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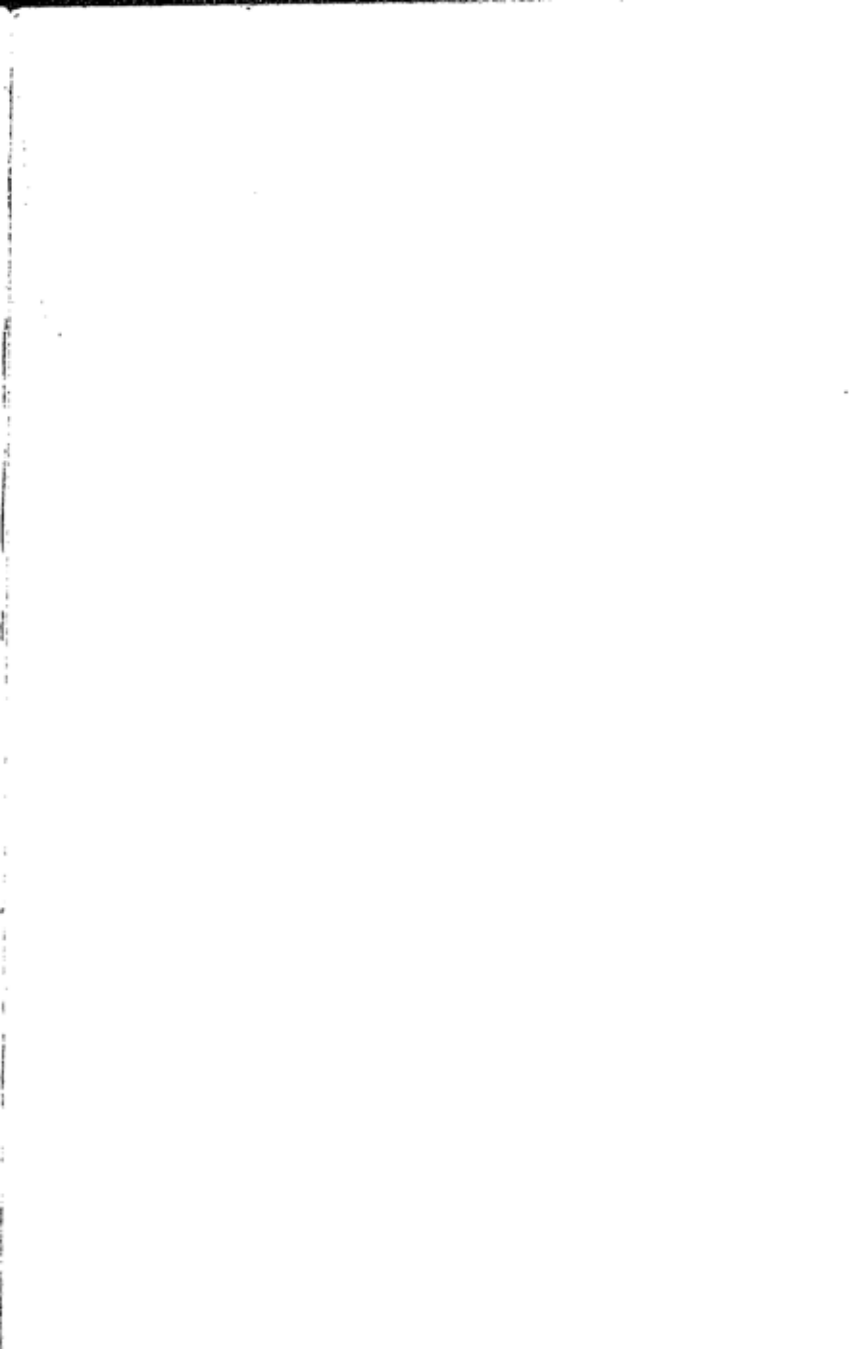
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GLIMPSES OF  
DAKKAN HISTORY









ANDHRA SCULPTURE—AMARAVATI FOURTH PERIOD.  
200—250 A.D.

A CHAITYA SLAB WITH BUDDHA'S RENUNCIATION,  
TEMPTATION AND ENLIGHTENMENT

Above, his birth scenes on the stupa, and the wheel symbolizing  
his first sermon on either side and in centre, below.

*By kind permission of the Curator, Egmore Museum, Madras.*

# GLIMPSES OF DAKKAN HISTORY

Government of India,  
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BY

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74161  
प्रवाचित संख्या First Published: 1957 गिनतोंक... 31/01/87  
निर्देश संख्या 934.0198  
नई दिल्ली  
केन्द्रीय पुरातत्व पस्तकालय

Price Rs. 5-0-0

PRINTED IN INDIA

BY P. R. SARKAR AT SWASTIKA PRESS LTD.,  
6A, Surendranath Banerjee Road, Calcutta.

## PREFACE

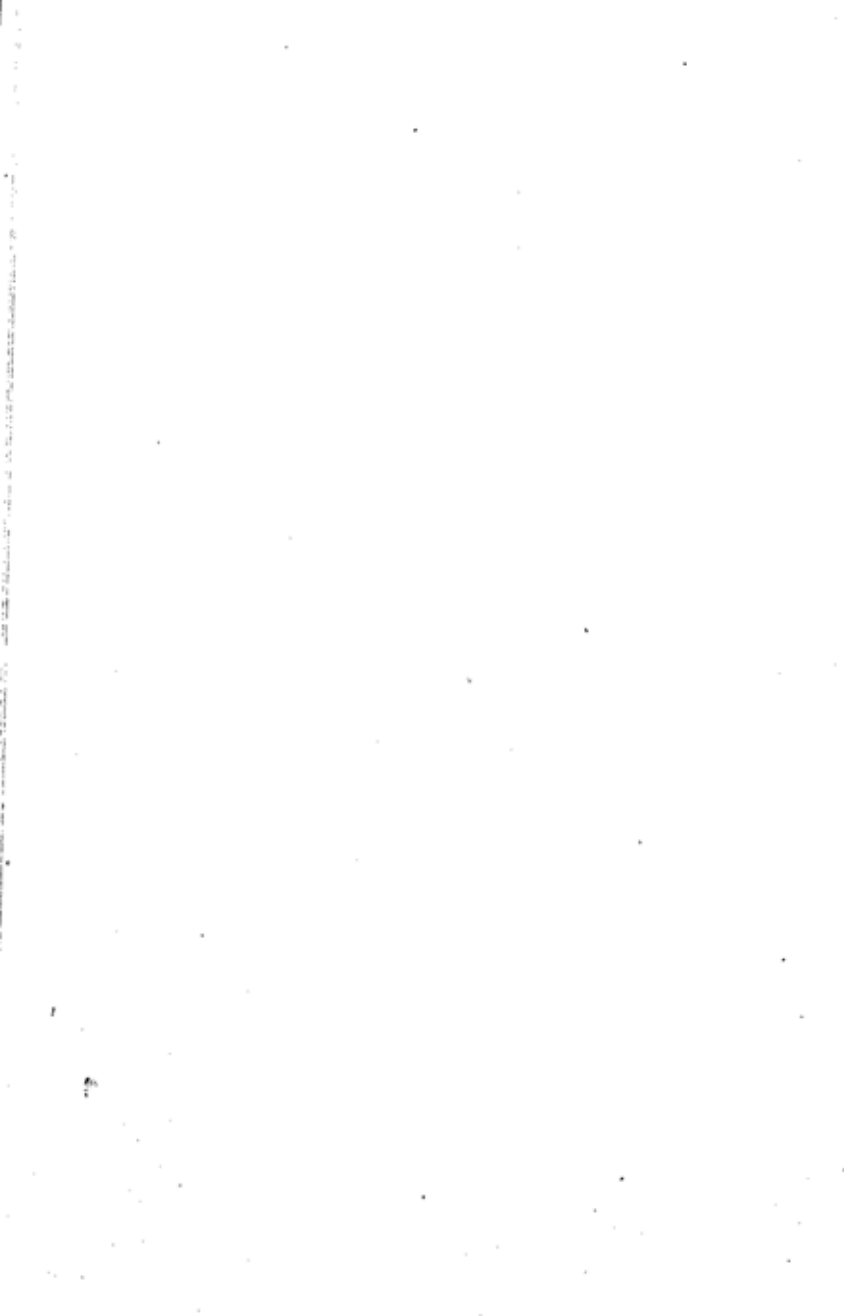
THE object of this book is to give the general reader interested in history and the student of the University classes a comprehensive view of Dakkan History. Though a large number of books relating to Indian History suiting all tastes and requirements are available there are a few regional histories. These and the histories of individual dynasties and periods that are available are scholarly works containing elaborate discussions and minor details. Several books on the History of the Dakkan have been published so far. Bhandarkar's *Early History of the Dakkan* and Fleet's *Canarese Dynasties* deal mainly with western Dakkan. Both these works stop with the end of the pre-Muslim period. K. V. S. Iyer's *Historical Sketches of Ancient Dakkan* deals more with the dynasties of South India. Dubreuil's *Ancient Dakkan* is devoted exclusively to the ancient period. There are other books which contain the history of the Muslim dynasties of the Dakkan. This book sketches the history of the Dakkan, eastern and western, in the pre-Muslim, Muslim and Maratha periods. This is, as far as I know, the first book of its kind. I intend bringing out shortly a compendium volume devoted to a study of the cultural history of the Dakkan.

I thank my colleague and former pupil, Mr. R. Narasimha Rao, M.A., who has prepared the index and my publishers for their interest in the publication of this book.

It is hoped that this book will serve a useful purpose.

HYDERABAD,  
January, 1951.

THE AUTHOR.

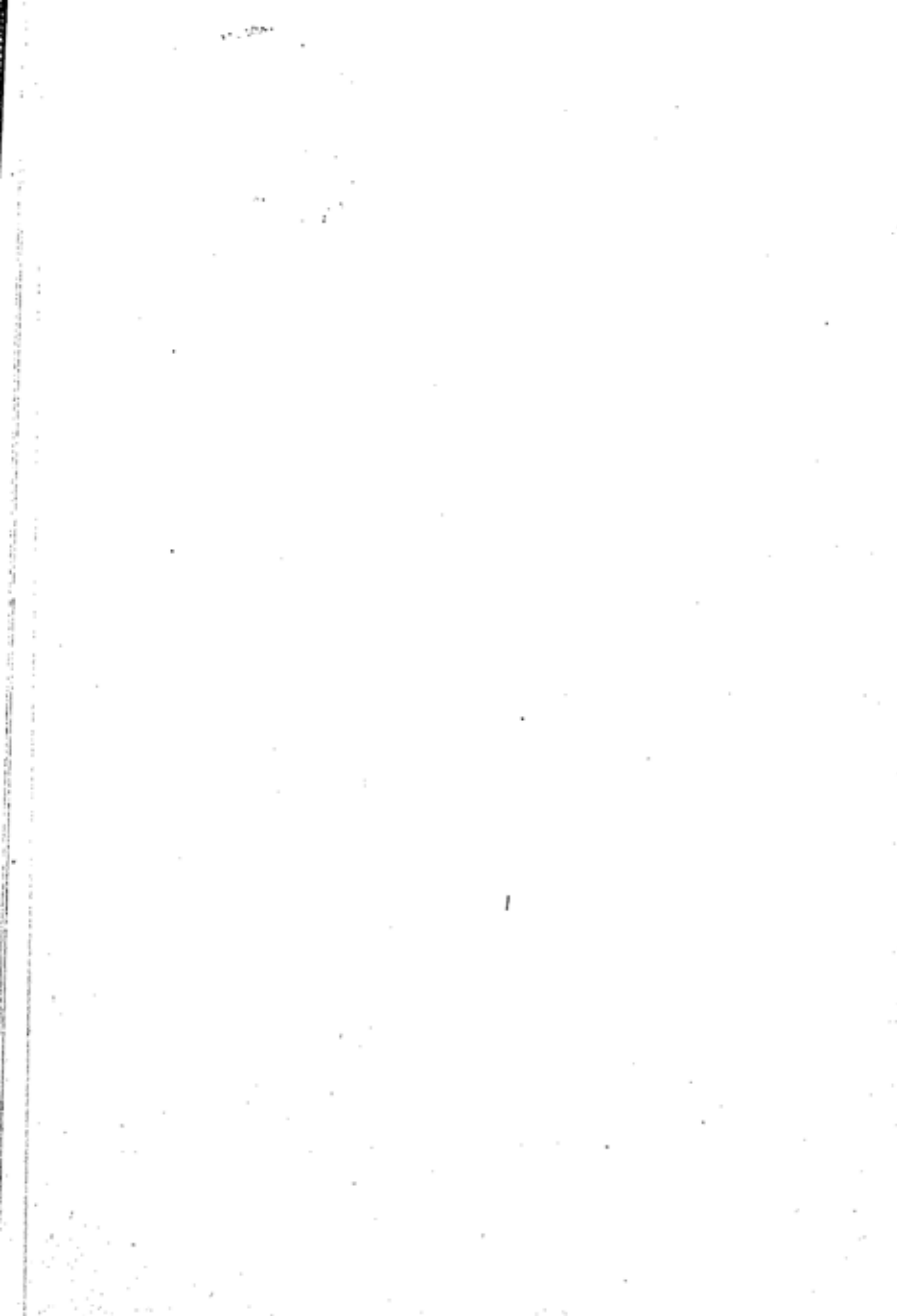


# CONTENTS

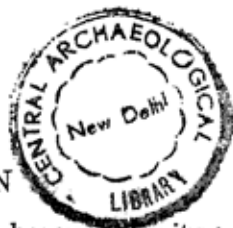
	PAGE
I. THE DAKKAN ... ..	I
II. ARYANISATION OF DAKKAN ... ..	9
III. EARLY CONTACTS ... ..	15
IV. THE SATAVAHANA EMPIRE ... ..	20
V. THE POST-SATAVAHANA PERIOD ... ..	28
VI. THE CHALUKYAS OF BADAMI ... ..	36
VII. THE CHALUKYAS OF VENGI ... ..	40
VIII. THE RASHTRAKUTAS OF MALKHED ... ..	46
IX. THE CHALUKYAS OF KALYANI ... ..	52
X. THE YADAVAS OF DEVAGIRI ... ..	58
XI. THE KAKATIYAS OF WARANGAL ... ..	61
XII. THE SULTANS OF DELHI AND THE DAKKAN	66
XIII. THE POST-KAKATIYA PERIOD ... ..	74
XIV. THE BAHMANI KINGDOM ... ..	85
XV. THE FIVE SULTANATES OF THE DAKKAN ... ..	99
XVI. THE MUGALS AND THE MARATHAS ... ..	120
XVII. THE PESHWAS AND THE NIZAMS ... ..	132
XVIII. THE HYDERABAD STATE ... ..	142

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## THE DAKKAN



DAKSHINAPATHA is a term of hoary antiquity. It occurs for the first time in the Rig Veda and has been ever since used to denote a particular part of India. The original Sanskrit word changed into Dakhinapada or Dachinabada in the vernacular languages and is mentioned as Dachinabades in a Greek work of the first century A.D. Dakshina, a shortened form of the original word, was also in use and became corrupted into Dakhina, Dakhin and Dakkan. It has, curiously, assumed the form Deccan in modern times.

