
BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY AND THE BRITISH RULE

On arriving in India, the East India Company had to face the Dutch and the French opposition as they were the main contestants for economic supremacy over India. But the British were successful in destabilizing them and soon the Company's functions expanded into political ambitions. While the British company employed sepoys-European-trained and European-led Indian soldiers - to protect its trade, local rulers sought their services to settle scores in regional power struggles. South India witnessed the first open confrontation between the British and the French, whose forces were led by Robert Clive and Francois Dupleix, respectively. Both companies desired to place their own candidate as the Nawab of Arcot, an area near Chennai. At the end of a protracted struggle from 1744 to 1763, when the Peace of Paris was signed, the British gained an upper hand over the French and installed their man in power, supporting him further with arms and lending large sums of money as well. The French and the British also backed different factions in the succession struggle for Mughal viceroyalty in Bengal, but Clive intervened successfully and defeated Nawab Sirajud-Daulah in the Battle of Plassey (about 150 km north of Kolkata) in 1757. Clive was supported by a combination of vested interests that opposed the existing nawab which comprised disgruntled soldiers, landholders and influential merchants whose commercial profits were closely linked to British fortunes.

★ **The Third Battle of Panipat (1761)**

By the middle of eighteenth century, Marathas had established their influence over Haryana and most of the North India. They were ably led by the Peshwas. The expedition of Afghans under the leadership of Ahmed Shah Abdali in India resulted in the third Battle of Panipat in 1761. The Afghans forces defeated the Marathas and ended Maratha supremacy.

The humiliation of the Marathas, fall of the Mughal Empire after Aurangzeb's death, gave the British a chance to consolidate their power. The Marathas were comprehensively defeated in the battle because they did not have able allies. Though their infantry was prepared and trained on European pattern, they failed to find allies in the North India. They had intervened in internal matters of Rajput states. They had imposed heavy taxes and fines on them. They had also made large territorial and monetary claims upon Avadh. They had also conducted raids in the sikh territories angering sikh chiefs. They did not have mutual trust. Above all, the important Marathas chiefs constantly quarreled with one another. Each one of them was very ambitious and hoped of carving out their independent state. They did not have interest in fighting against a common enemy.

The English Conquest of Bengal

Nawab Alivardi Khan was the independent ruler of Bengal between 1740 and 1756. He extended protection to European merchants carrying on trade. Alivardi Khan nominated his grandson (daughter's son) Siraj-ud-Daulah as his heir since he had no son. He died in April 1756. In the meantime, the Company constructed fortifications at Kolkata and violated the terms under which they were allowed to trade. Siraj-ud-Daulah took prompt action and occupied an English factory at Kasimbazar and later captured Kolkata in June 1756.

The First Carnatic War (1746)

The French and British companies clashed at Carnatic. Dupleix was then the chief official of the French Company at Pondicherry. The French opened hostilities by sacking Fort St George and expelling all Englishmen. The Nawab of Carnatic, Anwar-ud-din, sent an army but was defeated by the French in the

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battle of Adyar (also known as battle of St Thomas), near Chennai. Later, the French tried to force the English to surrender St David but failed. The English counterattacked to capture Pondicherry but were defeated by stiff resistance from the French forces. The first Carnatic war was ended with the Treaty of Aix La Chappelle (1748) in Europe. According to this treaty; the English got back Chennai and the French the Louisburg region in North America. But Dupleix was not happy to lose Chennai and did not keep its promise of returning it, which became the basis of the second Carnatic war.

Second Carnatic War (1748-1754)

The British were able to consolidate themselves by taking hold of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. However, they could not digest the growing hold of the French in the Carnatic. The French had already joined hands with Chanda Sahib, the Nawab of Arcot. Muzaffar Jung claimed the throne of Carnatic with the help of the French and Chanda Sahib by defeating Anwar-ud-din in the battle of Ambur. The English entered into an agreement with Muzaffar Jung's uncle, Nasir Jung, and helped him to defeat Muzaffar Jung and Chanda Sahib in 1750. Later, Chanda Sahib was defeated and killed and the entire Carnatic fell into the hands of the English. In the second battle between the French and the British, the French were defeated. In 1754, Dupleix was sent back to France and succeeded by General Godeheu. Godeheu went to the English with a peace proposal, the Treaty of Pondicherry (1754) which the English accepted. Later, as per the Treaty of Tiruchirapalli (1755), the French had to return all that they had captured and both nations retained their old positions. However, the English negotiated hard to get the northern Circar area also.

Growing British Monopoly in Trade

Even before the acquisition of Diwani of Bengal in 1765, the East India Company had begun to exercise

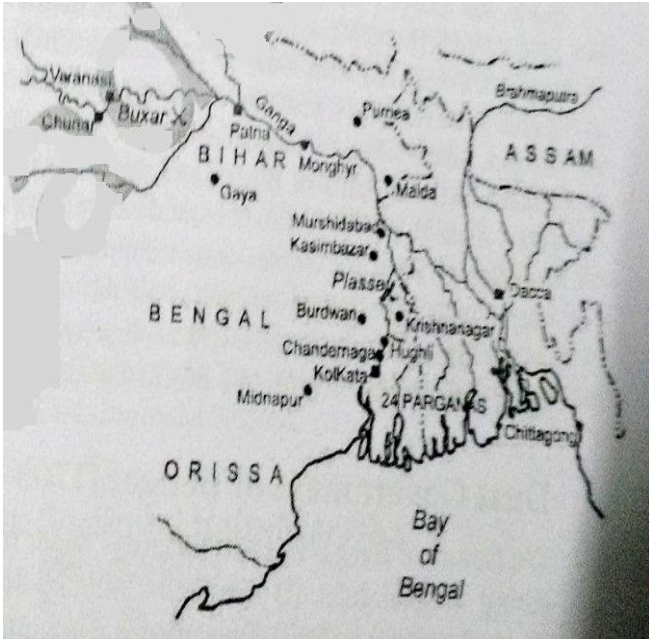
considerable political influence in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, which led to the ruin of Indian industry and oppression of weavers. While the foreign trade of Bengal, which was the richest part of India at that time, became the monopoly of the company, the internal trade in more important commodities like raw material was monopolized by superior servants of the company in their personal capacity. The monopoly of trade in raw materials helped to raise the prices to the manufacturers, while monopoly of purchase (monopsony) of finished products tended to lower the prices of the manufacturers. These restrictive practices together with providing the company's investments or purchasing goods in the interior through the agency of 'gumashtas' ruined the weavers and other artisans. But things did not stop there. The scales were heavily weighted against Indian manufacturers in two other ways, the first was the system of inland duties which offered protection to foreign products and the other was bringing many other products in the ambit of duty structure which were earlier duty-free.

Black-Hole Tragedy (1756)

It is said that 146 English prisoners, held by the nawab of Bengal, were crowded into a small chamber that had a single, tiny window on a hot summer night of 20 June 1756. As a result, several of them died of suffocation and wounds. Only 23 prisoners survived this tragedy. However, historians still treat this tragedy as a myth rather than reality. The news of this tragedy reached Chennai and it aroused the indignation of Englishmen in India. In December 1756, Colonel Clive and Admiral Watson reached Bengal from Chennai to take revenge for the black-hole tragedy. The English captured Kolkata but later restored relations with Siraj-ud-Daulah who restored all privileges to the English and allowed them to fortify Kolkata. However, to Clive it was a pact made for appearances. In order to take revenge for the black-hole tragedy, he provoked Mir Jafar (commander-in-chief of the Nawab), Rai Durlab (treasurer of the Nawab) and Jagat Seth (a rich banker of Bengal) to

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conspire against the Nawab. Mir Jafar, brother-in-law of Alivardi Khan, had a secret pact with Clive who promised him the state of Bengal. Mir Jafar, nevertheless, also assured his support to Siraj-ud-Daulah against the English.



