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Advent of European

Portuguese

1. First Europeans to arrive in India (1498).
2. **Key figures:** Vasco da Gama, Almeida, Albuquerque.
3. Albuquerque established the Portuguese colonial empire in India.
4. **Major centers:** Goa (1510), Diu, Daman, Cochin.
5. **Introduced:** cartaz system, naval supremacy, missionary activities, tobacco.

Dutch (Netherlands)

1. Dutch East India Company (VOC) established in 1602.
2. **Centers:** Pulicat, later Nagapattinam, Cochin.
3. Defeated Portuguese in many areas.
4. Focused mainly on spice trade in Indonesia → decline in India.

English

1. English East India Company established in 1600.
2. **First factory:** Surat (1613) with permission of Jahangir.
3. **Key centers:** Madras (1639), Bombay (1668), Calcutta (1690).
4. Shift from traders → territorial power after Battle of Plassey (1757) and Buxar (1764).
5. Became a political power with the acquisition of Diwani rights (1765).

French

1. French East India Company founded in 1664.
2. **Centers:** Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahe, Karaikal.
3. **Key figure:** Dupleix—tried to expand political influence.
4. Defeated by British in Carnatic Wars (1746–63).
5. French territories remained but only as trading posts.

Danes & Others

1. Danish settlements at Tranquebar and Serampore (later sold to British, 1845).
2. Swedish and Austrian companies had minimal presence.

Why Europeans Succeeded in India

1. Superior naval technology and weaponry.
2. Commercial organization through joint-stock companies.
3. Fragmented Indian polity after Mughal decline.
4. Ability to exploit local rivalries and offer military support.





5. Strong financial backing and global trade networks.

Why Europeans Came to India

Economic Motives (Primary Reason)

1. **Spice Trade:** Europe had a huge demand for pepper, cloves, cinnamon, cardamom, nutmeg.
2. **Search for a Sea Route to India:** After the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople (1453), land routes became costlier and restricted. European powers wanted direct access to Indian and Southeast Asian markets.
3. **Quest for Asian Luxury Goods:** High demand in Europe for silk, cotton textiles, dyes, indigo, precious stones, and saltpetre (gunpowder ingredient).

Political Motives

1. **Competition among European Powers:** Portugal, Spain, England, the Netherlands, and France wanted to outcompete one another and dominate global trade. Colonies were seen as symbols of national power.
2. **Weakening of Traditional Asian Powers:** Gradual decline of large empires (e.g., Delhi Sultanate, later Mughals) made India accessible to foreign intervention.
3. **Religious Motive:** Missionary zeal to spread Christianity, especially by the Portuguese.
4. **Scientific & Technological Factors:** Advances in shipbuilding, navigation, cartography, compass, astrolabe.
5. **Profitability of Joint-Stock Companies:** Formation of commercial companies like Portuguese Estado da Índia, Dutch VOC, English East India Company (EIC),

Contributions of European Powers in India

Portuguese

1. **Albuquerque:** Introduced naval supremacy, captured Goa (1510) and established the first lasting European colony.
2. **Vasco da Gama:** Opened the direct sea route to India (1498) initiating Europe-India maritime trade.
3. **St. Francis Xavier:** Promoted Christian missionary activities and education in coastal India.
4. **Almeida:** Implemented the Blue Water Policy strengthening Portuguese naval control.

Dutch

1. **Van Rhee:** Compiled the Hortus Malabaricus, contributing to Indian botanical knowledge.
2. **Dutch VOC officials:** Developed Pulicat as a major textile and spice trade centre.

English

1. **Job Charnock:** Founded Calcutta (1690) and expanded British trade foothold.
2. **Robert Clive :** Established British political power after Plassey (1757).
3. **Warren Hastings :** Introduced judicial and administrative reforms laying the base of modern governance.
4. **Lord Wellesley:** Expanded British rule through Subsidiary Alliance.





French

1. **Dupleix:** Initiated political intervention in India through Carnatic politics.
2. **Lally:** Strengthened French military expansion though eventually defeated.
3. **French traders:** Improved silk and textile trade in Bengal and South India.

Britain emerged as the dominant power in India. Why?

1. **Superior military technology:** advanced guns, artillery, disciplined army.
2. **Naval supremacy:** controlled seas, trade routes, and coastal forts.
3. **Weak Indian political unity:** exploited Mughal decline and regional rivalries.
4. **Effective diplomacy:** used alliances, treaties, and subsidiary alliances.
5. **Economic strength:** capital from trade, joint-stock company, and global markets.
6. **Administrative efficiency:** organized revenue collection and governance.
7. **Defeat of European rivals:** ousted Portuguese, Dutch, and French from India.
8. **Exploitation of local conflicts:** intervened in succession disputes to gain power.

Socio-economic and political condition during 18 th century

Political Conditions

1. Decline of Mughal Empire after Aurangzeb (1707).
2. Rise of regional powers: Marathas, Sikhs, Nizam, Mysore, Awadh, Bengal Nawabs.
3. Frequent wars of succession and internal rebellions.
4. Increasing influence of European trading companies, especially the British.
5. Fragmented authority led to political instability and power vacuum.

Socio-Economic Conditions

1. Agriculture remained subsistence-based, revenue burden heavy on peasants.
2. Decline of traditional industries like textiles due to European imports.
3. Growth of urban trade centers in Bengal, Surat, Madras, Bombay.
4. Caste and social hierarchy continued to dominate rural society.
5. Famines were frequent due to war, poor administration, and climate.
6. Cultural patronage shifted from Mughals to regional courts and nawabs.

Decline of Mughal empire in India

1. Weak successors after Aurangzeb led to political instability.
2. Succession conflicts and court intrigues weakened central authority.
3. Overextension of empire and continuous wars drained treasury.
4. Religious intolerance under Aurangzeb alienated regional powers.
5. Rise of regional states like Marathas, Sikhs, and Rajputs.
6. Decline of Mughal army and military technology lagging behind Europeans.
7. Economic decline due to heavy taxation and loss of trade monopoly.
8. European trading companies gained power and influence.
9. Administrative corruption and ineffective governance.
10. Peasant revolts and agrarian distress weakened state control.



Why rise in regional states?

1. **Decline of Delhi Sultanate:** Weak central authority.
2. **Fragmentation of Mughal Empire:** Provincial governors gained autonomy.
3. Local military chieftains (e.g., Marathas, Rajputs) asserted control.
4. Agrarian revenue systems empowered regional rulers.
5. Trade and commerce growth strengthened local economies.
6. Religious and cultural identity consolidated regional power (e.g., Sikh, Maratha).
7. European influence encouraged alliances and conflicts among states.

Factors responsible for the rise of Maratha:

1. **Decline of the Mughal Empire:** Political vacuum in the Deccan.
2. **Leadership of Chhatrapati Shivaji:** Military genius and administrative reforms.
3. **Guerrilla warfare tactics:** Use of forts and mountainous terrain.
4. **Strong local support:** Peasants and local chieftains rallied behind Marathas.
5. **Efficient revenue system:** Introduction of Chauth and Sardeshmukhi.
6. **Naval power:** Control over coastal forts and trade routes.
7. **Flexible alliances:** Collaboration with regional powers when necessary.
8. **Religious and cultural appeal:** Protection of Hindu traditions against Mughal imposition.

Factors responsible for the fall of the Marathas:

1. **Internal Divisions:** Weak central authority after death of strong leaders like Shivaji and Peshwa Bajirao I.
2. **Succession Conflicts:** Frequent disputes among Peshwas and regional chiefs weakened unity.
3. **Rise of Regional Powers:** Emergence of Scindias, Holkars, Bhonsles creating fragmentation.
4. **Economic Strain:** Continuous wars drained treasury and resources.
5. **Military Weakness:** Inability to modernize army like British East India Company.
6. **British Diplomacy & Warfare:** Exploitation of internal conflicts and victories in Anglo-Maratha Wars (1775–1818).
7. **Lack of Strategic Alliances:** Failure to unite with other Indian powers against the British.

Why did major battles take place at Panipat?

1. **Strategic Location:** Gateway to Delhi and north India from Punjab and northwest.
2. **Flat Terrain:** Suitable for large armies and cavalry movements.
3. **Proximity to Capitals:** Close to Delhi, making it crucial for controlling northern India.
4. **Trade & Communication Routes:** Lies on important north-south and east-west routes.
5. **Open Ground:** Limited natural defenses, favoring pitched battles between armies.

1. **First Battle of Panipat (1526):** Babur defeated Ibrahim Lodi, marking the start of the Mughal Empire.
2. **Second Battle of Panipat (1556):** Akbar's regent Bairam Khan defeated Hemu, consolidating Mughal rule.
3. **Third Battle of Panipat (1761):** Ahmad Shah Abdali defeated Marathas, weakening Maratha power in India.



Expansion and Consolidation of British Power in India

1. **Early Trading Presence:** 1600: East India Company (EIC) established for trade; first factory at Surat (1613).
2. **Political Interference:** Mid-18th century, EIC interfered in local politics after Mughal decline.
3. **Key Battles:** Plassey (1757): EIC gained control over Bengal. Buxar (1764): EIC secured Diwani rights (revenue collection) in Bengal, Bihar, Orissa.
4. **Expansion in South India:** Defeat of Hyder Ali & Tipu Sultan (Anglo-Mysore Wars, 1767–1799). Defeat of Marathas (Anglo-Maratha Wars, 1775–1818).
5. **Consolidation Measures:** Subsidiary Alliance & Doctrine of Lapse under Lord Wellesley & Dalhousie. Annexation of princely states like Awadh (1856).
6. **Revolt and Aftermath:** 1857 Revolt- British crown takes over; EIC abolished. Administrative consolidation under Governor-General / Viceroy, central bureaucracy, and army.
7. **Economic & Administrative Control:** Revenue systems (Permanent/ Ryotwari/ Mahalwari), railways, telegraphs, and law to strengthen British authority.

Major British Policies for Power Consolidation & Expansion

1. **Doctrine of Lapse (1848–1856):** Annexed princely states without a male heir.
2. **Subsidiary Alliance (1798, Wellesley):** Indian rulers forced to accept British troops and control over foreign affairs.
3. **Revenue Policies (Permanent Settlement, Ryotwari, Mahalwari):** Strengthened economic control and state revenue.
4. **Divide and Rule:** Exploited religious, caste, and regional differences to weaken opposition.
5. **Control over Army:** Indian sepoy's under British officers, recruitment policies favoring certain "martial races."
6. **Political Treaties & Protectorates:** Established indirect control over princely states.
7. **Suppression of Rebellions (1857 & after):** Centralized administration and reorganization of army and governance.
8. **Legal and Administrative Reforms:** Standardized laws and bureaucracy to ensure British supremacy.

Features of British Administration in India before 1857

1. **Company Rule:** India was ruled by the East India Company under the Mughal emperor's nominal authority.
2. **Dual System of Governance:** Company collected revenue while local rulers handled administration in some regions (e.g., Bengal under Cornwallis).
3. **Revenue System:** Introduction of Permanent Settlement, Ryotwari, Mahalwari systems in different provinces.
4. **Military Dominance:** Company maintained a sepoy army to enforce control.
5. **Centralized Bureaucracy:** Administration was hierarchical and bureaucratic.
6. **Judicial System:** Separate civil and criminal courts, with British judges for Europeans and local laws for Indians.
7. **Commercial Focus:** Governance was mainly aimed at profit and trade monopoly.
8. **Limited Consultation with Locals:** Minimal Indian participation in administration or policymaking.



9. **Doctrine of Lapse & Subsidiary Alliance:** Policies to annex princely states (introduced later by Dalhousie, 1848–56).
10. **Revenue Collection Priority:** Administration prioritized revenue and resource extraction over welfare.

Peasant, tribal movements

Civil uprising and its characteristics

1. **Mass Participation:** Involves large groups of common people.
2. **Collective Action:** Citizens act together against perceived injustice.
3. **Political or Social Motivation:** Driven by demands for rights, justice, or reform.
4. **Non-Institutional:** Occurs outside formal political channels.
5. **Spontaneous or Organized:** Can be sudden or planned.
6. **Expression of Grievance:** Reflects dissatisfaction with authority or policies.
7. **Potential for Violence:** Can be peaceful or violent depending on context.
8. **Symbolic Acts:** Often includes protests, strikes, marches, or demonstrations.

