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PRELIMS 2025

ANGIENT INDIA



QUICK AND COMPREHENSIVE REVISION SERIES





ANCIENT INDIA

QUICK AND COMPREHENSIVE REVISION SERIES FOR PRELIMS 2025

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1 Early History

History can be classified into three categories: **Pre-History**, **Proto-History**, and **History**.

- Pre-history covers the events before writing was invented. The three Stone Ages usually represent it.
- Proto-history, generally, refers to a period between prehistory and history when the knowledge of writing was there, but their scripts are yet to be deciphered.
 - The Harappan script has not yet been deciphered, but the civilization is mentioned in the writings of Mesopotamia.
 - Similarly, the **Vedic civilisation** from 1500–600
 BC had an oral literary tradition.
- History is the study of the past after writing was invented and the study of societies based on written and archaeological sources.

PREHISTORIC PERIOD

The **Indian Stone Age** is divided into **three main** categories.

Indian Stone Age

Age	Period	Time Frame
Old Stone Age	Palaeolithic Age	5,00,000-10,000 BCE
Late Stone Age	Mesolithic Age	10,000-6000 BCE
New Stone Age	Neolithic Age	6,000-1000 BCE

PALAEOLITHIC AGE (APPROX 3.3 MILLION YEARS TO 10,000 BP)

Introduction

 'Palaeolithic' means "Old Stone Age" and begins with the first use of stone tools. It extends from the earliest known use of stone tools by Hominins (immediate ancestor of Homo Sapiens) 3.3 million

- years ago to the end of the **Pleistocene**, or **Ice Age**, 11,650 BP (before the present period).
- Human ancestors are likely to have first evolved in Africa and later migrated to different parts of the world. The earliest human ancestor species to migrate out of Africa was Homo erectus.
- They were hunters and gatherers who lived in caves and rock shelters. They also learned to use fire later in this phase.
- They used unpolished stones like hand axes, cleavers, choppers, blades, burin, and scrapers. They are also called Quartzite men in India because they used quartzite for their tools.

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

- **Lower** Palaeolithic Age (20,00,000 60,000 BP)
- **Middle** Palaeolithic Age (3,85,000–40,000 BP)
- **Upper** Palaeolithic Age (40,000 10,000 BP)

Lower/Early Palaeolithic Age (20,00,000 – 60,000 BP)

During this phase, the human ancestor species **Homo erectus** is believed to have lived in India.

The **Narmada Valley** yielded a partial **hominid skull cap** in a **basal conglomerate** deposit in **1982**.

- This fossil is the oldest hominin fossil found in India and is known as the Narmada Man, or Sivapithecus sivalensis. It was found at Hathnora near Hoshangabad in Madhya Pradesh.
- It is considered to represent the Archaic Homo sapiens.
- It is the only existing fossil find of human ancestors in India.
- It provides direct evidence of the presence of early human ancestors on the subcontinent.

Region	Key Sites		Key Features
Northwest India	River Soan Valley (Punjab, now in Pakistan)	•	One of the earliest known Paleolithic sites in the Indian subcontinent.

Northern India	Belan Valley (Mirzapur district, Uttar Pradesh)	Rich Paleolithic and Mesolithic evidence.Presence of early microlithic tools and habitation.		
Southern India	Athirampakkam, Pallavaram, and Gudiyam (near Chennai)	 Evidence of Lower Paleolithic culture. Stone tools (hand axes and cleavers) from Acheulian tradition. 		
Deccan Plateau Hunsgi Valley and Isampur (Karnataka)		 Presence of Acheulian sites with extensive t making evidence. 		
Bhimbetka (Madhya Pradesh) Central India		 UNESCO World Heritage site. Rock shelters with Paleolithic, Mesolithic, and Neolithic evidence. 		

Lifestyle:

- The early humans of this age were primarily hunters and gatherers and lived a nomadic lifestyle.
- They hunted animals and gathered roots, nuts, and fruits. They fed on the flesh and bones of animals killed by predators.
 - In the Narmada valley, animal fossils of Elephas namadicus (giant tusked pre-historic elephant), Stegodon Ganesa (a giant prehistoric elephant), Bos namadicus (wild cattle) and Equus Namadicus (extinct great horse like animal) have been recovered.
 - At Attirampakkam teeth of Equus, evidence of Water Buffalo and Nilgai, as well as 17 animal hoof prints have been uncovered.

Equus refers to the genus of animals, including horses, asses and zebras.

- Homoerectus lived near the river valleys in caves and rock shelters, as seen from evidence in Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh and Gudiyam near Chennai.
- Homo Erectus did not have a complex language culture like Homo Sapiens. They may have expressed a few sounds or words and used sign language.

Tools:

- The first Palaeolithic tools were identified at the site of Pallavaram near Chennai by Robert Bruce Foote in 1863.
- Tools included hand axes, choppers, and cleavers, similar to tools used in Western Asia, Europe, and Africa. The tools had physical symmetry, highlighting pre-historic human's high-quality cognitive (perception) skills and capabilities.

Acheulian Culture vs Sohanian Culture

Aspect Acheulian Culture		Sohanian Culture			
Tool Types	Mainly hand axes and cleavers.	Choppers and chopping tools.			
Geographical Spread Found more in Central and South-Eastern India (near Chennai); absent in Western Ghats, coastal, and North-Eastern India due to heavy rainfall.		after the Sohan river valley in Pakistan.			
Distinctive Features	Well-documented sites across India.	Limited documentation, specific to the northwestern region.			

Middle Palaeolithic Age (3,85,000–40,000 BP)

- During this phase, changes took place in lithic technology, and the species of human ancestors diverged due to behavioural modernity.
- In India, this phase was first identified by H.D. Sankalia on the Pravara River at Nevasa (Ahmadnagar, Maharastra).
- While the African Middle Stone Age is associated with the Homo sapiens, it is associated with the Neanderthals in Europe.
 - No hominin fossil bone evidence has been found in India during this time.

Neanderthals

- They lived in **Eurasia** from approximately 400,000 to 40,000 years ago.
- They were a **species of archaic humans** closely related to modern humans, sharing a common ancestor.
- Distribution: Found in Narmada, Godavari, Krishna, and Yamuna areas and south of the Tungabhadra River and Soan River Valley.
- Ways of Life: The human ancestors were huntergatherers and lived in open-air, cave, and rock shelter sites.

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- Tools: Prominent tools include hand axes, cleavers, choppers, chopping tools, scrapers, projectile points or shouldered points, and knives on flakes; the flake **industry** was predominant with tools like scrapers. points, and borers.
 - The tools became smaller, and there was a decrease in the use of hand axes in relation to other tools.
 - Chert, jasper, chalcedony, and quartz were used to make tools.

Upper Palaeolithic Age (40,000 – 10,000 BP)

- Modern humans evolved in Africa around 300,000 years ago, migrated to Asia by 60,000 years ago, and possibly introduced the Upper Palaeolithic culture in India.
- This period is marked by innovation in tool technology and increased cognitive capability in humans.

Site distribution

Region	Sites	
Karnataka	Meralbhavi	
Andhra Pradesh	Kurnool Caves	
Telangana	Godavarikhani	
Madhya Pradesh	Baghor I, Baghor III (Son Valley), Bhimbetka, Bhopal	
Maharashtra	Patne	
Jharkhand	Chotanagpur Plateau	

Ostrich egg shells from the Upper Palaeolithic sites of Bhimbetka and Patne (Jalgaon, Maharashtra) have been dated to 25,000 years before the present.

Way of Life:

- The people of this period used **caves** as well as the open-air space for living.
- Evidence of art appears in the form of paintings, beads and ornaments. Some of the Green colour paintings of **Bhimbetka** date to this period.
- Incised ostrich eggshell, shell and stone beads of this period, have been found at Iwalapuram in Andhra Pradesh, Patne in Maharashtra.

Upper Palaeolithic Shrine

A shrine-like structure is found at Baghor, Uttar **Pradesh**, it is the earliest known evidence of a shrine in India.

It is indicated by a block of sandstone surrounded by a rubble circle, similar to the contemporary shrines.

- Tools: It was based on blade and bone tool technologies. Bone tools and faunal remains have been found in Kurnool caves in Andhra Pradesh.
 - Microliths (tiny stone tools) were introduced, and these tools were made using different varieties of silica-rich raw materials.

MESOLITHIC AGE (10,000-1,000 BC)

The Mesolithic Age in India is believed to have started around the end of the last Ice Age and continued till the inception of the Neolithic Age.

The date of the Mesolithic culture varies in different parts of the world. This culture is assigned to preagricultural times in certain areas. In the Levant (Eastern Mediterranean), they are dated between 20,000 and 9500 BC.

Climate:

- After the Ice Age, with the advent of global warming, human groups became highly mobile and began to occupy various ecozones.
- Monsoon pattern emerged, with some regions witnessing higher rainfall. Freshwater lakes were known to exist at **Didwana** in western Rajasthan.
- The animal bones from this period suggest a dry, **deciduous type of forest** during the Mesolithic period.
- **Geographical Distribution:** Mesolithic locations can be discovered throughout India, spanning a range of eco-zones from the coastline to the mountains.
 - Sites: Paisra (Bihar); Langhnaj (Gujarat); Baghor II, Chopani Mando, Sarai Nahar Rai, Mahadaha and Damdama (all in Uttar Pradesh); Sankanakallu and Kibbanahalli (Karnataka).
 - Rock shelter sites are found in Lekhakia and Baghai Khor in Uttar Pradesh; Adamgarh and Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh.
 - Coastal sites are seen at Mumbai; teri sites (a coastal landscape caused by sand dunes) of Thoothukudy in Tamil Nadu and Vishakapatnam.
- Life-Styles: Subsistence hunting and gathering.
 - **Agriculture** was **not practised** in the early stages, but at the end of the Mesolithic period, humans domesticated plants and animals (paving the way for the Neolithic way of life).
 - The people **used fire** and perhaps **roasted food.**
 - **Domestic animal bones** of cattle, sheep, goats, pig and dog have been found at Kanewal, Loteshwar and Ratanpur in Gujrat and from Adamgarh and Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh.
 - Camel bones have been found from Kanewal.



- The Mesolithic people were highly mobile. They moved in search of animals and plant food. They made temporary huts and also used caves and rock shelters.
- Traces of oval and circular huts and possible wattle daub are found in Chopani Mando and Damdama in Uttar Pradesh and Bagor and Tilwara in Rajasthan.
- Characteristic Tools: They used microlithic tools to suit the changes in flora and fauna. These tools enabled them to hunt smaller animals and birds.
- Art and Culture:
 - A chert stone with geometric engravings was found in Chandravati in Rajasthan, bone objects and human tooth engraved with geometric design from Bhimbetka.
 - Rock paintings are found in the rock shelters of Madhya Pradesh and Central India. They show people hunting, trapping animals and fishing and dancing.
 - Bhimbetka near Bhopal, Raisen and Pachmarhi in Madhya Pradesh and South Mirzapur in Uttar Pradesh are some of the sites with evidence of art.
 - Bhimbetka paintings show that various animals were hunted and for this men and women went together.

- Burials: People buried the dead, which suggests their beliefs.
 - Human skeletons have been found in Mahadaha,
 Damdama, and Sarai Nahar Rai in Uttar Pradesh.
 - At Mahadaha, a man and a woman were buried together.
 - They buried the dead along with grave goods. One burial had an ivory pendant as the grave good.

THE NEW STONE AGE OR NEOLITHIC AGE

The period started around 10,000 BC and marked the **beginning of agriculture** and **animal domestication**.

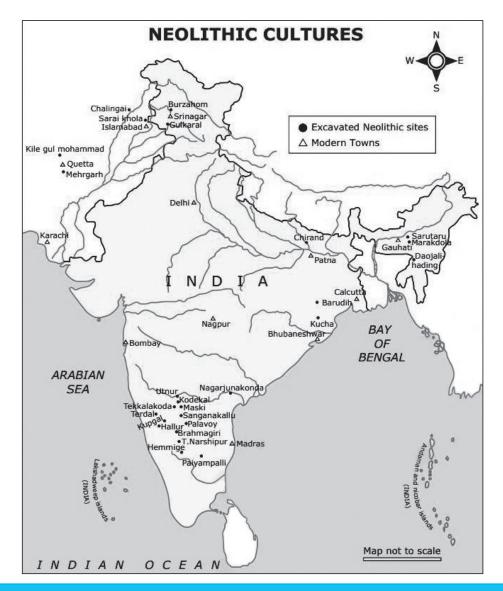
 Early evidences of Neolithic culture are found in the fertile region of Egypt and Mesopotamia, Indus region, Ganges valley of India and also in China.

Neolithic Revolution

- The development of agriculture led to surplus food production, resulting in the rise of civilisations.
- Large villages came to exist, alongwith the development of pottery and the building of permanent residences.
- Characteristic Tools: Polished stone, stone axes, microlith blades.

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Neolithic Sites and their Characteristics

The Neolithic culture of north-western India is the earliest to have evidence of plant and animal domestication in India. Neolithic sites in **Northwest India: Mehrgarh, Rana Ghundai, Sarai Kala and Jalilpur.** These sites are now situated in Pakistan.

Mehrgarh has produced evidence of early Neolithic times, dating to 7000 BC. Wheat and Barley were

- cultivated and sheep, goat and cattle were domesticated. This culture preceded the Indus Civilisation.
- 1st cultural phase (7000-5500 BC) of Mehergarh cultivated crops and domesticated animals, but did not use pottery.
 - They cultivated six-row barley, emmer and einkorn wheat, jujube, ilanthai, and dates.
 - They were semi-nomadic, pastoral groups, built their houses with mud and buried the dead.
 - They used sea shells, limestone, turquoise, lapis lazuli, and sandstone ornaments.
- 2nd cultural phase (5500-4800 BC) and 3rd phase (4800-3500 BC) of Mehergarh
 - They practised long-distance trade (revealed by Lapis Lazuli, which is available only in Badakshan).
 - Evidence for pottery during these periods.
 - Terracotta figurines and glazed faience beads have been found.

Early Dentistry in the Neolithic Mehrgarh

From the Neolithic period, people began to eat ground grain and cooked food, which caused dental and other health problems. The earliest evidence for **drilling human tooth** (of a living person) has been found at **Mehrgarh**. It is seen as a prelude to dentistry.

Valley of Kashmir

- Burzahom, an important site of this culture, provides evidence for the Megalithic and Early Historic Periods.
- People lived in **pit dwellings** to escape the **cold weather**. The houses were **oval** in shape, wide at the bottom and narrow at the top.
- They used bone & stone tools. There was evidence of **menhirs** (standing stone) and the use of **redware pottery** and metal objects. They used **copper arrowheads**.
- The people **practised agriculture** and **domesticated animals**.
- Seeds of wheat, barley, common pea and lentil have been recovered from the excavations. The **use of lentil** suggests that they had contacts with **Central Asia**.
- They were **contemporary** to **Harappa civilization** and **traded** with them.
- **Two phases** of **Neolithic culture** have been identified. They are termed **aceramic** and **ceramic phases**. Aceramic phase did not have evidence of ceramics. The ceramic phase shows evidence of pottery.
- They also used **black ware pottery**, beads of **agate** and **carnelian and painted pottery**.
- A burial site produced **wild dog bone and antler horn**. An engraving of a hunting scene is depicted on a stone with dog and sun.

Ganges Valley and Central India

- Lehuradeva, Chopani Munda, Koldiwa and Mahagara in Uttar Pradesh; Chirand and Senuwar in Bihar are major sites.
- The site of Lehuradeva (Uttar Pradesh) has produced early evidence of rice cultivation dated to 6500 BC.
- These sites also have evidence of pottery and plant and animal domestication. These sites are characterised by cord-marked pottery.
- Evidence for the **cultivation of hulled and six-rowed barley**, several types of wheat, rice, pea, green gram, and gram/chicken pea, mustard, flax/linseed and jackfruit have been found.
- Sheep, goat and cattle bones have been found besides bones of wild animals.

East India

- The Neolithic sites are found at many sites in Bihar and West Bengal.
- Birbhanpur, Chirand, Kuchai, Golbaisasan, and Sankarjang are important sites.
- Tools like pointed butt, celts, chisel and shouldered axes have been found.

South India (Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and the North-western part of Tamil Nadu)

- Tools used include stone axes and blades.
- **Fire-baked earthen figurines** are found suggesting cattle keeping.
- These sites have **ash mounds** in the centre with settlements around them. **Utnur** and **Palvoy in Andhra Pradesh** and **Kodekal, Kupgal** and **Budihal** in **Karnataka** feature ash mound sites.
- These sites are found near the **granite hills with water sources**.
- These sites are found in the **river valleys** of Godavari, Krishna, Pennaru, Tungabhadra and Kaveri.
- Major sites include:
 - o Karnataka: Sanganakallu, Tekkalakota, Brahmagiri, Maski, Piklihal, Watkal, Hemmige and Hallur;
 - **Andhra Pradesh:** Nagarjunakonda, Ramapuram, and Veerapuram;
 - Tamil Nadu: Paiyyampalli.

North East India (Assam and Garo Hills)

- The culture dates from 2500-1500 BC.
- Tools like **shouldered axes and splayed celts** were found at the sites in Assam, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Arunachal Pradesh.
- Daojali Hading and Sarutaru are important sites bearing evidence for shifting cultivation.
- The cultivation of yams and taro, **building stone and wooden memorials** for the **dead**, and the presence of **Austro-Asiatic languages** are the marked features of this region.

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- Rice cultivation in the sixth millennium BC was found in northern Vindhya spurs, Mirzapur, Allahabad, and Balochistan, suggesting ancient agriculture.
- The later Neolithic settlers were agriculturists who lived in circular or rectangular houses made of mud and reed, leading a settled life.
 - Agricultural produce includes Ragi and horse gram (kulathi).
- Hand-made pottery is found in the early stages. Later, they used foot wheels to turn up pots.

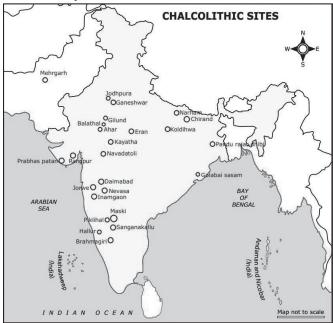
On the northern spurs of the **Vindhyas in the Belan Valley** all three phases of the Palaeolithic, followed by the Mesolithic and Neolithic phases, have been found in sequence.

CHALCOLITHIC PERIOD (2600-1200 BC)

Towards the end of the Neolithic period, the use of metals began, with the **first metal being copper**. **Chalcolithic** period witnessed the combined use of stone and copper tools.

- The Pre-Harappan cultures are the earliest Chalcolithic cultures of India which were found in the time before the beginning of the mature phase of the Harappan culture and continued to exist even after the decline of Harappan civilization.
- In the northwestern and western regions of India, the early farming cultures are associated with the

- **Chalcolithic cultures** rather than the Neolithic cultures. Their traces are found all over the country, except for the **alluvial plains** and **thickly forested areas**.
- Tools: They used small tools and weapons, such as stone axes, and the stone blade industry flourished.
 Copper objects such as flat axes, bangles, rings, antimony rods, knives etc. were found.



Early Chalcolithic Sites

Region	ı Key Sites Key Featu		Economy/ Subsistence
South-eastern Rajasthan	Ahar, Gilund, Ganeshwar	Ahar: Absence of stone axes or blades Gilund: Stone-blade industry Ganeshwar: Copper supply to Harappa [UPSC 2021]	Hunting and agriculture
Western Madhya Pradesh	Kayatha, Eran (Malwa), Navdatoli (Narmada)	Evidence of Chalcolithic settlements	Hunting and agriculture
Uttar Pradesh	Multiple sites in the Allahabad region, proximity to Vindhyas	Multiple Chalcolithic settlements	Hunting and agriculture
Western Maharashtra	Jorwe, Nevasa, Daimabad (Ahmadnagar), Chandoli, Songaon, Inamgaon (Pune)	Jorwe: Flat and rectangular copper axes Chandoli: Evidence of copper chisels [UPSC 2024]	Hunting, agriculture, and early metallurgy
Eastern India	Chirand (Ganga River), Pandu Rajar Dhibi, Mahishdal (West Bengal)	Eastern Chalcolithic settlements	Hunting and agriculture
Andhra Pradesh	Kodekal, Utnur, Nagatjunikonda, Palavoy	Some Chalcolithic elements; absence of copper objects	Hunting and agriculture

Pottery:

- Mainly black-and-red ware, that was wheel-based, and painted with white linear designs are found.
- People living in Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra produced channel-spouted pots, dishes-on-stand and bowls-on-stand.

Ochre Coloured Pottery Ware culture (2600-1200 BC)

It is found in northern India in the Indo-Gangetic plain dating to the Chalcolithic period.

- The sites produced copper figures and objects, and therefore it is also known as "copper hoard culture."
- It is a rural culture and has evidence of agriculture and animal rearing.
- The villages had wattle-and-daub houses.
- They used **copper and terracotta ornaments**. Animal figurines have also been found.

Domestication of Animals and Food Grains

• Animals:

- The Chalcolithic people domesticated animals in addition to agriculture.
- Their acquaintance with horses is not clear.
- In eastern India, fish hooks have been found in Bihar and West Bengal.

Food grains

- Wheat, rice, bajra, and pulses such as the lentil (masur), black gram, green gram, and glass pea were cultivated.
- Eastern India produced rice, Western India cultivated barley and wheat, Deccan India produced cotton in the black soil and lower Deccan produced ragi, bajra and several other millets.

Houses

- Their settlements were sedentary or semi-sedentary and their construction featured mud bricks (rarely burnt bricks), wattle and daub, and thatched houses. They were built on a stone foundation.
- Silos (well-prepared pits) meant for storage of grains have also been found.
- In an earlier Chalcolithic phase at Inamgaon, large mud houses and circular pit houses were discovered.

- The Jorwe culture (near the Pravara River, Maharashtra) had a cluster of houses of varying shapes, highlighting village settlements.
- Settlements like Inamgaon, Eran, and Kayatha had fortifications and moats, but urban civilization was absent.

Arts and crafts: The people were proficient **coppersmiths** with skill in **stonework** and produced numerous microliths (tiny stone tools). They had knowledge of spinning and weaving and expertise in **cloth manufacturing**.

Burial Practises (regional variation): In **Maharashtra**, burials occurred under house floors in **north to south position**, whereas in South India, the position was **east to west.**

 Almost complete or extended burial (lying flat with arms and legs straight, or with the arms folded upon the chest) was obtained in Maharashtra. Postextraction or fractional burial prevailed in West Bengal.

Religious Worship: Terracotta figurines, such as **female figurines** (indicate reverence for the **mother goddess**), stylized bull terracottas **in Malwa and Rajasthan**, symbolised a religious cult.

Society: Emergence of **social inequalities**.

 Graves at Chandoli and Nevasa in western Maharashtra revealed differences in burial goods for children.

Importance of the Chalcolithic Phase

- Proficiency in copper smelting
- First to use painted pottery for cooking, eating, and storage.
- Founded the **first village in India** and had surplus food production.

Limitations of Chalcolithic Cultures

- High infant mortality observed in western Maharashtra, despite a food-producing economy.
- It was predominantly rural with limited copper supply and pliant copper tools;
 - **Bronze-tools** were practically **absent** in the chalcolithic phase in the major part of India.

IRON AGE (1100-800 BC)

The iron age witnessed **two different cultures** flourishing in the northern and southern parts of the Indian subcontinent.

	Aspect	Iron Age in North India	Iron Age in South india / Megalithic	
7	ime Period	1100 to 800 BC	No distinctive timeline as the Neolithic burial practices continued into the Megalithic period.	

Ancient India ONLYÏAS

Pottery	Painted Grey Ware pottery, primarily in Ganga-Yamuna valley.	Presence of black-ware pottery, mainly in burial mounds in Tamil Nadu. Black-ware pottery is not found in human habitations .	
Subsequent Culture	Followed by Northern Black Polished Ware culture , associated with the Mahajanapada and Mauryan periods.	Find of Megalithic nilrial practices aroling the	
Social and Economic Development	Reflects agricultural and pastoral development , leading to the growth of settlements and population.		

MEGALITHIC SITES IN INDIA

[UPSC-2024]

Site	Location	Key Features	Artifacts Found	Type of Burials	Timeline
Adichanallur	Tamil Nadu	Burial mound; megalithic culture	Iron objects, gold diadems, pottery	Urn burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Paiyampalli	Vellore, Tamil Nadu	Black-and-red ware pottery	Iron implements, beads	Urn burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Kodumanal	Erode, Tamil Nadu	Pit burials, urn burials, and chamber tombs	Iron tools, beads of carnelian and quartz	Pit burials, urn burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Brahmagiri	Karnataka	Stone circle burials; Neolithic to Megalithic transition	Iron tools, ornaments, red- and-black ware pottery	Cist burials	1000 BCE-200 CE
Hirebenkal	Karnataka	Largest megalithic site in South India	Pottery, iron tools, figurines	Dolmenoid cists, menhirs	800 BCE-200 CE
Maski	Karnataka	First site to mention the name "Ashoka"	Iron implements, black-and-red ware	Cist burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Sangarampet	Andhra Pradesh	Cist burials and dolmens	Stone tools, pottery	Dolmenoid cists	1000 BCE-300 CE
Hallur	Karnataka	Early use of iron; agricultural settlements	Pottery, iron implements	Cist burials	1000 BCE-200 CE
Porkalam	Kerala	Stone circles and urn burials	Pottery, beads, iron implements	Urn burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Amritamangalam	Tamil Nadu	Stone circles and cairn burials	Iron objects, beads	Cairn burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Jorwe	Maharashtra	Chalcolithic and Megalithic continuity	Black-and-red ware, copper objects	Pit burials, urn burials	1400 BCE-700 BCE
Chandravalli	Karnataka	Evidence of megalithic settlements	Pottery, copper and iron implements	Pit burials	1000 BCE-200 CE
Junapani	Maharashtra	Stone circles and megalithic graves	Pottery, iron implements, beads	Stone circle burials	1000 BCE-300 CE
Gufkral	Kashmir	Neolithic-Megalithic transition; early agriculture	Stone tools, pottery	Pit burials	2000 BCE-1000 BCE

Rajankolur	Karnataka	Dolmens and cairn burials	Iron tools, pottery	Dolmens	800 BCE-200 CE
Nagarjunakonda	Andhra Pradesh	Cairn burials and dolmens	Pottery, beads, iron tools	Cairn burials, dolmenoid cists	200 BCE-300 CE

POTTERY CULTURES IN ANCIENT INDIA

Pottery Culture	Timeline	Characteristics	Important Places
Ochre Coloured Pottery Ware	2600-1200 BCE	Rural culture with agriculture and animal rearing; copper hoard artifacts; wattle-and-daub houses.	
Black-and-Red Ware (Chalcolithic)	2600-1000 BCE	Wheel-based pottery; white linear painted designs; dishes-on-stand and bowls-on-stand.	_
Painted Grey Ware (PGW)	1200-600 BCE	Associated with early Vedic culture; grey pottery with painted geometric designs; associated with domestication.	Hastinapur, Ahichchhatra, Atranjikhera, and Bhagwanpura (Indo-Gangetic plain).
Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW)	700–200 BCE	Luxury ware; glossy black surface with burnished texture; associated with urbanization and Mauryan period.	Pataliputra, Taxila, Sravasti, and Kaushambi.
Red Ware with Ochre Wash	300 BCE- 200 CE	Pottery often used for storage; simple designs; associated with trade and daily life.	Vidarbha region, Gujarat, and Andhra Pradesh.
Black Ware and Buff Ware	200 BCE- 300 CE	Simple utility pottery; black and buff hues; associated with rural and semi-urban settlements.	Central India and South India.
Gupta Period Pottery	300-600 CE	Fine red ware; stamped designs and molded decoration; related to cultural and religious activities.	1









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Indus Valley Civilization





The Indus Valley Civilization, or the **Harrapan Culture**, appeared in the **northwestern** part of India and Pakistan in the **third millennium BC** and represents the **first**

phase of urbanisation in India. This civilisation appeared gradually with the beginnings of the **Neolithic villages** in the region dating back to about 7000 BC at the **Mehrgarh** (**Balochistan, Pakistan**).

Harappan culture is divided into various phases:

Phase	Important sites	Features
Early Harappan or Regionalisation (3300- 2600 BC)	Harappa, Kot Diji, Amri	Fortification, grid planning, development of incipient trade network and craft specialisation
Transitional Phase	Kunal, Dholavira, Harappa	An increasing level of craft specialisation, an organised irrigation system, a partly standardized repertoire of pottery designs and forms.
Mature Harappan or Integration (2600- 1800 BC)	Mohenjo-Daro, Harappa, Kalibangan, Dholavira	Full-scale urbanisation, the emergence of writing and uniformity in artefacts, a full-fledged trade.
Late Harappan or Localisation (Post 1800- 1300 BC)	Cemetery at Harappa, Siswal, Rojdi, Rangpur	Decline and abandonment of some sites, rise of pastoral mode.

Geographical Extension

North: Shortugai (Afghanistan)
 West: Sutkagendor on the Pakistan-Iran border

East: Alamgirpur (Uttar Pradesh, India) South: Daimabad (Maharashtra, India)

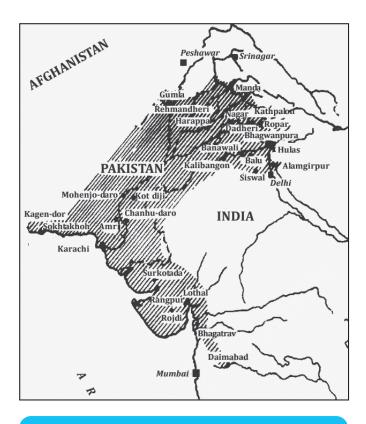
Its core areas were in Pakistan, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and Haryana.

IMPORTANT SITES AND FEATURES

Site	Features	
Harappa State - Punjab (Pakistan) River- Ravi	 First archaeological site of the Indus Valley civilization to be discovered, that's why the civilization is named after it. Two rows of six Granaries, Male torso (Red sandstone), Stone symbols of lingam and Yoni, Mother Goddess and Dice, Mother goddess. 	
Mohenjo-daro State - Sindh (Pakistan) River - Indus	 Post cremation burial, Great Granary, Great Bath (largest building), Seal with Pashupathi and mother goddess, Bronze statue of the dancing girl, Bronze buffalo, bearded man. It had a planned town built on a platform, having two distinct areas. One is identified as a citadel and the other as the lower town. 	
Chanhu-daro State - Sindh (Pakistan) River - Indus	Exclusively devoted to craft production , including bead-making, shell-cutting, met working, seal-making and Weight-making, dog's paw imprint on brick, Terracotta mod of bullock cart, and Bronze toy cart.	

 Important naval trade site, Port and Dockyard, Granaries, Rice husk, Double burial (male and female together). The Citadel was not walled off but was built at a height. The entire settlement was fortified, and sections within the town were also separated by walls. 	
 UNESCO World Heritage Site. Unique water harvesting and system and its stormwater drainage system Megalithic stone circle, specialised drill, giant water reservoirs [UPSC 2021] Stone was used in construction. An ancient signboard had been found with letters engraved on it. Only site is divided into 3 parts (Citadel, Middle town and Lower town). The entire settlement was fortified, and sections within the town were also separated by walls. 	
Oval grave, Pot burials.	
Bangle factory, Ploughed field surface, Camel bones, Fire altars, Bronze figure of a bull .	
 Centre of Pre-Harappan, Mature and Late Harappan civilisation. Oval-shaped settlement, Barley grains, Lapis Lazuli (blue gem), Fire altars. Lack of systematic drainage and the only city with Radial streets. 	
 First site to be excavated after independence. Dog buried with human; oval pit burials. A copper axe was found. 	
 Largest site of IVC, discovery of two mounds around 2016 led to archaeologists believing Rakhigarhi to be the largest IVC site. Shows all three phases of Harappa Culture. 	
Remains of both pre-Harappan and mature Harappan culture: Yellow and grey colour pots of pre-Harappan people.	
Late Harappan Culture.A broken copper blade and an impression of cloth on a trough.	
Bronze images (charioteer with chariot, ox, elephant and rhinoceros).	
 The fortification was made of mud bricks and stone. 'Wellfired red and buff wares' pottery is found with common motifs like horned deity, pipal leaves and fish scales executed in black. 	
Pre-Harappan settlement; Transitional culture between pre and post-Harappan culture; actual remains of rhinoceros .	
 Ash-filled pot, copper axe, earthen bangles & pottery. Originally a port later cut off from sea due to coastal upliftment; had trade links with Babylon. 	





ARCHAEOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS

1826	Harappa was first visited by Charles Mason .		
1875	Report of Alexander Cunningham on Harappan seals. (the first surveyor (1861) of the Archaeological Survey of India.)		
1921	M.S. Vats begins excavations at Harappa		
1925	Excavations begin at Mohenjodaro		
1946	R.E.M. Wheeler excavates at Harappa		
1955	S.R. Rao begins excavations at Lothal		
1960	B.B. Lal and B.K. Thapar began excavations at Kalibangan		
1990	R.S. Bisht begins excavations at Dholavira		

Alexander Cunningham visited the site in 1853, 1856 and 1875.

Sir John Marshal took over as the **Director General of ASI** and initiated research at Harappa Site. He played an important role in the development of archaeology in India.

POLITY

 Central authority may have contributed to uniform cultures like pottery, seals, weights, bricks, script and labour mobilisation.

- Some archaeologists were of the opinion that there were no rulers and everybody enjoyed equal status.
 Others feel there was no single ruler but several, that Mohenjodaro had a separate ruler, Harappa another, and so forth.
- Rulers were possibly the class of merchants. Priests were not the rulers as they were in the cities of lower Mesopotamia.

TOWN PLANNING AND STRUCTURES

Harappan civilisation was distinguished by its system of civic planning. Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro, Dholavira, Lothal, Surkotada, Kalibangan, Banawali, and Rakhigarhi were the major cities in the Harappan period. In most cases, the cities were divided into two parts:

- Lower Part The common citizenry lived and carried on their professional lives in this part of the city.
- Citadel or Acropolis/Raised Part This part occupied a smaller area and was frequently situated west of the city. It contained public buildings, granaries, and essential workshops.

Lower Towns

- City planning followed a grid pattern, with streets cutting at right angles.
- Planning also involved **laying streets first**, then building houses along them.
 - The streets were broad, dividing the town into rectangular and square blocks.
- For construction, they used **burnt bricks and stones**.
 - The houses were built of mud bricks and drainages of burnt bricks.
 - The bricks were of identical 1: 2: 4 ratio in terms of thickness, width, and length across all Harappan structures.

The contemporary buildings in **Egypt** mainly used **dried bricks** for construction. We find the use of **baked bricks** in contemporary **Mesopotamia**, but they were used to a much larger extent in the Harappan cities.

- The houses had bathrooms paved with burnt bricks and proper drains.
- Houses varied in size, with two or more stories and multiple rooms, but were quite monotonous.
- Many of the houses had a **central courtyard** with rooms all around.
- The courtyard was the centre of the residential building, with rooms on all sides. It was the centre of activities such as cooking and weaving.
- In **Kalibangan** many houses had **wells**, often in a room that could be reached from the outside and perhaps used by passers-by.

Drainage System

Every house was connected to the street drains. The main channels were made of bricks set in mortar and were covered with loose bricks or limestone that could be removed for cleaning. House drains first emptied into a sump or cesspit into which solid matter settled while wastewater flowed out into the street drains. Very long drainage channels were provided at intervals with sumps for cleaning.

Citadel

- It was constructed on a mud-brick platform and was physically separated from Lower Town through a wall.
- It had important **residential structures**, possibly occupied by members of the ruling class.
- It contained structures that were used for particular public purposes. These include the Great Bath and the Warehouse (Granary).

The Great Bath (Mohenjo-daro) - It was meant for some kind of special **ritual bath**.

- It was a large rectangular tank in a courtyard surrounded by a corridor on all four sides.
- The floor of the bath was made of burnt bricks.
- There were side rooms for changing clothes.
- The bricks were laid watertight with gypsum mortar.
- **Granaries:** They constituted an important part of the Harappan sites.
 - The Great Granary was the largest building in Mohenjo-daro.
 - There were six granaries in the citadel of Harappa.
 Circular brick platforms were evidently meant for threshing grains because wheat and barley have been found in the crevices of the floors.
 - At **Kalibangan**, the southern part of the brick platform may have been used for granaries.

RELIGIOUS PRACTICES

- It was a secular civilisation, and the religious element, though present, did not dominate the scene. [UPSC 2011]
- No temples were found; worship was inferred from statues and figurines. [UPSC 2013]
- The Harappans looked upon the Earth as a fertility goddess. (inference from a plant growing out of the embryo of a woman in one of the terracotta figurines).

Only from the sixth century AD various mother goddesses, such as Durga, Amba, Kali, Chandi etc, came to be regarded as goddesses in the Purana and in the Tantra literature. In the course of time, every village came to have its own separate goddesses.

- The male deity is represented on a seal with three heads and three horns represented in the sitting posture of a yogi. He is surrounded by elephants, tigers, rhinoceros, and buffalo below his throne. The seal can be recalled as the traditional image of 'Pasupati Mahadeva' (Proto-Shiva).
- Religious Practices include Yoni worship, Phallic (lingam) worship, zoolatry (animal worship), use of fire altar and tree worship (especially pipal tree).
- **Amulets** have been found in large numbers, probably to ward off **ghosts** and **evil forces**.

