

History Module 1
Modern Indian History

Arrival of Foreigners in India chronologically

- a. Portuguese – 1498 – Vasco-de-Gama arrived at Calicut, set up factory at Calicut,
1510 – won Goa. The second Governor of Goa Alfonso – de – Alburk, the first Portuguese Governor was Almaida.
1534 – won Diu, Vasai,
1534 – won Dadra Nagar Haveli
- b. Dutch – 1602 – Founded East India Company. First factory was set up at Nagapattanam, then factories were set up at Machhalipatanam, Chinsura, Tanjavur, Travancore, Shrirampur (Bengal), later sold these factories to British
- c. Danes 1699 The Danish East India Company established a colony called Fredericknagore, in honor of their ruler King Frederick the Vth near Serampore, West Bengal in 1699.
- Fredericknagore failed as a commercial venture. In 1777, after the Danish company went bankrupt,
- In 1799, Reverend William Carey and two fellow Baptist missionaries established the first printing press in Asia, in Serampore to print copies of the Bible. In 1819,
- Carey established the Serampore College, the first institution to impart western style higher education in Asia. In 1827, a Royal Charter by the King of Denmark declared it as a university
- In 1845, Denmark ceded Serampore to Britain, thereby ending the nearly 150 years of Danish presence in Bengal.
- d. British – 1600 31st Dec. 1600 East India Company was set up,
1604 - set up first factory at Surat
1608 – Captain Hawkins was sent by James I to the court of Jahangir to get permission but he failed.

1615 - Sir Thomas Roe was sent by James I and was granted trading facilities by Mughal Emperor, Jahangir,
1640 – Fort St. George factory at Madras
1661 – took Mumbai Island on rent
1699 – set up Fort William at Calcutta

1717 - the Company obtained a *firman* or royal dictat from the Mughal Emperor exempting the Company from the payment of custom duties in Bengal.

- e. France – 1664 1664 – French East India Company was founded by Jean Baptiste Colbert
1667 – French Colony at Surat was established
1669 – French Colony at Masulipatanam
1673 – French colony at Chandranagar when
Nawab of Bengal Ibahim Khan granted French permission to establish a trading post. In 1730 Dupleix was appointed governor as the governor of the city.
1717 - Mughal king Farrukh – si – yaar granted permission to waive octorai duty to French East India Company
French set up factories at Masulipattanam, Pondicherry, Mahe, Karikal, Chandranagar etc.

Establishment of British Rule in India

After the Battles of [Plassey \(1757\)](#) and [Buxar \(1764\)](#) which established British dominion over East India, the Anglo-Mysore wars (1766–1799), the [Anglo–Maratha Wars](#) (1775–1818), and finally the [Anglo-Sikh Wars](#) (1845–1849) consolidated the British claim over South Asia, resulting in the [British Empire in India](#),

1. Battles of [Plassey - 1757](#)
2. Battle of Wandiwash - 1760
3. Battle of [Buxar - 1764](#)
4. the Anglo-Mysore wars - 1766–1799
5. the [Anglo–Maratha Wars](#) - 1775–1818), and finally
6. the [Anglo-Sikh Wars](#) - 1845–1849)

WAR AGAINST MAJOR INDIAN POWERS

British fought wars with the Kings of Mysore, Sikhs and Marathas to establish their supremacy in India. The major Indian powers were Rajas of Mysore like Haider Ali and Tipu Sultan, Sikhs Rajas like Ranjit Singh in Punjab and Marathas Kings like Baji Rao Peshwa in Deccan.

Wars with Mysore

The British had to fight four wars with the kings of Mysore

1. The first Anglo-Mysore war (1767 to 69) the first Anglo-Mysore war was fought between Nizam, Marathas and Haider Ali on the one side and the British on the other. The British at Madras were frightened. They finally surrendered and made peace with Haider Ali.
2. The [Second Anglo–Mysore War](#) (1780–1784) This war saw the rise of [Sir Eyre Coote](#), the British commander who repeatedly defeated Hyder Ali. Hyder and his son Tipu prevailed. This led to the last British-Indian treaty with an Indian ruler on equal footing. The war ended in 1784 with the [Treaty of Mangalore](#), at which both sides agreed to restore the other's lands to the [status quo ante bellum](#).
3. The [Third Anglo–Mysore War](#) (1789–1792), Tipu Sultan, the ruler of Mysore made friendship with France, invaded the nearby state of [Travancore](#) in 1789, which was a British ally (friend). The resultant war lasted three years and was a resounding defeat for Mysore. The war ended after the 1792 [siege \(capture\) of Seringapatam](#) and the signing of the [Treaty of Seringapatam](#), according to which Tipu had to surrender half of his kingdom to the [British East India Company](#) and its allies.
4. The [Fourth Anglo–Mysore War](#) (1799) saw the defeat of Tipu Sultan. Mysore's alliance with the French was seen as a threat to the East India Company. Mysore was attacked from all four sides by Nizam, Marathas and British. The enemies' troops were four times larger than that of Tipu Sultan. Mysore had 35,000 soldiers, whereas the British commanded 60,000 troops. The Nizam of Hyderabad and the Marathas launched an invasion from the north. The British won a decisive victory at the [Battle of Seringapatam](#) in 1799. Tipu was killed during the defence of the city. Mysorean territory was annexed by the British, the Nizam and the Marathas. The remaining core, around [Mysore](#) and [Seringapatam](#), was restored to the original Indian prince belonging to the [Wodeyar](#) dynasty.

This was the final conflict of the four [Anglo–Mysore Wars](#). The British took indirect control of Mysore, restoring the [Wodeyar](#) Dynasty to the Mysore throne (with a British commissioner to advise him on all issues). [Tipu Sultan](#)'s young heir, [Fateh Ali](#), was sent into exile. The Kingdom of Mysore became a [princely state](#) in a [subsidiary alliance](#) with [British India](#) and ceded [Coimbatore](#), [Uttara Kannada](#), and [Dakshina Kannada](#) to the British. Lord Weelesley was the Governor General of India.

English supremacy over the Sikhs and Punjab

Maharaja Ranjit Singh: He was born at Gujranwala on 2nd November 1780. A.D. He remained under the protection of regency council set up by his mother for 5 years and assumed the reins of the government in 1779 A.D. he led the foundation of an extensive Sikh kingdom after conquering the Punjab states one after the another by taking full advantage of the disorderly and disturbed political condition of the Punjab. Maharaja Ranjit Singh died on 29th July 1839 A.D. and with his death the Sikh state which he had built began to fall.

Anglo Sikh relations in the beginning were quite friendly.

The growth of the Sikh power under Maharaja Ranjit Singh had made the British East India Company anxious, so they concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh in 1809, known as the treaty of Amritsar. It was made between Maharaja Ranjit Singh and Sir Charles Metcalfe on behalf of English, 1809 A.D. Under the agreement river Sutlej was recognized as the separation between both the empires. The agreement stopped the immediate expansion of the Sikh Empire under Ranjit Singh towards the east yet Ranjit Singh conquered Attock(1813), Kashmir(1819), Dera Gazi Khan(1820), Dera Ismail Khan(1821), Peshawar, Kangra, Multan, etc in the south, west & north. But after his death at the age of 59 his successors weren't able to provide the right kind of leadership required to sustain such a huge empire. After various pretensions and bloodbath finally the youngest son of Ranjit Singh, Dileep Singh took charge of his empire in 1843 under the guidance of his mother, Queen Jhinda. But he too was unable to cope up with the internal dissensions.

Prevailing chaos invited the British East India Company to fish in the troubled waters. They started a military build up in the eastern fringe of Sutlej, concerned Sikhs made a huge political blunder by breaking the treaty of Amritsar and crossing the river Sutlej.