Major factors responsible for civil uprisings in India:

1. **Economic Exploitation:** Heavy taxes, land revenue, and commercial exploitation by rulers or colonial powers.
2. **Political Oppression:** Denial of local autonomy, arbitrary rule, and annexation of territories.
3. **Social and Religious Grievances:** Interference in traditions, religious practices, or caste systems.
4. **Peasant Distress:** Famine, indebtedness, and forced labor leading to rural unrest.
5. **Tribal Displacement:** Loss of land and forest rights due to expansion of state control.
6. **Military and Local Leadership Issues:** Betrayal or harsh treatment by officials fueling rebellion.
7. **Influence of Ideology/Leaders:** Inspiring leaders mobilizing masses against injustice.

Peasant Revolts in India

Causes

1. Exploitation by zamindars and landlords.
2. High taxes and revenue demands under Mughal/British rule.
3. Forced labor and oppressive policies.
4. Religious and social discrimination in some regions.
5. Economic distress due to famine, crop failure, or market manipulation.

Characteristics

1. Local leadership; often led by peasants or tribal chiefs.
2. Spontaneous and localized in nature.
3. Limited military organization, mostly armed with traditional weapons.
4. Protest against revenue and social oppression, not a political overthrow.
5. Religious and social undertones sometimes present.





Significance

1. Highlighted agrarian distress and social inequalities.
2. Exposed weaknesses in administrative and revenue systems.
3. Laid foundation for later organized resistance movements.
4. Influenced colonial policy changes in some regions.

Limitations

1. **Lack of unity:** Divided by caste, region, or religion (e.g., Santhal Rebellion, 1855–56).
2. **Weak leadership:** Absence of organized leaders (e.g., Paika Rebellion, 1817).
3. **Limited resources/weapons:** Inferior to state armies (e.g., Moplah Rebellion, 1921).
4. **Local/regional scope:** Rarely spread nationwide (e.g., Indigo Revolt, 1859–60).
5. **Short-lived impact:** Often suppressed quickly without policy change (e.g., Bhil Revolts, 18th–19th century).
6. **Lack of political strategy:** Focused on immediate grievances, not long-term change (e.g., Paharia Revolts, 1770s–1800s).

Social reformers' contribution to peasant movements

1. **Jyotiba Phule:** Mobilized farmers and lower castes against feudal exploitation in Maharashtra.
2. **Dr. B.R. Ambedkar:** Advocated for Dalit peasants' rights, challenging landlord oppression.
3. **Swami Sahajanand Saraswati:** Led Kisan Sabha movement in Bihar for tenant farmers' rights.
4. **Raja Ram Mohan Roy:** Promoted awareness against bonded labor and oppressive agrarian practices.
5. **Pandit Deen Dayal Upadhyay:** Inspired cooperative farming ideas and rural self-reliance (later influence on movements).
6. **E.V. Ramasamy (Periyar):** Supported land and labor rights for marginalized agricultural communities in South India.

Tribal movements

Causes of Tribal Movements

1. **Economic exploitation:** Land alienation, forest resource deprivation.
2. **Political domination:** British colonial policies and loss of autonomy.
3. **Cultural suppression:** Missionary activities and forced assimilation.
4. **Social injustice:** Caste oppression and forced labor (begar).
5. **Resistance to modernization:** Opposing new taxes, laws, and infrastructure.

Characteristics

1. Localized and community-based.
2. Often agrarian or forest-related issues.
3. Leadership by tribal chiefs or spiritual leaders.
4. Use of guerrilla tactics and armed rebellion.
5. Strong connection with land and cultural identity.



Significance

1. Preserved tribal identity and culture.
2. Highlighted issues of land rights and exploitation.
3. Contributed to political awareness and social reforms.
4. Inspired later national movements.

Limitations

1. Limited geographical and political scope.
2. Often lacked sustained organization.
3. Suppressed easily by state or colonial power.
4. Sometimes isolated from broader national struggles.

Examples

1. Santhal Rebellion (1855–56): against British land policies.
2. Munda Ulgulan (1899–1900): led by Birsa Munda, against landlords.
3. Bhil Rebellion: in western India against colonial revenue policies.
4. Kol Rebellion (1831–32): in Chotanagpur region.

Civil and Tribal Movements in Maharashtra:

Causes

1. **Exploitation by landlords and moneylenders:** tribal uprisings (e.g., Bhils, Mahadev Koli).
2. **Revenue policies and forest laws:** displacement and unrest.
3. **Caste and social discrimination:** civil reform movements (e.g., Jyotirao Phule, Satyashodhak Samaj).
4. **Economic hardship and poverty:** peasant revolts (e.g., Koli rebellions).

Significance

1. **Social reform:** challenged caste hierarchy.
2. **Tribal identity assertion:** recognition of tribal rights.
3. **Foundation for political awareness :** inspired later nationalist movements.
4. **Policy impact :** forest and land rights reforms.

Characteristics

1. **Local leadership:** led by tribal chiefs or social reformers.
2. **Grassroots mobilization :** involved peasants and marginalized groups.
3. **Non-violent & violent forms :** e.g., Satyashodhak Samaj (non-violent), Bhil uprisings (violent).
4. **Regional nature :** mostly confined to specific areas.

Limitations

1. Limited scope → mostly local, not statewide.
2. Lack of resources and organization → suppressed by colonial authorities.
3. Short-lived impact → reforms often delayed or partial.
4. Internal divisions → caste and tribal splits weakened movements.





Examples

1. **Civil Reform Movements:** Satyashodhak Samaj (Jyotirao Phule), Prarthana Samaj.
2. **Tribal Movements:** Bhil uprisings, Mahadev Koli revolt, Warli tribal protests.

| Tribal Movement | Region | Period | Leader(s) | Example / Note |
|-------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--|
| Santhal Rebellion | Bihar, Jharkhand | 1855–1856 | Sidhu & Kanhu Murmu | Against British & landlords |
| Munda Ulgulan | Chotanagpur (Jharkhand) | 1899–1900 | Birsa Munda | Against British & zamindari system |
| Bastar Rebellion | Chhattisgarh | 1910–1911 | Govind Guru | Against British forest policies |
| Bhil Rebellion | Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan | 1818–1940 (various uprisings) | Various local leaders | Against British & exploitation |
| Oraon Rebellion | Chotanagpur | 1820s–1830s | Dhumku & other local leaders | Against British revenue policies |
| Gond Rebellion | Madhya Pradesh | 19th century | Various local chiefs | Against British & exploitative landlords |

Military Uprisings in India

1. **Vellore Mutiny (1806):** First sepoy revolt against British military regulations.
2. **Barrackpore Mutiny (1824):** Sepoys protested deployment to Burma under the British.
3. **Sipahi Uprising in Cawnpore (1857):** Part of the larger Indian Rebellion of 1857 against the British.
4. **Rani of Jhansi & Maratha Soldiers (1857):** Maratha forces joined 1857 revolt for princely autonomy.
5. **Indian Naval Uprising (1946):** Royal Indian Navy revolt against British officers in Bombay.

Revolt of 1857

Causes of 1857 Revolt

1. **Political:** Annexation of states under Doctrine of Lapse (e.g., Jhansi, Awadh).
2. **Economic:** Heavy taxation, land revenue policies, and destruction of traditional industries.
3. **Military:** Discontent among sepoys due to low pay, lack of promotion, and poor conditions.
4. **Religious/Social:** Fear of Christianization, interference in religious/social customs.
5. **Immediate Cause:** Introduction of greased Enfield cartridges (rumored to use cow/pig fat).
6. **Administrative:** Resentment against British officers and oppressive colonial policies.
7. **Local grievances:** Peasant and zamindar discontent due to revenue exploitation.

Beginning of 1857 Revolt

1. **Spark at Meerut (10 May 1857):** Indian sepoys rebelled over use of greased cartridges in Enfield rifles.



2. **Immediate Trigger:** Rumor of cows' and pigs' fat on cartridges offended both Hindu and Muslim soldiers.
3. **Initial Outbreak:** Mutiny spread quickly to Meerut cantonment, with sepoys killing British officers and marching to Delhi.
4. **Symbolic Centre:** Rebels declared Bahadur Shah II as the emperor.

Spread of the Revolt

1. **Delhi:** Became the main rebel stronghold.
2. **North India:** Spread to Kanpur, Lucknow, Bareilly, Jhansi, and Agra.
3. **Central India:** Led by Rani Lakshmbai (Jhansi) and other local rulers.
4. **Bengal & Punjab:** Largely loyal, but sporadic unrest occurred.
5. **Mughal and Maratha influence:** Used local rulers and peasant support to mobilize rebellion.
6. **Suppression:** Gradual British recapture (1858) with military reinforcements.

Regional Variations & Spread of 1857 Revolt

1. **Delhi & North India:** Center of revolt; sepoys led by Bahadur Shah Zafar; major battles in Delhi, Meerut, Kanpur, Lucknow.
2. **Awadh (Lucknow):** Peasant and aristocratic uprising; leadership of Begums and Taluqdars; prolonged siege of Lucknow.
3. **Bengal & Bihar:** Santhal, Munda tribal revolts; lesser role of sepoys; economic grievances prominent.
4. **Maharashtra & Central India:** Limited sepoy participation; regional rulers like Rani Lakshmbai (Jhansi) led armed resistance.
5. **Rajasthan & Gujarat:** Sporadic rebellions; local chieftains resisted British encroachment.
6. **South India (Madras, Bombay Presidencies):** Minimal impact; revolts confined to localized disturbances.
7. **Punjab:** Mostly loyal to British; sepoys remained neutral due to earlier British annexation of Sikh kingdom.

Limitations of 1857 Revolt

1. **Lacked unity:** No coordination between regions, castes, or classes.
2. **Limited participation:** Mainly soldiers, princes, and zamindars; peasants and lower classes largely uninvolved.
3. **Absence of clear leadership:** No single strong leader to guide the movement.
4. **Regional confinement:** Strong in north-central India, weak in south and east.
5. **No strategic plan:** Sporadic, reactive uprisings rather than organized strategy.
6. **Limited resources:** Poor access to weapons, money, and modern warfare techniques.
7. **Failure to gain foreign support:** No external powers intervened.

1857 Revolt in Maharashtra

1. Revolt in Maharashtra was limited and localized compared to North India.
2. Pune, Satara, and Ahmednagar were key centers of unrest.
3. Raja Pratapsingh of Satara and Raja of Sangli showed varying degrees of resistance.
4. Main causes included discontent among soldiers, high taxes, and British annexation policies.





5. Mahratta soldiers (sepoys) and local peasants participated in some uprisings.
6. British quickly suppressed the rebellion due to strong garrisons.
7. After 1857, British consolidated control in the region and abolished princely powers selectively.

Socio religious reform movements:

1. Reformist Movements (Social Reform)

- **Objective:** Modernize society, remove social evils.
- **Key Features:**
 - Opposed Sati, child marriage, caste discrimination.
 - Promoted education, widow remarriage, women empowerment.
 - Advocated rationalism and Western ideas.
- **Examples:** Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj, Prarthana Samaj, Aligarh Movement.

2. Revivalist Movements (Religious Revival)

- **Objective:** Restore purity of religion, resist foreign influence.
- **Key Features:**
 - Re-emphasized traditional rituals and Vedic/Hindu/Muslim values.
 - Encouraged religious identity and pride.
 - Often had a nationalist undertone.
- **Examples:** Ramakrishna Mission, Prarthana Samaj (also reformist), Wahabi Movement, Deoband Movement.

Social reform movements in India

1. **Caste Discrimination:** Challenge social inequalities and untouchability.
2. **Child Marriage & Sati:** Eradicate regressive customs harming women.
3. **Widow Remarriage:** Promote women's rights and social justice.
4. **Education:** Spread modern and women's education.
5. **Religious Revivalism:** Reform religious practices to remove superstition.
6. **British Influence:** Exposure to Western ideas of liberty, equality, and rationalism.
7. **Economic Changes:** Urbanization and commercialization highlighted social issues.
8. **Nationalism:** Link social reform with strengthening Indian society for self-rule.

Hindu Reform Movements in India

1. **Brahmo Samaj (1828):** Founded by Raja Ram Mohan Roy; opposed idol worship, promoted monotheism and social reforms like abolition of Sati.
2. **Prarthana Samaj (1867):** Founded by M. G. Ranade & D. K. Karve; focused on women's education and social reforms in Maharashtra.
3. **Arya Samaj (1875):** Founded by Swami Dayananda Saraswati; promoted Vedic values, cow protection, education, and opposition to caste discrimination.
4. **Ramakrishna Mission (1897):** Founded by Swami Vivekananda; emphasized spiritual revival, education, and social service.
5. **Theosophical Society (1875 in India 1882):** Promoted by Helena Blavatsky & Annie Besant; encouraged Vedantic revival and Indian nationalism.