Map 3.2 The British in Bengal During 1756 - 1765

Battle of Plassey (1757)

Robert Clive led the Company's forces against Siraj-ud-Daulah's army on 23 June 1757 and defeated them with the help of his behind-the-scenes agreement with Mir Jafar. This proved to be the first step towards territorial supremacy and paved the way for the British conquest of Bengal and eventually the whole country. The Nawab was captured and executed and Mir Jafar was installed as the Nawab of Bengal. He ceded zamindari rights of 24 Parganas and got 1,67,00,000 as compensation. This was the first British acquisition on Indian soil. The victory in the Battle of Plassey is not a remarkable one from a military point of view. The conspiracy of the Nawabs and the commanders helped the English to win an easy victory. But its results were far reaching and they opened a new era in the history

of India. This battle added to the strength and prestige of the British company and also exposed the corrupt politicians of Bengal.

Third Carnatic War (1756-1763)

The soft stance of General Godeheu gave the English the necessary confidence which propelled them to consolidate their position further. With the advent of the Seven Year's War in Europe,* the relations between the English and the French became hostile in India as well. France appointed Count Lally as Commander-in-Chief and Governor of India. He posed a stiff challenge to the English and made an unsuccessful attempt to capture Chennai. Lally was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote in the Battle of Wandiwash in January 1760 which sealed the fate of French in India. In 1761, he surrendered with the fall of Pondicherry. The third war ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1763, which foiled the dreams of the French to have an empire in India.

Battle of Buxar (1764)

At the instigation of Mir Qasim, successor of Mir Jafar, this battle was fought by Nawab Shuja-ud-Daula of Awadh and Shah Alam II (Mughal) on the one side and the English forces led by Clive on the other side, on 23 October 1764. Clive's forces were victorious, resulting in the capture of Bihar and Bengal. Later, Clive defeated the Mughal forces at Buxar (Baksar, west of Patna in Bihar), and the Mughal emperor (Shah Alam II, r. 1759-1806) conferred administrative rights over Bengal, Bihar and Orissa—a region of roughly 25 million people with huge annual revenue - on the company. The imperial grant virtually established the company as a sovereign power and Clive became the first British Governor of Bengal.

Dual Government of Bengal (1765-1772)

The Nawab of Bengal had two functions under his domain during Mughal rule: (i) Nazamat (military control and criminal justice) and (ii) Diwani

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(revenue collection and civil justice). The Company was able to claim the nazamat of Bengal from the Nawab during February 1765, and later Shah Alam, the emperor, ceded the diwani also to the Company during August 1765. This double governance established by Clive did not work; although they were given the control over the province, the officials did not show any responsibility towards the administration and were not held accountable for any misdeed. Their lack of responsibility towards the people of the province was exposed during the famine of 1770 in which thousands of people died. This dried up revenues for the company also. The evil of the system made the company financially sick; however, the directors of the company found out that the Englishmen who served the company in India were returning home with rich fortunes. In 1772, the company abolished the dual governance system and appointed Warren Hastings (1772-1785) as Governor-General to discipline the proceedings in Bengal. He carried out a large number of administrative, judicial, revenue and commercial reforms.

★ Sanyasi Rebellion

In late eighteenth century, in Bengal (India), the activities of Sanyasis were known as the Sanyasi Rebellion. Three different events in Indian history are called the Sanyasi revolts or rebellion. The first one refers to a major chunk of Hindu fakirs who travelled from North India to different parts of Bengal to visit shrines. During the journey, these Sanyasis or fakirs took a religious tax from the headman and regional landlords. In good times, they generally paid the taxes. But when East India Company started levying the taxes these landlords and headman were unable to pay both the ascetics and the English at a time. Moreover, the famine which killed approximately one crore people in Bengal aggravated the situation. During the period of 1771-72, nearly 145 saints were put to death without any valid reason. Due to this, the distress prevailed which led to the violence. Many historians argue that Sanyasis did not gain people's

support ever.

The other two Sanyasi movements had the involvement of Hindu ascetics. These Hindu Sanyasis which were known as the Dasnami Naga, visited Bengal on pilgrimage mixed with money lending opportunities.

The Sanyasi rebellion was the first of a series of revolts and rebellions in the Western districts of the province including the Chuar Revolt of 1799 and the Santhal revolt of 1855-56.

The Regulating Act of 1773

The British Parliament enacted a series of laws to curb the company trader's unrestrained commercial activities and to bring about some order in territories under company control. The most important among which is the ordinance prescribing certain rules for the company. Thus, this is called the Regulating Act of 1773. This Act aimed to limit the company charter to periods of 20 years, subject to review upon renewal; the 1773 Act gave the British government supervisory rights over the Bengal, Mumbai and Chennai presidencies. Bengal was given pre-eminence over the rest because of its enormous commercial vitality and because it was the seat of British power in India (at Kolkata), and its Governor was elevated to the new position of Governor-General. Warren Hastings was the first incumbent (1773-1785). The Act was aimed at maintaining a sort of balance in the company's administration, but in practice it failed its basic objective due to certain loopholes in the Act itself. Two new government organizations were set up to help the Governor-General to administer effectively: the British Supreme Court of Kolkata and the Kolkata Council. The relationship between the Governor-General and these new government offices was not specified clearly in terms of law. Warren Hastings had to wrestle for his powers with both the Supreme Court and the Council on many occasions. He was condemned by the Council on the Rohilla War and for his decisions against the Begum of Awadh. These

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organizations reverted many of his administrative decisions which brought them in open conflict with the company. In 1781 an Amending Act was passed, which greatly reduced the powers of these organizations and allowed the company to assert its powers efficiently.

Conquest of Sind (1843)

In September 1842, Sir Charles Napier was sent to Sindh as commander of British Forces with full civil, political and military powers. He told the 'Amirs' that he was convinced that the charges of disloyalty against them during the Afghan war were founded. So the treaty with them must be revised and that would mean cession of territory, provision of fuel for steamers on the Indus and the loss of right to coinage. Before Amirs could indicate their assent to these terms, Napier acted as if they had refused them and razed the fortress of Imamgarh to ground. Under the threat of 'war, the Amirs hastened to accept the demands, but their patience was exhausted and they rose in revolt. Defeated at Mirmi in February 1843, they were exiled and Sind was annexed

The Anglo-Nepalese War (1814-1816)

The Anglo-Nepalese War which was caused largely by frontier incidents lasted from 1814 to 1816. Ochterlony's victory at Makwanpur in February 1816 led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Sugauli. The Nepal ruler gave up his claim to Sikkim, ceded the disputed Terai tracts and received a residence at Kathmandu. Thus, the Northern frontier was given settled limits. This also marked the British sovereignty in internal India with only Punjab frontier open.

