Content

PART - 1

EARLY PHASE OF BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

TOPIC 1

EUROPEAN PENETRATION INTO INDIA

India's economic and cultural relations with Europe go back to the age of ancient history. During the Middle Ages as well the trade between Europe and India and South-East Asia was carried on along several routes. The Asian part of the trade was carried on mostly by Arab merchants and sailors, while the Mediterranean and European part was the virtual monopoly of the Italians. Goods from Asia to Europe passed through many states and many hands before they reached Europe.

Before the Europeans arrived, no enemy had ever invaded India from the sea. Europeans came slowly at first in search of trade rather than invasion. They sought valuable spices from what they called the East Indies. When small European ships first landed on the shores of South Asia in the early 1600s in search of spices, they encountered merchants on the periphery of the Mughal Empire (1526-1858), a kingdom larger and more powerful than any country in Europe at the time.

The Mughals ruled over a vast and diverse land of deserts, large navigable rivers, thick forests, plateaus, grasslands, and mountains. Many of these physical barriers separated various linguistic, religious, and ethnic groups. There were religious Sikhs in the Punjab to the West, Muslims in Bengal to the East, Hindu Maratha tribes in the Deccan Plateau, Tamil speakers in the South, and Hindu princes in Hyderabad. The highest mountains in the world—the Himalayas—blocked interaction with China. Invaders, before the British, came overland from the northwest from what is today Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Iran. Conquerors from these lands brought cultural influences such as Islam, the Persian language, and Afghani ethnic groups. The hub of the Mughal Empire was in the densely populated northern region along The Ganges River Basin. The rich soil and river system there was ideal for farming, transportation, and communication. The Mughal Empire's weakest presence was along its coasts and this would be one cause of its eventual downfall.

The Mughal Empire reached its peak around 1700 and for several reasons began to decline just as the British began to increase their presence. By the middle of the 18th century, the Mughal Empire was a shadow of its glorious past. It could no longer hold off invaders from the northwest. In 1739, Nadir Shah, the Persian king sacked Delhi and killed over 20,000 people. The Persians stole the royal jewels, including the Darya-e Noor diamond, one of the oldest and largest diamonds in the world. They also took the famous peacock throne. Ahmad Shah Abdali, then the King of Kabul (Afghanistan) attacked Delhi in the 1750s and 1760s. After that, the Mughal Empire still claimed sovereignty over large areas but in practice was simply the seat of a small kingdom. For the next hundred years, independent successor states acknowledged Mughal rule but paid little or no tribute. This development had virtually destroyed the Mughal Empire in India.

Entry of Europeans in India

The arrival of Europeans in India was the result of direct and indirect consequences of the fall of Constantinople to Turks in 1453. The capture of Constantinople (and two other Byzantine splinter territories soon thereafter) marked the end of the Roman Empire, an imperial state which had lasted for nearly 1,500 years. The Ottoman conquest of Constantinople also dealt a massive blow to Christendom, as the Ottoman armies thereafter were free to advance into Europe without an adversary to their rear. The fall of Constantinople also severed European trade links with Asia leading many to begin seeking routes east by sea and keying the age of exploration. This paved the way for the beginning of the age of discovery.

In the fifteenth century, the mantle of Christendom's resistance to Islam had fallen upon Portugal; moreover, the Portuguese had inherited the Genoese tradition of exploration. It is reported that the idea of finding an ocean route to Ocean had become an obsession for Henry the Navigator (1394-1460), and he was also keen to find a way to circumvent the Muslim domination of the eastern Mediterranean and all the routes that connected India to Europe. In 1454, Henry received a bull (Papal charter) from Pope Nicholas V, which conferred

on him the right to navigate the "sea to the distant shores of the Orient", more specifically "as far as India", whose inhabitants were to be brought to help Christians "against the enemies of the faith".

By the terms of the Treaty of Trodesilhas (1494), all new territories were divided between Spain and Portugal. The stage was thus set for the Portuguese incursions into the waters surrounding India. A crucial breakthrough took place in 1488, when Bartolomeu Dias rounded the southern tip of Africa, which he named "Cape of Storms", anchoring at Mossel Bay and then sailing east as far as the mouth of the Great Fish River, proving that the Indian Ocean was accessible from the Atlantic. Soon the cape was renamed by King John II of Portugal "Cape of Good Hope", because of the great optimism engendered by the possibility of a sea route to India, proving false the view that had existed since Ptolemy that the Indian Ocean was land-locked.

Under new king Manuel I of Portugal, on July 1497 a small exploratory fleet of four ships and about 170 men left Lisbon under command of Vasco da Gama. By December the fleet passed the Great Fish River—where Dias had turned back—and sailed into unknown waters. On 20 May 1498, they arrived at Calicut. The efforts of Vasco da Gama to get favourable trading conditions were hampered by the low value of their goods, compared with the valuable goods traded there. Two years and two days after departure, Gama and a survivor crew of 55 men returned in glory to Portugal as the first ships to sail directly from Europe to India.