6. **Satya Shodhak Samaj (1873):** Founded by Jyotirao Phule; worked for casteless society and education of lower castes.
7. **Self-Respect Movement (1925):** Founded by Periyar E. V. Ramasamy (in South India); challenged caste hierarchy and superstitions.

Muslim reform movements in India:

1. **Faraizi Movement (1818, Bengal) :** Religious revival and social reform; leader: Haji Shariatullah.
2. **Wahhabi Movement (19th c., North India):** Purification of Islam, anti-British; leaders: Sayyid Ahmad Bareilvi.
3. **Ahmadiyya Movement (1889, Qadian):** Religious reform and interfaith dialogue; leader: Mirza Ghulam Ahmad.
4. **Deoband Movement (1866, North India):** Islamic education, preservation of Sharia; leaders: Muhammad Qasim Nanotvi, Rashid Ahmad Gangohi.
5. **Aligarh Movement (1875, Aligarh):** Modern education for Muslims; leader: Sir Syed Ahmed Khan.
6. **Ahl-i-Hadith Movement (19th c.):** Return to Quran and Hadith; leader: Syed Nazeer Husain.
7. **Talim-ul-Islam Movement:** Educational and social reform in Punjab; leaders: Maulana Shibli Nomani.

| Aspect | Deoband Movement | Aligarh Movement |
|-----------------|--|--|
| Founded | 1866 | 1875 |
| Leader | Maulana Muhammad Qasim Nanotawi, Maulana Rashid Ahmad Gangohi | Sir Syed Ahmed Khan |
| Main Focus | Preserve Islamic religious and cultural identity, traditional education | Promote modern Western education among Muslims, social & political uplift |
| Key Institution | Darul Uloom Deoband | Aligarh Muslim University (AMU) |
| Approach | Religious revivalism, madrasa-based education | Modern education, scientific and literary learning |
| Example | Training of scholars and religious leaders to resist colonial cultural influence | Encouraging Muslims to adopt English education and participate in administration |

Sikh Reform Movements Key Features

1. **Tat Khalsa Movement (late 19th century):** Emphasized pure Sikh identity and distinctiveness from Hinduism.
2. **Singh Sabha Movement (1873):** Promoted Gurmukhi, Sikh education, and religious revival.
3. **Akal Takht Reforms:** Focused on restoring Sikh institutions and moral authority.
4. **Religious Purity:** Rejected superstitions, idolatry, and Hindu practices.
5. **Educational and Social Reforms:** Established schools, colleges, and printing presses.
6. **Political Awareness:** Strengthened community unity and participation in colonial politics.
7. **Promotion of Khalsa Identity:** Encouraged Amrit Sanchar (baptism), turban, uncut hair.
8. **Print and Literature Revival:** Disseminated Sikh scriptures, history, and ideology widely.





Issue of women in socio-religious reform movements in India

1. **Sati Abolition:** Reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy worked to eradicate widow immolation.
2. **Child Marriage & Widow Remarriage:** Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar promoted widow remarriage; many opposed child marriage.
3. **Education of Women:** Reformers like Jyotiba Phule, Savitribai Phule, and Pandita Ramabai advocated girls' education.
4. **Purdah and Veiling:** Movements challenged seclusion and restrictions on women's mobility.
5. **Property Rights:** Reformers campaigned for women's inheritance and property rights.
6. **Social Participation:** Women like Sarojini Naidu and Pandita Ramabai encouraged public activism and political engagement.
7. **Religious Reform:** Arya Samaj and Brahmo Samaj promoted equality of women in spiritual and social life.

Women Reformers and Their Contributions

1. **Rukhmabai:** Fought for women's right to refuse child marriage and for legal reforms.
2. **Savitribai Phule:** Pioneer of women's education and social reform against caste discrimination.
3. **Jyotiba Phule's wife, Savitribai:** Actively ran schools for girls and Dalits.
4. **Tarabai Shinde:** Critiqued patriarchy through Stri-Purush Tulana (Women vs Men).
5. **Pandita Ramabai:** Advocated widow education, women's emancipation, and founded Arya Mahila Samaj.
6. **Anandibai Joshi:** First Indian woman doctor, symbol of women's education reform.
7. **Begum Rokeya:** Promoted Muslim women's education and founded schools for girls.
8. **Sarojini Naidu:** Worked for women's rights, education, and participated in nationalist movements.
9. **Kasturba Gandhi:** Supported social reforms, women's participation in freedom struggle.

Women in Socio-Religious Reform Movements in Maharashtra

1. **Jijabai (Mother of Shivaji):** Inspired social and administrative reforms indirectly through her influence on Shivaji.
2. **Tarabai Shinde:** Critic of patriarchy; wrote Stri Purush Tulana (1882), questioning gender inequality.
3. **Pandita Ramabai:** Social reformer; worked for women's education and upliftment of widows.
4. **Moghe and Muktai (examples in Bhakti context):** Promoted women's participation in devotional and social activities.
5. **Rukmini Devi & contemporary women reformers:** Encouraged temple entry and religious equality for women.
6. **Savitri Bai Phule:** Pioneer in women's education and eradication of caste and gender discrimination.

Legislative reforms for women in India:

1. **Hindu Widow Remarriage Act (1856):** Legalized remarriage of Hindu widows.
2. **Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929):** Set minimum marriage age for girls (14) and boys (18).
3. **Hindu Code Bills (1955-56):** Reformed Hindu personal laws on marriage, inheritance, and property.





4. **Maternity Benefit Act (1961):** Provided paid maternity leave for working women.
5. **Equal Remuneration Act (1976):** Ensured equal pay for equal work.
6. **Dowry Prohibition Act (1961):** Made giving or taking dowry illegal.
7. **Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act (2005):** Legal protection against domestic abuse.
8. **Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace Act (2013):** Safeguards against workplace harassment.
9. **Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006):** Strengthened laws to prevent child marriages.

Impact of socio-religious reform movements on the Indian freedom struggle:

1. **Raised social consciousness:** Reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Dayananda Saraswati highlighted social evils and awakened public awareness.
2. **Fostered nationalist ideas:** Reform movements emphasized pride in Indian culture and heritage, laying ideological groundwork for nationalism.
3. **Promoted education:** Western and indigenous education initiatives created a class capable of political leadership.
4. **Encouraged social unity:** Efforts to remove caste and gender discrimination fostered a more inclusive society for collective action.
5. **Stimulated political awakening:** Leaders like Swami Vivekananda inspired self-confidence and self-rule among Indians.
6. **Supported legal reforms:** Movements led to abolition of practices like Sati and child marriage, showing that change was possible through organized action.
7. **Created public platforms:** Associations and societies acted as forums for debate, discussion, and early nationalist mobilization.

Limitations of socio-religious reform movements during the Indian freedom struggle:

1. Mostly limited to upper castes; ignored Dalits and tribal masses.
2. Focused on social and religious issues, not on political independence.
3. Regional in nature; lacked nationwide reach.
4. Dependent on elite leadership, often disconnected from common people.
5. Slow social impact; failed to drastically change traditional customs.
6. Limited mass mobilization compared to political movements.
7. Gender reforms were partial, women's participation remained low.

British policies in India:

Administrative Policies of British Empire (One-liners)

1. **Centralization of power:** Strong Governor-General/ Viceroy authority over provinces.
2. **Permanent Settlement (1793):** Land revenue fixed permanently in Bengal; empowered zamindars.
3. **Ryotwari System:** Direct settlement with cultivators (Madras, Bombay).
4. **Mahalwari System:** Revenue collected from village communities (Punjab, NW Provinces).
5. **Civil Services:** Creation of Indian Civil Service (ICS) to administer bureaucracy.
6. **Judicial Reforms:** Establishment of British-style courts and codified laws.
7. **Police Reforms:** Organized police under government control for internal security.





8. **Railway & Telegraph Policies:** Developed infrastructure for administration and trade.
9. **Educational Policy:** Promotion of English education to create clerical workforce.
10. **Princely States Policy:** Doctrine of Lapse & subsidiary alliances to control states.
11. **Revenue Maximization:** Policies aimed at maximum extraction of land and trade revenue.
12. **Divide and Rule:** Administrative divisions to exploit religious and social differences.

Development of the press in British India:

1. 1780: First newspaper: Hicky's Bengal Gazette (Calcutta), initiated private press in India.
2. 1818–1857: English-language newspapers flourished; early political criticism emerged.
3. 1857 : Revolt led to stricter censorship; Indian press became a tool of political awakening.
4. 1861: Indian Press Act introduced; allowed government to control seditious publications.
5. Late 19th C : Vernacular press expanded, spreading nationalist ideas (e.g., Amrita Bazar Patrika, Kesari).
6. 1900s: Press became central to freedom struggle; served as medium for public opinion and political mobilization.
7. 1910s–1940s: Gandhian era: Newspapers like Young India, Harijan influenced masses; nationalist press grew despite censorship.

Nationalism and the Indian Press

1. The Indian press became a tool for spreading nationalist ideas against British colonial rule.
2. Newspapers like 'The Hindu' (1878), 'Amrit Bazar Patrika' (1868), 'Kesari' (1881) played key roles.
3. Press highlighted social reforms, exploitation by British, and freedom struggles.
4. Leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Bipin Chandra Pal used press to mobilize public opinion.
5. Vernacular press helped awaken mass nationalism among common people.
6. British imposed Press Acts (e.g., 1878, 1910) to control anti-colonial publications.
7. Newspapers helped in forming political consciousness and unity during movements like Swadeshi and Non-Cooperation.

Role of Indian Press in the Freedom Struggle:

1. **Awareness & Nationalism:** Spread nationalist ideas and created political consciousness among masses.
2. **Critique of British Policies:** Exposed oppressive colonial policies and economic exploitation.
3. **Mobilization of Masses:** Encouraged participation in movements like Non-Cooperation, Civil Disobedience, and Quit India.
4. **Platform for Leaders:** Newspapers became a voice for leaders like Tilak, Gandhi, and Nehru.
5. **Unity Across Regions:** Helped unite diverse linguistic, religious, and regional groups against colonial rule.
6. **International Support:** Highlighted Indian plight abroad, gaining global sympathy.
7. **Documentation of Struggle:** Recorded events, protests, and sacrifices, preserving history of the movement.



Evolution of Civil Services in India during the colonial period:

1. 1773 – Regulating Act & Pitt’s India Act: First formal administrative control by British Parliament; beginnings of civil service.
2. 1774 – Warren Hastings’ Reforms: Introduced dual system of administration (political & revenue).
3. 1833 – Charter Act: Civil Services became All-India services; opened to all British subjects.
4. 1853 – Competitive Exam Introduced: Merit-based recruitment; exams held in London.
5. 1858 – Post-1857 Reforms: Transfer of power from East India Company to Crown; ICS strengthened.
6. 1861 – Indian Civil Service Act: Formalized ICS rules and structure.
7. 1877–1905 – Gradual Indian Entry: Limited Indian recruitment; still dominated by British officers.
8. 1919 – Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms: Introduction of diarchy; some Indians in provincial services.
9. 1922 – Government of India Act: ICS expanded, more Indian officers allowed; provincial services strengthened.
10. 1935 – Government of India Act: Provincial autonomy; further Indianization of services.

Development of judiciary during the colonial period:

1. **Regulating Act 1773:** Established Supreme Court at Calcutta; introduced British judicial system.
2. **Pitts India Act 1784:** Gave dual control; judiciary under Governor-General but accountable to Crown.
3. **Charter Acts (1793, 1813, 1833):** Expanded civil and criminal jurisdiction; extended courts to Madras and Bombay.
4. **Indian High Courts Act 1861:** High Courts replaced Supreme Courts and Sadar Adalats; unified civil/criminal justice.
5. **Codification of Laws:** Introduction of Indian Penal Code (1860), Criminal Procedure Code (1861), Civil Procedure Code (1859).
6. **Separate personal law systems:** Muslim and Hindu laws recognized alongside British law.
7. **Local/self-government courts:** District and subordinate courts for administration of justice.

