānīr</i> stormed.	Ch. iii. § 4.
1538	The siege of <i>Dil</i> .	Ch. vi. § 17.
1540	Restored Afgāns of the SŪR dynasty.	Ch. iii. § 4.
1541	Xavier in India.	Ch. vi. § 17.
1542	Birth of <i>Akbar</i> .	Ch. iii. § 46.
1544		Ch. iii. § 4 (7).
1545	JUAN DE CASTRO, Portuguese viceroy.	Ch. iii. § 4, 5 ; vi. § 18.
1555-1556	Return and death of Humāyūn.	Ch. iii. 5.
1556	Accession of AKBAR.	
1559	Nāyakar rulers of Madura till 1736.	Ch. iv. § 6.
1560	Akbar, 18 years old, assumes the govern- ment.	Ch. iii. § 6.
	<i>The real Mogul conquest of India.</i>	
	— 1567. Conquers his own feudatories.	
	— 1572. Subdues the Rājputs.	
	— 1573. Conquers <i>Gujarāt</i> .	
	— 1581. Fort of <i>Attock</i> built.	
	— 1592. Annexes <i>Bengāl</i> , <i>Bahār</i> , and <i>Orissa</i> .	
	— 1592. Conquest of <i>Sind</i> .	§ 6.
	— 1594. Afgānīstān subdued.	
	— 1599-1601. Akbar in the Dakhan.	
1565	The battle of Talikōt (Telli cotta).	Ch. iv. § 29.
1570	Dakhan Muhammedan confederacy against the Portuguese.	Ch. vi. § 19.
1580	Foundation of OUDIPŪR.	Ch. iii. § 6.
1580-1656	<i>Downfall of the Portuguese.</i>	Ch. vi. § 20.
1581		Ch. iii. § 6 ; xi. § 20.
1583	The first ENGLISH in India.	Ch. vii. § 6.
1589-1612	FERISHTA in Bijapūr.	Ch. iv. § 23.
1594	The <i>Dutch</i> in India.	Ch. vii. § 3, 4.

IV.	Mogul Period.	
A. D.		
1595-1599	Two sieges of <i>Ahmednagar</i> . CHÂND BIBI.	Ch. iii. § 6.
1599	Synod of Diamper.	Ch. iii. § 6 (20); vi. § 21.
1600	THE INCORPORATION OF THE BRITISH INDIA COMPANY.	Ch. vii. § 6.
1603	Assassination of ÂB-UL-FAZL.	Ch. iii. § 7.
1605	Death of Akbar. JEHÂNGÎR, the third Mogul.	Ch. iii. § 7.
1608	Hawkins in Sûrat.	Ch. vii. § 6.
1610	Seringapatam became the capital of Mysore.	Ch. xii. § 6.
1611	Marriage of the emperor with NÛR JEHÂN. She died in 1646.	Ch. iii. § 7; vii. § 6.
1615-1618	<i>Sir T. Roe</i> , ambassador.	
1626	Death of <i>Malik Ambar</i> .	
*1627	Jehângîr's death. Accession of SHÂN JEHÂN, the fifteenth Mogul emperor.	Ch. iii. § 8.
1631	Birth of SIVAJI.	Ch. v. § 9.
1631	Portuguese driven out of Bengal.	Ch. iii. § 8.
1636	<i>Mr Boughton</i> in Delhi.	Ch. v. § 9; vii. § 6.
1637	Ahmednagar taken by Shâh Jehân.	Ch. iii. § 8; iv. § 24; v. § 7.
1640	MADRAS founded.	Ch. iv. § 29.
1646	TORNEA.	Ch. v. § 11.
1657	Civil war breaks out between the sons of the emperor.	Ch. iii. § 8 (11).
1651		Ch. v. § 13.
1652		Ch. iii. § 8.
1658	AURUNZÏB, the sixth Mogul emperor, imprisons his father and seizes the empire.	Ch. iii. § 8 (11, 12).
1659	<i>Tirumala Nâyakan</i> died in Madura. Murder of <i>Afzal Khân</i> .	Ch. iv. § 6.
1662		Ch. v. § 14.
1663	Sack of Sûrat.	Ch. v. § 15, 16.
1664	FRENCH in India.	Ch. v. § 17; vii. § 6.
1665		Ch. v. § 17; vii. § 7.
1666	Death of Shâh Jehân. Sivaji in Delhi.	Ch. v. § 19; iii. § 9.
1668	BOMBAY made over to the Company.	Ch. vii. § 6; v. § 20.
1670		Ch. v. § 21.
1673-1704	Chick Dêo Râj in Mysore.	Ch. xii. § 8.
1674	Sivaji enthroned.	Ch. v. § 22.
1675	SIKHS.	Ch. iii. § 10 (5); xi. § 22.
1676	Sivaji in the Carnatic.	Ch. v. § 23.
1678		Ch. iii. § 9.
1680	Death of Sivaji.	Ch. v. § 26.