HARAPPAN SCRIPT

- The oldest script in the Indian subcontinent, written from **right to left.**
- The script has not been deciphered so far and does not show any connection with the West Asian script.
- Most inscriptions were recorded on seals and contain only a few words. They did not write long inscriptions, unlike the Egyptians and Mesopotamians.
 - The longest text has about twenty-six signs.
- It was **not alphabetical** (where each sign stands for a vowel or a consonant), as it had just **too many pictographs** (between 250 and 400).
- It enabled the recording of private property and the keeping of accounts.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

- Since Harappans were involved in commercial transactions, they needed standard measures.
- Weights were usually made of chert stone and were generally cubical with no markings.
- Units of **weight** were in multiples of **16**; for instance, 16, 64, 160, 320 and 640 were used.
 - The tradition of 16 has continued in India with 16 annas making one rupee.
- They used a binary **numbering system** (1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, etc.).
- For **measurement**, sticks inscribed with measure marks were found; one was made of bronze.
 - They also used a measuring scale in which one inch was around 1.75 cm.

SOCIETY

- The society was predominantly urban, mainly comprising the middle classes.
- Three distinct social groups were rulers, wealthy merchants, and poor labourers in the city's lower parts.

Burials: Fire altars have been identified at **Kalibangan**. They **buried the dead**. Burials were made elaborately and evidence of cremation is also reported. The Harappan

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burials have pottery, ornaments, jewellery, copper mirrors and beads. These suggest their belief in an **afterlife**.

- Jewellery has been found in burials of both men and women.
- The dead were generally laid in pits. Sometimes, there
 were differences in how the burial pit was made in
 some instances, the hollowed-out spaces were lined
 with bricks.

Lifestyle:

- Men and women wore separate attire, similar to the dhoti and shawl.
- Cinnabar was used as a cosmetic, and facepaint, lipstick, and collyrium (eyeliner) were also known to them.

Artefacts:

Rare objects made of **valuable materials** are generally concentrated in large settlements like Mohenjodaro and Harappa and are rarely found in smaller settlements.

- Miniature pots of faience, perhaps used as perfume bottles, were found mostly in Mohenjodaro and Harappa.
- All the gold jewellery found at Harappan sites was recovered from hoards.

AGRICULTURE

It was an important source of subsistence for the Harappans. The agricultural surplus was an important stimulus for a number of developments.

Evidence of Agriculture in Harappan Civilization

Evidence Type	Description	Sites	
Terracotta Models of Ploughs	Models of ploughs indicating agricultural practices. Cholistan, Banawali		
Ploughed Fields	Fields with two sets of furrows at right angles, suggesting double cropping system.		
Rice Cultivation	Evidence of rice cultivation. Lothal (1800 BC), Ra (Gujarat)		
Bull Representations	Seals and terracotta sculptures of bulls, likely used for ploughing.	Multiple sites (common across Harappan sites)	

- Other features:
 - Main crops include wheat, barley, lentils, chickpeas, sesame, mustard, and millets.
 - Used **animal-drawn** wooden plough and stone sickles.
- **Irrigation**: They used both canal and well irrigation.
- Cereals were received as **taxes** from peasants and stored in **granaries** for **wage payments** and emergencies, similar to Mesopotamia.

Animal Domestication

Pastoralism was also practised by the Harappans.

Category	Known to the Harappans	Not Known to the Harappans
Domesticated Animals	Zebu (humped cattle), oxen, buffaloes, goats, sheep, pigs, fowl, dogs, cats, asses, camels	Horse
Wild Animals	Boar, deer, gharial, elephants, rhinoceros (evidence from Amri)	Lion
Birds	Peacock (possibly the haja-bird mentioned in Mesopotamian myths)	-

TRADE AND COMMERCE

- Evidence of Trade:
 - The Harappan seals and materials have been found in Sumerian (in Oman, Bahrain, Iraq and Iran) and Mesopotamian sites, and Harappans imitated some cosmetics used by the urban people of Mesopotamia.
- The **Cuneiform Inscriptions** mention:
 - Trade contact between Mesopotamia and Harappans.
 - "Meluha (land of seafarers in Mesopotamian text)", referring to the Indus region.

- The Mesopotamian texts mention two intermediate trading stations, **Dilmun** (Bahrain) and **Makan** (Makran coast), which lay between Mesopotamia and Meluha.
- The discovery of a dockyard in the port city of Lothal (Gujarat) suggests the long-distance trade of the Harappans.
- Means of transport: included bullock carts and boats.

The use of **wheels** and **Carts** with solid wheels were known to them. Their carts were similar to modern ekka (Horse carriage).

- No metallic money was in circulation, and trade was conducted by means of barter.
- Import: Minerals from Iran and Afghanistan, lead and copper from parts of India, jade from China, and cedarwood from the Himalayas and Kashmir region.

Harappan Imports Sources			
Gold : Afghanistan, Iran, Kolar (South India)			
Tin: Afghanistan, Iran	Lead: South India	Lapis lazuli: Shortughai (Afghanistan)	
Jade: Pamir	Steatite: Tapi Chahya (Iran)	Turquoise: Iran	

• **Exports:** Agricultural products, cotton goods, terracotta figurines, beads from Chanhudaro, conch-shell from Lothal, ivory products, carnelian, lapis lazuli, copper, gold, and varieties of wood.

ART AND CRAFT

Strategy for Procuring Material

The Harappans procured materials for craft production in various ways:

Material	Site or Source	
Carnelian	Lothal	
Shell	Nageshwar and Balakot	
Steatite	South Rajasthan	
Lapis lazuli (blue stone)	Shortughai	
Copper	Rajasthan and Oman	

Trade with other areas

- a. Khetri region of Rajasthan (**for copper**) and South India (**for gold**).
- b. Barter exchange with other civilizations like Sumer (at present southern Iraq, from around Baghdad to the Persian Gulf) and Mesopotamia (presently eastern Syria, southeastern Turkey, and most of Iraq; land between the Euphrates and Tigris rivers).

Ganeshwar-Jodhpura culture had distinctive non-Harappan pottery and a huge amount of copper objects. The inhabitants of this region may have supplied copper to the Harappans.

- The people were highly skilled in various crafts metal casting, boat-making, stone carving, pottery, and making terracotta images using simplified motifs of animals, plants, and birds.
- **Sculptures** of stone, bronze, or terracotta were found.
 - Two male figures are made of stone—one is a torso in red sandstone (Harappa), and the

other is a bust of a **bearded man in soapstone** (Mohenjodaro).

- Terracotta: compared to the stone and bronze statues, the terracotta representations of human form are crude. They are more realistic on Gujarat sites and Kalibangan.
 - The **mother goddess** terracotta figure found in Harappa.
- Seals are mostly made of steatite and occasionally of agate, ivory, chert, copper, faience, and terracotta, with figures such as Pashupati Seal, unicorn bull, rhinoceros, tiger, elephant, bison, goat, buffalo, etc.
 - These seals might have been used as an identity marker on the transported materials, indicating their ownership.
- Pottery consists chiefly of wheel-made wares, with very few being hand-made. Plain pottery, generally made of red clay, is more common than painted ware.
 - Pottery was well-fired and had a deep red slip and black paintings.

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 Motifs on pottery include pipal leaves, fish-scale design, intersecting circles, zigzag lines, horizontal bands and geometrical motifs with floral and faunal patterns.

Textiles and Ornaments

- They had knowledge of cotton and silk. The image identified as a priest is depicted wearing a shawl-like cloth with flower decorations.
- Spinning of **cotton** and **wool** was very common.
- Beads and ornaments are made of carnelian, jasper, crystal, steatite, and metals like copper, bronze, gold, shell, faience, terracotta, or burnt clay.

The red colour of **Carnelian** was obtained by firing the yellowish raw material (Chalcedony) and beads at various stages of production.

- Excavated Mesopotamian sites provide evidence of these artefacts, indicating exports from Indus Valley sites.
- A cemetery found at Farmana (Haryana) reveals dead bodies buried with ornaments.

Metal, Tools and Weapons

The Harappan civilisation belongs to the **Bronze Age civilisation**, and Harappans knew how to make **copper bronze tools**. Bronze was made by **mixing tin with copper**.

 Tools: The Harappans used chert blades, copper objects, and bone and ivory tools. The tools of points, chisels, needles, fishhooks, razors, weighing pans, mirrors and antimony rods were made of copper. The chert blades made out of Rohri chert were used by the Harappans. Their weapons include arrowheads, spearheads, celts, and axes.

Rohri chert: The chert, a fine-grained sedimentary rock, was found in the region of Rohri in Pakistan. It was used by the Harappans for making stone blades and tools.

- **Bronze Casting** was practised on a wide scale using the 'lost wax' or Cire Perdue technique.
 - The statue of **Dancing Girl (Mohenjo-daro)** and the **Bronze figure of a bull** from **Kalibangan**
- They did not have knowledge of **iron**.

CULTURAL CONTRIBUTIONS OF IVC

Several groups, including **pastoral people**, **farmers** and **hunter-gatherers**, lived in the Indus region. The Indus region had **villages** and **large towns**. The population of that time was **mixed**, several cultures were developing in different parts of India:

- 1. The **southern part** of the subcontinent, Kerala and Sri Lanka, were given to **hunting and gathering**.
- 2. Karnataka and Andhra region had **Neolithic cultures**, engaged in pastoralism and plough agriculture.
- Chalcolithic cultures were prevalent in Deccan and western India.
- 4. **Neolithic cultures** permeated northern India, including **Kashmir, Ganges Valley** and **central** and **eastern** India.

Thus India was a **cultural mosaic** during the time of the Harappans.

THEORIES BEHIND THE DECLINE OF THE HARAPPAN CIVILIZATION

Theory	Description	Key Points
Climate Change	Continuous drought and drying of rivers and water resources.	Loss of agricultural sustainability.
Floods and River Shifting	Shifting river courses disrupted settlements and caused recurring floods.	Indus and Ghaggar-Hakra river systems.
Declining Soil Fertility	Desert expansion reduced the fertility of soil in agricultural regions.	Reduced crop yields affected livelihoods.
Decline in Trade	Trade relations with Mesopotamia and other regions weakened over time.	Loss of economic prosperity and resources.
Aryan Invasion	Proposed invasion leading to the decline of Harappan culture.	Controversial and debated theory.
Earthquakes	Tectonic activities causing shifts in river courses and destruction of cities.	Possible evidence in structural ruins.
Internal Decline	Sociopolitical collapse or internal conflicts leading to disintegration.	Lack of unified leadership or organization.
Overexploitation of Resources	Excessive deforestation and resource depletion by the Harappans.	Environmental degradation contributed.

In the course of time, the people **shifted to the southern and eastern directions** from the Indus region.



Vedic Age



The Vedic Age lasted from 1500 to 600 BC in the late Bronze Age and early Iron Age of the history of India. The period
lies between the end of the urban Indus Valley Civilisation and the second urbanisation, which began in the central
Indo-Gangetic Plain around 600 BC.

Agricultural surplus, the growth of crafts and trade, and the growing population led to the emergence of towns in the Gangetic plains. This is called the **second urbanisation** in Indian history after the **first urbanisation** evident in the Harappan Civilization.

- It is named after the **Vedas**, a collection of sacred texts composed during this time. The composers of Vedic texts described themselves as **Aryans**.
- This era is split into the Early Vedic (1500-1000 BC) and Later Vedic Periods (1000-600 BC).

Sources to Study Vedic Age

Category	Source	Details
Vedic Texts	Early Vedic: Rig Veda Later Vedic: Samaveda, Yajurveda, Atharvaveda	Fundamental texts of Aryan culture and society.
Iranian Text	Zend Avesta (14th century BC)	Mentions lands and gods of Indo-Iranian speakers; linguistic similarities with the Vedas.
Greek Texts	Iliad and Odyssey (Homer, 8th century BC)	Indirect influence and reference to Indo- European connections.
Incovintions	Kassite inscriptions (1600 BC), Mitanni inscriptions (1400 BC)	Evidence of Aryan migration westward; includes references to Vedic gods in Iraq-Syria regions.
Inscriptions	Boghazkoi Inscription (1400 BC)	Oldest inscription mentioning Vedic gods; found in Turkey-Syria.
Archaeological Sites	Andronovo Culture (2000–1150 BC)	Evidence of Aryan migrations; links to the Hindukush region.
	Excavations in Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan (1700–600 BC)	Settlement evidence along the Indus and Ghaggar rivers.

INDO-ARYANS

A linguistic term that refers to speakers of a subgroup of the Indo-Iranian branch of the Indo-European family of languages.

- **Arya:** A cultural/ethnic term etymologically derived from 'ar' meaning to cultivate, literally meaning **kinsmen** or **companion** or **noble**.
- The **original home of Aryans is debated**, and different theories have been postulated on it.

Theories	Description/Evidence
Migration from Europe (William Jones; Morgan)	 Semi-nomadic Aryans migrated to India from Eastern Europe, particularly from regions north of the Black Sea. Linguistic similarities between Indo-European languages like Greek, Latin, German, and Sanskrit.
	Eg: Suryyas and Maruttash of the Kassite (Mesopotamia) inscriptions are equivalent to the Vedic Surya and Marut.

 Central Asian Theory (Max Muller & E. Meyer Herzfeld) Both texts display not just word similarities but also shared concepts. Eg: Interchangeable use of 'h' and 's' in words like Ahura (asura), Haoma (soma) etc Tilak argued that the North Pole was the original home of Aryans during the p glacial period, which they left due to climate changes. References in the Vedas about six months of long days and nights, a phenomen unique to the Arctic region. Tibet Theory (Swami Sun and fire were worshipped in Tibet due to extreme cold, and the flora and fare 	
Arctic Region Theory (Bal Gangadhar Tilak) glacial period, which they left due to climate changes. References in the Vedas about six months of long days and nights, a phenomenunique to the Arctic region.	(Max Muller & E. Meyer
Tibet Theory (Swami • Sun and fire were worshipped in Tibet due to extreme cold, and the flora and far	· ·
Dayanand Saraswati) mentioned in Rig-Veda were found in Tibet.	
 Literary evidence from the Vedas, particularly the Rig Veda, emphasises the Sage Sindhu as their primary homeland. Linguistically, Sanskrit, with its vast array of original Indo-European terms, sugged a closer relationship to the ancestral Aryan language than other European language. Rituals detailed in the Vedic texts reflect practices rooted in India. 	(Dr.Sampurnanad and AC

EARLY VEDIC PERIOD/RIG VEDIC PERIOD (1500-1000 BC)

The primary source of information about this age is the **Rig Veda**.

Geographical Expansion

- Aryans were mainly confined to the Indus region, referred to as Saptasindhu or the land of seven rivers in the Rigveda.
 - Seven Rivers are Jhelum (Vatista), Beas (Vipasa), Chenab (Askini), Ravi (Purushni), Sutlej (Sutudri), Saraswati (Ghaggar or Hakra), and Indus (Sindhu).
- Their region covered present-day parts of Afghanistan, Punjab, and Haryana.
- **Sindhu** (Indus) is the most mentioned river, and **Saraswati** is the most revered (holy) river.
- Saraswati Valley was called Brahmavarta, the Himalayas were called Himavant, and the Hindu Kush was called Munjavant.

Political Structure

- Bharatas, Matsyas, Yadus and Purus were tribal kingdoms of that time.
- Tribal Chief or Rajan was the protector of his tribe, safeguarding the cattle, leading wars, and performing religious duties on behalf of the tribe.
 - The Tribal Chief was also called Gopati or Gopa (protector of cows), and the queen was called Mahisi.
 - The king's position appeared hereditary, but some traces of election by the tribal assembly (samiti) were present to exercise check.
- Tribal assemblies like the Sabha, Samiti, Vidatha, and Gana had deliberative, military, and religious roles. Women could attend the sabha and vidatha.

Sabha: Ass	sembly of eldes.	lers	Samiti people.	bly	of
Vidatha: tribe.	Assembly	of	Gana: organis	a	clan

Governance

- **Formal judicial system** was **absent** with no specific officer for **administering justice**.
- Spies were used to check theft (especially of cows) and burglary.
- Official titles didn't directly signify territorial administration, but some roles were territorially anchored. Some official titles were:
 - 1. **Purohita -** Motivated tribal chiefs and praised their deeds in return for rewards in cows and slaves.
 - 2. **Senani** Skilled in **weaponry**; Senani was the **chief of army**.
 - 3. **Vrajapati** In charge of pasture grounds/officer who controlled the territory; further, they led the "**Kulapas**" (heads of families) or the"**Gramanis**" (leaders of fighting units) into battle.
- Over time, the roles of the **Gramani** and the **Vrajapati** became synonymous.

Military Structure and Conflicts

- The king did not maintain a standing army and relied on tribal units assembled during the war. Military functions were performed by tribal groups called Vrat, Gana, Grama, and Sardha.
- Aryans were engaged in conflicts with pre-Aryans and had internal tribal disputes. The Aryans split into five tribes or "Panchajana."
 - The **Bharatas and Tritsu** were dominant Aryan clans backed by priest Vasishtha.
- The **Bharatas**, led by **Sudas**, defeated a **coalition of ten rulers** (a mix of Aryan and non-Aryan leaders) in

the **Battle of Ten Kings (Dashrajana)** on the banks of the **Parushni (Ravi) river**. Bharatas and Puru joined to form **Kurus**. Both **Pandava** and **Kauravas** belonged to the Kuru clan. Later the Kurus allied with Panchalas and established their control over the Upper Ganga Valley

- The Dasa and Dasyu conquered by Aryans were treated as slaves and sudras.
 - Dasas (mentioned in ancient Iranian texts) seem to have been a branch of early Aryans, while Dasyus were possibly original inhabitants of the country. Aryan chief Trasadayu overpowered them.
 - The Aryan chiefs were soft towards Dasas but hostile towards Dasyus.
 - The Dasyus possibly worshipped the **phallus** and did not keep **cattle**.

The Indo-Aryans introduced chariots driven by horses into West Asia and India and used better arms and coats of mail called Varman. [UPSC 2017]

• A coat of mail was an armoured coat made of chain mail, interlinked rings, or overlapping metal plates.

"Bharatavarsha" is believed to be named after the Bharata tribe, a term first appearing in the Rig Veda.

Society

- Initially, society was differentiated on the basis of "Varna" or colour: Aryans (fair-skinned) and non-Aryans (darker and spoke a different language).
 - Non-Aryans (Dasyus) include Avrata (nonfollowers of divine ordinances) and Akratu (nonperformers of sacrifices).
- Society was egalitarian and not caste-driven; occupations weren't determined by birth. There was an absence of a strict social hierarchy.
- The Varna System was introduced at the end of the Rig Vedic age, as it finds mention only in Purusashukta (Tenth Mandal of Rig Veda).
 - Inequality started to develop in society, with tribal chiefs and priests acquiring a larger share of the booty, leading to the division of society into three groups- warriors, priests, and the people. (on the same pattern as in Iran.)
- Rig Vedic people were familiar with slavery. There were mainly women slaves used for domestic purposes & not for agriculture.
- Evidence of cereals as a gift was rare, but evidence of land as a gift was absent.

Family structure

- Social structure was rooted in brotherhood. The primary unit was the 'Kula' (Mother, father, son, slaves, and others) headed by a Kulapa.
- The basic unit of society was the family or Griha, headed by Grihapati, and his wife was known as Sapatni. It was perhaps a joint and patrilineal family.

- Several families formed a 'vis' or clan. Multiple 'vis' constituted a 'Jana,' representing the largest social unit. The term 'Jana' & 'vis' occurs in the Rig Veda but 'Janapada' is nowhere mentioned in the Rigvedic text.
- Vis was divided into Grama or smaller tribal units meant for fighting. When Grama clashed with one another, it caused Samgrama or war.
- Marriages were primarily monogamous, but polygyny and polyandry were also observed.
- In Rig Veda, no desire is expressed for daughters, though the desire for children and cattle is a recurrent theme in the hymns.

Status of women

- Though society was patriarchal, women were given equal opportunities as men for their spiritual and intellectual development like Upananaya (Investiture ceremony), education; selecting life partners, widow remarriage, etc.
- Notable women poets were Apala, Viswavara, Ghosa, and Lopamudra.
- Practices like child marriage, sati and purdah were absent, and the marriageable age seems to have been 16 to 17.

Economy

- Society was predominantly pastoral, with cattlerearing as the primary occupation, and wealth was gauged by the number of cows owned.
- Though trade and commerce were limited, Bartersystem was prevalent, with the cow being a key exchange item.
- Land ownership, as a concept of private property, didn't exist. Clans collectively shared resources. Individuals, including Rajan, purohits, and artisans, were part of clan networks.
- Primitive agriculture, using fire-clearing techniques and wooden ploughs (langala and sura), was in practice. The term 'sita' meant the furrow created by ploughing. They cultivated Barley (yavam) and wheat (godhuma).
- Water for irrigation was probably drawn from wells by cattle-driven water-lifts using pulleys.
- Craftspeople engaged in various trades like carpentry, weaving, and chariot-making, the latter holding particular prestige due to the popularity of chariotracing.
- References to Siri or yarn, indicating spinning, which
 was done by women and to carpenters, Takshan in
 the Rig Vedic texts.

Taxation and Exchanges

- The economy depended on voluntary or compulsory contribution (Bali) from the people (vis) and war bounties.
- Social exchange involved gift redistribution, extending courtesies, offering hospitality, and providing military aid.

ONLY AS

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- Iron technology was absent and had limited metallurgical pursuits.
 - Metal called Ayas, either Copper or Bronze was known.
 - **Karmara**, smith, is mentioned in the Rig Veda.
 - The Rigveda has mentioned **Hiranya**, the oldest Sanskrit word for **gold**. **[UPSC 2017]**

Religion

 The Rig Vedic Aryans worshipped natural forces like earth, fire, wind, rain, and thunder, primarily through yajnas. [UPSC 2012]

- A distinct characteristic was Henotheism or Kathenotheism, where each hymn elevated a specific deity to supreme status temporarily.
- Distinctive aspect of **Fire Cult** was associated with both **Indo-Aryans** and **Indo-Iranians**.
- Magic and omens were not prevalent.
- Meat consumption and sacrificial killing of animals were found, except for cows deemed Aghnya (not to be killed).
- This period saw recognition of various deities, demigods, and other spiritual entities in their religious observances.

Some Important Deities

Deities	Characteristics
Indra	 The greatest god of the Aryans, 250 hymns are attributed to him. Known as Purandhar (Breaker of forts), Urvarajit (winner of fertile fields), Maghavan (bounteous), and Vritrahan (Slayer of Vritra, chaos).
Agni	 2nd most important god, the god of fire, 200 hymns are attributed to him. Serves as an intermediary between gods and men.
Varuna	 3rd most important god, the god of water, responsible for maintaining cosmic order (Rita).
Soma	 God of plants. Soma is also seen as the deity who inspires poets to compose hymns. The entire 11th mandala of the Rig Veda is dedicated to him.

- Other Gods mentioned are Rudra (God of Destruction, Later merged with Shiva in later Vedic Phase), Yama (Lord of death), Pushan (God of Sudras, Look after cattle), Surya (Son of Dyaus), Vishnu (Benevolent and Gentle God), Maruts (God of Storms), Ashvinis (Twin Gods of war and fertility).
- **Goddesses** mentioned are **Savitri** (Solar deity, famous Gayatri Mantra is attributed to her in the 3rd mandala of Rigveda), **Aditi** (Goddess of Eternity, Mother of Gods), **Usha** (Goddess of Dawn), **Sinivali** (Goddess of Fertility).

Demi-gods:

Gandharvas (Divine musicians)

Apasaras (Mistress of Gods)

Vishwadevas (Intermediate deities)

Aryaman (Guardian of compacts and marriages)

LATER VEDIC PERIOD (1000-600 BC)

The history of this age is primarily derived from Vedic texts **compiled after the Rig Vedic age**. This era witnessed significant changes in social, economic, political, and religious aspects of society.

- The Later Vedic culture is also called the **Painted Grey Ware (PGW) Culture of Iron age**.
- The Kurus, Panchalas, Vashas and Ushinaras are the tribes of this period.

Geographical Expansion

 In this phase, Aryans moved to eastern areas (up to Bengal), the core area being the Kuru-Panchala region (Indo-Gangetic divide and the upper Ganga Valley).
 The Kuru-Panchalas became one major ethnic group and Hastinapur became their capital.

- Eastern-most tribal kingdoms: Magadha, Anga, and Vanga.
- The Kurus (clans of Bharatas and Purus combined to form the Kurus) lived between the Saraswati and Drishadvati and later moved to occupy the upper portion of Doab (Kurukshetra). References to the Saraswati and Dhristavati rivers occur in the later Vedic texts also besides Rig Veda.
- Later Vedic texts refer to the three divisions of India: Aryavarta (Northern India), Madhyadesa (Central India), and Dakshinapatha (Southern India). Western Ganga-Valley was called 'Aryavarta'.

Political Structure

Rig Vedic tribal assemblies: Their significance diminished with increased royal power. **Vidatha** completely disappeared.



 Janas (kin-based) evolved to become Janapadas (territory-based) units. The term janapada, referring to territory, is found in the Brahmanas dated to 800 BC.

The term 'Nagara', referring to commercial quarters, is found in the later Vedic texts. However, large towns appeared only at the end of the Vedic period. The sites of Hastinapura and Kausambi are considered proto urban (urban-like) settlements.

- King: The authority of the Rajana became more evident. Kings assumed titles: Rajavisvajanan, Ahilabhuvanapathi (lord of all earth), Ekrat, and Samrat (sole ruler). The concepts of Samrat/ Samraiva developed.
- Hereditary kingship was emerging, but traces of the election of the king appeared in Later Vedic Texts.
- The terms such as **rashtra**, denoting territory, and **rajya**, denoting sovereign power appeared.
- The king received assistance from key functionaries like the priest, commander, and chief queen in discharging his duties.
 - Local matters were handled by village assemblies under the control of dominant clan chiefs.
- Army: The king did not maintain a standing army, and tribal units were mobilised in times of war.
- Wars: The wars were no longer fought for cows but for territories as society became agricultural.
- Chiefs grew at the expense of the tribal peasantry and rewarded the priests who helped them maintain their authority through rituals such as the Rajasuya sacrifice, Ashvamedha, and Vajapeya. These rituals reinforced territorial aspects of the polity by inviting people from across the kingdom.

Ashvamedha: Unquestioned control over an area where the royal horse ran uninterrupted.

Vajapeya: Chariot race in which a royal chariot was made to win against all kinsmen.

Rajasuya: Royal consecration and conferred supreme power on the king.

- **Srauta** sacrifices (sacrifices to achieve some benefits) were carried out to control the resources.
- The development of state level political organisation emerged only after 500 BCE, and the later vedic society was therefore in transition.

Society

- Social stratification through the varna system became more established. It categorised people into four main varnas: Brahmanas, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas, and Shudras.
 - Teaching was seen as the occupation of the Brahmanas. The wives of Brahmanas and cows were given important status.
 - **Rajanya** refers to kshatriyas, and they were the warriors and rulers who received 'Bali' as tax.

- **Striking changes** took place in the **Varna System**. There was an **increase in the privileges** of the Brahmanas and the Kshatrivas.
 - In the Panchavimsa Brahmana, the Kshatriya is placed first, higher than the Brahmana, but in the Satapatha Brahmana, the Brahmana is placed higher than the Kshatriya.
 - The king asserted his authority over the three varnas. The Aitreya Brahmana refers to the Brahmana as the seeker of support, and he could be removed by the king from his position.
 - Emphasis on sacrificial rituals increased, which enhanced the influence and power of the Brahmanas.

The Kshatriyas challenged Brahmanical supremacy and their exclusive privilege of entering the ashrams, a regulated four-stage life, namely Brahmacharya, Grihastha, Vanaprastha and Sanyasa. The outcome of this was the birth of Jainism, Buddhism and Ajivakam.

- The **concept of ashramas**, referring to various stages of life, **was not well established** at this time. While brahmacharya, grihastha and vanaprastha are mentioned, **sannyasa had not developed**.
- The concept of **Dvija (twice-born)** developed during this period.
- Upanayana (sacred thread) was limited to the upper sections of society. This ceremony marked the initiation of education. The fourth varna was denied this privilege, and the Gayatri mantra could not be recited by the Sudras. Women were also denied the upanayana and Gayatri mantra.
- Certain craft groups managed to attain higher status:
 - The Rathakaras, the chariot makers, had the right to wear the sacred thread.
 - Vaisya referred to the common people. They were involved in agriculture, cattle breeding and artisans. Later, they became traders. Vaisyas paid taxes to the kings.
 - Some social groups were placed in ranking even below the Sudras.

Chandala were a group within **Panchamas (fifth varna)** who were excluded from the varna system. They were considered the **untouchable** class.

The society was **predominantly rural**, but urbanism began to show traces towards the end. Mentions of towns (nagar) can be found in texts like **Taittiriya Aranyaka**.

Family Structure

- The family was an important social unit. The family was patriarchal with patrilineal descent. The relations within the family were hierarchical. Polygyny (taking many wives) was prevalent.
- The household became more structured, which means it became more organised. Several household



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rituals were also developed for the welfare of the family. The married man with his wife was the **Yajamana**.

- Joint families with three or four generations residing together.
 - Western Uttar Pradesh sites of Atranjikhera and Ahichchhtra reveal communal food preparation with large family units.
- The idea of gotra emerged in the later Vedic period. Gotra literally meant 'cowpen', and it referred to a group of people from a common ancestor. Persons of the same gotra were considered brothers and sisters and could not intermarry.
- Several unilineal descent groups existed with common ancestors. Several related clans formed the tribe.
- Marriages between individuals of the same gotra were prohibited. Chandrayana was a penance for men marrying women of the same gotra.

Status of Women

A decline in the societal stature of women compared to the Rig Vedic age was witnessed.

- No longer permitted to attend the assemblies.
- Though women had participated in rituals in the Rig Vedic period, they were excluded in the later Vedic period.
- Patriarchal family structure: Women's roles became limited to domestic tasks.
- Practices of Sati and Child Marriage were prevalent.
- Daughters were even labelled as a source of sorrow (Aitreya Brahmana).
- However, women like Gargi and Maitreyi excelled in the domain of knowledge; Gargi outwitted Yajnavalkya in a philosophical discourse.

Economy

- Agriculture, though primitive, emerged as the primary livelihood practice.
 - Tree clearing through burning and ploughbased cultivation were elaborated in Satapatha Brahmana.
 - Few agricultural tools made of iron have been found, but **wooden plough** was extensively used.
- The Vedic people cultivated barley, rice and wheat.
 - Wheat was the staple food of the Punjab region.
 - The Vedic people began to use rice in the Ganga-Yamuna doab.
 - The use of rice, rather than wheat, is noticed in the Vedic rituals.
- Mixed farming (a combination of cultivation and herding) was practised.

Barley (Yava) production persisted, but rice (Vrihi) and wheat (Godhuma) became primary crops along with lentils.

- Oxen-drawn wagons were a prevalent mode of transport.
- Land was owned by a community over which the 'vish' (clan) had participatory rights.
- Grahpati (head of the household) was the owner of the land.
- Exchange continued through barter. "Nishka" was a gold or silver ornament used in barter.
- **Shreni** was an association of traders, merchants, and artisans that was headed by a **Shreshthi**.
- Taxation: Unlike the Rig Vedic Age, collecting taxes and tributes was made mandatory, primarily from the Vaishyas, facilitated by Sangrihitri (tax collector).
- **Trade and exchange had developed** in the Later Vedic age. The material culture found in the archaeological sites reveals the movement of commodities and materials. **Specialised caravan traders** existed.

No evidence of coins has been found, and therefore, **barter** must have been the medium of exchange. The introduction of coins took place after about 600 BCE.

Knowledge of Metals

- **Use of iron** was started around **1200 BC**, and it was termed **Krishna Ayas/Shyama Ayas**.
 - Around **1000 BC**, it was used in the **Gandhara** area, eastern Punjab, western UP, MP, and Rajasthan.
 - Excavations reveal the use of iron weapons by the Aryans, like arrowheads and spearheads, in western UP from about 800 BC onwards.
 - The iron axe was used to clear the forests in the upper Gangetic basin. Towards the end of the Vedic period, knowledge of iron spread in eastern UP and Videha (Mithila region).
- Metals such as copper, tin, gold, bronze and lead are mentioned.
 - The **copper objects** were used for making weapons for war and hunting.
- **Glass manufacturing** was known to them.

Arts and Crafts

- Four main types of **pottery** were prevalent during this period: (1) Painted Grey Ware; (2) Black and Red Ware; (3) Black-slipped Ware; (4) Red Ware
- They **hardly knew** the use of **burnt bricks**.
- Weaving, leatherwork, pottery, and carpentry were well known.
 - Terms such as **Kulala**, referring to potters and **Urna sutra**, referring to wool, appear.
- Bow makers, rope makers, arrow makers, hide dressers, stone breakers, physicians, goldsmiths, and astrologers are some of the specialised professional groups mentioned in the texts.
- Professions such as physicians, washermen, hunters, boatmen, astrologers and cooks are mentioned.
- The performers of Vedic sacrifices were also a type of service provider.

• References to the **elephant** are often found in the **Atharva Veda**, along with the elephant keeper.

Religious Trends

- During the Later Vedic period, the upper Ganga Doab was the centre of the Aryan culture. This region is described as the land of Kuru-Panchalas.
- Signs of the emergence of **idolatry** can be observed.
- Changes in material life brought about a shift in the reverence towards gods and goddesses.
 - Rig Vedic Gods like Indra and Agni were replaced by Prajapati (the creator), Vishnu (preserver and protector), and Rudra (the god of rituals).
 - The Satapatha Brahmana lists the names of Rudra as Pasunampatih, Sarva, Bhava and Bahikas. Vishnu was conceived as the protector of people.
 There is no reference to Vishnu's incarnations.
- Increased importance of **animal sacrifices** shadowed the importance of prayers in placating Gods.
- The **correct performance of rituals** was stressed. Stress was laid on **paying Dakshina**.
- The rituals became more complex, required more resources, and took longer time. The resort to rituals and sacrifices as a solution for problems led to the view that material wealth could achieve anything.

The ideas in the **Upanishads** argue **against such a view** and stress the importance of **realising the atman** or inner self. Such **degeneration of rituals** and the **material-oriented nature of the priests** created **dissension** and led to the **development of heterodox faiths such as Buddhism** and **Jainism**, which emphasised correct human behaviour and discipline.

- Each varna had its own deities, reflecting the societal divisions of the time.
 - Pushan (supposed to look after cattle) was the God of the Shudras.
- Cows, gold, cloth and horses were given as sacrificial gifts. Sometimes, the priests claimed portions of territory as Dakshina, but the grant of land as a sacrificial gift was not well established.
- Agricultural produce began to be offered in the rituals.
 - The items of Dana and Dakshina included cooked rice (wheat was rarely used).
 - **Til**, from which the first widely used vegetable food oil was derived, came to be used in rituals.

Towards the end of the Later Vedic age, **resistance** emerged against **priestly dominance**, cults, and sacrificial practices, particularly in regions like **Panchala** and **Videha**.

Education

- The disciplines of philosophy, literature and science developed in this period. Various branches of learning such as literature, grammar, mathematics, ethics and astronomy developed.
- The development of Vedic texts and the importance given to pronunciation, grammar and oral transmission suggest training in utterances and memorisation as part of the Vedic system of education.
- Upanishads were composed during this period. They
 were also referred to as Vedanta since they were
 attached as the last part of the Vedic texts.
- Education was limited to males.
- The **teacher-pupil relationship** was cultivated through person-oriented training.

Other Aspects of Life

- Music instruments such as lute, flute and drum are referred to in the texts.
- Use of silk and ornaments of metal, gold and copper is found. Fabrication of glass beads and metal mirrors can also be seen.

VEDIC LITERATURE

- The word 'Veda' is derived from the root 'vid,' which means to know, signifying 'superior knowledge.'
- Vedic literature consists of:
 - Four Vedas: Rigveda, Samaveda, Yajurveda, and Atharvaveda.
 - **Brahmanas** are prose texts that elucidate mantras and describe **sacrificial rituals**.
 - The Aranyakas (forest treatises) and Upanishads (sitting down beside) are appendices to the Brahmanas and are often referred to as Vedanta or "end of the Veda", focusing on philosophical discussions.
- Despite their oral tradition, the Vedas were eventually transcribed in written form, with the earliest surviving manuscript dating back to the 11th century.

Shruti Smriti

- Texts 'that are heard' or product of Godly revelation to the great sages (Rishis) during meditation ('Dhyaan').
- It includes four Vedas and Samhitas.

- Recollected by normal humans.
- Detailed commentaries/explanations on the Vedas (Brahmanas, Aranyakas, and Upanishads), 6 Vedangas, and Upavedas.

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The Four Vedas

Rig Veda: It is the oldest surviving text which mentions the concept of the Origin of the Universe.

- It is divided into 10 Mandals (books):
 - Books II to VII constitute the earliest sections.
 - Books I and X were later additions, incorporating the Purusashukta that explains the concept of the four varnas.
 - Book VIII mainly related to Kanva's family.
 - Book IX compilation of Soma hymns.
- It is a collection of **hymns and prayers** dedicated to various deities and **natural forces** such as Agni, Indra, Mitra, and Varuna, presented by different families of poets or sages **(family books)**.
- Tradition of Vedic chanting was included in the intangible heritage list of UNESCO.
- Although composed in Sanskrit, it contains numerous **Munda and Dravidian words**, likely integrated through the languages of the Harappans.

Sama Veda: Earliest book on music (Sama means melody; ragas and raginis).

- These are poetic texts derived from Rig Veda.
- It contains the famous Dhrupada raga, later sung by Tansen.

Yajur Veda: Contains sacrifices and rituals, composed in prose and poetry.

