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# NCERT NOTES

## Indian History

**Class 6-12 (Old+New)**

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# **NCERT** **NOTES** **Indian History**

**Class 6-12 (Old+New)**

*Authors*  
Janmejaya Sahani  
Sujeet Yadav



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卐 **Administrative & Production Offices**

**Regd. Office**

'Ramchhaya' 4577/15, Agarwal Road, Darya Ganj, New Delhi - 110002

Tele: 011- 47630600, 43518550

卐 **Head Office**

Kalindi, TP Nagar, Meerut (UP) - 250002,

Tel: 0121-7156203, 7156204

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The book is adorned with questions prepared by a team of experts along with a vital role played by the Project Management team with members: Mona Yadav (Project Manager), Divya Gusain (Project Coordinator), Shivani Dixit, Ayush Rajput (Proof readers), Vinay Sharma, Kamal Kishor, Sonu Kumar (DTP coordinators), Shanu and Mazher Chaudhary (Cover and Inner designer).

We hope this book will help the aspirants to achieve their goals of clearing UPSC as well as State PCS exams. Your valuable suggestions have always inspired us to strive for useful, authentic and more trustworthy publications. So your inputs and suggestions are welcomed for subsequent editions.

*We wish you all the very best for your preparation and journey!!*

**Authors**

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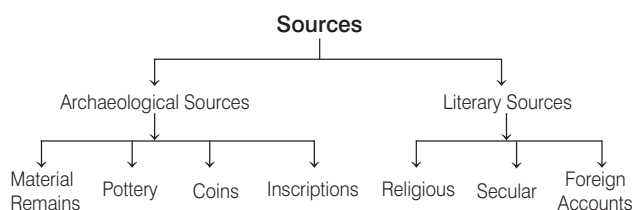
# Sources of Ancient Indian History

**Sources** Class VI New NCERT Chap 1 (What Books and Burials Tell Us), Class-XI Old NCERT (I) Chap 2 (The Importance of Ancient Indian History), Class-XI Old NCERT (II) Chap 2 (Modern Historians of Ancient India), Class-XI Old NCERT Chap 3 (Types of Sources and Historical Construction), Class-XII New NCERT Chap 1 (Bricks, Beads and Bones), Chap 2 (Kings, Farmers and Towns)

- The study of ancient Indian history is important as it tells us how, when and where people developed the earliest cultures in our country.
- It indicates how they started their agriculture which made life secure and settled. It shows how the ancient Indians discovered and utilised natural resources and how they created the means for their livelihood.
- Sources that are responsible for providing information about history are known as **Historic Sources**.

## Sources of Ancient Indian History

The sources responsible for the information about ancient history can be broadly categorised as archaeological and literary sources.



## Archaeological Sources

These sources include material remains, pottery, inscriptions and coins. The one who studies archaeological sources is known as **archaeologist**.

## Material Remains

- Archaeological excavations show the layout plan of the settlements in which people lived, the type of pottery they used, the form of houses in which they dwelt, the kind of cereals they used as food and the type of tools and implements they handled.
- Vertical digging of sites provides us a good chronological sequence of material culture. It also tells us about the material culture of the ancient period.
- Buildings made of stone and bricks tell us of great building activities in the past.
- Ring wells are rows of pots or ceramics rings arranged one on top of other. They have been found in many cities and seem to have been used as toilets as drains and garbage dumps. These were usually found in individual houses.
- In South India, megaliths provide us information about the life of people of post iron age. Some of the largest collection of iron tools and weapons were found in the megalithic burials.
- The use of iron began in the Indian sub-continent around 3000 years ago. Around 2500 years ago, there are evidences of ample use of iron tools, which include iron axes for clearing forests and the iron ploughshare.

### Major Archaeological Sites and their Findings

Site	Findings
Narmada Valley	Early hunting and gathering communities.
North of Vindhya	In India, rice was first grown here.
Magadha	The first kingdom of India established here.
Sulaiman and Kirthar hills to the North-West	First crops such as wheat and barley about 8000 years ago began to grow here.
Garo hills	Early agriculture in India.
Indus and its tributaries	The first cities in Indian sub-continent.
Ganga Valley	Cities developed about 2500 years ago.

### Dating in Archaeology

- The dates of material remains are fixed according to the radio-carbon method (Carbon-14 dating). The history of climate and vegetation is known through an examination of plant residue and especially through pollen-analysis.
- Carbon dating has suggested that agriculture was practiced in Rajasthan and Kashmir as far back as 6000 BC.
- An examination of the animal bones enables us to find out whether the animals were domesticated and for finding out their use.

#### Beginning of Eras

Vikram Samvat	58 BC
Saka Samvat	78 AD
Gupta Era	319 AD

### Pottery

- Various kinds of pottery have been discovered during excavations.
- Red and Black pottery was used by the people of Indus Valley Civilisation. While the Painted Grey Ware (PGW) pottery was in use during Vedic Age.

### Coins

- The study of coins is called **Numismatics**.
- Ancient coins were made of various metals like copper, silver, gold or lead.
- Coin moulds**, made of burnt clay have been discovered in large numbers belong to **Kushana period**. Such moulds disappeared in the Post-Gupta period.
- The earliest coins, called the **Punch-Marked Coins**, were largely made up of silver. They contain a few symbols but the later coins mention the names of kings, gods or dates of issuance. They were generally rectangular or sometimes square or round in shape.

- The coins were not inscribed, but were stamped with symbols using dies or punches. Hence, they are called **punch-marked coins**. These coins are found over most parts of the sub-continent and remained in circulation till the early centuries AD.
- The largest numbers of coins were found in post-Mauryan times. These were made of lead, potin, copper, bronze, silver and gold.

### Importance of Coins

The following points highlight importance of coins :

- The areas of their findings indicate the region of coinage circulation. This enables to reconstruct the history of several ruling dynasties, especially of the Indo-Greeks.
- Coins also throw significant light on the economic history. The coins issued by the guilds of merchants and goldsmiths show that craft and commerce had become important.
- The **Guptas** issued the largest number of gold coins. It indicates that trade and commerce flourished, especially in the post-Mauryan and Gupta times.
- Only a few coins belonging to post-Gupta period have been found. It indicates the decline of trade and commerce at that time.
- Coins also contain religious symbols and legends, which throw light on the art and religion of the time.
- They also give information about natural resources available in various regions. **Satavahanas**, who ruled in Andhra and Maharashtra in the first two centuries AD, issued a large number of lead coins since, the Andhra region possessed rich sources of lead.

### Inscriptions

- The study of inscriptions is called **Epigraphy**.
- The study of old writings used in inscriptions and old record is called **Palaeography**.
- Inscriptions were carved out on seals, stone pillars, rocks, copper plates, temple walls and bricks or images.
- In early centuries of the Christian era, copper plate began to be used along with stone inscriptions.
- The earliest inscriptions are found on the seals of Harappa belonging to about 2500 BC, but they have not been deciphered so far.
- The oldest inscription deciphered so far is **Brahmi script** that was issued by **Ashoka** in the third century BC.

The Ashokan epigraphs were first deciphered in 1837 by **James Princep**, a civil servant in the employment of the East India Company.



- Two Ashokan pillars were found by **Firoz Shah Tughlaq** and re-established by him at Firoz Shah Kotla Fort and in ridge area in Delhi.