Mogul Period.

IV.

A.D.		
1683-1707	Aurungzib's wars in the Dakhan.	Ch. iii. § 9.
1686	<i>Bijapur</i> taken.	Ch. iii. § 9.
1687	<i>Golconda</i> taken.	Ch. iii. § 9.
1689	SAMBAJĪ, the second Mahratta Rāja, slain by Aurungzib.	Ch. v. § 32.
1695		Ch. iii. § 9 (20).
1700	Aurungzib in Satārā.	Ch. v. § 34.
1702	Birth of HYDER ALI of Mysore.	Ch. xii. § 13.
1706		Ch. iii. § 9.
*1707	Death of Aurungzib. Accession of SHĀH ĀLAM I., the seventh Mogul.	Summary ch. iii. § 9 (19).
1708	Liberation of Sāhu.	Ch. v. § 39.
1712	JEHANDAR SHĀH, the eighth Mogul.	Ch. iii. § 10; v. § 39, 40.
1713	The SEIADS, Hussein and Abdullah Khān put ZULFIKĀR KHĀN and the emperor to death, and set up FARUKHSHĪR (1713-1719), the ninth Mogul.	
1714	BĀLĀJĪ VISHWANĀTH, the first great PEISHWĀ.	Ch. iii. § 11, 12.
1716	Gabriel <i>Hamilton</i> at the court of FarukhshĪr.	Ch. v. § 40.
1717	The Sikhs almost exterminated.	Ch. iii. § 12 (8).
1717	Mahrattas under Bālājī Viswanāth in Delhi.	Ch. iii. § 12.
1719	Two puppet emperors. MUHAMMED SHĀH, the twelfth Mogul, placed on the throne by the Seiads.	Ch. v. § 42; iii. § 12.
*1720	Battle of SHĀHPŪR. Muhammed Shāh is really emperor to 1748. Death of Bālājī Vishwanāth, BĀJĪ RĀO I., the second PEISHWĀ.	Ch. iii. § 13-15.
*1724	NIZĀM-UL-MULK and SĀDAT KHĀN become virtually independent in the Dakhan and in Oudh respectively. <i>The great Mahratta chieftains rise to importance.</i>	Ch. iii. § 15.
1725	Robert CLIVE born.	Ch. v. § 43, 44.
1727		Ch. v. § 45.
1730		Ch. v. § 46.
1732	Warren Hastings born.	Ch. v. § 47.
1736	CHANDĀ SAHĒB in Trichinopoly.	Ch. vii. § 7.
*1738	Invasion of NĀDIR SHĀH.	Ch. v. § 50; iii. § 15.
1739	<i>Bassein</i> stormed by the Mahrattas.	Ch. v. § 51.
*1740	The first battle of AMBŪR. Death of Bājī Rāo I. He is succeeded by BĀLĀJĪ BĀJĪ RĀO, third PEISHWĀ.	Ch. vii. § 7; § 8 v. § 53.

v.

The English Period.

A.D.		
1741-1754	DUPLEIX in Pondicherry.	Ch. vii. § 7.
1744	R. CLIVE lands in India.	
1744-1761	<i>Struggles of French and English in the Carnatic.</i>	Ch. viii.
1746	<i>Madras taken by the French.</i> <i>Paradis gains a signal victory.</i>	Ch. viii. § 4.

V. The English Period.

*1748	Death of Muhammed Shâh. Ahmed Shâh succeeds; the thirteenth Mogul. Death of Nizâm-ul-Mulk. Death of Sâhu, the third Mahratta Râja.	Ch. iii. § 15. Ch. v. § 59. 65 Comp. ch. viii. § 14, Summary.
	Battle of Sirhind. <i>The two Ahmeds.</i> LAWRENCE comes to India.	
1749	Siege of <i>Dônhalli</i> .	Ch. xii. § 11.
1750	TIPPÛ born. WARREN HASTINGS landed in India. The second battle of AMBÛR. Death of Anwâr-ud-dîn.	Ch. x. § 35. Ch. viii. § 16.
1751	Defence of Arcot.	Ch. viii. § 20, &c.; xi. § 23; v. § 57, 63.
1752	Trichinopoly relieved. Chandâ Sahêb slain. Clive's triumph.	Ch. viii. § 23.
1754	Ahmed Shâh blinded and imprisoned. Âlangr II. succeeds: the fourteenth Mogul. Dupleix leaves India.	Ch. iii. § 18. Ch. iii. § 19; ch. viii. § 24.
1756	CLIVE and WATSON on the Western coast. <i>The Black Hole massacre.</i> Seringsapatam besieged by the Mahrattas.	Ch. ix. § 1, 4, 5; viii. § 27. Ch. xii. § 12.
*1757	AHMED SHÂH ABDÂLÎ in Delhi. PLASSEY.	Ch. iii. § 19; v. § 66; ix. § 7-12.
1758	Ragobâ in the Panjâb. LALLY lands in India.	Ch. iii. § 20; v. § 69; viii. § 30.
1759	Âlangr II. assassinated. SHÂH ÂLAM II., the fifteenth Mogul Emperor. Battle of Wandiwash.	Ch. iii. § 19; v. § 67; ix. § 13, 14.