Development of local bodies in the colonial period:

1. **Madras 1688:** First local self-government with limited powers for revenue collection.
2. **Calcutta 1727:** Creation of municipal corporation for basic civic administration.
3. **Bombay 1762:** Formation of municipal governance for trade and sanitation.
4. **Lord Ripon’s Resolution 1882:** Introduced local self-government in villages and towns.
5. **1892–1909 Acts:** Strengthened elected representation in municipalities and district boards.
6. **Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms 1919:** Expanded self-governing institutions at local level.
7. **Provincial improvements (1920s–1930s):** Greater devolution of powers to rural and urban bodies.

Economic policies in the colonial period:

1. **Drain of Wealth:** Transfer of India’s resources and revenue to Britain.
2. **Land Revenue Systems:** Introduction of Permanent Settlement, Ryotwari, Mahalwari to maximize revenue.



3. **Deindustrialization:** Decline of traditional handicrafts and handloom industries.
4. **Monopoly Trade:** British controlled export-import of goods, especially cotton, indigo, and opium.
5. **Commercialization of Agriculture:** Farmers forced to grow cash crops for export.
6. **Taxation Burden:** Heavy land taxes led to peasant indebtedness and famines.
7. **Infrastructure for Exploitation:** Railways, ports, and canals built to serve British trade interests.
8. **Forest and Resource Policies:** Exploitation of timber, minerals, and other resources for colonial profit.
9. **Limited Industrialization:** Encouragement of industries benefiting Britain; Indian entrepreneurship discouraged.
10. **Currency and Banking Policies:** Introduction of British currency and banking system to facilitate trade and control finances.

Economic Drain Theory

Concept: India's wealth was systematically transferred to Britain during colonial rule, causing poverty and underdevelopment.

- **Proponents:**
 - **Dadabhai Naoroji:** First to quantify the "Drain of Wealth" and highlight Britain's exploitation.
 - **R.C. Dutt:** Emphasized deindustrialization and decline of Indian agriculture due to British policies.
 - **W. Hunter:** Supported the idea of fiscal drain from India to Britain in late 19th century.

Impact of the Drain of Wealth during colonial India:

1. Decline of Indian industries due to cheap British imports.
2. Stagnation of agriculture as revenue was diverted to Britain.
3. Poverty and unemployment increased among artisans and peasants.
4. Famine vulnerability rose due to reduced local investment.
5. Depletion of capital, hindering India's economic modernization.
6. Widening regional inequalities as some areas benefited British trade more.
7. Weakening of Indian state finances, reducing public welfare.

Revenue Policies under British Rule

1. **Permanent Settlement (1793):** Fixed land revenue, created zamindars as intermediaries.
2. **Ryotwari System:** Revenue collected directly from cultivators; prevalent in Madras & Bombay.
3. **Mahalwari System:** Revenue assessed on villages (mahal), shared by cultivators and landlords.
4. **High Revenue Demand:** Led to peasants' indebtedness and land alienation.

Indian Agriculture under British Rule

1. Shift to cash crops like indigo, cotton, tea, opium.
2. Decline of subsistence farming → frequent famines.
3. Introduction of modern irrigation in limited areas.
4. Exploitation of peasantry through high taxes and landlord intermediaries.



Impact of British Rule on Agriculture

1. Commercialization of agriculture.
2. Rural indebtedness and poverty increased.
3. Traditional cropping patterns disrupted.
4. Infrastructure like railways facilitated export-oriented farming.

Commercialization of Agriculture during British Rule:

1. **Cash Crops over Food Crops:** Farmers encouraged to grow cotton, indigo, jute, tea instead of food grains.
2. **Revenue Policies:** Land revenue systems (Zamindari, Ryotwari, Mahalwari) forced peasants to sell crops for money.
3. **Introduction of Market Economy:** Agriculture linked to global markets rather than local consumption.
4. **Railways & Transport:** Facilitated movement of crops to ports for export.
5. **Decline of Subsistence Farming:** Traditional self-sufficient farming replaced by export-oriented cultivation.
6. **Exploitation & Indebtedness:** Farmers borrowed from moneylenders to pay taxes, increasing vulnerability.
7. **Regional Crop Specialization:** Certain areas became known for specific crops (Bengal: indigo, Punjab: wheat).
8. **Famine Vulnerability:** Overdependence on cash crops reduced food security.

Effects of commercialization of agriculture during British rule:

1. Farmers shifted from food crops to cash crops like indigo, cotton, and jute.
2. Increased rural indebtedness due to high investment and loans.
3. Frequent famine and food scarcity as subsistence farming declined.
4. Expansion of land revenue and exploitation by landlords under the zamindari system.
5. Growth of export-oriented agriculture, integrating India into the global market.
6. Soil degradation and ecological imbalance due to mono-cropping.
7. Rise of agrarian unrest and peasant revolts in some regions.
8. Dependence on global market prices, making farmers vulnerable to fluctuations.

Causes for the decline of artisan industry during British rule:

1. **Colonial Policies:** British favored import of machine-made goods over Indian handicrafts.
2. **High Taxes:** Heavy taxation on Indian artisans reduced profitability.
3. **Competition from Manchester Goods:** Cheaper industrial products from Britain undercut local crafts.
4. **Deindustrialization:** Destruction of traditional production networks and markets.
5. **Loss of Royal Patronage:** Decline of Indian kingdoms reduced demand for luxury crafts.
6. **Raw Material Exploitation:** British control limited access to essential materials for artisans.
7. **Railways and Trade Policies:** Facilitated export of British goods while marginalizing local artisans.



Deindustrialization and Ruralisation during British Rule:

Deindustrialization

1. Traditional handicraft and textile industries declined due to British imports of machine-made goods.
2. Indian artisans lost markets, leading to widespread unemployment in towns.
3. Colonial policies imposed high tariffs on Indian goods, favoring British products.
4. Shift from manufacturing to raw material export for British industries.

Ruralisation

1. Displaced artisans and workers returned to agriculture, increasing rural population.
2. Emphasis on cash crops (indigo, cotton, opium) led to agrarian commercialization.
3. Villages became the main economic unit, reducing urban industrial centers.
4. Poverty and land dependence increased due to over-reliance on agriculture.

Factors responsible for famines in colonial India (mid-19th century):

1. **Colonial economic policies:** heavy taxation and cash crop promotion.
2. **Land revenue system:** zamindari and ryotwari exploited peasants.
3. **Commercialization of agriculture:** focus on exports, neglecting food crops.
4. **Railways and trade mismanagement:** delayed relief, facilitated export of grain.
5. **Monsoon failure:** droughts leading to crop failure.
6. **Lack of irrigation and storage infrastructure:** low resilience to crop failures.
7. **Inadequate famine relief:** inefficient administration and delayed response.
8. **Population pressure:** increased demand for limited food resources.

Development of modern communication and technology during the colonial period

| Area | Development / Technology | Purpose / Significance |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| Railways | Introduced from 1853 | Connected ports, raw material centers, facilitated trade and troop movement |
| Telegraph | 1850s onwards | Enabled fast communication for administration and military |
| Roads & Bridges | Modern roads, iron bridges | Improved connectivity and transportation of goods and troops |
| Ports & Shipping | Modern ports in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras | Facilitated export-import, global trade integration |
| Postal System | Standardized postal network | Faster correspondence across India |
| Irrigation Technology | Canals, dams, water management systems | Modernized agriculture and supported cash crop cultivation |
| Education & Science | Technical schools, scientific institutions | Introduced modern scientific and engineering knowledge |
| Industrial Technology | Steam engines, mechanized mills, factories | Boosted industrial production and mechanization |

Social policies

Development of Education during Colonial Period:

1. **Introduction of Western Education:** Promoted by Macauley's Minute (1835).
2. **Anglicist-Educational Debate:** Focus on English over vernacular languages.
3. **Missionary Schools:** Spread Christian education and literacy.
4. **Wood's Despatch (1854):** Recommended systematic education from primary to university level.
5. **Universities Established:** Calcutta, Bombay, Madras (1857).
6. **Expansion of Primary Schools:** Limited and mostly urban.
7. **Female Education:** Early efforts by reformers and missionaries; slow growth.
8. **Technical & Professional Education:** Establishment of engineering and medical colleges.
9. **Vernacular Education:** Promoted at lower levels; medium of instruction remained mostly English at higher levels.
10. **Education for Elite Classes:** Focused on creating clerks and administrators for colonial administration.

Impact of British education in colonial India:

1. Introduced Western education and English language as medium of instruction.
2. Created a class of English-educated Indians for administrative jobs.
3. Spread modern scientific, technical, and rational knowledge.
4. Undermined traditional indigenous education systems (pathshalas, madrasas)
5. Encouraged social reform and political awareness among the educated elite.
6. Promoted westernized worldview and individualism.
7. Facilitated the rise of Indian nationalist leaders and freedom movement.
8. Led to urban-centric literacy and educational inequality.

Women education during the colonial period:

1. **Early 19th century:** Social reformers promoted girls' education (Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar).
2. Missionary schools introduced Western-style education for girls.
3. **Limited access:** Mostly urban, upper-caste girls benefited.
4. **Curriculum:** Reading, writing, domestic skills; later included science and liberal arts.
5. **Government support:** 1850s onwards, some grants for girls' schools.
6. Social reform movements (Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj) emphasized women's literacy and empowerment.
7. **Overall impact:** Gradual rise in literacy, challenged orthodox norms, laid foundation for modern women's education.

| Governor/Viceroy | Period | Key Social Reforms / Measures |
|-----------------------|-----------|--|
| Lord William Bentinck | 1828–1835 | Abolished Sati (1829); suppressed Thuggee; encouraged western education |
| Lord Dalhousie | 1848–1856 | Promoted railways, telegraphs; modernized administration; introduced Western-style education |





| | | |
|-----------------|-----------|---|
| Lord Canning | 1856–1862 | Reformed judicial and police systems; education promotion; managed 1857 Revolt aftermath |
| Lord Ripon | 1880–1884 | Introduced Local Self-Government; liberalized press laws; promoted educational expansion |
| Lord Curzon | 1899–1905 | Reorganized education and archaeology; Partition of Bengal (1905); strengthened administrative efficiency |
| Lord Hardinge | 1910–1916 | Moved capital to Delhi; promoted educational and social reforms; supported vernacular languages |
| Lord Chelmsford | 1916–1921 | Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms (1919); encouraged self-governing institutions; social legislation support |
| Lord Irwin | 1926–1931 | Promoted educational reforms, supported prohibition and women welfare measures |
| Lord Wavell | 1943–1947 | Encouraged communal harmony; administrative reforms for transfer of power |

Emergence of Indian nationalism:

Rise of Indian Nationalism Key Factors

1. **Economic Exploitation:** Drain of wealth and oppressive British economic policies.
2. **Social and Religious Reform Movements:** Awareness through reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Swami Vivekananda.
3. **Western Education:** English education created political awareness and modern outlook.
4. **Influence of Western Ideas:** Liberalism, democracy, and nationalism inspired Indians.
5. **British Administrative Policies:** Racism, racial discrimination, and alien laws fueled resentment.
6. **Formation of Political Associations:** Indian National Congress (1885) gave a political platform.
7. **Economic Distress:** Famines, land revenue burden, and rural poverty increased discontent.
8. **Press and Literature:** Vernacular press and nationalist writings spread awareness.
9. **Partition of Bengal (1905):** Sparked mass protest and Swadeshi movement.
10. **Impact of Revolt of 1857:** Laid the foundation for anti-colonial sentiment.

foundation of the Indian National Congress (INC):

1. Founded in 1885 by A.O. Hume, a retired British civil servant.
2. Formed to create a platform for political dialogue between Indians and the British.
3. Moderate in approach, seeking constitutional reforms rather than full independence initially.
4. First session held in Bombay, presided over by W.C. Banerjee.
5. Focused on petitions, public opinion, and dialogue to influence colonial policy.

Safety Valve Theory

1. The Safety Valve Theory suggests that the British created or allowed the Indian National Congress as a moderate political platform to safely channel Indian political aspirations without threatening British rule.
2. It acted as a “safety valve” to release pressure, grievances, and frustrations among educated Indians.



Origin and Context

1. Late 19th century: British India faced growing discontent among English-educated middle class (professionals, lawyers, teachers).
2. There were revolts and protests (e.g., 1857 Revolt), which made the British cautious about political agitation.
3. Moderate leaders wanted reforms through petitioning, dialogue, and constitutional means, not revolt.

Key Proponents of the Theory

1. Proposed by Bipin Chandra Pal (historian interpretation) and supported by later historians.
2. Seen as a strategic move by the British to prevent radical nationalism from exploding.

Mechanism

1. INC provided a legal, controlled forum for debate.
2. Allowed petitioning, meetings, resolutions.
3. Gave the British insight into Indian political demands, helping them manage unrest.