1. First Anglo –Sikh war (1845 – 1849) - on 13th December, 1845, the British Governor General Henry Hardinge declared war on the Sikhs. Between 1845 to 1849 Sikhs and the British fought two wars. The first war was fought in Mudki on 18th December 1845. Sikhs under their Prime Minister Lal Singh attacked and got a decisive edge over the British, but the sudden running away of Lal Singh from the battle field at a time when the battle was at its pinnacle gave a huge blow to the Sikh morale. Again on 21st December 1845 the two armed forces met at Ferozeshahar, again the sudden running away of Lal Singh and General Teja Singh led to the defeat of the Sikhs. But the Sikhs caused a reversal on 21st January, 1846 when under the leadership of Ranjodh Singh and Ajit Singh they defeated the army of Harry Smith.

The Sikhs and the British fought two more battles on 28th January at Aliwal and on 10th February at Sobraon. These battles led to the Treaty of Lahore, in which the Sikh territories east of Sutlej were confiscated also the Sikhs were forced to surrender Julundhur - Doab region to the British. Also Sikhs were forced to hand over Kashmir as a fine to the British which the British East India Company later sold to Maharaja Gulab Singh of Jammu for 10 Lakh Pounds. The King and his queen Mother were later on pensioned off.

2. The Second Anglo-Sikh War at Chilianwala (13th March 1849) :- But the truce was not long lasting. A succession controversy resulted in the resignation of the then Governor of Multan, Moolraj. His resignation brought in a era of chaos and confusion. So to control the situation two British Officers under Khan Singh were deputed to Multan but both the British Officers were murdered there. Soon Queen Mother Jhingan was arrested and charged with treason and inciting other Sikhs. She was deposed. This disgraceful behavior with the Queen Mother triggered of the second Anglo-Sikh war.

On 13th January, 1849 both the Sikh and the British Forces under Lord Gough met. The Sikh forces were lead by Jawahar Singh Nalwa. This was the most gruesome battle the British forces ever fought. The total British losses in terms of the dead and the injured were approximately 2, 400 which included 89 officers. But the battle was indecisive so the next battle was fought in Gujarat on 21st February but this time the Sikhs lost decisively. On 12th of March the Sikhs finally laid down there arms and on 29th March Punjab was annexed to the British dominion of India.

On 29 March 1849, Lord Dalhousie annexed the Sikh kingdom to the British crown. The Punjab was annexed to the British empire by a proclamation on March 28, 1849 A.D. of Lord Dalhousie. The Khalsa army was disbanded. Maharaja Dalip Singh himself had to part with the famous diamond Kohinoor.

War with Marathas

Balaji Baji Rao was appointed the third Peshwa of the Marathas in 1740. Maratha power spread to the north during 1757-60. The third Battle of Panipat took place in 1761 between the Marathas under the Peshwa's son and the Ahmad Shah Abdali in alliance with Nazib-ud-daulah of Rohilkhand and Shuja-ud-daulah of Awadh. Marathas were defeated. Sadasiva Bhao was killed. Viswas Rao, the son of Peshwa, was also killed. Malhar Rao Holkar saved his life by running away from the battlefield. Mahadji Scindia was able to save his life but he became lame. This loss jolted Balaji Baji Rao. He retired broken-hearted to Poona and died in 1761 a few days later.

The First Maratha War (1775-82):

The first Maratha War was fought between the English and the Marathas from 1775 to 1782. Nana Phadnavis made friendship with Nizam and Haidar Ali. Their combined army defeated Goddard's army in 1781. Soon the Nizam left the side of the Marathas. However, Warren Hastings was in favor of ending the war. The Treaty of Salbai was concluded between the English and the Marathas under Mahadji Scindia on May 17th, 1782, and status quo was maintained.

The Treaty of Bassein (1802)

This treaty was later made between the last Peshwa of the Marathas, Baji Rao II and the English on December 31st, 1802. By concluding this treaty the Peshwa lost his independence for the sake

of his protection and sacrificed the interest of his country and the community to achieve his selfish ends.

The second Maratha War (1803):

The second Maratha war broke out between the English and the Maratha Chiefs – Scandia and Bhosale. The reason of this war was Lord's Wellesley's desire to extend the British Empire. The English won the war. The Treaty of Surji Arjungaon was made on Dec. 30th, 1803. The English territory extended considerably and many important areas were annexed to the British Empire.

The Third Maratha War (1817 – 1818)

In 1815, Trimbakji, a minister of the Peshwa, murdered a Brahmin envoy of the ruler of Gaikwar who had gone to Poona under a British self-conduct. Elphinstone suspected a foul play. He forced Baji Rao to surrender Trimbakji. He also forced the Peshwa to enter into a new subsidiary alliance and grant a piece of territory for the maintenance of the contingent force. He compelled him to give up the headship of the Maratha confederacy.

Later on Baji Rao revolted and attacked and burnt the British Residency. But Elphinstone managed to escape. In the battle of Kirki, Peshwa was defeated.

Appa Saheb Bhosale of Nagpur and Holkar declared war against the English. Appa Saheb was defeated at Sitabuldi and was forced to surrender. Holkar's army was also defeated in the battle of Mahidpur. The Peshwa was chased and defeated at Ashti and Koregaon. Baji Rao Peshwa was forced to surrender in 1818. The Fort of Asirgarh was captured in 1819. The English abolished the office of Peshwa. But Baji Rao was given a generous treatment by way of a pension of Rs. 8 lakh a year for his life, A representative of the line of Shivaji was put on the throne of Satara. Appa Saheb Bhosale was deposed and a new Raja was put in his place. The Narbada territory of Bhosale was annexed. Holkar was forced to enter into a subsidiary alliance and grant some territory for the maintenance of the contingent army.

Rivalry between English and French

First Carnatic War (1746–1748)

In 1740 the War of the Austrian Succession broke out in Europe. Great Britain was only drawn into the war in 1744, when it entered the war opposed to France and its allies.

The trading companies of both countries maintained cordial relations among themselves in India while their parent countries were bitter enemies on the European continent.

Dodwell writes, "Such were the friendly relations between the English and the French that the French sent their goods and merchandise from Pondicherry to Madras for safe custody."

Although French company officials were ordered to avoid conflict, British officials were not, and were furthermore notified that a Royal Navy fleet was en route. After the British initially captured a few French merchant ships, the French called for backup from as far afield as Isle de France (now Mauritius).

On 21 September 1746, the French captured the British outpost at Madras. Dupleix, to placate the Nawab of Arcot, had promised him Madras, but withdrew that promise after the capture. The Nawab then sent a 10,000-man army to take Madras from the French, but was decisively repulsed by a small French force in the Battle of Adyar.

The French attempted to capture the British outpost at Cuddalore, but could not do so.

With the termination of the War of Austrian Succession in Europe, the First Carnatic War also came to an end. In the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), Madras was given back to the British in exchange for the French fortress of Louisbourg in North America, which the British had captured.

The war was principally notable in India as the first military experience of Robert Clive, who was taken prisoner at Madras, escaped, and then participated in the defense of Cuddalore and the siege of Pondicherry.

Second Carnatic War (1749–1754)

After the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk in 1748, the Nizam of Hyderabad, a civil war for succession, now known as the Second Carnatic War, broke out in the south between Mir Ahmad Ali Khan (Nasir Jung), the son of the Nizam-ul-Mulk, and Hidayat Muhi ud-Din Sa'adu'llah Khan (Muzaffar Jung), the grandson of Nizam-ul-Mulk.