The English Period.

v.

A.D.		
1760	Ūdghir. Resignation of MĪR JAFFĪR. <i>Mīr Kasim</i> elevated. Clive sails for England.	Ch. v. § 68 ; ix. § 13, 16.
*1761	<i>Hyder makes himself master of Mysore.</i> The second battle of PĀNĪPAT.	Ch. xii. § 13. Ch. v. § 69, 70, 71 ; ix. § 18.
	<i>French power destroyed in India.</i> Death of Bālāji Bājī RĀO. Accession of MĀDU RĀO, the FOURTH PEISHWĀ.	Ch. viii. § 32.
1762		Ch. v. § 72.
1763	The massacre at Patna. Hyder takes <i>Bednŕ</i> .	Ch. ix. § 21, 22. Ch. xii. § 14.
1764	The battle of <i>Buxŕ</i> . Death of Dupleix.	Ch. ix. § 23, 24.
1764-1765	THE MEMORABLE TEN MONTHS.	Ch. v. § 74 ; ix. § 29.
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1. Born 1744; 2. With Cornwallis when he surrendered at York Town, 1782;
3. In the campaign against France, 1793; 4. Appointed Commander-in-Chief in India, 1800; 5. Battle of Coel, August 29, 1803; 6. Storming of Alighar, September 4, 1803; 7. Battle of Delhi, September 11, 1803; 8. Liberates Shāh Ālām, September 14, 1803; 9. Takes Āgra, September 18, 1803; 10. Battle of Laswārī, November 1, 1803. [In two months he had destroyed thirty-one battalions, officered and led by Frenchmen, stormed Alighar, taken Delhi and Āgra, and captured 426 pieces of cannon.] 11. Receives thanks of Parliament, and is created Lord Lake, September 1, 1804;
12. Pursues Holkār; 13. Storms Dīg, Christmas Day, 1804; 14. Siege of Bhartpūr; the Rāja submits, April 10, 1804; 15. Pursues Holkār into the Panjāb, December 1804; 16. Embarks for Europe, February 1807; 17. Is created Viscount, October 31, 1808; 18. Dies, February 21, 1809.

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Cheduba, an island in Arakân, a few miles from Râmri, ch. x. § 79.
Chêrkûlî, ch. v. § 79; xii. § 22.
Chillianwallah, ch. xi. § 40, 42.
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Chindwâra, intro. § 13.
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- Chinsura**, on the west bank of the Hûgli, eighteen miles from Calcutta, ch. ix. § 5, 14.
- Chitôr**, a strong fortress in Râjpûtâna, ch. ii. § 32; iii. § 6.
- Chittagong**, intro. § 8, 23.
- Chittapet**, it is seventy-eight miles south-west from Madras, ch. viii. § 31.
- Chittledrûg** (Chitradrûg, Chitrakal = *the umbrella rock*), ch. xii. § 1.
- Chôla**, ch. i. § 28.
- Chôta Nagpûr**, intro. § 8.
- Chowghât Pass**, going into Coimbatâr, ch. x. § 63.
- Chumparun**, or **Bhattia**, intro. § 8.
- Chunâr**, on the Ganges, between Benâres and Mirzâpûr, ch. iii. § 4; v. § 158.
- Churkari**, Bandêlkhand, faithful in 1857, feudatory, intro. § 12, 24.
- Chuttanatti**, ch. vii. § 6.
- Circârs** (Northern), intro. § 23; ch. iii. § 16; ix. § 14.
- Cis-Satlaj States**, intro. § 23; ch. x. § 169.
- Cochin** (Colchi), intro. § 16, 24; ch. i. § 29; v. § 5, 8; x. § 64.
- Coel**, ch. v. § 130.
- Coimbatôr** (Koyimbatûr), intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 8; x. § 42; xii. § 56.
- Colleroon, R.**, intro. § 34.
- Colombo**, intro. § 37.
- Comorin** (Cape), (Kumari), intro. § 1, 2.
- Condore**, ch. ix. § 14.
- Conjeveram** (Kâncchipuram), ch. iv. § 5.
- Cooch Bahâr**, intro. § 8, 24.
- Corah** (Karrah), ch. ix. § 28.
- Corigâom** (Korigâom).
- Cornwallis** (Port), intro. § 38; x. § 79.
- Cossimbazaar** (Kâsim-bazâr), ch. ix. § 4.
- Cossyah** (Hills), (Kosiya), intro. § 8.
- Coulan** (Quilon).
- Covelong**, ch. viii. § 24.
- Cranganôr**, sixteen miles north of Cochin, ch. vi. § 9.
- Cuddalôr** (Cuddalore, *Gâdal-âr*), intro. § 16; ch. viii. § 9, 31; xii. § 35.
- Cuddapa** (Kadapa, Kûrpa), intro. § 16; ch. iii. § 16; viii. 18; x. § 40.
- Cûrg** (*Kârg, Coorg*).
- Cutch** (*Katch*), intro. § 18.
- Cuttack** (Kuttack), capital of the Gajapati Râjas of Orissa, at the mouth of the Mahânadi, intro. § 8, 23, 24.