Dakshinapatha, as it occurs in the Rig Veda, vaguely denotes a southern region whither criminals and exiles went. Its exact location and extent were not known at the time. The word occurs even in the later Vedic and post-Vedic periods. In course of time the centre of Aryan activity shifted from the Punjab to the Madhya Pradesh, generally identified with the region lying between the Himalayas in the north, the Vindhyas in the south, the Vinasina in the west and Prayaga in the east. The eastern limit of this region underwent a change but its southern limit remained almost fixed. Some of the Buddhist works would make the Godavary the southern limit of the Madhya or Majjima Desa but the bulk of evidence is in favour of considering the Vindhyan mountains as the southern limit. Dakshinapatha means, then, the region to the south of the Vindhyas.

How far south of the Vindhyas did Dakshinapatha extend? The Matsya, Vayu and Markandeya puranas state that the Cholas, Pandyas and Keralas lived in Dakshinapatha. Some of the inscriptions of the Early Chalukyan period contain the familiar expression *Setu-Namada-Madhyastam Sasritha-Sapta-laksham Dakshina-*

*patham* which describes Dakshinapatha as a region of 7½ lakh villages lying between the Narmada and the Setu. These two sources indicate that the entire country south of the Narmada constituted Dakshinapatha. Actually, however, this term was used to denote a more restricted area. In the Mahabharata, for example, Sahadeva, one of the Pandava brothers, is said to have conquered the Pandyas and then gone to Dakshinapatha. The southern part of the Indian Peninsula maintained its political and cultural individuality for a long time and was known as Dravida or Damira in Sanskrit works and is described as Tamilaham in early Tamil literature. The extreme south has, therefore, to be excluded.

The late Sir R. G. Bhandarkar has identified Dakkan with modern Maharashtra. It is stated that the Dandaka forest lay about the upper course of the Godavary and that Panchavati, where according to the Ramayana, Rama stayed for some time, is identical with Nasik. The statement in the *Periplus* that Kalyana, Tagara and Paithan were situated in Dachinabades is also quoted in support of this view. Hemadri is said to have described Devagiri or modern Daulatabad as situated on the fringe of the Dandakaranya. It is argued on this evidence that Dandaka was in Maharashtra. It is stated further that in the Vayupurana the Godavary and the Krishna, springing from the Sahyadri or the Western Ghats, are described as rivers of Dakshinapatha and that the Marathas mention on the occasion of religious observances that they are in Dandakaranya. All these arguments are open to criticism. The Puranas referred to above state that the Godavary and the Krishna are rivers of Dakshinapatha and not that their upper courses alone are in this region. It is very well known that at Panchavati, where Rama stayed for some time, the Godavary was wide and the river is hardly more than a few yards wide at Nasik. If local tradition alone

is the basis of the identification there is an equally strong and more valid tradition about the location of Rama's temporary abode on this side of the Eastern Ghats. It is not the Brahmins of Maharashtra alone that mention the name of Dandakaranya in their daily religious ritual but also those inhabiting the Telugu country on either side of the Eastern Ghats. This shows that the Dandaka forest extended farther to the East. There is abundant evidence, as will be shown below, to prove that even the southern and eastern parts of modern Dakkan, including the coastal region on the east, were considered parts of Dakshinapatha. There is a very good reason for the name Dakshinapatha not figuring in central and eastern Dakkan so frequently as in the west. These parts constituted the two well known divisions of Andhra and Kalinga. The Andhras as a people are mentioned even in the Aitareyabrahmana. In the time of Megasthenes the Andhras and Kalingas were inhabiting contiguous territory. Andhra and Kalinga as territorial names came into existence at an early date and continue to be in use to this day. Karnataka and Maharashtra, the other well known territorial names in western and south-western Dakkan, came into existence at a later date and so the general name Dakshinapatha was used for a long time to denote this part of the Dakkan.

Another view is that the modern State of Hyderabad is the Dakkan *par excellence*. According to this view the Dakkan extends from the Ghats in the west to the Golconda coast in the east and from the Tapati in the north to the Tungabhadra in the south. This definition of medieval Dakkan is based upon a so-called physical feature of the Deccan, viz., the existence of a plateau in the shape of an equilateral triangle sloping towards the east, commencing with the Ajanta range and extending right up to the Nilgiris and the Palghat Gap. This plateau is said to be covered by a semicircle of lava flow with one horn touching

Nagpur and the other Goa and the southern line including the triune town of Golconda-Hyderabad-Secunderabad. According to this view the Desh or Maharashtra proper and the Golconda coast or the wide coastal strip to the east of the Eastern Ghats are excluded from the Dakkan. This view is too artificial and its so-called physiographical basis out of tune with the general geographical import of the Dakkan. It is a matter of common knowledge that both the extreme west and extreme east of the Dakkan resisted Muslim aggression for a long time. It was not until the death of the illustrious Krishnaraya of Vijayanagara that the eastern Districts could be annexed by the Muslim State of Golconda. The Great Sivaji freed the greater part of Maharashtra from foreign rule and the Peshwas preserved its freedom after him. Thus for a long time Muslim rule from the time of its inception was confined to the plateau. Various parts of even this plateau were known under different names like Desh, Karnatak and Telingana. It is by no means justifiable to give this very limited Muslim-dominated region exclusively the general appellation of Dakkan which, on all accounts, denoted a far wider area. Hyderabad-Deccan is so called because it had to be distinguished from Hyderabad Sindh and not because the State of that name is *par excellence* the Dakkan. Similarly, Bombay-Dakkan happens to be so called in order to distinguish it from Bombay-Karnatak.

It is possible to determine the real extent of the Dakkan otherwise. Satakarni I, an illustrious ruler of the Satavahana family in the 2nd century B.C., whose territory extended far into the south and east in the Dakkan, had the title Dakshinapathapati. A descendant of his, Vasishti-putra Pulomavi who ruled over both eastern and western Dakkan had the same title. An early Kadamba king named Krishnavarman of Vanavasi, had the title *Dakshinapatha-vasumati-vasupati*. The famous Allahabad pillar

inscription of Samudragupta describes that emperor's campaigns against the rulers of Uttarapatha and Dakshinapatha and mentions in the later context that a number of rulers on the east coast were vanquished by him. A tradition preserved in the inscriptions of the Chalukya states that Vijayaditya, one of their rulers, came from Ayodhya to Dakshinapatha, fought with Trilochana Pallava near Mudivemu, a village in the modern Cudapa District. In the Mahabharata, in the story of Nala, it is stated that Dakshinapatha lay beyond Vidarbha and Kosala. These two states extended over modern Berar and the southern districts of the Madhya Pradesh. It is known from ancient Tamil literature that Tamilaham extended in the north up to the Southern Pennar and that beyond it there were two divisions, Aruvanadu and Aruvavadadalainadu whose inhabitants were non-Tamils and talked a different language. The country beyond these divisions was known as Vadugu or Vadugavali. While describing the various peoples that inhabited India the Puranas mention Kalinga, Kuntala and Andhra as *Janapadas* of Dakshinapatha. Asoka, the celebrated Mauryan emperor of the 3rd century B.C., mentions in his edicts Pandya, Chola and Kerala as independent states beyond his realm and a number of peoples like the Rathikas, Pitenikas, Bhojakas, Andhras, Pulindas and Sabaras as living within his empire. The Cholas and the Pandyas were powers of Dravida or the Tamil country while the peoples mentioned above were inhabitants of the Dakkan. The emperor's edicts have been found at Sopara in the west, Jaugada in the east and Yerragudi, Maski, Brahmagiri, Siddhapura and Jaitungaramesvara in the South.

These evidences prove beyond doubt that Dakshinapatha was the name of the entire region bound by the Vindhya in the north, the sea in the east and west and covered by

the now distinct areas of Andhra, Karnataka and Maharashtra.

The Dakkan is a distinct entity. It had its own course of political and cultural evolution different from that of Uttarapatha in the north and Dravida in the south. This distinctness is the result of its physical features which have exerted, in addition, profound influence in shaping its destiny.

The Vindhyas, running across India from east to west, have cut the country into two distinct parts. They run almost into Bengal in the north-east and Guzerat in the north-west and there are two gaps, one in the east bordering upon the Eastern Ghats and the other near Surat. The eastern gap is covered by primeval jungle and is almost impassable. The Surat gap has been the Khyber of the Dakkan. The presence of these mountains, more or less as an insurmountable barrier, has had immense consequences. It has long delayed the process of aryanisation and prevented the expansion of the mighty empires of the north into the Dakkan. The pageant of empires in the north has no parallel show in the south. The Western Ghats are an almost unbroken chain of hills running north to south on the western edge of the Dakkan. Their slopes are very steep in the west and their tops flat and wide. Their eastern slopes are more gradual and covered by crags and woods. These hills are admirably suited for the construction of a chain of hill fortresses and for the prosecution of successful guerilla warfare. The Muslim states of the Dakkan and even the Mogul Emperors of Delhi had to pay dearly for the subjugation of this tract and the Ghats are one of the main causes for the success of the freedom movement of the great Sivaji and his successors. The Eastern Ghats lying on the eastern fringe of the Dakkan consist of a number of low hills with gradual slopes on either side with numerous gaps between them. Here and there these hills form rings

and horse-shoes. The Mahendragiri ranges in the north, the Kondapalli ranges in the centre and the Kondavidu and Nagarjanakonda ranges in the south are admirably suited for the purpose of defence and the fortresses built upon them have played a determining part in the history of the Dakkan.

The Narmada, the Godavary and Krishna are the most important rivers of the Dakkan. The Narmada has been the second line of defence. It flows through a deep rock-cut channel and is not of much fertilising value. The port of Broach at the mouths of this river was one of the chief emporia of trade in ancient India. The Godavary and the Krishna, rising in the Western Ghats and emptying themselves into the Bay of Bengal, have cut the Dakkan into three natural divisions and the early history of Dakkan was the history of the struggle between the states that rose in these natural divisions. The doab formed by the confluence of the Krishna and the Tungabhadra was the bone of contention between the powers of the Dakkan and the rulers of the south. These two great rivers cutting gorges in the Eastern Ghats and running into the sea, have created a wide, rich alluvial plain between the Ghats and the sea.

The Dakkan plateau, which is of the shape of an inverted equilateral triangle, has had its own importance. There is a low-lying area in the north formed by the valleys of the Tapi and the Narmada and this happened to be outside the great Dandaka forest. This area was more easily accessible to the Aryans and the earliest Dakkan states like Vidharbha and Kosala were set up there. The plateau slopes to the east and south-east and this has determined the course of the Krishna and the Godavary. It was mostly covered by the Dandaka forest and remained unexploited for a long time. When in later times independent states came to be established on it, these states tried always to expand to the east and south-east.



There are two stretches of coast on either side of the plateau. The coast in the west, known as Konkan, is narrow and much indented. A number of natural harbours sprang up in this region and these became the emporia of ancient Indian trade with the western countries. The coast on the east, covered by Andhra-Kalinga, is wide and rich. It is one of the most fertile tracts in India and the home of wealth and plenty. There were numerous ports on this coast also and these served as outlets not only of trade with the eastern countries but also of ancient Indian culture to the eastern Asiatic countries.

The Dakkan has been the meeting ground of cultures. Aryan and non-Aryan cultures met here under favourable auspices and resulted in a harmonious synthesis. The impact of Islam was attended by violence and destruction in northern India and drove Hindu culture mercilessly underground. In the Dakkan, however, it was less violent and the co-existence of independent Hindu and Muslim States ultimately paved the way for a cultural *rapprochement*.

## CHAPTER II

### ARYANISATION OF THE DAKKAN

DAKSHINAPATHA or the Dakkan was vaguely known to the Rig Vedic Aryans. They seem to have had very little contact with this distant region. As the centre of Aryan activity shifted to the Madhyadesa they came nearer to the Vindhya and the country beyond them. The Brahmanas, however, mention a number of tribes like the Andhras, Pulindas, Sabaras, Pundras and Mutibas and the states of Vidarbha, Kosala and Kalinga. A story in the Aitareyabrahmana states that the sage Visvamitra cursed fifty of his sons and their progeny to go and live beyond the Aryan realm and that these are the Andhras, Pulindas, Sabaras, etc. This seems to be the earliest Aryan element that found its way to the south of the Vindhya. The Ramayana, which is, from one point of view, an allegorical presentation of the story of Aryan expansion to the south, shows a better acquaintance with the Dakkan. It makes mention of Utkala, Kalinga, Dasarna, Dandakaranya and Vidarbha and the Richikas, Mahishakas, Andhras, Pandyas, Cholas and Keralas. The celebrated grammar of Panini of the 7th century B.C., mentions Kaccha or Cutch, Avanti or Malva, Kosala, and Kalinga. Katyayana, another celebrated grammarian of the 4th century B.C., mentions the Nasikyas, Pandyas and Cholas and Mahishmati. The Mahabharata contains a more vivid picture of the south. It mentions peoples like the Dravidas, Pandyas, Keralas, Andhras and Udhras and places like Surparaka or Sopara, Kishkindha, Dandaka and Karahata or Karad. It is thus evident that Aryan knowledge of the south progressively increased and that by the 4th century B.C. they were acquainted with the entire country up to the Cape Comorin.

There are numerous instances of Aryan migration to the south. One pioneer of this movement was the sage Agastya. There are many stories in the literature of this period about the adventures of this sage. It is said that he humbled the Vindhya and asked it to lie low till he went beyond it and came back. This seems to be an allegoric way of stating that he was the pioneer climber of the great mountain range. Agastya is also said to have destroyed two demon brothers, Vatapi and Ilvala, who were decoying all wayfarers and destroying them. Badami, the celebrated capital of the Early Chalukyas of the Dakkan, is named after this Vatapi. Agastya is worshipped even to this day in the distant south and Tamil tradition ascribes the first Tamil work to this sage. These traditions indicate that Agastya, an Aryan pioneer, successfully crossed the Vindhya and went into the heart of the Tamil country beyond.

The Ramayana portrays vividly the state of the Dakkan during the course of aryanisation. Probably encouraged by the pioneer attempt of Agastya, a number of Aryan hermits crossed the Vindhya and established numerous hermitages in the Dandaka forest and on its fringes. Rama visited many of them and stayed as their guest. These hermits had generally a peaceful time, but occasionally the demons, meaning thereby some of the aggressive local people, caused them inconvenience and even harassed them. It looks as though the Ramayana is itself an allegorical work indicating how a number of Aryan cultural colonies were set up all over the Dakkan and how the reputed rulers of the north felt it their duty to protect these unostentatious missionaries of Aryan culture in this distant region. There are instances of well known tribes of northern India sending their people over to the south.