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THE ARRIVAL OF PORTUGUESE IN INDIA

The arrival of Vasco da Gama and the discovery of direct sea route to India inaugurated a new chapter in Indian history. For some time, the Portuguese, among other Europeans, had been looking for a sea route to India, but they had been unable to break free of the stranglehold exercised by Egyptian rulers over the trade between Europe and Asia. The Red Sea trade route was a state monopoly from which Islamic rulers earned tremendous revenues.

The coming of the Portuguese introduced several new factors into Indian history. As almost every historian has observed, it not only initiated what might be called the European era, it marked the emergence of naval power. Doubtless, the Cholas, among others, had been a naval power, but for the first time a foreign power had come to India by way of the sea; moreover, Portuguese dominance would only extend to the coasts, since they were never able to make any significant inroads into the Indian interior. The Portuguese ships carried cannon, but the significance of this is not commonly realized, especially by those who are merely inclined to view the Portuguese as one of a series of invaders of India, or even as specimens of 'enterprising' Europeans.

For centuries, the numerous participants in the Indian Ocean trading system – Indians, Arabs, Africans from the east coast, Chinese, Javanese, Sumatrans, among others – had ploughed the sea routes and adhered to various tacit rules of conduct. Though all were in the trade for profit, as might be expected, no party sought to have overwhelming dominance; certainly no one had sought to enforce their power through arms. Trade flourished, and all the parties played their role in putting down piracy: this was a free trade zone. Into this arena stepped forth the Portuguese, who at once declared their intention to abide by no rules except their own, and who sought immediate and decisive advantage over the Indians and over the Indian Ocean trading system.

The conduct of the Portuguese in India was 'barbaric'. Vasco da Gama's initial conduct set the tone. On his way to India, he encountered an unarmed vessel returning from Mecca; as a contemporary Portuguese source states, Vasco da Gama ordered the ship emptied of its goods, and then had it set on fire, prohibiting "any Moor" being taken from it alive. He then spent four months in India. Having waited out the monsoons, he set out to return to Portugal with a cargo worth sixty times what he had brought with him, and refused to pay the customary port duties to the Zamorin, the ruler of Calicut. To ensure that his way would not be obstructed, he took a few hostages with him. When he returned to Portugal in 1499, the pepper he brought with him was sold at an enormous profit; and nothing underscores the importance of direct access to the pepper trade as much as the fact that elsewhere the Europeans, who relied on Muslim middlemen, would have to spend ten times as much for the same amount of pepper.

Emboldened by this success, King Dom Manuel sent another expedition of six ships headed by Pedro Cabral. With their usual ignorance of, and disdain for, local customs, Cabral and the Portuguese sent a low-caste Hindu as a messenger to the Zamorin upon their arrival at port. Meanwhile, the Portuguese were claiming the sole right to the sea. Cabral attacked all Arab vessels within his reach, which provoked a riot at the port that led to the destruction of the Portuguese factory. Cabral retaliated in the only way known to a Portuguese marauder and bandit of his times: he massacred the crews of the boats, and burnt all the ships that were not his own. The intent, which would be repeatedly witnessed in the history of Portuguese interactions with the Indians (and with others), was to brutalize and terrorize the native population, and with evident justice, that Cabral's behavior persuaded the Indians that "the intruders were uncivilised barbarians, treacherous and untrustworthy".

Portuguese Governors in India

In March 1505, Francisco de Almeida was appointed *Viceroy of India*, on the condition that he would set up four forts on the southwestern Indian coast: at Anjediva Island, Cannanore, Cochin and Quilon. Francisco de Almeida left Portugal with a fleet of 22 vessels with 1,500 men. In September, Francisco de Almeida reached Anjadip Island, where he immediately started the construction of Fort Anjediva. In October, with the permission of the friendly ruler of Cannanore, he started building St. Angelo Fort at Cannanore, leaving Lourenço de Brito in charge with 150 men and two ships. Francisco de Almeida then reached Cochin in October 1505 with only 8 vessels left. There he learned that the Portuguese traders at Quilon had been killed. He decided to send his son Lourenço de Almeida with 6 ships, who destroyed 27 Calicut vessels in the harbour of Quilon. Almeida took up residence in Cochin. He strengthened the Portuguese fortifications of Fort Manuel on Cochin.

The Zamorin prepared a large fleet of 200 ships to oppose the Portuguese, but in March 1506 Lourenço de Almeida (son of Francisco de Almeida) was victorious in a sea battle at the entrance to the harbor of Cannanore, the Battle of Cannanore (1506), an important setback for the fleet of the Zamorin. Thereupon Lourenço de Almeida explored the coastal waters southwards to Colombo, in what is now Sri Lanka. In Cannanore, however, a new ruler, hostile to the Portuguese and friendly with the Zamorin, attacked the Portuguese garrison, leading to the Siege of Cannanore (1507).