Dabul—Ditû.

D

D

- Dabul, ch. vi. § 11.
 Dacca, intro. § 8.
 Dakhan, intro. § 30; ch. i. § 6; iv.
 Dâmalchêri Pass, ch. v. § 55; vii. § 7.
 Damân, it is 100 miles from Bombay, intro. § 19.
 Damûda, intro. § 34.
 Darjeeling, intro. § 8.
 David, Fort St, intro. § 23; viii. § 21.
 Dêhra Dûn, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 74.
 Delhi (Indraprashta), intro. § 9, 10, 23; ch. ii. § 16, 19; v. § 130; vii. § 7; x. § 166.
 Déogâom, ch. v. § 134.
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 Déoghar (Baria), (1) intro. § 18; (2) ch. iv. § 14, 15.
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 Dêra Fatih Khân, ch. xi. § 4.
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 Dêra Ishmael Khân, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4, 37.
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 Dêwas, intro. § 12, 24.
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 Dhaml, intro. § 24.
 Dhâr, intro. § 12, 24.
 Dharampûr, intro. § 24.
 Dhârwar, intro. § 18.
 Dhâvala-Giri (= the *white mountain*), intro. § 33.
 Dholapûr, a principality of Râjpûtâna, sometimes called Gôhud, intro. § 24; ch. i. § 137.
 Dhurwyl, intro. § 24.
 Dlamper, fourteen miles east from Cochin, ch. vi. § 21.
 Dîg (Deeg), ch. v. § 137.
 Dînanagar, ch. xi. § 3.
 Dindigal, intro. § 23; ch. xii. § 36, 45.
 Ditû, intro. § 19; ch. vi. § 11, 16, 17, 22.

- Doáb, ch. xi.
 Dodda-betta (Mt.), intro. § 33.
 Dójana, intro. § 24.
 Donabew, Mahá Bandúla was killed there, ch. x. § 79.
 Dondra Head, intro. § 1, 2.
 Dowlatábád, ch. iv. § 14, 15.
 Dúars, intro. § 8.
 Dubhoy (Dubhái), ch. v. § 100.
 Dufékár, of Ját, intro. § 24.
 Dumoh, intro. § 13.
 Dungarpūr, intro. § 24, 36.
 Durkóti, intro. § 24.
 Durriábád, intro. § 11.
 Durrang, intro. § 8.
 Duttla, intro. § 12, 24.
 Dwára Samudra, ch. iv. § 9; xii. § 2.

E

- Edar (Idar), intro. § 18, 24; ch. iii. 6.
 Ellóra, ch. v. § 7.
 Ellichpūr, the antient capital of Berár, ch. ii. § 31; iv. § 16, 26.
 Esa Keyl Valley, ch. xi. § 4.
 Etah, intro. § 9.
 Etawah, intro. § 9.
 Eusofzye, division of Pesháwar, ch. xi. § 4.
 Everest (Mt.), intro. § 33.

F

- Feróz-pūr, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 37; xi. § 8, 29.
 Feróz-sháh, ch. xi. § 31.
 Fulda (Fulta), on the east of the Húglí, twenty miles S.S.W., in a straight direction from Calcutta, ch. ix. § 5, 35.
 Furreedkót, intro. § 24.
 Furriḍpūr, intro. § 8.

Furruckábád—Gotrihar.

G

Furruckábád, a city on the Ganges. In 1802 its Nuwab surrendered it to the British, receiving a large pension. His descendant rebelled in 1857, and was sent into exile.

Futlghur, ch. v. § 137.

Futtehpúr, intro. § 9.

Fyzábád, intro. § 11.

G

Galle (Point de), in Ceylon, intro. § 37.

Galna, ch. v. § 137.

Ganges (River), intro. § 33, 34.

Ganges (Canal), ch. x. § 146.

Ganjam, intro. § 16.

Garra (River), intro. § 34; ch. xi.

Garrow (Hills), intro. § 8, 33.

Gáwilgarh, ch. v. § 133, 134.

Geroull, Bandélkhand, intro. § 24.

Ghâts (Eastern and Western), intro. § 31, 32, 33.