- It is further divided into:
 - Shukla Yajur Veda/White Yajur Veda/Vajasaneya (contains only the Mantras). It contains the Madhyandina and Kanva recensions.
- Krishna Yajur Veda/Black Yajur Veda (contains both mantras and prose explanations/ commentary).

Atharva Veda: contains magic, charms, omens, agriculture, industry/craft, cattle rearing, cure for diseases.

VEDAS	UPAVEDA	BRAHMANA	UPANISHAD	ARANYAKAS	MANTRA	PRIEST
Rig Veda	Ayurveda (Medicine)	Aitareya, Kaushi- Tiki/ Sankhyana	Aitareya, Kaushitiki	Aitareya, Kaushitiki	1028	Hotri/Hotar
Sam Veda	Gandharva Veda (Music)	Panchvimsh/ Tandya, Jaiminiya	Kena, Chandogya	Jaiminiya, Chandogya	1810	Udgatar
Yajur Veda	Dhanurveda (Warfare)	Taittiriya , Shatapatha	Taittiriya, KathaIsa, Brihadaranyaka	Taittiriya	-	Adhvaryu
Atharva Veda	Sthapatya Veda/ Shilp Veda (Architecture)	Gopatha	Mandukya, Mundaka Prashan	-	6000	-

Other Texts

Brahmanas

- They describe the rules for the performance of sacrificial ceremonies and explain the hymns of the Vedas in an orthodox manner.
- Each Veda has several Brahmanas attached to it.
- The most important and exhaustive Brahmana is the **Satpatha Brahmana** (attached to the Yajur Veda).

Aranyakas

- They are called the 'forest books' as they were written mainly by hermits living in the forests for their pupils. They deal with mysticism and philosophy and oppose sacrifice.
- They were composed during the **later Vedic period**.
- They emphasise meditation and philosophically interpret rituals.

Upanishads

- The literal meaning of 'Upanishad' is 'to sit near someone'. They are records of philosophical dialogues and discourses between teachers (Gurus) and students (Shishyas).[UPSC-2024]
- There are **108 Upanishads**, of which **13** are the most prominent.
 - Mandukyopanishad, the largest of all Upanishads, mentioned "Satyamev Javate". [UPSC 2014]
 - Chhandogya Upanishad Refers to the first three ashrams.

Dara Shukoh, the Mughal prince, **translated the Upanishad**s into Persian in 1657, much before the colonial scholars developed any interest in ancient Indian literature.

Jabala Upanishad mentions a 4-fold ashram (stages) for 4 Purusharthas (goals). It was not applicable to women or Shudras.

- Brahmacharya (Celibate Student) for knowledge, i.e. Dharma.
- Grihastha (Householder) for wealth and progeny, i.e. 'Artha' and 'Kama'.
- Vanaprastha (hermit in retreat) for spiritual wisdom.
- Sanyasa (Renunciation) for liberation i.e. Mukti/Moksha.

Vedanta

- These are the philosophical and spiritual traditions that evolved from the Upanishads, the concluding part of the Vedas, which signifies the final objective of the Vedas.
- It criticises sacrifices and rituals, representing the concluding phase of the Vedic era.

Vedanga

- They translate to 'limbs of the Vedas,' serving as supplementary texts to aid in proper recitation and comprehension
 of the Vedas.
- They are **not** classified as **Shruti** since they are considered to be of **human origin**, not revealed by Gods, and are in the form of Sutra or condensed statements conveying various ideas.
- These are 6 in number:
 - **Siksha**: Pronunciation of the words; education.
 - Nirukta: Origin of the words.
 - Chhanda: Metrics used in Sanskrit verses.
 - Jyotish: Astrology
 - Vyakaran: Sanskrit grammar.
 - Kalpa: Knowledge of rituals (Dharma sutras).

TERMS USED IN VEDIC PERIOD

TERM	MEANING	TERM	MEANING	TERM	MEANING
Govikartana	Forest chief	Vap	To sow	Madhyamasi	Mediator in Disputes
Gavyuti	Measure of distance	Gojit	Winner of cows/ Hero	Soma/Sura	Intoxicating drink
Duhitri	Daughter (one who milks cow)	Srini	Sickle	Sthapati	Chief Judge
Godhuli	Measure of time (Dusk)	Sabhavati	Women who attended the assembly	Nishka	Gold or silver ornament
Takshan	Carpenter	Spasa	Spy	Ghrita	Butter
Gana	Troops	Dhanya	Cereals	Gavisthi	Search/War for cows
Varthaka	Business People	Akshvapa	Accountant	Kshata	Keeper of the King's household
Gauri	Buffalo	Panis	Traders or caravan trader	Niyoga	Special type of widow- remarriage
Gaun	Places where cattle are kept	Suta	Charioteer	Goghna	Guest/one who is fed on cattle
Jivagribha and Ugra	Police Officers	Bhagadugha	Tax Collector	Palagala	Messenger









4

Buddhism and Jainism



Buddhism and Jainism were among the major **heterodox** sects that emerged during the **post-Vedic era**. Major reasons for their emergence were:

- Spirit of scepticism was on the rise, questioning every custom and orthodoxy.
- Response to the Kshatriya opposition against the dominance of Brahmin rituals.
- The Vedic practise of killing cattle indiscriminately in sacrifices stood in the way of the progress of the new agricultural economy, which required the use of cattle.

These religions received support from the **Vaisya community** because:

- They supported non-violence, thus reducing the scope for wars and thereby facilitating trade and commerce
- Dharmasutras decried lending money on interest.
 It was rejected by these religions.
- Initially, they did not attach any importance to the existing varna system favouring improvement in the position of Vaisyas.

BUDDHISM AND GAUTAMA BUDDHA

Introduction

Gautama Buddha, or Siddhartha, was born in **563 BC** into the **Sakya Kshatriya** family in **Lumbini** near Kapilavastu (Nepal). He was a contemporary of Mahavira.

Ashoka erected a pillar at Lumbini to mark his visit.

- His father, Suddhodhana, was the elected ruler of Kapilavastu, leading the Sakya republic and his mother, Mahamaya, was a princess from the kingdom of Koshala.
 - Mahamaya dreamt of a white elephant entering her womb.
- He was brought up by his foster mother,
 "Mahaprajapati Gautami" —the first woman
 (Bhikkhuni) to be included in his Sangha.
- He married Yashodhara and had a son named Rahula.

 One day, while riding in his chariot, he encountered four sights: an old man, a sick man, a corpse, and a religious mendicant. These encounters deeply affected him, leading to his realisation of the pervasive suffering in the world.

Buddha's Road to Nirvana

- At the age of 29, he departed the city on a chariot with his beloved horse Kanthaka and Channa, the charioteer, in search of eternal truth. This is known as MAHABHINISHKRAMANA or the Great Departure.
- He wandered for seven years. After that, he reached Uruvela (modern-day Bodh Gaya), situated on the banks of the Niranjana River (Falgu River).
 - In between, Siddhartha sought the guidance of Alara Kalama and Uddaka Ramaputta. He was not satisfied with their path and practised severe austerities, which left him nearly dead.
- He sat under a peepal tree (Bodhi tree) and attained NIRVANA (enlightenment) at the age of 35, earning the title "Buddha" or "the enlightened."

Life of Buddha After Nirvana

 He delivered his first sermons at Sarnath (Deer Park) in Varanasi. This event is described as DHARMACHAKRA-PRAVARTANA or setting in motion the 'wheel of great law'.

The **Mauryan pillar** capital, found at Sarnath, popularly known as the **Lion Capital**, symbolises Dhammachakra Prayartan.

- He spoke about the Four Noble Truths and the Middle Path and established Sangha to spread his ideas far and wide.
- The prominent disciples of Buddha were Sariputta, Mahamoggallana, Mahakaccayana and Ananda.
- Buddha had a huge following among both royalty and lay persons.
 - Asoka adopted ideas from Buddhism in his state policy.

Gautama Buddha passed away at the **age of 80** in **483 BC at Kushinagar**, in eastern Uttar Pradesh. This is known as **Parinirvana/MAHAPARINIRVANA**.

According to Buddhist tradition, his last words to his followers were: "Be lamps unto yourselves as all of you must work out your own liberation." [UPSC-2024]

Buddhist Art representation of the 5 stages

EVENTS	HINYANA(SYMBOLIC FORM))	MAHAYANA(PHYSICAL FORM)
Birth	Elephant /Lotus	Maya's dream
Renunciation	Horse	Buddha (in monk dress) along with Horse
n 1: 1 .		
Enlightenment	Peepal Tree	Bhumisparshamudra
First Sermon	Wheel (8 spokes showing 8 paths)	Bhumisparshamudra Dharmachakrapravartana Mudra

DOCTRINES OF BUDDHISM

Philosophy of Buddha

- World is transient or 'Impermanence' (anicca).
- It is also soulless (anatta) with nothing permanent in it.
- Sorrow (dukkha) is intrinsic to human existence.

Thus, following the path of **moderation** between **severe penance** and **self-indulgence**, human beings can rise above these worldly troubles.

Other Beliefs:

- He neither accepted nor denied the existence of God.
- He addressed worldly issues and was not concerned with debates about the soul (atman) and Brahma.
- He **questioned** the authority of the **Vedas**.
- Condemned the Varna system and advocated equality.

Four Noble Truths of Buddha:

- 1. The truth of **Suffering (Dukkha):** Birth, age, death, separation, unfulfilled wish.
- 2. Truth of **Origin of Suffering (Samudaya):** Arises from desires **(Trishna)** for pleasure, power & long life.
- 3. Truth of **Cessation of Suffering (Nirvana):** Achieving freedom from sorrow.
- 4. Truth of **Path Leading to Cessation of Suffering (Magga)**, which can be attained through the Noble **Eightfold Path** or the **Middle Path**.

Eightfold path (Astangika marga)



Buddhism incorporates **karma** and **rebirth**, where past actions shape one's current life. Liberation from karma and rebirth leads to **nirvana**, attainable **via the Middle Path**.

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CODE OF CONDUCT			
COMMON PEOPLE	MONKS		
(To stay away from)	Restrictions on monks' food, attire, and sexual conduct.		
1. Coveting the property of others.	Prohibition from accepting gold, silver, or engaging in buying and selling.		
2. Committing violence.	Resembled a form of primitive communism.		
3. Using intoxicants.			
4. Speaking a lie.			
5. Indulging in corrupt practices.			

Special Features of Buddhism

- Three main elements (Triratna) in Buddhism: Buddha, Sangha and Dhamma.
- Spread of Buddhism:
 - Magadha, Kosala, Kausambi, and various republics turned to Buddhism due to Brahmin discrimination, drawn by its perceived liberalism and democracy in contrast to Brahmanism.
 - Emperor Asoka promoted its global spread, particularly in Central Asia, West Asia, and Sri Lanka.
- Sangha, or religious order:
 - Open to everybody, irrespective of caste and sex.
 - o Initially, only men joined the sangha, but later, it admitted women, facilitated by Ananda.

- Monks should faithfully observe the rules and regulations of the sangha.
- Debtors and Slaves were not permitted to be members of the sangha without the permission of their masters/superiors.
- The **first human statues** to be worshipped in India were probably those of the Buddha.
- Buddha didn't name his successor. He said his teachings would be the guide for his followers.
- It promoted rationalism, thus encouraging critical thinking and logic over superstition.

Buddhist texts mention the term 'Kutagarashala', which literally means a hut with a pointed roof or groves where travelling mendicants halted. It was a place of intellectual debate and discussion.

BUDDHIST COUNCILS

DATE	PLACE	KING	PRESIDENT	EVENTS
1st Buddhist Council (483 BC) (just after Buddha's death)	Sattapani cave at Rajagriha	Ajatashatru	Maha Kassapa	Upali recited Vinay Pitaka ; Ananda recited Sutta Pitaka .
2nd Buddhist Council (383 BC) (a century after Buddha's death)	Vaishali	Kalashoka	Sabbakami	Buddhist order split into Sthaviravadin (Believers in the Teachings of the Elders) and the Mahasamghika (Members of the Great Community).
3rd Buddhist Council (250 BC)	Patliputra	Ashoka	Moggaliputta-Tissa	The last section, called "Kathavatthu" , was added to Abhidhamma Pitaka . Mission sent outside India(Sri lanka); for the first time buddhism crossed India.
4th Buddhist Council (72 AD)	Kundalvana, Srinagar	Kanishka	Vasumitra (Monk of Sarvastivada school) Ashwaghosh (Vice President)	Commentaries on Pitaka were written. Sarvastivadin doctrines were compiled in Mahavibhasa. Division of Buddhism into Mahayana & Hinayana.

Buddha taught orally, and none of the Buddha's speeches were written down during his lifetime.



BUDDHIST SECTS

Sthaviravada or Theravada

Theravada in Pali means "Way of the Elders". It is considered an orthodox form of Buddhism with the primary goal of achieving the cessation of Kleshas (defilements) and attaining Nirvana.

- Theravada adheres to Vibhajjavada (the teaching of analysis). This doctrine says that insight must come from experience, critical investigation, and reasoning of an individual instead of blind faith.
- This branch is prevalent in Southeast Asian countries like Myanmar, Cambodia and Sri Lanka.
- Thervada Text: Visuddhimagga (The Path of Purification) written by Buddhaghosa in 5th Century BC in Sri Lanka.
- A subdivision within the Sthaviravadins emerged in the 3rd century BC when the Sarvastivadins (school of realistic pluralism) broke away from the Vibhajyavadins (analytical school). [UPSC 2017]
- Other prominent offshoots of the Sthaviravadins were the Sammatiyas and the Vatsiputriyas, both known for their theory of the Pudgala (person). [UPSC 2017]

Mahasanghikas

The **first division** in the Buddhist community occurred during the **Second Buddhist Council** when the **Acariyavadins** (followers of the traditional teaching) split away from the **Sthaviravadins** (followers of the Way of the Elders) and formed their own school, known as the **Mahasanghikas**.

- The Mahasanghikas's views on the nature of the Buddha and the Arhat (saint) foreshadowed the development of the Mahayana form of Buddhism.
- Further subdivisions of the Mahasanghikas over the next seven centuries included the Lokottaravadins,

the Ekavyavaharikas, and the Kaukkutikas. [UPSC 2020]

Hinayana (Lesser Vehicle)

It is a **conservative** and **orthodox** form of Buddhism prevalent in Sri Lanka, Burma, Thailand, and Southeast Asia.

- Adherents aim to become Arhats, individuals who attain self-nirvana and cease rebirth. This has been criticised by the Mahayana sect as being selfcentred
- Emphasises gradual nirvana, where individuals help others through example, advice, self-discipline, and meditation, achieving salvation individually.
- Rejects the deification of Buddha, viewing him as a regular human being, leading to symbol worship rather than idol worship.

Emperor **Asoka** famously patronised Hinyana Buddhism. **Hiuen Tsang**, who visited Tamil country, mentions in his travel accounts about several **Buddhist Stupas** built by **Asoka** in **Kanchipuram**.

Mahayana Buddhism (Greater Vehicle)

- It considers Buddha as a God and focuses on the Law of Karuna or compassion over and above the law of Karma.
- The deification of Buddha started the practise of idol worship. [UPSC 2019]
- Concept of Bodhisattvas emerged:
 - They were seen as compassionate beings who, instead of attaining Nirvana, accumulated merit to help others in the world. [UPSC 2017]. Those who completed this goal were called Samyaksambuddha.
- Its main centre was Nalanda University (under Pala Patronage). Dinnaga and Dhammapala, eminent Buddhist scholars from Kanchipuram, headed the famous Nalanda University.
- It spread to China & Japan.

BODHISATTVA	ATTRIBUTES AND ROLES
Avalokiteshwara	Known as "The Lord Who Looks Down", Padmapani (Sanskrit), Lokesvara (Theravada Buddhism). Manifests Buddha's Compassion.
Manjusri	Male Bodhisattva, Interlocutor on ultimate truth. Also known as Wenshu (China) and Jampelyang (Tibet). Wields a flaming sword (to destroy falsehood) & holds a book.
Tara	Female Bodhisattva in Mahayana, Female Buddha in Vajrayana. Also known as Jetsun Dolma (Tibetan Buddhism). Represents compassion and protection.
Ksitigarbha	Means "Earth Womb," guardian of children.

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Maitreya [UPSC 2018]	Also known as Ajita Bodhisattva , the future Buddha . Accepted by both Mahayana and non-Mahayana traditions;			
Samantabhadra	Associated with meditation. Amitabha Great saviour buddha.			
Vajrapani	Manifests Buddha's Power. Akasagarbha Associated with elements of space.			
Vasudhara	Associated with wealth, prosperity, and abundance.			
Skanda	Guardian of Viharas and Buddhist teachings.			

Mahayana's Schools of Thought

Madhyamika (Sunyavada, i.e. all is void)	Yogacara (Practice of Yoga)	
 Thinker: Nagarjuna from 2nd century AD. Basic Tenet: Follows middle path i.e., neither nihilism (nothing exists) nor realism (everything self-exists & is permanent). It believes that there is no difference between Samsara and Nirvana. 	 Also known as Vigyanavada (Doctrine of Consciousness), propounded by Asanga and his brother, Vasubandhu. It focuses on consciousness & knowledge (idealism). The only reality is "suchness" (tathata), also known as Dharmadhatu. Its basic text is called Sutralankara. 	
 Its basic text is called Mula Madhyamika karika. Middle position between Sarvastivada school (Doctrine That All Is Real) and Yogacara (mindonly) school. Sunyavad is the core of the Tibetan School of Buddhism. 	 Vasubandhu (converted from Sarvastivada to the Mahayana) wrote commentary on the Abhidhamma from the perspectives of the Sarvastivada and Sautrāntika schools. [UPSC 2017] 	

Vajrayana (Vehicle of the Thunderbolt)

It is an offshoot of Mahayana Buddhism and referred as **Mantrayana** (emerged after the 5th century AD.)

- It was practised in regions of Bengal, Bihar, Nepal and eventually spread to Tibet in the 11th century AD.
 Its main centre was Vikramasila University in Bihar.
- Monks in this tradition distanced themselves from mainstream society and transitioned from Pali (the People's Language) to Sanskrit (an intellectual language).
- This branch emphasised **Tantrism**, incorporating rituals, chanting, and tantric techniques.
- It incorporates a strong female element, and sculptures like the 10th-century Bihar statue of the **Buddhist goddess Marichi** exemplify this.
- Worship of deities like Tara is intended to cultivate inner qualities for a better understanding of the external world.

Major Sects and Subsects of Buddhism

Major Sects	Subsects	
Hinayana	Sarvastivada(Vaibhashika), Sautantrika, Sthaviravadins / Theravada, Sammitiyas	

Mahayana	Madhyamika(Sunyavada), Yogachara(Vijnanavada)
Vajrayana	-

BUDDHIST LITERATURE

The Buddhist texts were compiled in **Pali**, the language of common people, contributing to the spread of Buddhism. The Pali canons are called the **Tripitakas (Three Baskets):**

- Vinaya Pitaka: Focuses on monastic rules and moral disciplines.
- 2. **Sutta Pitaka:** Dwells upon discourses and teachings of Buddha.
 - It is divided into five Nikayas (Digha, Majjhima, Samyutta, Anguttara, and Khuddaka).
 - They contain popular works such as Theragatha and Therigatha (Hymns of the Elder Monks and Nuns) and Jataka tales (Buddha's deeds in previous births as Bodhisattva).

3. Abhidhamma Pitaka: Expounds Buddhist philosophy.

Other Buddhist Literature

BOOKS	AUTHOR	BOOKS	AUTHOR
Manimekalai (one of the twin epics of post- Sangam age)	Sattanar	 Buddhcharita Saudaranand Sariputra Prakaran Vajrasuchi Sutralankara 	Ashwaghosh
Kundalakesi	Nagakuthanaar	Abhidhmma Kosh	Vasubandhu
1.Madhyami Karika 2.Prajanaparamita Karika	Nagarjuna	Pramāṇasamuccaya	Dignāga

- Vishuddhimagga, Sumangalvasini and Atthakathayen were written by Buddhaghosh.
- Ceylonese chronicles [**Dipavamsa** (Island Chronicles), **Mahavamsa** (Great Chronicle) and **Culavamsa** (Lesser Chronicle)] contain regional histories of Buddhism.
- Milinda Panha: Conversations between King Menander and monk Nagasena.
- **Netti Pakarana:** It is a Buddhist scripture, sometimes included in the Khuddaka Nikaya of Theravada Buddhism's Pali Canon. **[UPSC 2022]**
- **Avadana literature** is an anthology in Sanskrit of one hundred Buddhist legends.
- **Mahayana texts:** Lalitavistara ,Saddharmapundarika, Vajracchedika,Sukhavativyuha,Karandavyuha,Astasahasrika Prajnaparamita
- Lalitavistara is a biography of the Gautama Buddha, written in a combination of Sanskrit and vernacular.
- Samannaphala Sutta: It is the second sutta of the Digha Nikaya and is related to the conversation between Buddha and Ajatasatru. [UPSC 2024]

VARIOUS MUDRAS UNDER BUDDHISM

Dhyana Mudra	This mudra symbolises meditation, concentration, and inner peace.
Anjali Mudra	Represents respect, greeting, and gratitude.
Vitarka Mudra	This mudra is also known as the "teaching mudra" or "gesture of discussion" and represents the transmission of knowledge and the communication of the Buddha's teachings.
Varada Mudra	Represents generosity, compassion, and the granting of wishes.
Abhaya Mudra	Represents fearlessness, protection, and the dispelling of negativity.
Bhumisparsha Mudra	Represents the moment of the Buddha's enlightenment, and the gesture symbolises the earth witnessing his attainment of enlightenment.
Uttarabodhi Mudra	This mudra represents the union of wisdom and compassion, the balance of masculine and feminine energies, and the attainment of enlightenment through the integration of all aspects of thyself.
Dharma Chakra Mudra	Dharmachakra in Sanskrit means the wheel of Dharma. This mudra represents the setting into motion of the wheel of the teaching of Dharma.
Karana Mudra	Represents depictions of the Buddha or bodhisattvas as a symbol of protection and dispelling of negativity. The index finger is said to represent the energy of wisdom and the ability to overcome obstacles.
Jnana Mudra	Represents the unity of individual and universal consciousness and the connection between the practitioner and the teachings of the Buddha.
Tarjani Mudra	Represents a symbol of warning or protection against evil forces.

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BUDDHIST SCHOOL OF PHILOSOPHY

There are four principal Buddhist philosophical schools, which are the four pillars of Buddhist doctrine.

- **Vaibhashikas**: Believes that relative truth is that which can be broken down into parts, whereas ultimate truth is indivisible.
- Sautrantikas: Accept the selflessness of persons but not the selflessness of phenomena.
- **Cittamatrins**: Accept the selflessness of both self and phenomena, but believe in the true existence of mind.
- Madhyamikas: It claims that things appear to be real and substantial but are actually without inherent true existence.

PATRON KINGS OF BUDDHISM

Magadh Empire	Bimbisara, Ajatashatru,Kalashoka,Ashoka.
Indo-Greek King	Menander I (Milinda)
Kushans	Kanishka
Satavahana	Supported Buddhist architecture, including Amaravati and Karle stupas.
Guptas	Kumaragupta, Buddhagupta
Pushyabhuti	Harsha Convened Buddhist councils, built monasteries, and promoted Mahayana Buddhism.
Palas	Last great patrons of Buddhism in India; built monasteries like Vikramashila.

CAUSES OF THE DECLINE OF BUDDHISM

- Buddhism declined throughout the phase of **Bhakti** movement, absorbing Hindu aspects, with some lineages regarding Buddha as an **avatar of Vishnu**.
- Adoption of Sanskrit over Pali.
- Corrupt practices in monastries like deviation from Buddha's teachings.
- Buddhism lost its royal patronage after Harshavardhana.
- The Turks invasion of monasteries for their riches.

MAJOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HINAYANA AND MAHAYANA

Hinayana	Mahayana	
Conservative	Liberal	
Idea of Arhat	Idea of Bodhisattvas	
Ultimate Aim:Nirvana	Ultimate Aim:Spiritual upliftment	
Gave Harder path for salvation	Gave Easier path for salvation	
Generally used Pali language	Generally used Sanskrit language	
Represents events of Buddha's life in Symbolic form	Represents events of Buddha's life in Physical form	

Important Facts Related to Buddhism

- **Upasaka** are lay followers of Buddhism who are not monks. **[UPSC 2020]**
- Parivrajaka literally means male renunciant & wanderer. Eg: Buddhist Bhikkhu. [UPSC 2020]
- Shramana is a wandering monk in certain ascetic traditions, including Jainism, Buddhism & Ajvikas. [UPSC 2020]
- **Paramita (perfection)** in Buddhism is associated with noble qualities that are found in Buddha-like enlightened beings. **[UPSC 2020]**
- **Chaitya:** It was the place of worship and congregation.
- **Vihara:** It was the place of residence of Buddhist monks.
- Stupa: Relics of the Buddha, such as his bodily remains or objects used by him, were buried here.
- Kingdoms associated with Buddha are Kosala, Magadha, Vaishali, Rajgir etc. [UPSC 2015]
- **Uposatha:** Ceremony held on full moon and new moon.
- **Upasampada:** Ordination ceremony when the novice becomes a full-fledged member of the monastic community.
- **Pravrajya:** Ceremony to mark a person's going forth from home into homelessness and his/her becoming a novice under a preceptor. Involved shaving the head and donning ochre robes.
- **Gajalakshmi/Maya (mother of Buddha)**: Women surrounded by Lotuses and elephants (Used as a symbol in Sanchi Stupa).

JAINISM

Introduction

Jainism or Jaina is derived from the word 'Jina', which means **conqueror**. Jain monks were also known as **Nirgranthas** (free from bonds). **Risabhnath** was the **1st Tirthankara** and **founder** of the sect. Mahivara was the last Tirthankara of Jainism and is considered its most influential figure.

Vardhamana Mahavira

- Vardhamana Mahavira (referred to as Nigantha Nataputta in Buddhist texts) was born in 540 BC in Kundagrama near Vaishali (identical to Basarh), North Bihar.
- His father, Siddhartha, was the chief of the Jnatrika clan, and his mother, Trishala, was a Lichchavi princess. They were connected with the royal family of Magadha, Anga and Videha.
- Mahavira left worldly life at the age of 30 to become an ascetic. He practised severe austerity and discarded his garments.
- For 12 years, he wandered continuously, during which he met Gosala and spent six years with him before they parted due to differences.
- In the 13th year of his wandering, at the age of 42, Vardhamana attained enlightenment or Kaivalya (complete knowledge/intellect). Through Kaivalya, he conquered misery and happiness. He then became a Tirthankara and came to be called a Jina or Mahavira (the Great Conqueror), and his followers were known as Jaina.
- Mahavira propagated Jainism for 30 years, travelling to regions like Kosala, Magadha, Mithila, and Champa.
- He died at the age of 72 in 468 BC at Pavapuri, near Rajgir.

Doctrines of Jainism

Jains uphold three principles known as **Triratnas** or **Three Gems**:

- 1. **Right faith (Samyag-Darshana):** It is the belief in the teachings and wisdom of Mahavira.
- 2. **Right knowledge (Samyag-Jnana):** It is the acceptance of the theory that there is no God, and the world has existed without a creator, and all objects possess a soul.
- 3. **Right conduct (Samyag-Mahavrata)**: It refers to the observance of the five great vows.

Five Great Vows (Pancha-Mahavrata of Monks)

- (1) Not to kill or injure (Ahimsa)
- (2) Not to steal (Asteya)
- (3) Not to lie (Satya)
- (4) Not to possess property (Aparigraha)
- (5) Celibacy (Brahmacharya)

Mahavira introduced the fifth vow in Jainism; the other four were inherited from previous teachers.

TIRTHANKARA	SYMBOL
Rishabhadeva also known as Adinatha (1st)	Bull
Neminatha(22nd)	Conch
Parsvanatha(23rd)	Snake
Mahavira(24th)	Lion

Yajur Veda mentions three of the Tirthankaras, viz., Risabha, Ajitanatha and Aristanemi.

Tenets of Jainism

- Householders were expected to observe the milder form of the practise of these virtues called anuvrata (small vows) in comparison to the monks.
- Mahavira **rejected Vedic authority.**
- Jainism denies the existence of God.
- According to Jainism, the world has no beginning or end. It goes through a series of progress and decline according to an eternal law.
- According to Jaina teachings, the cycle of birth and rebirth is shaped through karma.
 - Asceticism and penance are required to free oneself from the cycle of karma. This can be achieved only by renouncing the world; therefore, monastic existence is a necessary condition of salvation.
- Agamas are Sacred texts of Jain philosophy.
- Jainism is an egalitarian religion that rejects inequality based on birth. It rejected the strict Varna order and Vedic rituals. It believes that "by one's action one becomes a Brahmin, a Kshatriya, or a Vaishya, or a Sudra."
- Women were allowed into the monastic order, but they cannot achieve salvation directly instead, they can accumulate merit through good deeds and be reborn as men to pursue salvation.

DIVISION OF JAINISM

About 500 years after Mahavira's death, in about 79 or 82 CE, a schism occurred in Jainism.

 Magadha was affected by severe famine, and some of the Jaina monks under Bhadrabahu went South to maintain their strict discipline. They remained without garments and were known as **Digambaras** (space-clad or naked).

- The major Sub-Sects of Digambaras are Bisapanth, Terapanth, and Taranapanth (Samaiyapantha)
- The minor Sub-sects are Gumanapantha and Totapantha
- Other monks who stayed back under the leadership of Sthulabhadra and adopted a white garment were known as Svetambaras (white-clad).
 - The Sub-sects of Svetambaras are Murtipujaka,
 Sthanakvasi, Terapanth. [UPSC 2018]
- The schism weakened Jainism in Magadha, but it found ardent followers in Gujarat, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Karnataka.

SHWETAMBARA	DIGAMBARA
People of this sect wear white clothes.Beliefs:	 The people of this sect don't wear clothes and perform austerity (Tapsya).
Attainment of liberation (Moksha) is possible for a	Beliefs:
woman.	 Salvation (Moksha) is not possible for a woman.
Mahavir Swami was married.	Mahavir Swami was unmarried.
• 19th Tirthankara Mallinath was a woman.	• The 19th Tirthankara, Mallinath was a man.

Major Sects and Subsects of Jainism

Major Sects	Subsects
Shwetambara	Murtipujak , Sthanakvasi , Terapanthi
Digambara	Mulasangha, Bisapantha, Terapantha, Tarapantha/Samaiyapantha

PHILOSOPHIES OF JAINISM

- Jainism promotes dualism, making the distinction between soul (jiva) and matter (ajiva). The coming together of jiva and ajiva creates karma (action), which leads to an endless cycle of birth and rebirth. To free oneself from karma, one has to practice severe austerities and self-mortification.
- Although Jainism recognises the soul, it rejects the notion of an ultimate, universal soul.

"Souls are not only the property of animal and plant life, but also of rocks, running water and many other natural objects not looked on as living by other religious sects." [UPSC 2023]

- Jainism propagates the theory of 'The Doctrine of Relativity of Knowledge and Judgments.'
- Jainism divides all knowledge into two classes:
 - the **Mediate** (**Paroksa**, which can be sensed through sensory organs) and
 - the **Immediate** (**Aparoksa**, which can be obtained without sensory organs).
- Immediate knowledge is divided into Avadhi, Manahparyaya, and Kevala.
- Mediate knowledge is divided into Mati and Shruta.

Avadhi (Clairvoyance)	Knowledge is limited.	
Manahparyaya (Telepathy)	Direct knowledge of the thoughts of others.	

Kevala (Omniscience)	Absolute knowledge.
Mati (Sensuous Cognition)	Sensory comprehension.
Shruta	Knowledge obtained from authority.

- Philosophy of Syadavada (Syad: relative to some standpoint, vada: doctrine, theory, view)
 - Knowledge is partial and always relative to some particular point of view and about particular aspects of objects.
- Philosophy of Anekantavada (theory of plurality):
 Ultimate truth and reality are complex and have multiple aspects/perspectives.

Jain Council

1. First Jain Council

- Held at Patliputra in 300 BC and was presided over by Sthulbhadra.
- Compilation of 12 Angas (limbs).

2. Second Jain Council

- Held at Vallabhi in 512 AD and was presided over by Devardhi Kshmasramana.
- Added **12 Upangas** (minor sections).

LITERATURE OF JAINISM

- The earliest important works of Jainas were composed in **Apabhramsa**.
- They abandoned Sanskrit and adopted Prakrit to preach their doctrines and Ardha-Magadhi (the language of the common people) to compose their religious texts.
- The adoption of Prakrit influenced regional languages like Sauraseni, which gave rise to Marathi.

- Jain literature is called 'Aagam' (Principle). It consists of 12 Angas, 12 Upanga, 10 Prakiran, 6 Ched Sutras, 4 Mool Sutra, 2 Chulika Sutra.
- 12 Angas are Acharanga-Sutra, Sutrakrtanga, Sthananga, Samavayanga, Bhagavati Vyakhyaprajnapti. Jnatrdharmakatha, Upasakadasah, Antakrddasah, Anuttaraupapatikadasah, Prasnavyakarana, Vipaksruta and Dristivada.
- Every Anga has Upanga, which provides the description of the universe, classification of beings, astronomy, time division, description of posthumous life, etc.
- 10 Prakirna are the supplements to major texts.
- Ched Sutra contains a compilation of rules for Jain monks.

- Six Ched Sutra are- Jitakalpa, Brihatkalpa, Nishith, Mahnishith, Vyavhar (Behavior) and Aachar Dasha.
- Mool Sutra contain sermons of Jainism, life in the forest, duties of the monks, rules of Yam, etc.
 - The four Mool Sutra are Dashvaikalik, Utaradhyayan, Shadavshayak and Pindniryukti or Pakshik Sutra.
- The two Chulika Sutras (Nandi-sutra and Anuyagadvara-Sutra) are independent texts of Jains, which are a kind of encyclopaedia. In these texts, moral stories have been written for monks.
- Paumacariyam Ramyana is a jain text written in prakrit language by Vimalsuri.
- Tamil Literature: Naladiyar, Palamoli, Jivaka Chinthamani, Yapperunkalam Karikai, and Neelakesi are some of the prominent Jaina works.

		•	·
BOOK AUTHOR		воок	AUTHOR
Kalpa Sutra	Bhadrabahu	Lilavatisara	Acharya Jinaratna
Tattavartha Sutra	Umaswami in Sanskrit	Samayasara	Acharya Kundakunda
 Yogasastra Parishishta Parvan Arhanniti 	Hemachandra	Ratnakaranda Sravakacara	Samantabhadra Swamy Swamy
Shatkhandagama	Pushpadanta and Bhutabali	Sarvarthasiddhi	Pujyapada
Trishasthilkshana Mahapurana	Jinasena	Syadvadmanjari	Mallisen
Dravya Sangrah	Nemichandra		

PATRON KINGS OF JAINISM

Magadh Empire	Bimbisara, Ajatasatru, Samprati, Chandragupta Maurya, Bindusara		
Kharavela(Kalinga)	Hathigumpha inscription in the Udayagiri hills near Bhubaneswar provides an account of support for Jainism.		
Kadamba dynasty	King Kakusthavarma n	Rashtrakuta dynasty	Amoghavarsh a
Ganga dynasty	King Shivamara I; King Butuga II	Chalukya (Solanki) dynasty	Kumarapala

DECLINE OF JAINISM IN INDIA

- Absence of royal patronage.
- Internal division between Digambaras and Swetambaras
- Limited missionary efforts.
- Factionalism within the Jain community
- The rigorous and austere practises associated with Jainism

Important Facts Related to Jainism

- Sallekhana or Santhara: A ritual fast to death which Jains regard as the "culmination of our lives as ascetics".
- During the reign of Ganga ruler Rachamall IV (Panchamalla), Prime Minister **Chamundaraya** built a huge Jain statue of **Bahubali (Gomateshwar)** in 981 AD. It is situated in **Shravanabelagola** (Karnataka).
 - Bahubali is considered the son of Rishabhdey, the first Tirthankar.
 - Mahamastak-abhishek is an important festival held at Shravanabelagola in Karnataka State every 12 years.

ONLY AS

- **Chandragupta Maurya (322-298 BC)** played a role in Jainism's spread in Karnataka by embracing it, abdicating his throne, and living as a Jaina ascetic.
- Epigraphic evidence of Jainism in Karnataka dates back to the third century AD, and from the sixth century AD, **Basadis (Jaina monastic establishments)** proliferated, receiving royal land grants for support.
- Jainism's **strict adherence to non-violence** limited engagement in other occupations, **including agriculture**, due to the prohibition against intentional or unintentional killing. Hence, they adopted occupations like **trading** and **money-lending**. As a result, they were closely associated with urbanisation.

Jain Temples

- Ranakpur temple (Rajasthan): Built by Darna Shah in 1437 AD. It is a Svetambara Jain temple dedicated to Tirthankara Rishabhdev.
- Mount Mangi Tungi (Maharashtra): It enshrines images of Tirthankaras in several postures, including Padmasana and Kayotsarga.
- **Shikharji (Jharkhand)**: It is located on **Parasnath Hill**. It is an important Jain Tirtha for both Digambara and Svetambara. It is where twenty of the twenty-four Jain Tirthankaras attained Moksha.
- **Khajuraho Group of Monuments (Madhya Pradesh)**: The Jain temples are located in the southeast region of the Khajuraho monuments.
- **Dilawara Jain temple** of **Mount Abu** is made of marble. It was built by the Samanta **Vimalshah** of Chalukya (Solanki) ruler **Bhimdev I** of Gujarat.
- **Sittanavasal Paintings**: These represent the theme of Jain Samasvasarana.
- Ellora Caves (Maharashtra), Udaygiri Caves (Odisha), and Sittanavasal Caves (Tamil Nadu) also depict Jain influence.