In 1507 Almeida's mission was strengthened by the arrival of Tristão da Cunha's squadron. Afonso de Albuquerque's squadron had, however, split from that of Cunha off East Africa and was independently conquering territories in the Persian Gulf to the west. In March 1508 a Portuguese squadron under command of Lourenço de Almeida was attacked by a combined Mameluk Egyptian and Gujarat Sultanate fleet at Chaul and Dabul respectively, led by admirals Mirocem and Meliqueaz in the Battle of Chaul (1508). Lourenço de Almeida lost his life after a fierce fight in this battle. Mamluk-Indian resistance was, however, to be decisively defeated at the Battle of Diu (1509).

Alfonso De Albuquerque (1509-15) was the second Portuguese governor. He was the real founder of Portuguese empire in India. He encouraged his countrymen to marry Indian women to increase the number of his supporters. The products of these marriages were known as Feringhees. Albuquerque made provisions for the education of the natives and retained Indian system of government (Village Panchayats) in the villages. He took steps to prohibit the practice of Sati.

A new fleet under Marshal FernãoCoutinho arrived with specific instructions to destroy the power of Zamorin's Calicut. The Zamorin's palace was captured and destroyed and the city was set on fire. But the king's forces rallied fast to kill Marshal Cutinho and wounded Albuquerque. Albuquerque nevertheless was clever enough to patch up his quarrel and entered into a treaty with the Zamorin in 1513 to protect Portuguese interests in Malabar. Hostilities were renewed when the Portuguese attempted to assassinate the Zamorin sometime between 1515 and 1518. In 1510, Afonso de Albuquerque defeated the Bijapur sultans with the help of Timayya, on behalf of the HinduVijayanagara Empire, leading to the establishment of a permanent settlement in Velha Goa (or Old Goa). The Southern Province, also known simply as Goa, was the headquarters of Portuguese India, and seat of the Portuguese viceroy who governed the Portuguese possessions in Asia. There were Portuguese settlements in and around Mylapore. The Luz Church in Mylapore, Madras (Chennai) was the first church that the Portuguese built in Madras in 1516. Later in 1522, the São Tomé church was built on the grave of Saint Thomas. The Portuguese acquired several territories from the Sultans of Gujarat: Daman (occupied 1531, formally ceded 1539); Salsette, Bombay, and Baçaim (occupied 1534); and Diu (ceded 1535).

These possessions became the Northern Province of Portuguese India, which extended almost 100 km along the coast from Daman to Chaul, and in places 30–50 km inland. The province was ruled from the fortress-town of Baçaim.

From the 16th century, the Portuguese meddled in the church affairs of the Syrian Christians of Malabar. The Udayamperoor Synod (1599) was a major attempt by the Portuguese Archbishop Menezes to Latinize the Syrian rite. Later in 1653, Coonan Cross Oath led to the division of the local church into Syrian Catholics and Syrian Christians (Jacobites). Bombay (present day Mumbai) was given to Britain in 1661 as part of the Portuguese Princess Catherine of Braganza's dowry to Charles II of England. Most of the Northern Province was lost to the Marathas in 1739, and Portugal acquired Dadra and Nagar Haveli in 1779. In 1843 the capital was shifted to Panjim, then renamed "Nova Goa", when it officially became the administrative seat of Portuguese India, replacing the city of Velha Goa (now Old Goa), although the Viceroys lived there already since December 1759. Before moving to the city, the viceroy remodeled the fortress of Adil Khan, transforming it into a palace.

The Portuguese also shipped over many OrfasdelRei to Portuguese colonies in India, Goa in particular. OrfasdelRei literally translates to "Orphans of the King", and they were Portuguese girl orphans sent to overseas colonies to marry either Portuguese settlers or natives with high status. Thus there are Portuguese footprints all over the western and eastern coasts of India, though Goa became the capital of Portuguese Goa from 1530 onwards until the annexation of Goa proper and the entire Estado da India Portuguesa, and its merger with the Indian Union in 1961.

THE ARRIVAL OF DUTCH IN INDIA

In 1593 AD under William Barents the Dutch made their first determined effort to reach Asia. Huyghen Van Linschoten was the first Dutch national to reach India. He reached Goa in 1583 AD and stayed there till 1589 AD. Cornelius Houtman, a Dutch citizen reached India in 1596 AD and returned with large cargo in 1597 AD. Between 1595 AD and 1601 AD fifteen voyages had been by the Dutch to East Indies. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602 AD by an order of the government of Holland. This company's name was Vereenigdde OostIndische Compagnie (VOC).

The Dutch got favourable response from the rulers of Golkunda. They got the right to mint coin in the Pulicat mint in 1657 from Golkunda king. By the farman of 1676 the Golkunda ruler granted the Dutch complete freedom from tariffs in Golkunda. The Dutch succeeded in getting farman from the Mughal Emperor Jahangir for trading along the west coast. They were exempted from tolls from Burhanpur to Cambay and Ahmadabad. Shah Jahan granted total exemption to the company from paying transit throughout the Mughal Empire. Aurangzeb confirmed all the privileges granted by Shahjahan to the Dutch in Bengal in 1662. Jahandar Shah confirmed all the privileges granted by Aurangzeb in Coromandal in 1712.