### Language Used in Inscriptions

- The earliest inscriptions were written in the **Prakrit language** in the third century BC. Sanskrit was adopted as an epigraphic medium in the second century AD. In the ninth and tenth centuries AD, the inscriptions began to be composed in regional languages.
- Ashokan inscriptions were engraved in the **Brahmi script**, which was written from left to right. Some inscriptions were written in **Kharosthi script** which was written from right to left.
- **Brahmi script** was prevailed in the whole country, except for the North-Western part. It continued to be the main script till the end of **Gupta era**.
- Greek and Aramaic scripts were used in writing Ashokan inscriptions in Afghanistan.
- The **Boghaz-Koi inscription** found in Asia Minor mentions Vedic Gods *Mitra*, *Varuna*, *Indra* and *Nasatya*.



Ancient Inscription

### Types of Inscriptions

The following four types of inscriptions help us in understanding history of ancient India :

- Some inscriptions convey royal orders and decisions regarding social, religious and administrative matters to officials and public in general. Ashokan inscriptions are of this category.
  - Other inscriptions are votive records of the followers of Buddhism, Jainism, Vaishnavism, etc, who put up pillars, tablets, temples or images as marks of devotion.
  - The third types of inscriptions throw light on attributes and achievements of kings and conquerors. Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudragupta belongs to this category.
  - Finally, there are donation records which refer specially to gifts of money, cattle, land etc, mainly for religious purposes, made not only by kings and princes but also by artisans and merchants.
- Inscriptions recording land grants, made mainly by chiefs and princes, are very important for the study of the land system and administration in ancient India. These were mostly engraved on copper plates. They contain the grants of lands revenues and villages made to monks, priests, temples, monasteries, vassals and officials.

### Important Ancient Inscriptions

Inscriptions	Location	Significance
Uttaramerur Inscription	Chengalpattu (now Kanchipuram) district South of Chennai	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is noted for its temple inscriptions that describe a self-governance system existing around seventh to ninth century AD.</li> </ul>
Eran Inscription	Sagar district, Madhya Pradesh on the bank of Bina river	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is an earliest evidence of <i>Sati</i> found in India here.</li> </ul>
Besnagar/ Vidisha Inscription	Vidisha in present Madhya Pradesh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This pillar inscription was constructed by Heliodorus, a Greek ambassador and belongs to Sunga period (second century BC).</li> <li>• It is written in Prakrit language (with a few Sanskrit spellings) and Brahmi script.</li> <li>• This pillar inscription is devoted to Lord Vasudeva.</li> </ul>
Junagarh Inscription	Junagarh district, Gujarat	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is first pure Sanskrit inscription, by king Rudraman of Saka dynasty in around 150 AD.</li> <li>• It says that Pushyagupta, the Governor of Chandragupta Maurya, built a dam on Sudarshan lake.</li> </ul>
Mehrauli Inscription/ Garuda pillar	Originally at Vishnupada (Udayagiri), Madhya Pradesh but was transported to Delhi later	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is probably erected by Chandragupta Vikramaditya.</li> <li>• It mentions Chandragupta II conquest over Vanga countries and Vatakas. The pillar bears a Sanskrit inscription in Brahmi script.</li> </ul>
Aihole Inscription	Bagalkot, Karnataka	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is a eulogy of Chalukya king Pulakeshin II and mentions his victory over Harshavardhan.</li> <li>• It is written in Sanskrit, composed by Ravikirti, the court poet of Pulakeshin II.</li> </ul>

Inscriptions	Location	Significance
Allahabad Pillar Inscription (Prayag Prasasti)	Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It is issued by Samudragupta and composed by Harisena.</li> <li>It is written in refined Sanskrit language in Champu Kavya style.</li> <li>It mentions the conquest of Samudragupta both in North and South and described the boundaries of Gupta Empire and his diplomatic relations.</li> </ul>
Hathigumpha Inscription	Udayagiri, near Bhubaneswar, Odisha	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It was erected by Kharavela, the ruler of Kalinga during second century BC.</li> <li>It mentions the military expeditions carried by Kharavela.</li> </ul>
Lumbini Pillar Inscription	Located in Nepal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It is a royal commemorative inscription recording Ashoka's visit to Buddha's birth place.</li> </ul>
Mandasor Inscription	Mandasor district, Madhya Pradesh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>It mentioned about the construction of Sun temple.</li> <li>It is composed by Vattasbhatta.</li> </ul>

## Literary Sources

- Literary sources are the most authentic sources for the reconstruction of history.
- The most ancient manuscripts, hand written material, in India are not older than the fourth century AD and have been found in **Central Asia**.
- In India, they were written on **birch bark** and **palm leaves**, but in Central Asia manuscripts were written on **sheep leather** and **wooden tablets**.
- The literature can be classified into religious and secular literature.

## Religious Literature

- The Vedic, Buddhist, Jain and other contemporary literature are the religious literary sources of Ancient Indian History.
- They throw light on the social and cultural conditions of ancient times but it is difficult to make use of them in the context of time and place.

### Vedic Literature

- The Vedic literature gives us a clear picture of the political, social and economic life of the Aryans and of the conflict between the Aryans and the non-Aryans.

### Puranas

- The Puranas contain mythological information.
- There exists total **18 Puranas**. They give the genealogical records (*Vanshavalis*) of the ancient rulers of Kali Yuga.
- They are very much useful for studying history. Important Puranas are **Vayu Purana**, **Skanda Purana**, **Matsya Purana**, **Vishnu Purana**, etc.

## Mahabharata and Ramayana

- The two epics *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana* seem to have been finally compiled by 400 AD. Of this, the *Mahabharata* is older and possibly reflects the state of affairs from the 10th century BC, to the fourth century AD.
- Originally, it consisted of 8800 verses and was called *Jaya Samhita* or the collection dealing with victory. These were raised to 24000 and came to be known as **Bharata**, named after one of the oldest Vedic tribes.
- The final compilation brought the verses to 100,000 which came to be known as the *Mahabharata* or the *Satasahasri Samhita*. It contains narrative, descriptive and didactic material.
- Ramayana* originally consisted of 12000 verses, which were later raised to 24000. It seems to have been composed later than the *Mahabharata*.

## Jaina and Buddhist Literature

- The religious books of Jainas and Buddhists refer to historical personalities and incidents.
- The earliest Buddhist texts were written in **Pali language**, which was common man's language in Magadha or South Bihar.
- They were finally compiled in the second century BC in Sri Lanka, but the canonical portions reflect the state of affairs in the age of Buddha in India.
- They tell us not only about the life of Buddha but some of the Buddhist kings who ruled over Magadha, Northern Bihar and Eastern Uttar Pradesh.
- Jatakas** are the birth stories of Buddha's previous years. These were probably composed by ordinary people and then written down and preserved by Buddhist monks. They throw light on social and economic conditions between fifth to second century BC. They also make incidental references to political events in the age of Buddha.
- The Jaina texts were written in **Prakrit** and were finally compiled in sixth century AD at **Vallabhi** in **Gujarat**. They contain many passages which help us to reconstruct political history of Eastern Uttar Pradesh and Bihar in the age of Mahavira. The Jaina texts refer repeatedly about trade and traders.