First Anglo-Maratha War (1775-1782)

The First Anglo-Maratha war took place during the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings. After the third battle of Panipat, the Marathas began to rise again; the weak Mughal rulers granted them

certain special privileges which made them strong under Peshwa Madhava Rao. The English could not tolerate their growth and crushed the Marathas, violating the Treaty of Banaras. The Peshwa Madhava Rao was killed and a war of succession emerged between Raghunatha Rao (Ragobha) and Narayana Rao. Narayana Rao finally succeeded in becoming the Peshwa but was soon toppled by Raghunatha. Later, in a coup for succession, Nana Fadnavis ousted Raghunatha Rao and made Madhva Rao II, the Peshwa. In 1775, Raghunatha Rao made the Treaty of Surat with the British at Mumbai. As per this treaty, the British were to support him in becoming the Peshwa; in return he was to give Salsette and Bahssein to the British. The events that led to the Anglo-Maratha conflicts emerged from the failure of the 1775 Treaty of Surat. The British Governor of Bengal did not approve this treaty and another treaty was made with the Peshwa Madhava Rao II - the Treaty of Purander (1776). Raghunatha Rao and the British Governor at Mumbai were on the one side and the Peshwa Madhava Rao and G. G. Hastings (British Governor at Bengal) were on the other. The British Governor of Mumbai complained to the Board of Directors against the attitude of the Bengal Governor. The Board honoured the contract made with Raghunatha Rao, also known as the Convention of Vadangaon, and once again the Mumbai Governor began the war to restore him to power. The British were defeated and as per the Treaty of Vadangaon, Raghunatha Rao was handed over to the Peshwa Madhva Rao.

Salbai Treaty (1782),

Warren Hastings refused to ratify the convention and advanced towards Poona and Gwalior (capital of Scindia). In 1779, a confederacy was formed against the English, which included the Nizam of Oudh, Hyder Ali and the Marathas. The English, in their turn, bribed the Raja of Nagpur and befriended Mahadji Scindia to strengthen their power in the region. However, the war ended with the Treaty of Salabai (1782) and status quo was restored. The

Maratha were beaten and the British got control over Salsette. Raghunatha Rao was given a pension and Madhav Rao II was made the Peshwa.

The Second Anglo-Maratha War (1802-1806)

After the Treaty of Salbai in 1782, for the next 20 years, the British and Marathas were at peace. During this period, Nana Fadnavis emerged as an influential administrator. He kept a check on advances by Mahadji Scindia, who had by now completed his conquest of Gwalior and Gohad. After the death of Peshwa Madhav Rao II in 1795, Bajji Rao II became the next Peshwa. He was under the influence of Mahadji Scindia and subdued Nana Fadnavis, who later died in 1800. The other Maratha leaders, like Daulat Rao Scindia of Gwalior and Yashwant Rao Holkar of Indore, wanted to teach Bajji Rao II and Mahadji Scindia a lesson. Holkar challenged Mahadji Scindia and defeated the combined forces of the Peshwa and Mahadji Scindia and besieged Poona. Bajji Rao II fled Poona and signed the Treaty of Bessein (1802) with the British. This treaty helped the Marathas to flush out Holkar from Poona but the terms of the treaty made the Second Anglo-Maratha war inevitable. A confederacy of Maratha rulers - Scindia, Holkar and Peshwa - emerged, but the Marathas were still not united and Peshwa and Holkar gave little support to the confederacy. It was Scindia who joined hands with Bhonsle of Nagpur and led their armies against the British provinces. However, the British, under Governor-General Wellesley, defeated the Marathas and subdued Bhonsle by signing the Treaty of Dedgaon and the Scindia by the treaty of Surji-Anjangaon. Thus, the results of the Second Anglo-Maratha War benefited the British more than the first war. But the British government was still not satisfied with the Governor-General's dealing of the Marathas and, therefore, further curtailed the powers of the Maratha rulers. Thus, after the Second Anglo-Maratha War the Maratha rulers were reduced to the status of puppets in the hands of the British.

The Third Maratha War (1817-1819)

After the Second Anglo-Maratha War, the Maratha confederacy was constituted of weak states. Only a few of them were powerful. Scindia at Gwalior, Bhonsle at Nagpur, Holkar at Indore, Gaekwad at Baroda and the Peshwa had some strength left. The Peshwas were the head of the confederacy but all others were independent. The Peshwa Bajji Rao II wanted to overcome the Treaty of Bassein, which was leading to the downfall of Marathas. He wanted to rejuvenate the Maratha confederacy. The Gaekwad of Baroda was still friendly to the British and he used to bully his other member rulers in the confederacy. The Peshwa, Bajji Rao II cut him to size by seizing Amhedabad from him. The Gaekwad resorted to the British for help. The British entered into the Treaty of Poona (1817) with the Peshwa and urged him to return Ahmedabad. After this, the Peshwa was just a feudatory of the British and was no longer the leader of the Maratha confederacy. Later, the Peshwa tried to recollect the support of Maratha rulers under the confederacy against the British. But he was let down by the other Maratha rulers and was defeated by the British General, Elphinston, in the Battle of Kirki (1818). With this, the Maratha rulers lost almost all their privileges, which led to the downfall of the Maratha power.

The First Mysore War (1767-1769)

Mysore was a powerful state under the Sarvadhikari of Mysore, Hyder Ali (1722-1782), and almost the whole of Carnatic was under him. In 1769, the first Anglo-Mysore War was fought in which the British forces were defeated. Hyder Ali virtually dictated the terms of the peace and entered into the Treaty of Chennai (1769) with the English. This treaty with the English was in favour of Hyder Ali as he was always in danger of attack from Maratha rulers. In 1770; The Marathas under the Peshwa Madhav Rao invaded Mysore and Hyder Ali turned to the English for aid as per the treaty. As the neutral stance of the English at the moment of crisis forced Hyder Ali to

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conclude a treaty with the Peshwas, but he now considered the English as his enemy.

The Second Mysore War (1780-1782)

After the first Mysore War, Hyder Ali joined the confederacy of native kings who were against the English. He inflicted defeat on British in the battle of Polilur. In 1780 he later annexed Arcot from the British. However, in 1781, Hyder Ali was defeated at Porto Novo. His son, Tipu Sultan, marched towards Tanjore and defeated the English forces. Hyder Ali eventually died in 1782, fighting the English forces in Chittoor, which led to the end of Second Anglo-Mysore War in 1782. The Treaty of Mangalore (1784) was signed between the two parties by which only the prisoners of wars were released from both sides.

The Pitt's India Act of 1784

In order to rectify some defects in the India Bill of 1773, King George III passed an ordinance that came to be known as the Pitt's India Act, sometimes described as the half-loaf system, as it sought to mediate between the Parliament and the company directors. However, it enhanced the Parliament's control by establishing the Board of Control, constituting six members selected from the cabinet itself. They were the Secretary for Finance, Secretary of State for India and four Privy Councillors of State for India. The new Act did not interfere with the business aspect of the company. The company directors still had the power to look to the administrative matters and appointments. However, the Board of Control had the power to appoint the Governor-General. The Governor-General now had to take permission from the Board of Control before entering into any treaty or declaring war against native kings. Thus, there was dual governance in the country, which continued till 1858.