Important Terms Related to Jainism

- Basadis: Jaina monastic establishment
- Avadhijnana: Superhuman cognition
- Ganadharas: Chief disciplines of Mahavira
- Siddha: Fully liberated
- Pudgala: Aggregates of atoms that have form, colour, taste and smell, and can be touched and felt.
- Chaitanya: Consciousness
- Mohaniya: Delusion
- Gunasthanas: Stages of purification
- **Arhat**: Who has entered the stage of Kevalajnana.
- Tirthankara: Arhat, who has already acquired the capability of teaching the doctrine

Differences Between Jainism and Buddhism

- Buddhism neither accepted nor denied the existence of God, whereas Jainism does not believe in a personal God or a creator God.
 - According to Jainism, God is that soul who has completely removed all the Karmas. The defining characteristic of Godhood is identical to that of liberation itself.
- Jainism did not condemn the varna system as Buddhism did.
- Mahavira believed a person's varna in this life was determined by their past-life virtues and sins, extending liberation prospects to lower caste members.
- Buddhism advocated a middle path, i.e., avoidance of extremities of penance and enjoyment, whereas **Jainism** advocated extreme penance and asceticism.
- Jainism believes in the transmigration of the soul, while Buddhism does not.



5

Magadh Empire



The **Later Vedic Period** (900–600 BC) witnessed transition from a tribal polity based on **lineage** (Jana) to a **territorial state** (Janapada).

 Janpadas used to fight among themselves for resources and political dominance. Some Janapadas extended their territories and brought various janas within their jurisdiction. Such Janapadas grew into **Mahajanapadas** (a large empire), which were either **monarchical** or **republican** in the nature of their polity.

Janapada means the land where a Jana (people, clan or tribe) sets foot or settles.

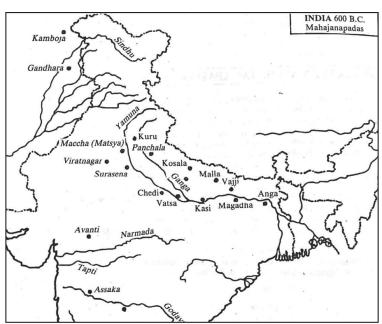
	MONARCHIES		REPUBLICS (GANA SANGHA)
•	Their administration was centralised and governed by the kings. The kingship was hereditary , and the succession was mainly based on the law of primogeniture .	•	There was no single decision-making authority. The tribal chiefs were selected by a larger group.
•	The king was assisted by councils called parishad (consisting mostly of Brahmins) and sabha as advisory bodies.	•	Decisions were taken collectively by the heads (often collectively called Rajas) of the different clans .
•	The king claimed sole revenue rights .	•	Each tribal ruler (Raja) had such rights.
•	Vedic orthodoxy was practised, with the priestly class enjoying a pre-eminent status. The Brahman priests provided legitimacy to the king through various rituals.	•	The influence of the priestly class was not prominent.
•	They had a central standing army .	•	Tribal rulers maintained their armies under a Senapati.

Reasons for the Rise of Large States

- Favourable location: Ganga plains were fertile and closer to the iron production centres.
 - Iron technology improved agriculture, which resulted in surplus collection.
 It helped to sustain their military and administrative requirements and, thus, facilitated stable settlement.
- The rise of large states, with towns as their administrative centres, promoted a sense of allegiance to the Janapada rather than to their jana or tribe.

MAHAJANAPADAS

The Buddhist text **Anguttara Nikaya** (part of the **Sutta-Pitaka**) lists **sixteen** Mahajanapadas.



MAHAJANPADA	CAPITAL	RULERS/IMPORTANT FEATURES
Magadha (Modern Patna and Gaya)	Rajagriha or Girivraja	Haryanka Dynasty ruled Magadha.
Anga (Modern districts of Monghyr and Bhagalpur, Bihar)	Champa (located at the confluence of the Ganga and Champa rivers)	Champa was an important commercial centre, and merchants sailed from here to Suvarnabhumi (Southeast Asia).
Vajji (North of Ganga in the division of Tirhut)	Vaishali (Modern Basarh in North Bihar)	 King: Chetaka It was a confederacy including Lichchhavis, Jnatrikas, and Vajjis. Mahavira belonged to the Jnatrikas Clan.
Mallas (Gangetic Plains U.P.)	Kushinara and Pava	Buddha took his last meal and was ill at Pava and attained Mahaparinirvana at Kusinara .
Kashi (Varanasi U.P.)	Varanasi (between the Varuna and Assi rivers)	Kashi was incorporated into Kosala by King Kansa .
Gandhara (north-western Pakistan)	Takshashila (Major centre for trade and learning)	The Behistun Inscription of the Achaemenid Emperor Darius mentions that the Persians conquered Gandhara in the later part of the 6th century BC .
Kosala (Eastern U.P., including	Sarayu River divides the state into two parts.	King: Prasenjit (Buddha's contemporary)
Ayodhya)	Northern Kosala: Shravasti Southern Kosala: Kushavati	Lumbini, included in the tribal republic of the Shakyas, is the birthplace of Gautama Buddha.
Ashavaka/Assaka (Located between the rivers Godavari and Manjira)	Potali (Modern Bodhan, district Nizamabad, and parts of Adilabad in Telangana)	Only Mahajanapada, situated south of the Vindhya Range , was in Dakshinapatha.
Cheti or Chedi (Eastern part of Bundelkhand region)	Shuktimati or Sotthivatinagara	King: Shishupala
Vatsa (on the banks of river Yamuna)	Kaushambi (at the confluence of the Ganga and Yamuna, near Allahabad)	King: UdayanaVatsa was known for its fine cotton textiles.
Kuru (Western U.P.)	Indraprastha	Mahabharata elaborates on the conflict between two branches of the reigning Kuru clan.
Panchala (Western U.P.)	Ganga River divides the state into two parts: Northern Panchala: Ahichchhatra (Bareilly, U.P.) Southern Panchala: Kampilya (Farukkhabad, U.P.)	Kanauj was situated in the kingdom of Panchala.
Matsya (Jaipur, Alwar and Bharatpur area of Rajasthan)	Viratanagara	Founder: Virata
Shurasena (Braj region in U.P.)	Mathura (on the banks of river Yamuna)	King: Avantipura (Disciple of Buddha)
Avanti (Central Malwa)	Divided by the Vindhyas North Avanti - Ujjain South Avanti - Mahishmati	King: Pradyota (Father-in-law of Udayana)

Kamboja (Rajouri and Hajra (Kashmir) and NorthWest Frontier Province of Pakistan)	Pooncha	Famous in ancient times for their excellent breed of horses and as remarkable horsemen located in the Uttarapatha or North-West.
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Among the 16 Mahajanapadas, a **power struggle** broke out between Magadha, Kosala, Vrijji and Avanti, leading to the **emergence of Magadha** as the most powerful state. Magadha's rise to political supremacy began with **Bimbisara**, who belonged to the **Haryanka dynasty**.

THE RISE AND GROWTH OF THE MAGADHA EMPIRE

Introduction

The Magadha Empire was one of the great kingdoms of the **second urbanization** period (the period between the 6th and 3rd century BC). Prominent dynasties that ruled the Magadha region were **Haryanka**, **Shishunaga** and **Nanda**.

Agricultural surplus, the growth of crafts and trade, and the growing population led to the emergence of towns in the Gangetic plains. This is called the **second urbanisation** in Indian history after the

first urbanisation evident in the Harappan Civilization.

Sources of Information

Vedic texts	Brahmanas and Upanishads refer to many Janapadas and Mahajanapadas.
Buddhist texts	Vinaya Pitaka, Sutta Pitaka, and Abhidhamma Pitaka.
Jainism text	Bhagawati Sutra provides a list of Mahajanapadas of that time.
Archaeological Evidence	NBPW (Northern Black Polished Ware) pottery. Discovery of the archaeological remains from areas like Ahichchhatra, Hastinapur, Kausambi, Ujjaini, etc.

HARYANKA DYNASTY

They were the **first dynasty** to rule **Magadha**, with its capital at **Rajagriha**. The **dynasty's founder** is **unknown**, but most scholars believe the founder to be the **grandfather of Bimbisara**.

Important rulers:

BIMBISARA (544-492 BC)

- He was a **contemporary** of **Buddha** and **Mahavira**.
- He was the 1st king to have a regular and standing army.
- Conflicts:
 - Earlier, he had a rivalry with **Avanti's king, Pradyota**, but later they became friends. He sent his royal physician **Jivaka to Ujjain** (through Dakshinapatha to Avanti) when Pradyota had jaundice.
 - Conquered Anga (East Bihar) by defeating Brahmadatta. Anga and its capital, Champa, were essential for inland and maritime trade.
- He used matrimonial alliances to strengthen his position in westward and northward directions.
 - o 1st wife: Mahakoshala (sister of Prasenjit), from Kosala, brought Kashi as a dowry.
 - o 2nd wife: Lichchhavi Princess Chellana from Vaishali, who gave birth to Ajatashatru.
 - 3rd wife: Daughter of the chief of the **Madra clan** (Punjab).
- He was killed and succeeded by his son Ajatashatru.

AJATASHATRU (492-460 BC)

- He was the most potent and **aggressive ruler** of the Haryanka dynasty and followed his father's **expansionist policy** through military conquest.
- King **Prasenajit** took back **Kashi**, which he had handed out as dowry to **Bimbisara**, leading to a military confrontation between **Magadha** and **Kosala**.



- Conflicts:
 - Annexed Kosala and retained Kashi by defeating Prasenjit (his maternal uncle).
 - Annexed Vaishali (Lichchhavis) by defeating his maternal grandfather, Chetak.
 - He also defeated the Mallas.
- Military weapons:
 - War engines like catapults (**Mahashilakantaka**) used to throw stones.
 - Chariot with mace for mass killing (**Rathamusala**).
- Began the fortification of Rajgriha to counter the threat of invasion posed by the ruler of Avanti (who had earlier defeated the Vatsas of Kaushambi).
- He met **Buddha** during his lifetime.
 - Buddha gained Parinirvana (death) during his reign (483 BC), and he arranged the first Buddhist council.
- He was succeeded by his son **Udayin**.

UDAYABHADRA (UDAYIN) (460-444 BC)

• He founded the **new capital at Pataliputra** (modern Patna), situated at the confluence of the Ganga and Son rivers.

SHISHUNAGA DYNASTY (~413-345 BC)

Important Rulers

SHISHUNAGA

- He was initially an Amatya or "minister" of Nāgadāsaka (the last Haryanka dynasty ruler) and founded the dynasty in 413 BC.
- He temporarily shifted the capital to Vaishali.
- He defeated Avanti and made it a part of Magadha, thus ending the 100-year-old rivalry between Magadha and Avanti.
- He was succeeded by his son, **Kalasoka**.

KALASOKA

- He was also known as Kakarvarna (according to the Puranas).
- Conducted the Second Buddhist Council at Vaishali.

Mahapadma Nanda usurped the throne by murdering the last king of the Shishunaga dynasty.

NANDA DYNASTY (345 BC - 321 BC)

Important Rulers

MAHAPADMA NANDA

- He was also called Ugrasena because of his large army.
- Lineage:
 - According to **Brahmanical texts**, he belonged to a **non-Kshatriya caste**.
 - Buddhist texts describe the Nandas as belonging to Annatakula (of unknown lineage).
- He was the **first empire builder** of India and claimed to be **Ekarat** (sole sovereign who destroyed all other ruling princes), and **Sarva-kshatrantaka** (uprooter of the Kshatriyas).
- He added **Kalinga to Magadha** and brought an image of **Jina** as a victory trophy. He also acquired **Kosala** to crush his rebellions.
- He was succeeded by his **eight sons**, and they were together known as the **Navanandas** or the nine Nandas.

DHANA NANDA

- He was the **last significant king**, having a **vast army** and was referred to as **Agrammes or Xandrames** by Diodorus (Greek historian).
- Credited with the invention of Nandopakramani (a particular measuring standard).
- **Alexander** invaded north-west India (327–325 BC) during his reign.



Hathigumpha (elephant cave) inscription at **Udayagiri** near Bhubaneshwar, Odisha, had records of the aqueduct built by Mahapadma Nanda.

Causes of Magadha's Success

- Ambitious rulers like Bimbisara, Ajatashatru, and Mahapadma Nanda adopted both diplomatic and military means to expand the empire.
- Geographical Advantages:
 - Magadha's access to abundant iron ore allowed its rulers to equip themselves with effective weapons.
 - Magadha's capitals, Rajgir and later Pataliputra, occupied strategic positions.
 - **Pataliputra** was surrounded by rivers, and thus functioned as a **water fort** (**Jala Durga**).
 - Rajgir, surrounded by five hills, was impregnable in its time.
- **Central Position in Gangetic Plains:** Forests in southern areas provided timber and elephants, which gave a particular military advantage.
 - Magadha was the first state to use elephants on a large scale against its neighbours.
 - Timber resources aided boat manufacturing, promoting Magadha's expansion.

ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE MAGADHA EMPIRE

Officials and Ministers

- Higher officials, known as Mahamatras/Amatyas, held multiple roles, such as ministers (mantrin), commanders (Senanayaka), judges, chief accountants, and were assisted by Ayuktas.
 - They were recruited from the Brahmanas and yielded considerable authority.
 - The Buddhist text Mahaparinibbana Sutta mentions Vassakara of Magadha, who enabled Ajatashatru to conquer the GanaSangha of Vajjis.

Laws and Regulations

- Legal and judicial systems replaced tribal laws.
- The social hierarchy influenced civil and criminal laws.
 - Crimes committed by Shudras against the upper varnas were severely punished, but those against Shudras were treated more leniently.
- Royal agents administered law based on the Dharmashastras.
 - Punishments for criminal offences included scourging, beheading, etc.

SOCIETY UNDER THE MAGADH EMPIRE

Social Hierarchy

- The society was divided into four varnas: Brahmanas, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas, and Shudras.
- Shudras were excluded from high positions and were often designated as slaves, artisans, and agricultural labourers.
- A new social category, untouchables, emerged during this period.

Untouchables were **placed below** the **Shudras** in the social hierarchy.

- They were forced to live on the fringes of the settlements, subsisting on hunting and gathering.
- They were marginalised and given only menial jobs.
- They had their **own language**, which was **different** from that spoken by the **Indo-Aryans**.

Family Relations

- Kinship ties were considered important and were incorporated into the caste hierarchy.
- Kula denoted extended patrilineal family, while Natakas included both mother's and father's relatives.
- Extended kin groups were referred to as Nati and Nati-Kulani.

Status of Women

The society was **patriarchal**, and women were accorded **inferior status**.

- Endogamous caste system led to increased subjugation of women.
- Preference for sons over daughters continued as bearing sons was considered necessary for the continuation of lineage and the performance of the funerary rites.

ECONOMY UNDER THE MAGADH EMPIRE

Towns and Cities

Agricultural surplus, the growth of **crafts and trade**, and the **growing population** led to the emergence of towns in the Gangetic plains. This is called the **second urbanisation**.

- Towns were classified as Pura or Nagara (Fortified town or city), Nagarka (Small town), and Nigama (Market town).
- Different types of towns came into being:
 - **Political and administrative centres** such as Rajgriha, Shravasti, Kaushambi and Champa.
 - Centres of trade and commerce such as Ujjain and Taxila.
 - Holy centres such as Vaishali.

ONLY AS

Village Settlement

The **Pali texts** (especially the **Vinay Pitaka**) suggest **three types** of villages (grama):

- Typical villages: These were inhabited by various caste communities and headed by Gramabhojaka, Gramini, or Gramakas.
- Suburban villages (craft villages): Carpenter's village (Vaddhaki-grama), Reedmaker's village (Nalakara-grama), and Saltmaker's village (Lonakara-grama).
- **Border villages** (Aramika-grama)

Trade and Transportation

- **Towns** were **strategically located** on the riverbanks and trade routes.
- Two major **trans-regional routes** were:
 - Uttarapatha (from the north-west across the Indo-Gangetic plains to the port city of Tamralipti on the Bay of Bengal).
 - Dakshinapatha (from Pataliputra in Magadha to Pratishthana on the Godavari and connected to ports on the western coast).
- **Maritime trade:** Pali texts also mention sea travel and trade throughout the subcontinent.
 - Eastern regions: Trade between Bengal and Myanmar.
 - Western regions: Taxila had trade relations with Afghanistan, Iran, and Mesopotamia.
 - **Rajabhatas** were **royal officials** to safeguard the lives and property of travellers.

Items Imported	Gold, lapis lazuli, jade, silver, etc.	
Items Exported	Finished crafts, textile goods, sandalwood, pearls, etc.	

- Use of Money:
 - Panini's Ashtadhyayi (which provides guidelines for writing and speaking Sanskrit) mentions wage (Vetan) and wage-earners (Vaitanika), denoting the use of money.
 - The earliest coins were punch-marked (metal pieces punched with marks of hill, tree, bull, fish, crescent, elephant, etc.) and made of silver and copper. They were issued around the 6th century BC by the Mahajanapadas.

Taxation

- The taxes were paid both in **cash** and **kind**.
- Warriors (Kshatriya) and Priests (Brahamana) were exempted from paying taxes, and the tax burden fell on the peasant class which comprised Vaishyas or Grihapatis.
 - **Bali became a compulsory tax,** with peasants paying **one-sixth** of the produce as tax.
- Generally, there were **no intermediaries** between peasants and the state.

- Taxes were assessed and collected by royal agents (Balisadhakas), often with the assistance of village headmen.
- Peasants were subjected to forced labour for royal projects and works, and Artisans were obliged to work for one day each month for the king.
- Kammikas (customs officials) and Shaulkika/ Shulkadhyaksha (toll officials) levied taxes on merchandise.
- Some villages were granted to Brahmanas (known as Brahmadeyas) and Setthis (big merchants). They had only revenue authority and did not have administrative authority over these villages.

Agriculture

- It was the main economic activity in the villages.
- Paddy transplantation and the use of iron ploughshare substantially increased the yield.
 - Rice was their staple cereal. They also grew barley, pulses, millets, cotton, and sugarcane.
- Grihapatis (rich landlords) employed labourers called Dasas or Karmakaras.
- The smaller landowners were known as Kassakas or Krishakas.
- Iron played a crucial role in opening up forested and hard soil areas of the mid-Gangetic basin for cultivation and settlement. Iron tools have been discovered from Kausambi.
- Access to rich iron mines like **Mayurbhanj** and **Singhbhum** ensured a steady supply of tools.

Guild System

- The Guild system led to the specialisation of crafts.
 Guilds were led by a headman. These crafts were often passed down hereditarily.
- Artisans and merchants lived in fixed localities in towns.
 - Merchant Street was also known as 'Vessa'

IRANIAN INVASION AND CONTACT

In the 6th century BC, fertile and rich natural resources attracted invaders from the north-west. **Weak leadership** and **political disunity** existed among the **small principalities** like Kambojas, Gandharas etc. They offered minimal resistance to the invaders, who later penetrated the area through **the Hindu Kush mountains**.

Achaemenian/Iranian Invasion

- The Achaemenid king Cyrus (558–529 BC) was the first ruler to invade the sub-continent.
- Later, Persian king Darius annexed the Punjab in 516 BC.
- North west Indian subcontinent remained under Iranian rule until the invasion by Alexander the Great.

Takshashila or **Taxila** was part of the **Achaemenid Empire** of Persia.

- It was excavated in the 1940s by Sir John Marshall.
- **Panini** compiled his well-known work, **Ashtadhyayi** (written during **6th to 5th century BC**), in Taxila.

Results of Indo-Iranian Contact

Indo-Iranian contact lasted for almost two centuries and had both **economic and cultural impacts**.

• Economic Impacts

- Trade and commerce enhanced between the regions evident from the **finding of Persian coins** in the **North West Frontier Province** region.
- Persian sigloi (silver coin) were imitations from Persia.
- The Indian word for coin karsa is of Persian origin. The coins might have been inspired by the Persian coins.

Cultural Impacts

- The introduction of the Kharoshthi script, which
 was derived from Aramaic (the official script of
 the Persian empire, written right to left). The two
 major rock edicts of Ashoka viz. Mansehra and
 Sahbazgarhi are in Kharosthi script.
- Iranian artistic and architectural influence is evident in Maurya sculpture. Ashoka's bellshaped capitals, especially the Lion capital of Sarnath and Bull capital of Rampurva pillars.
- Specific terms and phrases in Ashoka's edicts reflect Iranian influence. Eg: for the Iranian term "dipi," the Ashokan scribe use 'lipi.'
- The **Greeks** learnt about **India's great wealth** through Iranians, contributing to Alexander's invasion of India.

Linguistic similarities between Rig Veda and Avesta.

- According to Indologist Thomas Burrow, only phonetic change had occurred over time.
- The Bogaz Koi (in North-East Syria) Inscription dating back to 1380 BC records a treaty between a Hittite and a Mitanni King.
 - It mentions the names of **Rig Vedic gods**, such as Indara, Uruvna (Varuna), Mitira and Nasatiya (Ashvins).

ALEXANDER'S INVASION OF INDIA (327-326 BC)

Reason for Invasion

• **Greek-Iranian Conflict:** In the 4th century AD, the Greeks and Persians fought for world supremacy.

- After defeating the **Persian army**, the Macedonian conqueror **Alexander** marched towards India.
- Disunity in North-West India as it was divided into/ with numerous independent monarchies and tribal republics like Taxila, Punjab (Kingdom of Porus), and Gandhara. Thus, the Khyber Pass remained unguarded, thus an accessible route for invaders.
- Wealth of India, as described by Greek writers like Herodotus.

Alexander's Campaign

- Alexander's invasion of India began in 326 BC (during Dhanananda's reign) when he crossed Khyber Pass to enter India.
 - The **Jhelum River** marked the first strong **resistance from Porus**, an Indian prince.
 - Although Alexander defeated Porus in the battle of Hydaspes (on the bank of Jhelum), he was impressed by Porus's valour and restored his kingdom.
- Alexander continued eastward up to the Beas River, but his army refused to go further due to formidable power of Magadha, war-weariness, disease, and homesickness.
- Thus, Alexander was forced to retreat, ending his dream of an eastern empire. During his return, he died of typhoid in Babylon.

Effects of Alexander's Invasion

Political:

- Establishment of Greek satrapies in the northwestern Indian subcontinent.
- The number of **Greek** settlements **increased** in the conquered regions. **Eg:** Cities like **Alexandria** in the **Sindh** and **Kabul** region and **Boukephala** on the **Jhelum** (Peshawar in Pakistan).
- Alexander's invasion weakened the small states in northwest India, paving the way for the expansion of the Maurya Empire.
- Trade and Communication: Established direct contact between ancient Europe and South Asia, particularly India, by opening up four distinct routes

 three by land and one by sea.



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Mauryan Empire



The Maurya period started around **321 BC** and declined by **185 BC**. It marks the establishment of the **first subcontinental empire** and the development of innovative and stable governance strategies.

Sources to Study

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOURCES LITERARY SOURCES Punch marked coins, Northern Black Polished Ware 'Indika' by Megasthenes. (NBPW). 'Arthashastra' by Kautilya. Wooden Palace of Chandragupta Maurya in Pataliputra. Visakha Datta's 'Mudra Rakshasa' Ashokan inscriptions and Edicts. Dharmashastra texts, Puranas. Junagarh Inscription of Rudradaman I. Buddhist Text Deepvamsa, (Jataka Stories, Mahavamsa, Divyavadan).

CHANDRAGUPTA MAURYA

- He overthrew the Nanda dynasty and established Maurya rule in 321 BC with the help of Chanakya (Kautilya).
- Greek historians mention him as 'Sandrakottus', a modified form of Chandragupta.

Chanakya

- He is also known as Kautilya and Vishnugupta.
- Contemporary Jain and Buddhist texts did not mention him, but popular oral tradition ascribes his wisdom and genius.
- He was the author of the Arthasastra, a treatise on political strategy and governance.
- The play Mudrarakshasa by Visakhadatta (written during the Gupta period) narrates Chandragupta's accession to the throne of the Magadha Empire and the exploits of his chief advisor, Chanakya.

War and Conquest

- He defeated the Greek prefects (military officials) left behind by Alexander.
- He defeated Seleucus (Alexander's general, who established his kingdom extending up to Punjab after the death of Alexander) in a battle around 301 BC, driving him out of the Punjab region.

 As per the peace agreement, Seleucus gave him eastern Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and the area west of the Indus.

Megasthenes

He was a Greek ambassador, sent by **Seleucus Nikator** to the court of **Chandragupta Maurya**. He lived in the **Mauryan capital** of **Pataliputra**.

- **He wrote Indica**, which describes the subcontinent's physical, administrative and cultural features.
- Megasthenes mentioned that famine has never visited India, and there has never been a general scarcity in the supply of nourishing food, even during the war.
- He states that there were seven castes in Mauryan society: artisans, farmers, warriors, philosophers, herders, magistrates, and council members.

Territorial Expansion

- He ruled the whole subcontinent, including Bihar, portions of Orissa and Bengal, western and northwestern India, and the Deccan except Kerala, Tamil Nadu, and parts of northeastern India.
- Justin, a Greek writer, claimed Chandragupta conquered India with a vast army.

Administration

Indica and the **Arthasastra** (compiled a few centuries after the Maurya rule) provide insights into the administration.

- The **Central government** had about two dozen departments controlling social and economic activities, particularly near the capital.
- The empire was divided into several provinces led by royal family members. Provinces were further divided into smaller units.

Army

- Their military might was greater than Nandas.
 Pliny (a Roman writer) mentions a massive army containing foot soldiers, cavalries, elephants, chariots, and the navy.
- The armed forces were managed by a board of 30 officers divided into six committees, each overseeing different military branches army, the cavalry, the elephants, the chariots, the navy, and transport.
- In Mauryan period two types of Gudhapurushas (**Detectives**): Sansthan (Stationary)and Sanchari (Wandering).

Taxation

- Agriculture on newly cultivated land was statecontrolled. It was done with the help of cultivators and sudra labourers, and taxes were collected on it.
- Taxes on peasants ranged from one-fourth to one-sixth of their produce, with the state charging for irrigation (Irrigation facilities Setubandha) and levying tolls on commodities at town gates.
- The state monopolised mining, liquor sales, and arms manufacturing.

He probably renounced the world, and according to the **Jain tradition**, he spent his last years as an ascetic in **Chandragiri**, near **Sravanabelagola**, in **Karnataka**.

The Junagadh Inscription

It was carved during the reign of **Rudradaman** near **Girnar in Gujarat** and dates back to **130–150 CE**.

It refers to **Pushyagupta**, the provincial governor (Rashtriya) of Emperor Chandragupta.

It provides insights into:

- The extent of the Mauryan Empire, which had expanded as far west as Gujarat.
- It records the construction of Sudarshana Lake in the 4th century BC during the reign of Chandragupta Maurya. It was completed during the reign of Ashoka. The Shaka ruler Rudradaman I repaired the lake around 150 AD.

BINDUSARA

He succeeded his father, Chandragupta Maurya, in 297 BC.

- He continued his father's tradition of close interaction with the Greek states of West Asia.
- Chanakya and other competent ministers continued to counsel him.
- He died in 272 BC, and was succeeded by his son Ashoka, though he was not his chosen successor.

ASHOKA

Ashoka succeeded the throne only **four years later, in 268 BC**. This indicates a **succession dispute** between Bindusara's sons.

- He converted to **Buddhism** and adopted a **pacifist policy**.
- Buddhist texts referred to him as Chakravartin.
- His reign marked political unification through one dharma, one language (Prakrit) and one script (Brahmi).

Inscriptions

He was the first Indian king to speak directly to the people through inscriptions. They were generally placed on ancient highways and provided details about the empire's policies and extent.

- They were engraved on rocks, polished stone pillars, and caves and are found in the Indian subcontinent and Kandahar in Afghanistan.
- Inscriptions were primarily written in the Magadhi and Prakrit languages and in the Brahmi script.
 The Kandahar inscriptions are in Greek and Aramaic languages, while the two inscriptions in northwest Pakistan were in Kharosthi script.
- There are 33 edicts comprising 14 Major Rock Edicts, two known as Kalinga edicts, 7 Pillar Edicts, some Minor Rock Edicts and a few Minor Pillar Inscriptions.
- The Major Rock Edicts extend from Kandahar in Afghanistan, Shahbazgarhi and Mansehra in northwest Pakistan to Uttarakhand in the north, Gujarat and Maharashtra in the west, Odisha in the east and as far south as Karnataka and Kurnool district in Andhra Pradesh.
- Minor pillar inscriptions were as far north as Nepal (near Lumbini).
- James Prinsep deciphered the edicts of Ashoka in 1837. He deciphered Brahmi and Kharosthi scripts used in the earliest inscriptions and coins. [UPSC 2016]

Names of Ashoka as per Different Sources

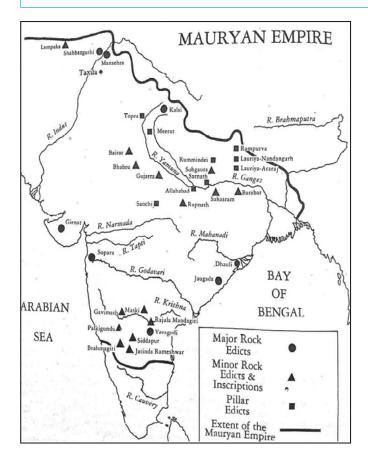
Names	Sources
Piyadassi	Dipavamsa and Kandhar major edict
Ashoka Maurya	Junagarh Rock edict
Ashoka Vardhana	Puranas
Piyadassi rajamagadh	Bhabru-Bairat
Ashoka	Maski
Devanampriya Ashoka Raja	Gurjara
Raja Ashoka	Nittur
Raja Ashoka Dewanampiya	Udegolum
Piyadassi Raja	Barabar caves



Rock and Pillar Edicts

ROCK EDICTS	ТНЕМЕ	
Major Rock Edict 1	Prohibition of animal sacrifice and holiday on festive gatherings. Also describes about Cholas , Pandyas, Satyaputras and Keralaputras of South India.	
Major Rock Edict 2	One of the functions of the state was to provide medical care . He ordered hospitals to be set up to treat human beings and animals and also describes about Chola, Pandayas , Satyaputras and Keralaputras of South India .	
Major Rock Edict 3	Officials, like the Yuktas (subordinate officials) and Pradesikas (heads of the districts), were to go on tours every five years to instruct people about dhamma .	
Major Rock Edict 6	It expresses King's desire to be constantly informed about the people's condition	
Major Rock Edicts 7 and 12	All religions should co-exist, and the ascetics of all religions should be honoured. [UPSC 2020]	
Major Rock Edict 13	 It mentions the war with Kalinga. It is important to understand the Asokan policy of Dhamma, which pleads for conquest by Dhamma instead of War. 	
Kalinga Rock Edict 1	The officials should recognise their responsibilities and strive to be impartial and just. He would send an officer every five years to verify if his instructions were carried out.	
Maski edict	It mentioned that Ashoka had the inscriptions carved under 'Devanampiya'.	

Preventing **unnecessary slaughter** of animals and showing **respect for all living beings** was a recurrent theme in his edicts.



Ashoka's Pillar Edicts

7 Pillar Edicts	Meerut-Delhi, Topra- Delhi,Allahabad, Lauriya- nandangarh, Lauriya- Areraj, Rampurva	
4 Minor pillar Edicts	Sanchi, Sarnath, Allahabad	
2 Terai pillar Edicts	Rummindei/Lumbini, Nigalisagar	

Kalinga War

The Kalinga War was a **punitive war** against Kalinga, which had broken away from the **Magadha Empire** (Hathigumpha inscription speaks of Kalinga as a part of the Nanda Empire).

Effects of War on Ashoka

- The war's brutality deeply affected him leading him to shift from physical occupation (Bherighosha) to cultural conquest and the promotion of dharma (Dhammaghosha).
- He now tried to conquer foreign dominions ideologically rather than militarily by taking steps for the welfare of men and animals in those areas.
 - He did not **wage any war** post-Kalinga war despite having sufficient resources.

- He sent ambassadors of peace to Greek kingdoms in Western Asia and Greece.
- Though his approach appeared pacifist, he did not abandon the army or give up his claim on the acquired territory of Kalinga.
- He is known for his peace policy, non-aggression and cultural conquest. No one in Indian history had followed such a policy before him.

Contemporary Rulers of Ashoka with whom he had Exchanged Missions

- **Antiochus II Theos** of Syria (260-246 BC) was the grandson of **Selecus Nikator**.
- **Ptolemy III Philadelphus** of Egypt (285–247 BC)
- **Antigonus Gonatus** of Macedonia (276–239 BC)
- Magas of Cyrene, and Alexander of Epirus.

Religious Policy

- He followed a tolerant religious policy and did not impose Buddhism on his subjects. He made gifts to non-Buddhist and anti-Buddhist sects. Barabar caves were donated to Ajivika sects.
- Ashoka visiting Buddhist shrines is mentioned as Dharmayatras in his inscriptions.
- He convened the Third Buddhist Sangha (council) in
 250 BC in the capital Pataliputra.
 - An essential outcome of the sangha was to expand the reach of Buddhism to other parts of the region by sending missionaries.
- Many religions, castes and communities lived harmoniously in the Mauryan society.

Missionary Activities

- He sent missionaries to countries like Sri Lanka, Burma and Central Asia.
- He sent his children, Mahinda and Sanghamitta, to Sri Lanka to propagate Buddhism. They took a branch of the original bodhi tree to Sri Lanka.
- Brahmi inscriptions from the 2nd and 1st centuries
 BC have been found in Sri Lanka.

Ashoka's Administration

- He followed paternal kingship (King looked upon the subjects as his children).
- He made an appeal to all to follow Dhamma. The Kandahar inscription mentions the success of his policy of Dhamma.
- Appointed a class of officers (Rajukas) for the administration of justice and Dharma-mahamatras for propagating dharma among various social groups.
- He forbade the killing of certain birds and animals and altogether prohibited the slaughter of animals in the capital.

- His **Dhamma** had the broad objective of maintaining the **social order**. These include **obeying the parents**, **respecting the Brahmanas** and **Buddhist monks**, and showing **mercy to slaves and servants**.
 - He held that if the people behaved well, they would attain heaven, but never mentioned nirvana, which was the goal of Buddhist teachings.
- To check the oppressive rule, he introduced the rotation of officers in Tosali (Kalinga), Ujjain and Taxila.

Rumendei Pillar Inscription of Ashoka (Lumbini, Nepal): The inscription is in Brahmi script and Prakrit language. Ashoka visited and worshipped the place, as Shakyamuni was born there.

Ashoka died in **231 BC**. After his death, the Mauryan Empire slowly disintegrated and died out. **Pushiyamitra Sunga** (a Mauryan general) killed the **last Mauryan king**, **Brihadratha** and usurped the throne of Patliputra.

CAUSES OF DECLINE

- Brahmanical reaction: The anti-sacrifice attitude of Ashoka and Buddhism resulted in a loss to Brahmans as they received gifts during sacrifices.
- **Financial strain** due to the vast **army**, **bureaucracy**, and **large grants** to Buddhist monks.
- Oppressive rule in provinces led to revolts. During **Bindusara**'s reign, citizens of **Taxila** complained about the misrule of **Dushtamatyas** (wicked bureaucrats).
- Ashoka's focus on missionary activities led him to overlook the importance of protecting the northwest frontier. As a result, the region was left vulnerable to potential threats and attacks.
- Economic advancement and the spread of material culture led to the rise of new kingdoms.

MAURYAN ADMINISTRATION

Brahmanical law books emphasise that kings should follow **Dharmasastras** and **local customs**.

- Kautilya called the king Dharmapravartaka (promulgator of social order) and advised him to promote dharma when the varnas and ashram-based social order crumbled.
- Ashoka, in his inscriptions, affirmed the supremacy of royal orders.

Central Administration

- The **capital region** of **Pataliputra** was directly administered.
- They had an extensive bureaucracy. Each department had a large staff of superintendents and subordinate officers linked to the central and local governments.
- The king headed the administration, assisted by a council of ministers, a **purohita** or priest, and **secretaries** known as **mahamatriyas**.

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- Seven elements of Kautiya's Saptanga theory: Svamin, Durg, Janapada, Danda/Bala, Sena, Amatya, Kosha, Mitra.
- An espionage system was established to gather intelligence and oversee officers.
 - The **Arthashastra** recommends that the **spies** work in disguise.
- Hierarchy and Salaries
 - Important officials called 'tirthas' received salaries in cash.
 - Enormous disparities existed in salaries, with high-ranking functionaries like Mantrin (ministers), high priests (Purohita), commanders-in-chief (Senapati), and crown princes (Yuvaraja) earning as much as 48,000 panas and lowest officers receiving 60 panas or as little as 10 or 20 panas.

Pana equals three-fourths of a tola.

Provincial Administration

- Governors, who were typically royal princes, oversaw the provinces.
- In each region, the revenue, judicial administration and bureaucracy of the Mauryan state were replicated to achieve a **uniform system of governance**.

Province	Capital
Uttarapatha(Northern province)	Taxila
Avanti (Western province)	Ujjain
Prachi (Central province)	Patliputra
Kalinga(Eastern province)	Toshali
Dakshinapatha(Southern province)	Suvarnagiri

District and Village Administration

- The **district** was under the command of a **Sthanika**, and **Gopas** were in charge of five to ten villages.
- Villages were semi-autonomous and were under the authority of a Gramani (appointed by the central government) and a council of village elders.
- **Urban administration** was handled by a **Nagarika**.