## Secular Literature

- Secular class of literature refers to the law-books called the *dharamsutras*, *smritis*, biographies, plays, dramas and the literature of South India called Sangam literature.

- The *Dharmasutras* were compiled in 500-200 BC, and the principal *Smritis* were codified in the first six centuries of Christian era. They laid down the duties or different varnas as well about the kings and their officials.
- They prescribed the rules according to which property is to be held, sold and inherited. They also prescribe punishments for person guilty of theft, assault, murder, adultery etc.
- An important law book is the *Arthashastra* of **Kautilya**. It is divided into 15 books, of which Book II and III may be regarded of an earliest date. The book was put in its final form in the beginning of Christian era. Its earliest portions reflect the state of society and economy in the age of Mauryas. It provides rich material for the study of ancient Indian polity and economy.
- The secular literature also includes the work of **Bhasa**, **Kalidasa** and **Banabhatta**. They throw light on the conditions of the time to which these writings belonged. They also throw light on the social and cultural life of Northern and Central India in the age of Guptas.
- The works of Kalidasa comprise kavyas and dramas, the most famous of which is *Abhijyana Shakuntalam*.
- *Harshacharita*, by **Banabhatta** in the seventh century AD, is a semi-biographical work written in Sanskrit language and in fancy style. It describes the early career of Harshavardhana. It gives excellent idea of the court life under Harsha and the social and religious life in his age.
- **Sandhyakara Nandi's** *Ramcharita* narrates the story of conflict between the Kaivarta peasants and the Pala prince Rampala.
- **Bilhana's** *Vikramankadevacharita* recounts the achievements of his patron, Vikramaditya VI (1076-1127), the Chalukyan king of Kalyan.
- The *Rajatarangini* or *The Stream of Kings* written by **Kalhana** in 12th century AD is a string of biographies of the kings of Kashmir.

### Sangam Literature

- It comprises the earliest Tamil texts, composed around 2300 years ago in assemblies (known as Sangama) of poets that were held in city of Madurai.
- It is a major source of information regarding social, economic and political life of the people living in the Delta.

## Foreign Accounts

- The Greek, Roman, Chinese and Arab visitors came to India, either as sailors, travellers or religious missionaries. They left behind accounts of details that they saw in India.

### Greek and Roman Sources

- The accounts of Greek and Roman authors, such as **Megasthenes**, **Arrian**, **Curtius**, **Plutarch**, **Diodorus**, **Dionysius**, etc, gave valuable information of India's contemporary situation.
- The Greek writer, **Herodotus**, had never been to India and yet his book has reference to the conquests of North-Western India by the Persian emperors. It constituted the twentieth province of the empire of Darius, the Persian emperor.
- The Greek visitors mention **Sandrokottas**, who is identified with Chandragupta Maurya, whose date of accession is fixed at 322 BC.
- The *Indica* of **Megasthenes**, who came to the court of Chandragupta Maurya, has been lost and preserved only in fragments quoted by subsequent classical writers. *Indica* furnishes valuable information not only about Mauryan administration but also about social classes and economic activities in that period.
- Greek and Roman accounts of the first and second centuries AD mentioned many Indian ports and various items of trade between India and Roman Empire.
- The '*Periplus of The Erythrean Sea*' by unknown author and **Ptolemy's** *Geography* (150 AD), both written in Greek, provide valuable data for the study of ancient geography and commerce.
- An account of a Greek sailor provides detailed account of port of Barygaza (the Greek name of Bharuch).

### Chinese Sources

- Fa-Hien (fifth century AD) and **Hiuen Tsang** (seventh century AD), were Buddhist travellers from China, who came to visit the Buddhist shrines and to study Buddhism.
- Fa-Hien describes the social, religious and economic conditions of India in the age of Guptas and Hiuen Tsang presents a similar account of India in the age of Harsha.
- **I-Tsing** visited India in seventh century after the death of Harsha.

### Arab Sources

- Some earlier Arab writers were **Sulaiman** (*Silsilat-ut-Tawarikh*) and **Al Masudi** (*Muruj-ul-Zahab*).
- **Al-Biruni** gave important information about India in his books '*Tahqiq-i-Hind*' and *Kitab-ul-Hind*. He was Arab scholar and contemporary of Mahmud of Ghazni.

- Al-Biruni studied Sanskrit and acquired knowledge of Indian literature. He did not give any political information of his times but gave details insights of contemporary society and culture.

## Modern Historians of Ancient India

- The first book, which was translated by the East India Company in India was *Manusmriti*, that was published as 'A Code of Gentoo Laws' in English by **Nathaniel Brassey Halhed** in 1776 AD.
- The Asiatic Society of Bengal was established in 1784 AD by **Sir William Jones** in Calcutta. He later translated *Abhijyana Shakuntalam* into English in 1789 AD.
- William Jones** was the first scholar to propogate the deep relationship between the Indo-European languages with Sanskrit as well as Persian.
- In the year 1785, **Sir Charles Wilkins** translated the Bhagavad Gita into English as *Bhagavad Gita-Dialogues of Krishna*.
- German scholar, **Max Muller** contributed immensely on Indology. He translated Vedas, Upanishads, Hitopadesha etc and published as *Sacred Books of the East* in total 50 part series.
- The Early History of India, written by **Vincent Arthur Smith** (1843-1920) in 1904, is considered as the first systematic work in Ancient Indian History.
- An eminent scholar **RG Bhandarkar**, reconstructed Satavahana dynasty in Deccan as well Vaishnavism and other religious sects.
- Social Activist **Pandurang Vaman Kane** (1880-1972) wrote the History of Dharmashastras, which is considered as Encyclopedia of social code and Ethics.
- Raja Rajendralal Mitra** was among the first Indian cultural researcher and historian who published various manuscripts of Vedic literature. He also wrote the Sanskrit Buddhist Literature of Nepal in 1882.
- Eminent historian **RC Majumdar** (1888-1980) had presented *History and Culture of Indian people*, where he propounded Indian Renaissance in descriptive manner.
- Another scholar **Nilakantha Shastri** has vividly described about the history of South India in his work *History of South India*.
- Historian **KP Jayaswal** in his work 'Hindu Polity' in 1924 had proved the existence of Mahajanapadas and other republic states in Ancient period.

- British historian and noted Indologist **AL Basham** had written the book *The Wonder that Was India* in 1951, where he attempted to correct the negative stereotypes of India.
- DD Koshambi** in his book 'An Introduction to the Study of Indian History' published in 1956 revolutionised Indian Historiography with his realistic and scientific approach.