Aim and objective of INC

| Period | Aim / Objective |
|--|--|
| 1885–1905 (Moderate Phase) | Seek political reforms through dialogue and petitions; promote loyalty to British rule while protecting Indian interests. |
| 1905–1916 (Extremist Phase / Early Nationalism) | Demand self-rule (Swaraj), political rights, and opposition to partition of Bengal; adopt agitation and mass mobilization. |
| 1916–1920 (Post-Lokmanya Tilak / Home Rule Movement) | Achieve Home Rule, constitutional reforms, and strengthen national unity. |
| 1920–1947 (Mass Phase / Gandhian Era) | Attain complete independence (Purna Swaraj); adopt non-violent resistance, civil disobedience, and mass movements. |

Weakness of the Indian National Congress (INC) in its early phase (1885–1905):

1. **Limited Mass Base:** Represented mainly the English-educated elite, ignoring peasants and workers.
2. **Moderate Leadership:** Early leaders (Gokhale, Ranade) relied on petitions and diplomacy rather than mass agitation.
3. **Lack of Clear Programme:** Focused on reforms, not self-rule or independence initially.
4. **Dependence on British Goodwill:** Hoped for concessions through persuasion rather than direct challenge.
5. **Regional and Social Narrowness:** Overrepresentation of urban elites, neglecting rural and marginalized communities.
6. **Factionalism:** Early internal differences between moderates and extremists weakened cohesion.
7. **Financial Constraints:** Relied on donations from elites; no mass funding network.





Moderate Phase (1885–1905) of Indian National Congress:

Approach of Moderates

1. Believed in constitutional methods and loyal petitioning to British for reforms.
2. Focused on moral persuasion, dialogue, and public opinion to achieve political goals.
3. Advocated for economic reforms, administrative efficiency, and Indian representation in governance.
4. Promoted moderation, patience, and gradual change over confrontation.

Limitations of Moderates

1. Relied heavily on British goodwill, often ignored mass mobilization.
2. Progress was slow and incremental, with limited impact on colonial policies.
3. Failure to address radical demands like self-rule frustrated many Indians.
4. Overemphasis on petitions and debates lacked practical pressure on British.
5. Could not prevent partition of Bengal (1905), exposing their weak political leverage.

Methods of the Moderate Phase

1. **Petitions and Memorials:** Presented to British authorities seeking reforms.
2. **Prayers and Appeals:** Peaceful appeals for administrative and legislative changes.
3. **Public Meetings and Delegations:** Organized to express opinions and influence policy.
4. **Newspapers and Journals:** Used to educate public opinion and create awareness.
5. **Legislative Council Participation:** Engaged in councils to demand reforms within the system.
6. **Economic Pressure:** Advocated for boycott of foreign goods and promotion of swadeshi (limited).
7. **Moral Persuasion:** Relied on reason and justice rather than agitation or mass protest.

Indian national movement Phase-I(1905-1917)

Partition of Bengal (1905)

1. Curzon's move: Divided Bengal into Eastern Bengal (Muslim-majority) and Western Bengal (Hindu-majority) to weaken nationalist movement.
2. Reaction: Sparked Swadeshi Movement, boycotts, and mass protests; angered both Hindus and Muslims politically.

Other Reactionary Policies of Curzon

- **Indian Universities Act (1904):** Tightened government control over universities.
- **Press Act (1908):** Curb on nationalist newspapers and freedom of expression.
- **Land and Revenue Policies:** Strict revenue settlements and Famine Codes; often seen as harsh.
- **Tibet and Frontier Policy:** Aggressive foreign policy in Tibet (Younghusband expedition) and Afghanistan, asserting British strategic control.

Bengal Partition:

Background

- Bengal was the largest and richest province of India under British rule, with a population of ~78 million (1905).





- Rising nationalist movements, political consciousness, and anti-colonial sentiments worried the British.

Government Motive

1. **Administrative convenience:** Claimed Bengal was too large to govern efficiently.
2. **Divide and rule:** To weaken nationalist unity by splitting Hindus (West Bengal) and Muslims (East Bengal).
3. **Economic exploitation:** Easier control over resources and revenues after partition.
4. **Political control:** Prevent rise of nationalist leadership in Bengal and beyond.

Nationalist response to the Bengal Partition (1905):

- **Boycott Movement:** Nationalists launched Swadeshi and boycott campaigns against British goods.
- **Protests & Demonstrations:** Mass rallies, meetings, and processions were organized across Bengal.
- **Vocal Leaders:** Leaders like Surendranath Banerjee, Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Aurobindo Ghosh, Bipin Chandra Pal opposed the partition.
- **Use of Press:** Newspapers and journals spread nationalist sentiment and criticized the British.
- **Cultural Resistance:** Promotion of Swadeshi schools, local industries, and indigenous goods.
- **Political Mobilization:** Rise of provincial political associations and nationalist leagues.
- **Violent Extremism:** Some radical nationalists resorted to assassinations and revolutionary activities.
- **Mass Support:** The movement united Hindus and Muslims initially against colonial policy.
- **Reversal:** Due to widespread protests, the partition was annulled in 1911, marking a major nationalist victory.

Swadesh movement:

Bengal Partitions

1. **1905 Partition of Bengal:** Lord Curzon divided Bengal into Eastern Bengal & Assam (Muslim majority) and Western Bengal (Hindu majority) to improve administrative efficiency, but it fomented communal tension.
2. **Reaction to 1905 Partition:** Triggered Swadeshi Movement, boycott of British goods, and rise of nationalist sentiment; partition was reversed in 1911.
3. **1947 Partition of Bengal:** Occurred during India's independence, dividing Bengal into West Bengal (India, Hindu majority) and East Pakistan (now Bangladesh, Muslim majority) based on religion, causing mass migration and communal violence.
4. **Significance:** Both partitions highlighted colonial divide-and-rule policy, communal tensions, and impact on socio-political identity in Bengal.

Swadeshi Leadership:

1. **Bal Gangadhar Tilak:** Advocated self-reliance and promoted Swadeshi goods through boycott of British products.
2. **Lala Lajpat Rai:** emphasized national education and indigenous industries for economic independence.





3. **Bipin Chandra Pal:** Promoted Swadeshi movement and radical nationalism to challenge British rule.
4. **Aurobindo Ghosh:** Supported Swadeshi enterprise as a means of spiritual and political awakening.
5. **Mahatma Gandhi:** Championed Swadeshi through promotion of khadi and cottage industries for self-sufficiency.
6. **Gopal Krishna Gokhale:** Encouraged moderate Swadeshi reforms and industrial development within ethical limits.
7. **V. O. Chidambaram Pillai:** Initiated Swadeshi shipping service to compete with British monopolies.

Impacts of the Swadeshi Movement:

1. **Economic Impact:** Boosted Indian industries by promoting indigenous goods and boycotting British products.
2. **Political Awakening:** Strengthened national consciousness and mass participation in the freedom struggle.
3. **Industrial Growth:** Encouraged establishment of local enterprises, mills, and handicrafts.
4. **Educational Reform:** Stimulated the creation of nationalist schools and institutions.
5. **Social Unity:** Fostered unity across communities against colonial economic exploitation.
6. **Cultural Revival:** Revived pride in Indian heritage, crafts, and traditional practices.
7. **Women's Participation:** Increased involvement of women in political and social activities.
8. **Urban Mobilization:** Turned cities into hubs for protests, meetings, and economic boycotts.
9. **Boycott Culture:** Popularized the concept of selective consumption as a political tool.
10. **Long-term Nationalism:** Laid groundwork for later mass movements under leaders like Gandhi.

Reasons for the decline of the Swadeshi Movement:

1. **Repressive British Policies:** Harsh laws and crackdown weakened mass participation.
2. **Limited Leadership Cohesion:** Divisions among moderate and extremist leaders reduced effectiveness.
3. **Economic Constraints:** Boycott of foreign goods strained Indian industries initially.
4. **Lack of Mass Support:** Rural population largely remained indifferent.
5. **Rise of Revolutionary Activities:** Shift from constructive work to violent methods diverted focus.
6. **Global Economic Factors:** Import of cheaper foreign goods continued due to industrial limitations.
7. **Short-lived Local Impact:** Urban-centered movement couldn't sustain nationwide momentum.

Criticism of the Swadeshi Movement:

1. Favored urban elites over rural masses, limiting mass participation.
2. Focused on boycotting foreign goods rather than addressing social reforms.
3. Led to economic disruption and loss of livelihood for some artisans dependent on imports.
4. Often promoted Hindu-Muslim divide, reducing communal unity.
5. Lacked practical industrial planning, making self-reliance difficult.





6. Limited long-term impact on India's economy, as British goods remained dominant.
7. Overemphasis on symbolic nationalism rather than structural political change.

Muslim league:

1. **Year of Foundation:** 1906
2. Place: Dacca (now Dhaka, Bangladesh)
3. **Founding Leaders:** Aga Khan, Nawab Salimullah, and others
4. **Purpose:** To represent Muslim interests in British India
5. **Initial Aim:** Safeguard political rights and interests of Muslims
6. **Key Event Leading to Formation:** Response to Congress dominance in Indian politics

Participation of Muslim league:

1. **Early Leadership:** Led initially by Aga Khan III, focused on safeguarding Muslim rights.
2. **Muhammad Ali Jinnah:** Emerged as the key leader in 1913, later became the principal architect of Pakistan.
3. **Political Participation:** Initially cooperated with Congress in joint councils but later demanded separate electorates for Muslims.
4. **Lahore Resolution 1940:** Under Jinnah's leadership, formally demanded a separate nation for Muslims (Pakistan).
5. **Mass Mobilization:** Organized Muslim identity politics, highlighting communal interests in pre-independence India.

Surat split:

1. The Surat Split (1907) was the division of the Indian National Congress into Moderates and Extremists at the Surat session.
2. Ideological differences over methods—Moderates preferred gradual reforms, Extremists advocated direct action and boycott.
3. Leadership conflict between Gopal Krishna Gokhale (Moderates) and Bal Gangadhar Tilak (Extremists).
4. Disagreement on Congress presidency—Tilak and Rash Behari Ghosh supporters clashed.
5. Different approaches to British rule—Extremists wanted Swaraj, Moderates sought constitutional reforms.
6. Regional and linguistic tensions—Marathi vs. Bengali leadership differences amplified the rift.

Impact

1. **Immediate Impact:** Weakening of the Congress as a united nationalist force.
2. **Political Impact:** Delayed mass mobilization against British; created ideological rift between constitutionalism and radical activism.
3. **Long-term Impact:** Extremists like Tilak inspired future militant movements; Moderates continued advocacy for gradual reforms.
4. **Organizational Impact:** Highlighted the need for unity; lessons learned influenced future leadership strategies under Gandhi.





Rise of Revolutionary/Militant Nationalism in India:

1. **Discontent with Moderate Methods:** Frustration over the slow progress of constitutional reforms under the Indian National Congress.
2. **Partition of Bengal (1905):** Sparked widespread anger and radicalized youth against British policies.
3. **Repressive British Policies:** Acts like the Vernacular Press Act and harsh police measures fueled anti-colonial sentiment.
4. **Influence of Extremist Leaders :** Leaders like Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Bipin Chandra Pal inspired assertive action.
5. **Swadeshi Movement:** Boycotts and promotion of indigenous goods encouraged self-reliance and assertiveness.
6. **Global Revolutionary Movements:** Success of revolutions abroad (like in Russia and Ireland) inspired Indian youth.
7. **Economic Exploitation:** Poverty, famines, and drain of wealth under colonial rule created resentment.
8. **Educational Awareness:** Exposure to Western ideas of liberty, equality, and democracy motivated radical action.
9. **Youth Radicalization:** Formation of secret societies and student groups advocating armed resistance.
10. **Rise of Nationalist Press :** Newspapers and journals spread revolutionary ideas and mobilized public opinion.

Impact of militant and revolutionary nationalism in India during the freedom struggle:

1. Instilled a spirit of fearless patriotism, inspiring youth to embrace sacrifice for national freedom.
2. Challenged the limits of moderate politics, pushing Congress to adopt more assertive nationalist strategies.
3. Created psychological pressure on the British, forcing them to tighten security and reconsider reforms.
4. Popularised the idea of complete independence (Purna Swaraj) much before it became mainstream.
5. Strengthened underground networks, fostering secret societies that kept the freedom struggle alive during repression.
6. Boosted mass political awakening, especially among students and the educated middle class.
7. Globalised India's freedom cause, with revolutionaries seeking international support and training.
8. Exposed the brutality of colonial rule, as British reprisals highlighted the oppressive nature of imperialism.
9. Inspired cultural nationalism, reflected in literature, songs, and nationalist symbols.
10. Laid the foundation for later radical movements, influencing the ideology of Bhagat Singh, HSRA, and other revolutionaries.