This opened a window of opportunity for Chanda Sahib, who wanted to become Nawab of Arcot. He joined the cause of Muzaffar Jung and began to conspire against the Nawab Anwaruddin Muhammed Khan in Arcot. The French allied with Chanda Sahib and Muzaffar Jung to bring them into power in their respective states. But soon the British also intervened. To offset the French influence, they began supporting Nasir Jung and Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah (son of the deposed Nawab Anwaruddin Muhammed Khan of Arcot). Initially, the French succeeded in both states in defeating and murdering their opponents and placing their supporters on thrones in 1749.

In 1751, however, Robert Clive led British troops to capture Arcot. Clive's success led to additional victories for the British and their Nizam and Arcot allies. The war ended with the Treaty of Pondicherry, signed in 1754. Muhammad Ali Khan Walajah was recognized as the Nawab of Arcot. The French leader Dupleix was asked to return to France. The directors of the French East India Company were dissatisfied with Dupleix's political ambitions, which had led to immense financial loss. In 1754, Charles Godeheu replaced Dupleix.

Third Carnatic War (1757–1763)

The outbreak in 1756 of the Seven Years' War in Europe resulted in renewed conflict between French and British forces in India. The Third Carnatic War spread beyond southern India and into Bengal where British forces captured the French settlement of Chandernagore (now Chandernagar) in 1757. However, the war was decided in the south, as British commander Sir Eyre Coote decisively defeated the French under the Comte de Lally at the Battle of Wandiwash in 1760. After Wandiwash, the French capital of Pondicherry fell to the British in 1761. The war concluded with the signing of the 1763 Treaty of Paris, which returned Chandernagore and Pondichéry to France, and allowed the French to have "factories" (trading posts) in India but forbade French traders from administering them.

The English Conquest of Bengal

Towards the end of eighteenth century the English occupied the most important place among the European traders in Bengal. Nawab Alivardi Khan, who was practically independent ruler of Bengal from 1740 to 1756, extended his protection to the European merchants in carrying on their legitimate trade. Alivardi died in April 1756. As he had no son, he nominated as his successor his grandson (daughter's son) Siraj-Ud-Daula. A grave offence on the part of the English was committed as they began to construct fortifications at Calcutta in clear violation of the terms under which they had been allowed to trade with Bengal. Siraj-UD-Daula took prompt action. He occupied the English factory at Kasimbazar and then captured Calcutta in June 1756. The so called 'black-hole tragedy' followed. English prisoners were crowded into a small chamber with only one small window, throughout the hot night of June 20, 1756 and many of them died of suffocation or wounds. Nawab did not take personal responsibility for what happened. In December 1756 strong English forces led by colonel Robert Clive and Admiral Watson arrived in Bengal from Madras. Calcutta was occupied by them in January 1757. Siraj-Ud-Daulah failed to recapture the city and he was compelled to accept all the demands of the company.

In May 1757 a secret treaty was arranged between Mir Jafar and the company. Mir Jafar was to be placed on the throne by the British.

Battle of Plassey (1757):

Clive met Nawab Siraj-Ud-Daula's at a village called Plassey (Nadia district, west Bengal) in a battle on 23 June 1757. It ended in Clive's complete victory. Initially the situation appeared very serious for Clive. But Clive got very easy and decisive victory. The English lost only 29 lives whereas the Nawab lost nearly 500. Siraj – ud – Daula ran away to Murshidabad and from there to Patna. He was captured and put to death by Miran, the son of Mir Jafar.

Plassey gave the English some immediate advantages- military and commercial and created a field for the establishment of their political power in Bengal. Mir Jafar, uncle of Siraj-ud-Daulah, was put on the throne of Bengal. He gave 24 Parganas and one crore of rupees to the Company.

Mir Jafar was the Nawab of Bengal from 1757 to 1760. He was not brilliant enough to run the administration. Clive was the de-facto ruler. The treasury became defunct. After the death of Miran, the son of Mir Jafar, the situation in Bengal became very desperate. Mir Kasim, the son-in-law of Mir Jafar began to aspire to become the Nawab of Bengal. He entered into a treaty with the Company and became Nawab. He gave away three districts of Burdwan, Midnapore and Chittagong to the Company. Mir Jafar left the throne and went away to Calcutta and began to live there as a prisoner of Mir Kasim.

Mir Kasim made a very good beginning. He transferred his capital from Murshidabad to Monghyr. He issued a Firman in 1717 which authorised the Company free seaborne trade. However, the English misused it by bringing under it all kinds of private trade.

Battle of Buxar (1764) :

Mir Qasim, successor of Mir Jafar formed alliance with Nawab Suja-ud-daula of Awadh and the titular Emperor, Shah Alam. In the early months of 1764. The allied Army fought with the English troops on the borders of Oudh and Bihar. Hector Munro of the British Army inflicted a crushing defeat on the allied army at Buxar on 22nd October 1764. After the victory the English dissolved the coalition. The treaty of Allahabad was made in 1765. Shah Alam came to the side of the British, Shuja - ud - Duala fled to the Rohilla country. Awadh was conquered. Mir Qasim became a fugitive and died in misery in 1777. The war of Buxar was far more important than that of Plassey. The Nawab of Awadh became a dependent ally of the company and the titular Mughal emperor became its pensioner and stayed as virtual prisoner at Allahabad for six years. Buxar brought Bengal and its revenue under the control of English and it paved the way for British supremacy in North India.

Uprisings in India during British Rule

Bengal and Eastern India:

The Sanyasi Revolt:

The coming of the British brought with it economic hardships symbolised by the massive famine of 1770, and a general callousness on the part of the Company's officials.

The restrictions imposed on visits to holy places estranged the sanyasis.

The sanyasis retaliated by organising raids on the Company's factories and state treasuries. Only after prolonged military action could Warren Hastings contain the raids by the sanyasis.

Chuar Uprising:

Famine, enhanced land revenue demands and economic distress goaded the Chuar aboriginal tribesmen of Midnapore district to take up arms. The uprising lasted from 1766 to 1772 and then, again surfaced between 1795 and 1816.

Ho Rising:

The Ho and Munda tribesmen of Chhotanagpur challenged the Company's forces in 1820-22, then again in 1831, and the area remained disturbed till 1837.

Kol Mutiny (1831):

This covered Ranchi, Singhbhum, Hazaribagh, Palamau and the western parts of Manbhum. The trouble started with large-scale transfers of land from Kol headmen (Mundas) to outsiders like Sikh and Muslim farmers.

The Kols of Chhotanagpur resented this and in 1831, the Kol rebels killed or burnt about a thousand outsiders. Only after large-scale military operations could order is restored.

Kandh Uprising (1837-56):

This covered Ghumsar, China-ki-Medi, Kalahandi and Patna. The Kandhs retaliated under Chakra Bisoi against the British efforts to put an end to the Kandh's practice of human sacrifice (Mariah) first through persuasion and later through force. The Kandhs fought with tangis—a sort of battle axe—bows and arrows and even swords.

Santhal Rising:

The Santhals of Rajmahal Hills resented the oppression by revenue officials, police, money-lenders, landlords—in general, by the “outsiders’ (whom they called diku). The Santhals under Sido and Kanhu rose up against their oppressors, declared the end of the Company's rule and asserted themselves independent in 1854.

It was only in 1856 after extensive military operations that the situation was brought under control. Sido died in 1855, while Kanhu was arrested in 1866. A separate district of Santhal Parganas was created by the Government to pacify the Santhals.

Ahom Revolt:

The British had pledged to withdraw after the First Burma War (1824-26) from Assam. But, after the war, instead of withdrawing, the British attempted to incorporate the Ahoms' territories in the Company's dominion.