According to Megasthenes, who lived in the fourth century B.C., there was a tradition current at the time that a

daughter of Krishna named Pandae lived for some time in the Saurasena country on the banks of the Ganges and the Jumna and then left for the distant south. The Sanskrit grammarian, Katyayana, mentions that the word Pandya is derived from the tribal name Pandu. Varahamihira, the celebrated astronomer, mentions a Pandu tribe as living in the Madhyadesa. Ptolemy, the Greek geographer, mentions a people named the Pandooi in the Punjab. This evidence indicates the existence of a tribe named the Pandus first in the Punjab and then in the Madhyadesa. The Pandyas are a celebrated historical dynasty of South India, and their capital Madura is equally famous. It is very likely that a branch of the Pandu tribe migrated to the distant south, settled down there and named their chief city after Mathura, the main seat of the Saurasenas. According to another tradition, Bharata, a king in the Gangetic Valley, defeated the Satvata tribe and forced them to migrate. A number of Dakkan tribes like the Yadus, the Bhojas and others trace their descent from these Satvatas. This, therefore, seems to be another instance of tribal migration into the Dakkan. There was a famous Aryan tribe called the Ailas living near the confluence of the Ganges and the Jumna with Pratishthana as their chief city. This place is identified with Jhansi opposite Allahabad fort. Modern Paithan is famous in literature and tradition as Pratishthana. Obviously the Ailas, like the Satvatas, migrated into the Dakkan and built a second Paithan here.

Kosala, one of the celebrated kingdoms of northern India, was under the rule of the Ikshvaku family. A state named Kosala or Dakshinakosala existed for a very long time in the Dakkan. The Ikshvakus are an important historical dynasty of the Dakkan in the post-Satavahana period. Evidently, the Ikshvakus of Ayodhya in the north led another batch of Aryan migrants to the Dakkan, penetrated to the coast in the east and founded the state of South

Kosala. The Suttanipata, an early Buddhist work, narrates the story of a Brahmin teacher named Bavarin who, with sixteen of his own pupils and their pupils, left Sravasti and migrated to the Assaka state on the bank of the Godavary. There are, among the Brahmins of the south, two sects named the Brihaccharanas and the Mulikinatis. The former seem to have been so named because they travelled a long distance before they settled in the south. The Mulikinatis or the Mulakanatis were so called because they came from Mulaka, a region that lay on the bank of the Godavary. These few instances are sufficient to indicate how gradually the Dakkan came to be freely and frequently colonized in course of time by the Aryans.

We obtain a clear glimpse of the condition of the Dakkan immediately before the rise of Buddhism. The process of Aryan colonisation was complete by this time and the period of settlement had already begun. A number of states came to be established on the northern and eastern fringes of the Dakkan. Kalinga was a flourishing state on the east coast with Dantapura, or Kanchanapura, as its capital. Assaka on the bank of the Godavary was another flourishing state and it included Asika and Mulaka which became famous later on. To the west of it was the state of the Bhojas or Bhojakas. Farther west was Dandaka. A little to the north existed the powerful state of Vidarbha. These Dakkan states flourished during the days of the latter Videhas of the north, contemporaneous with the great Mahajanapadas. The region beyond these states in the Dakkan was occupied by tribes like the Andhras, Pulindas, Sabaras and Mutibas. All these states and territories continued till the beginning of the Christian era when they were incorporated into the famous Andhra-Satavahana empire.

It is possible to infer the routes of this Aryan expansion. The story of Agastya indicates the discovery of a direct route through the Vindhya. The story of Bavarin shows

that this route was very popular in the period before the rise of Buddhism. The Kalingas, who are always associated with the coastal region, probably moved along the eastern spurs of the Vindhya and descended into the Dakkan by the coast. The instance of Ikshvaku migration indicates the existence of another route from the banks of the Godavary to the coast on the east below Kalinga. Probably there was another route leading from Kosala to the far south. Other migrants came by the sea, sailing from the Indus delta and landing at Kutch, Broach and Sopara.

Aryan expansion into the Dakkan had its peculiar features quite different from the expansion in the north. For one thing, there never was an Aryan conquest as such in the south or a regular annexation of the lands of the native inhabitants. It was a case of racial fusion and cultural assimilation. The numerous hermitages established in the Dakkan during the early days served as so many centres of Aryan culture and the peaceful and godly hermits unostentatiously, but effectively, propagated Aryan culture among the original inhabitants and converted them to the new way of life and thought. Culturally this aryanisation was thorough and successful. Even before the sixth century B.C., Prakrit became the language of the Aryan people in the north and both the Buddhists and the Jains carried on their religious propaganda in that language. Several edicts of Asoka, the great Buddhist emperor of the Mauryan dynasty, have been discovered at many places in the Dakkan. As elsewhere in India these edicts are all in the Prakrit language. The emperor intended them to be read and understood by the people. Obviously there was a large section of the people in the Dakkan who could easily read and understand these Prakrit edicts. The inscriptions of the Andhra-Satavahanas, who succeeded Asoka and held sway for about five centuries, are found in the caves of

Maharashtra and on the Buddhist stupas at Bhattiprolu and Amaravati. These records are also in Prakrit. Records of the early Pallavas and Ikshvakus, who succeeded the Satavahanas, have also been found and all these inscriptions are in the Prakrit language. The prevalence of this language for more than six centuries in this manner indicates not only the intensity of aryanisation, but also the influential position occupied by the Aryan migrants in the south. Some of the Buddhist votive records contain the names of the donors who were often middle class people but who bore distinctly Aryan names. Aryan customs, Aryan manners, Aryan religion and Aryan modes of life were all adopted in the Dakkan even by the non-Aryan peoples. The local languages alone retained their individuality and began to assert themselves from the fourth and fifth centuries A.D.

Thus the aryanisation of the Dakkan was a later phase in Indian history and a long-drawn-out process. It was essentially cultural in its nature and very thorough. This expansion of Aryan culture into the Dakkan was a fortunate occurrence, for, in the Middle Ages it was the south that became the champion of that culture and gave it a new orientation.

### CHAPTER III

## EARLY CONTACTS

THE SIXTH and fifth centuries B.C. witnessed remarkable events in Northern India. Buddhism and Jainism came to be widely propagated all over the country and the message of the 'Enlightened One' echoed in thousands of hearts in the distant Dakkan. One tradition mentions that the Buddha himself visited this region but this statement lacks corroboration. The Andhras, the most powerful and enterprising tribe of contemporary Dakkan, were the earliest people in the south to embrace the new faith and their missionaries propagated the gospel in Sravasti and other places even in the north.

The Saisunagas rapidly expanded their power and made Magadha the leading state in the north, but their influence does not seem to have extended to the south. The old states of Dandaka, Vidarbha, Assaka, etc., seem to have lost their importance by the end of the fifth century B.C. and two states, Andhra and Kalinga, became prominent in the fourth century while a number of people like the Rashtrikas, Bhojakas and Pitenikas, and tribes like the Pulindas and Sabaras, existed in other parts of the Dakkan. These tribes occupied the fringes of the Dakkan while the Kalingas occupied part of the east coast and the Andhras held power in the interior over a wide territory. The Nandas succeeded the Saisunagas in the north. They organised a strong and powerful empire. According to one epigraphic source their sway extended into eastern Dakkan and Kalinga.

The Nanda family was exterminated by the joint efforts of Chanakya the 'Indian Machiavelli' and his protégé, Chandragupta, in 320 B.C., and the Mauryan dynasty was enthroned at ancient Pataliputra. Chandragupta Maurya



subjugated the whole of northern India and established an empire of unprecedented might and power. There are numerous traditions associating him with the Dakkan and the south. According to some early Tamil works the "Moriyar" (Mauryas) penetrated up to the Podiyil hill in the Tirunelveli district by way of Konkan. There are place names, like Chandraguptapattana, containing the name of the first Maurya in south-western Andhra. A later tradition mentions that Chandragupta became an adherent of Jainism later in his life, that being unable to prevent a 12-year famine in the north, the emperor became despondent and migrated, in the company of his teacher Bhadrabahu, to Sravanbelgola in modern Mysore state and there committed suicide through starvation being a Jaina. Badami Chalukyan inscriptions of the sixth and seventh centuries A.D. mention the Mauryas as a people of the Dakkan conquered ultimately by Pulikesin III. It is not, however, possible to establish any political connection between Chandragupta and the Dakkan. Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador at the court of the emperor, has left valuable accounts of India of the time. According to him the Kalingas and the Andhras were the most important people of the Dakkan at the time. Of these two, the Andhras were decidedly the mightier nation and ranked almost next in importance to the imperial Mauryas. They possessed a territory, with 30 walled towns and an army of 10,000 infantry, 2,000 cavalry and 1,000 elephants. They were, in all probability, a republican tribe. Their predominant position in the Dakkan might have prevented Chandragupta's aggressions in the south.

Chandragupta was succeeded by his son Bindusara. Taranath, a Chinese historian of the seventeenth century, ascribes to this monarch extensive conquests in the Dakkan and subsequent events point to this possibility. Bindusara's son, the great Asoka, fought only one battle and that

in Kalinga, and thereafter abandoned war altogether. His edicts are, however, to be found on the southern fringe of the Dakkan and he had a viceroy at Suvarnagiri in the south. Obviously, Asoka obtained the Dakkan as a dominion by inheritance if not by conquest. It is not possible at the present time to describe the circumstances that facilitated the extension of Mauryan domination to the south in the time of Bindusara.

Asoka Maurya is one of the outstanding personalities of world history. Like that of the great Buddha his sensitive heart was smitten by the sight of human misery and intense suffering. The pride of imperialism, the arrogance of youth and the intoxication of power were all dispelled by the wails of suffering humanity in the battlefield of Kalinga which the emperor surveyed as the mighty conqueror. The anguished monarch prohibited war altogether. He issued a noble proclamation preferring conquest by *dharma* to conquest by arms. The empire of force was transformed into the empire of moral might and love. The proud aggressor became the genuine lover and the first servant of all humanity. He not only proclaimed the high ideal of universal love but also became the first great practical international benefactor of humanity. His zealous patronage and ardent propaganda of Buddhism made it one of the world religions. This stirring event in world history, the conversion of a proud aggressor into a servant of humanity, this *Dharmavijaya*, took place in the Kalinga battlefield on the stage of the Dakkan. The emperor had waged a war of unprovoked aggression against Kalinga in the ninth year of his reign and had annexed Kalinga to the empire but dedicated the resources of the empire and his own heart to the service of all humanity. His edicts mention a number of Dakkan peoples like the Andhras, Pulindas, Sabaras, Rashtrikas, Pitenikas, Bhojakas, etc., but these seem to have retained their

autonomy though they might have nominally recognised the authority of the Mauryas.

The edicts of Asoka have been found at several places in the south like Dhauli and Jaugada in Kalinga, Yerragudi in the Kurnul district, Maski in the Raichur district, Siddhapura and other places in the Chittaldurg district. Two viceroyalties flourished, one at Suvarnagin in the south and the other in Kalinga. The great Moral Code of Asoka was propagated among the peoples of the Dakkan along with the tenets of Buddhism. The Dakkan was also included in the list of countries to which organized Buddhist missions were sent. A monk named Mahadevabhikshu was despatched to eastern Dakkan to propagate the gospel among the Andhra people. Within less than quarter of a century the entire Dakkan came to be studded with Buddhist *tirthas* (establishments) set up by numerous sects.

One Buddhist account states that in his zeal for the glorification of the Buddha, Asoka visited the village of Ramagrama, opened a stupa there containing the corporeal remains of the Teacher, took them out and distributed them widely among all the followers of Buddhism. Another tradition credits the emperor with the construction of 84,000 stupas. Stupas erected over the bodily remains of the Buddha have so far been brought to light in the Dakkan at Bhattiprolu, Amaravati and Nagarjunakonda, all in the Guntur district. Dantapura, the capital of Kalinga, according to some sources, must have been so named on account of a monument erected therein over the tooth of the Master. This indicates that the tradition about the distribution of the Buddha's relics was, in all probability, true and shows the great regard and esteem that Asoka had for the peoples of eastern Dakkan in whose hearts he must have found a sympathetic vibration. He must have honoured these people with liberal gifts of the Buddha's corporeal remains.

The Mauryan empire collapsed on the death of the great

Asoka and none of his successors could restore it. The slender political connection between the Mauryas and the Dakkan snapped and the southern region became an open prize for ambition and adventure.

## CHAPTER IV

### THE SATAVAHANA EMPIRE

THE REGULAR HISTORY of the Dakkan begins with the advent of the Andhra-Satavahanas to power. The period of their rule, which lasted for over four centuries and a half, constitutes one of the most brilliant periods not only in the history of the Dakkan but also in the history of ancient India. The Satavahana empire extended at times far to the north and south of the Dakkan and even the ancient imperial city, Pataliputra, was included in it. The period of Satavahana rule witnessed remarkable literary and religious activity. Some of the monuments of this period are also some of the best specimens of Indian art.

The Puranas contain lists of ancient imperial dynasties like the Saisunagas, the Nandas and the Mauryas and mention among them a succession of thirty Andhra kings as having ruled for 450 years. Sisuka or Simuka, the first king of this list, is mentioned as an *Andhrajatiya*. Inscriptions and coins discovered in the Dakkan mention several kings belonging to the *Satavahanakula*. Many of these names agree with those of the kings mentioned in the Puranic lists. For these and other reasons the two are taken to be identical and the Satavahana family is considered to have belonged to the Andhra tribe.

There has been a good deal of controversy regarding the original home of the Satavahanas. The Bellary district, Maharashtra and Berar have been alternatively suggested as the original home of this family. Each of these suggestions is defective and untenable. Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador at the court of Chandragupta Maurya, in the fourth century B.C., mentions the Kalingas and the Andhras as neighbours. Kalinga is the name of the region lying between the Godavary and the Mahanadi on the east coast

## THE SATAVAHANA EMPIRE 78 A.D.





of the Dakkan. The Andhras too must have been living in eastern Dakkan. The edicts of Asoka Maurya mention the Andhras, Pulindas, Sabaras, Rathikas, Pitenikas and Bhojakas as tribes living within his dominions in the Dakkan. Of these the Rathikas lived in Maharashtra, the Pitenikas round about Paithan, the Bhojakas in Berar, the Pulindas in the Vindhyan region and the Sabaras in the eastern Ghats. The Andhras must have lived in central and eastern Dakkan. The Satavahanas, as an Andhra family, must have hailed from this part of the Dakkan. This view is supported by the recent discovery at Kondapur, in the Hyderabad state, of a coin of king Satavahana who appears to have been the founder of this family.