### Important Books and Their Authors

Books	Authors
Mudrarakshasa	Vishakdatta
Rajtarangini	Kalhana
Kathasaritsagar	Somdeva
Kamasutra	Vatsayana
Prashnottarmalika	Amoghavarsha
Swapanvasdattam	Bhasa
Buddha Charita	Asvaghosa
Natyashastra	Bharata
Abhigyan Shakuntalam, Vikramorvashi and Raghuvansam	Kalidasa
Amarkosha	Amarsimha
Panchasidhantika and Brihat Samhita	Varharmihara
Surya Sidhanta	Aryabhatta
Panchtantra	Vishnu Sharma
Nitisara	Kamandaka
Aihole Prasasti	Ravi Kriti
Indica	Megasthenes
Arthasastra	Kautilya
Charaka Samhita	Charaka
Lilawati	Bhaskaracharya
Harshacharita, Kadambari Nagananda and Ratnavali	Harshavardhana
Gathasaptashati	Hala
Astadhyayi	Panini
Mahabhasya	Patanjali
Naishadhacharitra	Sri Harsha
Mrichhakatika	Shudraka
Gitagovinda	Jayadev
Navratna	Virsen



# Pre-Historic Cultures

**Sources** Class-VI New NCERT Chap 2 (From Hunting-Gathering to Growing Food), Class-VI Old NCERT Chap 1 (Early Man), Class-IX Old NCERT Chap 1 (Life in Pre-historic Times), Class-XI Old NCERT Chap 1 (The Stone Age : The Early Man), Class-XI Old NCERT Chap 6 (Chalcolithic Farming Cultures)

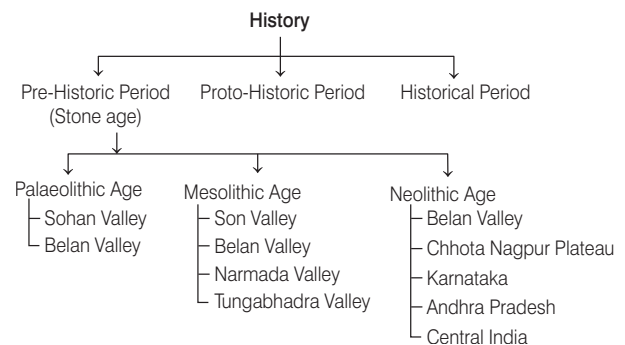
- Earliest human remains associated with stone tools found in Africa have been dated as old as 3.5 million years ago.
- In India, the evidence of first occupation are not earlier than the **Middle Pleistocene**, which began about 5,00,000 years ago. Initially, men were **nomads**. They wandered in groups from place to place in search of food and shelter. There was no cultivation. So, they consumed all they could find in a certain place and had to move place to place in search of food. They also hunted animals and they had to go elsewhere in their search.
- People either lived in caves or built small shelters on the leafy branches of large trees.
- In the later part of **stone age** (Neolithic), man stopped being a nomad and began to settle down in one place as an agriculturist.
- It took almost 3,00,000 years for men to change from a 'food-gatherer' to a 'food producer'.

## Division of Ancient Indian History

History of ancient India has been divided by the historian into three heads as follows:

1. **Pre-Historic Period** It is the period of human culture for which no written records are available. The humans of this period were not civilised. The history of this period is studied by archaeological evidences only. This period is divided into three parts viz. Palaeolithic Age, Mesolithic Age and Neolithic Age.
2. **Proto-history Period** It is the period between pre-history and history during which a culture or civilisation has not yet developed writing, but other cultures have already noted its existence in their own writings. Duration of this period is 2500 BC to 600 BC.

3. **Historical Period** It is the period whose information is available in written records. Humans of this period were civilised and historical activities after 600 BC included in this period.



## Palaeolithic Age: Hunters and Food Gatherers

- The earliest period is called the Palaeolithic. The term is derived from two Greek words, 'palaeo', meaning old and 'lithos', meaning stone. This period developed in the **Pleistocene period** or the **Ice Age**.
- The Palaeolithic period extends from 2 million years ago to about 12,000 years ago. This long span of time covers 99% of human history.
- As per the evidences found in form of tools in **South India** and in the **Sohan Valley** in Pakistan, humans have been living in India roughly from 5,00,000 BC. Such sites have also been discovered in **Kashmir**.

- The early man used stone tools for hunting, cutting and other purposes. The tools were made of stone, wood and bone.
- Some of these stone tools, were used to cut meat and bone, scrape bark (from trees) and hides (animal skins), chop fruit and roots.
- Some may have been attached to handles of bone or wood, to make spears and arrows for hunting. Other tools were used to chop wood, which was used as firewood.



Tools of Palaeolithic Age

- The Palaeolithic men discovered fire, which is evidenced by the traces of ash found in **Kurnool**, Andhra Pradesh.
- In winters, earlier man wrapped animal skins or leaves of trees around to keep themselves warm.
- In this period, man barely managed to gather his food and lived on hunting. He had no knowledge of cultivation and house-building. Animal remains found on **Belan Valley** in Mirzapur district in Uttar Pradesh show that goats, sheep and cattle were domesticated around 25,000 BC. They hunted wild animals, caught fish and birds, gathered fruits, roots, nuts etc.
- The life was not settled yet, the hunter-gatherers of this age moved from place to place :
  - in search of food
  - to follow the movements of animals they hunted
  - in search of different kind of plants
  - to meet their friends and relatives
- Around 12,000 years ago, there were major changes in the climate of the world, with a shift to relatively warm conditions. In many areas, this led to the development of grasslands. This in turn led to an increase in the number of deer, antelope, goat, sheep and cattle, i.e., animals that survived on grass.

- This helped people to start thinking about herding and rearing these animals. Fishing also became an important occupation.
- This was also the period when several grain bearing grasses, including wheat, barley and rice grew naturally in different parts of the sub-continent.
- Men, women and children probably collected these grains as food, learnt where they grew and when they ripened. This may have led them to think about growing plants on their own.

### Phases in the Palaeolithic Age

- The Palaeolithic Age in India is divided into three phases according to the nature of the stone tools used by the people and also according to the nature of change in the climate.

#### 1. Early or Lower Palaeolithic (5,00,000 BC and 50,000 BC)

- The Lower Palaeolithic age covers the greater part of the Ice Age. Its characteristic feature is the use of **hand-axes, cleavers and choppers**.
- Its sites are found in the valley of river Soan or Sohan in Punjab, (now in Pakistan). Other sites were found at **Hunsgi**, Karnataka.
- The Early Palaeolithic tools have been found in the **Belan valley**. The Belan sites contain caves and rock shelters, which could have served as seasonal camps for human beings.
- The sites found in the desert area of **Didwana** in Rajasthan, in the valleys of the Belan and the Narmada (Madhya Pradesh) and in the caves and rock shelters of **Bhimbetka** near Bhopal in Madhya Pradesh roughly belong to 1,00,000 BC.
- At some sites, a large number of tools, were found that were used for all sorts of activities. These were probably **habitation-cum factory sites**.

#### Habitation and Factory Sites

**Habitation sites** These are the places where people lived. These include caves and rock shelters. They provided shelter from the rain, heat and wind.

**Factory sites** These are the places where stone was found and where people made tools.

**Habitation-cum-factory sites** These are the sites where people lived for longer time. Here large number of tools are found.

## 2. Middle Palaeolithic

(50,000 BC and 40,000 BC)

- The Middle Palaeolithic industries are mainly based upon **flakes**, which are found in different parts of India and show regional variations.
- The principal tools are varieties of **blades, points, borers** and **scrapers** made of flakes.
- Middle Palaeolithic sites are found in **Soan Valley, Narmada River valley** and at places South of Tungabhadra river.