Ghâzlpúr, Lord Cornwallis died there, intro. § 9; ch. x. § 52.

Ghazni, Afgánistán, ch. ii. § 5-18; x. § 110-116.

Gheriah, Western Coast, (1) ch. v. § 65; (2) ix. § 21.

Gheriah (Fort), ch. viii. § 27.

Ghór, ch. ii. § 15.

Ghurra, intro. § 12.

Ginji, ch. v. § 34; viii. § 18.

Goa, intro. § 19; vi. § 12, 14-22.

Godávari (River and District), intro. § 16, 34.

Gógra (River), intro. § 34.

Góhud (Dholapúr), a city twenty-three miles north of Gwáliôr, capital of a district, intro. § 36; ch. v. § 137.

Golconda, ch. iii. § 9.

Gonda, intro. § 11.

Gondwána, intro. § 13.

Good Hope (Cape of), ch. vi.

Gooty (Gúti).

Gorruckpúr, intro. § 9.

Gotrihar, intro. § 24.

- Gour, ruins near Mālda, in Dinājpūr, ch. ii. § 19; iii. § 4.
 Govindpūr.
 Gowalpara, intro. § 8.
 Gujarāt (I.), a district of Western India, intro. § 18; i. § 7, 25, 28; iii. § 4; v. § 147.
 Gujarāt (II.), battlefield in the Panjāb, intro. § 10; xi. § 42.
 Gujranwāla, Panjāb, intro. § 10.
 Gāmsūr, in Orissa, ch. x. § 133.
 Gāmtl (River), intro. § 34.
 Gāna, intro. § 12.
 Gundamuck, ch. x. § 110, 116.
 Gundigāma (River), intro. § 34.
 Gunduck (Sālagrami), intro. § 33, 34.
 Guntūr, intro. § 16, 23; x. § 21.
 Gurdaspūr, intro. § 10.
 Gurgāon, intro. § 10.
 Gurhwāl, sub-Himālayan province, intro. § 9, 24, 27; x. § 74.
 Gurramcotta, ch. xii. § 56.
 Gūtl, ch. xii. § 56; v. § 99; x. § 84.
 Gwālīōr, the state prison of the Moguls, Sindia's capital, intro. § 12, 24, 25; ch. ii. § 23; v. § 100, 103, 137, 141, 161; x. § 124.
 Gya (Gaya), intro. § 8; ch. i. § 11.

H

- Hāla (Mountains, Hāla-Hāla), intro. § 1, 33.
 Hallabīd, ch. xii. § 2.
 Harāotl, south-east division of Rājputāna, picturesque, well-wooded, and fertile, intro. § 36.
 Hardwār, ch. ii. § 43.
 Hastināpūra, ch. i. § 7.
 Hastnagar, Peshāwar, ch. xi. § 4.
 Hazara, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 2, 6.
 Hazaribāgh, intro. § 8.
 Helmund (River), the Elymandrus, rises in the Paropamisus M., and flows into the lake of Zūr.
 Herāt (Artachoana), ch. i. § 19, 29; x. § 110.
 Himālaya (Mountains), intro. § 1, 27, 29, 33.

Hindū Koosh—Jamna.

I J

- Hindū Koosh, the Himālaya range north of Afgānistan, intro. § 33.
 Hindūstān, intro. § 27 ; ch. i. § 29.
 Hissar, capital of Hurriāna, 105 miles W.N.W. from Delhi, intro. §
 Hong-Kong, ch. x. § 111.
 Honore (Onore, Honāwār), ch. xii. § 20, 34.
 Hoshungābād, intro. § 13.
 Howrah, intro. § 8.
 Hurduī, intro. § 11.
 Hūglī, intro. § 8, 34 ; ch. i. § 29 ; ix. § 6.
 Hugrī, intro. § 34 ; xii. § 1.
 Hummeerpūr, intro. § 9.
 Humpī, ch. iv. § 29.
 Hushiarpūr, intro. § 10.
 Hydaspes, intro. § 34 ; ch. xi.
 Hyderābād (Sind), intro. § 18 ; ch. x. § 125.
 Hyderābād (Dakhan), intro. § 20, 23-25 ; ch. iii. § 12 ; x. § 78.
 Hydraotes (Ravi River), intro. § 34 ; ch. xi.
 Hysudras (Satlaj River).

I

- Imān-ghur, ch. x. § 125.
 Indor, intro. § 12 ; ch. v. § 45, 75, 121, 137.
 Indravatī (River), intro. § 34.
 Indus, intro. § 10, 34 ; ch. i. § 18, 19 ; x. § 125.
 Irawādī, ch. x. § 74.
 Islamābād, ch. xi. § 7.
 Istalīf, ch. x. § 122.