There has also been a controversy regarding the meaning of the name of this dynasty. Tradition and literary sources offer various explanations. The coin of king Satavahana, mentioned above, supplies the real clue. The adoption of the name of the founder as the surname of a family is a common practice in India. The names of many royal families like those of the Cholas, Pallavas and Guptas are instances to the point. Simuka, the earliest king in the Puranic lists, and the earliest ruler known from inscriptions, is described as Simuka Satavahana. His brother and immediate successor is described as belonging to the Satavahana *kula* or family. Pulomavi, the last member of this dynasty, is called king of the Satavahanas. King Satavahana ought to be assigned to a place earlier than Simuka in Satavahana genealogy. It is therefore obvious that his personal name was adopted subsequently as the dynastic name.

The characters of the legend on the coins of King Satavahana resemble those of the earliest known Satavahana records and the edicts of Asoka. Asoka died in 236 B.C. and the date of Simuka's accession is 220 B.C., King Satavahana has to be assigned to 235—220 B.C. Certain well



known facts of the post-Satavahana period indicate that Satavahana rule must have ended in the first quarter of the third century A.D. The Satavahana period may therefore be assigned to 235 B.C.—A.D. 220.

There were thirty one rulers in the Satavahana family. Many of them are mere names but a few were really powerful rulers. These kings may be conveniently divided into three groups—early, central and later. Among the early Satavahanas Simuka, Satakarni I and Satakarni II were great kings. In the central group Kuntala, Pulomavi I and Hala were famous while among the later Satavahanas Gautamiputra and Yajna Sri were great monarchs.

*Satavahana.*—After the death of the great emperor Asoka his empire fell to pieces. His northern possessions were divided between a son and two grandsons. None of the Mauryan princes cared for the Dakkan part of the empire. The peoples of this region were therefore left to themselves. Of these the Andhras were the most powerful. Satavahana, who belonged to one of the numerous families of this tribe, proclaimed his independence, carved out a small principality for himself and ruled over it.

*Simuka.*—Satavahana was succeeded by his son Simuka. An alarming situation developed in northern India by this time. The successors of Asoka were proved to be weaklings and incapable of maintaining order in the country. The Greeks, who were already strong in the Punjab, put on a menacing attitude. Samprati, a grandson of Asoka, was in Saurashtra, and manifested an aggressive mood. The Rashtrikas and other tribes that inhabited, western and northern Dakkan were weak and were not in a position to offer effective resistance to the Mauryan prince in the event of his invading the Dakkan. Simuka found in this an imminent danger for his own kingdom in the interior. He therefore decided upon preventive action and gathering together a number of Andhra chieftains invaded Maha-

rastra and conquered it. He then established his rule over this region and consolidated his position through a matrimonial alliance with the leader of the Rashtrikas.

*Satakarni I.*—Simuka was succeeded by his son Satakarni I. This ruler had to face a trying situation. There was a dynastic revolution in Magadha and Pushyamitra of the Sunga family exterminated the Mauryas and established himself as the ruler of their dominions. The Greek king Demetrius penetrated into the heart of the Indo-Gangetic plain. A powerful chieftain named Kharavela rose to fame in Kalinga. Satakarni himself was aiming at territorial expansion. Thus a keen imperial contest ensued between these rulers. Kharavela first attacked the Sunga dominion and created terrible havoc. Satakarni took advantage of the troubles of Pushyamitra and occupied Malva and performed an *Asvamedha* as a token of his triumph. Kharavela then turned his attention to the west and sent three expeditions against Satakarni's dominions. The Satavahana monarch rose to the occasion and soon put an end to these aggressions. He performed a second *Asvamedha* in token of this success. Satakarni then extended his conquests to the east coast south of Kalinga. He then performed the *Rajasuya* sacrifice and assumed the proud title of *Dakshinapathapati* or Lord of the Dakkan. This king was an ardent follower of the Vedic Dharma and performed numerous sacrifices, gifting on each occasion thousands of cows, vehicles, and pieces of gold and cloths. A long epigraph in one of the caves at Naneghat eulogises his might and splendour and liberality.

*Satakarni II.*—This king was the next important ruler of the family. He too was a great conqueror. Taking advantage of some local disputes between Sunga subordinates, he annexed Vidarbha and part of Vidisa in Central India. He then advanced into Kalinga and annexed that region. By this time the Sakas of Seistan invaded

India, upset peace and order in the north and occupied Ujjain. One of their branches invaded Magadha and took Pataliputra, while one of their chieftains seized Maharashtra and set up an independent kingdom there. The Saka ruler of Pataliputra also invaded the Satavahana dominion in the Dakkan, but king Satakarni defeated and killed him, rushed up to Pataliputra which he captured and ruled for ten years. It was during his glorious reign that the celebrated gateways were added to the railing of the Sanchi stupa.

*Kuntala.*—The Saka kings of the west soon expanded their dominion and the Satavahanas lost Maharashtra and other territories, for the time being. They were confined to their home provinces and central and eastern Dakkan. After the lapse of about half a century, Kuntala Satakarni revived the lost glory of the Satavahana family. He made extensive conquests and became the overlord of many rulers of the north. Two famous scholars, Sarvavarman, the author of an independent Sanskrit grammar and Gunadhya, the illustrious author of the *Brihatkatha*, a great collection of stories, composed in the *Paisachi* dialect of the Prakrit language, were his protégés and added lustre to his reign.

*Pulomavi I.*—This king succeeded Kuntala. He exterminated the Kanva family and annexed Magadha to the Satavahana empire.

*Hala.*—This was another illustrious king. He was himself a poet of very high order and patronised many poets. He compiled an anthology of Prakrit verses named the *Saptasati* and included in it his own verses and those of other celebrated poets.

The successors of Hala were weaklings and could not maintain their hold on the vast dominion. The Kushans, a foreign tribe, who were already well established in the Punjab, made repeated inroads into the Gangetic basin and shattered Satavahana power there. The Satavahanas thus

lost their trans-Vindhyan possessions and came to be confined once again to their home provinces in central and eastern Dakkan.

*Gautamiputra*.—Gautamiputra Satakarni, the greatest of the Satavahanas, ascended the throne in A.D. 78. The fortunes of his family were at the lowest ebb at the time of his accession. The Sakas, the Yavanas and the Pahlavas were powerful all over the country, and constantly disturbed social peace. The people were unhappy and discontented. The Dakkan, which had been hitherto under the rule of a single dynasty, was now split up into numerous principalities. Satakarni surveyed the situation and realised that the establishment of a strong central power was the most urgent need of the hour. He was also grieved to see his once glorious family sink into insignificance. Thereupon the monarch undertook a *digvijaya*, and launched a series of campaigns. In one campaign he conquered Asika, Assaka, Mulaka and Vidarbha which corresponded to northern Hyderabad and Berar. He led his second campaign against Kukura, Saurashtra and Aparanta corresponding to Maharashtra, Kathiawar and Eastern Rajputana. The third expedition was directed against South India and what is now Mysore State. His steeds are said to have "drunk the waters of the three seas." He obtained a series of victories and never knew defeat. As a result of these campaigns Satakarni became the master not only of the entire Dakkan, but also of parts of Northern India and the Tamil country. He exterminated the Kshaharatas, destroyed the Yavanas, the Sakas and the Pahlavas and suppressed all anti-social elements. He restored and protected *Varnasramadharma*. He had a very noble ideal of kingship and fully shared the weal and woe of his subjects. He extended liberal patronage to the poor and the learned and apportioned his time between the service of God and the service of man. He was greatly

helped in this task of national revival by his mother Gautami Balasri, a lady of mature wisdom, ripe experience and saintly qualities. A long inscription incised in one of the Pandulena group of caves at Nashik gives a vivid description of the magnificent personality and memorable achievements of this great monarch.

*Pulomavi II.*—Pulomavi succeeded his father Gautami-putra and ruled for thirty years. The Kushans, who had by this time consolidated their position in the Indo-Gangetic plain, were alarmed at the phenomenal extension of Satavahana power and they commissioned a Saka chieftain named Chashtana to arrest the aggressions of the Dakkan power.

Towards the end of Pulomavi's reign, Chashtana conquered Malva and western India, and set up an independent kingdom at Ujjain. He was succeeded by his grandson Rudradaman who was a mighty conqueror. He seized the western and northern territories of the Satavahanas from the weak successors of Pulomavi, inflicting a number of defeats on them.

*Yajna Sri.*—Gautamiputra Yajna Sri was the last great Satavahana king. He took advantage of the death of Rudradaman, invaded the Saka dominion and reconquered all the former territories of the Satavahana empire. He became once again Lord Paramount of the Dakkan. He was the patron of the celebrated Buddhist teacher Acharya Nagarjuna who gave a new shape and a new form to Buddhism and dominated the entire intellectual world of the time. The famous railing round the Buddha's *mahacaitya* at Amaravati was also erected during the reign of this Satavahana king.

The great empire of the Satavahanas fell about A.D. 220. The ruling family itself became extinct. The empire split up once again into numerous small principalities. The Abhiras and the Traikutas took away the north-western

part, and the Rashtrikas became powerful in the west, while the Cutus and the Nagas rose to power on the southern border. And the Pallavas set up an independent state in the south-east. The Ikshvakus occupied the east coast and held sway for about half a century and the Vakatakas established an independent state in central Dakkan.

## CHAPTER V

### THE POST-SATAVAHANA PERIOD

NUMEROUS small principalities came into existence on the ashes of the great empire of the Satavahanas. These flourished till the middle of the sixth century A.D., when the Chalukyas established a strong kingdom and absorbed many of them. The intervening period may, for the sake of convenience, be named the post-Satavahana period. Of the dynasties of this period, the Ikshvakus and the Vakatakas, tried to unify the Dakkan but they could not succeed as the Satavahanas did. Dakshinapatha lost its unity and different regions had their own history.

Three families succeeded the Satavahanas immediately after their fall. They were the Ikshvakus of eastern Dakkan, the Vakatakas of the central plateau and the Cutus of south-western Dakkan. Of these the Vakatakas were not related to the Satavahanas and it is not known if they were the political subordinates of that imperial family. The Puranas make mention of the Andhras of Sripurvata as having flourished in the post-Andhra period. Nagarjunakonda in the Guntur district was known as Sripurvata. Vijayapuri, the capital of the Ikshvakus, was situated at the foot of the hill. The Ikshvakus continued the administrative system of the Satavahanas. For these reasons they are identified with the *Sripurvatiya Andhras* of the Puranas. Probably they were kinsmen whom the Satavahanas put in charge of the eastern provinces of their empire. The Cutus of Vanavasi adopted the Satavahana title of Satakarni. The Puranas state that even while the imperial Andhras were in power several of their branches would be ruling. For this reason the Cutus are also considered a branch of the imperial Satavahana family. Probably they were the

governors of the south-western provinces of the Satavahana empire.

From the third quarter of the third century A.D., to the middle of the sixth century A.D., eastern, western and central Dakkan developed along independent lines. Eastern Dakkan came to be divided into three independent states, Kalinga, Vengi and Andhrapatha. The northern part of western Dakkan was occupied by the Abhiras, the Traikutas, the Mauryas and the Nalas. The Rathikas were powerful in Maharashtra. In the south the kingdom of Vanavasi rose to fame and flourished for a long time. The Vakatakas rose to power in central Dakkan and flourished for nearly three centuries.

One event of great importance in the post-Satavahana period was the Dakkan campaign of the famous Gupta emperor Samudragupta, which took place about the middle of the third century A.D. Samudragupta had to conquer the Vakatakas of the Dakkan for the safety of his own empire. But these Dakkan rulers were closely related to the Bharasivas of the Allahabad region, another rival to Gupta power. There were numerous rulers in the Dakkan that might ally themselves with the Vakatakas. Samudragupta therefore attacked and humbled the Bharasivas first and then turned towards the Dakkan. He decided to single out the Vakatakas and then march against them. For this purpose he found it necessary to terrorise the Dakkan rulers and prevent the possibility of their aiding his chief rival in the Dakkan. He therefore undertook his famous southern campaign. Crossing the Vindhya the emperor entered Mahakantara and defeated its ruler Vyaghraraja. Marching eastwards he vanquished Mahendra, king of Kosala. Reaching the coast he defeated in succession Svamidatta of Girikottura, Damanaka of Erandapalli, Kubera of Deva-rashtra, Mahendra of Pishtapura, Mantaraja of Kaurala, Hastivarman of Vengi and Vishnugopa of Kanchi among



others. Having impressed his might on the Dakkan rulers the emperor returned home. The only result of this Gupta invasion was that it upset many of the existing states in the Dakkan, weakened others and facilitated the rise of new ones.

#### ANDHRAPATHA

*The Ikshvakus.*—Four generations of the rulers of this dynasty are known and they seem to have ruled for about seventy-five years. Their capital was Vijayapuri on the southern bank of the Krishna, identified with Nagarjunakonda. The founder of this family was Chamtamula I. He performed the *Asvamedha*, *Agnishtoma* and *Vajapeya* sacrifices and was a powerful ruler. He was succeeded by his son Purisadatta and grandson Chamtamula II. Purisadatta married a princess from the ruling family of Ujjain and gave his own daughter in marriage to a maharaja of Vanavasi. The names of some of the clans that were subordinates of the Ikshvakus indicate that the territory of these kings included in the south the districts of Guntur, Nellore, Cudapa and Karnul. It is very likely that it extended up to Vanavasi in the south-west and Ujjain in the north-west. The Ikshvakus were supplanted by the Pallavas.

*The Pallavas.*—There has been a good deal of controversy regarding the origin of the Pallavas who succeeded the Ikshvakus as rulers of Andhrapatha. Some scholars held that they were of the stock of the foreign Pahlavas and that they migrated to the southern fringe of the Dakkan. Others believed that they were natives of South India. The earliest records of the Pallavas have been found in Andhradesa and their administrative system and early art show unmistakable affinities with the Satavahanas. It is very reasonable to conclude that they were natives of the Satavahana empire and governors of the southern provinces.