Judicial Administration

- Justice was administered through courts established in all the major towns. Two types of courts existed:
 - The Dharmasthiya courts dealt with civil law relating to marriage, inheritance, etc. They were presided over by three judges well-versed in sacred laws and three Amatyas (secretaries).
 - Kantakasodhana (removal of thorns) courts were also presided over by three judges and three Amatyas. They were established to clear society of anti-social elements and crimes. It functioned like the modern police and relied on a network of spies.

Punishments for crimes were usually quite severe.

ECONOMY

The economy had developed **beyond subsistence production** to a sophisticated level of commercial craft production.

 The state appointed superintendents (Adhyakshas) to regulate economic activities like agriculture, trade, crafts, mining, etc..

Source of Revenue

- State control over agricultural production and marketing.
- Additional levies included customs and tolls on goods carried for commerce, taxes on land (Bhaga), taxes on irrigation (if supplied by the state), taxes on urban homes, and coinage earnings.
- The state held a monopoly over lands owned by the king (Sita-revenue from crown land), forests, mines and salt.

Taxation System

- They introduced a complex system of taxation and emphasised on the assessment of revenue. An elaborate machinery for assessment first appear in the Mauryan period.
- Revenue collection was the responsibility of a Samaharta (collector-general) who was also in charge of the exchequer. He had to supervise all the provinces, fortified towns, mines, forests, trade routes and others, which were the sources of revenue.
- The Samaharta was the highest officer in charge of assessment, and Sannidhata was the chief custodian of the state treasury and storehouse.
- Taxes were also collected in kind, with rural storehouses serving as famine relief.

Currency and Market Exchange

- Uniform currency facilitated market exchange across regions.
- Punch-marked Silver coins (Pana) were the imperial currency which aided tax collection and payments of officers in cash.
- Silver coins were known as Karshpana. They do not specify the issuing authority or carry any symbols associated with Mauryan kings.
- Pana and its sub-divisions were the most commonly used currencies.

Agriculture

• It had the highest **share in total revenue** to the state and **employment**.

- The Greeks mentioned growing two crops annually in India because of the fertility of the soil.
- Food grains and commercial crops such as sugarcane and cotton were grown. Megasthenes mentions a reed that produced honey (sugarcane) and a tree on which wool grew (cotton).
- The state provided irrigation and managed water distribution. Magasthenes mentions that officers measured the land as in Egypt and inspected the channels meant to distribute water.
- Arthasastra mentions that the employment of slaves in agriculture emerged during this period.
 - State-maintained farms on which slaves and hired workers were employed. War captives of the Kalinga War were employed in agriculture.
 - Labour (slaves and hired labour) was provided by the dasa-karmakaras.

Arthashastra on Slaves [UPSC 2022]

- When a child is begotten on a female slave by her master, both the child and its mother shall at once be recognized as free.
- If a son born to a female slave was fathered by her master, the son was entitled to the legal status of the master's son.
 - However, Megasthenes did not notice slaves in India.

Crafts and Goods

• **Spinning** and **weaving**, mostly of cotton fabrics was the second most crucial occupation after agriculture.

The **Arthasastra** refers to the **regions** producing distinctive and specialised varieties of fabrics. These include – **Kasi** (Benares), **Vanga** (Bengal), **Kamarupa** (Assam), **Madurai** and others.

- The king and royal court members wore clothes embroidered with gold and silver. Silk was generally referred to as Chinese silk, indicating the extensive trade carried on in the Mauryan Empire.
- Metalworks include the use of iron, copper and other metals.
- Woodwork includes ship-building, making carts and chariots, house construction and so on.
- Luxury goods like gold and silver articles, jewellery, perfumes and carved ivory, were produced.

Crafts were urban-based **hereditary occupations** with sons usually following their fathers. Craftsmen mostly worked as individuals, though **royal workshops** also existed.

- Each craft had a head called Pamukha (pramukha or leader) and a Jettha (jyeshtha or elder) and was organised in a Seni (sreni or a guild) to ensure institutional identity which superseded the individual in craft production.
- Disputes between Srenis were resolved by a Mahasetthi.

Trade

- Trade occurred in a hierarchy of markets village market, between villages and towns within a district, across cities and kingdoms.
- Transportation of goods:
 - Throughout northern India, the rivers in the Gangetic plains were major means for transporting goods. Roads carried goods overland even further west and connected cities and markets in the southeast and southwest, passing through towns like Vidisha and Ujjain.
- Merchant groups travelled together as a caravan for security, led by a caravan leader (Mahasarthavaha), undertaking long-distance overland trade.
- To prevent fraud, urban markets and craftsmen were monitored and controlled.
- Overseas trade by ships was carried with countries like Sri Lanka, Burma and the Malay Archipelago. The ships, however, were probably relatively small. Buddhist Jataka tales refer to the long voyages undertaken by merchants.
- The Arthasastra has a list of the goods both agricultural and manufactured, which were traded in internal and foreign trade.
- **Important ports:** Tamralipti at East coast and Bharoch/Bharukachch & Supara at West coast.
- Greek sources confirm the trade links with the west through the Greek states to Egypt. Indigo, ivory, tortoise shell, pearls and perfumes and rare woods were all exported to Egypt.

Spread of Material Culture

 The new material culture was reflected through the intensive use of iron, punch-marked coins, Northern Black Polished Ware pottery, burnt bricks and ring wells and the rise of towns in northeastern India.

New settlements were established with the help of **cultivators** (Vaisyas) and **Sudra labourers** who were taken from overpopulated areas to bring the virgin soil under cultivation.

 They were allowed remission in tax and supplied with cattle, seeds and money.

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- The use of soak pits and ring wells allowed settlements to shift away from the river. This appeared first under Mauryas and spread to other parts of the empire.
 - These conditions led to the flowering of towns in the different parts of the empire.
 - Arrian (a Greek writer) provied an account of the existence of multiple cities

Pataliputra was a large and wealthy city situated at the **confluence** of the **Ganga** and **Son rivers**.

- There were many **grand palaces** in the city, which had a large population.
- The city administration had six committees, each with five members, overseeing functions like sanitation, care of foreigners, birth and death registration, and weights and measures regulation.
- It had monumental architecture, like the manypillared hall made under the Ashoka.
- **Megasthenes** mentions the wooden structures at Pataliputra and states that **Patliputra** was as splendid as the **capital of Iran**.

ART AND CULTURE

The Mauryas introduced **stone masonry** on a large scale.

 Rock-cut Elephant sculpture at Dhauli is the earliest Buddhist sculpture of Odisha constructed by Ashoka in 272-231 BC which carries sculpted elephant faces east.

- Stonework (stone carving and polishing) had evolved as a highly skilled craft, as seen in the stone sculptures in the stupa at Sanchi and the highly polished Chunar stone used for Ashoka's Pillars.
 - Fragments of stone pillars and stumps indicate the existence of an 80-pillared hall, which was discovered at Kumrhar (Patna).
 - Shining of polished stone pillars were identical to Northern Black Polished Ware. Each pillar was made of a single sandstone, and their capital was joined with a pillar on top.

Literature

- Most of the literature and art of the period have not survived.
 - Buddhist and Jain texts were primarily written in Pali.
- The **Arthasastra** notes the **performing arts of the period**, including music, bards, dance and theatre.
- Pictorial representation of cities is found in the sculptures in Sanchi, portraying royal processions and cities.

Important Officers

Sitadhyaksha	Supervised agriculture Bandhanagaradhyaksha		looked after the jail
Pautavadhyaksha	Superintendent of weight and measure	Panyadhyaksha	Incharge of trade and commerce
Lohadhyaksha, Sauvarnika	Looked after goods manufactured in the centres.	Dandapala	Head of Police
Nava Adhyaksha	Superintendent of ships	Sulkaadhyaksha	Collector of tolls
Annapala	Head of Food Grains Department	Durgapal	Head of Royal Fort
Koshadhyaksha	Treasury Officer	Akaradhyaksha	Mining Officer
Nayaka	City Security Chief	Vyabharika	Chief Judge
Karmantika	Head of Industries and Factories	Kupyadhyaksha	Officer of Forest





Central Asian Contact



The post-Mauryan period witnessed many historical, political, and cultural changes, marked by a shift in political focus from **Magadha** to **North-Western India**.

- In India's eastern and central regions, Mauryan rule was succeeded by native dynasties like the Shungas, Kanvas, and Satavahanas.
- In north-western India, Central Asian ruling dynasties took the stage, with the Kushans becoming prominent.

INDO-GREEKS

Early Greek Contact with India

- India's interaction with the Greeks began with the invasion of north-western India by Alexander (327–325 BC).
- Selucus Nicator (Alexander's general) established his rule from Turkey to the Indus River. Later, Chandragupta Maurya defeated Seleucus and they entered into a marriage alliance.
- Bindusara maintained relations with the Antiochus of Syria.
- **Asokan Rock Edict 13** mentions **five Yona/Yavana kings,** indicating deep ties with the Greeks.
- It is argued that the elaborate administrative institutions of the Mauryan Empire drew inspiration from the administrative systems of the Persians and Greeks.
- Luxury items like ivory, pearls, indigo, aromatic substances like spikenard (a fragrant oil from the Gangetic region) and malabathrum (leaf of cinnamon) were exported from India.

The Indo-Greek Kingdom

- They were also known as the Indo-Bactrians or Yavana Kingdom.
- It covered the Northwestern part of the Indian Subcontinent, which included some parts of Afghanistan, Pakistan, and Iran.
- The Indo-Greeks were the **first** to invade India and advanced as far as **Ayodhya (Saketa)** and **Pataliputra**.

Causes of Indo-Greek Invasion

- The Seleucid Empire began to weaken and disintegrate after 250 BC. Seleucid emperor Antiochus III moved down to the Kabul River and defeated the local Indian king, Subhagasena, paving the way for their Indian invasion.
- With the building of the Great Wall of China, the Scythian tribes pushed towards the Greek and Parthian regions. This forced the Bactrian Greeks to move towards India.

Indo-Greek Coins

Coinage was the distinguishing feature of the Indo-Greeks.

- Indo-Greeks were the first to issue gold coins.
- Indo Greeks were the **first** to issue coins which can be **definitely attributed** to the **kings**.
 - The coins carried the **portrait of the reigning king** on one side with his name.

Important Rulers

DEMETRIUS II (180 BC)

- Demetrius II probably, was the first known Indo-Greek king.
- He attacked India in 180 BC and probably had a conflict with Pushyamitra Shunga.
- He extended Bactrian rule to the south of the Hindu Kush.
- He issued bi-lingual square coins with Greek on the obverse and Kharosthi on the reverse.

MENANDER (165/145-130 BC)

- He is considered the most important Indo-Greek ruler, ruling a large part of northwest India, ranging
- from the valleys of the Kabul and Indus rivers to as far as western Uttar Pradesh.
- On coins, he was described as "king" and "soter" or saviour, not a great conqueror.
- He embraced **Buddhism** under the guidance of **Nagasena**. Buddhist work 'Milinda Panho' is a discussion between **Menander** and **Nagasena**.
- He had his capital at **Sakala** (modern Sialkot, Pakistan).
- Conquests:
- Successfully attacked Patliputra but did not consolidate.
- King Kharavela of Kalinga failed to stop him as per the Hathigumpha Inscription.

ANTIALCIDAS:

- His emissary, **Heliodorus**, was sent to the court of **Bhagabhadra**, where he erected a pillar (Garuda-Dhvaja) in **Vidisha** with its capital adorned by a figure of **Garuda**, in honour of **God Krishna**.
- Later, Heliodorus adopted Vaishnavism.

Arrival of Central Asian Tribes

The Indo-Greeks were ousted by nomadic tribes, the Sakas (Scythians), Parthians (Pahlavis) and Kushanas (Yueh-chi or Yuezhi tribes in Chinese) from Central Asia.

- This was due to a complex sequence of migrations and political developments in Central Asia.
 - The Yueh-Chi, in the eastern part of Central Asia, were pushed westward after the Chinese built the Great Wall to protect their villages.
 - The Yueh-chi turned westward and pushed the Sakas towards eastern Iran, where the Parthians had become rulers following the collapse of the Seleucid empire.
 - In 58 BC, the independent Parthian kingdom of eastern Iran was established by Vonones.

THE SHAKAS

The Shakas were **pushed back** from eastern Iran by the Parthian ruler **Mithradates** (188–123 BC). Thus, they **turned** to **north-western India** and settled between the Indus Valley and Saurashtra.

- The Shakas were organised into five branches with different power centres. These were Afghanistan, Punjab, Mathura, Western India and Upper Deccan.
- The first Saka ruler in India was Maues, or Moa/ Moga (20 BC to 22 AD). He occupied Gandhara, but it was his successor, Azes, who finally destroyed the Indo-Greek kingdoms and extended Saka rule as far as Mathura.

Administration

 Provincial governors (Kshatrapas or Satraps) were appointed to administer territories, many of whom became virtually independent rulers.

- Rudradaman I (130-150 AD) was an important Shaka Kshtrapa. He governed Sindh, Gujarat, Konkan, Narmada Valley, Malwa, and Kathiawar.
 - He repaired the Sudarshana Lake (Kathiawar), which was used for irrigation.
 - The rock inscription of Junagadh (Gujarat) mentioned that he defeated the Satavahanas in battle.
 - He was the first to issue a long inscription in Sanskrit, indicating his fondness for the language.

Society

- They adopted Hindu names and religious beliefs, and their coins represented Hindu Gods on one side.
- Patanjali in his Mahabhasya refers to the Shakas as 'Anirvasita (pure) Shudras'.

Decline: The King of Ujjain expelled the Shakas around 57-58 BC, after which he adopted the title **Vikramaditya** (for the **first time**). This victory commences the era of **Vikrama Samvat in 57 BC**, making "Vikramaditya" a prestigious title.

THE PARTHIANS (PAHLAVAS)

They originally resided in **Iran** and migrated to India. The Parthians succeeded the Shaka rule, with both groups mentioned as **Shaka-Pahlavas** in ancient Indian Sanskrit texts. Their **presence** in India was **limited** compared to the Greeks and Shakas.

Gondophernes

He was an important **Parthian king** during the 1st century AD.

 He displaced Shakas and conquered Kabul (43 AD) but later lost it to the Kushanas.

THE KUSHANAS

Kushans were one of the five clans of the Yuechi tribe. They were also known as **Yuechis or Tocharians**, who succeeded the Parthians and Scythians.

Geographical Expanse

- Originating from north Central Asia near China, they occupied Bactria (North Afghanistan) by displacing the Shakas.
- Their empire encompassed territories from the River Oxus (Amu Darya) to the Ganges, spanning Khorasan (Central Asia), Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and northern India.

Dynasties within Kushanas

There were two successive Kushan dynasties:

- The first Kushana Dynasty was under Kadphises I
 (issued coins south of Hindukush and minted copper
 coins) and Kadphises II (issued a large number of
 gold coins and spread the kingdom east of the Indus
 River). They ruled from about 50 AD.
 - Khujula Kadphises was the first Kushan king who conquered Afghanistan. He was followed by Wima Kadphises.
 - These two kings extended their territory to Gandhara, Punjab and as far to the east as the Ganga-Jumna doab up till Mathura.
 - Mathura was their second capital in India (the first being Purushpura or Peshawar).
 - The early Kushan kings issued gold coins with even higher gold content than is found in the Gupta coins.
- The second Kushana Dynasty was founded by Kanishka, who extended Kushan power to upper India and lower Indus basin.

KANISHKA

- He was the son of Kadphises II and was the most famous Kushana king, under whose reign the Kushana empire reached its zenith.
- The Rabatak Inscription (in modern Baghran province, Afghanistan) presents valuable information on Kanishka. It mentions that he adopted the title of 'Devputra' and has been shown wearing a 'peaked helmet' on some coins.
- Kanishka's coins and his headless statue found near Mathura show him dressed in a belted tunic along with an overcoat and wearing boots, testifying to his Central Asian origins.
- He started an era around 78 AD, which is now known as the Shaka era. This era is used in the Indian National calendar.

Geographical Expanse

- The empire expanded from Central Asia to Afghanistan and north-western India, further east into the Ganga valley and southwards into the Malwa region, and included Varanasi, Kaushambi, and Shravasti in Uttar Pradesh and Sanchi in Madhya Pradesh.
 - The centre of this huge empire was Bactria, as evident in the use of the Bactrian language in Kanishka's coins and inscriptions.

The Decline of the Kushan Empire: In the mid-third century, the Sassanians from Iran overtook the Kushan Empire in Afghanistan and west of the Indus. With the decline of the empire, the satraps set themselves up as independent rulers.

SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACT OF CENTRAL ASIAN CONTACT

Polity

- Feudal organisation developed as they imposed their rule on various native princes. The Sakas, along with the Parthians, introduced the Satrap system of government, which was similar to that of the Achaemenid and Seleucid systems in Iran, under which the empire was divided into numerous satrapies.
- Unusual practises like hereditary dual rule developed, where two kings ruled jointly.
 - Evidence of father and son ruling jointly had been found, which also indicates a lesser degree of centralisation.
- The practice of military governorship was also introduced probably by the Greeks. These governors were known by the title of Strategos.
 - They were important for two reasons: (a) for maintaining the power of the rulers over the indigenous people and (b) for blocking invasions from the northwest.
- In the coins, Kushana rulers are referred to titles as 'king of kings', 'Caesar', and 'lord of all lands', signifying their collection of tributes from numerous small princes.
 - They reinforced the notion of the divine origin of kingship by adopting titles like 'sons of God' to legitimise royal authority.

ONLY AS
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Economy

- India received a significant amount of gold from the Altai mountains in Central Asia. Trade with the Roman Empire may have also brought gold to India.
 - Indo-Greeks were the first rulers in India to issue gold coins widely.
 - Their coins were of the highest quality and conformed to the weight standards of Roman coins.
- **Kushan copper coins** in India imitated Roman coins.
- Greek coins were better shaped and stamped, marking an improvement over punch-marked coins.
- Kushan controlled the Silk Route (a trade route spanning China, Central Asia, Afghanistan, Iran, and Western Asia) and toll collection along this route was a substantial source of income.
- The Kushans promoted agriculture, with early traces of large-scale irrigation in regions like Pakistan, Afghanistan, and western Central Asia.

Karakoram Highway

- The artefacts found along the Karakoram Highway
 establish that this was the route taken by Buddhist
 monks travelling to China to spread Buddhism.
 Merchants followed the missionaries, so this became
 a major commercial route for importing Chinese
 silk and horses from the West into India.
- The rock of Hunza (on the Karakoram highway project) mentions the first two Kadphises and the Kusanadevaputra Kaniska.
 - This inscription confirms that Kanishka's empire stretched from Central Asia to eastern India.
 - Buddhist sources record that he had conquered Magadha, Kashmir and Khotan in Sinkiang.

Improved Warfare: The Shakas and Kushans introduced better cavalry and the use of the **riding horse** on a large scale.

 They also introduced turban, tunic, trousers, and long coats. They also brought caps, helmets, and boots for warriors. This gave them an advantage in warfare in Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and India.

Society: Central Asian Rulers became entirely Indianized and absorbed into Indian society as a warrior class (Kshatriyas). Manu explained their status as second-class kshatriyas, having deviated from their duties.

Religious Developments

Kushan rulers showed reverence to **Shiva**, **Vishnu and Buddha**.

- Images of Shiva and Vishnu appeared on the Kushan coins, with some explicitly worshipping Vishnu, like the Kushan ruler Vasudeva, a synonym for Krishna.
- The Origin of Mahayana Buddhism
 - Buddhism in its original form was too puritanical and abstract. It evolved into Mahayana, in which the image of Budhha was worshipped. This was due to increased trade and the arrival of Central Asians.

Kanishka and Buddhism

- He hosted the fourth Buddhist council at Kundalvana in Kashmir (conducted in Sanskrit), where Mahayana Buddhism's doctrines were finalised and Buddhist literature in copper inscriptions was preserved and enclosed in a stupa to commemorate the Buddha's teachings.
 - He also supported the missions sent to China to preach Buddhism.
- He patronised Buddhist philosophers such as Asvaghosha, Parsva, and Vasumitra, as well as the great Buddhist teacher Nagarjuna.
- Kanishka constructed a massive stupa in Peshawar (Purushpur).
- His coins reflected his religious tolerant nature.
 These coins featured a mix of Indian, Greek, and Zoroastrian deities.

Art and Architecture

- Art flourished partly due to royal patronage and partly due to factors like the growing ascendancy of Mahayana Buddhism, which allowed the representation of the Buddha in human form. The Kushana empire brought together artisans trained in various schools, resulting in the emergence of art schools like Gandhara, and Mathura.
 - The influence of Gandhara art extended to Mathura. Buddha's sculptures and the famous headless statue of Kanishka found in Mathura were inspired by it.
- Distinct plain and polished redware pottery was prevalent.



Literary and Cultural Contributions During this Period

Category	Work/Concept Author/Contributor Key Features/Signi		Key Features/Significance
	Sariputraprakarana	Ashvaghosha	First Sanskrit play, composed in nine acts.
	Buddhacharita		An epic poem describing the life of Buddha.
Sanskrit Literature	Saundarananda		A poetic work emphasizing the transformation of Nanda, Buddha's half-brother.
	Junagarh Inscription	Rudradaman I	Earliest specimen of Kavya style written in pure Sanskrit, dating around 150 AD, found in Kathiawar. From now onwards incription began to written in chaste sanskrit
Hindu Treatises	Manusmriti	Anonymous (final shape during this period)	A comprehensive text on law, ethics, and social norms in Hindu society.
Buddhist	Avadanas	Multiple Contributors	Stories emphasizing karmic deeds; examples include Mahavastu and Divyavadana.
Literature	Buddhist-Hybrid Sanskrit Texts	Mahayana Scholars	Texts written to convey Mahayana teachings.
Theatre and Drama	Indian Theatre Innovations	Cultural Influence from Yavana (Greeks)	Introduction of indoor and outdoor theatres, curtains (Yavanika), and rest houses for actresses.

Science and Technology

Field	Contributions	Key Figures/Details	Significance
Astronomy	Incorporation of Greek terms and concepts	Greek influence	Terms like <i>Horashastra</i> (from the Greek <i>horoscope</i>) enriched Indian astrological and astronomical texts.
Medicine	Charaka Samhita	Charaka (Medicine)	Detailed knowledge of herbs; foundational to Ayurveda.
Astrology	Adaptation of Greek astrological practices	Greek cultural influence	Indian astrology was profoundly shaped by Greek concepts, merging them with indigenous traditions.
Glass-Making	Advanced techniques in glass manufacturing	Heavily influenced by foreign practices	Significant progress, surpassing all earlier developments in ancient India.
Metallurgy	Refinements in copper and iron tools	Indigenous artisans	Enhanced tools for agriculture and warfare, supporting economic and military activities.
Textile Industry	Innovations in weaving techniques	Skilled regional artisans	High-quality cotton and silk textiles; boosted domestic and international trade.
Numismatics	Minting of high-quality coins	Kushanas, Greeks	Greek coins introduced precision and quality; Kushanas produced the largest number of copper coins.

TIMELINE OF CENTRAL ASIAN DYNASTIES AND IMPORTANT RULERS IN INDIA

Period	Dynasty/Tribe	Key Rulers	Important Contributions/Events
250 BC	Seleucid Empire	Antiochus III	Defeated Subhagasena; weakened Seleucid Empire paved the way for Indo-Greek invasions.

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180 BC	Indo-Greek	Demetrius II	First known Indo-Greek king; extended Bactrian rule south of the Hindu Kush; issued bilingual square coins.
165-130 BC		Menander (Milinda)	Ruled vast territories; embraced Buddhism; Milinda Panho records his dialogue with Nagasena.
130-120 BC		Antialcidas	His emissary Heliodorus erected the Garuda Pillar in Vidisha; adopted Vaishnavism.
100-20 BC		Maues (Moga), Azes	Moga established Saka rule in Gandhara; Azes destroyed the Indo-Greek kingdoms.
130-150 AD	Shakas (Scythians)	Rudradaman I	Issued the first long Sanskrit inscription; repaired Sudarshana Lake; defeated the Satavahanas.
57 BC		Vikramaditya of Ujjain	Expelled the Shakas; initiated Vikrama Samvat calendar.
43 AD	Parthians (Pahlavas)	Gondophernes	Displaced the Shakas; ruled Kabul but later lost to the Kushanas.
50-78 AD		Kadphises I and II	Kadphises I expanded into Gandhara; Kadphises II issued high-quality gold coins and ruled up to Mathura.
78-120 AD	Kushanas	Kanishka	Established Shaka Era; expanded empire across Central Asia and India; patronized Mahayana Buddhism.
3rd Century AD		Sassanians	Overthrew Kushanas in Afghanistan and west of the Indus.





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The Satavahanas



Satavahanas rose in the **1st century BC** in the **Deccan** region. They were the **native successors** of the **Mauryans** in Deccan and Central India.

- They are believed to be identical to the Andhras mentioned in the Puranas. The Satavahana kings are referred to as "Andhrabhrityah." This term likely referred to an Andhra tribe.
- They ruled over parts of **Andhra**, **Maharashtra**, **Karnataka**, **and Madhya Pradesh**.

 The Satavahanas started to rule in the Telangana area and then moved to Maharashtra to rule in the Godavari basin, with Prathistan (Paithan in Maharashtra) as their capital. Later, they moved eastwards to control coastal Andhra.

The earliest Satavahana inscriptions date to the 1st century BC when they defeated the Kanvas and established power in parts of central India, mainly north Maharashtra and the upper Godavari valley.

IMPORTANT RULERS

Simuka	Founder of the Satvahana dynasty.		
Gautamiputra Satakarni (106-130 AD)	 He defeated Shaka ruler Nahapana and reissued Nahapana's coins with his royal insignia. Nashik inscription of his mother, Gautami Balashri, calls him the conqueror of Shakas, Pahlavas, and Yavanas. He performed the Vedic Asvamedha sacrifice. He assumed the titles of Raja-Raja (King of Kings) and Maharaja (Great King) and was described as the Lord of Vindhya. 		
Vasishthiputra Pulumavi (130-154 AD)	 He was the son and successor of Gautamiputra Satakarni. He established his capital at Paithan on the Godavari. 		
Yagnashri Satakarni (165-94 AD)	 He was the brother of Vashishtiputra Satakarni and the last significant Satavahana king. He recovered north Konkan and Malwa from the Shakas. Issued coins with a ship motif, indicating the importance of overseas trade during his reign. 		
King Hala	Wrote Gatha Sattasai (Prakrit), a collection of 700 love poems with a theme similar Sangam poetry.		

MATERIAL CULTURE OF SATAVAHANA

Metallurgy

- They used iron tools and extracted Iron ores from Karimnagar and Warangal in Telangana.
- They have used gold as bullion as they didn't issue gold coins.
 - They mainly used Lead, Potin, Copper, and Bronze for making coins.
 - Evidence of ancient gold workings is found in the Kolar fields.

Potin is a base metal alloy used in coins. It is typically a **mixture of copper, tin and lead** (in varying proportions) and does not typically contain significant precious metals.

AGRICULTURE AND ECONOMY

- **Paddy transplantation** and **Cotton production** in the area between the Krishna and the Godavari.
- The increase in trade was reflected by numerous Roman and Satvahana coins found in the region. This brought many merchants and artisans to the forefront.

They made **generous donations to the Buddhist cause** and set up small memorial tablets.

- Gandhikas or the perfumers were repeatedly mentioned as donors. At a later stage, the term Gandhika denoted all kinds of shopkeepers.
- Towns developed in Maharashtra by the first century BC and later in eastern Deccan.

Pliny (Italy) mentioned that Andhra included 30 walled towns and numerous villages.

SOCIAL ORGANISATION

The Satavahanas originally seemed to have been a **tribe** of the **Deccan**. However, they were **Brahmanized**, as evident from the claims of **Gautamiputra Satakarni** to be a **Brahmana**. He boasted of **re-establishing the fourfold varna system**.

Matrilineal Aspects

- King's names were often **derived from their mothers**, like **Gautamiputra** and **Vashishthiputra**.
- Some inscriptions were issued under the authority of both the king and his mother.
- While exhibiting **matrilineal elements**, the Satavahana ruling family had a **patriarchal succession** to the throne.

ADMINISTRATION

Satvahanas followed the ideals of **Dharmashastras**. The **king** was portrayed as the **upholder of dharma**, having **divine attributes**.

Administrative Structures

- Some administrative structures from Ashokan times were retained.
 - Officials were known as **Amatyas** and **Mahamatras**.
 - High officials were called **Maharashtrikas**.
- New administrative divisions called Rashtra were introduced, while the districts were called Ahara.

Feudatories and Local Authority

- The kingdom had three grades of feudatories:
 - Primary among them was the **Raja**, who had the right to strike coins.
 - Others included **Mahabhoja** and **Senapati**.
 - The Senapati (commander-in-chief) was appointed as provincial governor to control tribal areas.
- Administration in the rural areas was under Gaulmika, who was the head of a military regiment.
- Kataka and Skandhavara denoted military camps and settlements. These served as administrative centres so long as the king was there. It represented the military character of their rule.

Pliny mentioned that the Andhra kingdom had a **large army** consisting of infantry, cavalry and elephants.

Land Grants and Tax-Free Villages

 They started the practise of granting tax-free lands to Brahmanas and Buddhist monks that helped priestly groups attain higher status.

Naneghat inscriptions (Maharashtra) refer to **tax exemptions** given to the lands granted to Buddhist monks.

- The land donations resulted in creating a group of people who did not cultivate but owned land, leading to the development of land-based social hierarchy and divisions in the society.
- The **Brahmans** helped to enforce the rule of the varna system, making society stable.

RELIGION

- They performed Vedic sacrifices like "Ashvamedha" and "Vajapeya," and worshipped Vaishnava Gods, including Krishna and Vasudeva.
- Promotion of Buddhism
 - Mahayana Buddhism gained a significanct following, particularly among the artisan class.
 - Nagarjunakonda and Amaravati in Andhra Pradesh became important Buddhist centres under the Satavahanas and their successors, the Ikshvakus. [UPSC 2024]
 - Buddhism also flourished in western Deccan areas like Nasik and Junar in Maharashtra, possibly with the support of traders.

ARCHITECTURE

Rock-Cut Chaityas and Monasteries

- Numerous chaityas (sacred shrines) and monasteries were carved out of solid rock in northwestern Deccan or Maharashtra, like Karle chaitya in western Deccan.
- Three viharas in Nasik carry Nahapana and Gautamiputra inscriptions, dating around 1st to 2nd century AD.

Buddhist Stupas in Andhra

- Construction of Amaravati Stupa started around 200 BC but was fully reconstructed in the latter half of the second century AD.
- Nagarjunakonda thrived during the second and third centuries under the patronage of the Ikshvakus, successors of the Satavahanas.
 - This site contained both Buddhist monuments and early Brahmanical brick temples.
- The Satavahanas contributed greatly to the embellishment of the Buddhist stupa of Sanchi. It was repaired under King Satakarni II.

LANGUAGE

• They used **Prakrit** as their official language. All their **inscriptions were composed in Prakrit** and **written in the Brahmi script**.

Important Scholars During the Satavahana Period

Scholar	Field of Contribution	Key Contributions	
Sarvasena Literature (Prakrit & Sanskrit) Gunadhya Religion and Inscriptions poems focusing on love, nature, and rural life. Composed the Hari Vijaya, a Sanskrit work. He was Prakrit language. Wrote Brihatkatha, a monumental work in Paisac became the source for later texts like Kathasaritsage provides insights into administrative and social practice.		Authored the Gatha Saptashati (700 verses), a collection of Prakrit poems focusing on love, nature, and rural life.	
		Composed the Hari Vijaya, a Sanskrit work. He was a patron of the Prakrit language.	
		Wrote Brihatkatha, a monumental work in Paisachi language. It became the source for later texts like Kathasaritsagara.	
		The Satavahana queen, known for her Naneghat inscription, which provides insights into administrative and social practices.	
		Known for supporting scholars and religious works, promoting Vedic and Buddhist studies.	

Important Satavahana Inscriptions

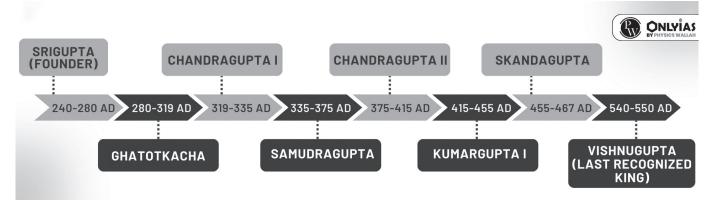
Location	Inscription	Details	
,		- Mentions names of Satavahana rulers, particularly Vasisthaputra sri-chimuka.	
Nashik (Pandavleni)	Gautami Balashri's Inscription	- Issued by Gautami Balashri, mother of Gautamiputra Satakarni Praises her son as the "destroyer of Saka, Yavana". -Mentions victory of Gautamiputra satkarni over Nahapana.	
Naneghat	Naneghat Cave Inscription	 Eulogy of Queen Naganika, wife of Satakarni I. Mentions sacrifices like Rajasuya and Ashvamedha Yajnas. 	
Sanchi Stupa Donative Inscriptions		- Mentions Satkarni II at gateway.	
Girnar Rudradaman I's Junagadh Rock Inscription		- Mentions defeat of Vasisthaputra pulamai by Rudradaman I (Western Kshatrapa ruler).	
Hathi Gumpha Kharavela's Inscription (not directly Satavahana but relevant)		- Mentions military exploits of Kharavela, including a possible confrontation with Satavahanas ; Mentions Satkarni 1	

DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE

The Satavahana Empire declined around the **3rd century AD** and was replaced by the **Ikshvakus**, followed by the **Pallavas** in Andhra and the **Kadambas** in northern Karnataka.



The Gupta Empire



Introduction

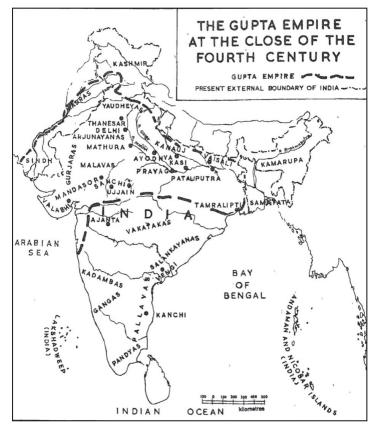
The Gupta Empire rose in the middle of the **3rd** century AD after the decline of **Satavahanas**, **Kushans** and **Murundas**. Guptas were possibly the **feudatories of Kushans** in Uttar Pradesh, with centre of power in **Prayaga**.

Murundas were kinsmen of Kushans who ruled central India from 230 AD to 250 AD after the decline of Kushans in North India.

- It is mostly believed that Guptas were of Vaisya origin.
- Though the Gupta Empire was not as large as the Mauryan Empire, it kept North India united for more than a century. It featured a strong central government, bringing many kingdoms under its hegemony.
 - The rule of the Guptas extended over Anuganga (middle Gangetic Basin), Prayag, Saketa (modern Ayodha) and Magadh.
 - It also covered major parts of the West and Northwest and reached the East coast of Deccan as far as the Pallava Kingdom.

Reasons for the Rise of the Gupta Empire

- Availability of fertile land in Madhyadesha region covering Bihar and Uttar Pradesh.
- They had access to iron ores from south Bihar and Central India.
- They had proximity to areas in North India which were carrying Silk trade with the Byzantine Empire.



IMPORTANT RULERS OF THE GUPTA EMPIRE

The Gupta dynasty was founded by **Sri Gupta (240–280 AD)** who was succeeded by **Ghatotkacha (280–319 AD)**. These two kings adopted the titles of '**Maharajas**'.

Chandragupta I (319-335 AD)

He started the **Gupta era** in **319-20 AD** and was the first to be called **Maharajadhiraja** (the great king of kings). This title indicates his extensive conquests.

- Being a vaishya, he married the Kshatriya Princess of Licchavi from Nepal, Kumaradevi, to increase the prestige of the dynasty and spread his political power.
 - **Lichchavi** was an established **Gana-sangha** lying between the **Ganges** and the **Nepal Terai**.
- **No inscriptions** or **coins** have survived from his reign.

Samudragupta (335-375 AD)

He was Chandragupta I's son and successor. He followed the policy of **conquest** (opposite to Ashoka's policy of peace).

 Allahabad pillar inscription (same inscription on which Ashoka's policy is engraved), composed by Harisena in Sanskrit, refers to his military campaigns

Conquests

The place and countries conquered by him can be divided into five groups:

- 1. Ganga-Yamuna doab.
- 2. Himalayan and frontier states like Assam, Nepal, Bengal, Punjab, etc.
- 3. Forest kingdom of the Vindhyan region (known as **Atavika Rajya**).
- 4. **Dakshinapatha Expedition** against **12 rulers** of eastern Deccan and South India. He reached up to Kanchi (Tamil Nadu), where **Pallavas accepted his suzerainty.**
- 5. Against the **Sakas** and **Kushans**, some of which were ruling in **Afghanistan**.
- Nine Republics in Rajasthan, including the Malavas and Yaudheyas, were forced to accept Gupta's suzerainty under his reign.
- Meghavarman (ruler of Sri Lanka) sent a missionary to Samudragupta for permission to build a Buddhist temple at Gaya.
- He is called 'Napoleon of India' by V.A. Smith, in the sense that he never knew any defeat.
- He performed the Asvamedha sacrifice and issued gold and silver coins with the legend 'restorer of the Asvamedha'.
- In spite of being an ardent follower of Vaishnavism, he was tolerant of other sects too. He was also the patron of the great Buddhist scholar 'Vasubandhu'.
- As a lover of poetry and music, he was given the title 'Kaviraja'.