## 3. Upper Palaeolithic (40,000 BC and 10,000 BC)

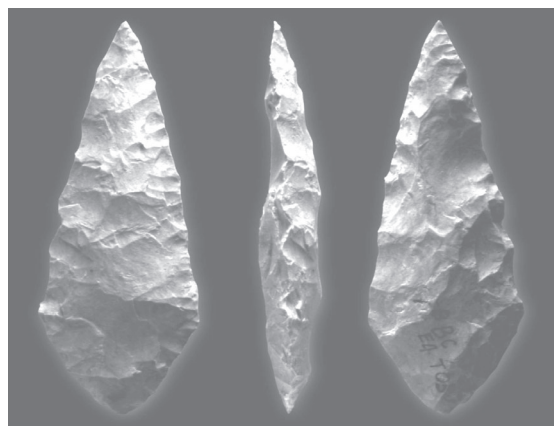
- The Upper Palaeolithic phase was less humid. It coincided with the last phase of the **Ice Age**, when climate became comparatively warm.
- In the world context, it marks the appearance of new flint industries and modern men (*Homo sapiens*).
- Caves and rock shelters used by human beings in the Upper Palaeolithic phase have been discovered at **Bhimbetka**, 45 km South of Bhopal. This phase was characterised by massive flakes, blades, burins and scrapers, which have been found in upper level of Gujarat dunes.

## The Mesolithic Age: Hunters and Herders

- The Upper Palaeolithic Age came to an end with the end of Ice Age around 9000 BC and the climate became warm and dry.
- From 9000 BC, an intermediate stage emerged in Stone Age culture, which is called the Mesolithic Age.
- It intervened as a transitional phase between the Palaeolithic Age and the Neolithic or new Stone Age. It is also called the **Later Stone Age**.
- In case of India, it started about 8000 BC and continued up to 4000 BC.
- The characteristic tools of the Mesolithic Age are **microliths**.
- The Mesolithic people lived on hunting, fishing and food gathering. At a later stage, they also domesticated animals.
- **Adamgarh** in Madhya Pradesh and **Bagor** in Rajasthan provide the earliest evidence for the domestication of animals.
- Mesolithic sites are found in Chhota Nagpur plateau, Central India and South of River Krishna.
- The Mesolithic site **Bagor** in Rajasthan is very well preserved. It had a distinctive microlithic industry, and its inhabitants depended on hunting and pastoralism.

## Pre-historic Art

- The people of Palaeolithic and Mesolithic ages practised painting.
- Pre-historic art appears at several places, but **Bhimbetka** is a striking site which has more than 500 painted rock shelters, distributed in an area of 10 sq km.
- The rock paintings extend from the Palaeolithic to the Mesolithic period, but a majority of rock shelters are associated with the Mesolithic occupation.
- Many birds, animals and human beings are painted. Most probably, most of the birds and animals that appear in paintings were hunted for the sake of livelihood. Perching birds, which live upon grain, are absent in the earliest group of painting.



Tools of Mesolithic Age

## The Neolithic Age: Food Producers

- In the context of the world, the **New Stone Age** began in 9000 BC. However, the Neolithic settlements in the Indian sub-continent are not older than 7000 BC. Whereas Neolithic settlements found in South India are not older than 2500 BC. The people of this age used tools and implements of polished stone. They particularly used stone axes.
- The Neolithic settlers were the earliest farming communities. They also started to tame animals. The first animal to be domesticated was dog. Other animals like sheep, goat, cattle and pig were domesticated by them and they became herders.
- With various discoveries and developments, the Neolithic man settled in one place, forming a village. These were the earliest village. They were to be found all over India but more often in river valleys and on the flat plains, where the soil was more fertile and it was easier to grow crops.

- The Neolithic villages were small and the houses were made of mud and reed and situated close to each other. The area of huts was probably surrounded by a **mud wall** or **fence**. The field lay outside the fence.
- The village itself was usually built on slightly higher ground than the fields. The huts were thatched and ordinarily consisted of just one room. A fire was lit in the hut on, which the cooking was done. They cultivated crops like rice, wheat, barley, ragi and horsegram (*Kulathi*).
- Since, in the Neolithic phase several settlements came to be acquainted with the cultivation of cereals and the domestication of animals, they needed pots in which they could store their food grains. Hence, pottery first appears in this phase. In many areas, they began making large clay pots or wove baskets or dug pits into the ground. Hand-made potter is found in the early stage. Later, they used **wheel made pottery**.
- A very important discovery was that of the **wheel**. Its discovery led to a big advance in the pattern of living. It helped men to travel easily from one place to another. The use of wheel also improved the making of pottery.

### Neolithic Society

- When men became settled, it became necessary to make rules of conduct. The first thing was to decide what each person's job was to be. There used to be division of labour and men and women had to perform different functions/ tasks.
- Generally, the oldest man in the village had to be leader who could give commands. But sometimes, it was the strongest and the bravest man.

### Religion in Neolithic Age

- **Sky-God** and **Earth-goddess** were worshipped. The dead were buried in a grave. Several burial sites have been found at **Mehrgarh**. In one instance, the dead person was buried with goats.

### Neolithic Areas

- The sites are found all over the sub-continent. Some of the most important ones are in the North-West, in present-day **Kashmir** and in East and South India.
- **Mehrgarh** was the earliest Neolithic settlement found in Indian sub-continent, which is located in a fertile plain near the **Bolan Pass**, at **Baluchistan** (Pakistan). It was probably one of the places where people learnt to grow barley and wheat, and rear sheep and goats for the first time in this area.

- It is one of the earliest villages, that we know about and dates back to 7000 BC. Archaeologists have found evidence of many kinds of animal bones from the earliest levels. These included bones of wild animals such as the deer and pig.
- The Neolithic people of **Mehrgarh** were more advanced. They produced wheat, cotton and lived in mud-brick houses. Other finds at Mehrgarh include remains of square or rectangular houses. Each house had four or more compartments, some of which may have been used for storage.

### First Area

- **Burzahom**, situated near **Srinagar** (Jammu and Kashmir), dated back to 2400 BC. The Neolithic people of Burzahom lived there on a lake-side in pits and probably had hunting and fishing economy. They were not acquainted with agriculture or domestication of animals. They used tools and weapons made of polished stone and bone. They used coarse grey pottery. Domestic dogs were found to be buried with their masters in their graves.
- **Gufkral** (literally the 'cave of the potter') is another Neolithic site located 41 km South-West of Srinagar. The people of Gufkral practised both agriculture and domestication of animals.
- **Chirand**, near Patna, dates back to 1600 BC. It is the only site in India where bone implements have been found in large number.
- In addition, sites in **Mirzapur** and **Allahabad** have been found. The site in Allahabad district is noted for the cultivation of the rice in the 6th millennium BC.

### Second Area

- The second group of Neolithic people lived in **South India** to the South of river **Godavari**. The Neolithic phase in South India seems to have covered the period from 2500 BC to 1000 BC.
- Here, the people settled on the tops of granite hills or on the plateau near the river banks. They possessed cattle, sheep and goats.
- They used stone **axes** and **stone blades**. The rubbing stone shows that, they were acquainted with art of producing grains.
- Important sites in South are **Maski**, **Brahmagiri**, **Hallur**, Kodekal, Sangankallu, Tirumakudal Narsipur, Takkalakota in Karnataka, Paiyampalli in Tamil Nadu and Utnur and Piklihal in Andhra Pradesh.
- The Neolithic settlers in **Piklihal** were cattle herders. They domesticated cattle, sheep and goats etc. It is evidenced by the ash mounds and habitation sites discovered in Piklihal.