They rose to power in the third quarter of the third century A.D., with the aid of the Cutus with whom they contracted a matrimonial alliance. Their earliest ruler inherited the kingdom of Vanavasi on account of this alliance and annexed the east coast up to the Krishna supplanting the Ikshvakus. He ruled from Kanchi over a wide dominion extending from Vanavasi to the sea on the east and from Kanchi in the south to the Krishna in the north-east. His son and successor Sivaskandavarman was a great ruler. He performed the *Asvamedha*, *Agnishtoma* and *Vajapeya* sacrifices and assumed the title *Dharma-maharajadhiraja*. He was followed by two generations. Samudragupta's invasion took place during the reign of Vishnugopa. It weakened Pallava power considerably. Mayurasarman, an enterprising chieftain, took advantage of this, wrested Vanavasi from the Pallavas and founded the independent Kadamba state. The Pallavas had more serious trouble from the south and lost Kanchi itself. Kumaravishnu I re-conquered the city, re-established the authority of the Pallavas and performed an *Asvamedha*. After him the Pallava family divided itself into two branches, one ruling from Kanchi and the other ruling over Andhrapatha. The Pallavas of Andhrapatha had to contend against the rulers of Anandagotra, who established themselves in the northern part of the Guntur district. Mahdavavarman I, the greatest of the Vishnukundin rulers of Vengi, also made aggressions into the Pallava territory. The Pallavas survived all these onslaughts. In the third quarter of the sixth century A.D., Simhavarman became the ruler of the entire Pallava territory. His grandson, Mahendravarman I, was defeated in A.D. 618 by the mighty Chalukyan king Pulikesin II of Badami and forced to retire to Kanchi. Pallava dominion in Andhrapatha was annexed, as a consequence, to the Chalukyan kingdom and entrusted to the care of a Viceroy.

## VENGI

The region between the Krishna in the south and the Godavary in the north became famous as the Vengi kingdom after the city of Vengi which became its capital. This territory was included in the dominions of the Ikshvakus. After their fall three independent dynasties ruled over it.

*The Brihatpalayanas.*—A certain Jayavarman of the Brihatpalayana gotra figures as ruler of part of the Vengi region immediately after the Ikshvakus. His kingdom consisted of the region on either side of the mouths of the Krishna. Nothing is known of this family after Jayavarman.

*The Salankayanas.*—A dynasty of six kings described as belonging to the Salankayana gotra was the second to hold sway over Vengi. Devavarman, the founder of the family, flourished in the first quarter of the fourth century A.D. He performed an *Asvamedha*. His son and successor, Hastivarman, was a contemporary of Samudragupta and was vanquished by him. The Salankayanas were supplanted in 450 A.D.

*The Vishnukundins.*—This family came after the Salankayanas and ruled over Vengi for 150 years. The Pallavas crossed the Krishna and annexed part of Vengi after the fall of the Salankayanas. Vikramendravarman of the Vishnukundin family drove them out and occupied Vengi. His son Madhavavarman was a mighty king. He led one expedition beyond the Godavary and conquered much territory from the rulers of Pishtapura. He launched a second campaign to the south of the Krishna into the Pallava kingdom and made many conquests. He performed eleven *Asvamedhas* and one thousand other sacrifices. The Vakatakas, who by this time were very powerful in central Dakkan, made a matrimonial alliance with him. Indravarman or Indrabhattaraka was the last great king of the

Vishnukundin family. Taking advantage of disorders prevailing in the Kalinga kingdom beyond the Godavary he invaded that region and conquered a large territory. The Early Chalukyan king Pulikesin invaded Vengi and very probably put an end to Vishnukundin rule.

### KALINGA

The region between the Godavary in the south and the Mahanadi in the north on the east coast is famous as Kalinga. It was included in the Satavahana empire and remained a part of it till the time of the fall of the Satavahanas. We know nothing of its political condition during the next hundred years. At the time of Samudragupta's invasion about the middle of the fourth century A.D., it was divided into numerous small principalities like Giri-Kottura, Erandapalli, Devarashtra and Pishtapura. Many of these states were wiped out by the Gupta invasion. Subsequently two states, Pishtapura and Simhapura, flourished in this region. Three families, the Matharakula, the Vasishtakula and a branch of the Ramakasyapa *gotra* ruled over Pishtapura. This state was finally conquered by Pulikesin. Five kings ruled over Simhapura and it was conquered by the Eastern Ganges.

### CENTRAL DAKKAN

*The Vakatakas.*—The Vakatakas rose to power in the region to the south of the Vindhyas immediately after the fall of the Satavahanas. The founder of their power was Vindhyasakti. Very soon they annexed the central divisions of Bombay, the western and north-western parts of Hyderabad, the Madhya Pradesh and Berar. Vindhyasakti's successor, Pravarasena, ruled for sixty years. He conquered Malva and made Vidisa his secondary capital. He performed four *Asvamedhas* and assumed the title

*Samrat.* The next ruler, Rudrasena, was also powerful. His mother hailed from the Bharasiva dynasty of northern India and he himself married Prabhavati Gupta, daughter of the Gupta emperor Chandragupta II Vikramaditya. He annexed Kuntala in the south and Bundelkhand in the north. He was a pupil of the famous Sanskrit poet Kalidasa and compiled in Prakrit a famous poem named *Setubandha*. A collateral line of the Vakataka family ruled over Berar and central Dakkan. Among the kings of this line Harisena was powerful. He fought frequently with the rulers of Kosala and Kalinga and contracted a matrimonial alliance with the Vishnukundins of Vengi.

#### WESTERN DAKKAN

*The Cutus.*—It has already been stated that the Cutus were the descendants of the Satavahana family. Vinhukada of this family proclaimed his independence immediately after the fall of the Satavahanas and assumed the titles of Maharaja and *Satakarni*. The Maharathis were powerful to the north of his kingdom of Vanavasi and the Nagas to the east of it. Satakarni befriended both these neighbours and contracted matrimonial relations with them. His influence extended up to Kanheri in the north. He was succeeded by his grandson Sivaskandanaga Satakarni. This ruler strengthened his position by entering into matrimonial alliances with the Ikshvakus and the Pallavas. The Pallavas inherited the Vanavasi kingdom after his death.

*The Kadambas.*—This second ruling family of Vanavasi was founded by a Brahmin named Mayurasarma. Mayura went to Kanchi, the Pallava capital, for purposes of study but got into trouble with its rulers. He retired to the forest region of Srisailam and gathered strength. He sallied forth and attacked the Banas and other Pallava feudatories and led incursions into the Pallava territory itself.

Ultimately the Pallavas compromised with him and made him one of their commanders in the Vanavasi region. After a time Mayurasarma became bold, defied the authority of the Pallavas, occupied Vanavasi and founded his independent rule. The second ruler was defeated by the Vakataka king Prithvisena I. Another king, Bhagiratha, received the famous Sanskrit poet Kalidasa as an ambassador from the Gupta emperor Chandragupta II. The next Kadamba king gained much reputation by marrying his daughters into the Gupta and Vakataka families. After A.D. 475, the Vanavasi kingdom was divided into three parts each ruled over by one branch. Thus the minor Kadamba states of Ucchangi and Triparvata came into existence. During the next hundred years the Kadambas had to carry on incessant fighting with the Gangas in the south and the Pallavas in the south-east. The Chalukyas of Badami soon eclipsed the Kadambas and subjugated them.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE CHALUKYAS OF BADAMI

THE CHALUKYAS of Badami are the second major dynasty of the Dakkan. This dynasty made an attempt to unify the Dakkan after the great Satavahanas and succeeded to a very great extent under their famous ruler Pulikesin II.

The origin of the Chalukyas is lost in obscurity. According to one tradition the founder of their family arose out of the hollow of the palm of Brahma, the Creator. Another tradition, recorded in later Chalukyan inscriptions, states that they originally belonged to Ayodhya in northern India, that one of their rulers, Vijayaditya, came to Dakshinapatha, that he was killed there in an encounter with Trilochana Pallava and that his successor established the power of the Chalukyas in the Dakkan. These traditions are not reliable. The Chalukyas seem to have been originally inhabitants of the Dakkan and they figure in Ikshvaku records as their subordinates. It is very likely that they migrated from eastern Dakkan to the west and settled down in the neighbourhood of Vanavasi. Taking advantage of the weakness of the Kadamba kingdom consequent on the fall of the Vakatakas they might have seized some territory round about Badami and founded an independent kingdom in the middle of the sixth century A.D.

*Pulikesin I 550—567.* He is the earliest known historical king of the Chalukyan family. He founded the kingdom, made Vatapi or Badami his capital and proclaimed his independence. He performed an *Asvamedha* as token thereof.

*Kirtivarman I 567—591.* Pulikesin was succeeded by his son Kirtivarman. He was soon drawn into conflicts with the neighbouring powers. He had to fight with the

Nalas and the Mauryas of Konkan in the north, the Kadambas of Vanavasi in the south and the Pallavas in the south-east.

*Mangalesa 561—610.* Kirtivarman left behind him a minor son named Pulikesin. He was therefore succeeded by his younger brother Mangalesa. Mangalesa expanded the Chalukyan kingdom in the north. He first subjugated the rulers of the west and conquered up to Mahé and the river Kim. He then took the Revatidwipa on the coast. Proceeding north he came into conflict with the Kalachuris of Chedi. Elated by these successes he began to intrigue for the exclusion of his nephew Pulikesin and for passing on the throne to his own son. Pulikesin, however, proved the stronger man and successfully checkmated all the designs of his uncle. In the end the uncle and the nephew were drawn into an inevitable open conflict. Pulikesin triumphed in it and ascended the throne of his father.

*Pulikesin II 610—639.* The civil war between Mangalesa and Pulikesin brought about much confusion and disorder in the Chalukyan kingdom. Many feudatories like Appayika and Govinda rebelled. A number of chieftains recently brought under the Chalukyan yoke declared their independence. Numerous enemies of the Chalukyas were busy fomenting these troubles. After putting down the internal troubles Pulikesin led a number of campaigns against neighbouring powers. Marching north he subjugated the Mauryas of Konkan and the Latas of southern Guzerat. He took the port of Puri with the aid of a fleet. Turning east he fought with the Kosalas. About this time Harshavardhana, the ruler of northern India, crossed the Narmada with a view to extending his empire in the Dakkan. Pulikesin marched to the southern bank of the river, inflicted a crushing defeat on Harsha and made him retire beyond the river. Resuming his march to the east the Chalukyan monarch reached Kalinga and pressed



through it. Further down he invaded Vengi and put an end to Vishnukundin rule. Crossing the Krishna he came into conflict with the Pallava ruler Mahendravarman I. The Pallava was defeated in the battle of Pullalur and pursued to his capital Kanchi. In a second encounter Pulikesin killed Mahendravarman. After this the Chalukya king crossed the Kaveri, entered the Tamil country and inflicted defeats on the Cholas, Pandyas and Keralas. In the south-west Pulikesin subjugated the Gangas, Kadambas and Alupas. The monarch invaded the Pallava kingdom once again but its ruler Narasimhavarman defeated him in the battles of Manimangalam, Pariyala and Soranur. Narasimhavarman followed up his victory, invaded Badami, burnt the city and killed Pulikesin in an engagement. This Chalukyan monarch was helped by his brothers and sons. Vishnuvardhana, one of the brothers, was governor of Satara and Vengi. Another brother, Jayasimha, was the governor of Nasik. Among the sons of Pulikesin Chandra-ditya was the governor of Savantwadi while Adityavarman was in charge of the Krishna-Tungabhadra region. The fame of Pulikesin was greatly enhanced on account of the defeat that he inflicted on Harshavardhana. Khusru II, the ruler of Persia, sent an embassy to his court with many rich presents. Hieun Tsang, the famous Chinese pilgrim, visited the court of this monarch and travelled all over his dominion. The pilgrim has paid a glowing tribute to the efficiency of the king as an administrator and to his great might as a ruler.

*Vikramaditya I 639—680.* Pulikesin was succeeded by his son Vikramaditya. The tragic circumstances under which Pulikesin met with his death let loose the elements of disorder once again in the Chalukyan kingdom. Vikramaditya had to fight hard with many enemies and established himself on his ancestral throne. The Cholas, Pandyas and Keralas were defeated. The Pallavas that

were ravaging the Chalukyan kingdom were driven out. After consolidating his position Vikramaditya invaded the Pallava territory but its ruler Paramesvaravarman defeated him in the battle of Peruvalanallur. Taking advantage of this misfortune, Jayasimha, a younger brother of the monarch, declared his independence and founded the Guzerat branch of the Chalukyas. Vishnuvardhana, his uncle, had already established his independent rule over eastern Dakkan during the life time of Pulikesin II himself.

*Vinayaditya 680—696.* Vikramaditya was followed by his son Vinayaditya. This king had to carry on continued fighting with the Pallavas, the Cholas, Pandyas and Keralas in the south and with the Haihayas and Malavas in the north. He subjugated the Sendrakas of Mysore.

*Vijayaditya 696—733.* Vinayaditya was succeeded by his son Vijayaditya. This king had a comparatively peaceful time. The Sangamesvara temple at Pattadakal and numerous temples at Badami were erected during his time. The Jaina teacher Pujiyapada, author of the Jinendravakyakarana, flourished in this reign.

*Vikramaditya II 733—747.* This monarch married two Haihaya princesses from Chedi. Continuing the traditional hostility with the Pallavas, he invaded and occupied Tondamandalam, captured Kanchi and put the Pallava king Nandipotavarman to flight. Many additions were made to the Pattadakal group of temples during this reign.

*Kirtivarman II 747—753.* This was the last king of the house of Badami. He was a weakling and could not maintain hold over the vast Chalukyan kingdom. Many of the feudatories became bold and restive. Dantidurga, the feudatory of the Rashtrakuta family, attacked Kirtivarman and defeated him. He took possession of Maharashtra and drove away the unfortunate Chalukyan monarch. The independent state of the Rashtrakutas was thus founded. Kirtivarman retired into the southern districts of his kingdom.

## CHAPTER VII

### THE CHALUKYAS OF VENGI

THIS DYNASTY played a prominent part in the history of the Dakkan for over four centuries. It was founded by Pulikesin's brother Vishnuvardhana in A.D. 625 and flourished till A.D. 1075. These Chalukyan kings had an eventful history. In the south the Pallavas and after them the Cholas were their powerful opponents. In the south-west the Nolambas and the Gangas often created trouble. In the west the Rashtrakutas became the sworn enemies of Vengi while in the north-west the Nagavamsi kings of Chakrakuta were the rivals.

*Vishnuvardhana I 625—643.* This monarch who was the *Yuvaraja* of his brother Pulikesin II for some time accompanied him on his *digvijaya*. Vishnuvardhana was mainly responsible for the conquests in eastern Dakkan. He was therefore sent as the Viceroy of this region. He then consolidated these conquests and constituted them into a kingdom. In A.D. 625 with the consent of his brother he proclaimed himself the independent ruler of this kingdom. It then extended over the coastal districts from *Vizagapattam* in the north to Guntur in the south.

*Jayasimha I 643—673.* This king succeeded his father Vishnuvardhana. He made Vengi the capital. He was a contemporary of the Sanskrit poet Dandin.

*Vishnuvardhana III 719—756.* Vengi Chalukyan dominion expanded rapidly during the half century after the death of Jayasimha. The Pallavas apprehended trouble and incited the hill chieftains in the Nellore district to rebel against the Chalukyas. Vishnuvardhana put down these chieftains.