This sparked off a rebellion in 1828 under the leadership of Gomdhar Konwar. Finally, the Company decided to follow a conciliatory policy and handed over Upper Assam to Maharaja Purandar Singh Narendra and part of the kingdom was restored to the Assamese king.

Khasi Uprising:

After having occupied the hilly region between Garo and Jaintia Hills, the East India Company wanted to build a road linking the Brahmaputra Valley with Sylhet. For this, a large number of outsiders including Englishmen, Bengalis and the labourers from the plains were brought to these regions.

The Khasis, Garos, Khamptis and the Singhpos organised themselves under Tirath Singh to drive away the strangers from the plains. The uprising developed into a popular revolt against British rule in the area. By 1833, the superior English military force had suppressed the revolt.

Pagal Panthis:

Karam Shah was the founder of the Pagal Panth—a semi-religious sect having influence in the northern districts of Bengal. An activist fervour to the sect was impacted by Tipu, the son and successor of Karam Shah.

Tipu was motivated by both religious and political motives and took up the cause of the tenants against the oppression of the Zamindars. Tipu captured Sherpur in 1825 and assumed royal power. The insurgents extended their activities to Garo Hills. The area remained disturbed in the 1830s and 1840s.

Faraizi Revolt:

The Faraizis were the followers of a Muslim sect founded by Haji Shariat-Allah of Faridpur in Eastern Bengal. They advocated radical religious, social and political changes. Shariat-Allah son Dadu Mian (1819-60) organised his followers with an aim to expel the English intruders from Bengal. The sect also supported the cause of the tenants against the Zamindars. The Faraizi disturbances continued from 1838 to 1857. Most of the Faraizis joined the Wahabi ranks.

Munda Revolt:

For over three decades, the Munda Sardar of Chhotanagpur had been struggling against the destruction of their system of common land-holdings by the intrusion of jagirdars, thikadars (revenue farmers) and traders- moneylenders. During the last decade of the nineteenth century, the Mundas rose under Birsa Munda in a religious movement or rebellion (“ulgulan”) with an agrarian and political content.

They aimed to establish a Munda rule in the land by killing thikadars, jagirdars, rajas and hakims. To bring about the liberation, Birsa gathered a force of 6,000 Mundas armed with swords, spears, battle-axes, and bows and arrows. Birsa was, however, captured in 1900 and he died in jail the same year.

Western India:

Bhil Uprisings:

The Bhils, an aboriginal tribe concentrated around Khandesh, revolted against their new masters, the East India Company, fearing agrarian hardships and the worst under the new regime. One of their leaders was Sewaram. The Bhils revolted in 1817-19, and again in 1825, 1836 and 1846.

Cutch Rebellion:

The British interfered in the internal feuds of the Cutch and, in 1819, defeated and deposed the ruler Rao Bharamal in favour of his infant. A British resident governed the areas as the de facto ruler with the help of a regency council.

The administrative innovations made by the regency council coupled with excessive land assessment caused deep resentment. The news of the British reverses in the Burma War emboldened the chiefs to rise in revolt and demand the restoration of Bharamal. After extensive military operations failed to control the situation, the Company’s authorities were compelled to follow a conciliatory policy.

Waghera Rising:

A resentment against the alien rule coupled with the exactions of the Gaekwar of Baroda supported by the British Government compelled the Waghera chiefs of Okha Mandal to take up arms. The Wagheras carried out inroads into British territory during 1818-19. A peace treaty was signed in November 1820.

Koli Risings:

The Kolis living in the neighbourhood of Bhils rose up in rebellion against the Company's rule in 1829, 1839 and again during 1844-48. They resented the imposition of Company's rule which brought with it large-scale unemployment for them and the dismantling of their forts.

Ramosi Risings:

The Ramosis, the hill tribes of the Western Ghats, had not reconciled to British rule and the British pattern of administration. They rose under Chittur Singh in 1822 and plundered the country around Satara. Again, there were eruptions in 1825-26 and the disturbances continued till 1829.

The disturbance occurred again in 1839 over deposition and banishment of Raja Pratap Singh of Satara, and disturbances erupted in 1840-41 also. Finally, a superior British force restored order in the area.

Surat Salt Agitations:

A strong anti-British sentiment resulted in attacks by local Surat population on the Europeans in 1844 over the issue of the Government's step to raise the salt duty from 50 Paise to one rupee.

Faced with a popular movement, the Government withdrew the additional salt levy. And, again in 1848, the Government was forced to withdraw its measure to introduce Bengal Standard Weights and Measures in face of people's determined bid to resort to boycott and passive resistance.

Kolhapur and Savantvadi Revolts:

The Gadkaris were a hereditary military class which was garrisoned in the Maratha forts. These garrisons were disbanded during administrative reorganisation in Kolhapur state after 1844. Facing the spectre of unemployment, the Gadkaris rose in revolt and occupied the Samangarh and Bhudargarh forts. Similarly, the simmering discontent caused a revolt in Savantvadi areas.

South India:

Revolt of Raja of Vizianagaram:

The East India Company invited the wrath of the people of Northern Sarkar when, after the acquisition of these territories in 1765, it demanded a tribute of three lakh rupees from the Raja and also asked the Raja to disband his troops.

The Raja supported by his subjects rose up in revolt. The Raja died in a battle in 1794. Finally, the Company offered the estate to the deceased Raja's son and reduced the demand for presents.

Poligars' Revolt:

The Poligars of Dindigal and Malabar rose up against the oppressive land revenue system under the British during 1801-06. Sporadic rising of the Poligars in Madras Presidency continued till 1856.

Diwan Velu Tampi's Revolt:

The East India Company's harsh conditions imposed on the state of Travancore, after both of them agreed to a subsidiary alliance arrangement under Wellesley in 1805, caused deep resentment. The ruler failed to pay the subsidy and fell in arrears.

The high-handed attitude of the Company compelled the Diwan, Velu Tampi, to rise against the Company, assisted by the Nair battalion. A large military operation had to be undertaken to restore peace.

Rampa Revolt:

The hill tribesmen of Rampa in coastal Andhra revolted in March 1879 against the depredations of the government-supported mansabdar and the new restrictive forest regulations. Only after a large military operation could the rebels be defeated in 1880.

North India:

Wahabi Movement:

The Wahabi Movement was essentially an Islamic revivalist movement founded by Syed Ahmed of Rai Bareilly who was inspired by the teachings of Abdul Wahab (1703-87) of Saudi Arabia and Shah Waliullah of Delhi. Syed Ahmed condemned the western influence on Islam and advocated a return to pure Islam and society as it was in the Arabia of the Prophet's time.

Syed Ahmed was acclaimed as the desired leader (Imam). A countrywide organisation with an elaborate secret code for its working under spiritual vice-regents (Khalifa) was set up, and Sithana in north-western tribal belt was chosen as a base for operations. In India, its important centre was at Patna though it had its missions in Hyderabad, Madras, Bengal, UP and Bombay.

Since Dar-ul-Harb (the land of kafirs) was to be converted into Dar-ul-Islam (the land of Islam), a jihad was declared against the Sikh kingdom of the Punjab. After the defeat of the Sikh ruler and incorporation of the Punjab into the East India Company's dominion in 1849, the English dominion in India became the sole target of the Wahabis' attacks.

The Wahabis played an important role in spreading anti-British sentiments. A series of military operations by the British in the 1860s on the Wahabi base in Sithana and various court cases of sedition on the Wahabis weakened the Wahabi resistance, although sporadic encounters with the authorities continued into the 1880s and 1890s.

Kuka Revolt:

The Kuka Movement was founded in 1840 by Bhagat Jawahar Mai (also called Sian Saheb) in western Punjab. After the British took the Punjab, the movement transformed from a religious purification campaign to a political one.