### Third Area

- The third area from which Neolithic tools have been recovered is in the hills of Assam. Neolithic tools have been found in the **Garo Hills** in the Meghalaya as well.
- **Daojali Hading** is a site on the hills near the Brahmaputra Valley, close to routes leading into China and Myanmar. Here stone tools, including mortars and pestles, have been found. These indicate that people were probably growing grain and preparing food from it.

### Chalcolithic Age

- The use of metal began towards the end of the Neolithic age and thus the Chalcolithic age. The first metal to be used was copper. Later, it was mixed with metals such as tin, zinc and lead to make new metal of alloy called **bronze**.
- The Chalcolithic man was fond of **ornaments** and **decoration**. The women wore ornaments of shell and bone. Man had invented the technique of spinning and weaving cloth.
- There were several cultures that were using stone implements along with the copper implements. Such cultures are called **Chalcolithic cultures**.
- As per scientific analysis, Chalcolithic cultures were not older than 1800 BC. They seem to have continued in some areas till 1000 BC and in other areas till 800 BC.

### The Early Settlers

- The Chalcolithic communities founded the first villages in India (not in Indian sub-continent) and cultivated barley, wheat, lentil in Western India and rice in Southern and Eastern India.
- Except for the alluvial plains, Chalcolithic cultures have been discovered almost all over the country.
- Their earliest settlements appear in **Malwa** and Central India such as those in **Kayatha** and **Eran**. Settlements in Western Maharashtra appeared later and settlements in West Bengal were the last to emerge.
- In Western Madhya Pradesh sites at **Eran**, **Kayatha** and **Navdatoli** on Narmada have been discovered. The sites in Western Maharashtra are at Jorwe, Nevasa and Daimabad in Ahmednagar district; Chandoli, Inamgaon and Songaon in Pune district and at Nasik.
- In Eastern India, **Chirand**, **Pandu Rajar Dhibi** in Burdwan district and Mahisdal in Midnapore district in West Bengal are important Chalcolithic sites. Some Chalcolithic sites have also been found in Allahabad region.

- The settlements at Kayatha and Eran in Madhya Pradesh and at Inamgaon in Western Maharashtra were fortified. On the other hand, the remains of structures in Chirand and Pandu Rajar Dhibi in Eastern India were poor in nature, giving indications of sinkholes.

### Tools and Weapons

- The people of Chalcolithic cultures used small tools and weapons made of stone. In certain settlements, copper implements are found in good numbers. At **Ahar**, stone tools are completely absent. In **Gilund**, copper blade industry has been found.
- The Chalcolithic people used different types of pottery, one of which is called Black and Red. It was wheel made and occasionally painted with white linear designs. However, people of different cultures used different types of pottery and implements.

### Known Animals

- The people living in South-Eastern Rajasthan, Western Madhya Pradesh and Western Maharashtra domesticated animals and cultivated foodgrains. They domesticated cow, sheep, goat, pig, buffalo and hunted deer.
- Remains of camel have also been found. It is not clear whether, they were acquainted with the horse. Some animal remains are identified either to the horse or donkey or wild ass.

### Food

- They used to cultivate wheat, rice, bajra, lentil, green gram, black gram and grass pea. All these foodgrains have been found at **Navadatoli** in Maharashtra. In addition, ber, linseed, ragi and cotton were also grown.
- They also ate non-vegetarian food. In Eastern India, fish hooks and remains of rice have been found, which suggests that the people in Eastern region lived on fish and rice.

### Houses

- The Chalcolithic people were not acquainted with burnt bricks. Occasionally, their houses were made up of mud bricks, but mostly these were constructed with wattle and daub and seem to have been thatched houses.
- In **Inamgaon**, in earlier phase, large mud houses with ovens and circular pit houses have been discovered. In the later phase, discovery of house with five rooms suggest that families were large.
- Settlements became stable and widespread in this phase. This is termed as **Jorwe culture** because of its type-site is provided by Jorwe, a village situated near Pravara River. Every Jorwe village was a nucleated settlement with houses of different size, circular or rectangular in shape.

### Social Inequalities

- In this phase, we also find the beginning of social inequalities. It is evidenced from the material/ remains found in the graves. In the graves at **Chandoli** and **Nevasa** in Western Maharashtra some children were buried along with copper-bead necklaces around their neck while other children had grave goods consisting only of pots.
- The Chalcolithic economy was a village economy. These people had no urban civilisation.
- Some settlements such as **Inamgaon**, **Eran**, **Kayatha** were fortified and surrounded by a **moat**.

### Art and Crafts

- A little is known about their art and crafts. They knew the art of copper smelting. They were expert coppersmiths and also good workers in stone as a large number of microliths have been found. They knew the art of **spinning** and **weaving**. **Spindle whorls** have been discovered in **Malwa** and cotton and silk have been found in Maharashtra.

### Burial Practices

- Unlike Harappans, they did not use separate cemeteries. They had different burial practices. In Maharashtra, people used to bury their dead in urns under the floor of their house in the North-to-South position, but in the South India in the East-West position.
- Almost complete or extended burial obtained in Maharashtra, but post-extraction or fractional burial prevailed in West Bengal.

### Religion

- **Terracotta** figures of women found in Inamgaon suggest that the Chalcolithic people prayed the Mother Goddess. In Malwa and Rajasthan stylised bull terracotta show that, the bull served as a religious cult.

#### Important Chalcolithic Cultures in India

Chalcolithic Culture	Sites of Chalcolithic Culture	Feature
Ahara Culture	Ahara (Rajasthan), Balathal, Gilund etc.	• The distinctive feature is black and red ware, decorated with the white designs.
Kayatha Culture (2000-1800 BC)	Near river in Chambal and its tributaries.	• The sturdy red slipped ware with chocolate, colour designs is main feature.
Malwa Culture (1700-1200 BC)	Narmada and its tributaries in Gujarat.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One of the largest Chalcolithic settlements.</li> <li>• The Malwa ware is slightly coarse in fabric, but has a thick buff surface over which designs were made either in red or black.</li> </ul>

Chalcolithic Culture	Sites of Chalcolithic Culture	Feature
Svalda Culture (2300-2000 BC)	Dhulia district of Maharashtra.	• Known for its non-Harappan culture.
Prabhas and Rangpur Culture (1700-1400 BC)	Prabhas and Rangpur, Gujarat	• Both of them are derived from the Harappa culture. The polished red ware is the hall mark of this culture.

### Importance of Chalcolithic Cultures

- Except for alluvial plains and the thickly forested areas, traces of Chalcolithic cultures have been found almost all over the country.
- They used microliths and other stone tools supplemented by a little use of copper tools. It seems that most of them knew, the art of copper smelting.
- Almost all Chalcolithic communities used black and red wheel-turned pots. They were, the first to use painted pottery. Their pots were meant for cooking, eating and storing. They used the *lota*, but there is no trace of the *thali*.
- In South India, the Neolithic phase imperceptibly faded into the stone-copper phase and so, these cultures are called **Neolithic-Chalcolithic**.
- In other parts, especially in Western Maharashtra and Rajasthan, the Chalcolithic people seems to have been colonisers.
- The Chalcolithic communities founded the first villages in India and cultivated far more cereals than is known in case of the Neolithic communities.
- The burial practices were different in Maharashtra the dead body was placed in the North-South position, but in South India, towards East-West position. Almost complete or extended burial obtained in Maharashtra, but post-extraction or fractional burial prevailed in West Bengal.