Initially the headquarters of Dutch was at Pulicat after obtaining permission from king of ChandragiriVenkat I and in 1690 Negapattnam became their headquarters. The Dutch minted a gold coin named Pagoda. The Dutch established their first factory at Masulipattnam in 1605 AD. Their first factory in Bengal was established at Pipli. After some time Balasore replaced Pipli. The Dutch used to exchange spices of Malaya Archipelago for cotton goods from Gujrat and the Coromandal coast. The Dutch used to export Cotton cloths, silk, salt petre and opium from Bengal. They shattered the Portuguese commercial monopoly in India. The Dutch dominated the trade between India and Java during 17th century. They popularized spice and textile trade, besides they exported indigo, saltpetre and Raw Silk. The Dutch commercial activities began to decline by the beginning of 18th century. The Dutch were defeated by the English in the Battle of Bedera in 1759 and with this defeat the Dutch influence in India almost came to an end. The English decided to drive the Dutch away from their Indian possessions. The English joined hands with the Portuguese in India to drive the Dutch out. By 1795, the English succeeded in expelling the Dutch completely.

ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY

The "English Trading Company" was formed by a group of merchants known as the 'Merchant Adventures' in 1599 AD. This company was granted a charter by Queen Elizabeth I on 31st Dec. 1600 AD. 'The Governor and the Company of Merchants of London trading into East Indies' was the name of English company. This company was given monopoly rights over eastern trade for fifteen years.

In 1608 AD Captain William Hawkins reached the court of Jahangir. Hawkins was the ambassador of King James I. He lived at the court for three years. He was given the title of English Khan and Mansab of 400 Jat by Jahangir. But because of Portuguese influence at the court, Hawkins failed to get permission to erect a factory at Surat.

In 1611 Capt. Middleton landed at Swally near Surat in spite of Portuguese opposition and got permission to trade from the Mughal governor. In 1612 AD Capt. Best defeated the Portuguese at Swally near Surat and this

defeat broke their naval supremacy. Captain Best succeeded in getting a royal Farman to open factories in the West Coast, Surat, Cambay, Ahmadabad and Goa in 1613 AD. Sir Thomas Roe (1615-18) came to the court of Jahangir as the Royal ambassador of King James I and received permission to trade and to establish factories in different parts of the empire.

The first English factory in south was established at Masulipattnam in 1611 AD. Another factory was established at Armagaon (near Pulicat) in 1626 AD. In 1632 AD the Sultan of Golkunda issued the company the Golden Farman. This farman allowed them to trade within the ports of the kingdom freely on lump sum payment of 500 pagodas a year. In 1639 AD Francis Day obtained the site of Madras from the Raja of Chandragiri with permission to build a fortified factory. This factory was named Fort St. George. In Sep. 1641 AD Madras replaced Masulipattnam as the headquarters of the English on the Coromandal coast. All the English settlements in Eastern India (Bengal, Bihar and Orissa) and the Coromandal were placed under the control of the President and Council of Fort St. George. The Portuguese gave the island to Bombay to King Charles II of England in dowry in 1661 AD. Bombay was given to company in 1668 AD on annual rent of £10. Thereafter Bombay replaced Surat as the headquarters on the west coast. Bombay was fortified in 1720 by Charles Boon.

Expansion of the factories of English East India Company

The English established their first factory in Orissa at Hariharpur (near the mouth of river Mahanadi), Balasore and Pipli in 1633 AD. In 1651 Shah Shuja, the governor of Bengal, granted the English Trading Company a Nishan through which they received trading privileges in return for a fixed annual payment of Rs. 3000. By another Nishan the English Company was exempted from Custom duties in 1656 First English factory in Bengal was established at Hughli in 1651 AD. In 1667 AD Aurangzeb confirmed the privileges enjoyed by the company. In 1672 AD Shayista Khan, the Mughal governor of Bengal confirmed the privileges enjoyed by the company.

In 1686 two pirate ships (Ships of English free traders) captured several Mughal ships in Red Sea. Upon this the Mughal governor of Surat attacked the English. Hostilities broke out in Bengal also. Hughli was sacked by the Mughals. The English were forced to leave Hughli. Aurangzeb granted them permission to trade, on payment of Rs. 1,50,000 as compensation. In 1691 AD Job Charnock established a factory at Sutanati. In 1691 AD Aurangzeb granted a farman by which they were exempted from the of custom duties in Bengal in return for an annual payment of Rs 3000. The rebellion of Shoba Singh, a Zamindar of Burdwan provided opportunity to the English to fortify the settlement at Sutanati.