Its basic tenets were abolition of caste and similar discriminations among Sikhs, discouraging the eating of meat and taking of alcohol and drugs, and encouraging women to step out of seclusion.

In 1872, one of their leaders, Ram Singh, was deported to Rangoon.

Weaknesses of These Uprisings:

- i. These uprisings were massive in totality but were, in fact, localised and isolated.
- ii. They were the result mostly of local grievances.
- iii. The leadership was semi-feudal in character, backward-looking, traditional in outlook and their resistance represented no societal alternative.
- iv. These rebellions were centuries old in form and ideological-cultural content.
- v. The less recalcitrant of these were pacified through concessions by the authorities.

On the whole, however, these rebellions were able to establish valuable traditions of local resistance to authoritarianism.

Governor - Generals and Viceroys of India

Governors of Bengal (1757–74)

Robert Clive : Governor of Bengal during 1757-60 and again during 1765-67 and established Dual Government in Bengal from 1765-72. (True founder of British Political dominion in India).
Vanistart (1760–65) : The Battle of Buxar (1764). Cartier (1769–72) : Bengal Famine (1770).

Governor-Generals of Bengal (1774–1833)

Warren Hastings (1772–1785) : Brought the Dual Governmnet of Bengal to an end by the Regulating Act, 1773. Became Governor-General in 1774 through the Regulating Act, 1773; Wrote introduction to the first English translation of the 'Gita' by Charles Wilkins; Founded the Asiatic Society of Bengal with William Jones in 1784.

- Revenue Reforms : Auctioned the right to collect land revenue to the highest bidder; Divided Bengal into districts and appointed collectors and other revenue officials.
- Judicial Reforms : Started Diwani and Faujdari adalats at the district level and Sadar diwani and Nizamat adalats (appellate courts) at Calcutta; Redefined Hindu and Muslim laws. Wars : Rohilla War (1774); 1st Anglo-Maratha War (1776-82); 2nd Anglo-Mysore War (1780-84). Note: Sir John Macpherson was made the acting Governor General from 1785 to 1786. Lord Cornwallis (1786–93) : First person to codify laws in 1793. The code separated the revenue administration from the administration of justice; Created post of district judge; Introduced permanent Settlement in Bengal (1793); Cornwallis is called 'the father of civil service in India'.
- Police Reforms: Each district was divided into 400 sq. miles and placed under a police superintendent assisted by constables.
- Wars : 3rd Anglo-Mysore War (defeat of Tipu and the Treaty of Serinagpatanam, 1792). Sir John Shore (1793–98) : Introduced the 1st Charter Act (1793)
- Wars : Battle of Kharda between Nizam and the Marathas (1795). Lord Wellesley (1798–1805) : Started Subsidiary Alliance system to achieve British paramountcy in India. Madras Presidency was formed during his tenure.
- Wars : 4th Anglo-Mysore War (1799)-defeat and the death of Tipu Sultan; 2nd Anglo-Maratha War (1803-05)-defeat of the Scindia, the Bhonsle and the Holkar; Treaty of Bassein (1802). George Barlow (1805–1807) : Vellore Mutiny (1806). Lord Minto I (1807-1813) : Concluded Treaty of Amritsar with Ranjit Singh (1809); Charter Act of 1813 was passed. Lord Hastings (1813–1823) : Adopted the policy of intervention and war.
- Wars : Anglo-Nepalese War (1813-23); 3rd Anglo-Maratha War (1817-18). Hastings forced humiliating treaties on Peshwa and the Scindia; Introduced the Ryotwari settlement in Madras by Thomas Munro, the Governor. Lord Amherst (1823–28) : Wars: 1st Burmese War (1824-26). Acquisition of territories in Malay Peninsula; Capture of Bharatpur (1826).

- Lord W. Bentick (1828–33) : Most liberal and enlightened Governor-General of India; Regarded as 'the Father of Modern Western Education in India'; Abolished Sati and other cruel rites (1829); Annexation of Mysore (1831). Concluded a treaty of perpetual friendship with Ranjit Singh (1831); Passed the Charter Act of 1833, which provided that no Indian subject of Company was to be debarred from holding an office on account of his religion, place of birth, descent and colour. On recommendation of Macaulay Committee made English the medium of higher education in India.

Governor-Generals of India (1833-58)

- Lord W. Bentick (1833–35) : First Governor-General of India. Macaulay's minutes on education were accepted declaring that English should be the official language of India; Abolished provincial courts of appeal and circuit set up by Cornwallis, appointment of Commissioners of revenue and circuit.
- Wars : Annexed Coorg (1834), Central Cachar (1834) on the plea of misgovernment.
- Sir Charles Metcalfe (1835–1836) : Passed the famous Press Law, which liberated the press in India (Called Liberator the the Press).
- Lord Auckland (1836–42) : 1st Anglo-Afghan War (1836-42)-great blow to the prestige of the British in India.
- Lord Ellenborough (1842–44) : Brought an end to the Afghan War. Annexation of Sindh (1843); War with Gwalior (1843).
- Lord Hardings I (1844–48) : 1st Anglo-Sikh war (1845-46) and the Treaty of Lahore 1846 (marked the end of Sikh sovereignty in India); Gave preference to English education in employment.
- Lord Dalhousie (1848–56) : Abolished Titles and Pensions, Widow Remarriage Act (1856). Made Shimla the summer capital.
- Administrative Reforms : Introduced the system of Centralized control in the newly acquired territories known as Bon-Regulation system; Raised Gurkha regiments.
- Education Reforms : Recommended the Thomsonian system of Vernacular education for whole of the North western Provinces (1853); Wood's Educational Despatch of 1854 and opening of Anglo-Vernacular Schools and Government Colleges; An Engineering College was established at Roorkee.
- Public Works : Started the first railway line in 1853 (connecting Bombay with Thana); Started electric telegraph service. Laid the basis of the modern postal system (1854); A separate public works department was set up for the first time; Started work on the Grand Trunk Road and developed the harbours of Karachi, Bombay and Calcutta.
- Wars : Introduced Doctrine of Lapse (Captured Satara (1848), Jaitpur and Sambhalpur (1849), Baghat (1850), Udaipur (1852), Jhansi (1853) and Nagpur(1854); Fought 2nd Anglo-Sikh War (1848–49) and annexed the whole of the Punjab; 2nd Anglo-Burmese War (1852) and annexation of Lower Burma orPegu; Annexation of Berar in 1853; Annexation of Avadh in 1856 on charges of maladministration.
- Lord Canning (1856–58) : The last Governor General and first Viceroy of India; Revolt of 1857; Passed the Act of 1858, which ended the rule of the East India Company. Withdrew Doctrine of Lapse. Mutiny took place in his time.

Governer Generals and Viceroy (1858–1947)

Lord Canning (1858–62) : The Indian Councils Act of 1862 was passed, which proved to be a landmark in the constitutional history of India; The Indian Penal Code of Criminal Procedure (1859) was passed; The Indian High Court Act (1861) was enacted; Income Tax was introduced for the first time in 1858; The Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras founded in 1857.

Lord Elgin I (1862–63) : Wahabi Movement (Pan-Islamic Movement).
Sir John Lawrence (1864–69) : Telegraphic communication was opened with Europe; High Courts were established at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1865; Expanded canal works and railways; Bhutan War (1865); Advocated State-managed railways; Created the Indian Forest Department and recognised the native Judicial service.

Lord Mayo (1869–72) : Introduced financial decentralization in India, Established Rajkot College at Kathiwar and Mayo College at Ajmer for the princes; Organised the Statistical Survey of India, Established the Department of Agriculture & Commerce, He was the only Viceroy to be murdered in office by a Pathan convict in Andamans in 1872, Introduction of State Railways. For the first time in Indian history, a census was held in 1871.