J

- Jaffrābād, ch. v. § 127, 137.
 Jaffna, north Ceylon, intro. § 37.
 Jālna, ch. v. § 126.
 Jaloun, in Bandēlkhānd, was annexed in 1840, intro. § 9.
 Jamkandī, intro. § 18.
 Jamna (River), (*Jumna*), rises in Gurhwāl, and joins the Ganges at Allāhābād,
 intro. § 12, 34 ; ch. i. § 29.

- Jât, intro. § 36.
 Jaxartes, or Syr Daria, falls into the Sea of Aral.
 Jaisalmir, Rājputāna, intro. § 24.
 Jellālābād, Afġanistān, the immortal garrison, ch. x. § 110, 116, 117.
 Jemla, in Nīpal.
 Jessór, intro. § 8.
 Jetch (Dōab), Panjāb, ch. xi. § 3.
 Jeypūr (I.), Orissa, intro. § 16, 36.
 Jeypūr (II.), the largest city in Rājputāna—regular, clean. The antient capital was Ambér, intro. § 24, 25, 36; ch. iii. § 6.
 Jhabbūa, intro. § 12.
 Jhallāwar, intro. § 24, 36.
 Jhalra Patān, intro. § 12.
 Jhānsi, in Bandēlkhand, annexed in 1853, intro. § 9, 23; ch. x. § 147, 181.
 Jhllam (River), Panjāb, intro. § 10, 34; ch. i. § 29; xi. § 3.
 Jhnd, Cis-Satlaj state, intro. § 24; ch. xi. § 8.
 Jhung, intro. § 10.
 Jigni, Bandēlkhand, feudatory, intro. § 24.
 Jinjira, Western Coast, ch. v. § 15, 29, 65, 113.
 Jobutt, intro. § 12.
 Jōdhpūr, capital of Mārwar, Rājputāna, intro. § 24, 25, 36; ch. iii. § 6.
 Joobal, intro. § 24.
 Jounpūr (Juanpoor), intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 42.
 Jowra, intro. § 12, 24.
 Jubbulpūr, a well-built town, 160 miles from Nāgpur, tents are manufactured there, intro. § 13.
 Jullindhur (Julindar), Panjāb, intro. § 10, 23; ch. x. § 129; xi. § 3, 34.
 Jumouri, intro. § 33.
 Jūnaghar, intro. § 18, 24.
 Junlr, ch. v. § 9.
 Jussū, Bandēlkhand, feudatory, intro. § 24.
 Jyntia (Hills), intro. § 8.

K

- Kābul (I.), ch. i. § 18; iii. § 3, 4, 6; x. § 69, 106, 110, 120.
 Kābul (II.), (River), intro. § 34.
 Kailāsa (Mountain), intro. § 33, 34.

Kaira—Kishtna.

K

- Kaira, the chief station in the eastern division of Gujarât, intro. § 18.
- Kâlî Sind (River), intro. § 36.
- Kalinjîr, Bandêlkhand. The district belongs to six chobeys, intro. § 24; ch. ii. § 10; iii. § 5.
- Kalyâna (Kalyân, Kaliân), ch. iv. § 11; v. § 15, 100.
- Kalunga, twenty-six miles north from Hurdwâr, ch. x. § 74.
- Kalpi, ch. ix. § 25; x. § 181.
- Kamrûp, intro. § 8.
- Kanara (Canara).
- Kandahâr (Candahâr, Khandahâr), ch. iii. § 3; x. § 110, 116.
- Kândêsh, intro. § 18.
- Kangra (Nâgarkôt), intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 8; xi. § 5.
- Kanouj, ch. i. § 27, 28; ii. § 9, 16.
- Kapurthala, Panjâb, intro. § 10, 24; ch. xi. § 5.
- Karâchi, Sind, intro. § 18.
- Kâricâl, French settlement, intro. § 16; ch. vii. § 7.
- Karma-nâsa (River), ch. ix. § 13.
- Karrack, ch. x. § 155.
- Karrah, ch. ii. § 31.
- Katch (Cutch), intro. § 17, 24.
- Katmandû, Nîpal, ch. x. § 74, 181.
- Kâverî (Câverî).
- Kelât, ch. x. § 110.
- Keonthul, intro. § 24.
- Kerowlî (Kerâoli), city and principality in Râjpûtâna, formerly Bîâna, intro. § 24, 36; ch. x. § 147.
- Khânpur, (Cawnpore), intro. § 9; ch. x. § 172, 173.
- Kharism (now *Khiva*), ch. ii. § 22.
- Kharond, intro. § 13, 24.
- Khorasân, Persia, ch. ii. § 5; iii. § 6.
- Khulsia, intro. § 24.
- Khyber Pass, Afgânistân, ch. x. § 110, 116; xi. § 4.
- Khyrâbâd, intro. § 11.
- Khyrpûr, Sind, ch. x. § 125.
- Kilchipûr, intro. § 12.
- Kineri, ch. xi. § 37.
- Kirki, ch. v. § 151.
- Kishtna (River), (*Kistna*, *Krishna*), intro. § 16, 34.