Sir William Noris was sent as a special envoy by the English king to Aurangzeb's court to secure the formal grant of the trading concessions and the right to exercise full English jurisdiction over the English settlements in 1698 AD. In the same year British acquired the Zamindari of the villages of Sutanati, Kalikata and Govindpur from Mughal governor Azimush Shah on payment of Rs 1200 to the original proprietors. These three villages crested the nucleus of modern Calcutta. The rebellion of Afghan Rahim Khan provided the English opportunity to fortify Calcutta. It was named Fort William (1700 AD). Sir Charles Eyre was the first president of Fort William. All settlements in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa were placed under Fort William (1700 AD).

Emperor Farruksiyar's Farman

In 1717 AD the Presidencies of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta sent a combined mission to the court of Emperor Farruksiyar. The mission was led by John Surman. Dr. William Hamilton was a member of the Surman commission. He cured Farruksiyar of a painful disease. The relieved Farruksiyar granted the company three Farmans in 1717 AD for duty free trade. These Farmans of Farruksiyar (1717) are called the Magna Carta of the Company.

By this farman the Company was granted right to duty free trade in Bengal in lieu of an annual payment of Rs. 3,000. The Company was also allowed to wherever they pleased and rent additional territory around Calcutta. In case of province of Hyderabad, the English Company was allowed freedom from all dues except rent paid for Madras. The Company was granted right to duty free trade at Surat in lieu of an annual payment of Rs. 10,000. The currency coined by company was made current throughout the Mughal Empire.

Evolution of the East India Company

The internal management of the English company was administered by a court of committees whose nomenclature later was changed to court of directors. It consisted of a governor, a deputy governor, and 24 members to be elected annually by a general body of the merchants forming the company. Besides, there was a secretary and a treasurer. The company's superior body court of directors was based in London while its subordinate body was in Asia. The Directors were to be annually elected by the shareholders of the company. Each shareholder, irrespective of the value of the share had only one vote. The membership of the company was not confined to shareholders

only but it could be secured through inheritance or presentation by paying an entrance fee through apprenticeship, services etc. Company enjoyed extensive powers to issue orders and to make laws in accordance with the laws and customs of the realm. The company also possessed judicial powers to punish its servants for their offences by imprisonment or fine.

In India, each factory was administered by a Governor– in–council. The governor was the President of the council with no extra privileges. Everything was decided in the council by majority vote. The members of the council consisted of senior merchants of the company. The Court of Directors was the supreme authority in framing policies for the company.

Queen Elizabeth was one of the shareholders of the company. After Queen Elizabeth's death, James I renewed the charter though it could be revoked at any time at three year notice. The company got the power to enforce law to maintain discipline on long voyages. The Charter Act of 1683 AD gave the company full power to declare war and make peace with any power. In spite of all opposition English independent merchants, known as Interlopers continued to defy the monopoly of the company by indulging in the East Indian trade of their own. These Free Merchants tried to press their demands in public as well as in Parliament. In 1694 AD the Parliament passed the resolution that all the citizens of England had equal right to trade in the East. In 1698 AD British Government sold the monopoly rights of East Indies trade to a new company named General Society. The London Company was given a notice of three to wind up the business. The Old Company refused to surrender their privileges. After long drawn conflict both the companies agreed to join hands in 1702 AD. In 1708 AD a new company named 'The united Company of Merchants of England Trading to the East Indies' was formed by amalgamating both the companies.

FRENCH EAST INDIA COMPANY

The French were the last European traders to arrive in India. French East India Company was formed under state patronage by Colbert in 1664 AD. The French company was named the Compagnie Des Indes Orientals. In Dec 1667 AD the first French factory was set up at Surat by Francois Caron. In 1669 AD Marcara set up a factory at Masulipattnam by securing a patent from the Sultan of Golkunda. They also succeeded in getting a farman from Aurangzeb in 1669 AD to open their factory at Surat. In 1673 AD the French (Francois Martin &Bellanger De Lespinary) acquired from the Muslim governor of ValikoindapuramSher Khan Lodi a small village. This village developed into Pondichery and its first governor was Francois Martin. Fort Louis was established here. They acquired site of Chandernagore in Bengal from the Mughal governor Shayista Khan in 1674 AD. French factory was established here in 1690 AD. Pondichery (Fort Louis) was made the headquarters of all the French settlements in India and Francois Martin became the governor –general of French affairs in India.

French commander Martin readily acknowledged the authority of Shivaji and agreed to pay him an amount in lieu of license to trade in his dominions. The French got the permission to fortify Pondichery in 1689 from Sambhaji. Duplex was the most important French Governor in India.

The supreme body of the French Company was known as superior council of the Indies and headed by a Director-General. The Supreme Council composed of five members was presided over by the governor. French East India Company was a state controlled organization and thus differed from the Chartered Companies of England and the Netherlands. It was highly dependent on the French government for its grants, subsidies, loans etc.

The French maintained close ties with Dost-ali the Nawab of Carnatic. On the basis of a strong recommendation by Dost –Ali the Mughal emperor Muhammad Shah issued a farman granting permission to the French to mint and issue gold and silver currency bearing the stamp of the Mughal emperor and the name of the place of minting.