The Third Mysore War (1790-1792)

King of Travancore was an ally of the English and when Tipu Sultan invaded Travancore, Lord Cornwallis declared the Third Anglo-Mysore War against Tipu Sultan in 1790. The English formed a confederacy with the Marathas and the Nizam. The British defeated Tipu Sultan in the battles of Mangalore and Srirangapatnam and captured Bangalore in 1791. Tipu Sultan had to surrender half of his kingdom to the British as per the humiliating Treaty of Srirangapatnam (1792). The British levied a huge compensation of RS 3 crore on Tipu Sultan and took his two sons as hostage until he paid his dues.



Tipu Sultan (1782-1799)

Tipu Sultan was the son of Hyder Ali he was born on 20 November 1753. He was an astute ruler who followed his father's policy, Alter Hyder Ali, the war was carried on by Tipu Sultan. He was a man of ambition and known as the 'Tiger of Mysore'. He was a learned ruler who knew Kannada, Persian, English as well as French. At the age of 16, he began helping his father to fight the English forces. He is remembered for his brave efforts in the Battle of Polilur and later annexure of Tanjore in 1782. He was coronated on 4 May 1783, after the death of Hyder Ali. Later he fought the Third and Fourth Anglo-Mysore Wars. He died 16 years later on the same date (4 May 1799) trying to defend the fort of Srirangapatnam from the English.

The Fourth Mysore War (1799)

After the humiliating defeat of Third Mysore War, Tipu Sultan started venturing out for help from France, Turkey, Mauritius and Afghanistan. Lord Wellesley suggested Tipu Sultan to end his manoeuvres and threatened Tipu Sultan with terrible consequences. However, Tipu Sultan was not to be bogged down and Lord Wellesley invaded the fort of Srirangapatnam in 1799. Tipu Sultan was killed defending the fort in 1799, and later Mysore was divided by the British into four parts. While the

English kept three parts, the fourth part was awarded to the Wodeyar of Mysore, who became a British ally.

The statute of 1813 on Education

In the year 1813, the British government passed a Charter for the expansion of education in India. The government reserved a grant of one lakh for it. Two schools of thoughts—Orientalists and the Anglicists—appeared for the appropriation of funds. The Orientalists were of the opinion that the most appropriate medium of education is the local language, whereas the Anglicists supported in favour of education in the English language. Astonishingly, the reserved funds were not used for the next 27 years, till a committee which was established under the leadership of Lord Macaulay recommended in 1830, that the funds as per Charter of 1813, should be utilised for encouraging English literature, western science, philosophy and art.

The Charter Act of 1813 (the Lease Act)

The Charter of 1793 permitted the East India Company to extend its commercial activities in Eastern countries. It was valid for 20 years. Therefore, the British parliament renewed it and named it the Charter Act in 1813, valid for the next 20 years. The new charter recognized British moral responsibility by introducing just and humane laws in India, foreshadowing future social legislation and outlawing a number of traditional practices such as sati and thugee (robbery coupled with ritual murder). Through this Charter, Indian trade was thrown open to all the British merchants, thus, ending the commercial monopoly of the East India Company. The Act clearly upheld the British queen's sovereignty over the company's territories in India. It also had a special statute that provided funds for the development of education in India.

The Character Act of 1833

The next review of the Charter Act of 1813 was to be made in the year 1833. The British merchant lobby was putting pressure on the British Parliament to take responsibility of running the Indian administration because the East India Company was putting hurdles before the new companies that wished to establish business in India. However, some political constraints forced the Parliament to renew the Charter Act for another 20 years. The British Parliament persisted with the practice of running the Indian administration through the Board of Control of the Company, but it put an end to the company's monopoly in tea trade with India and general trade with China. Now new companies were allowed to settle in Indian territories and even purchase properties. The procedural barriers and the licensing system that had been in place for new traders were removed. This Act shifted the company's role from merely commercial to administrative and political. The Governor of Bengal was made the Governor-General of India and a new Presidency of Agra was created. The presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta came under the direct control of the Governor-General. The most significant event was the common, civil and criminal procedure codes by the law commission, presided by Macaulay, which were prepared for the entire country.

First Anglo-Burmese War (1824-1826)

The Government of India under Lord Amherst (1823-1828) was alarmed at the Burmese conquest of Assam and Manipur. In September 1823, the Burmese attacked Chittagong and Bengal territories which were under the control of the company. Lord Amherst declared war in February 1824. The war continued for more than 2 years as Rangoon fell in May 1824 and Prome (the capital of lower Burma) in April 1825. Hostilities were ended by the Treaty of Yandaboo concluded in February 1826 by which the king of Ava agreed to cede many provinces to the company.

The First Anglo-Afghan War (1839)

In order to bring down Dost Muhammad from the throne of Afghanistan, the English Governor-General, Lord Auckland, formed a triple alliance with Maharaja Ranjit Singh and Shah Shuja. The English forces defeated Dost Muhammad in the First Anglo-Afghan War in 1839 captured Kabul and helped Shah Shuja to occupy the throne. As Shah Shuja was not an able administrator, the English lost their importance in Afghanistan thereafter. Dost Muhammad, along with his supporters, reclaimed the throne, trapping the English. Lord Auckland's police on Afghanistan met severe criticism and he was recalled to England. Later, Lord Lawrence (1864-1869), Lord Mayo (1869-1872) and Lord North Brooke (1872-1876) followed a policy of neutrality in the case of Afghans.

The Charter Act of 1853

When the Act of 1833 expired, another review of this Act was undertaken in 1853. The most striking point of this Act was that the validity period of the Charter Act of 1833 was not determined. This Act considerably reduced the powers of the East India Company. It allowed the company to run the administration of the Indian territories in the name of the crown. However, the approval of the British Parliament for every decision was made mandatory. The Parliament also provided for the examination of the rules and regulations, reports and drafts prepared by the law commission. This Charter Act is also regarded as the final link in the chain of such enactments. Earlier, the Indian nationals were not considered for the appointment in the Indian Civil Services. The Court of Directors made recommendations for making appointments in the civil services. The Charter of 1853 ended this practice and the Charter began the practice of selecting civil servants through competitive examination.

Second Anglo-Burmese War (1852)

Under Lord Dalhousie (1848-1856), the Second

Anglo-Burmese War was fought in sharp contrast to the first war. The first war was the result of Burma's aggressive policy of expansion. The second war was due to ill treatment of some English merchants at Rangoon and insults heaped on the captain of the British frigate, who had been sent to remonstrate. Lord Dalhousie's thorough-going preparations for the campaign yielded good results. The lower valley of Irrawaddy, from Rangoon to Prome, was occupied in a few months as the king of Ava referred to enter into negotiation, it was annexed by proclamation in December 1852, under the name of 'Pegu'

The Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878)

After the death of Dost Muhammad, the problem of succession started over the Afghan throne. The English were happy to keep the Russians away from Indian frontiers by being neutral to the internal problems of Afghanistan. But as the presence of the Russians in Central Asia became strong in 1874, the Secretary to state of India, Lord Salisbury, suggested the appointment of a British representative in Afghanistan. This was not appreciated by the Viceroy Lord North Brooke, who tendered his resignation. He was replaced by Lord Lytton (1876-1880) as the Viceroy of India. Lord Lytton reversed the British Policy of neutrality and invaded Afghanistan in 1878, starting the Second Anglo-Afghan conflict. The English completed a remarkable victory and entered into the Treaty of Gandamak (1879) with the Afghans.