- Kishnagar, intro. § 24, 36.
 Kohât, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 4.
 Kojut Pass, ch. x. § 110.
 Kokhân, ch. iii. § 3.
 Kolâba, ch. v. § 113.
 Kolâr, ch. v. § 7.
 Kolhâpur, it is 121 miles S. by E. from Pûna, intro. § 17; ch. v. § 47, 166.
 Konkan, ch. v. § 4.
 Kopergâom, death of Ragobâ, ch. v. § 102.
 Korigâom, famous battle, ch. v. § 151, 155.
 Kôsi (River), rises near Catmandu, intro. § 34.
 Kota, on the right bank of the Chambal, strongly fortified, intro. § 24, 36.
 Kotâr, ch. x. § 63.
 Kothar, intro. § 24.
 Kothî, in Bandêlkhand, intro. § 24.
 Kulbûrga, capital of the Bâhminî dynasty, ch. iv. § 20-22.
 Kumaôn, sub-Himâlayan province, between Nîpal and Gurhwâl, intro. § 9, 27.
 Kunnya Dhâna, intro. § 24.
 Kunchinganga, intro. § 33.
 Kunwâr, intro. § 18.
 Kûrdlâ, famous battle, ch. v. § 114.
 Kûrg (Cûrg), N.E. of Mysore. Here are the sources of the Câverî. Capital, Mar-kâra—population 200,000, intro. § 23; ch. x. § 90; xii. § 23, 44, 45.
 Kurnal, intro. § 10.
 Kurnûl, intro. § 16; ch. iv. § 25; x. § 112.
 Kûrpa (*Kadapa*), ch. iv. § 25; xii. § 23.
 Kurwâl, intro. § 12.
 Kûshâb, ch. x. § 157.
 Kûsi, intro. § 34.
 Kuttack (Cuttack), intro. § 23, 34; ch. v. § 57, 131.

L

- Laccadives, intro. § 38.
 Lahâr, ch. v. § 100.
 Lâhôr, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 10; v. § 69; xi.
 Lakairi, ch. v. § 110.

Landour—Málda.

M

- Landour, in Gurhwál, sanitarium.
 Lanka, Sanskrit name for *Ceylon*, intro. § 37; ch. i. § 6, 29.
 Laráwat, intro. § 12.
 Lela, ch. xi. § 45.
 Logassi, intro. § 24.
 Lohardugga, intro. § 8.
 Loharoo, intro. § 24.
 Luckimpór, intro. § 8.
 Lucknow, intro. § 11; ch. x. § 174, 180.
 Lúdiána, intro. § 10; ch. xi. § 8.
 Lullutpúr, intro. § 9.
 Lúnawára, intro. § 18.
 Lúni, intro. § 4.

M

- Machéri (Mêwát Alwár), ch. iii. § 4.
 Madra, ch. vi. § 2.
 Madras, intro. § 16, 23; ch. iv. § 29; vii. § 6, 7; viii. § 32; x. § 9.
 Madura (Mad'hurá), intro. § 16; ch. i. § 12; iv. § 5, 6; ix. § 16.
 Magadha, ch. i. § 28.
 Mahaban Peak, intro. § 34.
 Mahánadí (River), intro. § 18, 34.
 Mahárájpúr, a few miles from Gwáliór, ch. x. § 124.
 Maháráshtra (Mahratta country), ch. iv. § 14; v. § 2.
 Mahé, intro. § 16; ch. xii. § 25.
 Máhi-kánta, intro. § 18.
 Mahundi, intro. § 11.
 Mái (River), (Mahi, Mhye), intro. § 34; ch. v. § 91.
 Malrwarra, intro. § 1-3, 6.
 Makrál, intro. § 13, 24.
 Makwanpúr, a fortress in Nípal, seventeen miles south of Catmandú, ch. x. § 74.
 Malabár, intro. § 16, 23; ch. vi. § 4; xii. § 16, 39, 45.
 Malacca, intro. § 21, 23; ch. vi. § 13; vii. § 4.
 Malapúrba, intro. § 34.
 Malavelli, battle, Mysore, ch. xii. § 52.
 Málda, close to it are the ruins of Gour, intro. § 8.