Lord Northbrook (1872-76) : Kuka Movement of Punjab took rebellious turn during his period

Lord Lytton (1876-80) : Most infamous Governor-General, pursued free trade and abolished duties on 29 British manufactured goods which accelerated drain of wealth of India; Arranged the Grand Darbar in Delhi (in 1877) when the country was suffering from a severe famine; Passed the Royal Title Act (1876) and Queen Victoria was declared as the Kaisar-i-Hind; Arms Act (1878) made mandatory for Indians to acquire license for arms; Passed the infamous Vernacular Press Act (1878); Proposed the plan of Statutory Civil Service in 1878-79 and lowered the maximum age limit from 21 to 19 years, the 2nd Afghan war proved a failure (Viceroy of reverse characters).

Lord Ripon (1880-84) : Repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, 1878; The First Factory Act, 1881 to improve labour condition, Resolution of Local Self Government in 1882, Resolution on Land Revenue Policy; Appointed Hunter Commission (for education reforms) in 1882; The Ilbert Bill controversy erupted during his time (1883) enabled Indian district magistrates to try European criminals. But this was withdrawn later.

Lord Dufferin (1884-88) : 3rd Burmese War (Annexation of Upper and Lower Burma) in 1885, Establishment of Indian National Congress in 1885.

Lord Lansdowne (1888-94) : The second Factory Act of 1891; Categorization of Civil Services into imperial, provincial and subordinate; Indian Council Act of 1892 (introduced elections which was indirect); Appointment of the Durand Commission to define the line between British India and Afghanistan (1893).

Lord Elgin II (1894-99) : The Munda uprising (Birsa Munda) of 1899, Convention delimiting the frontier between China and India was ratified, Great famine of 1896-97, Lyall Commission appointed after famine (1897), Assassination of two British officials-Rand & Amherst-by Chapekar Brothers in 1897. Lord Curzon (1899-1905) : Appointed a Police Commission in 1902 under Andrew Frazer; Set up the Universities Commission and accordingly the Indian Universities Act of 1904 was passed; Set up the Department of Commerce and Industry; Calcutta Corporation Act (1899); Passed the Indian Coinage and Paper Currency Act (in 1899) and put India on a gold standard; Partition of Bengal took place in 1905. Created NWFP and Archaeological Survey of India. Extended railways to a great extent.

Lord Minto II (1905-10) : Swadeshi Movement (1905-08); Foundation of the Muslim League, 1906; Surat session and split in the Congress (1907), Newspapers Act, 1908; Morley-Minto Reforms, 1909.

Lord Hardinge (1910-16) : Annulment of the partition of Bengal (1911), Transfer of Capital from Calcutta to Delhi (1911); Delhi Darbar and Coronation of King George V and Queen Mary (1911); Establishment of Hindu Mahasabha by Madan Mohan Malviya (1915); Annie Besant announced Home Rule Movement and a bomb was thrown at him, but he escaped unhurt.

Lord Chelmsford (1916-21) : Home Rule Movement launched by Tilak and Annie Besant (1916); Lucknow Pact between Congress and Muslim League (1916); Arrival of Gandhi in India (1915); Champaran Satyagraha (1917); Montague's August Declaration (1917); Kheda Satyagraha and Satyagraha at Ahmedabad (1918); Government of India Act (1919), Repressive Rowlatt Act (1919); Jalianwala Bagh Massacre (1919); Khilafat Movement (1920-22); Non-cooperation Movement (1920-22), Saddler Commission (1917) and an Indian sir S. P. Sinha was appointed Governor of Bengal.

Lord Reading (1921-26) : Criminal Law Amendment Act and abolition of cotton excise; Repeal of Press Act of 1910 & Rowlatt Act of 1919; Violent Moplah rebellion in Kerala (1921); Foundation of CPI (1921); Chauri Chaura Incident (1922); Foundation of Swaraj Party (1923); Kakori Train Dacoity (1925); Foundation of RSS (1925); Murder of Swami Shardhanand (1926). Suppressed non-co-operation movement.

Lord Irwin (1926-31) : Simon Commission announced in 1927; Butler Commission (1927); Nehru Report (1928); 14 points of Jinnah (1929); Lahore session of Congress and 'Poorna Swaraj' declaration (1929); Civil Disobedience Movement (1930); Dandhi march (1930); Ist Round Table Conference (1930); Gandhi-Irwin Pact (1931); Martyrdom of Jatin Das (hunger strike)

Lord Willingdon (1931-36) : IInd Round Table Conference (1931); Civil Disobedience Movement (1932); Announcement of MacDonal's Communal Award (1932); IIIrd Round Table Conference Foundation of Congress Socialist Party-CSP (1934); Government of India Act (1935); Burma separated from India (1935); All India Kisan Sabha (1936); Poona Pact was signed.

Lord Linlithgow (1936-43) : General Election (1936-37); Congress ministries in 1937 and Resignation of Congress ministries in 1939; 'Deliverance Day' by Muslim League in 1939; Foundation of Forward Block by S.C. Bose (1939); Lahore Resolution (1940); August Offer (1940); Cripps Mission (1942); Quit India Movement (1942) and outbreak of second world war in 1939.

Lord Wavell (1943-1947) : C.R. Formula 1944; Wavell Plan and Shimla Conference in 1945; End of IInd World War in 1945; INA Trials in 1945; Naval mutiny in 1946; Cabinet Mission, 1946 and acceptance of its proposals by Congress; Direct Action Day by the Muslim League on 16th August, 1946 and first meeting of the constituent assembly was held on Dec. 9, 1946.

Lord Mountbatten (Mar-Aug 1947) : Announced the 3 June, 1947 Plan; Introduction of Indian Independence Bill in the house of Commons and passed by the British Parliament on July 4, 1947.; Appointment of 2 boundary commissions under Sir Cyril Radcliffe.

Various Committees appointed by the English in India

1. Macaulay Commission (1835) – Education
2. Sir Charles Wood Dispatch (1854) – Education
3. Hunter commission (1882) - Education
4. Thomas Raleigh Commission (1902) – Education
5. Saddler (1917) - Education (to know the 'conditions and prospects of University of Calcutta')
6. Hartog (1929) - Education
7. Strachey - Famine
8. McDonald - Famine
9. Arundel Commission – Political Reforms
10. Mudimaan Committee – Political Reforms
11. Simon Commission – Political Reforms
12. Hilton and Young - Reserve bank of India
13. Atchinson Committee – Public Service Commission
14. Auckworth Commission – Railway
15. Robertson - Railway
16. Andrew Frazer - Police
17. Fauset – Economic Reforms
18. Belvi – Economic Reforms

CONSTITUTION DEVELOPMENTS UNDER BRITISH RULE

The British formed East India Company on 31st December 1600. The Company was granted exclusive right of trading in India under Charter granted by Queen Elizabeth I.

Regulating Act, 1774:

Main points of the Act

1. The Governor General of Bengal was elevated to the position of the Governor-General for all the British Territories in India.
2. Provision was made for a Executive Council of 4 members to aid and advice the Governor-General, who was to carry out the decision taken by the majority of his council.
3. Governors of Bombay and Madras placed under the control of the Governor General of Bengal and his council.
4. A supreme court was set up at Calcutta in 1774, directly under the British Crown. The Court comprised of one Chief Justice and three other Judges. But it could not function well because it was not clear which law- Indian or English- it was to follow. This court had sentenced to death an ex-diwan of Murshidabad, Maharajah Nand Kumar, a Brahman by caste. He was charged with forgery. Capital punishment for forgery had the sanction of the British law at that time. But in India a Brahman could not be sentenced to death at that time.
5. It prohibited the Company from engaging in any private trade or accepting bribes from the 'natives'.
6. The Court of Directors (Governing Body of the Company) were required to report to the British Government on Revenue, Civil and Military affairs.