Morley-Minto Reforms (1909):

1. Introduced by Secretary of State John Morley and Viceroy Lord Minto in 1909.
2. Enacted as the Indian Councils Act, 1909.
3. Granted limited expansion of legislative councils at the Centre and Provinces.





4. Introduced separate electorates for Muslims, institutionalising communal politics.
5. Allowed non-official members to ask supplementary questions in councils.
6. Permitted Indians to be appointed to the Viceroy's Executive Council (first: S.P. Sinha).
7. Marked the beginning of constitutional reforms but fell short of nationalist demands.
8. Criticised by Congress for being too conservative and divisive.

Positive Features

1. Introduced limited elections to legislative councils, expanding Indian political participation.
2. Increased the number of Indian members in Imperial and Provincial Councils.
3. Allowed Indians to hold positions in the Executive Council, including appointment of Satyendra Prasad Sinha as the first Indian Law Member.
4. Encouraged political dialogue between educated Indians and the British government.
5. Laid early groundwork for representative institutions in colonial India.

Negative Features

1. Introduced separate electorates for Muslims, sowing seeds of communal politics
2. Retained British control over the central government with no real transfer of power.
3. Limited franchise kept most Indians out of the electoral process.
4. Councils had only advisory powers, with no authority over major administrative or financial matters.
5. Created divisions among nationalist groups, weakening the united demand for self-rule.

First World War

1. Started in 1914 between Allied and Central Powers, driven by militarism, imperial rivalries and nationalism.
2. India participated as part of the British Empire, sending over a million soldiers and huge economic resources.
3. War caused severe economic strain, including high taxes, inflation, and food shortages in India.
4. British introduced draconian laws like the Defence of India Act (1915) restricting civil liberties.
5. War exposed racial discrimination in the army, fuelling resentment among Indian soldiers.

Impact of the War on India

1. Economic hardships and rising prices intensified public anger against colonial rule.
2. Return of battle-hardened soldiers strengthened anti-colonial sentiments.
3. Rise of revolutionary nationalism, aided by Ghadar Party activities during the war.
4. Home Rule movement gained momentum, demanding self-government inspired by global democratic trends.
5. Rowlatt Act (1919) emerged from war-time repression, provoking nationwide unrest.
6. Amritsar (Jallianwala Bagh) massacre reflected colonial brutality in the post-war period.
7. War weakened Britain economically, making the empire more vulnerable to nationalist pressure.
8. Global spread of self-determination ideas (Wilson's 14 Points) energised Indian nationalists.





Response During the Freedom Struggle

1. Gandhi launched Champaran, Kheda and Ahmedabad movements, experimenting with satyagraha during the war.
2. Post-war disillusionment triggered the Non-Cooperation Movement (1920).
3. Indian leaders opposed repressive laws, organising nation-wide hartals against the Rowlatt Act.
4. Ghadar revolutionaries attempted uprisings, though suppressed.
5. Moderates and Extremists reunited (Lucknow Pact, 1916) due to shared resentment after the war.
6. Congress–League cooperation strengthened, demanding constitutional reforms.
7. Rise of peasant, labour and tribal protests, influenced by war-time hardships.
8. India's massive contribution to the war strengthened the argument for Swaraj.

Ghadar Party:

1. Founded in 1913 in San Francisco by Indian immigrants, mainly Punjabi Sikhs.
2. Aim: To overthrow British rule in India through an armed revolution.
3. Key leaders: Lala Har Dayal, Baba Sohan Singh Bhakna, Kartar Singh Sarabha.
4. Published the newspaper "Ghadar" to inspire anti-colonial sentiment among overseas Indians.
5. Strong support base among Indian labourers in the USA, Canada, and East Asia.
6. Planned the 1915 armed uprising in India, though it largely failed due to leaks and British repression.
7. Significant contribution to globalizing India's freedom struggle by mobilizing the diaspora.
8. Its legacy lies in inspiring revolutionary nationalism and strengthening anti-imperialist movements.

Home Rule Movement:

1. **Initiation:** Started in 1916 by Bal Gangadhar Tilak (Maharashtra) and Annie Besant (Madras).
2. **Objective:** To achieve self-government (Home Rule) for India within the British Empire.
3. **Methods:** Used political meetings, newspapers, public speeches, and associations to mobilize people.
4. **Spread:** Gained support across Maharashtra, Madras, Bengal, Punjab, and other provinces.
5. **Significance:** Laid the foundation for mass nationalist movement and prepared ground for Gandhi's non-cooperation movement.

Lucknow Pact (1916) and its significance:

1. **Event:** Agreement between the Indian National Congress and the All-India Muslim League.
2. **Date & Place:** 1916, Lucknow.
3. **Purpose:** To present a united front for constitutional reforms and self-government.

Significance

4. First major Hindu-Muslim political unity during the freedom struggle.
5. Strengthened Indian demand for constitutional reforms under British rule.
6. Laid foundation for future negotiations and nationalist movement cohesion.



Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms:

1. Introduced by the British in 1919 to increase Indian participation in governance.
2. Formally called the Government of India Act 1919.
3. Introduced diarchy in provincial governments (division of subjects into “transferred” and “reserved”).
4. Expanded the legislative councils at central and provincial levels.
5. Allowed limited Indian representation in central and provincial legislatures.
6. Increased franchise (right to vote) but was still restricted to a small section of society.
7. Aimed to gradually prepare India for self-governance.
8. Criticized by Indian leaders for being half-hearted and insufficient.

Positive Points:

1. Introduced dyarchy in provinces, giving Indians control over certain departments.
2. Expanded Indian representation in provincial legislatures.
3. Increased the electorate, allowing more Indians to vote.
4. Created bicameral legislatures in some provinces.
5. Recognized the principle of gradual self-governance.
6. Laid the foundation for future constitutional reforms.

Negative Points:

1. British retained control over important subjects like finance, police, and law & order.
2. Limited powers to Indians; real authority remained with the Governor.
3. Dyarchy led to administrative confusion between reserved and transferred subjects.
4. Franchise was still restricted, excluding the majority of Indians.
5. Failed to satisfy Indian nationalist aspirations, leading to further unrest.
6. Provincial governments were weak and dependent on British authorities.

Indian national movements phase-II

Gandhiji's Early Career in South Africa (1893–1914):

1. **Arrival as a Lawyer (1893):** Gandhiji went to South Africa to practice law, initially facing racial discrimination in the legal profession. → Significance: Exposed him to systemic racism, shaping his future activism.
2. **Experience of Racial Prejudice (1893):** He was thrown off a train at Pietermaritzburg for being “non-white.” → Significance: Sparked his resolve to fight injustice through non-violent means.
3. **Formation of Natal Indian Congress (1894):** Established to protect the rights of Indians in South Africa. → Significance: First step in organized struggle for civil rights.
4. **Development of Satyagraha (1906–1914):** Led non-violent campaigns against discriminatory laws, e.g., the Transvaal registration law. → Significance: Concept of Satyagraha matured here, later applied in India.
5. **Mass Mobilization and Leadership Skills:** United diverse Indian communities for protests and negotiations. → Significance: Laid the foundation for Gandhiji's leadership in India's freedom movement.





Gandhiji's passive resistance in South Africa and its significance:

1. **Arrival in South Africa (1893):** Gandhiji went to South Africa as a lawyer and faced racial discrimination firsthand.
2. **Trigger Incident:** He was thrown out of a train at Pietermaritzburg for refusing to leave the first-class compartment.
3. **Formation of Natal Indian Congress (1894):** To fight discriminatory laws against Indians.
4. **Methods of Passive Resistance:** Non-violent protests, petitions, strikes, and civil disobedience.
5. **Key Campaigns:** Against the Asiatic Registration Act (1906) and other discriminatory laws.
6. **Satyagraha Principle:** Truth and non-violence were central to resisting injustice.
7. **Mass Mobilization:** Involved large numbers of Indians, including women, in protests peacefully.
8. **Impact in South Africa:** Led to some amendments in discriminatory laws and raised global awareness about racial injustice.
9. **Significance for India:** Provided practical experience in non-violent struggle, which Gandhiji later applied in India's independence movement.
10. **Global Influence:** Demonstrated the effectiveness of peaceful resistance, inspiring future civil rights movements worldwide.

Gandhiji's Satyagraha techniques:

1. **Non-violence (Ahimsa):** Using no physical force against the opponent.
2. **Truth (Satya) :** Adhering strictly to truth in thought, word, and action.
3. **Civil Disobedience:** Peacefully defying unjust laws.
4. **Non-cooperation:** Refusing to support oppressive systems.
5. **Fasting (Tapasya):** Using self-suffering to appeal to conscience.
6. **Peaceful Protest:** Organizing marches, strikes, and demonstrations without aggression.
7. **Self-suffering (Tapasya):** Accepting hardships voluntarily to awaken moral awareness.
8. **Constructive Program:** Promoting self-reliance through village industries, education, and sanitation.

Gandhiji's initial Satyagraha after his return to India:

- **Arrival in India (1915):** Gandhiji returned from South Africa, bringing experience of non-violent struggle.
- **Champaran Satyagraha (1917):** Led peasants against indigo plantation exploitation in Bihar.
- **Kheda Satyagraha (1918):** Supported farmers in Gujarat during crop failure and tax refusal.
- **Non-violent Method:** Introduced civil disobedience and constructive engagement with authorities.
- **Mass Mobilization:** Engaged local population actively in struggle for justice.

Khilafat Movement (1919–1924)

1. Launched to protect the Ottoman Caliphate after World War I.
2. Led by Indian Muslim leaders like Maulana Mohammad Ali and Maulana Shaukat Ali.
3. Sought to mobilize Indian Muslims against British policies.
4. Allied with the Indian National Congress to strengthen Hindu-Muslim unity.
5. Protested against the Treaty of Sèvres and dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire.



6. Promoted boycott of British goods, courts, and titles.
7. Movement declined after the abolition of the Caliphate by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk in 1924.
8. Laid the groundwork for mass nationalist participation in India.

Non-Cooperation Movement (1920–1922)

1. Launched by Mahatma Gandhi as a mass protest against the Rowlatt Act and Jallianwala Bagh massacre.
2. Called for boycott of British institutions, schools, courts, and titles.
3. Encouraged Swadeshi movement and promotion of khadi.
4. Aimed at achieving Swaraj (self-rule) through peaceful means.
5. Supported by millions of Indians, including students, peasants, and workers.
6. Temporarily suspended in 1922 after the Chauri Chaura incident, which turned violent.
7. Strengthened nationalist sentiment and political consciousness among common people.

Significance of the Non-Cooperation Movement (1920–22):

1. It marked the first mass-based nationwide movement against British rule.
2. It united people across caste, religion, and region under a common nationalist cause.
3. It introduced Gandhi's principle of non-violence and civil disobedience as a political tool.
4. It encouraged Indians to boycott British institutions like schools, courts, and offices.
5. It stimulated the growth of indigenous industries through promotion of Khadi and swadeshi goods.
6. It strengthened the Indian National Congress as a mass political party.
7. It raised political consciousness among rural and urban populations.
8. It inspired youth and students to actively participate in the freedom struggle.
9. It brought peasants and workers into the nationalist movement for the first time on a large scale.
10. It exposed the weaknesses of British administration and policies in India.
11. It laid the foundation for future movements like Civil Disobedience and Quit India.
12. It highlighted the power of non-violent resistance over violent methods.

Why Gandhi withdrew from the Non-Cooperation Movement (1920–22):

1. The Chauri Chaura incident (1922) turned violent, with 22 policemen killed.
2. Gandhi opposed the use of violence in the freedom struggle.
3. He wanted the movement to remain strictly non-violent (Ahimsa).
4. He feared that continuing the movement could lead to widespread lawlessness.
5. He believed India was not yet ready for complete non-cooperation.
6. He wanted to maintain moral high ground over the British.
7. He aimed to prevent loss of innocent lives during the agitation.
8. Gandhi stressed disciplined, ethical resistance rather than uncontrolled protests.
9. Withdrawal was a strategic move to rebuild mass support carefully.
10. It reflected his principle that means must be as pure as ends in the struggle.