Chandragupta II (375 - 415 AD)

He was the son of Samudragupta and came to power after a succession struggle with his brother **Ramagupta**.

His reign saw the highest watermark of the Gupta
 Empire and formed the peak of Gupta's territorial expansion.

Alliance and Conquest

- Extended his empire through marriage alliances and conquests
 - He married Kuberanaga, a Naga princess of Central India.
 - He gave his daughter Prabhavati in marriage to the Vakataka prince Rudrasena II, who occupied a strategic position in Deccan. This alliance served a useful purpose when Chandragupta-II undertook his campaign in western India against the Sakas.
 - He defeated and killed the last ruler of Saka satrap and assumed the title 'Sakari' (meaning the destroyer of sakas). With this victory, the territories in the western Malwa and Kathiawar peninsula were annexed into the Gupta empire.
- As a result of the conquest of Western India, the empire gained access to Broach, Sopara, Cambay and other seaports, enabling the Gupta Empire to control trade with Western countries.
- After establishing himself in eastern and western India, Chandragupta II defeated northern rulers like the Huns, Kambojas and Kiratas.
- The **Mehrauli Iron Pillar inscription** mentions his extensive conquests.
- He adopted the title Vikramaditya, which had been first used by a Ujjain ruler in 57 BC. His other names include Vikrama, Devagupta, Devaraja and Simhavikrama.
- Ujjain seems to have been made the second capital by him.
- He was the **first Gupta ruler** to issue **silver coins**.
- The Chinese traveller Fa Hein visited the empire during his era.
- He is credited with maintaining in his court nine luminaries or great scholars.

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Nine Luminaries or 'Navaratnas'

NAME	WORK	NAME	WORK
1. Dhanvantari	Physician	6. Varahamihira	Panchasiddhantika
2. Kalidasa	Abhijnana Shakuntalam, Vikaramorvashiyam etc.	7. Amarasimha	Amarakosha (Sanskrit lexicography)
3. Vararuchi/ Katyana	Vyakarana	8. Kshapanaka	Jyotishya sastra (Astrology)
4. Sanku	Silpasastra (Architecture)	9. Harisena	Allahabad pillar inscription
5. Vittal Bhat	Mantra Shastra (Music)		

Fa Hein's Visit (399-414 AD)

- He was a Chinese Pilgrim who visited India during the reign of Chandragupta II.
- He came to India by the land route through Khotan, Kashgar, Gandhara and Punjab and returned by the sea route, visiting Ceylon and Java.
- He visited Peshawar, Mathura, Kanauj, Sravasti, Kapilavastu, Kusinagara, Pataliputra, Kasi and Bodh Gaya, among other places.
 - He described the people of **Mathura** as numerous and happy and the people of **Pataliputra** as rich and prosperous.
- The main purpose of his visit was to see the land of the Buddha and to collect Buddhist manuscripts from India.
- His accounts provided valuable information on the **religious**, **social** and **economic** condition of the Gupta empire.
- His primary interest was religion, and was not interested in political affairs.

Kumaragupta I (415-455 AD)

He was also called **Sakraditya** and was the son of Chandragupta II.

- His reign was marked by general peace and prosperity.
- He issued a number of coins and also performed the Asvamedha sacrifice.
- He laid the **foundation** for the **Nalanda university**.
- During his reign, a branch of Huns from Central Asia made attempts to cross the Hindukush mountains and invade India.
- Skandagupta' s Junagarh inscription provides information that he appointed governors of all provinces, including Parnadatta as the governor of Saurashtra.

Skandagupta (455-467 AD)

He was the son of Kumargupta and the **last great king** of the Gupta dynasty.

- He was able to repulse an attack by the Huns, but the recurrence of the Huns' invasion strained his empire's coffers.
- The **Bhitari monolithic pillar** inscription gives an account of **Skandagupta's** reign.
- Skandagupta's junagarh inscription provides information that he appointed governors of all province, including Parnadatta as the governor of Saurastra.

ADMINISTRATION

 During the Gupta age, political hierarchies can be identified by the titles adopted. Kings assumed the titles Paramabhattaraka, Maharajadhiraja, Parameswara, Samrat and Chakravartin.

Some historians have suggested that the Gupta Kings claimed divine status. For example, Samudragupta was compared to Purusha (Supreme Being) in the Allahabad inscription.

- It featured a strong central government, bringing many kingdoms under its hegemony.
- Feudalism as an institution began to take root during this period.

King

- King was looked upon as God Vishnu, the protector and preserver.
 - They were connected with Gods through epithets like Parama-Daivata (the foremost worshipper of the gods) and params-bhagavata (the foremost worshiper of Vasudeva Krishna) and Parameshvara.
- Kingship was hereditary, but there was the absence of a firm practise of primogeniture.

Ministers and Officials

- The king was assisted in his administration by a council consisting of a **chief minister**, a **Senapati or commander-in-chief** of the army and other important officials.
- The king maintained close contact with the provincial administration through a class of officials called **Kumaramatyas** and **Ayuktas**.

Kumaramatyas

- The term 'Kumaramatya' occurs in six Vaishali seals, and he was associated with an office (Adikarana) of his own.
 - He seems to be important among Amatyas and equivalent in status to princes of royal blood. Kumaramatyas were attached to the king, crown prince, revenue department or province
 - o Individuals holding the rank of Kumaramatya had additional designations as well. E.g., **Harisena** (son of Dhruvabhuti, a mahadandanayaka) was a **Kumaramatya**, **Sandhivigrahaka** and **Mahadandanayaka**.
- The Gupta rulers did not require as many officials as the Mauryas because of the lower participation of the State in economic activities and the **presence of guilds** to administer.
- Recruitment to various posts was not only confined to the upper varnas.
- Most posts became hereditary, weakening royal control.
- The most important officers of the empire were **Kumaramatyas**, who were possibly **paid in cash**.

Officers in the Gupta Empire

DESIGNATION	ROLE	DESIGNATION	ROLE
Mantriparishad	Council of ministers	Akshapataladhikrita	Keeper of royal records.
Amatyas or Sachivas	Executive officers in charge of various departments	Saulkika	Collector of customs and tolls
Sandhivigrahaka	Minister for foreign affairs, war and peace	Uparikas	Provincial Governor
Mahabaladhikrita and Mahadandanayaka	Superior posts in army	Mahapratiara	Chief of the palace guards
Mahashvapati	Commander of Cavalry	Khadyatapakita	Superintendent of the Royal kitchen.
Dandapashika	The chief officer of the police department.	Dutakas	Spies
Pilupati	head of the elephants department.	Asvapati	Head of the horse department.
Narapati: Head of footsoldiers			

"Lokpala", also possibly referred to as a provincial governor.

Army

 The king maintained a standing army, which was supplemented occasionally by the forces of feudatories.

The Guptas learned the use of **saddle**, **reins**, **buttoned coats**, **trousers** and **boots** from the Kushans. All these gave them mobility and made them **excellent horsemen**.

- In the Army, chariots and elephants took backstage.
 The cavalry and horse archery came to the forefront.
- Seals and inscriptions mention military designations such as Baladhikrita and Mahabaladhikrita (commander of infantry and cavalry).

- The standard term "Senapati" does not occur in Gupta inscriptions, but the term could be found in some Vakataka epigraphs.
- A Vaishali seal mentions the Ranabhandagar-Adhikarana, which was the office of the military storehouse.

Division of the Empire

Bhuktis (Province) →Vishyas (District)→Vithi (Nagar/City)→Villages (Gram)

Provinces

The Gupta Empire was divided into provinces known as **Deshas** or **Bhuktis** (provinces), which were administered by **Uparikas** (governors).

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- The king directly appointed Uparika, who further appointed the head of the district administration and the district board.
- Uparika carried on the administration with control over the military machinery as well.

Damodarpur plates mention Uparika with the title of maharaja, which indicates his high status and rank in the administrative hierarchy.

The **Eran pillar inscription of Budhagupta**, dated Gupta year 165 AD, refers to **Maharaja Surashmichandra** as a Lokpal, governing the land between the Kalinndi and Narmada rivers.

Vishayas

- The bhuktis or provinces were divided into districts known as Vishayas, which were headed by officers known as Vishyapatis.
 - The Vishyapatis seem to have been generally appointed by the provincial governor. Sometimes, even the kings directly appointed the Vishyapatis.
 - Prominent members of the town assisted the Vishyapati with administrative duties.
- In **Urban administration**, organised professional bodies called **Guilds** (also known as **Shrenis**) played an important role.
 - Guilds looked after their own affairs.
 - They punished the members for violations of the law of the guild.
- The administrative units below the district level included clusters of settlements known variously as vithi, bhumi, pathaka and peta.
 - Ayuktakas and Vithi-Mahattaras refer to officials in these areas.
- At the village level, villagers chose functionaries such as **Gramika** and **Gramadhyaksha**.
 - The Damodarpur copper plate of the reign of Budhagupta mentions an Ashtabula-Adhikarana (a board of eight members) headed by the Mahattara or village headman (sometimes also referred as the head of a family community).
 - The Sanchi inscription of the time of Chandragupta II mentions the Panchmandali, which may have been a corporate body.

Feudatory System of Gupta

The major part of the empire was held by **feudatory chiefs** or **vassals** (also known as **Samanta**).

- The charters issued for vassals living on the fringe of the empire had the **Royal 'Garuda' seal.**
- They had obligations like personal attendance to the king, paying him a tribute, and presenting daughters for marriage.

ECONOMY

Nitisara, written by **Kamandaka**, is a text like Arthasastra which emphasises the importance of the **royal treasury** and mentions various sources of revenue.

Agriculture

- Agriculture flourished because of the expansion of irrigation.
- Crops and fields were fenced, and those who indulged in damaging the crops were punished.
- The crops cultivated during the Gupta period were rice, wheat, barley, peas, lentils, pulses, sugarcane and oil seeds.
- According to Kalidasa, southern India was famous for Pepper and Cardamom.
- Varahamihira gave elaborate instructions on the plantation of fruit trees.

Paharpur Copper Plate Inscription:

- The king was the sole proprietor of the land, and
- An officer, **Ustapala**, maintained records of all the land transactions in the district.
- **Village accountant** preserved records of land in the village.

Irrigation

- In Narada Smriti, two kinds of dykes were mentioned:
 - 1. The **Bardhya**, which protected the field from floods.
 - 2. The **Khara**, which served the purpose of irrigation.
- Jalanirgamah drains constructed to prevent inundation of fields
- Canals were constructed not only from rivers but also from tanks and lakes.
- The most famous lake was Sudarsana Lake at the foot of Girnar Hills in Gujarat.

LAND CLASSIFICATION DURING THE GUPTA PERIOD	
Kshetra Cultivable land	
Khila Waste land	
Aprahata Jungle or Wasteland	
Vasti Habitable land	
Gapata Saraha	Pastoral land

Land Grant System

- The practice of granting fiscal and administrative concessions to priests and administrators was started by Satavahanas, and it became a regular affair in Gupta times.
- The striking development of the Gupta period was the emergence of priestly landlords at the cost of local peasants.
- Religious functionaries were granted land free of tax forever, but they could collect all the taxes from the peasants.

- This brought many new areas under cultivation.
- The local peasants and tribals were subjected to **forced labour** and reduced to serfs because of caste classification.
- The priests can even **punish the criminals** in the lands granted to them.

Different Types of Land Grants

Agrahara grants	These were given to Brahmins. It was perpetual, hereditary and tax-free.	
Devagraha grants	A land grant in favour of a Brahmin as well as gifts to merchants for the repair and worship of temples.	
Secular grants	Grants made to feudatories of Guptas.	

Different Land Tenure

TYPES OF TENURES	NATURE OF HOLDING	
Nivi dharma	Endowment of land under a kind of trusteeship was prevalent in North and Central India and Bengal.	
Nivi dharma aksayana	A perpetual endowment. The recipient could make use of income derived from it.	
Aprada dharma Income from land could be enjoyed, but the recipient was not permitted to gift it anyone. The recipient had no administrative rights either.		
Bhumichchi-dranyaya Right of ownership acquired by a person who made barren land cultivable for the fitime. This land was free from any rent liability.		
• Kulyavapa and Dronavapa were different measurements of land during the Gupta period. [UPSC 2020]		

Taxation

- The land taxes, generally called **Baga** or **Bhoga**, increased, and those on trade and commerce decreased.
- Land taxes varied from 1/4th to 1/6th of the produce.
- In central and western India, villagers were also subjected to **forced labour** called **'Vishti'**, which was considered a sort of tax paid by the people. **[UPSC 2019].**
- Gupta inscriptions mention the term **Iranyavesti** for **forced labour**.
- The inscriptions related to **Vishti** were found mostly in the **Madhya Pradesh** and **Kathiawar** regions.

Different Kinds Of Taxes

TAX	NATURE	
Bhaga	King's customary share of the produce normally amounting to one-sixth of the produce paid by cultivators.	
Bhoga	Periodic supply of fruits, firewood, flowers, etc., which the village had to provide to the king.	
Kara	Periodic tax levied on the villagers (not a part of the annual land tax).	
Bali	It was a voluntary offering by the people to the king but later became compulsory. It was an oppressive tax.	
Udianga	Either a sort of police tax for the maintenance of police stations or a water tax. Hence, it was also an extra tax.	
Uparikara	It was also an extra tax.	
Hiranya	Literally, it means the tax payable on gold coins, but in practise, it was probably the king's share of certain crops paid in kind.	
Vata-Bhuta	Different kinds of cess for maintenance of rites for the winds (Vata) and the spirits (Bhuta)	
Halivakara	A plough tax paid by every cultivator owning a plough.	
Sulka	A royal share of merchandise brought into a town or harbour by merchants. Hence, it can be equated with customs and tolls.	
Klipta and Upaklipta	Related to the sale and purchase of lands.	

Trade

Both **internal** and **external trade flourished** during the Gupta period. The internal trade was carried on by road and through rivers. Roads were kept safe for travellers, and there was no fear of thieves.

- The Narada and Brihaspati Smritis describe the organisation and activities of guilds, which played an important role economically as well as politically.
- Two distinctive types of traders called Sresti and Sarthavaha existed.
 - **Sresti** settled at a particular place.
 - Sarthavaha caravan trader who carried his goods to different places.
- Usury (lending of money at an exorbitant rate of interest) was in practise during the Gupta period
- As per Fa Hien, Tamralipti was an important port in Bengal that carried on trade with China, Srilanka, Java and Sumatra. He describes the perils of the sea route between India and China.

Important ports in Gupta Empire

East coast	West coast
Tamralipti(Bengal) Kadura and Ghantasala in	Broach and Cambay (Gujarat)
the Andhra region.	Calliena (Kalyan) and Chaul (Maharashtra).

Export and Import Items

- Exported items included cotton clothes from Bengal, Indigo from Bihar, silk from Banares, the scents of the Himalayas, sandal and spices from the south, pearls, precious stones, coconuts, and ivory.
- **Imported items** included gold, silver, tin, lead, silk and horses.
- The Western traders brought **Roman gold** into India in return for Indian products.
- The trade of silk with the Eastern Roman Empire declined around 550 AD as the Roman Empire learnt from the Chinese the art of growing silk.

Mining and Metallurgy

- The rich deposits of iron ore from Bihar and copper from Rajasthan were mined extensively during this period.
- Amarasimha, Varahamihira and Kalidasa made frequent mention of the existence of mines.
- The list of metals used apart from iron were gold, copper, tin, lead, brass, bronze, bell-metal, mica, manganese, antimony, red chalk (Sanssilajata) and red arsenic.
- The **Mehrauli iron pillar** of King Chandra (identified with Chandragupta II) in the Qutb Minar complex

in Delhi manufactured in the 4th century AD have not gathered any rust to date that showcases the craftsmanship of the Gupta era.

Coinage

- The Guptas **issued a large number of Gold coins.**
 - Guptas issued comparatively fewer silver and copper coins.
 - Post-Gupta period saw a decline in the circulation of gold coins.
- Majority of the Gupta coins contain legends and symbols.
- These coins provide interesting details about the titles and sacrifices performed by the Gupta monarchs.
- Goddess Lakshmi is represented as the wife of God Vishnu on the other side of the coins.
- In design, execution and artistic composition, they closely resemble the Greek and Kushan coins.
- The coins with the images of Kumaradevi and Chandragupta I were the earliest coins of the Guptas.
- **Samudragupta** issued **8 types of gold coins** and is represented on his coins playing **Lute** (veena).
- Chandragupta II and his successors issued gold, silver and copper coins.

After the middle of the fifth century, the Gupta king made desperate attempts to maintain their gold currency by reducing the content of pure gold in it, but this proved of no avail.

SOCIETY

The **Brahmana supremacy** continued, and on account of numerous land grants, Brahmanas accumulated wealth.

- The castes became rigid and proliferated into numerous sub-castes as a result of two factors:
 - Large number of foreigners assimilated and each group was considered a kind of Hindu caste. Huns came to be recognised as one of the clans of Rajputs.
 - Absorption of many tribes into Brahmanical society.

Position of Women

The position of women had become miserable.

- By the Gupta period, women were permitted to listen to the Epics and the Puranas.
- The practice of **Swayamvara was given up,** and Manusmriti suggested early marriage for girls.
- The practice of **Sati gained social acceptance** during this period.
 - **Eran inscription (510 A.D.)** of Bhanugupta provides the **first evidence of sati**.

- Women were generally denied property rights, but the inscription of Prabhavati Devi indicates that she had possessed land in her name.
- The **change of women's gotra upon marriage** can be dated to the period after the 5th century A.D.
- **Sudras,** who earlier appeared as servants, slaves and agricultural labourers, now became agriculturists.
- The distinction between Vaishyas and Sudras got blurred.
- Untouchability had slowly begun during this period, and chandalas had increased in number. They were segregated from society.

RELIGION

Brahmanism gained prominence, and **worship of Shiva** and **Vishnu** came to the forefront. For the **first time**, we get the image of Vishnu, Shiva and some other god. Worship of a new god called **Krishna** started.

- Most of the Gupta kings were Vaishnavaites. Religious literature like the Puranas was composed during this period. Vishnu emerged as the god of devotion and saviour of the varna system.
 - 'Vishnupurana' and 'Vishnusmriti'(a law book) were written in his honour.
 - Bhagwadgita appeared in the 4th century AD, which taught devotion to Lord Krishna and stressed the performance of function assigned to each varna.
- Fa Hein called Gangetic Valley 'the island of Brahmanism'.
- **Idol worship** became a common feature.
- **Agricultural festivals** were given religious colour and became a source of income for the priests.
- **Buddhism** flourished in northwestern India but was in a state of neglect in the Gangetic Valley. Buddhism

- **no longer received royal patronage** like in the days of Ashoka and Kanishka.
- Jainism flourished in western and southern India.
 The great Jain council at Valabhi was held, and the Jain canon of Svetambaras was compiled during the Gupta era.
- Gupta Kings followed a policy of tolerance, and there is no evidence of persecution of followers of Buddhism and Jainism.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

- It was far more developed than earlier times, and for the first time, civil and criminal law were clearly demarcated.
- Theft and Adultery came under criminal law, and property disputes came under civil law.
- Elaborate laws were laid down about inheritance.
- There were different courts like **Karana**, **Adhikarana**, **Aharmasana** etc.
- The King was the upholder of law and tried the case with the help of Brahamana priests.
- The guilds of artisans, merchants, etc., were governed by their own laws.
- Laws were based on differences in varnas, and culprits belonging to a higher Varna got less punishment.
- Punishments were **not severe**, and **imposing a fine** was a common punishment.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE

- The Gupta period is referred to as the Golden Age of ancient India in terms of arts and cultural developments.
- Art was **mostly inspired by religion**, and there were very few non-religious art forms.

Buddhist Art

Sculptures	 Bronze image of Buddha in Sultanganj near Bhagalpur. Images of Buddha from Mathura and Sarnath.
Paintings	 Ajanta paintings are life-like and natural. They are marked by their brilliance of colours. They depict various life events in the life of Buddha. The paintings are also seen at Bagh caves (Dhar, Madhya Pradesh). Paintings at Sigiriya in Sri Lanka were highly influenced by the Ajanta style.
Stupas	Stupas were found in Samat (Uttar Pradesh), Ratnagiri (Orissa) and Mirpur Khas (Sind).

Temple Architecture

- Both Nagara and Dravidian styles of art evolved, but most architecture had been lost due to foreign invasions like that of the Huns.
- There was **no influence of the Gandhara style** in architecture.
- In the temples, images of Vishnu, Shiva and some other Hindu Gods were found.

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- The leading God is large and represented in the centre, with subordinate gods smaller and around him.
- Only a few brick temples of this era remained. Eg.
 the temples of Bhitargaon in Kanpur, Bhaitari in
 Ghazipur, Nachnakutara in Panna and Deogarh in
 Ihansi.
- The sculptures in the temple at Garhwas near Allahabad remain important specimens of the Gupta art.
- The earliest brick structure of Nalanda University belongs to this period.

Stone and Metal Sculptures

- Stone sculpture of erect Buddha from Sarnath.
- Stone sculpture of the great **Boar** (Varaha) at the entrance of a cave at **Udayagiri**.
- Copper image of Buddha at Nalanda and the Sultanganj Buddha.

Terracotta and Pottery

- Clay figurines were used both for religious and secular purposes.
- The most distinctive class of pottery of this period is the "red ware".
- Remains of Gupta pottery were found at Ahchichhatra,
 Rajgarh, Hastinapur and Bashar.

Prayaga Prashasthi (Allahabad Pillar Inscription)

- It is engraved on the Asokan pillar and composed by Harisena in classical Sanskrit using the Nagari script.
- It describes the personality of Samudragupta, the circumstances of his accession, his military campaigns in North India and Deccan, his relationships with other contemporary rulers and his accomplishments as a poet and scholar.
- In this inscription, **Samudragupta** is compared to **Purusha (Supreme Being).**

Literature

This era is known for the production of various **secular** as well as **religious literature**.

 Sanskrit became the official language, and all their epigraphic records were written in it. The period saw the last phase of Smriti literature.

- The Nagari script evolved from the Brahmi script.
- Prakrit forms such as Suraseni used in Mathura and its vicinity, Ardh Magadhi spoken in Awadh and Bundelkhand and Magadhi in modern Bihar.
 - Prakrit had patronage outside the court circle.
- Characteristics of **plays** during the Gupta period:
 - They were all **comedies.**
 - The characters of the higher and lower classes do not speak the same language. Women and Sudras speak Prakrit, while others speak Sanskrit.
- Bhasa wrote 13 plays, which include: [UPSC 2024]
- 1. Pratijna Augandharayana, 2. Svapnavasavadatta,
- 3. Charudatta, 4. Pancaratra, 5. Madhyama Vyayoga, 6.Pratima-nataka, 7. Duta Vakyam, 8. Duta Ghatotkacha,
- 9. Karnabharam, 10. Urubhanga, 11. Avimaraka, 12. Balacarita, and 13. Abhiseka
- The Puranas in their present form were composed during this period. There are 18 Puranas, the most important among them are the Bhagavatha, Vishnu, Vayu and Matsya Puranas.
- The **Mahabharatha** and **Ramayana** were written in the present form during this period.
- The phase of writing commentaries on the Smritis begins after the Gupta period.
- From this period onwards we find a greater emphasis on verse than on.
- The earlier Buddhist works were in Pali, and the later ones in Sanskrit. Prominent Buddhist writers of the Gupta period were Arya Deva, Arya Asanga, Vasubandhu and Dignaga. [UPSC 2022]

The first regular Buddhist work on **logic** was written by **Vasubandhu**.

- The Jain literature first appeared in Prakrit and later shifted to Sanskrit.
 - Jain writer Vimala wrote the Jaina version of Ramayana.
 - **Siddasena Divakara** laid the foundation of logic among the Jainas.
- Accounts of the Chinese traveller Fa Hien provide valuable information on the religious, social and economic conditions of the Gupta empire.

AUTHOR	WORK	AUTHOR	WORK
Sudraka	Mrichchhakatika (The Little Clay Cart)	Palakapya	Hastayurveda or the veterinary science
Bharavi	Kiratarjuniya - story of conflict between Arjuna and Shiva.	Vagbhata Astanga Samgraha (Summary of the eight branches of medicine).	
		Brahmagupta	Brahmasphutasiddhanta and Khandakhadyaka
Subhandu	Vasavadatta	Amarasimha	Amarakosha (a thesaurus in Sanskrit) [UPSC 2020]

Vishnu Sharma	Panchatantra	Chandrogomia	Chandravyakaranam (Sanskrit Grammar)
Patanjali	Mahabhashya (Sanskrit Grammar)		

Patanjali wrote commentary on some selected sutras of Panini 's Ashtadhyayi which he named Vyakaran Mahabhashya.

Kalidasa [UPSC 2020]

- His Sanskrit drama Abhijnanasakuntalam was considered to be one of the best hundred literary works in the world. It was also one of the earliest Indian works to be translated into European languages.
- Plays Malavikagnimitram and Vikramorvashiya.
 - Malavikagnimitram is the love story of King Agnimitra and the court dancer Malavika.
- Epics Raghuvamsa and Kumarasambhava
- Lyrics Ritusamhara and Meghaduta.

Vishakadatta

- **Devichandraguptam** and **Mudrarakshasa** provide details about the rise of the Guptas. [UPSC 2023]
 - Devichandraguptam is the story of Gupta King Ramagupta who decides to surrender his queen Dhruvadevi to a Shaka invader but his younger brother Chandragupta enters the enemy camp disguised as queen and kills the enemy. In the climax of the play, Chandragupta dethrones Ramagupta and marries Dhruyadevi.
 - Mudrarakshasa narrates the ascent of the king Chandragupta Maurya.

Other Sources of Gupta History

- Narada, Vishnu, Brihaspati and Katyayana smritis.
- Kamadandaka's **Nitisara**, a work on polity addressed to the king (400 AD).

Smritis are religious texts covering a wide range of subjects such as ethics, politics, culture and art. Dharmasastras and **Puranas** form the core of this body of literature.

Sciences During Gupta

The invention of the **theory of zero** and the evolution of the **decimal system** were to be credited to the thinkers of this age.

Aryabhatta

- **Aryabhatiyam:** Deals with arithmetic, geometry and algebra and also used the decimal point value system.
- **Surya Siddhanta**: Examined the true cause of the **solar eclipses**.
- He was also the first to declare that the earth was spherical in shape and that it rotated on its own axis.

Varahamihira

- Panchasiddhantika: on five astronomical systems. It is a summary of Surya Siddhanta, Romaka Siddhanta, Paulisa Siddhanta, Vasishtha Siddhanta, Paitāmaha Siddhanta.
- Brihadsamhita: An encyclopedia on astronomy, physical geography, botany and natural history.
- Brihat Jataka: Astrology.
- **Susruta:** Father of Surgery; Wrote Sushruta Samhita.

Nalanda University

Kumargupta laid the foundation of Nalanda university.

- It was an acclaimed **Mahavihara** and a large Buddhist monastery.
- It is a **UNESCO World Heritage site** and was a centre of learning from the 5th to 12 century AD.
- Nalanda flourished under the patronage of the Gupta Empire in the fifth and sixth centuries and later under **Harsha**, the emperor of Kannauj.
- At its peak, Nalanda attracted scholars and students from Tibet, China, Korea and Central Asia.
- Archaeological findings also confirm the contact with the **Shailendra dynasty** of Indonesia, and one of the kings built a monastery in the complex.
- Nalanda was ransacked and destroyed by an army of the Mamluk dynasty of the Delhi Sultanate under Bakhtiyar Khalji in 1200 AD.

ONLY Ancient India

FALL OF THE EMPIRE

The successors of Chandragupta II had to face the **Hun** invasion.

- Though Skandagupta tried effectively to stop the Huns. However, his successors like Purugupta, Narasimhagupta, Buddhagupta and Baladitya proved to be weak and could not cope with the Hun invaders.
- By 485 AD Huns occupied eastern Malwa and central India, reducing the extent of the Gupta empire. Soon, Yashodharman of Malwa had overthrown the Huns and also challenged the power of the Guptas. His rule, though short, dealt a severe blow to the Gupta Empire.
 - Stone pillar inscriptions from Mandasor in Madhya Pradesh, one of which is dated in 532 AD refer to a powerful king Yasodharman.

Yashodharman set up **pillars of victory** in **532 AD** commemorating his conquest of almost the whole of northern India.

- The rise of feudatories in Bengal, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh weakened the central authority.
- The loss of Western India and the growing practices of land grants for religious and other purposes reduced revenues and crippled them economically.
- **Vishnugupta (540 to 550 AD)** was the last recognised ruler of the Gupta dynasty.

The **later Guptas of Magadh** established their power in Bihar. Alongside them, the **Maukharis** rose to power in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh and had their capital at **Kanauj**. Although the rule of Imperial Guptas lingered till the middle of the 6th century AD, the imperial glory had ended a century earlier.





10

Harshavardhana

Introduction

After the Gupta Empire's decline, North India fragmented into various kingdoms: **Maithriyas** (Gujarat, Capital - **Valabhi)**, **Maukharis** (Agra and Oudh states) and **Vakatakas** (western Deccan).

- Pushyabhutis established an independent state at Thaneswar (lying north of Delhi between Sutlej and Yamuna) and founded the Vardhan dynasty.
 - They initially held a military role under the Gupta Empire and ascended to authority following the Gupta's decline.
- Prabhakara Vardhana (580–605 AD) fought Gurjaras, Huns, and extended his influence upto Malwa and Guiarat.
 - He strategically formed an alliance by marrying his daughter, Rajyasri, to Grahavarman, the Maukhari king of Kanauj. This alliance bolstered his influence in the region.
- **Rajavardhana** (605-606 AD) succeeded his father Prabhakaravardhana.
 - He was treacherously murdered by Sasanka, the Gauda ruler of Bengal, after which Harshavardhana, his younger brother, assumed the throne.

Epigraphical Sources

- Madhuban copper plate inscription.
- Sonpat inscription on copper seal.
- Banskhera copper plate inscription.
- Nalanda inscription on clay seals.

HARSHAVARDHANA (606-647 AD)

Harshavardhana, after becoming king, conquered and integrated the neighbouring kingdom into his empire. He was called the **last great Hindu ruler** of **Northern India**.

- The magnates of **Kanauj** (the capital of the Maukhari kingdom) invited Harsha to ascend the throne.
 - Harsha accepted the throne on the advice of Avalokitesvara Bodhisattva with the title of Rajputra and Siladitya.
 - The two kingdoms of Thaneswar and Kanauj became united under Harsha's rule. Consequently, Harsha transferred his capital to Kanauj.

MILITARY CONQUESTS

- He killed **Deva Gupta of Malwa**, who tried to covet **Rajyasri** (his sister). Rajyasri took to Buddhism and was instrumental in converting Harsha to Buddhism.
- He formed an alliance with Kamarupa (Assam) against Gauda ruler Sasanka. After Sasanka's death, Harsha subjugated the Gauda Empire.



- Harsha aimed to expand southward into the Deccan, but Chalukya king Pulakesin II thwarted his efforts (Mentioned in Aihole inscription by Ravikirti.) Pulakesin II took the title "Parameswara" to celebrate his victory. Inscriptions in Pulakesin's capital, Badami, confirm his triumph over Harsha.
- The hostilities between Harsha and the Maitrakas ended in the marriage of Dhruvabhatta with the daughter of Harsha. Thus, Valabhi became a subordinate ally of Harsha.

Extent of Harsha's Empire

- It is claimed that Harsha's Empire comprised Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Kanauj, Malwa, Odisha, the Punjab, Kashmir, Nepal and Sindh.
- His real authority, however, did not extend beyond a compact territory between the Ganges and Yamuna rivers. Harsha's Relations with China
- Harsha maintained friendly relations with China and was the contempora
 - Harsha maintained friendly relations with China and was the contemporary of the T'ang emperor, Tai Tsung.
 Tai Tsung sent an embassy to his court in 643 AD and again in 647 AD.

ADMINISTRATION

Harsha governed on the same lines as the Guptas, though it became more feudal and decentralised.

• The Emperor was aided by a council of ministers (Mantri Parishad). Key Officials were:

KEY OFFICIALS	ROLE	KEY OFFICIALS	ROLE
Avanti	Minister for Foreign Relations and War	Skandagupta	Chief Commandant of Elephant Force
Simhananda	Commander-in-Chief	Dirghadhvajas	Royal Messengers
Kuntala	Chief Cavalry Officer	Mahaprathihara	Chief of the Palace Guard
Banu	Keeper of Records	Sarvagata	Secret Service Department

Revenue Administration

- According to Hiuen Tsang, the traders had to pay duties at ferries and barrier stations. [UPSC 2013]
- Three types of taxes were collected:
 - Bhaga (land tax in kind, which was one-sixth of produce).
 - **Hiranya** (cash tax from farmers and merchants).
 - Bali (not well-documented).

Land grants to officials seem to have started during Harsha's rule. Crown land/revenue was divided into **four parts**:

- Part I for carrying out the affairs of the state.
- Part II for paying the ministers and officers of the crown.
- Part III for rewarding men of letters.
- Part IV for charity to religious institutions.

Judicial Administration

- Harsha's time saw stricter criminal laws than the Gupta era.
 - Punishments included banishment, limb cutting, trial by ordeal and life imprisonment (given for violations of the laws and for plotting against the king).
- Mimamsakas were appointed to dispense justice.
- Observations of Hieun Tsang [UPSC 2013]

- Though he was robbed, law and order seemed perfect due to strong law enforcement.
- Principal penalties included corporal punishment for serious offenses though it was avoided because of Buddhism's influence.
- Maiming as punishment for offences against social morality and defiance of law.

Hieun Tsang (630-643 AD)

He was a Buddhist monk from China who visited India during the **reign of Harsha**. During his travels, he visited various sacred places in northern and southern India.

- Name of his account: 'Si-Yu-ki' (Buddhist Records of the Western World).
- He was known as the "prince of pilgrims" because he visited important pilgrim centres associated with the life of Buddha.
- He spent about five years at the University of Nalanda and studied there.
- Harsha admired him for his deep devotion to Buddha and his profound knowledge of Buddhism.
- Hieun Tsang carried with him relics of Buddha, Buddha images and manuscripts.

Administrative Divisions

 The empire was divided into multiple provinces, each province further split into Bhuktis. Each Bhukti was divided into several Vishayas. Each Vishaya was further divided into Pathakas. Harsha Charita mentions officials like Bhogapathi, Ayuktha, Pratpalaka-purusha, etc., overseeing local administration.

Cities and Towns

 According to Hieun Tsang, India was the land of innumerable villages, numerous towns and big cities, and Pataliputra lost its prominence, and its place was taken by Kanauj.

Reasons for the Decline of Pataliputra and Rise of Kanaui:

- Trade and commerce, use of coins and tolls declined in Pataliputra during the reign of Harsha.
- Power shifted to military camps (Skandhavaras) and places of strategic importance.
 - Kanauj was situated in an elevated area which made it a place of strategic importance as it was easily fortified.
 - It was situated in the middle of the doab, which allowed the rulers to control both the east and west wings of the doab.
- Charitable initiatives like free hospitals, caring for the sick and poor, and rest houses (Dharamshala) for travellers were also established by Harsha.

Army

Hieun Tsang mentions the **four divisions (chaturanga)** of Harsha's army. He gives details about the strength of each division, its recruitment system and payment for the recruits.

- In the army:
 - Chatas and Bhatas were ordinary soldiers.
 - o Brihadisvaras were Cavalry officers.
 - Baladhikritas and Mahabaladhikritas were the infantry officers.

SOCIETY

Religious Policy

Initially, he was a worshipper of Shiva but **embraced Buddhism** under the influence of his sister Rajyasri. He subscribed to the **Mahayana school of thought**.

 Harsha summoned two Buddhist assemblies, one at Kanauj and another at Prayag (known as (Mahamoksha Parishad).

Buddhist Assembly at Kanauj:

- The assembly at Kanauj was attended by 20 kings, including Bhaskaravarman of Kamarupa.
- A large number of Buddhist, Jain and Vedic scholars attended the assembly.
- A golden statue of Buddha was consecrated in a monastery.

Buddhist Assembly at Prayag:

- Harsha convened quinquennial assemblies known as Mahamoksha Parishad at Prayag (at the confluence of the Ganges and Yamuna).
- He offered lavish gifts to Buddhist monks during the assembly.
- According to Hieun Tsang, Buddhism's principles deeply influenced Hindu society, and social harmony existed among followers of different faiths.
- Moreover, Harsha treated Vedic scholars and Buddhist monks equally, providing equal charities.
- Slaughter of animals and consumption of meat was restricted.

Caste System

According to Hieun Tsang:

- The four divisions of society continued to be in practice as in previous times.
 - The Brahmins and the Kshatriya led a simple life, but nobles and priests led a luxurious life.
 - Agriculturalists were considered Shudras.
- Untouchables, such as scavengers, executioners etc, lived outside the village. They have to announce their entry into town by shouting so that people might get away.
- The butchers, fishermen, dancers and sweepers were asked to stay outside the city.
- The caste system was rigid, and there was no social conflict among the various sections of the society.
- People were honest and not deceitful or treacherous in their conduct.

Status of Women

- Women wore purdah, but it was not followed by women of the higher class. (Rajyasri did not wear purdah)
- Sati practice existed (Yasomatidevi, wife of Prabhakara Vardhana, immolated herself after the death of her husband).

Dietary Habits

Hieun Tsang notes Indians were **mostly vegetarians**. The use of onion and garlic in the food preparation was rare. The use of sugar, milk, ghee and rice in the preparation of food or their consumption was common. Beef and meat of certain animals were forbidden.

Education

- Education was imparted in the monasteries and was mainly religious in character.
- The Vedas were taught orally and not written down.
- Sanskrit was the language of the learned people.