*Vijayaditya I 756—774.* This monarch's reign witnessed the fall of the Chalukyas of Badami and the rise of the

Rashtrakutas. During the confusion that prevailed in the Chalukyan kingdom at this time he expanded his dominion beyond the Eastern Ghats. He joined the confederacy that was formed in order to prevent the succession of Krishna I. That Rashtrakuta prince, however, succeeded in capturing the throne. He then dispatched his son Yuvaraja Govinda to harass the ruler of Vengi by way of reprisal. Govinda marched to the confluence of the Krishna and the Musi, inflicted a defeat on Vijayaditya and annexed his territory beyond the Ghats.

*Vijayaditya II 799—843.* Vijayaditya *alias* Narendramrigaraja is one of the great rulers of Vengi. He was a contemporary of Govinda III and Amoghavarsha I of the Rashtrakuta dynasty. Taking advantage of the pre-occupation of Govinda with the Gangas in the south and the Gurajaras and Malvas in the north. Vijayaditya declared war against the Rashtrakutas. He was unsuccessful in the beginning but soon there was a change in the tide. The succession of Amoghavarsha as a boy of six years gave him the advantage and Vijayaditya carried on the fight relentlessly for twelve years. He fought 108 battles and built as many temples of Siva. He entered the Rashtrakuta kingdom and penetrated through it as far as Cambay. Vijayaditya then crossed the Vindhya, entered the Ganga-Yamuna doab and defeated the Gurjara-Pratiharas of Kanauj. On the return march this Chalukyan king attacked Chakrakuta, the capital of the Nagavamsis. After returning home he fought a decisive battle with the Rashtrakutas at Vingavalli.

*Vijayaditya III 844—889.* This monarch was another powerful ruler of the house of Vengi. He had the surname Gunaga. There was some confusion in Vengi before his accession. The Rashtrakutas took advantage of it and harassed the kingdom. There was trouble also from the south and south-west. Vijayaditya started a grand

*digvijaya* against all his enemies. He first marched to the southern border of his kingdom and defeated the Nolamba-Pallavas of the Nellore district. Going farther south he entered the Pallava dominion and defeated its ruler Aparajita. He then vanquished the Pandyas and restored the Chola country to Vijayalaya. Turning to the north-west Vijayaditya attacked the Nolambas, Vaidumbas and Gangas, who were all Rashtrakuta feudatories, in their own territories. Alarmed at this the Rashtrakuta king Krishna II invited the help of his brother-in-law, Sankila of Chedi, and rushed down to the south in order to meet the Chalukyan enemy. Vijayaditya defeated them both at Kiranapura and burnt the city. Marching further north he defeated the allies again at Achalapura or Ellichpur. Turning to the east the Chalukyan army overran Chedi and Kosala. Reaching Kalinga on the coast Vijayaditya received tribute from its ruler and returned to Vengi. His brilliant successes lulled the vigour of Rashtrakuta opposition for the time being.

*Chalukya Bhima I 889—918.* There was a disputed succession in Vengi after the death of Gunaga-Vijayaditya. The Rashtrakutas took advantage of it and occupied the greater part of Vengi. At last Chalukya Bhima put down all internal troubles and obtained the throne. He then met the Rashtrakutas, defeated them in the battles of Niravadyapura and Peruvangura and drove them out of the Vengi kingdom.

*Vijayaditya IV 918.* This king was the successor of Bhima. He continued the fight with the Rashtrakutas and defeated them in the battle of Virajapuri.

*Ammaraja I 918—925.* This ruler ascended the Chalukyan throne after Vijayaditya. The Rashtrakutas and their subordinates, the Nolambas, attacked Vengi. Ammaraja defeated them. Finding that Vengi was too much in the open and easily exposed to enemy attacks he

built the town of Rajamahendrapura or Rajahmundry on the northern bank of the Godavary, fortified it and shifted the Chalukyan capital to that city.

*Chalukya Bhima II 935—945.* There was another civil war in Vengi after the death of Ammaraja. Rashtrakuta generals invaded Vengi, occupied it and partitioned it among themselves. Chalukya Bhima II drove away all these intruders and regained the kingdom.

*Ammaraja II 945—970.* This monarch was a contemporary of Rashtrakuta Krishna III. Amma was able to rule peacefully for eleven years. He then encountered Krishna III and fought many battles with him. Towards the end of his reign this king fell out with his erstwhile loyal half-brother Danarnava. There was disastrous fighting between the brothers. Krishna interfered in this fight and backed up Badapa, a member of the junior branch of the Vengi Chalukyan family. Ultimately Badapa drove away Ammaraja and usurped the throne of Vengi.

*Badapa 973—999.* The period of Badapa's rule is mentioned in the subsequent records of the Chalukyan kings as the period of interregnum. Badapa maintained himself on the throne during all this period with the help of the Rashtrakuta generals. Meanwhile the rivalry between the Rashtrakutas and the Cholas of south India reached serious proportions. The Chola king Rajaraja decided to counteract Rashtrakuta influence in Vengi. He therefore invaded this region and his armies marched far into Kalinga. This Chola invasion and the consequent disasters to the Rashtrakuta armies in Vengi terminated the interregnum.

*Saktivarman 999—1011.* This prince of the main family of the Chalukyas of Vengi drove away the Chola armies that lingered behind, cleared the kingdom of all other disturbing elements and ascended the throne. By this time the Rashtrakutas fell from power and the Chalukyas of Kalyani established an independent kingdom. These in

turn came into conflict with the Cholas of the south. Rajaraja Chola tried to reassert his might over Vengi but Saktivarman resisted all his attempts.

*Vimaladitya 1011—1018.* Vimaladitya succeeded Saktivarman. The Chola king renewed his efforts to win Vengi to his side. He gave his daughter in marriage to Vimaladitya and thus secured his friendship.

*Rajaraja 1022—1063.* Vimaladitya was followed by his son Rajaraja. In the south Rajendra became the Chola emperor. He gave his daughter in marriage to Rajaraja, the Chalukya king of Vengi. The Chalukyas of Kalyani were not slow to counteract this strategic move on the part of their rival, the Chola king. They befriended Vijayaditya, a half-brother of Rajaraja, and incited him to usurp the Vengi throne. In A.D. 1033 Vijayaditya fought with his brother, Rajaraja, drove him out of the kingdom and usurped the throne. Subsequently Rajaraja regained the throne with the help of his relative the Chola king. In 1060, there was trouble in the north-east. Rajaraja and his son prince Rajendra marched to Chakrakuta and laid siege to that city. During their absence Vijayaditya again usurped the throne. Rajaraja died in the siege in 1063. He was the patron of the Telug Mahabharata.

*Vijayaditya 1060—1075.* Vijayaditya continued to rule over Vengi. His nephew and rightful heir to the throne, Rajendra, did not contest the throne with him. That young prince left Vengi in peace and went to the south. Virarajendra, the Chola successor of Rajendra, was a friend of Chalukya Vijayaditya. When he died there was a disputed succession to the Chola throne. Ultimately, Virarajendra's son Adhirajendra was installed on it. Immediately after that prince Rajendra of Vengi appeared at the Chola capital, deposed Adhirajendra and seized the throne of the Cholas. He ascended it assuming the title Kulottunga. After the death of his uncle Vijayaditya he

assumed the government of Vengi also and sent his sons as viceroys of that kingdom. When the last of these viceroys departed from Vengi it was left in charge of a local family of chieftains. It was ultimately conquered by the Kakatiya king Ganapatideva in the first quarter of the thirteenth century A.D.



## CHAPTER VIII

### THE RASHTRAKUTAS OF MALKHED

THE RASHTRAKUTAS succeeded the Chalukyas of Badami in A.D. 753 and retained power till A.D. 973. Several branches of the Chalukyas continued to flourish in various parts of the Dakkan even after the fall of the house of Badami but the hegemony of western and central Dakkan passed into the hands of the Rashtrakutas.

The origin of the Rashtrakutas is not known. The words Rathi, Ratta and Rashtrakuta are considered synonymous. A tribe known as the Rathikas inhabited western Dakkan even in the time of Asoka. Their leaders, the Maharathis, were powerful and influential in the Satavahana period. In the post-Satavahana period also they exercised much influence in western and south-western Dakkan. It is probable that the Rashtrakutas were the descendants of these Rathis. They cannot be taken to be the natives of Maharashtra because they patronised the Canarese poets and used that language and the Canarese script in their inscriptions. The main ruling family had the title "Lords of Lattalurapura." This Lattalura is identified with Latur in the Bidar district of the Hyderabad State. When, however, the Rashtrakutas appear in the limelight of history they are found at Ellichpur in Berar. Obviously, they were originally inhabitants of the southern and south-western districts of the Dakkan which comprise the Canarese area, and migrated from there into Berar. They flourished there for nearly two centuries as feudatories of the Chalukyas of Badami. Their regular history begins with their elevation to sovereignty under Dantidurga in A.D. 753.

*Dantidurga 753—758.* Dantidurga was an enterprising chieftain. He realised that after the succession of Kirtivarman to the throne at Badami the Chalukyan kingdom was

not destined to last long. Being a man of foresight he prepared himself for the eventuality of his having to strike a blow for himself. Just then the Arabs invaded Guzerat and Malva. Both the states were weakened by this invasion. Dantidurga took advantage of this and annexed a large area consisting of southern Guzerat, Khandesh and Berar. Emboldened by this success he attacked Kirtivarman, defeated him and took possession of the districts of Poona, Satara and Kolhapur. In this attack Dantidurga received much help from the Pallava king, the traditional enemy of the Chalukyas.

*Krishna I 758—775.* Dantidurga died childless and was succeeded by his uncle Krishna. This king had an eventful reign. He attacked the Chalukyan king Kirtivarman II once again, drove him out and annexed the southern provinces of the Chalukyan kingdom. With this the Rashtrakuta occupation of the Chalukyan kingdom was complete. This extension of territory brought Krishna into conflict with the Gangas of Gangavadi in Mysore. He attacked the Ganga king and made him a feudatory. Two years later he turned his attention towards the eastern border. The Chalukyas of Vengi became aggressive and apprehensive of danger, Krishna sent his son, Yuvaraja Govinda, against them. This Rashtrakuta prince went up to the confluence of the Krishna and the Musi, defeated the Chalukyas in an engagement and annexed the central and eastern districts of Hyderabad. Another expedition to the north made Krishna master of the Marathi speaking part of the Central Provinces. He also annexed the Konkan and put the Silhara feudatories in charge of it.

*Govinda II 780—794.* Govinda succeeded his father. He was elated with his elevation to kingship and devoted himself to a life of pleasure. His brother, Dhruva, looked after the administration of the kingdom. After some time, however, the two became estranged. Govinda enlisted the

support of the rulers of Kanchi, Gangavadi and Vengi and tried to put down Dhruva but failed. He was deposed by his abler brother.

*Dhruva 780—794.* Dhruva usurped the Rashtrakuta throne. His first concern after becoming king was to punish the allies of Govinda. Marching south he defeated the Ganga king and put his own son Stambha in charge of Gangavadi. He then attacked the Pallava king and stormed his capital. Then certain developments in Northern India called him there. The Gurjara-Pratihara king, Vatsaraja, and Dharmapala of Bengal were fighting in the Ganga-Yamuna doab for the possession of imperial Kanouj. Dhruva marched to the doab and defeated both the contestants.

*Govinda III 794—814.* There was a war of succession after the death of Dhruva between Stambha, the eldest and Govinda, the more powerful, of his sons. As usual the rivals invited outside help. Ultimately Stambha was defeated and Govinda ascended the throne. This new king was drawn into a number of conflicts. Marching to the south he captured and imprisoned the Ganga king Muttarasa. He then overran Nolambavadi whose rulers, the Nolambas, were Pallava feudatories. His next exploit was an attack against the Pallava kingdom and extension of his territory up to the Tungabhadra. After these campaigns Govinda turned towards Vengi. He attacked that kingdom and obtained a few victories. Its ruler Narendramrigaraja Vijayaditya took up this challenge and carried on relentless fighting in the reign of Govinda and also into that of his successor. In A.D. 806, Govinda marched into the Ganga-Yamuna doab and defeated Nagabhatta, the successor of Vatsaraja, and Dharmapala. In A.D. 809, there was a combination of the Gangas, Pallavas, Pandyas and Keralas for the purpose of bringing about the downfall of the

Rashtrakutas. Govinda attacked this combination and defeated it.

*Amoghavarsha I 814—880.* Govinda was succeeded by his son Amoghavarsha who was then a mere boy of six years. His uncle Karka acted as the regent. The succession of a boy king encouraged the enemies of the kingdom to create trouble. Vijayaditya of Vengi was inflicting a series of defeats on the Rashtrakuta armies. Many of the feudatories rebelled. Ultimately Karka put down all internal disorders. In A.D. 835, the king's cousins of the Guzerat branch, who were local viceroys, rebelled and established their independent rule in that region. Very soon Gunaga Vijayaditya, the new ruler of Vengi, launched a fresh offensive. Amoghavarsha was a great lover of learning. He wrote a book entitled the Kavirajamarga, a Canarese work on poetics. A Jaina scholar named Mahaviracharya composed the Ganitasrasangraha. Amoghavarsha was a Jaina by faith and a pupil of Jinasena, the author of the Adipurana.

*Krishna II 880—914.* This king was the son of Amoghavarsha. He had to face the vigorous attacks of Gunaga Vijayaditya of Vengi. This Chalukyan king first reduced the Nolambas and the Gangas and then attacked the Rashtrakuta dominion. Krishna and his ally, Sankila of Chedi, whose sister he married, were defeated at Kiranapura and Achalapura. Vijayaditya ravaged the entire kingdom. Krishna invaded Vengi after the death of Vijayaditya but was defeated by its new ruler Bhima. He however made good this loss in another direction. Marching to the north he defeated the king of Malva and re-conquered southern Guzerat from his cousins. Krishna was also a Jaina and a pupil of Gunabhadra.

*Indra II 914—917.* Krishna was followed by his son Indra. This king defeated a Paramara king named

Upendra, marched into the doab, attacked Kanouj and put its ruler Mahipala to flight.

*Govinda IV 919—935.* There was once again a disputed succession after the death of Indra. His eldest son, Amoghavarsha II, ascended the throne and ruled for one year but was dethroned by his younger brother Govinda. Govinda was a lover of pleasure and could not maintain himself on the throne for long. Chalukya Bhima II of Vengi inflicted a number of defeats on the Rashtrakuta generals and there were rebellions all over. Govinda was deposed.

*Amoghavarsha III 935—940.* This king had a short reign of five years. His son Krishna was very active during this period and achieved a number of victories. He attacked the rulers of Chedi and the Chandelas of Central India.