The Third Anglo-Afghan War

This is also remembered as the Panjdeh Incident of 1884. The Russians captured Panjdeh and the English prepared to wage a war against the Russians in Afghan territory. But the Ameer of Afghanistan, Sher Ali, did not want his territory to become a battleground between the English and the Russians. With the arbitration of the King of Denmark, Lord Dufferin was able to resolve the issue by demarcating a boundary line between the Russian-

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occupied regions and Afghan-controlled states. Later, in 1901, the new Ameer of Afghanistan, Amanullah, declared war against the British. But the British defeated the Afghan forces thoroughly and occupied Jallalabad and Kabul. The Third Anglo-Afghan War came to an end with the Treaty of Rawalpindi (1921).

Governors between Clive and Hastings

John Zephaniah Holwell succeeded Robert Clive as Governor of Bengal in 1760. But he was replaced by Henry Vansittart in the same year. Vansittart officiated as Governor till 1765, till the return of Robert Clive's health deteriorated in 1765, he was succeeded by Harry Verelst (1767-1769) and then John Cartier (1769-1772) before Warren Hastings was sent to India in 1772.

BRITISH GOVERNORS UNDER COMPANY RULE (1758-1857)

A multiplicity of motives underlay British penetration into India: commerce, security and a purported moral uplift of the people. The 'expansive force' of private and company trade eventually led to the conquest or annexation of territories in which spices, cotton and opium were produced. British investors ventured into the unfamiliar interior landscape in search of opportunities that promised substantial profits. British economic penetration was aided by Indian collaborators such as the bankers and merchants who controlled intricate credit networks. British rule in India would have been a frustrated or half-realized dream had their Indian counterparts not provided connections between rural and urban centres.

External threats, both real and imagined, such as the Napoleonic Wars (1796-1815) and the Russian expansion towards Afghanistan (in the 1830s), as well as the desire for internal stability, led to the annexation of more territories in India. Political analysts in Britain wavered initially as they were uncertain of the costs or

the advantages of undertaking wars in India, but by 1810, as the territorial aggrandisement eventually paid off, opinion in London welcomed the absorption of new areas. Occasionally the British Parliament witnessed heated debates against expansion, but arguments justifying military operations for security reasons always won over even the most vehement critics.

The British soon forgot their own rivalry with the Portuguese and the French and permitted them to stay in their coastal enclaves, which they kept even after Indian independence in 1947. The British, however, continued to expand vigorously well into the 1850s.

A number of aggressive Governor-Generals undertook relentless campaigns against several Hindu and Muslim rulers. Among them were Richard Colley Wellesley (1798-1805), William Pitt Amherst (1823-1828), George Eden (1836-1842), Edward Law (1842-1844) and James Andrew Brown Ramsay (1848-1856), who is also known as the Marquess of Dalhousie. Despite desperate efforts at salvaging their tottering power and keeping the British at bay, many Hindu and Muslim rulers lost their territories: Mysore (1799, but later restored), the Maratha Confederacy (1818) and Punjab (1849). British success in large measure was the result not only of their superiority in tactics and weapons but also of their ingenious relations with Indian rulers through the 'subsidiary alliance' system, introduced in the early nineteenth century. Many rulers bartered away their real responsibilities by agreeing to uphold British paramountcy in India, while they retained a fictional sovereignty under the rubric of Pax Britannica. Later, Dalhousie espoused the Doctrine of Lapse and annexed outright the estates of deceased princes of Satara (1848), Udaipur (1852), Jhansi (1853), Tanjore (1853), Nagpur (1854) and Oudh (1856).

European perceptions of India and those of the British especially, shifted from unequivocal appreciation to sweeping condemnation of India's past

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achievements and customs. Imbued with an ethnocentric sense of superiority, British intellectuals, including Christian missionaries, spearheaded a movement that sought to bring Western intellectual and technological innovations' to Indians. Interpretations of the causes of India's cultural and spiritual 'backwardness' varied, as did the solutions. Many argued that it was Europe's mission to civilize India and hold it as a trust until the Indians proved themselves competent for self rule.

The immediate consequence of this sense of superiority was to open India to more, aggressive missionary activity. The contributions of three missionaries based in Serampore (a Danish enclave in Bengal) — William Carey, Joshua Marshman and William Ward — remain unequalled and have provided inspiration for future generations of missionaries. The missionaries translated the Bible into local languages, taught company officials the local languages, and, after 1813, gained permission to proselytise in the company's territories. Although the actual number of converts remained negligible, except in rare instances when entire groups embraced Christianity, such as the Nambuthiris in the south or the Nagas in the north-east, the missionary impact on India through publishing, schools, orphanages, vocational institutions, dispensaries and hospitals was unmistakable.

Robert Clive

The English force were led by Robert Clive to capture Arcot and other regions in the south and was instrumental in laying the foundation of the British Empire in India. In the Carnatic Wars between the French and the English, the latter finally defeated the French in the Battle of Wandiwash to gain control over South India. In 1758, the East India Company appointed Clive as the first Governor of Bengal. He had served two terms: as Governor of Bengal during 1758-1760 (3 years) and 1765-1769 (5 years). Clive is remembered as the founder of the British Empire in India. Clive remained in England from 1760 to 1765

and on his return in 1765, the emperor ceded the diwani of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the company. He is also credited with the ruin of the people of Bengal as he introduced a dual system of governance (1765—1772) in Bengal. But Clive is best remembered for rectifying the structural defects of the British governance system and for permanently settling affairs with the Mughal emperor. Contemporary historians consider him to be the first British administrator who envisaged a definite governance policy, for the East India Company.

Warren, Hastings (1772-1785)

Warren Hastings reached India in 1772 as Governor of Bengal and became the first Governor-General of India in 1774. He introduced several reforms, established civil and criminal courts, and courts of appeal. During his tenure, the British Parliament passed the Regulating Act, 1773, giving a legalized working constitution to the company's dominion in India. It envisaged a Council of Ministers headed by the Governor-General. He is best remembered for the revenue, judicial and trade reforms he brought to the system.

Sir John Macpherson (1775-1786)

Warren Hastings was succeeded by Macpherson in 1775. Macpherson remained at the helm of company's affairs in India from almost 12 years, till 1786. The Pitt's India Act of 1784 was also passed during his tenure, which placed the Company's affairs in permanent, centralized control of the British Parliament, during his time.

Lord Cornwallis (1786-1793)

Lord Cornwallis succeeded Macpherson in 1787. As Governor-General of India for nearly 8 years, Charles Cornwallis (the Marquis of Cornwallis) professionalised, bureaucratised and Europeanised the company's administration. He also outlawed private trade by company employees, separated the

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commercial and administrative functions, and remunerated company servants with generous graduated salaries. He created the Civil Services of India. He introduced a new revenue system under the Permanent Settlement of Bengal, In 1793 with a view to stabilizing land revenue and creating a loyal contented class of zamindars, and the East Indian Company acted as overlord over them. This led to an increase in the number of litigations. This abolished periodic auction of zamindari rights and established permanent zamindari rights to collect land revenue from tenants and pay a fixed amount to the government treasury every year.