**Achievements:**

1. Mobilized masses across India, including peasants, workers, students, and women.
2. Strengthened the Indian National Congress as a mass-based political organization.
3. Promoted Swadeshi and boycott of foreign goods and institutions.
4. Encouraged use of Khadi and self-reliance in villages.
5. Awakened political consciousness and nationalism among ordinary people.
6. Protested against repressive colonial laws and injustices like Rowlatt Act and Jallianwala Bagh massacre.
7. Inspired future mass movements and civil disobedience campaigns.
8. Demonstrated the power of non-violent mass mobilization (Ahimsa principle).
9. Fostered unity among diverse social groups against British rule.
10. Challenged British legitimacy and moral authority in India.

Failures:

1. Movement was abruptly withdrawn after Chauri Chaura incident (1922).
2. Limited impact on actual British economic and political policies.
3. Failed to involve all sections of Indian society uniformly, especially some elites.
4. Could not immediately achieve self-rule or Swaraj.
5. Gandhi's leadership constrained by strict non-violence, leading to withdrawal at first signs of violence.
6. Weak organization in some rural areas led to sporadic or unsustained participation.
7. Did not significantly reduce British economic exploitation.
8. Lacked coordinated nationwide planning in implementation of boycotts and protests.
9. Created disappointment among radical sections who wanted more aggressive action.
10. Early withdrawal reduced momentum for long-term political gains.

significance of the Non-Cooperation Movement (1920–22) in Maharashtra:

1. It marked mass political awakening among Maharashtrians against British rule.
2. Pune became a major center of nationalist activity under leaders like Tilak and Savarkar.
3. The movement saw students, lawyers, and teachers boycotting British institutions.
4. Swadeshi spirit strengthened through promotion of khadi and indigenous goods.
5. Local municipalities and schools were boycotted as a form of peaceful protest.
6. It encouraged participation of peasants and urban workers in nationalist activities.
7. Spread Gandhian ideals of non-violence and self-reliance in everyday life.
8. Played a key role in uniting diverse social groups—Marathas, Brahmins, Dalits—against colonial rule.
9. Helped in political consolidation of Congress in Maharashtra, especially in Pune, Mumbai, and Satara.

Swarajya Party**Formation of Swaraj Party:**

1. Formed in 1923 by Motilal Nehru and Chittaranjan Das.
2. Emerged after Gandhi suspended the Non-Cooperation Movement in 1922.





3. Objective was to enter legislative councils to obstruct British policies from within.
4. Aimed to achieve self-governance (Swaraj) through constitutional means.
5. Represented a faction of the Indian National Congress dissatisfied with Gandhi's non-cooperation approach.

Significance of Swaraj Party:

1. Marked a shift from complete boycott to active participation in legislative councils.
2. Exposed British administrative weaknesses through council debates.
3. Encouraged political awareness among the Indian populace.
4. Strengthened constitutional methods of struggle alongside mass movements.
5. Laid the foundation for future legislative activism leading to independence.
6. Showed the potential of combining parliamentary action with mass agitation.

Simon Commission (1927) and its impact:

1. **Formation:** Simon Commission was set up in 1927 by the British government to review the working of the Government of India Act 1919.
2. **Composition:** It had seven British members only, no Indian representatives, causing widespread resentment.
3. **Indian Reaction:** Sparked nationwide protests and boycott across political parties.
4. **Slogan:** Popularized the slogan "Simon Go Back" during demonstrations.
5. **Rise of Congress Unity:** Strengthened the Indian National Congress and other parties' demand for self-rule.
6. **Emergence of Leaders:** Leaders like Jawaharlal Nehru, Lala Lajpat Rai, and Bhagat Singh actively opposed it.
7. **Martyrdom:** Lala Lajpat Rai died after being injured in a police lathi charge during protest.
8. **Impact on Constitutional Reforms:** Led to the Nehru Report (1928) as an Indian alternative for constitutional reforms.
9. **Growth of Nationalism:** Accelerated mass movements and anti-British sentiment across India.
10. **Legitimacy Loss:** Exposed the lack of British willingness to include Indians in governance decisions.

Information on Nehru Report (1928):

1. Drafted in response to the Simon Commission which had no Indian members.
2. Headed by Motilal Nehru; hence called the Nehru Report.
3. **Submitted in 1928.**
4. **Aim:** To propose a constitutional framework for India.
5. Advocated Dominion Status for India within the British Empire.
6. Prepared by Indian National Congress members and other leaders.
7. Sought to unite different communities under a common constitution.
8. Opposed separate electorates for minorities, promoting joint electorates.
9. Influenced later debates on the Government of India Act 1935.
10. Supported by Congress but rejected by Muslim League due to concerns over minority rights.





Recommendations of the Nehru Report:

1. **Form of Government:** Dominion Status for India; self-governing within British Empire.
2. **Federal Structure:** Unitary constitution with strong central government and provincial autonomy.
3. **Fundamental Rights:** Guarantee of freedom of speech, equality, and religious freedom.
4. **Minority Rights:** Safeguards for minorities, but no separate electorates.
5. **Official Language:** Hindi and English as official languages.
6. **Franchise:** Limited adult franchise based on property, education, or taxation.
7. **Legislature:** Bicameral legislature at the center with representation for provinces.
8. **Executive:** Governor-General as constitutional head with powers as per the report.
9. **Judiciary:** Independent judiciary with power of judicial review.
10. **Finance:** Provinces and center to have separate financial powers with sharing of certain revenues.

Opposition to Nehru Report:

1. **Muslim League:** Strongly opposed it as it rejected separate electorates for Muslims.
2. **Fear of Minority Domination:** Muslims feared majority (Hindu) dominance under the proposed unitary system.
3. **Provincial Autonomy Concerns:** Some provinces felt the centre had too much power, reducing provincial rights.
4. **Dalit Leaders' Concern:** Some leaders wanted adequate safeguards for Scheduled Castes beyond what the report proposed.
5. **Political Parties' Skepticism:** Parties like Akali Dal and other minority groups felt their interests weren't fully represented.

Civil disobedience movement(1930)

Why it was launched:

1. **Salt Tax and Monopoly:** Protest against the British salt tax, which affected all Indians.
2. **Simon Commission Rejection:** Anger over no Indian representation in the Simon Commission.
3. **Failure of Constitutional Reforms:** Dissatisfaction with Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms and slow political progress.
4. **Economic Hardship:** Widespread poverty, unemployment, and famine under colonial policies.
5. **Non-violent Protest:** Inspired by Gandhi's principle of Satyagraha for non-violent resistance.
6. **Nagpur Session of Congress (1920s-30s):** Growing demand for complete independence rather than dominion status.
7. **Symbolic Protest:** Salt, being a basic necessity, became a symbol for challenging unjust British laws.
8. **Previous Movements' Lessons:** Earlier movements (Non-Cooperation) halted due to violence, need for peaceful mass movement.

British reaction to the Civil Disobedience Movement (1930-34):

1. **Repression:** Used mass arrests of leaders and activists, including Gandhi.
2. **Violence:** Ordered police and military action against protests and marches.
3. **Salt Acts Enforcement:** Cracked down on salt satyagrahis and salt-making activities.



4. **Censorship:** Imposed strict press censorship and banned nationalist publications.
5. **Trials:** Conducted summary trials and imprisonments of thousands of protesters.
6. **Confiscation:** Seized property of activists and banned organizations.
7. **Propaganda:** Spread pro-British propaganda to discourage participation.

Difference between Non-cooperation movement and Civil disobedience movement:

| Feature | Non-Cooperation Movement (NCM) | Civil Disobedience Movement (CDM) |
|-------------------|---|---|
| Time Period | 1920–1922 | 1930–1934 |
| Initiated By | Mahatma Gandhi | Mahatma Gandhi |
| Cause / Trigger | Jallianwala Bagh Massacre, Rowlatt Act, Khilafat issue | Salt Tax, Salt March (Dandi March) |
| Nature of Protest | Non-violent boycott of British institutions, schools, courts, foreign goods | Active refusal to obey specific unjust laws, e.g., salt laws |
| Methods Used | Boycott of schools, courts, British goods, resignations from govt jobs | Salt March, picketing liquor shops, refusal to pay taxes, peaceful protests |
| Participation | Mass-based, mostly urban educated, some rural | Mass-based, including rural population; more widespread |
| Goal | Self-rule (Swaraj) through non-violent resistance | Direct challenge to British authority, achieve self-rule |
| Violence | Strictly non-violent, though some riots occurred | Non-violent in principle, but some local clashes happened |
| Impact | Strengthened nationalist feeling, showed potential of mass movements | Demonstrated power of mass civil disobedience, led to negotiations like Gandhi-Irwin Pact |
| End / Suspension | Withdrawn by Gandhi after Chauri Chaura incident (1922) | Phased out after Gandhi-Irwin Pact (1931) |

Gandhi-Irwin Pact (1931):

1. Signed on 5th March 1931.
2. Agreement between Mahatma Gandhi and Lord Irwin, then Viceroy of India.
3. Negotiated during the Civil Disobedience Movement.
4. **Objective:** To end the Salt Satyagraha and suspend civil disobedience temporarily.
5. All political prisoners arrested during the movement were released, except those guilty of violence.
6. **Salt Laws:** Allowed Indians to make or collect salt for personal use.
7. **Tax Amnesty:** Confiscated properties from satyagrahis were returned.
8. **Congress Participation:** Congress agreed to attend the Second Round Table Conference in London.
9. **Civil Disobedience:** Suspension of the Civil Disobedience Movement by Congress.





Round Table Conference

1. Held in London between 1930–1932 in three sessions.
2. Organized by the British Government to discuss constitutional reforms in India.
3. Participants: British officials, Indian political leaders, and princely states' representatives.
4. Purpose: To discuss constitutional reforms and Indian self-governance.
5. **First RTC (1930):** No Congress participation due to Civil Disobedience Movement.
6. **Second RTC (1931):** Congress joined, represented by Gandhi.
7. **Third RTC (1932):** Minorities and princely states participated; Congress boycotted.

Significance of Round Table Conference

1. First attempt to negotiate self-rule with all communities and princely states.
2. Allowed direct dialogue between Indians and British Government.
3. Highlighted communal representation issues in future constitutional plans.
4. Gandhi represented India as a moral and political leader at an international platform.
5. Paved the way for Government of India Act 1935.

Impact of Round Table Conference

1. Congress boycotts highlighted differences in opinion among Indian political groups.
2. Led to political recognition of minorities and princely states in constitutional reforms.
3. Muslim League demanded separate electorates and safeguards.
4. British Government drafted Government of India Act 1935 based on RTC discussions.
5. Strengthened constitutional awareness and debates on federalism in India.

Communal Award (1932)

1. Announced by British Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald.
2. Granted separate electorates to Depressed Classes (Dalits), Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians, and Europeans.
3. Aimed to provide political representation to minorities in provincial legislatures.
4. Criticized by Mahatma Gandhi, who opposed separate electorates for Dalits.
5. Sparked a nationwide debate on caste and minority rights.
6. Seen as a divide-and-rule policy by many Indian leaders.

Poona Pact (1932)

1. Agreement between Mahatma Gandhi and Dr. B.R. Ambedkar.
2. Replaced separate electorates for Dalits with reserved seats in general electorates.
3. Increased Dalit representation from 71 to 147 seats in provincial legislatures.
4. Ensured Hindu unity while protecting Dalit political rights.
5. Signed on 24 September 1932 in Pune.
6. Marked a historic compromise in Indian politics for social justice.

Gandhi's Harijan Campaign (1930s–1940s)

1. Launched to eradicate untouchability in Indian society.
2. Focused on social integration of "Harijans" (Dalits).





3. Advocated temple entry, access to wells, and schools for untouchables.
4. Promoted manual labor and dignity of work for all castes.
5. Used non-violent methods and moral persuasion to fight caste discrimination.
6. Harijan Sevak Sangh established in 1932 to organize campaign.
7. Encouraged upper-caste Hindus to accept Dalits as equals.
8. Highlighted untouchability as a moral and social evil in all public speeches.

Gandhi's Views on Caste

1. Opposed untouchability and social exclusion of lower castes.
2. Supported varna system in a spiritual and occupational sense, not hierarchy.
3. Believed caste should be based on duty and service, not birth-based discrimination.
4. Advocated reform within Hindu society rather than total abolition of varna.
5. Saw social equality and moral upliftment as essential for national progress.
6. Promoted inter-caste cooperation and respect without erasing cultural identities.
7. Considered education and economic empowerment vital for caste harmony.