### Limitations in Chalcolithic Cultures

- In spite of a food-producing economy, the rate of Infant Mortality was very high. It is evident from the large number of children graves in Western Maharashtra.
- Though the copper metal was known but the Chalcolithic culture was a rural culture since, as a metal copper has its limitations and its supply was also limited.
- Further, people did not know the art of mixing copper with Tin and thus, forging much stronger and useful metal called **Bronze**. It was the bronze tools, which facilitated the rise of earliest civilisations.

- They also did not know the art of writing nor did they live in cities.
- Although, the Chalcolithic cultures came much later than the Indus Valley Civilisation, they did not derive any substantial benefit from the advance technological knowledge of the Indus people.

### Copper Age in India

- Hoards of copper objects have been found in a wide area ranging from the Chhota Nagpur plateau to the upper Gangetic basin but, they are concentrated in Ganga-Yamuna doab.
- The artefacts found indicate good technological skill and knowledge on the part of the copper smiths and cannot be the handwork of nomadic people or hunters.
- At several places artefacts have been discovered in association with ochre-coloured pots and some mud structures, which shows that the people who used the copper hoards led a settled life and were one of the earliest primitive agriculturists and artisans to settle in doab.
- The period covered by the **ochre-coloured pottery culture** is roughly placed between 2000 BC and 1800 BC. The end of these settlements is not clear, but the sanctity and religious purity attached to copper vessels, utensils, etc, in Hindu religion may have started in the copper age.
- The people of Copper Hoard Culture were contemporaries of Harappans and the ochre-coloured pottery area in which they lived was not far removed from that of Harappans. Therefore, some kind of barter system between these copper-using people and the bronze using Harappans can be expected.

### Megalithic Culture or Iron Age

- Till second century BC, the phenomenon of large scale agricultural communities using iron implements, rise of social classes, use of writing are not found in peninsula.
- The Southern tip of peninsular India was inhabited by the people called **megalith builders**. Megaliths usually refer to graves, which are encircled by big pieces of stone.
- The beginning of megaliths can be traced to 1000 BC, but in many cases Megalithic phase lasted from about the fifth century to first century BC and in a few places this phase persisted even up to the **early Christian era**.

- The megalithic people did not practice advance type of agriculture. It is evidenced from the fact that compared to the number of agricultural tools those meant for fighting and hunting have been found in the megaliths.
- The megaliths are found in all upland areas of peninsular India, but their concentration seems to be in Eastern Andhra and in Tamil Nadu.
- The **Chera, Chola and Pandyas** mentioned in the **Ashokan inscriptions** were probably in the megalithic phase of material culture.
- The megalithic people in the Southern districts of Tamil Nadu had certain peculiar characteristics. They buried the skeleton of the dead in urns made of red pottery in pits.
- The practice of urn-burial was different from that of pit-burial surrounded by stone circles, which practice prevailed in **Krishna-Godavari Valley**.
- The megalith is contain not only skeletons of people but also pottery and iron objects. It indicates their belief in the next world. These goods also give good idea about source of their livelihood.
- The megalithic people produced ragi and paddy but their area of cultivable land used by them was very limited and generally, they did not settle on the plains or the low lands.
- By the beginning of the **Christian era**, megalithic people moved from uplands into fertile river basins and reclaimed marshy deltaic areas.
- Under the stimulus of contact with the elements of material culture brought from the North to the South by traders, conquerors and Jain and Buddhist missionaries, they came to practice wet paddy cultivation. They also founded numerous villages and towns and came to have social classes. All these created conditions for the rise of imperial States in the Southern India.

### Historical Age

- Historical Age basically started when people started writing. With the development of literary sources, historical age also developed.
- In India, starting of historical age is considered just after **Vedic age**.

# Indus Valley Civilisation

**Sources** Class-VI Old NCERT Chap 3 (Man Takes to City Life), Class-XI Old NCERT Chap 7 (Harappa Civilisation : Bronze Age Civilisation), Class-XII New NCERT Chap 1 (Bricks, Beads and Bones : The Harappan Civilisation)

## Origin and Geographical Extent

- The Indus Valley Civilisation or Harappan culture, was discovered in 1921 at the modern site of Harappa in West Punjab in Pakistan. It covered parts of Punjab, Haryana, Sind, Baluchistan, Gujarat, Rajasthan and some areas of Uttar Pradesh.
- The area formed a triangle and accounted for about 12,99,000 km<sup>2</sup> which was larger than ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia.
- **Cunningham**, the first Director-General of the Archaeological Survey of India (ASI), began archaeological excavations of Harappan culture in the mid-19th century.
- Seals were discovered at Harappa by archaeologists such as **Daya Ram Sahni** and **RD Banerjee** in the early decades of the 20th century.
- On the basis of these findings, **John Marshall**, Director-General of the ASI, announced the discovery of a new civilisation in the Indus Valley to the world in 1924.
- **Radiocarbon dating** has determined the most acceptable time period of Indus Valley Civilisation between 2350-1750 BC.
- At that time, the Northern and Western parts of India (now in Pakistan) were covered with forests. The climate was moist and humid. The areas of Sind and Rajasthan were not deserts.
- The origin of Harappan culture is not clear. However, it is said to be evolved out of indigenous settlements.
- There are no evidences which prove that the influence of Mesopotamia or Egypt helped the rise of Harappan culture.

## Major Developments in Harappan Archaeology

Year	Development
1875	Report of Alexander Cunningham on Harappan seal.
1921	Daya Ram Sahni began excavations at Harappa.
1925	Excavations began at Mohenjodaro.
1946	REM Wheeler excavated at Harappa.
1955	SR Rao began excavations at Lothal.
1960	BB Lal and BK Thapar began excavations at Kalibangan.
1974	MR Mughal began explorations in Bahawalpur, Pakistan.
1980	A team of German and Italian archaeologists began surface explorations at Mohenjodaro.
1986	American team began excavations at Harappa .
1990	RS Bisht began excavations at Dholavira.

## Phases of Indus Valley Civilisation

The period of Harappan culture is divided into three phases which are as follows :

### Early Harappan Phase (3300 to 2600 BC)

- The Early Harappan Phase is related to the **Hakra Phase**, identified in the **Ghaggar-Hakra River Valley**.
- This phase stands characterised by centralised authority and an increasingly urban quality of life.
- Trade networks had been established and there are also evidences of the cultivation of crops. Peas, sesame seeds, dates, cotton, etc., were grown during that time.
- **Kot Diji** represents the phase leading up to Mature Harappan Phase.

### Mature Harappan Phase (2600 to 1900 BC)

- By 2600 BC, the Indus Valley Civilisation had entered into a mature stage.
- The early Harappan communities were turning into large urban centers, like **Harappa** and **Mohenjodaro** in Pakistan and **Lothal** in India.
- Sites of this phase were Harappa, Mohenjodaro, **Chanhudaro**, **Lothal**, **Kalibangan**, **Banawali**, **Sutkagendor** and **Surkotda**.