REVENUE REFORMS Because revenue collection became the company's most essential administrative function. Cornwallis made a pact with Bengali zamindars, who were perceived as the Indian counterparts to the British landed gentry. The Permanent Settlement system, also known as the zamindari system, fixed taxes in perpetuity in return for ownership of large estates, but the state was excluded from agricultural expansion, which came under the purview of the zamindars. In Chennai and Mumbai, however, the ryotwari (peasant) settlement system was set in motion. In this system, the government surveyed and assessed the land before taxing them, pattas were given to the Ryots and the rent was paid directly by the peasants to the government.

In the long run, neither the zamindari nor the ryotwari systems proved effective because India was integrated into an international economic and pricing system over which the company had no control, while an increasing number of people subsisted on agriculture due to the lack of other employment. Millions of people involved in the heavily taxed Indian textile industry also lost their markets as they were unable to compete successfully with cheaper textiles produced from Indian raw materials in Lancashire's mills.

JUDICIAL REFORMS Beginning with the Mayor's Court, established in 1727, for civil litigation

in Mumbai. Kolkata and Chennai, justice in the interior came under the company's jurisdiction. In 1772, an elaborate judicial system, known as adalat, established civil and criminal jurisdictions along with a complex set of codes or rules of procedure and evidence. Both Hindu pandits and Muslim qazis (sharia court judges) were recruited to aid the presiding judges in interpreting their customary laws, but in other instances. British common and statutory laws became applicable. In extraordinary situations where none of these systems was applicable, the judges were enjoined to adjudicate on the basis of 'justice, equity and good conscience. The legal profession provided numerous opportunities for educated and talented Indians who were unable to secure positions in the company, and, as a result, Indian lawyers later dominated nationalist politics and reform movements.

Notable Rulers in India (1720-1949)

Saadat Khan Burhan-ul-Mulk (1722-1739) - Awadh, Safdar Jung (1739-1754) - Awadh; Shuja-ud-daulah (1754-1775) - Awadh; Asaf-ud-daulah (1775-1797) - Awadh; Wazir Ali (1797-1798) - Awadh; Nizarm-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah (1724-1748) - Hyderabad; Nasir Jung (1748-1750) - Hyderabad; Muzaffar Jung (1750-1751) - Hyderabad; Salabat Jung (1751-1760) - Hyderabad; Nizam Ali (1760-1803) - Hyderabad; Sikandar Jah (1803-1829) - Hyderabad; Nasir-ud-daulah (1829-1857) Hyderabad Afjal-ud-daulah (1857-1869) - Hyderabad; Mahabat Ali Khan (1869-1911) - Hyderabad; Osman Ali Khan (1911-1949) - Hyderabad, Hyder Ali (1761-1782) - Mysore, Tipu Sultan (1782-1799) - Mysore, Ranjit Singh (1792-1839) - Punjab.

Land Revenue Administration And Land Reforms

Permanent Land Settlement at Zamindari System. As per the prevailing land revenue administration system during the tenure of Warren Hastings, the collection of land revenue was entrusted to the highest bidder

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who was to pay a fixed amount to the government and in turn, could collect as much as they could from the farmers. The government remained the owner of the land. The bid system was devised to give the company a regular source of income with minimum administrative effort, but this actually led to fluctuation in revenues as many bidders used to run away when they were not able to pay the revenue to the government. In 1793, Lord Cornwallis supported by his advisor Sir John Shore introduced the Permanent Land Settlement. The zamindar (or landlord) was made the owner of the land and he could sell, pledge or divide land between his family members. In return, he was to give a fixed amount of revenue to the government every year, and in case of inability to pay the revenue, the government could revoke the right of the zamindar and entrust the same to some other person. To start with, each zamindar was given land on a 10 year lease and the zamindars who paid regular revenues were made the ultimate owners of the land. This new system helped zamindars to increase productivity and at the same time reap more profits as the land revenue was fixed. But later the zamindars became autocrats and started exploiting the farmers and the land. As the miseries of the farmers increased the system was abolished in Bengal by passing the West Bengal Land Acquisition Act, 1855.

Mirasdari System In the Chennai Presidency, the Palegar system was prevalent during the early years of nineteenth century. The palegars were the landlords who exercised judicial powers and also possessed military powers. They were allowed by the British to collect land revenue to the tune of 50 per cent of the annual production. In 1855, the Governor of Chennai, Sir Thomas Munroe, abolished the palegar system, by curtailing their legal and military powers and reducing them to the status of mere revenue collectors. These palegars were called Mirasdars. The eldest landlord became the mirasdar. He was not necessarily the owner of the land coming under his mirasdari. The farmers were the actual land

owners and had to pay regular revenue. The defaulters, even in case of famine or drought, were penalized and after 30 years of introducing the mirasdar system, the government had to replace it with the ryotwari system.

Ryotwari System The ryotwari system was first introduced in the Chennai Presidency during the Munroe period. The ryots (or the cultivators), whose condition had reached the lowest during the Bengal famine, were helped greatly by this new system. The ryots, who had become slaves to the zamindars and mirasdars were able to improve their hereditary land under this system. This system established a direct link between the government and the ryots or farmers. There were no zamindars and now in this case government acted as zamindars. The twofold advantage that the government benefitted from implementing this system was that the government was getting extra revenue from the land as more and more ryots have become enthusiastic because of their improving economic condition. This increased the productivity from the land and also led the ryots to cultivate more land, which used to be lying idle. Also, the government started getting support from the ryots as the system had freed them from the authority of the zamindars. However, the biggest defect of this system was that it proved unfavourable to the ownership of private property, fairness of royal life and co-existence.

Mahalwari System This was a scientific land revenue settlement implemented by Lord Bentinck. He got the land records surveyed and divided the land into mahals on the basis of village communities, with separate estates. The settlement for 30 years on each estate was given to the village chief or elders. These states were further divided among cultivators according to the measurements of the detailed survey. The rights of cultivators were safeguarded in this system and the government kept a paid servant, called patwari, to manage land revenue as well as land administration accounts. The patwaris from a group of villages used to report to the talukdars, who were established landlords with good past records.



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The Nawabs of Bengal (1717-1772)

Murshid Quli Khan (1717-1727); Shuja-ud-din (1727-1739); Sarfraz Khan (1739-1740); Alivardi Khan (1740-1756); Sirajud Daulah (1756-1757), Mir Jafar (1757-1760); Mir Qasim (1760--1763); Mir Jafar (1763-1765), Najm-ud-daulah (1765-1772).

Sir John Shore (1793-1798)

He succeeded Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General in 1793. He was a stern believer in the policy of neutrality. Just after his resuming the office of Governor-General, he was approached by the Nizam to help him fight the Marathas in the Battle of Khurdla in 1793. As Shore remained neutral, the Nizam lost the war and turned towards the French. This brought resentment among the European officers in his ranks and they rebelled against him. After this, Shore started taking active interest in the internal affairs of the kings. After the death of the Nawab of Oudh, he took active interest in bringing the rightful heir to the throne. He returned to England in 1798.