The act established a collective rule in place of a 'one man's rule'. At the same time the Act recognized the political cum-administrative charter of the company.

Pitt's India Act, 1784:

The Act was named after William Pitt, the younger Prime Minister of Britain at that time. Main features of the Act:

1. A Board of Control was set up in Britain through which the British Government could fully control the Civil, Military and Revenue affairs in India. The Court of Directors of the Company, however, continued to have the monopoly of trade and right to appoint and dismiss its own officials. Thus a system of dual govt. of British India by the British Govt. and the Company was set up.
2. Governor-General was given increasing powers. He could overrule his Council on important matters. He was made the commander – in – Chief of all the British troops in India. The company was only to concern itself with its trading activities without much concern with politics and statecraft. Thus it ended the political character of the

company by transferring the political power from the hands of the traders into those of the politicians.

3. The Company's territories in India were for the first time called 'British possessions in India'.

Charter Act, 1793:

Main features of the Act

1. The Company got monopoly of trade with India for another twenty years.
2. The salaries of the members of the Board of Control and other functionaries of the company were to be drawn from the Indian exchequer.
3. The Governor-General was given greater control over the Governors of Bombay and Madras. Stress was laid on the policy of non-intervention in the internal affairs of the native states.

Charter Act, 1813:

1. The monopoly of trade of the Company was abolished except in [Tea](#) and its trade with China.
2. Church was placed under a Bishop which was maintained from Indian revenue. Englishmen were granted permission to settle and hold land in India.
3. The missionaries were allowed to India for imparting knowledge and propagating religious and moral improvement.
4. Indian trade was thrown open to all the British merchants under a system of licenses.
5. A sum of 100,000 rupees a year was to be set apart and applied for the improvement, encouragement and promotion of knowledge and learning.
6. Provision was also made for the training of the civil and military servants of the company. Clerks were to be appointed from among those who had qualified at the Halebury College.

Charter Act, 1833:

Main features of the Act::

1. Governor General of Bengal was made the Governor –General of India. Lord William Bentick became the first Governor General of India.
2. It deprived the Governor of Bombay and Madras of their legislative powers. This Act provided for a single Central legislative council instead of three (Benagal, Bombay and Madras). Now the Governor-General-in-the Council was authorized to legislate for the whole territory under the British Company.

3. A code of Civil and criminal laws, which was effective throughout the British territories in India, was drawn.
4. The policy of free trade was introduced by ending the Company's monopoly.
5. The Act removed all disqualifications for Indian nationals seeking higher posts.

The Charter Act of 1833 marked the beginning of the Indian legislature. The Act centralized the whole administration.

Charter Act, 1853:

Main Features of the Act:

1. This Act almost sealed the fate of the Company. It granted the charter for an unspecified period.
2. It laid the foundation of the parliamentary system of government in India. The legislature and the executive Councils were separated.
3. It provided for addition of six members called legislative councilors to the council. Thus a separate Governor-General's legislative council was created which came to be known as Indian (central) Legislative council. This Legislative Assembly functioned on the model of the British Parliament.
4. The Act provided for the first time representation of the locals. Of the six members, four members were appointed by the provincial governments of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Agra.
5. The position of the President of the board of control became more significant while the position of the courts of Directors was weakened. It affected complete codification of all the civil and criminal laws and brought uniformity in the country's legal system.

Government of India Act, 1858:

This Act was passed after the 'sepoy mutiny' was crushed. Main features of the Act:

1. The rule of the East India Company was ended. The rule was transferred to the Crown.
2. The designation of the Governor – General of India was changed to Viceroy. Lord Canning became the first viceroy of India. The viceroy was the direct representation of the crown.
3. The Dual Government established under the Pitt's India Act came to an end. The Board of Control and the Court of Directors were abolished; and the Indian affairs were now directly placed under the Secretary who had vast powers of inspection, control and direction.
4. A 15 member council was established to assist the secretary of state for India. The secretary was made the chairman of the council.

5. A new policy was adopted in respect of native states, which ended the policy of further annexations. The proclamation ushered in an era of subordinate union in place of subordinate isolation. However, the transfer of power from the East India Company to the Crown was only a formal change and not a revolutionary transformation.

Indian Council Act 1861:

This Act set in motion the process of decentralization of powers.

1. It provided for associating Indians as non –official members with law-making process. Lord Canning had appointed three Indians in 1862 to his legislative council. The Indians were – the Raja of Benaras, the Maharaja of Patiala and Dinkar Rao.
2. The Act restored the legislative power of the provinces of Bombay and Madras. The Governor-General was given powers to appoint such council in other province too which led creation of new legislative councils for Bengal, North West Frontier Province and Punjab.
3. The Act empowered the Viceroy to issue ordinances without the concurrence of legislative council during emergency. The life of such ordinances would be six months only.

However, the power of the central and the Provincial legislatures were very much restricted. This Act did not ensure proper representation to the Indian people as the non-official members were nominated by the Governor-General himself and they were drawn from among the Indian Princes. It elevated the Governor-General to the position of an all powerful person.

Indian Council Act, 1892:

1. The numbers of additional members in the central Council was increased to be between 10 to 16.
2. The numbers of members in the Provincial Councils was to be between 8 to 20. The Governor-General was given powers to appoint 20 members, to the maximum to the Bengal Council and 15 in the case of U.P.
3. The council had the right to discuss the Budget and ask question on matters of Public importance. But a previous notice of six days was to be given for such question which could be disallowed by the President without giving any reason. The council, however was not given right to vote.
4. Some of the additional members of the councils were to be elected by the members of the universities, the district boards, the provincial councils and the Chambers of Commerce.

The principle of indirect franchise was thus recognized. The provincial councils were authorized to frame laws without the approvals of the Governor-General. However, the Indian people did not benefit from this Act as the system of elections was vague and uncertain. The rules of

election were unjust and unfair, and all the provinces were not equally represented in the councils.

Indian Councils Act, 1909: (Minto-Marley Reforms, 1909):

Morley was the secretary of State for India and Minto was the viceroy of India.

1. This act for the first time provided for the inclusion of Indian members in the Central Executive Council of the Viceroy. Satyendra Prasad Sinha became the first Indian to join the Viceroy's Executive Council. He was appointed as Law Minister.
2. It retained the official majority in the Central Legislative Council but allowed majority of non-official members to the Provincial Legislative Council. The size of the Central Legislative Council was raised from 16 to 60. The number of members of the Provincial Council was not uniform.
3. The powers of the councils were also increased and they were permitted to discuss Budget, ask questions and supplementary and to move resolutions. The principle of election was accepted and foundation-stone was laid for the future democratic set-up. The Indian government transformed into a liberal despot. Yet it was defective because it failed to provide a responsible government.
4. This act introduced separate electorates based on communal representation to the Muslims, thus it sowed the seeds of communalism in the country. Indirect elections were a great defect of these reforms. The qualifications for the voter made so stringent that only a few people can vote. The powers of the councils were increased on the paper only, as the officers were not obliged to answer each question raised by the members.

Government of India Act, 1919 (Montague-Chelmsford Reforms)

Montague was the Secretary of State for India and Chelmsford was the Viceroy of India.