 The wandering bhikshus and sadhus were wellknown for their wisdom and culture.

Cultural Progress Under Harsha

- Harsha was a patron of literature and culture.
 Many prominent authors, such as Bana, known for "Harshacharita" and "Kadambari," was Harsha's court poet.
 - **Harshacharita** was the **first** formal biography of a king.
- Harsha himself was a notable writer. He wrote Sanskrit plays like "Priyadarsika", "Rathnavali" (Holi Festival mentioned here) and "Nagananda."
- Harsha gifted liberally for the promotion of education.
- Temples & monasteries were educational centres.
 Renowned scholars imparted education in the monasteries at Kanauj, Gaya, Jalandhar, Manipur and other places.

Nalanda University achieved its peak during Harsha's reign.

Nalanda University

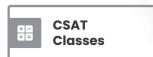
- Hieun Tsang documented Nalanda University, which attracted scholars from China, Japan, Mongolia, Tibet, and Central/Southeast Asia.
- Dharmapala, Chandrapala, Shilabhadra, Bhadrihari, Jayasena, Devakara, and Matanga were its esteemed teachers/scholars.
- In 670 AD, another Chinese pilgrim I-Tsing visited Nalanda.
- The monastery at Nalanda was supported by the revenue of 200 villages.

The kingdom of Harsha disintegrated rapidly into small states after his death.













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11

Kingdoms of South



South India saw a lot of conflict between the **Chalukyas** of **Badami (Western Chalukyas)** and the **Pallavas of Kanchi** during the **6th to 9th centuries AD.** During this time, there were significant strides in culture, literature, and various art forms.

CHALUKYAS

Sources to Study

- Inscriptions: The Allahabad Pillar inscription
 of Samudragupta and the Aihole inscription of
 Pulakesin II provide details of the Pallava Chalukya
 conflict.
- Literature:

- Kannada work, including Kavirajamarga and Vikramarjuna-vijayam (also called Pampabharata, by Pampa)
- o Nannaya's Mahabharatam in Telugu.
- The writings of Arab travellers and geographers such as Sulaiman, Al-Masudi, and Ibn Hauka provide information about the socio-political and economic conditions of India.

Poems:

- The poems of the Vaishnavite Azhwars, later compiled as the Nalayira Divya Prabhandam.
- The **Saiva literature**, canonised as the **Panniru Tirumurai**.
- The Thevaram, composed by Appar (Thirunavukkarasar), Sambandar (Thirugnanasambandar) and Sundarar; and Thiruvavasagam by Manickavasagar.

Important Rulers

RULERS	CONTRIBUTIONS	
Pulakeshin I (543-566 AD)	 Established the Chalukya dynasty by declaring independence from the Kadambas. Performed Ashwamedha yagna. 	
Kirtivarman (566-597 AD)	Founded the capital, Badami .	

Pulakeshin II (609-642 AD)

Defeated **Mangalesha** and proclaimed himself as king (described in the **Aihole inscription**).

- He defeated Harshavardhana on the banks of river Narmada.
- The kings of Malwa, Kalinga, and eastern Deccan accepted his suzerainty.
- Defeated the Kadambas of Banvasi and Gangas of Talakad (Mysore).
- An attempt to attack **Kanchipuram** was repelled by Pallava ruler **Mahendravarman**, sparking a prolonged war between the Chalukyas and the Pallavas.
- He died in the battle with Pallava King Narasimha Varman I.

In the mid-eighth century, the Badami Chalukyas were subdued and replaced by the Rashtrakutas.

ADMINISTRATION

State

The king was the head of the administration.

- During succession, primogeniture was not strictly followed. The elder son was appointed as **Yuvaraja** while the king was in office.
- The rule was according to Dharma-sastra and Nitisastra.
 - Pulakeshin I was well-versed in Manu-sastra, Puranas, and Itihasas.
- Initially, they assumed titles such as Maharajan,
 Sathyasrayan and Sri-Pritivi-Vallaban.

- After defeating Harshavardhana, Pulakesin II assumed the title of Parameswaran.
- The kings took titles such as Maharajadhiraja,
 Dharma Maharaja, Bhattarakan etc.
- Royal insignia: The wild boar (Varaha avatar of Vishnu).
- The state was divided politically for the sake of administration into Vishayam, Rastram, Nadu and Grama.
- Vishayapatis exercised power at the behest of the kings. Samantas were feudal lords functioning under the control of the state.

Royal Women

The Chalukya dynasty of **Jayasimhan I** line appointed royal ladies as **provincial governors**. They also issued coins and inscriptions. Eg: **Vijya Bhattariga**, a Chalukyan princess, issued inscriptions.

Categories of Ministers were:

- **Pradhana** (head minister)
- Mahasandhi-Vigrahika (minister of foreign affairs).
- Amatya (revenue minister), and
- **Samaharta** (minister of exchequer)

Provincial, District and Village Administration

OFFICIALS	FUNCTIONS	OFFICIALS	FUNCTIONS
Grampohis and Gramkudas	Village officials.	Nala-kavundas	Traditional revenue officials of the villages.
Kamunda, or Pokigan	Central figures in village administration, appointed by the kings.	Mahapurush	Responsible for maintaining order and peace in the village.
Maha-Samanta	Provincial governors, with some of them maintaining troops.	Mahajanam	Maintain the Law and order of the village.
Mahatras	Prominent village men.	Nagarapatis or Purapatis	Officials of the towns.
Vishayapati	Chief of 'Vishaya' (district).	Karana or Gramani	Village accountant.

Religion

- They patronised both **Saivism** and **Vaishnavism**.
 - Brahmin groups were invited from the Gangetic regions to perform rituals and ceremonies in the temples.
 - Notable rulers like Kirtivarman, Mangalesa, and Pulakesin II performed yagnas.
 - They bore titles such as Parama-Vaishana and Parama-Maheswara.
 - They gave a prominent place to Kartikeyan, the war god, and the Saiva monasteries became centres for popularising Saivism.
- They also patronised heterodox sects like **Jainism** and donated lands to them.
 - Ravikirti, the poet-laureate of Pulakesin II, was a Jain scholar.
 - During the reign of Kirtivarman II, a Jain temple in Annigere was built.
 - The prince **Krishna** appointed **Gunapatra**, a Jain monk, as his master.
 - Pujyapatar, the author of Jainentriya-Viyakarnam, was a Jain monk, a contemporary of Chalukyan ruler Vijayadityan.
- Hiuen Tsang mentioned many Buddhist centres with followers of the Hinayana and Mahayana sects living there.

Literature

- They used Sanskrit in pillar inscriptions such as Aihole and Mahakudam.
- A seventh-century inscription mentions Kannada as the local language and Sanskrit as the language of culture.
- A chieftain of Pulakesin II authored a grammar work, Saptavataram, in Sanskrit.

Aihole Inscription of Pulakesin II

The **Meguti Jain temple** in **Aihole**, Karnataka, features a Sanskrit inscription (635 AD) composed by the poet **Ravikriti**.

- The inscription serves as a Prashasti, praising the Chalukya dynasty, with a particular emphasis on the reigning king Pulakesin II, also known as Sathyasraya (the abode of truth).
- It outlines the dynasty's history, boasting victories over various adversaries, including the notable triumph over Harshavardhana.

Architecture

- Chalukyas introduced the technique of building temples using soft sandstones.
- Their temples are grouped into two: Excavated cave temples and Structural temples.

- Badami is known for both structural and excavated cave temples. There are four caves in Badami. The largest cave temple built by Mangalesa is dedicated to Vishnu.
- Pattadakal (Eg: Virupaksha temple) and Aihole (Eg: Lad Khan temple) are famous for their structural temples.

In Pattadakal, Chalukyas built more than ten temples, which demonstrate the evolution of Chalukya architecture.

Paintings

- Chalukyas adopted the Vakataka style in painting.
 - Many of the paintings are incarnations of **Vishnu**.
- The most popular Chalukya painting is in the palace built by King Mangalesan (597-609 AD). It is a scene of the ball being watched by members of the royal family and others

PALLAVAS

Introduction

There is no scholarly consensus about the origin of the Pallavas. Some believed that Pallava was a variant of **Pahlava**, known as **Parthians**, others regard them as

native to south India or "with some mixture of north Indian blood".

- Pallava means 'creeper' (a Sanskrit version of the word 'tondi').
- They were a pastoral local tribe who established their authority in the land of creepers called Tondaimandalam (the land between the north Pennar and north Vellar rivers), comprising southern Andhra Pradesh and northern Tamil Nadu, with their capital at Kanchi.
- Under them, Kanchi (modern Kanchipuram) became an important temple town and a centre of trade and commerce.

Sources to Study

- Buddhist sources (Deepavamsa and Mahavamsa written in Pali) and the accounts of Chinese travellers Hiuen Tsang and Itsing provide details about the socio-religious and cultural conditions of the Pallava times.
- Periyapuranam, written by Sekizhar, and the Mathavilasa Prahasanam, written by Mahendravarman I in Sanskrit, are essential sources to study Pallava period.

Important Rulers

Shivaskandavarman

- Probably ruled in the early 4th century AD, as mentioned in some inscriptions.
- The **Hirahadagalli plates** referred to Sivaskandavarman as 'Agnisttomavajapeyasvamedhayaji' (one who conducted the Agnistoma, Vajapeya and Asvamedha sacrifices).

Simhavishnu

- Ruled in the last quarter of the **6th century** and played a crucial role in the Pallavas' rise to power.
- He defeated the Ikshvakus and laid a firm foundation for the Pallava empire.
- He defeated Kalabhras and conquered the land up to the Kaveri.
- He established his capital at Kanchi.
- Bore the title of 'Avanisimha' (Lion of the Earth).

Mahendravarman I (590-630 AD)

- He was defeated by Chalukyan ruler Pulekshin II at Pullalur (near Kanchi), who annexed the northern part of the empire and reached up to Kanchipuram.
- He was a poet, musician and a great patron of the art.
- He wrote the Mattavilasa Prahasanna and began construction of the cave temple at Mahabalipuram.
- He was earlier a Jaina but later took up Shaivism under the influence of Appar. [UPSC 2020]

Narasimhavarman I /Mahamalla (630-668 AD)

- He defeated Pulkeshin II and invaded the Western Chalukyan kingdom by capturing Badami with the help of the Sri Lankan prince, Manavarma.
- He claimed victories over Cholas, Cheras, and Kalabhras.
- He dispatched **two naval expeditions** to help **Manavarma**.
- An enthusiastic patron of architecture, he constructed the port of Mamallapuram and the Rathas at Mahabalipuram.
- It is in honour of Narasimhavarman I that Mahabalipuram is also known as Mamallapuram.



Mahendravarman II (668-670 AD)	The Pallava-Chalukya conflict continued for decades, and he died fighting the Chalukyas.		
Parameshvaraman I (670–695 AD)	 Paramesvaravarman I was called Ugradanda and the 'destroyer of the city of Ranarasika'. Ranarasika was a title of Vikramaditya I. The Kuram copper plates record his military achievements. 		
Narsimhavarman II /Rajasimha (700-728 AD)	 Constructed Rajasimheshvara/Kailashnatha Temple and Shore Temple at Mahabalipuram. Sent an ambassador to China. 		
Dantivarman (795–846 AD)	During his reign, Rashtrakuta king Govind III invaded Kanchi.		
Nandivarman III (846-869 AD)	Defeated the Pandyas in the Battle of Sripurambiyam or Thirupurambiyam, aided by western Gangas and Cholas.		
Aparajita (880-893 AD)	He died in a battle against Chloa king Aditya I , who invaded Tondaimandalam. This sealed the fate of the Pallavas.		

Administration

- Kingship was considered to be of divine origin and hereditary. The king took high-sounding titles like Maharajadhiraja (borrowed from north India), who was aided by a council of ministers.
 - Some ministers bore semi-royal titles and may have been appointed from among the feudatories.

Officials and Their Roles

Amatyas	Counsellors
Mantrins	Diplomats
Rahasyadhikrita	Private secretary
Manikkappandaram- Kappan	Treasury officer
Kodukkappillai	Officer of gifts
Kosaadhyaksa	Treasury supervisor

- Pallava queens did not take an active part in the administration of the kingdom, but they built shrines, and installed images of various deities, and endowed temples.
 - The image of Queen Rangapataka, the queen of Rajasimha, is found in the inscription in the Kailasanatha temple in Kanchipuram.
- Judicial courts were termed Adhikarna Mandapa.
 - Dharmadhikarins Judges.
 - Fines are mentioned in the Kasakudi plates of Nandivarman as:
 - Karanadandam (fines in superior court).
 - Adhikaranadandam (fines at district level).
- District officers collaborated closely with local autonomous institutions and advised provincial governors.
 - Local groups based on castes, guilds, crafts, etc. formed the basis for autonomous bodies.

 Policy implementation was done through a meeting between district representatives and assemblies of villagers.

Land Grants

Land ownership was vested in the king, who had the authority to grant revenue and land to officers and Brahmins. The most common practice was cultivating crown lands through tenants.

- Villages with mixed-caste populations were subject to land revenue payments.
- Brahmadeya villages were gifted to individual Brahmins or groups, exempting them from taxation and leading to increased prosperity.
- **Devadana villages** were donated to temples.
 - Revenue was directed to temple authorities rather than the state.
 - In later centuries, temples became central to rural life, elevating the significance of devadana villages.

In **Urrukkattukottam**, near Puducherry, **eleven plates held together by a copper ring** and stamped with a **Pallava royal seal** (depicting a bull and a lingam) were discovered.

- It records a **grant of a village** made by **King Nandivarman** (753 AD).
- The inscriptional text commences with a eulogy of the king in Sanskrit, followed by the details of the grant in Tamil, and a concluding verse in Sanskrit.

Village Life

- Village assembly, known as Sabha, dealt with various village matters, including land, irrigation, records, and crime.
 - Sabha was subordinate to the district council, which worked with Nadu or district administration.

- Sabha was a formal institution but closely collaborated with the **urar (an informal village gathering).**
- The **village headman** served as a link between the village assembly and official administration.
- Brahman-populated villages maintained records on assembly and council operations.
- Village courts also handled minor criminal cases.
 - At a higher level, in towns and districts, courts were presided over by government officers, with the king as the supreme arbiter of justice.

Tank Irrigation

- **Eripatti,** or **tank land,** was a unique category of land found exclusively in South India.
 - It was **donated by individuals**, and the revenue generated from this land was reserved for maintaining the village tank. **[UPSC 2016]**
 - The tank, lined with brick or stone, was built through the cooperative effort of the village, and its water was shared by all cultivators.
- A **special tank committee** appointed by the village oversaw the irrigation water distribution.
- Water was distributed by canals fitted with sluices to regulate the water level and prevent overflowing at the source.

Revenue and Taxation

Revenue primarily came from rural sources, with urban and mercantile institutions being unplanned.

- Land grants recorded on copper plates give detailed information on land revenues and taxation in the Pallava period.
- Two taxes were imposed on villages:
 - Land revenue paid by cultivators to the state (1/6th to 1/10th of the produce).
 - Local taxes for village services like repairing irrigation works and illuminating temples.
- Additional taxes were levied on various professions and activities like draught cattle, toddy drawers, potters, goldsmiths, etc., when state land tax fell short.
- **War loot** contributed to the state's revenue, underscoring the importance of warfare to the Pallavas.

Army

- State revenue was primarily allocated to maintain the standing army, with the King directly controlling the army, which included foot soldiers, cavalry, and a small contingent of elephants.
- Cavalry was effective but costly, as horses needed to be imported.
- They established a navy and constructed dockyards at Mamallapuram and Nagapattinam. However,

- their navy was significantly smaller compared to the naval power of the Cholas.
- Sculptures at the Vaikunta Perumal temple in Kanchipuram depict significant events from the reign of Nandivarama Pallava, emphasising the importance of warfare in Pallava society.

Trade

- Kanchipuram held significant importance as a trading hub.
- The merchants had to obtain a licence to market their goods.
- Initially, a **barter system** was prevalent, but later, Pallavas **introduced gold** and **silver coins**.
- Merchant organisations like Manigramam were established to regulate trade. Traders formed guilds, identifying themselves as Sudesi,Nanadesi, Ainurruvar, and others.
 - The primary guild operated at **Aihole**.
 - Foreign merchants were called Nanadesi. They
 had a separate flag with the figure of a bull at
 the centre, and enjoyed the right to issue virasasanas.

Vira-Sasanas are inscriptions of guilds that began with a prasasti describing their brave and heroic deeds as traders and as a fighter.

Maritime Trade

- The Pallavas had maritime trade with south-east Asia.
- The guild's jurisdiction extended over Southeast Asia, with its chief known as Pattanswamy, Pattnakilar, and Dandanayaka in inscriptions and their members were referred to as Ayyavole-Parameswariyar.
- Foreign trade involved exporting spices, cotton textiles, precious stones, and medicinal plants to regions including Java, Sumatra, Cambodia, Sri Lanka, China, and Burma.
- Mamallapuram served as a crucial seaport for trade with Southeast Asia, which included three significant kingdoms: Kambuja(Cambodia), Champa (Annam), and Srivijaya (the southern Malaya peninsula and Sumatra).
- On the West Coast, trade was gradually dominated by foreign traders, mainly Arabs, with Indian traders becoming suppliers of goods rather than carriers.

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BY PHYSICS WALLAH

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Society

- The caste system became firmly established, and Sanskrit gained high regard.
- Aryanisation and northern influence on the south accelerated, evident from the royal grants issued by the kings.
- Kanchipuram remained a significant centre of learning.
- The followers of the Vedic religion were devoted to the worship of **Shiva**.
 - Notable Shaiva (Nayanmars) and Vaishnava (Alwars) poet-saints lived during Mahendravarman's time.
- Brahmins' status was elevated, and they received substantial land grants.
 - Aryanisation is reflected in the transformation of educational institutions. Initially, education was controlled by Jains and Buddhists, but gradually the Brahmins superseded them.
 - Brahmins served as royal advisers in literature, astronomy, and law and were engaged in teaching, agriculture, trade, and warfare.
 - Further, they enjoyed exemptions from taxes and capital punishment.
- **Sat-kshatryas** (a group within Kshatriya) played a significant role in ruling the state.
 - They were engaged in trading and warfare.
 - They also enjoyed the right to **read the Vedas**.
- Lower strata of society were engaged in agriculture, animal husbandry, and handicrafts.
- People engaged in scavenging, fishing, dry-cleaning and leather works were positioned outside the varna system.

Religion

- **Jains** initially used **Sanskrit** and **Prakrit** for their religious literature but later adopted **Tamil**.
 - Jainism was highly popular, but competition from Hinduism led to a decline in Jain followers over the succeeding centuries.
 - Mahendravarman I shifted his allegiance from Jainism to Saivism, leading to a loss of royal patronage for the Jains. He became intolerant towards Jainism and destroyed Jain monasteries.
- Jains established educational centres near Madurai and Kanchi, as well as religious centres like Shravanabelagola in Karnataka. However, many Jain monks tended to isolate themselves in small caves in hills and forests.

Monasteries and Mathas

- They served as the core of the Buddhist educational system, concentrated around Kanchi, the valleys of the Krishna and the Godavari rivers.
 - Buddhism faced decline due to the lack of royal patronage and conflict between orthodox and heterodox sects, giving an advantage to proponents of Vedic religions.
- In the eighth century, Mathas gained popularity, serving as a combination of a rest house, feeding centre, and educational institution.

Buddhism and **Jainism** experienced a **decline**, although **Hiuen-Tsang** reported witnessing numerous Buddhist monasteries and priests in Kanchi belonging to the **Mahayana school**.

Sanskrit Literature

Sanskrit was the **official language** at the royal court, leading to its adoption in literary circles.

- Alongside the renowned university in Kanchi, comparable to Nalanda, there were several other Sanskrit colleges
- Mahendravarman I composed Mathavilasa
 Prahasanam in Sanskrit.
- Two extraordinary works in Sanskrit set the standard for Sanskrit literature in the south:
 - Kiratarjuniya by Bharavi and
 Dashakumaracharita by Dandin.
- Dandin of Kanchipuram, author of the great treatise on rhetoric Kavyadarsa, seems to have stayed in Pallava court for some time.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE

- Mahendravarman I introduced rock-cut temples in the Pallava territory.
 - His rock temples are usually the mandapa type, with a pillared hall or mandapa in front and a small shrine at the rear or sides.
- Mandagappattu inscription mentions that shrines to Brahma, Isvara and Vishnu were made without using traditional materials such as brick, timber, metal and mortar.
- The image of Queen Rangapataka, the queen of Rajasimha, is found in the inscription in the Kailasanatha temple in Kanchipuram.
- The early Pallava rulers issued their charters in Prakrit. The second line of Pallava rulers issued their charters in Sanskrit.

Other Dynasties

IKSHAVAKU (225-350 AD)

- They arose after Satavahanas declined in the eastern part of the peninsula (especially in the Krishna-Guntur region), with Nagarjunakonda as their capital.
- They were probably a local tribe who adopted this name to demonstrate the antiquity of their lineage.

THE KADAMBAS OF BANAVASI

Introduction

- The Kadambas emerged prominent around Talagunda (modern Shimoga district) in north-western Karnataka around 345 AD.
- The dynasty was founded by Mayurasharman, who defeated the Pallavas with the help of forest tribes.
- They were absorbed into Chalukyan polity around the 6th century AD and became feudatories of the Chalukyas and Rashtrakutas.

Re-Emergence

- In the 11th century, there emerged two prominent groups claiming Banavasi Kadamba lineage:
 - The Kadambas of **Hangal** (in Dharwar district)
 - The Kadambas of **Goa** (Dharwar, Karwar and Belgaum districts).
 - Both claimed the title Banavasipuravaradhisvara, suggestive of their claims over the capital Banavasi (Karnataka).

The Kadambas of Goa

- They governed from Chandrapura and Gopakapattana and were prominent from the 11th century to the mid-13th century.
- They ruled over the north-western part of Goa, Belgaum, Dharwar and parts of northern Kanara (Konkana, present Ratnagiri) districts of modern Karnataka.

- The founder of the Kadambas of Goa was Sheshtha-I.
- They finally lost to the Chalukyas of Badami.

THE KADAMBAS OF HANGAL

• They retained their base at Banavasi and ruled around the mid-9th century to early 13th century with their **capital** at **Banavasi**.

Administration

- They assumed the title of Konkanadhisa, Konkana Chakravarti (Lord of Konkana), Paschim -Samudradhisvara (Lord of the western ocean) and Mahamandaleshvara.
- Shashthideva performed Tulapurusa and Ashvamedha sacrifices and visited the Somnath temple.
- The region was divided into visayas (districts) administered by maneyas. The lowest unit was a village (grama) governed by grama mukhya, Urodeya or Gavunda. They maintained their army and performed judicial functions.

Economy and Trade

- Land Grants:
 - References of Tribhoga, Sarvanamasya and Talavritti land grants suggest the presence of land holdings by individuals and religious groups.
 - They provided liberal grants to Buddhists, Jainas and Shaivas. Hiuen Tsang attests to several Buddhist monasteries and mathas at Banavasi.

Maritime Activities:

- The capital of the Kadambas of Goa Chandapur –
 was an important maritime centre. Their important
 port, Ganadevi (in the modern Surat district), had
 contacts with the East African coast.
- Jayakesi I, assumed the title of Paschim-Samudradhishvara (Lord of the Western Ocean), which suggests the importance of oceanic trade.

Important Ports During this Period

Dynasty/ Lineage	Prominent Ports	Location (Modern Equivalent)	
Chalukyas	Kalyana	Bidar, Karnataka	
	Mamallapuram	Mahabalipuram, Tamil Nadu	
Pallavas	Vasavasamudram	Tamil Nadu (inland but connected to coastal trade)	
	Nirppeyaru/Mhabalipuram and Mylapore	Tamil Nadu	
, ,	Banavasi	Uttara Kannada, Karnataka	
Kadambas of Banavasi	Honnavar	Uttara Kannada, Karnataka	
Danavasi	Bhatkal	Coastal Karnataka	

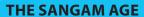
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	Chandrapura	Chandor, Goa	
Kadambas of Goa	Gopakapattana	Goa (present-day Old Goa)	
doa	Kapardika dvipa	-	
Kadambas of	Bankapur	Karnataka (inland but connected to trade routes)	
Hangal	Karwar	Uttara Kannada, Karnataka	
	Vijayapuri (Amaravati)	Andhra Pradesh (near modern Amaravati)	
Ikshvakus	Ghantasala	Krishna district, Andhra Pradesh	
	Kottapatnam	Near Ongole, Andhra Pradesh	





Sangam Age



Sangam Age spans from the **3rd century BC to the 3rd century AD** in South India and Sangams were also called **Muchchangam.**

South India During Mauryan Times

Asokan **Rock Edict II** (270-30 BC), for the **first time**, mentions the political picture of South India. According to it, **Cholas, Pandyas, Keralaputras**, and **Satiyaputra** existed as independent Tamil kingdoms.

Sources to Study Sangam Age

Archaeological

• **Megalithic burials of South India:** Buried their dead in **urns** made of red pottery, which is different from cist burial.

Cist Burial: In this type of burial, a small stone-built coffin-like box is used to hold the bodies of the dead. These types of burials were completely underground.

Urn burial: After death, corpses are cremated, and the ashes are collected and put in an urn.

- Historic ports & capitals like Arikamedu, Kodumanal, Uraiyur and Alagankulam.
- Buddhist stupas and chaityas in Amaravati, Nagarjunakonda etc.

Numismatic	 Pre-Satavahana and Satavahana coins in Andhra-Karnataka, Coins of Cheras, Cholas, Pandyas, Sangam chieftains, Roman copper, silver, and gold coins.
Epigraphic	 Asokan, Tamil-Brahmi, Satavahana and Buddhist inscriptions Short inscriptions on pottery, rings, and stones in Tamil Nadu and international sites like Berenike and Quseir al Qadhim (Egypt)
	• Tamil texts (Sangam, post-Sangam).
	Kautilya's Arthasastra on economy, and statecraft.
Litonomy	Puranas with Andhras/Satavahana genealogy.
Literary	Buddhist Chronicles like Mahavamsa .
	Gatha Saptasati, a Prakrit text by Satavahana king Hala.
	• Tolkappiyam (Tamil text) 5 epics belong to post-Sangam times (fourth to sixth century AD).

Foreign Accounts include The Periplus of Erythrean Sea, Pliny the Elder's Natural History, Ptolemy's Geography, Vienna Papyrus and a Roman Map called Peutingerian Table.

- The Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas ruled this age and are also known as the Muvendar or three crowned kings. They ruled the Indian peninsula south of the Krishna River and fought with each other as well as Sri Lanka.
- The **Pandyas** are believed to have **patronised the Tamil Sangams**, facilitating the compilation of Sangam poems.

The Three Sangams Over the Years

S. NO.	PLACE OF SANGAM	PRESIDENT	OTHER SCHOLARS	IMPORTANT WORKS
1	Madurai	Sage Agastyar	Agastya, Murugavel, Mudinagarayar and Murunjiyur	Agatiyam, Paripadal, Mudukurugu and Kalariyavirai.

N	Note:- No literary work of First Sangam is available.				
2		Kapadapuram	Agastya		Tolkappiyam Mapuram, Isainunukam, Bhutapuram, Kali, Kuruku and Vendali.
3	}	Madurai	Nakkiralu	Thiruvalluvar, Valluvar, Ilango Adigal, Seethalai Sathanar, Nakkiranar, Kapilar, Paranar, Auvaiyar, Mangudi Marudanar.	Kilkanakku, and the Kural,

Sangam Texts

The Classical Sangam corpus consists of Tholkappiyam, Ettuththokai (the eight anthologies), and Paththuppattu.

- **Tholkappiyam,** attributed to **Tholkappiyar,** is the earliest **Tamil grammatical** text, dealing not only with poetry but also with the society and culture of the times.
- **Ettuthogai** and **Pathupattu** collections have about 2400 poems composed by **Panar** (wandering bards) and **Pulavar** (poets).

Ettuththokai (Eight Anthologies)	1. 2. 3.	Natrinai 4. Kurunthogai 5. Aingurunuru 6.	77 11.1	il	8. Purananuru
Paththuppattu (Ten long songs)	1. 2. 3. 4. 5.	Thirumurugatrupatai Porunaratrupatai Sirupanatruppatai Perumpanatruppatai Mullaipattu		6. 7. 8. 9.	Maduraikanchi Nedunalvadai Kurinjipattu Pattinappalai). Malaipadukadam

Women Poets of the Sangam

There were **thirty** women poets who composed more than 150 poems. The most prominent poet was **Avvaiyar**. Others include Allur Nanmullaiyaar, Kaakkaipadiniyar, Kavarpendu, Nalveliyaar, Okkur Masaathiyar, and Paarimakalir.

Post Sangam Text

- The Patinen Kilkanakku (18 minor works) deals with ethics and moral codes. The most important of them are Thirukkural and Naladiyar.
- Silappadikaram by Ilango Adigal and Manimekalai by Seethalai Sathanar are two important epics useful for insights into cultural and religious history.

- Silappadikaram deals with a love story in which a dignitary called Kovalan prefers a courtesan called Madhavi of Kaveripattanam to his wedded wife Kannagi from a noble family.
- Manimekalai deals with the adventures of the daughter born of the union of Kovalan and Madhavi.

Sangam Polity

The Thinai classification reflects varying socio-economic developments in different localities during the Sangam Age.

• This classification also extended to political forms with **three levels of rulers**:

K17nar *	vere the heads of the villages or a small territory, later known as nadu . They were the chiefs of communities living in specific areas.
• Th the the Kir rep Vendar • He • Kir Pri • He	who controlled larger and fertile territories. ey adopted titles like Kadungo , Imayavaramban , Vanavaramban , and Peru Vazhuthi to distinguish emselves from velir and common people. Ings patronised bards and poets , entertaining them in their courts (avaiyam) to enhance their outation and glorify their territories. Indicate the powers over his subjects. Kings conducted Vedic sacrifices. Indicate the powers over his subjects. Kings conducted Vedic sacrifices. Ing was advised by a committee known as "Aimperunkulu" which comprised Ministers (Amaichchar), ests (Anthanar), Generals, Envoys (Dutas or thuthar), and Spies (orrar). Ing was also advised by the imperial court i.e. Orasavai or Vettavai and court poets. The kings of the Sangam age ruled with different titles, like Vanavaramban, Vanavan, Villavar (Chera ers), Senni, Valavan and Killi (Chola rulers), Thennavar and Minavar (Pandya rulers).

• They controlled mainly hilly and forest areas which were located between the Muvendar's fertile territories.

• Notable Chiefs like **Athiyaman, Pari, Ay, Evvi, and Irungo** ruled resource-rich regions

- They patronised poets.
- They held military might, often clashing and occasionally uniting against the main kings.
- Satiyaputra (Athiyaman) in Asokan inscription is a Velir chief in Sangam poems.

Vattakirutal: A king who was defeated in a battle committed ritual suicide by starving himself to death **[UPSC 2023]**

Sangam Society

Velir

There were sharp social **inequalities** during the Sangam era.

- The affluent dwelled in brick and mortar houses, while the poor lived in huts and simpler structures.
- Dominance of Brahmins and ruling caste was visible but clear-cut caste distinction was lacking in the early Sangam period. Though, references of slaves are also found.
- Brahmanas first appeared during the Sangam era in Tamil land. Many of them worked as poets. An ideal king would never hurt them.
- The Kshatriya and Vaisya do not appear as regular varna in sangam text. Though warrior class was not absent.

- Captains of the army received the title of "Enadi" at a formal ceremony.
- Civil and military offices were held by Vallalas, or rich peasants (under both Cholas and Pandyas).
- The ruling caste was referred to as **Arasar** and had marriage relations with **Vallalas (fourth Caste).**
- Large landowners were known as vellalar, ordinary ploughmen were known as uzhavar, and landless labourers, including slaves, were known as kadaisiyar and adimai.
- Low-class artisans (Pulaiyans) were responsible for crafting charpayis.

	Thinai (landscape) concept , Tamilagam was divided into five landscapes. Each region had its istics – a presiding deity, people and cultural life according to the environmental conditions.	
Kurinji	Hilly region characterised by hunting and gathering activities.	
Marutham	Riverine tract, where agriculture was practised using ploughs and irrigation.	
Mullai	Forest region where pastoralism was combined with shifting cultivation.	
Neythal	Coastal land primarily used for fishing and salt production.	
Palai	Arid and parched land unsuitable for cultivation, leading people to engage in cattle lifting and robbery.	

Sangam Economy

Revenue

- Foreign and domestic trade was an important source of revenue.
- **Custom** and **Transit duties** were collected from merchants who moved their goods from place to place.
 - Custom officials functioned in Puhar.
- The Tamil literature mentions irai and tirai as two types of contributions received by the chieftains. While irai was a regular contribution, tirai was a tribute.
- **Spoils of war** were another source of income.
- Agriculture provided regular income, though the share of King was not specified.
- Evidence of taxation is found on highways and in the port of **Kaviripattinam**.

Agriculture

Produced paddy, ragi and sugarcane.

• The Tamil region produced grains, fruit, spices (especially pepper) and turmeric.

Craft Production

- It includes making Bronze vessels, beads, goldwork, textiles, shell bangles, ornaments, glass, iron smithy, and pottery.
- Major Urban centres for craft production were Arikamedu, Uraiyur, Kanchipuram, Kaviripattinam, Madurai, Korkai, and Pattanam in Kerala.
- Maduraikanchi (written by Mangudi Maruthanar) describes day and night markets offering diverse crafted items.

Trade

- Barter was common in trade alongside the use of coins.
- Roman gold and silver coins are found in hoards in southern India, including Coimbatore.
- Evidence of Long distance trade:



- Archaeological sites demonstrate long-distance trade, including links to the Roman Empire, Egypt, Arabia, Malay archipelago and China.
- Early historic ports revealed **Roman amphorae**, **glassware**, indicating active maritime trade.
- **Pottery inscriptions** indicate non-Tamil-speaking traders in Sangam Age craft centres and towns.
- Sangam text "Manimegalai" mentions Magadha artisans, Maratha mechanics, Malva smiths, and Yavana carpenters working with Tamil craftsmen.
- Trade-related terms like vanikan (trader), chattan, and nigama appear in Tamil-Brahmi inscriptions.
- **Umanar,** or **salt merchants**, travelled in bullock carts with their families for trade.
- **Chattu** referred to mobile merchants or itinerant traders.
- Items of trade included Ivory, Pearls, precious stones, muslin, silk, cotton cloth etc.

Army

The state maintained a **regular army** from the taxes collected from the peasantry.

- It consisted of chariots drawn by oxen, Elephants, cavalry and infantry.
 - The nobles and princes or captains rode on elephants and the commander rode on chariots.

Ideology and Religion

Buddhism

The earliest evidence of the appearance of formal religious activities appeared in the time of the Asoka when Buddhism reached south India and Sri Lanka.

- Asoka's daughter is considered to have taken the Bodhi tree to Sri Lanka.
- Legends suggest Chandragupta Maurya's presence in Karnataka before Asoka.
- Buddhism left a notable mark in South India, especially in the Krishna and Godavari delta of Andhra Pradesh.
 Sites like Amaravathi and Nagarjunakonda provide archaeological evidence.
- But compared to Jainism, the evidence for Buddhism is restricted to a few sites in Tamil Nadu.

Jainism

Jainism had a stronger presence in Tamil Nadu, as evidenced by numerous **cave shelters** with Tamil Brahmi inscriptions.

 Their influence on the common people is not known, but there is evidence of the merchants and devotees supporting Jain monks by providing rock shelters and offerings. • In the post-Sangam era, Jains made significant contributions to Tamil literature.

Beginning of Brahminism

The **Satavahanas, Sangam kings,** and **Ikshvahus** supported **Vedic sacrifices,** as indicated in Sangam texts.

- The evidence of Brahmin migration and the performance of Vedic rituals exists in Sangam texts. Though the varnasrama ideology had not taken hold in Tamil Nadu.
- The worship of Vishnu is also mentioned.
- **Megalithic practice** of providing for the dead continued (people offered paddy).
- Cremation was introduced, but inhumation was not abandoned.
- Local god **Murugan** (also known as **Subramaniya**) was worshipped by people.

THE CHOLAS

They ruled central and northern Tamil Nadu, including the Kaveri Delta, later known as **Cholamandalam or Coromandel**. They were situated in the North-east of Pandyas between the **Pennar** and **Vellar** rivers.

- **Capital: Uraiyur**, near **Thiruchirapalli** town (Known for the **Cotton trade**).
 - The first monarch to rule from Uriyur was **Uruvappahrer Ilam Set Senni.**
 - Puhar, or Kaviripattinam, was an alternative royal residence and chief port town. [UPSC 2023]
- They kept an efficient navy that sailed as far as the mouth of Ganga, Irrawady and Malay archipelago.

Karikala: The famous Chola king lived around 100 AD and was also known as **Tirumavalan**.

- He transferred the capital to Puhar (also called Poompuhar).
- Rewarded poets generously with cash, gold, land, chariots, horses, and elephants.
 - Pattinappalai by poet Katiyalur Uruttirankannanar described that trade prospered under him.
- **Military achievements:** He defeated Cheras (Perum Cheralathan) and Pandyas, with support from 11 Velir chieftains at the **Battle of Venni**.
 - In the 2nd battle at Vagaipparandalai, he defeated Nine Princes.
- He exerted pressure on the Pallavas of Kanchi and Kurumbras, making them acknowledge Chola's suzerainty.
- He converted forests into habitable areas.
- He built many irrigation tanks and the Killanai dam (Grand Anicut) across the Kaveri River.