Lord Wellesley (1798-1805)

In 1798, Lord Wellesley succeeded Sir John Shore with the aim of establishing British supremacy in India and to put an end to French conspiracy. During the Governor-Generalship of Lord Wellesley, the Fourth Mysore War (1799) was fought. This was the last Mysore war. Tipu Sultan, after regaining lost strength, set out again on his plan to oust the British from India with the help of Napoleon and the Persian king. Lord Wellesley, visualizing danger, sought an alliance with the Nizam and the Marathas and defeated and killed the valiant Tipu Sultan in 1799, besides war. Wellesley depended on a system of subsidiary alliances to expand British territories, whereby the ruler of an aligning state was compelled to accept permanent stationing of a British force within his territory and pay subsidy for its maintenance. Sometimes a territory was added in lieu of payment. A ruler also had to accept a British resident. They were not allowed to employ any European without British approval nor negotiate with any Indian ruler without

consulting the Governor-General. Thus subsidiary lost sovereignty in external matters, while the British resident interfered in internal administration, thereby causing the rulers to lose control over their territories.

Governor-Generals between Lord Wellesley and Lord Francis Hastings

Some records say that Lord Wellesley was succeeded by Lord Cornwallis who took over as Governor-General in 1805. He wanted to reverse the neutrality policy adopted by Wellesley but his health did not allow him to officiate and he died within 6 months. In 1805, he was succeeded by Sir George Barlow. Barlow made Treaty of Gwalior and Gohad with Scindia and Treaty of Lahore with Ranjit Singh in 1805. He is remembered for withdrawing to Rajput kingdoms. He was replaced with Lord Minto in 1807; Minto had a difficult time suppressing the rebellions at Chennai and Travancore in his initial years. He started expanding the British establishment further and was able to get the rights for the areas east of Sutlej from Ranjit Singh after Treaty of Amritsar. The Charter Act of 1813 was passed during his tenure.

Lord Francis Hastings (1813-1823)

Under the governorship of Lord Hastings, Nepal was defeated in 1814, resulting in Nepal ceding Gharwal and Kumaon to the British. In 1818, the Marathas made a last attempt to regain their independence. This led to the Third Anglo-Maratha War in which the Marathas were completely crushed. During Hastings' tenure, various reforms were initiated such as the ryotwari settlement according to which direct settlement was made between the government and the ryots (cultivators). The revenue was fixed for a period not exceeding 30 years, on the basis of the quality of the soil. Half the net value of the crop was to be given to the government. During this period, special attention was paid to education, building roads, bridges and canals. Lord Hastings became the first Governor-General to resign from the

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post on charges of bribery and corruption. He returned to England in 1823.

Lord William Bentinck (1828-1835)

Bentinck was famous for the social reforms he introduced, such as the abolition of sati (1820), suppression of thuggee, suppression of female infanticide and human sacrifices. English was introduced as the medium of higher education on the advice of his council member, Thomas Babington Macaulay. Lord Bentinck also made a pact with Maharaja Ranjit Singh, the ruler of Punjab. By the Charter Act of 1833, the company ceased to be a trading company and became an administrative power. He also adopted some corrective measures in the civil services. However, it was Cornwallis who founded the British Civil Service in India.

EDUCATION REFORMS Education for the most part was left in the charge of Indians or with private agents who imparted instruction in the vernacular languages. But in 1813, the British became convinced of their duty to awaken the Indians from intellectual slumber by exposing them to British literary traditions, earmarking a party sum for the cause. Controversy between two groups Europeans - the Orientalists and Anglicists - over the money was to be spent prevented them from formulating any consistent policy until 1835 when William Cavendish Bentinck, the Governor-General from 1828 to 1835; finally broke the impasse by resolving to introduce the English language as the medium of instruction, English replaced Persian in public administration and education.

JUDICIAL REFORMS The judicial system saw rapid reforms during his tenure. All provincial and circuit courts were abolished as they were not functioning satisfactorily. Instead, Bentinck divided Bengal into 20 districts and appointed a commissioner in each district, who carried out the functions of the judges of provincial courts. He also established one more civil court, Sadar Diwani Adalat and one

criminal court, Sadar Nizamut Adalat at Allahabad. Indians were appointed as deputy magistrates and jurors. The courts also adopted the regional languages and the use of Persian was discontinued in courts. The most significant occurrence was the proper compilation and indexing of laws for the first time, which made the legal procedure simpler and dispensation of justice swifter.

SOCIAL REFORMS The Company's educational policies in the 1830s tended to reinforce existing lines of socio-economic division in society rather than bringing general liberation from ignorance and superstition. Whereas the Hindu English-educated minority spearheaded many social and religious reforms, either in direct response to government policies or in reaction to them, Muslims as a group initially failed to do so, a position they endeavoured to reverse. The western-educated Hindu elite sought to rid Hinduism of its much criticized social evils: idolatry, the caste system, child marriage and sati. Religious and social activist Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1772-1833), who founded the Brahma Samaj (Society of Brahma) in 1828, displayed a attainments and skilful use of the press by these early reformers enhanced the possibility of effecting broad reforms without compromising societal values or religious practices.

PUBLIC WELFARE REFORMS Many roads, bridges and canals were built during Bentinck's tenure, the most significant being the Grand Trunk Road between Kolkata and Delhi and the road from Agra to Mumbai. He was also pivotal in the development of a structured canal system in the north-eastern frontier. He also permitted the use of steam boats in the Ganges and in other rivers.

Governor-Generals between Lord Bentinck and Lord Dalhousie

Lord Bentinck resigned from his post in 1835 and was replaced by Lord Charles Metcalf. Lord Metcalf officiated as an acting Governor-General. He is

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remembered for removing restrictions on the press and media. After a few months, he was replaced by Lord Auckland in 1836. During the tenure of Lord Auckland, the English incurred Heavy losses in the first Afghan War. He was recalled to England in 1842 and was replaced by Lord Elenborough (1842-1844). During his tenure, the First Sikh War (1845) was fought between the Sikhs and the British. The Sikhs were defeated and were brought under British control. He is remembered for reducing the price of salt by abolishing the octroi duty on it. He also permitted the appointment of English-speaking Indians in some crucial government positions. Henry Hardinge was the Governor-General from 1844 to 1848.

Lord Dalhousie (1848-1856)

Lord Dalhousie succeeded Lord Harding in 1848. During his tenure, the Second Sikh War (1848-1849) was fought, in which the Sikhs were defeated again and Dalhousie was successful in annexing the whole of Punjab to the British dominion. The Doctrine or Lapse was introduced by Lord Dalhousie, whereby it, the absence of a natural heir, the sovereignty of Indian states was to lapse to the British and such rulers were not permitted to adopt a son to inherit their kingdoms.

INFRASTRUCTURAL REFORMS The 1850s witnessed the introduction of the three engines of social improvement that the British illusion of permanence in India. They were the railroad, the telegraph and the uniform postal service. inaugurated during Dalhousie's tenure as Governor General.

Railways The first railroad lines were built in 1850, from Howrah (Haora, across the Hoogly River from Kolkata) inland to the coalfields at Raniganj, Bihar, a distance of 240 km. But this was not used as public transport. The first railway line, for public use between Mumbai and Thane, was opened in 1853.

Telegraph In 1851, the first electric telegraph line was laid in Bengal and soon Agra, Mumbai, Kolkata, Lahore, Varanasi and other cities were linked.

Postal system In 1854, the three different presidencies or regional postal systems merged to facilitate uniform methods of communication at an all India level. With uniform postal rates for letters and newspapers one-half anna and one anna, respectively (sixteen annas equalled one rupee) - communication between the rural and the metropolitan areas became easier and faster. The increased ease of communication and the opening of highways and waterways accelerated the movement of troops, the transportation of raw materials and goods to and from the interior, and the exchange of commercial information.