The Dutch blocked the French commercial activities at Hugli. They seized San Thome near Madras in 1672 but were soon defeated by combined forces of Sultan of Golkunda and the Dutch Later Dutch established their control over San Thome. In the Dutch-French rivalry the Dutch were always supported by the English. The Dutch captured Pondichery in 1692 AD from the French but later gave back in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick.

After 1742, the political motives began to overshadow commercial gains. The French governor Duplex began the policy of extending territorial empire in India. This led to a series of conflict will the English. The French fought three Carnatic wars with the English. During the third Carnatic War the French lost badly in the battle of Wandiwash in 1760 AD. With this defeat the French lost almost all their possessions in India. The battle ended by the Treaty of Paris in 1763 AD. Pondichery and some other French settlements were returned to the French but they were not allowed to fortify their settlements. The French continued to exist in India but they were no more a challenge to English hegemony.

ANGLO-FRENCH RIVALRY IN INDIA

The Carnatic Wars were a series of military conflicts in the middle of the 18th century between the French East India Company and the British East India Company, including numerous nominally independent rulers. They were mainly fought on the territories in India which were dominated by the Mughal Empire up to the Godavari delta. The First and Third Carnatic Wars were essentially the Indian Colonial front in two international wars - War of the Austrian Succession (1740-48), and the Seven Year's War (1756-1763) respectively. As a result of these military contests, the British East India Company established its dominance among the European trading companies within India. The French company was pushed to a corner and was confined primarily to Pondicherry.

First Carnatic War (1746–1748)

The First Carnatic War was the extension of the Anglo- French War in Europe. The Austrian Wars of Succession broke out in 1740 as a result hostilities also broke out in India in 1746. The English navy under Barnett took the offensive when it captured some French ships. Dupleix the French Governor General of Pondicherry sent an urgent appeal for help to La Bourdonnais the French governor of Mauritus.The result was that La Bourdonnais hastened to India with a fleet and reached the Coromondal Coast in 1746.The French and British squadrons faced each other for some time but the English squadrons left for Ceylon after some time. Dupleix asked La Bourdonnais to siege Madras.

In the ensuing battle the English fleet was defeated and Madras was captured by the French. The First Carnatic War is memorable for the battle of St Thome fought between the French and the Indian forces of Anwaruddin and the Nawab of Carnatic.The French won the battle with their superior general ship of Dupleix. The First Carnatic War came to an end with the end of hostilities in Europe.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle brought the Austrian war of succession to an end. Under the terms of the treaty Madras was handed back to the English. Dupleix had proved his superiority in skill and diplomacy. The English had failed to defend Madras and unsuccessfully conducted the land cum sea operations against Pondicherry. This war had adequately brought out the importance of naval power as an important factor in Anglo-French conflict in the Deccan.

Second Carnatic War (1749–1754)

After the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk in 1748, the Nizam of Hyderabad, a civil war for succession broke out in the south between his son, Mir Ahmad Ali Khan (Nasir Jung), and his grandson, Muzaffar Jung. Chanda Sahib, who wanted to become Nawab of Arcot, joined hand with Muzaffar Jung and French force. Eventually Chanda Sahib came into power in Arcot and Muzaffar Jung came into power in Hyderabad. But in 1751, Robert Clive led British troops to capture Arcot. Clive's success led to additional victories for the British and their Nizam and Arcot allies (Mohammad Ali). The war ended with the Treaty of Pondicherry, signed in 1754. 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 the Seven Years' War in Europe resulted in third Carnatic War. It spread beyond southern India and into Bengal where British forces captured the French settlement of Chandernagore in 1757. Also, British defeated the French in 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 Pondicherry to France, and allowed the French to have trading posts in India but forbade French traders from administering them. Third Carnatic War, thus ended the French ambitions of an Indian empire and made the British the dominant foreign power in India.

WHY DID THE FRENCH FAIL AND THE ENGLISH SUCCEED IN INDIA?

In the year 1740, six years before the outbreak of war between the English and French in India, these two nations alone, out of the four chief European nations, who had embarked in Eastern enterprise, continued to hold any considerable power. The Portuguese — the first on the scene — had for a century maintained a complete monopoly of Eastern trade, and had raised up on the continent of India itself a power such as none of their European successors attained for a century and a half after their downfall. But their glory had long ago departed. The bigotry and intolerance and cruelty, which characterized the successors of d'Albuquerque, had long ago met with their just reward. The Dutch, who succeeded, in like manner failed to maintain the enormous power which they had once gained. They brought about their own ruin by a flagrant abuse of the monopoly, which they had

wrested from the Portuguese. Next came the English, who, at this time, still continued to keep in their own hands the greater share of the traffic between Europe and India; and, some sixty years after the English, came the French whose commercial success, while not equaling that of the English, was still such as to make them formidable rivals.