*Krishna III 940—968.* Krishna succeeded his father Amoghavarsha. He is the last of the great Rashtrakuta kings. His numerous campaigns in the south and the east resulted in considerable additions being made to the Rashtrakuta dominion. The Pallavas fell from power and were succeeded by the Cholas in South India. The Chola king Parantaka was busy expanding his dominion. He subjugated the Banas and the Vaidumbas, both of whom were Rashtrakuta feudatories. Alarmed at this Krishna marched to the south. Entering the Chola dominion he occupied Tondamandalam and captured Kanchi. He went farther south and attacked Tanjore, the capital of the Cholas. The Cholas led a counter-attack. In the battle of Takkolam Krishna killed the Chola prince Rajaditya and inflicted a crushing defeat on his forces. Following up this victory the Rashtrakuta king marched as far south as Ramesvaram and returned home conquering on the way the Pandyas and the Keralas. After some time he led a successful expedition against Malva and Guzerat. About this time there were dissensions in the Chalukyan

family of Vengi. Krishna threw himself heart and soul into the tangled politics of this kingdom and patronised Badapa, one of the contending parties. Ultimately Amma-  
raja II, the rightful ruler of Vengi, was deposed and Badapa was installed on the throne. Krishna sent his own generals to Vengi to maintain the usurper on the throne.

*Amoghavarsha IV 968—972.* Krishna was succeeded by his younger brother Amoghavarsha. This king was a weakling and his reign saw the beginning of the end of the Rashtrakuta kingdom. The rulers of Malva defeated the Rashtrakuta armies in many battles on the Tapati. They ultimately invaded the Rashtrakuta dominion and burnt its capital Malkhed.

*Karka II 972—973.* This king was a nephew of Krishna III and the last of the Rashtrakuta kings. He was overthrown by Taila II, a scion of the Chalukyan family of Badami.

74161



## CHAPTER IX

### CHALUKYAS OF KALYANI

THE GLORY of the Chalukyas was restored by Taila II in A.D. 973 and lasted for 140 years. Taila and his successors are known as the Later Chalukyas or the Chalukyas of Kalyani. They very nearly succeeded in uniting western and central Dakkan under their rule and at times held part of the coast on the east also. They had a number of powerful feudatories and constituted a mighty imperial power. They carried on bitter struggles with the Cholas of South India and prevented Chola aggression into the Dakkan. The rule of these Chalukyas was interrupted towards the end for about twenty years by the Kalachuris and was extinguished in A.D. 1128.

*Taila II 973—997.* This king defeated the Rashtrakuta king Karka II and took possession of Maharashtra and the central districts of Karnataka. While trying to consolidate these territories he came into conflict with many northern rulers. He fought with Munja, king of Malva, Mularaja, the ruler of Guzerat and the Chedi king. In the south he came face to face with the expanding Cholas.

*Satyasraya 997—1008.* Taila was succeeded by his son Satyasraya. This king had to fight with the Cholas in the south. Rajaraya, the Chola king, invaded Rattappadi in the Chalukyan kingdom and proceeded up to Danur in the Bijapur district. Satyasraya repelled him. This was the beginning of a prolonged conflict. Both sides looked for allies and Vengi on the east coast attracted both. There was a civil war in that kingdom and a junior branch of the Chalukyan family was holding power. If the Cholas could obtain influence in Vengi they could deliver a flank attack on the Chalukyas. If, on the other hand, the rulers of Kalyani could get a stronghold in Vengi they could

attack the Cholas along a wide front. Satyasraya tried to steal a march over his rival but Rajaraya rose equal to the occasion. Saktivarman, who ended the interregnum in Vengi, resisted all outside interference. After his death Rajaraya invaded Vengi and made an alliance with Saktivarman's successor Vimaladitya by marrying his own daughter to that king of Vengi. Rajaraya's son, Rajendra, took the offensive and invaded the Kalyani kingdom. He harassed its southern districts, burnt Malkhed and returned home.

*Jayasimha I 1019—1040.* Satyasraya was followed by Jagadekamalla Jayasimha. The Cholas continued to strengthen their influence over Vengi. Jayasimha launched vigorous attacks against the Cholas from the south and south-eastern districts of his kingdom. A decisive battle was fought at Musungi in the Bellary district. Jayasimha recovered all the territories overrun by the Cholas in the time of Satyasraya.

*Somesvara I 1040—1069.* Somesvara succeeded his father Jayasimha and assumed the titles Ahavamalla and Trailokyamalla. He had many grown up sons and they helped him in his numerous wars. Prince Vikramaditya, the greatest of them all, attacked Malva and captured its capital, Dhara. He then proceeded against Chedi and humbled its ruler. Chakrakuta in the Bastar state was stormed. The prince then entered Vengi and damaged Chola influence in that region. In the south he attacked the Gangas and the Keralas and plundered Kanchi. Somesvara occupied Nolambavadi which was on the border of the Chola kingdom. The Cholas retaliated by a counter invasion and defeated a Chalukyan army in the battle of Pundi. Rajendra Chola followed up this victory, burnt Kollipaka, destroyed Kalyani and returned home victorious. He was soon succeeded by Rajadhiraja. This new king launched a fresh offensive against the Chalukyas. He burnt



the Chalukyan palaces at Kampila and defeated Chalukyan armies at Pundur in A.D. 1044. Eight years later he led a second campaign. The Chola ravaged Rattappadi and advanced farther. The Chalukyan forces opposed him. In the battle of Koppam that ensued, Rajadhiraja was killed. His successor, Rajendra II, crowned himself on the battlefield and laid the country waste. The Chalukyan prince Vikramaditya achieved a victory over the Chola forces in the south-west and the Cholas retaliated by defeating a Chalukyan army in Vengi. Meanwhile Rajendra passed away and was succeeded by Virarajendra. In A.D. 1053 Virarajendra started an attack against the Chalukyas. He defeated their armies in a major battle at Kudalsamgamam on the confluence of the Krishna and the Tungabhadra. The retreating Chalukyan armies were defeated by him at Vijayawada. Somesvara had thus a very eventful reign. He founded the city of Kalyani and made it his capital. He was smitten by an incurable disease towards the end of his reign and became disgusted with life. Being a Jaina by faith he put an end to his life by drowning himself in the Tungabhadra.

*Somesvara II 1068—1076.* Somesvara I had three sons Somesvara, Vikramaditya and Jayasimha. Vikramaditya was the most efficient of these sons and had distinguished himself in many campaigns. He was intended for future succession but declined the honour of being crowned as *Yuvaraja*. His elder brother, Somesvara, was then made *Yuvaraja* and succeeded Somesvara I, assuming the title *Bhuvanaikamalla*. The brothers pulled on amicably for some time. Very soon, however, Somesvara II became haughty and arrogant and alienated many officials and feudatories. He became jealous of Vikramaditya and entertained evil designs against him. Fearing for his safety, Vikramaditya retired from the capital to Vanavasi, whose governor he was, accompanied by his younger brother

Jayasimha. It was more or less a triumphal march through the southern provinces of the empire in defiance of the reigning king. Many of the feudatories that admired him and those that were formerly subjugated by him like Jayakesin, the ruler of Goa, the Alupas and the Keralas welcomed him. Encouraged by this favourable turn of events Vikramaditya reached the southern border and from there launched an attack against the Chola territory. The Chola king Virarajendra negotiated for peace and gave his daughter in marriage to Vikramaditya. The Chalukyan prince retreated to the Tungabhadra and awaited developments. Very soon Virarajendra died and his son and heir was in trouble. Vikramaditya went to the Chola capital, instituted his brother-in-law, Adhirajendra, on the throne and returned to his camp. Almost immediately Rajendra, the Prince of Vengi, deposed Adhirajendra, usurped the Chola throne and began to rule assuming the title Kulottunga. He then attacked Vikramaditya himself. Somesvara II took advantage of this unexpected turn of events, opened negotiations with Kulottunga and started at the head of an army in order to crush his own hated brother. Undaunted by this serious danger, Vikramaditya prepared to meet both the attacks. He first met Kulottunga, defeated and drove him away. Then he turned his attention towards his brother. He defeated him in a decisive engagement and took him prisoner. Following up this victory Vikramaditya rushed up to Kalyani, seized the throne and proclaimed himself the emperor.

*Vikramaditya VI 1076—1127.* Vikramaditya assumed the title Tribhuvanamalla and ruled in peace for half a century. There were three solitary instances of trouble in his reign. An expedition had to be sent to the north against Malva and Chedi in order to put down imminent danger. The king's younger brother, Jayasimha, the governor of Vanavasi, tried to rebel but was put down. The Hoysala

feudatory, Viranarasimha, showed signs of disaffection but was soon brought round. Vikramaditya abolished the use of the Saka Era and started an independent era known as the Chalukyavikrama Era commencing with date of his coronation. Bilhana, the famous Sanskrit poet, flourished at his court and wrote the *Vikramankadevacharita*, Vijnanesvara, the author of the Mitakshara commentary, also flourished in this reign.

*Somesvara III 1127—1138.* Vikramaditya was succeeded by his son Somesvara who assumed the title Bhuvanaikamalla. He was a lover of peace and hated war. He wrote an encyclopedic work named *Manasollasa* or *Abhilashitarthachintamani*. The feudatories took advantage of his weakness as a ruler and became aggressive.

*Jagadekamalla II 1138—1150.* This was an insignificant ruler. The feudatories of the empire became bolder and launched careers of independence.

*Taila III 1150—1162.* The deterioration of the power of the Chalukyas reached the climax during this reign. Taila was inefficient and unable to reduce the recalcitrant feudatories. Bijjala of the Kalachuri family, the chief minister, concentrated all power in his hands. Finally he intrigued with Vijayarka, the chieftain of Kolhapur and Prolaraja, the subordinate Kakatiya chieftain and attacked Taila. This unfortunate Chalukyan monarch left his capital and sought refuge at Annegiri in the Dharwar district. Bijjala pursued him and put him to flight once again. Returning to the capital he usurped the Chalukyan throne. Taila fled to Vanavasi and died there three years later.

*Somesvara IV 1182—1189.* This is the last known ruler of the later Chalukyan dynasty. He was able to regain the throne after twenty years of Kalachuri interregnum. Much of the empire was lost. Rudradeva, son of Kakati Prola, proclaimed his independence and ruled over the eastern provinces of the empire. The Hoysalas of the south, who

were already semi-independent, threw off the Chalukyan yoke. In the north the Yadavas became independent and pressed down along the west and reached the Krishna-Tungabhadra line. Thus hemmed in on all sides the sovereignty of the Chalukyas was stifled.

## CHAPTER X

### THE YADAVAS OF DEVAGIRI

THE KINGDOM of the Yadavas of Devagiri was one of the important states that arose on the ashes of the empire of the Chalukyas of Kalyani. It flourished for over a century and quarter. The famous Hindu writer on Dharmasastra, Hemadri and Jnanesvar, the celebrated Maratha saint, shed additional lustre on this kingdom. Being the northernmost state in the Dakkan it had to bear the brunt of the first and many subsequent attacks of the Muslims from the north and finally succumbed to them in A.D. 1318.

*Mallugi*.—Mallugi is the earliest well-known historical figure among the Yadavas. He fought with Bijjala, the Kalachuri usurper of the throne of Kalyani, and declared his independence.

*Bhillama 1187—1191*. This king stabilised the independence of his family. He invaded Kalyani and destroyed the power of the Kalachuris. Annexing western Dakkan on his way he proceeded south and came into conflict with the Hoysalas. He fought with Hoysala Narasimha, killed him and acquired the Karnataka territory north of the Krishna. Encouraged by these successes he built a new city, named it Devagiri and made it his capital. In the north he came into conflict with the rulers of Malva and Guzerat. Desirous of acquiring the doab between the Krishna and the Malaprabha in the south he went to war with Hoysala Ballala but was defeated in the battles of Lakkundi and Soratur.

*Jaitugi 1191—1210*. Bhillama was followed by his son Jaitrapala or Jaitugi. By this time the Kakatiyas were rapidly expanding their territory and annexed the whole of the Telingana portion of the Hyderabad state. Alarmed at this, Jaitugi invaded their dominion. In a decisive battle

that ensued he defeated and killed the Kakatiya king Rudradeva. Mahadeva, the successor of this Kakatiya king, retaliated by attacking Devagiri. Jaitugi killed him also and captured his son and heir-apparent Ganapatideva. This war did not result in any territorial acquisition for either party but only created undesirable animosity between the two neighbouring states. Laksmidhara, son of Bhaskaracharya, the famous mathematician and astronomer, was the *Vidyapati* of Jaitugi.

*Singhana 1210—1247.* This Yadava king had an eventful reign. The old hostility with the Hoysalas was continued in the south. In the north the Yadava king fought with the rulers of Chedi, Tripuri, Kolhapur, Malva and Goa. Singhana had also to face bitter opposition from the Kakatiya king, Ganapatideva. This king's reign witnessed remarkable literary activity. Sodhala, a migrant from Kashmir, was the *Srikananadhipati*. His son, Sarjnadeva, composed the famous work *Sangitaratnakara*. Changadeva, a grandson of Bhaskaracharya, founded a college at Patna for the propagation of the *Siddhantasiromani*.

*Krishna 1247—1260.* Singhana was succeeded by his grandson Krishna. This king had to fight with the rulers of Malva and Konkan, Chalukya Visaladeva of Guzerat and the Kakatiyas. He performed many sacrifices and revived interest in the Vedic dharma. Jahlana, a minister of the king, wrote an anthology of verse named the *Suktimuktavali*. Another scholar named Amalananda wrote the *Vedantakalpataru*, a commentary on the *Bhamati* of Vachaspathimisra.

*Mahadeva 1260—1270.* Mahadeva, another grandson of Singhana, followed Krishna. This king had to face continued wars with the Chalukyas of Guzerat and the Kakatiyas of Warangal. He conquered Konkan and annexed it to the Yadava kingdom. Hemadri, the

celebrated writer of the *Chaturvargachintamani*, was this king's minister.

*Ramachandra 1270—1309.* This was the last of the great Yadavas of Devagiri. Hemadri continued to be the minister in the early part of this reign. Saint Jnanesvar was a contemporary of Ramachandra. Prataparudradeva, the Kakatiya king, was a serious rival of his. This Yadava king was attacked by Allauddin, the Delhi governor of Kara and Allahabad, suddenly in A.D. 1296. Unable to defend himself, Ramachandra had to make a humiliating treaty. In 1307 Malik Kafur, the general of Sultan Allauddin, attacked Devagiri once again. Ramachandra accepted the suzerainty of Allauddin and agreed to pay annual tribute. Two years later Malik Kafur came to Devagiri once again while on his way to Telingana.

*Samkara 1309—1312.* Ramachandra was succeeded by his son Samkara. Two years after his accession Samkara withheld payment of tribute to Delhi and proclaimed his independence. Malik Kafur invaded the Yadava kingdom, captured and killed Samkara and took over its administration. The Yadava kingdom virtually disappeared after this.