On August 20, 1917, Mr. Montague, issued his August Declaration (1917); assuring "gradual development of self governing institutions with a view to progressive realization of a responsible government in India"

Lord Montague had talk with the various leaders in India before he prepared a report in consultation with the contemporary Governor-General, Lord Chelmsford, which he submitted before the parliament. This report formed the basis of the Government of India Act 1919.

Main features of the Act:

1. The system of Diarchy or dual system was introduced in the provinces. Under this system the provincial subjects were divided under 'reserved' and 'transferred' head. The

reserved subjects were to be administered by the governor and his executive council without being responsible to the legislative council. The 'transferred' heads were to be administered by the Governor with the help of Ministers responsible to the legislative council.

2. The concept of bicameral legislature was introduced and for the first time direct elections were introduced. Indian legislative council was replaced by the bicameral legislature – Upper House and Lower House the majority of members of both the Houses were chosen by direct election.
3. The secretary of the state and his staff were to be paid by the British Exchequer which reduced financial strain on the Indian budget. The power of the secretary of the state for India was also reduced. The introduction of responsible government, to a certain extent, was an important provision of this Act.

Government of India Act, 1935:

The provisions of the Government of India Act 1919 were basically the report of the Joint Select Committee. The Joint Select Committee was formed to consider the 'White Paper on Constitutional Reforms'. The White Paper was prepared on the basis of the discussions of the Round Table Conference that was convened to discuss the recommendations of the Simon Commission constituted in 1927. Main provisions of the Act:

1. The act provided for an all India federation consisting of provinces and the states. For the states it was made purely voluntary whether to 'join the federation or not.'
2. The act provided for three Lists - federal, provincial and concurrent. The residuary powers were given to the Viceroy. But the federation never came into existence as Princely States did not join the federation.
3. It provided for the adoption of diarchy at the centre. The federal list was divided under two heads: Reserved and Transferred Subjects. but it did not come into operation.
4. Bicameralism was introduced in six out of eleven states – Bengal, Bihar, Assam, Bombay, Madras and the United Province.
5. A federal court was established with jurisdiction over the states and the provinces and to interpret the constitution. However the supreme authority in this respect rested with the Privy Councils which used to sit in London. The Federal Court was set up in 1937.
6. In the Provinces the system of Dyarchy was abolished and a system of Provincial autonomy was introduced. The governor was required to act on the advice of the ministers responsible to the provincial legislature. this came into effect in 1937 but was discontinued in 1939.
7. Communal representation was extended to include the Anglo-Indians and the Indian Christians. The right to franchise was widened. 10% of the population got the voting right.
8. It provided for the setting up of a Reserve bank of India to control the credit and currency.

9. It provided for the setting up of a Federal Public Service Commission and a Provincial Public Service Commission and also a Joint Public Service Commission for two or more provinces.
10. The Indian-Council of the secretary of state was abolished.
11. The constitutions could be amended only by the British Parliament. Two new provinces of Sind and Orissa were created. A new union of Burma as a separate country came to being.

Indian Independence Act 1947

Attlee's announcement

Richard Atlee, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom announced on 20 February 1947 that:

1. British Government would grant full self-government to British India by June 1948 at the latest,
2. The future of Princely States would be decided after the date of final transfer is decided.

The announcement was followed by agitation by Muslim League. Muslim league demanded partition of the country. Lord Mountbatten made a plan which was acceptable to both the Congress and Muslim League.

3 June Plan (Mountbatten Plan)

This was also known as the Mountbatten Plan. The British government proposed a plan announced on 3 June 1947 that included these principles:

1. Principle of Partition of India was accepted by the British Government
2. Successor governments would be given dominion status
3. Implicit right to secede from the British Commonwealth

The Indian Independence Act 1947 was the implementation of June 3 Plan.

The Act's provisions

The Act's most important provisions were:

- division of British India into the two new and fully sovereign dominions of India and Pakistan, with effect from 15 August 1947;
- partition of the provinces of Bengal and Punjab between the two new countries;

- establishment of the office of Governor-General in each of the two new countries, as representatives of the Crown;
- conferral of complete legislative authority upon the respective Constituent Assemblies of the two new countries;
- termination of British suzerainty over the princely states, with effect from 15 August 1947, and recognized the right of states to accede to either dominion
- abolition of the use of the title "Emperor of India" by the British monarch (this was subsequently executed by King George VI by royal proclamation on 22 June 1948).

Salient features of the Act

1. Two new dominions: Two new dominions were to emerge from the Indian Union, Pakistan and India.
2. Appointed Date: 15 August 1947 was declared as the appointed date for the partition.
3. Territories:
 1. Pakistan: East Bengal, West Punjab, Sind, and Chief Commissioner's Province of Baluchistan.
 2. The fate of North West Frontier Province was subject to the result of referendum.
 3. Bengal & Assam:
 1. The province of Bengal as constituted under the Government of India Act 1935 ceased to exist;
 2. In lieu thereof two new provinces were to be constituted, to be known respectively as East Bengal and West Bengal.
 4. Punjab:
 1. The province as constituted under the Government of India Act 1935 ceased to exist;
 2. Two new provinces were to be constituted, to be known respectively as West Punjab & East Punjab
4. The boundaries of the new provinces were to be determined by a boundary commission to be appointed by the Governor General.
5. Constitution for the New Dominions: until the time of framing of new constitution, the new dominions and the provinces thereof were to be governed by the Government of India Act 1935.
6. The Governors General of the new dominions:
 1. For each of the new dominion a new Governor-General was to be appointed by the Crown, subject to the law of the legislature of either of the new dominions.
 2. Same person as Governor General of both dominions: if unless and until provision to the contrary was made by a law of the legislature of either of the new dominions
7. Powers of Governor General: (Section-9)
 1. The Governor General was empowered to bring this Act in force.
 2. Division of territories, powers, duties, rights, assets, liabilities, etc., was the responsibility of Governor General

3. To adopt, amend, Government of India Act 1935, as the Governor-General may consider it necessary.
4. power to introduce any change was until 31 March 1948, after that it was open to the constituent assembly to modify or adopt the same Act. (Temporary Provisions as to the Government of Each New Dominion.)
5. Governor-General had full powers to give assent to any law.
8. Legislation for the new dominions:
 1. The existing legislative setup was allowed to continue as Constitution making body as well as a legislature.
 2. No Act of Parliament of UK passed after the appointed date would be extended to the territories of new dominions.
9. Consequences of setting up of the new dominions:
 1. His Majesty's Government lost all the responsibility to the new dominions
 2. The suzerainty of His Majesty's Government over the Indian States lapsed.
 3. All the treaties or agreements in force at the passing of the Act lapsed.
 4. The title of "Emperor of India" was dropped from the titles of British Crown.
 5. The office of Secretary of State for India was abolished and the provisions of GOI Act 1935 relating to the appointments to the civil service or civil posts under the crown by the secretary of the state ceased to operate
10. Civil servants: Section 10 provided for the continuance of service of the government servants appointed on or before 15 August 1947 under the Governments of new Dominions with full benefits.
11. Armed Forces: A Partition Committee was formed on 7 June 1947, with two representatives from each side and the viceroy in the chair, to decide about the division thereof.

Princely states

On 4 June 1947 Mountbatten held a press conference in which he addressed the question of the princely states, of which there were then a total of 635. The treaty relations between Britain and the Indian States would come to an end, and on 15 August 1947 the suzerainty of the British Crown was to lapse. Consequently the princely states would assume independent status. They would be free to choose to accede to one or the other of the new dominions. In the event, between August 1947 and March 1948 the rulers of several Muslim-majority states signed an Instrument of Accession to join Pakistan. These included Amb, Bahawalpur, Chitral, Dir, Kalat, Khairpur, Kharan, Las Bela, Makran, and Swat.