The railroads did not breakdown the social or cultural distances between various groups but tended to create new categories in travel. Separate compartments in the trains were reserved exclusively for the ruling class, separating the educated and wealthy from ordinary people. Similarly, when the Sepoy Rebellion was quelled in 1858, a British official exclaimed that 'the telegraph saved India'. He envisaged of course that British interests in India would continue indefinitely. Other reforms include setting up of the Public Work Department and passing of the Widow Remarriage Act. 1856.

★ Doctrine of Lapse

Lord Dalhousie followed vigorously the policy of annexing feudatory states by what is commonly known as 'Doctrine of Lapse'. He was convinced that British administration was better for the people than the rule of Indian kings. Accordingly he regarded them as anomalies, to be abolished by every possible means. He further believed that good faith must be kept with rulers on the throne and with their legitimate heirs while no sentiment should save the dynasties which had fortified sympathies by generations of misrule or preserve those that had no hereditary successor. The Doctrine of Lapse was that outcome of these principles, complicated by the Hindu law and practice of adoptions. Dalhousie held that state of ruler could not pass to a son adopted without the consent of the suzerain (the company in

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this case). Such consents, at the same time, could not be easily given. The Doctrine of Lapse, which had been recognized as early as 1834, thus became a powerful instrument in Dalhousie's hands for hastening the process of political unifications and the administrative consolidation of the country under the British rule.

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE BRITISH RULE

British colonialism established its firm roots in India in three stages, each stage representing a different pattern of subordination of colony and consequently different colonial policies, ideologies, impact and the response of colonial people.

Period of Mercantilism (1757-1813) The objectives of the British during this time were monopoly of trade and direct appropriation of revenue. The main features were as follows: very strong element of plunder and direct seizure of power, absence/of large-scale import of British goods, no basic changes in the colony's administration, judiciary, culture, and economy and so on.

Period of Laissez. Faire (1813-1860) The main features of this period were determination of the administrative policies and economic structure of the colony by the interests of the industrial bourgeoisie of the metropolis making colony a subordinate trading partner which would export raw materials and import manufactured goods, transformation of the colony's economy, polity, administration, society, culture and ideology under the guise of development and modernization in order to exploit for furthering British interests.

Finance Imperialism (1860-1947) This period was marked by the intense struggle for new, secure and exclusive markets and sources of raw materials among the industrialized countries, the consequent export of capital by these countries to the colonies, replacement of liberal policies by reactionary ones in the administration of colonies.

Drain of Wealth

The British, very systematically, took away resources and wealth from India. Economists like R. C. Dutt, Dadabhai Naoroji and others have termed this systematic act of the British as Economic Drain or the drain of wealth. The Theory of Drain was propounded by the nationalist thinkers of India. Their objective was to study the main causes of poverty in India. The term Drain implied to 'the unrequited surplus of exports over imports that was transferred to England'. The colonial rule was typically characterized by drain. The movement of resources from India to England either without offering anything in return or offering only a small part of such movement of resources can be described as the Drain of resources from India. Dadabhai Naoroji in his book Poverty and Un-British Rule in India (1871) drew the attention of the masses towards this trend. He tried to explain the causes of the drain, to assess the amount of the drain and to trace the impacts of such drain; through his book he tried to bring out the fact that the existing mass poverty in India was the result of the drain of resources from India to England.

Forms of Drain of Wealth

As per Dadabhai Naoroji, the following were the forms of drain of wealth:

1. Payments to England by Europeans, for the support of families and education of children.
2. Payments of savings by employees of company, since most employees preferred to Invest at home.
3. Payments for purchase of British goods to the consumption of British employees as well as purchases by them of British goods.
4. Government expenditures for purchase of stores produced in Britain.
5. Charges of interest on public debt held in Britain.
6. The government of the India had to make: huge expenses for maintaining political, administrative and commercial connections established between India and England.

Such commitments made were known as Home.They

included interest on public debt raised.

They included interest on public debt raised in England at comparatively higher rates, annuities on account of railway and irrigation works, payment in connection with civil departments where Englishmen were employed, India Office expenses including pensions to retired officials who had worked in India or who had worked for India in England and retired there, and pensions to army and naval personnel and their payments.

Commercialization of Agriculture

Commercial agriculture that is the production of crops for sale rather than for own consumption, grew because of a variety of reasons. One basic reason was the constant need of the peasants under the new land systems to find ways of getting money to meet the mounting demand put upon them by the state. The peasants started growing only specific crops. The land in groups of villages was solely used, because of its special suitability, for the cultivation of a single agricultural crop such as cotton, jute, wheat, sugarcane and oil seeds. Another basic reason for the rapid growth in the cultivation of cash crops was that the British government of India encouraged this. With the rise of modern industries in England, the necessity of raw materials for those industries grew. The British government in India pursued economic policies which expanded the area for growth of such raw materials as needed by the British industries. The government gradually improved the means of transport which made commerce in agriculture more widespread. Thus, the government accelerated the commercialization and specialization of Indian agriculture.

Results of the commercialization and specialization of agriculture also disrupted the unity of agriculture and industry in the traditional Indian village. Thus the older rural framework of India, weakened by the new land system, was shattered by the spread of commercial agriculture

Commercialization adversely affected even the economic position of the agriculturist. As he now

started produce for the Indian and world market, he became subject to all vicissitudes of erratic market. He had to compete with, formidable international rivals like the big agrarian trusis, of America, Europe and Australia which produced on a mass scale by means of all modern agricultural machinery, while Indian agriculturist has to cultivate his small strip of land by means of the labour power of bullocks and the primitive plough. Further, the commercialization made him dependent, for the sale of his product, on the middlemen, the merchants. The merchant by his superior economy position took full advantage of the poverty of the peasant. The poor peasant had to sell his product to the middleman at the harvest time to meet the revenue claims of the Mate and also the claims of the moneylender. This transaction originating in sheer necessity brought a less amount to the peasant than it would have if he waited. The middleman thus appropriated a very large share of the profit.

Deindustrialization

The industries which were worst affected by the policies of the British were the cotton weaving and spinning industries, silk and woollen industries, pottery, glass, paper, metal, shipping, oil-pressing, tanning and dyeing industries. The poor state of the Indian handicraft industry can be ascribed to the following causes;

1. Influx of foreign goods with the adoption of the policy of one-way free trade by the British.
2. The construction of railways which enabled the British manufacturers to reach the remotest villages of the country
3. The oppression practiced by the East India Company and its servants on the craftsmen in forcing them to sell their goods below the prevailing wage.
4. The loss of European markets to Indian manufacturers due to the imposition of high import duties and other restrictions on the import of Indian goods.

5. The gradual disappearance of Indian rulers and their courts, who were the main customers of town handicrafts.
6. Rise in the prices of raw materials due to the British policy of exporting raw materials.

The downslide in Indian industries resulted in the following;

- Depopulation and ruin of towns and cities which were famous for their manufactures.
- Increase in unemployment due to the absence of the growth of modern industries.
- Breaking of the union between agriculture and domestic industry in the countryside which in turn led to the destruction of the self-sufficient village economy.
- Overcrowding of agriculture by the ruined artisans, thus adding to the general pressure on land.

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