Indian national movement Phase-III

Second World War (1939–1945)

1. Started on 1 September 1939 with Germany's invasion of Poland.
2. Ended in 1945 with the defeat of Axis powers (Germany, Italy, Japan).
3. Major participants: Allies (UK, USSR, USA, China) vs Axis powers.
4. Holocaust: Millions of Jews and minorities were systematically exterminated by Nazis.
5. Global conflict: Fought in Europe, Africa, Asia, and Pacific.
6. Technological warfare: First large-scale use of tanks, aircraft, and nuclear weapons.

Impact of Second World War

1. **Decolonization:** Accelerated independence movements in India, Africa, and Asia.
2. **Economic restructuring:** US emerged as a global economic leader; Europe devastated.
3. **Cold War:** Divided world into US-led West and USSR-led East.
4. **Technological advancement:** Boosted nuclear technology, aviation, and medicine.
5. **Social change:** Women entered workforce in large numbers, changing societal roles.
6. **India's role:** India contributed soldiers and resources, strengthening demand for independence.
7. **Partition seeds:** Communal tensions increased due to wartime policies and Muslim League demands.
8. **Global institutions:** Led to formation of IMF, World Bank, and UN.
9. **Military strategy:** Modern aerial and naval warfare tactics evolved.
10. **Population displacement:** Millions became refugees, especially in Europe and Asia.

August Offer (1940):

1. Announced by Viceroy Lord Linlithgow on 8 August 1940.
2. **Purpose:** To gain Indian support for Britain during World War II.
3. **Context:** Launched after Congress opposed India's entry into WWII without consultation.





4. **Significance:** Attempted to placate Indian political demands and secure cooperation.

Provisions of August Offer:

1. **Dominion Status:** Promised India eventual Dominion status after the war.
2. **Expansion of Viceroy's Executive Council:** More Indians would be included in the Council.
3. **Minority Safeguards:** Safeguards for minorities (especially Muslims) would be considered.
4. **Constituent Assembly:** Proposed a future body to frame the Constitution after the war.
5. **Non-Consultation Rejection:** Congress rejected the offer as it did not grant immediate self-rule.
6. **Muslim League Reaction:** Accepted by Muslim League, as it assured communal safeguards.

Individual Satyagraha:

1. Launched by Mahatma Gandhi in 1940 during World War II.
2. Aimed to assert the right to free speech against British war policies.
3. Focused on non-violent protest by selected individuals rather than mass movements.
4. First satyagrahi was Vinoba Bhave.
5. Conducted in phases, spreading gradually across India.
6. Targeted British war efforts without disrupting law and order.
7. Used as a training ground for disciplined civil resistance.
8. Involved peaceful recitation of patriotic slogans and refusal to cooperate.

Significance of Individual Satyagraha:

1. Demonstrated India's opposition to British war policies without mass violence.
2. Highlighted the principle of non-violence and civil disobedience.
3. Strengthened moral and political awareness among Indians.
4. Served as a precursor to the Quit India Movement (1942).
5. Helped identify leaders and satyagrahis for future mass movements.
6. Maintained discipline and unity among protestors despite British repression.

Cripps Mission (1942):

1. **Purpose:** Sent by Britain to secure Indian cooperation in World War II.
2. Headed by Sir Stafford Cripps, a member of British Cabinet.
3. Arrived in India in March 1942.
4. **Promise:** Offered full self-government to India after the war.
5. **Provincial Autonomy:** Proposed dominion status with power for provinces to opt out.
6. **Constituent Assembly:** Suggested election of a Constituent Assembly to draft India's constitution.
7. **Minority Safeguards:** Ensured safeguards for minorities in the new constitution.
8. **Congress Reaction:** Rejected by Congress as it fell short of immediate independence.
9. **Muslim League Reaction:** Accepted in principle, but demanded clear division powers.

Causes of failure of the Cripps Mission (1942):

1. **Distrust of British intentions:** Indians doubted Britain's promise of post-war dominion status.





2. **Demand for complete independence:** Congress insisted on full freedom, not just dominion status.
3. **Provincial autonomy issue:** Proposed autonomy for provinces angered Congress, who feared weakening central authority.
4. **Separate electorates:** Mission allowed provinces to opt out, pleasing Muslim League but alienating Congress.
5. **Lack of consensus:** Failed to satisfy either Congress or Muslim League.
6. **War-time urgency:** Britain was reluctant to commit to complete independence during WWII.
7. **Timing:** Mission came after Japanese threat in Asia, causing strategic rather than political motivations.
8. **Limited powers for Indians:** Cripps proposals didn't offer real control over defense and foreign affairs.
9. **Muslim League stance:** League demanded a separate Muslim state, which the mission did not accept.
10. **Congress rejection:** Congress saw proposals as a way to delay real freedom.

Quit India Movement (1942)

1. Launched by Mahatma Gandhi on 8th August 1942 at the Bombay session of Congress.
2. Also called the "August Kranti" or "Quit India Resolution."
3. **Main demand:** Immediate British withdrawal from India.
4. **Slogan:** "Do or Die" to achieve independence.
5. Triggered by failure of Cripps Mission to offer satisfactory self-rule.
6. Movement was mass-based, involving students, workers, peasants, and political leaders.
7. Faced brutal suppression; Gandhi and other leaders were imprisoned.
8. Violent and non-violent protests occurred across the country.
9. Underground movements emerged as leadership was jailed.
10. It was pan-Indian, spreading from urban centers to villages.

Significance of Quit India Movement

1. Demonstrated India's unity against British rule during WWII.
2. Strengthened mass political mobilization and nationalist sentiment.
3. Highlighted Gandhi's leadership and moral authority.
4. Showed the determination of Indians to achieve complete independence.
5. Exposed the weakness of British control in India during wartime.
6. Inspired future civil movements and strategies for independence.

Impact of Quit India Movement

1. Intensified British repression and widespread arrests.
2. Disrupted administration, railways, and communication in many regions.
3. Many local leaders and ordinary citizens became national heroes.
4. Laid the groundwork for post-war independence negotiations.
5. Increased pressure on Britain to consider Indian self-rule.
6. Radicalized some groups, leading to more militant independence activities.





Simla Conference (Wavell Plan)

1. Held in Simla, June 1945 to discuss Indian self-government.
2. **Chairperson:** British Viceroy Lord Wavell.
3. **Aim:** To form an interim government including Indian leaders.
4. Proposed equal representation of Hindus and Muslims in the Executive Council.
5. Planned to give Indians greater role in administration without full independence.
6. **Wavell Plan:** Suggested reconstituting Viceroy's Executive Council with Indians in all key posts except Defence and Finance.
7. Invited all major Indian political leaders: Congress, Muslim League, Sikhs, etc.
8. Congress demanded domination in Interim Government, while League insisted on Muslim parity.
9. **Deadlock:** Conference failed due to Muslim League's insistence on sole right to represent Muslims.
10. **Outcome:** Wavell Plan collapsed, no agreement reached.

Impact of Simla Conference

1. Highlighted the impossibility of Hindu-Muslim compromise at that stage.
2. Exposed the growing dominance of Muslim League under Jinnah.
3. Showed Congress's unwillingness to accept parity with Muslim League.
4. Increased communal polarization in Indian politics.
5. Led Britain to reconsider direct negotiations with League, paving way for 1946 elections.
6. Demonstrated that constitutional deadlock required stronger political solution.
7. Set the stage for Mountbatten Plan and Partition in 1947.

INA Trial (Indian National Army Trial)

1. **Event:** Trial of Indian National Army officers led by Subhas Chandra Bose's forces.
2. **Date:** Held in 1945-46 at Red Fort, Delhi.
3. **Accused:** Colonel Shah Nawaz Khan, Colonel Prem Kumar Sahgal, Major General Gurbaksh Singh Dhillon, and others.
4. **Charges:** Treason, murder, and waging war against the King-Emperor.
5. **Judge:** Conducted by British military court.
6. **Public Reaction:** Sparked mass protests and nationalist fervor across India.
7. **Support:** Garnered backing from Indian National Congress, leaders, and common people.

significance of the INA Trials (1945-46):

1. **Sparked Nationalism:** INA trials ignited widespread anti-British sentiment across India.
2. **Unity Among Indians:** Created a sense of unity among Indians, transcending religious and regional divides.
3. **Military Morale:** Boosted the morale of Indian soldiers in the British Indian Army.
4. **Political Pressure:** Pressured the British government politically to consider Indian demands.
5. **Support for Independence:** Strengthened the Indian independence movement and Congress' position.
6. **Public Protests:** Led to massive public protests, hartals, and strikes across India.



7. **Communal Harmony:** INA's composition of Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs highlighted communal unity.
8. **Weakening British Rule:** Contributed to the decline of British authority in India.

Cabinet Mission (1946):

1. Sent by British government to India to discuss transfer of power.
2. Led by Lord Pethick-Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps, and A.V. Alexander.
3. **Objective:** Avoid partition and maintain Indian unity.
4. Proposed interim government with all major parties.
5. Met leaders of Congress, Muslim League, and Sikh leaders in 1946.
6. Aimed to provide a constitutional framework for post-independence India.
7. Tried to reconcile Congress and Muslim League demands.
8. Accepted by Congress and Muslim League initially, but implementation failed.

Provisions of Cabinet Mission Plan (1946):

1. **Union of India:** India to remain a federation with grouped provinces.
2. **Three Groups:** Provinces divided into Group A (Hindu majority), Group B & C (Muslim majority).
3. **Constituent Assembly:** To draft a new constitution for India.
4. **Interim Government:** Formed including Congress, Muslim League, and others.
5. **Central Government Powers:** Only foreign affairs, defense, and communications reserved.
6. **Provincial Autonomy:** Provinces given full autonomy in other matters.
7. **Grouping Option:** Provinces could form groups and make decisions collectively.
8. **Muslim League Acceptance:** Allowed Muslim-majority provinces to opt out of groups.
9. **Constitution Adoption:** Assembly could decide to adopt, modify, or reject the grouping plan later.
10. **Aim:** To balance unity with communal autonomy, avoiding partition.

Failure of the Cabinet Mission (1946):

1. **Communal Divisions:** Failed to bridge the growing Hindu-Muslim divide.
2. **Provincial Grouping Issue:** The plan for grouping provinces was rejected by Congress.
3. **Muslim League Demands:** Could not satisfy Muslim League's demand for Pakistan.
4. **Political Deadlock:** Led to deadlock between Congress and Muslim League.
5. **Constitutional Disagreement:** Disagreements over central vs provincial powers persisted.
6. **Lack of Trust:** Mutual distrust between parties prevented implementation.
7. **Rise of Communal Tensions:** Accelerated communal riots and unrest.
8. **Short-term Failure:** Although it provided a framework, it did not result in a lasting solution.

Mountbatten Plan (1947):

1. **Official Name:** Also called the 3rd June Plan.
2. **Announced by:** Lord Louis Mountbatten, the last Viceroy of India.
3. Date: 3rd June 1947.
4. **Purpose:** Proposed partition of British India into India and Pakistan.
5. **Communal Basis:** Partition based on religious majority in provinces.





6. **Provincial Option:** Punjab and Bengal could choose between India and Pakistan via referendum in certain areas.
7. **Princely States:** Allowed princely states to accede to either India or Pakistan.

Impact of the Mountbatten Plan (1947):

1. **Partition:** Led to the division of British India into India and Pakistan.
2. **End of British Rule:** Marked the formal end of British colonial rule in India.
3. **Mass Migration:** Triggered largest mass migration in history between India and Pakistan.
4. **Communal Violence:** Resulted in widespread communal riots and killings.
5. **Princely States:** Allowed princely states to join India or Pakistan freely.
6. **Formation of Pakistan:** Created West Pakistan and East Pakistan (later Bangladesh).
7. **Political Leadership:** Made Jawaharlal Nehru Prime Minister of India and Muhammad Ali Jinnah Governor-General of Pakistan.
8. **Radcliffe Award:** Implemented Radcliffe Line to demarcate borders.
9. **Refugee Crisis:** Led to millions becoming refugees with severe humanitarian issues.
10. **Economic Impact:** Disrupted trade, agriculture, and economy in border areas.
11. **Legacy of Hostility:** Initiated long-term India-Pakistan tensions.
12. **Military Conflicts:** Laid the ground for Kashmir dispute and subsequent wars.
13. **Constitutional Impact:** Prompted both nations to draft separate constitutions soon after.