- Maldives**, intro. § 38.
Malebum, a fort and town in Nipal.
Malleir-kotla, intro. § 24.
Maloun, ch. x. § 74.
Mālwa, intro. § 12; ch. i. § 24; ii. § 16, 19, 40; v. § 48.
Malwān, an island on the west coast, thirty-three miles N.N.W. from Goa, ch. v. § 113, 145.
Manbhūm, intro. § 8.
Mandavi, the principal seaport in Katch.
Mandi, intro. § 10, 24.
Māndū, ch. ii. § 23, 40; iii. § 5.
Mangalore, S. Canara, intro. § 16.
Manjēra (River), intro. § 34; ch. v. § 69, 70.
Mānpūr, intro. § 12.
Manzerābād, ch. xii. § 1.
Markāra, ch. x. § 90.
Martaban, a town on the north bank of the Salwin River, in Pegu, ch. x. § 79.
Mārwar, intro. § 36; ch. i. § 27, 28; iii. § 6.
Masulipatam (Mesolia), intro. § 16, 23; ch. i. § 29; vii. § 7; ix. § 14.
Mauritius, an East African island, one of the Mascarenhas (from a Portuguese navigator) in the Indian Ocean; (Ile de France) discovered, but not occupied by the Portuguese; then taken possession of by the Dutch, who named it from Prince Maurice, and abandoned it in 1710, being driven out by rats. The French then took it, and held it till it was taken from them by the English in 1810. Its capital is Port Louis, ch. xii. § 47; vii. § 7; x. § 60.
Māwals, ch. v. § 4.
Mawāt Valley, ch. xi. § 4.
Mēgna, intro. § 34.
Mehidpūr, ch. v. § 151.
Mehkur, intro. § 20.
Mellāpūr (St Thomé, near Madras), ch. vii. § 7.
Melinda, Africa, ch. vi. § 2.
Mergui, Birma, intro. § 15; x. § 79.
Mēwār, Rājputāna, intro. § 24, 36; ch. i. § 25, 28; iii. § 6.
Mēwāt, Rājputāna, ch. ii. § 29.
Miāni, Sind, ch. x. § 125.
Midnāpūr, it is seventy miles south by west from Calcutta, intro. § 8, 23; ch. ix. § 16.
Mirāj, intro. § 18.

Mirpūr—Nagar.

N

- Mirpūr, Sind, ch. x. § 125.
 Mirut, intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 43; x. § 165.
 Mirzāpūr, intro. § 9.
 Mithila, ch. i. § 28, 29.
 Mohun, intro. § 18.
 Mokhundra Pass, intro. § 36; ch. v. § 137.
 Monghyr, a town and district in Bahār, on the south bank of the Ganges, intro. § 8;
 ch. ix. § 14.
 Montgomery, intro. § 10.
 Morādābād, intro. § 9.
 Moulmein, ch. x. § 79.
 Mountains, intro. § 33.
 Mūdhol, intro. § 18, 24.
 Mūdki, ch. xi. § 30; x. § 128.
 Mūglī Pass, ch. xii. § 41.
 Muhammedghar, intro. § 12.
 Mūltān, intro. § 10; ch. ii. § 4; v. § 69; xi. § 36, 37.
 Mundla, intro. § 13.
 Mungai, intro. § 24.
 Munnipūr, intro. § 12.
 Mūrshedābād, it is 120 miles above Calcutta, intro. § 8; ch. iii. § 9; ix. § 4.
 Musi, intro. § 34.
 Muttra (Mathura), intro. § 9; ch. ii. § 9
 Muxudanghar, intro. § 12.
 Muzaffirghar, intro. § 60.
 Muzaffir Nagar, intro. § 9.
 Myanoung, intro. § 15.
 Myhere, intro. § 24.
 Mylōg, intro. § 24.
 Mymensing, intro. § 8.
 Mynpūrī, intro. § 9.
 Mysore (Maisūr), intro. § 14, 24; ch. x. § 89; xii.

N

- Nabha, Cis-Satlaj state, intro. § 24; ch. xi. § 8.
 Nāga (Hills), intro. § 8.
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“Under the *Ryotwár* system, every registered holder of land is recognised as its proprietor, and pays direct to the government; he can sublet, transfer, sell, or mortgage it; he cannot be ejected by the government, and so long as he pays the fixed

RYOTWÁR system—*continued*.
 assessment, he has the option of annually increasing or diminishing the cultivation on his holding; or, he may entirely abandon it. In unfavourable seasons remissions of assessment are granted for loss of produce. The assessment is fixed in money, and does not vary from year to year, except when water is obtained from a government source of irrigation; nor is any addition made to the rent for improvements effected at the ryot's own expense; he has, therefore, all the benefit of a perpetual lease without its responsibilities, as he can at any time throw up his lands; but cannot be ejected so long as he pays his dues, and he receives assistance in difficult seasons. The original assessment (in Madras) was unfortunately fixed too high; but the reductions and re-assessments made of late years are materially improving the position of the cultivators. An annual settlement is made, not to re-assess the land, but to determine upon how much of his holding the ryot shall pay; when no change occurs in a holding, the ryot is not affected by the annual settlement, and is not required to attend it. The *Ryotwár* system may be said essentially to prevail throughout the Madras and Bombay presidencies, as the Zamindár and village renter equally deal with their tenants on this principle.”

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