Up to this time, English and French had existed side by side in India, without coming into serious collision, for more than seventy years, although England and France had been at war with each other for a considerable portion of that period. The settlers of the two nations had hitherto pursued entirely independent courses. The policy adopted by either side, towards the rules and inhabitants of the country, in which the settlements stood, was neither imitated from nor influenced by that pursued by the other, and the result of this was an important difference between the nature of English and French power and policy in India, which greatly influenced the character of the subsequent struggle. In fact, this distinction, which was doubtless to a great extent the outcome of circumstances acting on the different national temperaments, made the contest an unequal one at the very outset, by placing the combatants on entirely different levels; and, had it not been for the preponderating influence of external causes — causes beyond the control of the settlers, whether English or French — the result of the contest would, in all probability, not have been what it was.

The Anglo-French rivalry in the Carnatic that lasted for about two decades with short intervals of peace at last decided once for all that the French were to be the dependants of the English in India. The career of the French in India has been pictured by Malleson in the following words: "Beginning with small means, then suddenly astonishing the world by its dazzling promise, the venture of the French in India was destined to end thus early in humiliation and failure". It was the sad fate of France in this, the most unfortunate of her wars to be disgraced on the continent and to lose simultaneously her possessions in the East and the West." Though the Treaty of Paris, 1763, accorded to the French the status quo as it stood in 1749, there was a marked decline in the position and status of the French in India. They were no longer masters, only subordinates, whose existence in India depended upon the goodwill and kindness of the English.

Col. Malleson writes, "We will still be forced to lay the chief blame at the door of France, on the shoulders of the sensual monarch under whose rule the resources of the kingdom were so lavishly wasted and misdirected. Whilst English India received plentiful supplies of men and ships in abundance and thought herself hardly used, French India received from the mother country scarcely more than two millions of Francs! There could be but one result to such a mode of supporting a colony and that result appeared on 16th January 1761."

French Continental Preoccupations

The continental ambitions of France in the 18th century considerably strained her resources. The French monarchs of the time were fighting for "natural frontiers" for their country which meant acquisition of new territories towards the Low Countries, extension of the frontier to the Rhine and towards Italy. Such expansionist schemes involved that country deeper and deeper into the political muddle of Europe, taxed her energies and kept her constantly at war with the states of Europe. France cared more for a few hundred square miles of territory on her frontier to bigger stakes in North America or India. France attempted simultaneously the difficult task of continental expansion and colonial acquisitions. This divided her resources and made her unequal to the task in facing her adversaries. It was the misfortune of France that she gained almost nothing on the continent and lost her colonial possessions also. England, on the other hand, did not covet an inch of European territory. A part of Europe, England felt herself apart from it. England's interests in Europe were mainly confined to the maintenance of a balance of power in that continent. England's ambition was mainly colonial and in this single-minded objective she came off with flying colours. She won the struggle both in India and North America and worsted off France in both these regions.

Different Systems of Government in England and France

French historians have rightly attributed the failure of France in the colonial struggle to the inferior system of the government prevalent in France as compared to the English system of government. The French government was despotic and depended on the personality of the monarch. Even under Louis XIV, the Grand Monarque, the system was showing serious cracks. The numerous wars that Louis XIV waged sapped the vitality of the state, ruined her financial resources and made French power look like an inflated balloon. The deluge followed close on his death. His weak and sensual successor, Louis XV frittered away the resources of France upon his numerous mistresses and other favourites like dancers and hair-dressers. England, on the other hand, was ruled by an enlightened oligarchy. Under the rule of the Whig Party, England took great strides towards a constitutional set-

up, reducing the British realm into "a sort of a crowned republic." The system showed considerable vitality and grew from strength to strength. Alfred Lyall emphasises the rottenness of the French system of Government when he writes: "India was not lost by the French because Dupleix was recalled, or because La Bourdonnais and D'Ache both left the coast at critical moments or because Lally was headstrong and intractable. Still less was the loss due to any national inaptitude for distant and perilous enterprises in which the French have displayed high qualities ... It was through the short-sighted, ill-managed European policy of Louis XV, misguided by his mistresses and by incompetent ministers, that France lost her Indian settlements in the Seven Years War."