- He also advanced agriculture via the Kaveri embankment and built reservoirs.
- Karikalan's **death** led to a succession dispute between the Puhar and Uraiyur Chola branches.

The Cholas weakened as the Cheras and Pandyas expanded. Pallavas further diminished their influence from the 4th to 9th century AD.

THE CHERAS

Cheras governed the central and northern Kerala and **Kongu regions** in Tamil Nadu.

- Two main Chera branches: The first branch ruled
 Vanji, and the second Poraiya branch ruled Karur.
 - Controlled west coast ports like Musiri and Tondi.
- **Pugalur inscriptions** near Karur mention 3 generations of Chera kings.
 - Prominent kings include Imayavaramban,
 Nedun-cheralathan and Senguttuvan.
- **Patitrupathu** provides a description of 8 Chera kings, their territories, and their fame.
- **Chellirumporai** minted coins in his name.
- Some Chera kings issued **copper** and **lead coins** with Tamil-Brahmi legends, imitating Roman coins.

Important Kings

Udiyan Cheral	He was the earliest Chera King who lived during the reign of Satavahana King Satakarni II.	
Nedum Cheral Adan	 He had to confront the Yavanas, whom he defeated and earned the title "Imayavaramban" through their humiliation. 	
	He had two sons: Cheran Chenguttuvan and Ilango Adigal.	
	 Ilango Adigal, the younger, became an ascetic and authored the 'Silappadikaram'. 	

Senguttuvan (the Red Chera)

- According to the Chera poets, he was their **greatest king**.
- He defeated numerous chieftains and protected the port of **Musiri** from piracy.
- He led a great north Indian expedition, mentioned in Silappathikaram but not found in Sangam poems.
- He was contemporary to Yagnasri Satakarni of Satavahanas.
- He defeated the pirates known as 'Kadambas' and earned the title 'Kadal-Pirakka Hiya'.
- He ruled for 46 years and supported both orthodox and heterodox religions.
- He initiated the **first diplomatic mission to China** from South India.
- He introduced the **Pattini cult** in Tamil Nadu, venerating **Kannagi** as the exemplary wife.

After the 2nd century, the Chera kingdom declined.

THE PANDYAS

- Pandyas were first mentioned by **Megasthenes**, who said their kingdom was famous for **pearls**. He also described Pandyan society as being **matriarchal**.
- **Territory:** Southernmost and south-eastern parts of the Indian Peninsula, with the **capital** at **Madurai**. They invaded Southern Kerala and controlled the **port of Nelkynda** near Kottayam.
- Main port: Korkai (located near the confluence of Tampraparani with the Bay of Bengal) [UPSC 2023]
 - Korkai is mentioned in the Periplus as "Kolkoi", known for pearl fishery and chank diving.
- Trade: The Pandyas benefited from trade with Rome and sent embassies to the Roman emperor Augustus.
 - Horses were imported by sea into the kingdom.

Important Kings

Vadimbalambaninra	He is also known as Nediyon and was the earliest king of the Pandyas.		
Padagasalai Mudukudumi - Peruvazhuthi	 A formidable warrior and poetry patron. Maduraikanchi of Mangudi Marudan mentions him. Velvikkudi copper plates of the eighth century mention land donated to Brahmans. Issued coins with the legend "Peruvazhuthi" to commemorate his performance of Vedic sacrifices. 		

Nedunchezhiyan	 He is celebrated for his victory over a combined army of the Chera, Chola, and five Velir chieftains at Talayalanganam.
	Took the title of 'Aryappadaikadanda'.
	He also captured Milalai and Mutthuru from a Vel chief.

The Pandyan rule began to decline due to the invasions of the Kalabhras.

Summary

DYNASTY	REGION	CAPITAL	IMPORTANT RULER	IMPORTANT PORTS	EMBLEM
Cheras	Kerala	Vanji	Cheran Senguttuvan	Musiri, Tondi	Bow and Arrow
Cholas	Tamil Nadu	Uraiyur	Karikala	Kaveripattinam/ Puhar	Tiger
Pandyas	Tamil Nadu	Madurai	Nedunchezhiyan	Nelkynda, Korkai [UPSC 2023]	Fish

AGE OF KALABHRAS (POST SANGAM PERIOD)

The period between the Sangam Age and the Pallava-Pandya era (approximately 300 AD to 600 AD) is known as the **Kalabhra age** in Tamil history.

- It was during this period that significant Tamil literary works were produced, including the **Tirukkural**, **Silappathikaram**, and **Manimekalai**.
- As **Jainism** and **Buddhism** gained influence, leading orthodox Vedic-Puranic scholars depicted the Kalabhra rulers negatively.
- The Kalabhra kingdom was eventually **overthrown by the Pandyas** in the mid-sixth century AD.
- Traditionally, it is considered a 'dark age' or interregnum due to the disappearance of the three traditional Tamil
 kingdoms. It was also supposed that many good traits of earlier Tamil culture disappeared in this interval. However,
 this idea of interregnum is no longer accepted as correct.
- Recent interpretations view this era as a transition period, with the emergence of larger state societies under the Pallavas in northern Tamil Nadu and the Pandyas in the south.

IMPORTANT PORTS DURING THIS TIME

Dynasty	Key Ports	Region/Location
	Muziris (Muchiri or Cranganore)	Present-day Kodungallur, Kerala
Chera	Tondi (Tyndis)	Near Ponnani, Kerala
	Naravu	Near Kannur, Kerala
Cholas	Nagapattinam, Poompuhar/Puhar (Kaveripattinam), Korkai Tharangambadi, Kodikarai (Point Calimere) Nagapattinam Arikamedu Korkai	Tamil Nadu Tamil Nadu Near Puducherry Tamil Nadu
	Korkai	Tamil Nadu
Pandya	Saliyur	
	Marungur	
	Kaveripattinam	Tamil Nadu
Kalabhra	Tondi (Tyndis)	Kerala
	Vanji	Kerala









Appendix

REGIONAL EXTENSION OF PRE-HARAPPAN CULTURE

Region/State	Archaeological Sites		
Northern Baluchistan	Jhob Culture: Rana Ghundai, Periano Ghundai, Mughal Ghundai, Dabarkot		
	Quetta Culture: Kili Ghul Muhammad, Damb Sadat, Pirak Damb		
South-West Afghanistan	Mundigak, Deh Morasi Ghundai		
Southern Baluchistan	Nal Culture: Sor Damb		
	Kulli Culture: Mehi, Roji, Mazera Damb		
Punjab (Pakistan) Harappa, Saraikhola, Jalilpur			
Sindh (Pakistan) Amari, Kot Diji, Mohenjodaro			
Rajasthan (India)	Sothi, Kalibangan-I		
Haryana (India)	Vanawali, Rakhigarhi		

REGIONAL CULTURES

Region	Name & Time Period (Location)	Type Site	Other Sites
South-Eastern Rajasthan	Ahar Culture/Banas Culture: 2,100 BC-1,500 BC (Banas river valley, Udaipur district)	Ahar	Gilund (Chittorgarh district), Balaghat (Udaipur district)
Western Maharashtra	(Daimabad (Ahmednagar district), Inamgaon (Pune district), Chandoli (Pune district), Newasa (Ahmednagar district), Nasik
Western Maharashtra	Sawalda Culture: 2,000 BC-1,800 BC (Tapti & Prawara valley, Dhuliya district)	Sawalda	-
Mid Gujarat	Rangpur Culture: 1,400 BC-750 BC (Bhadar river, Surendranagar district)	Rangpur	-
South- Western Gujarat	Prabhashpattan Culture: 1,800 BC-1,500 BC (Prabhashpattan, Junagarh district)	Prabhashpattan	-
Western Madhya Pradesh	Malwa Culture: 1,700 BC-1,200 BC (Narmada river, Malwa region, Khargon district)	Navdatoli	Maheshwar(khargon district), Nagada (Ujjain District)
Western Madhya Pradesh	Kayatha Culture: 2,000 BC-1,800 BC (Kayatha, Kali Sindh river, Ujjain district)	Kayatha	Tripuri (Jabalpur district), Ujjain (Ujjain district), Maheshwar (Khargon district), Nagada (Ujjain district)

REGIONAL EXTENSION OF HARAPPAN CIVILIZATION

Region/State	Archaeological Sites		
Afghanistan	Shortughai (Takhar Province), Mundigak (Kandahar Province)		
Baluchistan (Pakistan)	Mehrgarh, Kili Ghul Muhammad, Rana Ghundai, Dabarkot, Balakot, Nindo Bari, Anjira, Sutkagendor		
Punjab (Pakistan)	Harappa, Jalilpur, Sanghanwala, Ghaneriwal, Saraikhola, Derawar		
Sindh (Pakistan)	Mohenjo-Daro, Amari, Kot Diji, Rehman Dheri, Sukkur, Alhadino, Chanhudaro, Ali Murad, Jhukar, Jhangar		
Jammu & Kashmir	Manda		
Haryana	Vanawali, Rakhigarhi, Bhagawanpura		
Rajasthan	Kalibangan, Ganeshwar, Shishawal, Bara, Hanumangarh, Mithal, Chhupas		
Uttar Pradesh	Alamgirpur, Manpur, Bargaon, Hulas, Sanauli		
Gujarat	Dholavira, Lothal, Surkotda, Rangpur , Desalpur, Prabhaspattan		
Maharashtra	Daimabad		

ANCIENT HISTORY DYNASTY CHRONOLOGY

Northern India

Dynasty	Important Rulers	Timeline	Key Contributions
Mauryan Empire	Chandragupta Maurya, Ashoka, Bindusara, Dasharatha Maurya, Brihadratha	321-185 BCE	Unified India, efficient administration, spread of Buddhism, and rock edicts.
Indo-Greeks	Menander I, Demetrius I	2nd-1st century BCE	Spread of Hellenistic influence, advancements in coinage and trade, and patronage of Buddhism.
Shakas (Scythians)	Rudradaman I, Nahapana	1st century BCE-4th century CE	Development of Sudarshana Lake (Rudradaman I), trade links, and cultural fusion.
Parthians	Gondophernes, Aspavarman	1st century BCE-1st century CE	Cultural exchange along the Silk Road and early Christian links (Apostle Thomas).
Kushan Empire	Kujula Kadphises, Vima Kadphises, Kanishka, Huvishka, Vasudeva I	30-375 CE	Spread of Mahayana Buddhism, Gandhara art, and establishment of Silk Road trade.
Gupta Empire Chandragupta I, Samudragupta, Chandragupta II (Vikramaditya), Kumaragupta I, Skandagupta		319-550 CE	Golden age of Indian culture, advancements in science, mathematics, and literature.
Hunas (Hephthalites)	Toramana, Mihirakula	5th-6th century CE	Decline of the Gupta Empire, disruption of North Indian polity, and spread of regionalism.
Harsha Dynasty	Harshavardhana	606-647 CE	Unification of North India, patronage of Buddhism, and contributions to Nalanda University.
Maitrakas of Vallabhi	Dhruvasena II Baladitya, Shiladitya I	7th–8th century CE	Known for Vallabhi as a center of learning and cultural development.

Southern India

Dynasty	Important Rulers	Timeline	Key Contributions
Cholas (Early)	Karikala Chola	1st-4th century CE	Built Kallanai (Grand Anicut); laid the foundation for later Chola administration and cultural developments.
Cheras	Udayanjeral, Senguttuvan(Red Chera)	3rd century BCE– 12th century CE	Important for Tamil culture, engaged in maritime trade, and credited with the development of Sangam literature.
Pandyas	Mudigonda, Pandya, Sundara Pandya, Jatavarman Sundara Pandya	3rd century BCE– 14th century CE	Flourished in the Tamil region; engaged in trade with the Greeks and Romans; known for patronizing art, literature, and architecture.
Satavahanas	Gautamiputra Satakarni, Vashishtiputra Pulumavi	1st century BCE- 3rd century CE	First significant native dynasty in Deccan; promoted Prakrit literature, trade, and Amaravati art.
Ikshavakus	Vasishtiputra Chamtamula	3rd-4th century CE	Supported Buddhist stupas and monasteries in Nagarjunakonda; significant Andhra rulers.
Kadambas of Banavasi	Mayurasharma, Kakusthavarma	345-525 CE	Early Kannada kingdom; patronage of literature and temple architecture.
Pallavas	Mahendravarman I, Narasimhavarman I (Mamalla), Rajasimha	3rd-9th century CE	Famous for rock-cut temples at Mahabalipuram and patronage of art, architecture, and literature.
Chalukyas of Badami	Pulakesin II, Kirtivarman I, Vikramaditya I	543-757 CE	Defenders of Deccan against Harsha; patronage of early Kannada and Sanskrit literature, Badami temples.

Central and Western India

Dynasty	Important Rulers	Timeline	Key Contributions
Shakas -Kshatrapas (Western Satraps)	Nahapana, Rudradaman I	1st–4th century CE	Controlled Malwa region; Junagarh inscription of Rudradaman records water management and cultural patronage.
Parthian	Gondaphernes	1st Century BC- 1st Century AD	During his reign St. Thomas is said to have come to india for propagation of christianity.
Satavahana Dynasty	Gautamiputra Satakarni, Vasisthiputra Pulumavi	1st century BCE– 2nd century CE	Controlled parts of Central India; promoted trade and built stupas in Amravati and Sanchi.
Gupta Empire	Chandragupta I, Samudragupta, Chandragupta II	319-550 century	Golden of Indian Architecture; Central India as a cultural and political hub; Udayagiri caves in Madhya Pradesh.
Vakataka Dynasty	Vindhyasakti, Rudrasena I Pravarasena I, Harishena	3rd–6th century CE	Allied with Guptas; Ajanta caves patronage; promoted art and culture.
Parivrajaka Dynasty	Hastin	5th–7th century CE	Ruled parts of Central India; patrons of Shaivism and temple construction.
Maitraka Dynasty	Dronasimha, Guhasena	5th–8th century CE	Controlled parts of Gujarat and Central India; supported trade and temple architecture.



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Eastern India

Dynasty	Important Rulers	Timeline	Key Contributions
Mauryan Empire	Chandragupta Maurya, Ashoka	321-185 BCE	Spread of Mauryan administration; Ashokan edicts at Dhauli and Jaugada in Odisha; promotion of Buddhism.
Shunga Empire	Pushyamitra Shunga, Agnimitra	185-73 BCE	Controlled parts of Eastern India; revival of Brahmanical traditions after the Mauryans.
Kanva Dynasty	Vasudeva	73-28 BCE	Ruled Magadha after the Shungas; maintained control over parts of Eastern India.
Mahameghavahana Dynasty	Kharavela	1st century BCE	Famous for the Hathigumpha inscription; expanded Kalinga and promoted Jainism.
Gupta Empire	Chandragupta I, Samudragupta, Chandragupta II	319-550 CE	Golden age of culture; Udayagiri rock-cut caves in Odisha; Pataliputra as a cultural hub.
Maukharis	Ishanavarman, Sarvavarman	6th century CE	Controlled areas in Magadha; served as a buffer between the Guptas and other powers.
Gauda Kingdom (Bengal)	Shashanka	7th century CE	Established the first independent kingdom in Bengal; patronized Hinduism.
Harsha Dynasty	Harsha Vardhana	7th century CE	Consolidated Eastern India; maintained cultural exchange with Nalanda and Bengal regions.

COMPARISON OF EARLY VEDIC PERIOD AND LATER VEDIC PERIOD

Topic	Early Vedic Period (Rig Vedic Period)	Later Vedic Period
Time Period	1500-1000 BCE	1000-600 BCE
Primary Source	Rig Veda	Later Vedic texts (Brahmanas, Upanishads, Aranyakas)
Geographical Expansion	Indus Valley (Sapta Sindhu region) Haryana, Punjab	Eastern India (Ganga-Yamuna Doab, Bengal, Magadha, Anga) .major centres-Hastinapur, Kausambi, Kurukshetra
Political Structure	Tribal chiefs (Rajan)	Hereditary kingship, territorial states (Janapadas)
Fontical Structure	Assemblies were Sabha, Samiti, Vidatha, Jana	Sabha declined; Janapadas formed
	Pastoral, barter system, cattle as wealth	Agriculture as primary occupation, mixed farming, barter
Economy And Economic	Key Occupations: Cattle herding, weaving, carpentry	Agriculture, chariot-making, metalworking, trade
Developments	Use of cattle for barter, trade in goods like wool, pottery	Introduction of taxation, market-based economy, use of Nishka
Religion and Rituals	Henotheism, fire worship, sacrifices, deities like Indra, Agni,Varuna (cosmic order)	Emergence of idol worship, complex rituals, emphasis on Brahmanas. Key deities Varuna (justice), Prajapati (creator), Vishnu (preserver)
	Yajnas (fire sacrifices)	Srauta rituals (Rajasuya, Ashvamedha, Vajapeya)

Social Structure No strict caste system. Dasa (original		
Status of Women	Equal opportunities for education and spiritual growth. Notable women poets were Apala, Viswavara, Ghosa, and Lopamudra.	Decline in status, no participation in assemblies
Family Structure Kula (family) system		Joint families, emergence of Gotra system
Military Structure and Key Battle	No standing army, tribes mobilized for war, Battle of Ten Kings (Dashrajana) - Bharatas vs. coalition	Wars for territory, professional armies emerging, Internal tribal conflicts, not specific battles noted
Technological Developments No iron use, copper and bronze for weapons		Iron tools introduced, use of iron weapons like arrows, axes

SIX SCHOOLS OF ORTHODOX PHILOSOPHY (SHAD-DARSHANAS)

School	Founder/Proponent	Key Texts	Core Philosophy
Nyaya	Gautama (Akshapada)	Nyaya Sutras	Logical reasoning and epistemology; four sources of knowledge: perception, inference, comparison, and testimony.
Vaisheshika	Kanada	Vaisheshika Sutras	Atomic theory; categorization of reality into six categories: substance, quality, activity, generality, particularity, and inherence.
Samkhya	Kapila	Samkhya Karika	Dualistic philosophy distinguishing Purusha (consciousness) and Prakriti (matter); explains cosmic evolution.
Yoga	Patanjali	Yoga Sutras	Focus on mental discipline and self-realization through the eightfold path (Ashtanga Yoga).
Purva Mimamsa	Jaimini	Mimamsa Sutras	Emphasis on rituals and Vedic sacrifices; Dharma as the primary goal.
Uttara Mimamsa (Vedanta)	Badarayana	Brahma Sutras, Upanishads	Philosophical exploration of Brahman, Atman, and Moksha; basis for later Vedantic philosophies.

Philosophies that develop in later phase

Adi Shankaracharya (Advaita): Unified Vedantic thought; emphasized non-dualism and established four mathas. **Ramanuja (Vishishtadvaita):** Introduced qualified non-dualism and emphasized Bhakti for liberation.

Madhvacharya (Dvaita): Propounded dualism with strict distinction between Brahman and Atman.

Nimbakara (Dvaita-Dvaita): Ultimate reality is a duality of Brahman and Atman. Emphasizes the idea that the soul is both distinct and non- distinct from god.

Vallabhacharya (Shuddhadvaita): Focused on Krishna's grace (Pushti Marg) and pure non-dualism.

Chaitanya Mahaprabhu (Achintya Bheda Abheda): Reconciled dualism and non-dualism through Krishna Bhakti.

KEY TERMS IN BUDDHISM AND THEIR PURPOSES

Key Term	Purpose/Description
Chaityas	Prayer halls of monks
Viharas	Monasteries
Pravrajya	Ritual marking transition to monastic life, including shaving head and adopting ochre robes.

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Upasampada	Ordination ceremony, marking transition to full member of the monastic community.
Uposatha	Ceremony held on full moon and new moon.
Parajika	Four severe offenses leading to expulsion from the Sangha (sexual intercourse, theft, harm, false claims).
Pavarana	Buddhist holy day marking the end of the rainy season, monks confess offenses committed during Vassa (rainy season).
Upasakas	Male followers of Buddha, Dhamma, and Sangha, without monastic vows.
Upasikas	Female followers of Buddha, Dhamma, and Sangha, without monastic vows.
Bodhisattva	Enlightened beings delaying entry to paradise to help others achieve enlightenment.
Theragatha	Verses of elder monks
Therigatha	Verses of elder nuns
Shrama/ Samana	One who strives to realize the truth or performs austerity and ascetic practices.
Shakra	God Indra
Parivraajaka	One who roams about, a wanderer
Agraharika	One who oversees lands given in charity
Paramita	Qualities to be perfected on the path to enlightenment; includes Generosity, Morality, Patience, Energy, Meditation, Wisdom, Skilful means, Resolution, Power, Knowledge.

KEY TERMS IN JAINISM AND THEIR PURPOSES

Key Term/Concept	Meaning/Purpose		
Basadis	Jaina monastic establishment		
Avadhijnana	Superhuman cognition		
Ganadharas	Chief disciples of Mahavira		
Siddha	Fully liberated		
Jiva	Soul		
Pudgala	Aggregates of atoms with form, color, taste, smell; touchable and feelable		
Chaitanya	Consciousness		
Mohaniya	Delusion-causing karmas		
Gunasthanas	Stages of purification		
Arhat	One who has entered the stage of kevalajnana		
Tirthankara	Arhat who has already acquired the capability of teaching the doctrine		

ASHOKAN ROCK EDICTS: MAJOR AND MINOR

Edict	Theme	Key Highlights	Locations Found
Major Rock Edict I	Prohibition of Animal Sacrifice	Banned animal sacrifices and festive killings; encouraged humane treatment.	Girnar (Gujarat), Dhauli (Odisha), Sopara (Maharashtra)
Major Rock Edict II	Welfare Measures	Medical care for humans and animals; cultivation of medicinal herbs.	Girnar, Kalsi (Uttarakhand)
Major Rock Edict III	Promotion of Dhamma	Dispatch of Dhamma Mahamatras; emphasis on morality and harmony.	Girnar, Mansehra (Pakistan)
Major Rock Edict IV	Moral Development	Decline of violence; rise of ethical values; respect for life.	Girnar, Sopara, Dhauli



Major Rock Edict V	Social Welfare	Welfare of women and marginalized groups through Dhamma Mahamatras.	Girnar, Kalsi, Dhauli
Major Rock Edict VI	Open Governance	Desire for the well-being of subjects; open communication with the king.	Girnar, Mansehra
Major Rock Edict VII	Religious Tolerance	Promoted harmony among different religions; appealed for unity.	Girnar, Dhauli, Sopara
Major Rock Edict VIII	Pilgrimage and Dhamma Practices	Ashoka's pilgrimage to Bodh Gaya and other Buddhist sites.	Girnar, Sopara
Major Rock Edict IX	Criticism of Rituals	Denounced meaningless rituals; advocated ethical practices and virtuous life.	Girnar, Kalsi
Major Rock Edict X	Rejection of Materialism	Disdain for fame and worldly possessions; focus on moral living.	Girnar, Mansehra
Major Rock Edict XI	Happiness through Dhamma	Praised generosity, kindness, and ethical values as sources of true happiness.	Girnar, Dhauli
Major Rock Edict XII	Religious Harmony	Encouraged respect and tolerance for all religious sects.	Girnar, Sopara, Mansehra
Major Rock Edict XIII	Kalinga War and Dhamma Conversion	Described Ashoka's remorse after the Kalinga War; commitment to spreading Dhamma.	Dhauli, Jaugada (Odisha), Girnar
Major Rock Edict XIV	Summary of Edicts	Overview of the edicts for guiding people toward morality and peace.	Girnar, Kalsi, Sopara

Minor Rock	Advocacy of	Promoted kindness, truthfulness, and ethical conduct.	Bairat (Rajasthan), Maski
Edict I	Dhamma		(Karnataka)
Minor Rock Edict II	Instructions to Officials	Directed local officials to propagate Dhamma.	Rupanath (Madhya Pradesh), Siddapura (Karnataka)
Minor Rock	Non-Violence and	Appealed for non-violence and humane treatment of all beings.	Brahmagiri (Karnataka), Jatinga-
Edict III	Compassion		Rameshwar (Andhra Pradesh)

CAVES

Cave Name	Time Period	Religious Affiliation	Creator/Patron	Location
Edakkal Caves	Prehistoric Era	Prehistoric (Rock Art)	Prehistoric	Wayanad, Kerala
Barabar Caves	3rd Century BCE	Ajivika	Mauryan Empire (Ashoka)	Jehanabad, Bihar
Nagarjuni Caves	3rd Century BCE	Ajivika	Mauryan Empire (Dasratha)	Jehanabad, Bihar
Bhaja Caves	2nd Century BCE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Near Lonavala, Maharashtra
Karle Caves	2nd Century BCE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Karli, Maharashtra
Pandavleni Caves	2nd Century BCE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Nashik, Maharashtra
Khandagiri & Udayagiri Caves	2nd Century BCE	Jain	Kalinga Kingdom	Bhubaneswar, Odisha
Pitalkhora Caves	2nd Century BCE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Aurangabad, Maharashtra



Nagarjunakonda Caves	2nd Century CE	Buddhist	Ikshvaku Kings	Nagarjuna Sagar, Andhra Pradesh
Kuda Caves	2nd Century CE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Raigad, Maharashtra
Kanheri Caves	1st Century BCE- 10th CE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Borivali, Mumbai, Maharashtra
Ajanta Caves	2nd Century BCE- 6th CE	Buddhist	Vakatakas	Aurangabad, Maharashtra
Udayagiri Caves	5th Century CE	Hindu, Jain	Gupta Empire	Vidisha, Madhya Pradesh
Bagh Caves	5th Century CE	Buddhist	Gupta Empire	Dhar, Madhya Pradesh
Badami Caves 6th Century CE		Hindu, Jain, Buddhist	Chalukyas	Bagalkot, Karnataka
Jogeshwari Caves 6th Century CE		Hindu	Early Kalachuri or Mauryas	Jogeshwari, Mumbai, Maharashtra
Mandapeshwar Caves	6th Century CE	Hindu	Traikutakas	Borivali, Mumbai, Maharashtra
Aurangabad Caves	6th–7th Century CE	Buddhist	Satavahanas	Aurangabad, Maharashtra
Elephanta Caves	6th–7th Century CE	Hindu	Kalachuri or Chalukya Dynasty	Elephanta Island, Maharashtra
Sittanavasal Caves	7th Century CE	Jain	Pandya Kings	Pudukkottai, Tamil Nadu
Ellora Caves	6th-10th Century CE	Hindu, Buddhist, Jain	Rashtrakutas	Aurangabad, Maharashtra

PROMINENT WOMEN OF ANCIENT INDIA

Name	Period	Contribution	
Sulabha Mahabharata Era Mentioned in the Mahabharata; e with King Janaka.		Mentioned in the Mahabharata; engaged in philosophical debates with King Janaka.	
Gargi Vachaknavi Vedic Period Participated in philosophical debates in Brihadaranyak known for her wisdom.		Participated in philosophical debates in Brihadaranyaka Upanishad, known for her wisdom.	
Lopamudra	Vedic Period	Wife of sage Agastya; composed hymns in the Rigveda, especially on household and spirituality.	
Maitreyi Vedic Period Scholar of Yajnavalkya Upanishad, questioned immortal realization.		Scholar of Yajnavalkya Upanishad, questioned immortality and self-realization.	
Ghosha Vedic Period Authored two hymns in the marriage.		Authored two hymns in the Rigveda, mainly focused on health and marriage.	
Apala	Vedic Period	Poetess of the Rigveda; composed hymns praising Indra for curing her affliction.	
Mudgalini	Vedic Period	Known for her Rigvedic hymns on family, prosperity, and harmony.	
Amrapali 6th Century BCE Renowned courtesan of Vaishali; embraced Buddhis disciple of Buddha.		Renowned courtesan of Vaishali; embraced Buddhism and became a disciple of Buddha.	
Sanghamitra	Mauryan Empire	Spread Buddhism to Sri Lanka alongside her brother Mahendra.	
Kundalakesa	Post-Mauryan Era	A Jain nun and poetess who debated Buddhist and Hindu philosopher	



Queen Naganika	Satavahana Period	Inscription at Naneghat praises her sacrifices like Rajasuya and Ashvamedha yajnas.		
Prabhavati Gupta Gupta Period Daughter of Chandragupta II; issued inscriptions as regent of the Vakataka dynasty.		Daughter of Chandragupta II; issued inscriptions as a powerful regent of the Vakataka dynasty.		
Vijya Bhattariga	Bhattariga Chalukya Dynasty A Chalukyan princess who issued inscriptions and acted a provincial governor under Jayasimha I.			
Khema	Buddhist Era	Disciple of the Buddha, known for her wisdom and contribution t Buddhist literature.		
Uppalavanna Buddhist Era Prominent female disciple of Buddha; achieved arhat renowned for her spiritual teachings.		Prominent female disciple of Buddha; achieved arhatship and renowned for her spiritual teachings.		
Mahaprajapati Gautami	Buddhist Era	Buddha's foster mother and the first woman to seek ordination into the Buddhist Sangha.		
Chandanbala Jain Era Key female disciple of Mahavira; an example spiritual practice in Jainism.		Key female disciple of Mahavira; an example of asceticism and spiritual practice in Jainism.		
Rohini	Jain Era	Mentioned in Jain texts as an exemplary practitioner of ascetic vows.		

FOREIGN TRAVELERS

Dynasty	Traveler	Reign Period (Ruler)	Time Period of Visit	Work/Book
Maurya Empire	Megasthenes	Chandragupta Maurya	4th century BCE (c. 302–298 BCE)	Indica (accounts of life and administration in India)
	Deimachus	Seleucus I Nicator, Chandragupta Maurya	3rd century BCE	Accounts of Mauryan Empire, particularly about the administration and military organization
	Arrian	Alexander the Great's successor kings	4th century BCE	Indica (accounts on India, Alexander's campaign, and geography)
Indo-Greek	Srinavarman	Indo-Greek Kings (e.g., Menander I)	2nd century BCE	Accounts of trade and diplomacy with India (mainly from inscriptions and other Greek historians)
Kingdom	Strabo	Indo-Greek Kings (e.g., Menander I)	1st century BCE - 1st century CE	Geography (mentions trade and geographical descriptions)
	Plutarch	Menander I (Indo- Greek Kingdom)	1st century BCE	Parallel Lives (mentions Menander, a Greek king in India, and his rule)
	Pliny the Elder	Seleucid Empire, Bactrian Greeks	1st century CE (c. 77–79 CE)	Not actually visited India .Natural History (describes Indian trade, animals, and geography)
Satavahana Empire	Ptolemy	Satavahana Dynasty (1st–2nd century CE)	2nd century CE	Geography (describes trade, geography, and cities like Pataliputra)
W. alana	Tao Chien	Kanishka	2nd century CE	Descriptions of the Kushana empire, its administration, and Buddhism
Kushana Empire	Marinus of Tyre	Kanishka	2nd century CE	Descriptions of India's geography, trade routes, and cities
Gupta Empire	Faxian (Fa- Hien)	Chandragupta II (Vikramaditya)	5th century CE (c. 399–414 CE)	A Record of Buddhist Kingdoms (description of the condition of India and Buddhism under Gupta rule)



Harsha Vardhana Dynasty	Xuanzang	Harsha Vardhana	(c. 629-645 CE)	Great Tang Records on the Western Regions (description of India's politics, culture, and religion during Harsha's reign)
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IMPORTANT SCHOLARS, POETS AND PLAYWRITERS

Name	Dynasty/Period	Ruler/Timeline	Contribution
Tholkappiyar	Sangam Age	-	Tholkappiyam, earliest Tamil grammar.
Ilango Adigal	Sangam Age	-	Silappatikaram, an epic of Tamil literature.
Panini	Pre-Mauryan	-	Ashtadhyayi, foundational text on Sanskrit grammar.
Patanjali	Shunga	Pushyamitra Shunga (c. 185-149 BCE)	Mahabhashya (commentary on Panini's grammar, 2nd century BCE).
Vasumitra	Kushana	Kanishka(78-101A.D.)	Presided over the 4th Buddhist Council; contributed to Buddhist philosophy. Wrote Mhavibhsa sastra.
Ashvaghosa	Kushana	Kanishka(78-101A.D.)	Buddhacharita and Saundarananda (2nd century CE).
Nagarjuna	Kushana	Kanishka(78-101A.D.)	Developed Madhyamaka school of Mahayana Buddhism; contributed to Buddhist philosophy.
Bhasa	Gupta	-	13 Plays like Swapnavasavadatta and Pratijnayaugandharayana.
Harisen	Gupta	Samudragupta (c. 335–375 CE)	Allahabad Pillar Inscription glorifying Samudragupta(Prashasti) .
Kalidasa	Gupta	Chandragupta II (c. 375–415 CE)	Abhijnanashakuntalam, Raghuvamsha, and Meghaduta (4th–5th century CE).
Amarasimha	Gupta	Chandragupta II (c. 375–415 CE)	Amarakosha (Sanskrit lexicon, 4th–5th century CE).
Vatsyayana	Gupta	c. 4th–5th century CE	Kamasutra, a treatise on human relationships and conduct.
Varahamihira	Gupta	c. 5th–6th century CE	Brihat Samhita, an encyclopedic text on astronomy and astrology.
Aryabhata	Gupta	c. 476 CE -550 CE	Aryabhatiya, foundational text in Indian mathematics and astronomy.
Vishakhadatta	Gupta	-	Mudrarakshasa and Devichandraguptam, highlighting court intrigues and politics.
Sarvasena	Vakataka	Pravarasena II (c. 400–440 CE)	Harivijaya (5th century CE).

Harshavardhan	Harsha	Ratnavali, Nagananda and Priyadarsika	3 dramas written by Harsa himself.
Banabhatta	Harsha	Harsha Vardhana (606–647 CE)	Harshacharita and Kadambari (7th century CE).
Bhavabhuti	Varman(Kannauj)	Yashovarman c.700 C.E.	3 Dramas/Plays which include Mahaviracharita, Malatimadhava and Uttararamacarita.
Ravikirti	Western Chalukya	Pulakeshin II (610–642 CE)	Aihole Inscription (early 7th century CE).
Mahahendravaraman 1	Pallava	Mahahendravaraman 1	Mattavilasaprahasanam
Dandin	Pallava	Narasimhavarman I (c. 630–668 CE)	Dashakumaracharita, a prose romance, and works on poetics like Kavyadarsha.
Bharavi	Pallava	Simhavishnu (c. 575–600 CE)	Kiratarjuniya, a classical Sanskrit epic poem.

GLANCE AT ANCIENT INDIA THROUGH MAPS

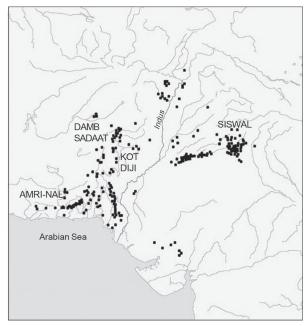


Map 1: Prehistoric Sites.

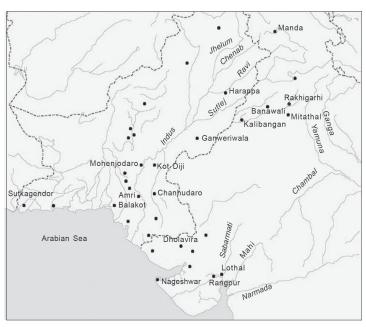




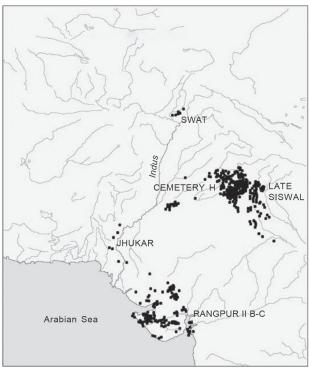
Map 2: Important Archaeological Sites.



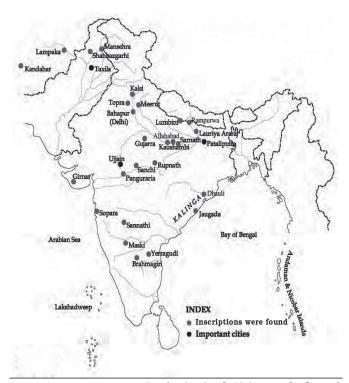
Map 3: Early Harappan Occupation.



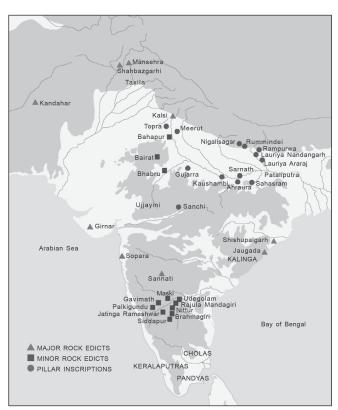
Map 4: Mature Harappan Sites.



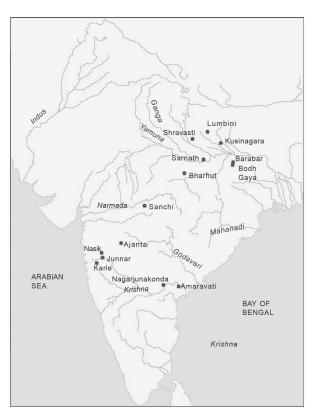
Map 5: Late Harappan Occupation.



Map 6: Mauryan Empire(Principal Cities and Places)



Map 7: Asokan Inscriptions



Map 8: Major Buddhist Sites







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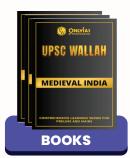


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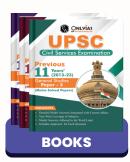
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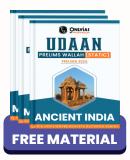
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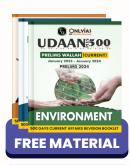
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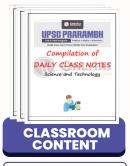
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