#### Extent of Indus Valley Civilisation

- **Easternmost site** Alamgirpur (Meerut, Uttar Pradesh)
- **Westernmost site** Sutkagan Dor (Baluchistan)
- **Northernmost site** Manda (Jammu)
- **Southernmost site** Daimabad (Maharashtra)

### Late Harappan Phase (1900 to 1300 BC)

- The signs of a gradual decline of the Harappan Civilisation are believed to have started around 1800 BC and by 1700 BC, most of the cities were abandoned.
- However, various elements of the ancient Harappan Civilisation can be seen in later cultures.
- Archaeological data indicates the continuation of the Late Harappan culture till 1000-900 BC.
- The late Harappan phase is found in **Rangpur** and **Rojdi** in Kathiawar peninsula (Gujarat).

#### Contemporary Civilisations of Indus Valley Civilisation

Civilisation	Banks of River	Description
Egypt	Nile river	This was the civilisation of the Pharaohs who built the pyramids at this time.
Mesopotamia (Modern Iraq)	Euphrates and Tigris rivers	This was the Sumerian civilisation and Harappans had trading contacts with it.
Hwang Ho, (China)	Hwang Ho river	—

### Cities of Indus Valley Civilisation

Some of the prominent cities of Indus Valley Civilisation are discussed below :

#### Harappa

- It is located on the banks of the river Ravi and was the first Indus site to be discovered and excavated in 1921. **Charles Masson** first visited Harappa near Sahiwal in Punjab, (now in Pakistan) in 1826-1827 and gave its earliest reference.
- In 1912, **J Fleet** discovered the Harappan seals, with promoted the excavations under **Sir John Marshall**. It was visited by **Cunningham** in 1853 and 1873.
- The Indus Valley Civilisation was originally called **Harappan Civilisation** after the discovery of this site.

#### Mohenjodaro

- It is the **largest site** of the Harappan Civilisation, discovered by **RD Banerjee** in 1922. In Sindhi language, the word 'Mohenjodaro' means **Mound of the Dead**.
- **The Great Bath of Mohenjodaro** is the most important public place, measuring 39 feet in length, 23 feet wide and 8 feet deep. It is located at the centre of the citadel and is remarkable for its beautiful brickwork. Its floor is made of burnt bricks set in gypsum and mortars.
- **The Great Granary** is the largest building, of this civilisation measuring 150 feet in length and 50 feet width. It is located within the citadel.
- Other buildings include an angular multi-pillared assembly hall and a big rectangular building which served administrative purpose.



Great Bath of Mohenjodaro

#### Chanhudaro

- It is known as the **Lancashire of India** and is the only Indus city without a citadel. Chanhudaro was perhaps a great centre of bead manufacturing.

#### Kalibangan

- The literal meaning of Kalibangan is **black bangle**. Kalibangan has the largest concentration of Harappan settlements and yields evidence of early Harappan period.
- Many houses of this city had their own wells. Three different cultural layers, (i.e.) **Indus**, **Jhukar** and **Jhangar** can be seen here.

#### Ropar

- It was the first site to be excavated after independence. Buildings found here were made of stone and soil. It is located in Punjab and has yielded a sequence of six cultural periods or phases with some break from Harappa i.e., **Painted Grey Ware (PGW) Culture**, **Northern Black Polished (NBP) Ware Culture**, Kushana, Gupta, medieval to the present day.



## Lothal

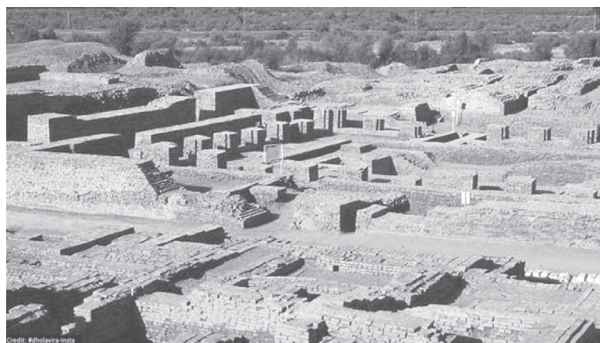
- The most unique feature of Lothal was its dockyard, the world's first tidal port. It served as a main seaport for the Indus people. **Baked bricks** with lime plaster were used in the dockyards of Lothal.
- It situated in Gujarat and served long distance trade and also supplied the cities along the banks of the Indus with raw materials such as cotton from Gujarat and copper from Rajasthan.
- Lothal has been perceived by the historians to be an outpost for sea-trade with contemporary West Asian Societies, particularly Oman.
- It is known as the **Manchester of Harappan Civilisation** for its cotton trade.

## Banawali

- It is the only Harappan city with oval-shaped settlements, radial streets and lack of systematic drainage pattern. Both **Pre-Harappan** and **Harappan phases** are found here.
- Artefacts recovered from here include, **8-shaped jars**, cooking vessels, ovens and painted earthen pots. Interestingly a **wash basin type structure** is also found in house at Banawali.

## Dholavira

- It is one of the two largest Harappan settlements in India, the other being Rakhigarhi in Haryana.
- The most unique feature of the site is its **division into three sections**. Two of these parts were protected by strong rectangular fortifications, with entrances through gateways.
- It is the **warehousing settlement** of Harappan Civilisation. Dholavira also consist of a large open area in the settlement where public ceremonies could be held.  
A public inscription with **10 large sized signs** of the Harappan scripts are also discovered here besides water reservoirs.



Dholavira

## Town Planning

- The Harappan culture is distinguished by its system of town planning.
- The city was divided into two parts i.e. the **citadel** on West and the **Lower town** on the East.

## Citadel

- The citadel was built on a mud brick platform. It was smaller in size and was walled. It was occupied by the members of the ruling class.
- Evidences of such structure are found on the citadel that were probably used for special public purposes. These include the warehouse (granary) and the Great Bath.
- **Granary** is largest building in Mohenjodaro measuring  $45.7 \times 115.23$  m. Granaries are also found in Kalibangan.
- The **Great Bath** in Mohenjodaro, which served ritual bathing, is situated in the citadel mound. It was a large rectangular tank in a courtyard surrounded by a corridor on all four sides.
- There were two flights of steps on the North and South leading into the tank, which was made watertight by setting bricks on edge and using a mortar of gypsum.
- There were rooms on three sides, in one of which was a large well. Its floor was made of burnt bricks. Water in the Great Bath was drawn from a large well in an adjacent room and an outlet from the corner of the Bath led to a drain.

## Drainage System

- One of the most distinctive features of Harappan cities was the carefully **planned drainage system**. Water flowed from the house to streets which had drains. These drains were covered with bricks or stone slabs. The street drains were equipped with manholes.
- Drainage systems were not unique to the larger cities, but also found in smaller settlements as well. For instance, at Lothal, houses were built of mud bricks, while drains were made of burnt bricks.

## Variations in Plan of Cities

- While most Harappan settlements have uniform plan, there are variations.
- At sites such as **Dholavira** and **Lothal** (Gujarat), the entire settlement was fortified and sections within the town were also separated by walls.
- The citadel within Lothal was not walled off, but was built at a height. Dholavira was divided into three parts.