Differences in the Organisation of the two Companies

The French Company was a department of the state. The Company had been launched with a share capital of 5.5 million livres out of which the monarch subscribed 3.5 million livres. Its directors were nominated by the king from the shareholders and they carried on the decisions of two High Commissioners appointed by the Government. Since the state guaranteed dividend to the shareholders, the latter took very little interest in promoting the prosperity of the Company. So great was the lack of public interest that from 1725 to 1765 the shareholders never met and the Company was managed as a department of the state. Under these circumstances the financial position of the French Company progressively deteriorated. At one stage the resources of the Company dwindled to such a low ebb that it had to sell its trading rights to a group of merchants from St. Malo for an annual payment. From 1721 to 1740 the Company traded on borrowed capital. Constantly propped up by subsidies from the royal treasury, the Company was kept going by monopoly of tobacco and gambling in lotteries. Such a company was ill-equipped to support the ambitions of Dupleix or finance his expensive wars. The English Company, on the other hand, was an independent commercial corporation. While this Company could not remain altogether unaffected by the political upheavals in England, the interference of the government into its day-to-day affairs was very little. Whoever controlled the administration in England, the King or Parliament, there was great interest in the ruling circles for the well-being of the Company. Compared to the French Company, the English Company was financially sounder; its trade was far more extensive and business methods better. The directors of the English Company always emphasised the importance of trade. With them trade came first and politics later on. The English Company earned enough to finance its wars. It has been estimated that during 1736-1756, the total sales of the English Company amounted to £ 41,200,000 as compared to the total sales of Indian goods in France which were approximately £ 11,450,000 during the same period. Financially the English Company was so rich that at one time it was in danger of being regarded as a milch cow by the Government of England. In 1767 the English Company was asked to pay £ 400,000 a year to the British treasury. There was even talk of using the surplus funds of the Company in liquidating the national debt of England. When Dupleix inaugurated the policy of making political gains to compensate for the declining profits of the French Company he took the first step towards its decline.

Role of the Navy

The events of the Carnatic Wars amply demonstrate how the fortunes of the two Companies waxed and waned with their strength on the seas. During 1746, French successes on land followed her naval superiority along the Coromandel Coast. True, the English naval power did not assert its superiority during the few years following 1748, more because England and France were officially at peace. Dupleix's astounding successes were won during I748-51 when the English navy was temporarily out of action. The naval superiority of England during the Seven Years, War placed Count de Lally at a grievous disadvantage and he could not hope to repeat the exploits of Dupleix. The retirement of French fleet under D' Ache from the Indian waters left the field clear for the English and their final victory was no longer in doubt. During the Austrian War of Succession French maritime strength was so greatly reduced that, according to Voltaire, she was left with no warships during the Seven Years' War. Pitt the Elder made the maximum use of the superiority of England on the high seas. Superior naval force enabled the English East India Company to keep open her communications with Europe, cover her operation on land in the Carnatic by supplying reinforcements from Bombay and Calcutta and cut off and isolate French force in the Carnatic from the rest of the world. Superior maritime strength proved to be England's most powerful weapon in the struggle for colonial supremacy. Even if other factors were equally proportioned navy would have the casting vote.

Impact of English Successes in Bengal

The English conquest of Bengal in 1757 was undoubtedly of great significance. Besides enhancing the political prestige of the English Company, it placed at its disposal the vast resources in wealth and manpower of Bengal.

The financial resources of the English Company considerably improved. At a time when Count de Lally was ill at ease as to how to make payments to his troops, Bengal sent not only troops but supplies to the Carnatic. The Deccan was too poor to finance the political ambition of Dupleix or military schemes of Count de Lally. True, Bussy had obtained the cession of the Circars from the Nizam, but there is no evidence of any remission of funds to Southern India except the lakh and a half of rupees sent by Bussy to Lally in 1758.

Decidedly the power of superior finance was on the side of the English. V. A. Smith emphatically declares: "Neither Bussy nor Dupleix singly, nor both combined, had a chance of success against the government which controlled the sea routes and the resources of the Gangetic valley. It is futile to lay stress upon the personal frailties of Dupleix, Lally or lesser men in order to explain the French failure. Neither Alexander the Great nor Napoleon could have won the empire of India by starting from Pondicherry as a base and contending with the power which held Bengal and command of the sea." "Dupleix", writes Marriott, "made a cardinal blunder in looking for the key of India in Madras; Clive sought and found it in Bengal."

Respective Leadership compared

The superior political leadership and military generalship of the English in India stand in striking contrast to that of the French. Perhaps Dupleix and Bussy were in no way inferior to Clive; Lawrence and Saunders. The comparison ends there. Dupleix and Bussy could do everything but enthuse the French with their own "spirit; they had to depend on incompetent subordinates. Count de Lally who came to India at a critical moment was headstrong and of a violent temper. He looked upon the Company's servants of Pondicherry as a set of dishonest rogues whom he hoped to set right by threats and punishment, He so greatly alienated his compatriots that they openly rejoiced when the English defeated him. The English, on the other hand, were lucky in procuring the services of capable commanders and very many servants far superior to any of the subordinates "of Dupleix and Bussy. Writes Malleson: "The daring of Lawrence, the dogged pertinacity of Saunders" and his Council, the vigour and ability of Calliaud, of Forde, of Joseph Smith, of Dalton, and of many others, stand out in striking contrast to the feebleness, the incapacity, the indecision of the Laws, the D'Anteuils, the Brenniers, the Maissins and others whom Dupleix was forced to employ."

Thus the French failed to realise the dream of building up a French Empire in India. The debacle of the French Company led Voltaire to make this trenchant criticism: "At last there was left to the French only regret for having spent immense sums for over forty years for maintaining a company which never made the least profit, which never pays to its shareholders and creditors from the profits of its commerce which in its Indian administration lived only in secret brigandage".

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