*Harapala 1318.* There was confusion after the death of Sultan Allauddin and there were frequent changes of rulers at Delhi. Taking advantage of this Harapala, a son-in-law of Ramachandra, attempted to restore the Devagiri kingdom. Mubarak Khilji, who took possession of the throne of Delhi, marched to the south and invested Devagiri. Harapala was captured and flayed alive. The Yadava kingdom was annexed to the Sultanate of Delhi.

## CHAPTER XI

### THE KAKATIYAS OF WARANGAL

THIS is another major dynasty of the Dakkan. It played a prominent part in shaping the political and cultural destinies of the Andhra people. This dynasty was able to bring the entire Telugu speaking area of the Dakkan under its rule and annexed part of South India also. The Kakatiyas were great patrons of art and literature. Prataparudradeva, the last king of this dynasty, offered stiff resistance to the Muslim invaders and the founders of the great city of Vijayanagara inherited this ideal from him. This dynasty flourished between A.D. 1000—1323.

The Kakatiyas were originally village headmen under the Chalukyas of Vengi. Gundyana, their earliest known ancestor, was an influential feudatory of Ammaraja II. His successor Beta established an independent principality.

*Beta I 1000—1030.* This chieftain took advantage of the confusion that prevailed in Vengi after the death of Ammaraja II and marched to the eastern border of the Chalukyan kingdom. There he fought with a number of local chieftains and carved out a small principality for himself. When the Cholas invaded Kollipaka in the dominion of the Chalukyas of Kalyani, Beta attacked their armies in self-defence.

*Prola I 1030—1075.* Beta was succeeded by his son Prola I. This was the time when the struggle between the rulers of Kalyani and the Cholas assumed serious proportions. Both parties tried to obtain influence in Vengi. The Kakatiya kingdom was situated on the way of Chalukyan expansion to the east. Realising that he would not be able to withstand the might and power of the Chalukyas, Prola prudently submitted to Somesvara I and rendered him



welfare of the people and was held in high esteem by them. The Italian traveller Marco Polo visited the east coast during her reign and paid a glowing tribute to the efficiency of this queen as an administrator.

*Prataparudradeva 1296—1323.* This king was the grandson and adopted son of Rudramba. He was the last of the Kakatiyas. He was actively associated with the government of the Kakatiya empire during the lifetime of his grandmother and distinguished himself as a good general. The first six years of his reign were peaceful. In 1303 Allauddin, the Khilji Sultan of Delhi, sent an expedition against the Kakatiya kingdom under the command of Malik Chajju and Fakruddin Juna. Prataparudradeva repelled this invasion. Six years later the Sultan sent another invasion under Malik Kafur. The greater part of the army was away and the king was otherwise preoccupied. Prataparudradeva offered what resistance he could but when that was found to be ineffective he made peace with the Muslim general offering valuable presents. He then turned towards the south and launched a big scheme of land reclamation and survey. He sent an expedition to the south and recaptured Kanchi which had been taken by the Pandyas. In 1318 Sultan Mubarak Khilji sent an expedition against Warangal but this was successfully repelled. Two years later Ghiasuddin, the first Tughlak Sultan of Delhi, sent a strong expedition under the command of his son Ulugh Khan against Warangal. This invasion ended disastrously for the Muslims. Undaunted by this the Sultan renewed the attack in 1322. The Kakatiya capital was besieged and after five months Prataparudradeva yielded. He was captured and sent as prisoner to Delhi but died on the way. This monarch was a very enlightened ruler. He was a great patron of learning. Many scholars and poets like Vidyanaatha, the author of the *Prataparudrayasobhushana*, a Sanskrit work

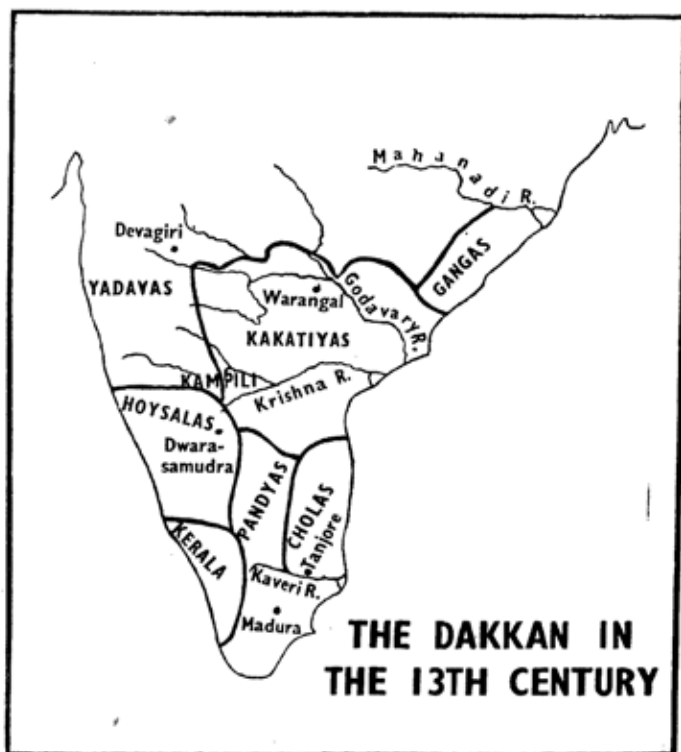
on poetics, Mallikarjuna, Narasimha, Agastya and Visvanatha, all of them gifted poets, adorned his court. Two Telugu literary works, the *Bhaskararamayana* and the *Ranganatharamayana* were written during his reign.

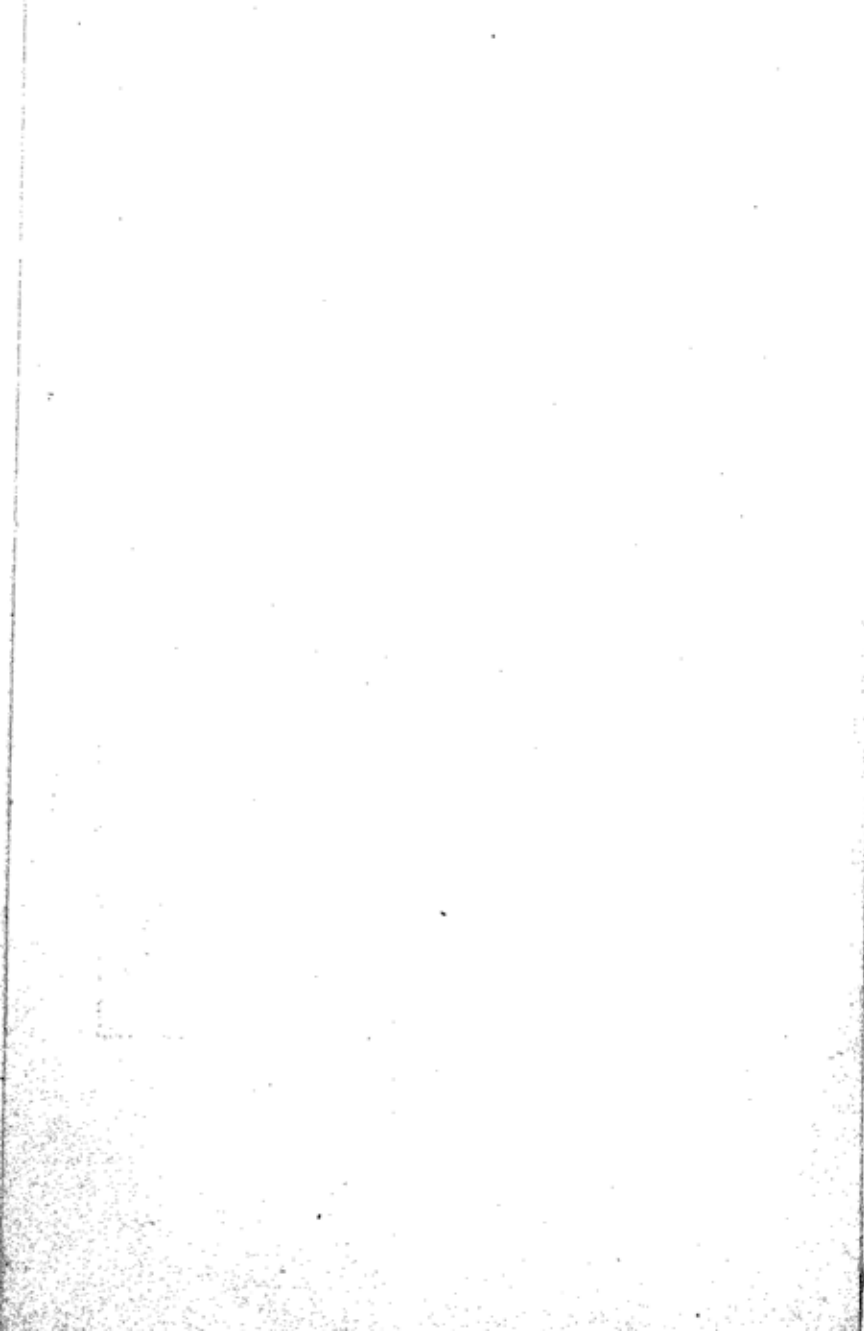
## CHAPTER XII

### THE SULTANS OF DELHI AND THE DAKKAN

THE DAKKAN had its first contact with the Muslims of the north in the last decade of the thirteenth century A.D. Allauddin, the Khilji Governor of Kara and Allahabad, led an unauthorised expedition against Devagiri in 1206. This paved the way for more expeditions. After ascending the throne of Delhi, Allauddin sent numerous invasions to the south and obtained much wealth. His successor, Mubarak, continued his policy. The Tughlak rulers of Delhi changed the policy. Sultan Muhammad Tughlak systematically conquered the Dakkan and annexed it to the Sultanate of Delhi. There was a turn in the tide by 1335 and rebellions broke out everywhere. Many parts of the Dakkan became independent and new Hindu kingdoms came into existence. The famous city of Vijayanagara was founded in 1336 and eleven years later Zafar Khan, a rebel leader, founded the independent Bahmani Kingdom.

The condition of the Dakkan on the eve of the Muslim conquest was peculiar. It was divided into four Hindu kingdoms. The Yadava kingdom of Devagiri lay to the north of the Godavary and included modern Maharashtra and part of Karnataka in south-western Dakkan. To the south of the Godavary was the vast empire of the Kakatiyas of Warangal stretching up to Kalyani in the north-west, Raichur in the south-west, Kanchi in the south and Simhachalam in the north-east. The kingdom of the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra comprised the modern Mysore state and part of south-western Dakkan. There was, besides, the small kingdom of Kampili consisting of the districts of Raichur, Dharwar and Bellary and parts of eastern Mysore. All these were Hindu states and ardent patrons of Hindu religion and culture. They were teeming





with wealth and riches accumulated through centuries. Unfortunately, however, they were frequently at war with each other. They had age-long feuds and mutual jealousies. This rendered concerted action impossible even in times of grave danger.

### THE KHILJIS

*Jalaluddin.* During the reign of this first Khilji Sultan of Delhi his nephew and son-in-law, Allauddin, was the governor of Allahabad and Kara. He set his eyes on the throne of Delhi and decided to make all the necessary preparations to wrest it by force. Money was one thing that he lacked but needed most. Hearing of the fabulous wealth of the Hindu kingdoms beyond the Vindhya, Allauddin resolved upon attacking them for plunder. Obtaining the Sultan's permission for an invasion against Malva and having taken precautions for maintaining his real objective unknown to his master, he left for the south at the head of a large army. Crossing the Vindhya he entered the Yadava kingdom and marched through it with little opposition. In February 1296 he appeared before the capital, Devagiri. The best part of the Yadava army was away at the time under the command of the Crown Prince. Ramachandra, the Yadava king, shut himself up in the citadel. Allauddin besieged the citadel and plundered the city. At last Ramachandra sued for peace. He offered much wealth to the invader and assured him of his loyalty.

*Allauddin.* Very soon after his return from the successful expedition against Devagiri, Allauddin usurped the throne and crowned himself Sultan. The easy success which he was able to score over Ramachandra and the enormous wealth which he was able to obtain from him encouraged Allauddin to exploit not only the Yadava kingdom once again but also the other Hindu states of the Dakkan. In 1303 he commanded Juna to lead an expedition against

the Kakatiya empire. The Muslim army came by way of Bengal and reached Upparapalli, in the Warangal district, very near the Kakatiya capital. The generals of Prataparudradeva inflicted a crushing defeat on the invading army and drove it away. Three years later there was trouble at Devagiri. Its prince, Sangama, defied the treaty made by his father, Ramachandra, with Allauddin and denounced allegiance to the Sultanate. The Sultan commanded Malik Kafur and Khwaja Haji to proceed against this recalcitrant prince. These generals marched to the south and attacked Devagiri in March 1307. Prince Sangama was defeated and took to flight. His father, Ramachandra, was taken prisoner to Delhi and released after some time. In 1309 Allauddin commissioned Malik Kafur to invade Warangal and reduce its ruler to submission. Kafur left the capital towards the end of the year, entered the Kakatiya empire, marched to Warangal and laid siege to the city. Prataparudradeva resisted for three months. Realising that further resistance was both impossible and undesirable, he yielded. He made peace with the Muslim general by offering immense wealth and agreeing to pay annual tribute to Delhi. Encouraged by this success, Allauddin commanded Malik Kafur to invade the other Hindu kingdoms of the south and obtain more wealth. The general left the capital in November 1310 and started on the southern expedition. Having obtained valuable information, reliable guides and necessary stores from Devagiri on the way, Kafur left for Dwarasamudra. When the Muslim army entered the Hoysala kingdom in February 1311 its ruler, Ballala III, was away from the capital. On hearing of the invasion he rushed back to Dwarasamudra but realised that resistance was useless. He therefore surrendered to Malik Kafur and offered him much wealth. The Muslim general then decided to march upon Ma'bar, a rich country in South India, which stretched from Quilon on

the west coast to the Bay of Bengal in the east. It was under the rule of the Pandyas. There was a disastrous civil war between two Pandyan brothers at this time. Malik Kafur entered this kingdom in the middle of March 1311. The Pandyas pursued guerilla tactics and avoided coming into open conflict with the invaders. Kafur penetrated into the heart of Ma'bar plundering and devastating the country for three months. Ultimately, the Pandyas made up their differences and opposed the invaders. They inflicted a crushing defeat on Malik Kafur. Thereafter Kafur retreated and returned to Delhi with the wealth that he was able to plunder in Ma'bar. Meanwhile Ramachandra died and was succeeded by his son Sangama as the ruler of Devagiri. This young ruler immediately renounced his allegiance to Delhi. On hearing this news Allauddin despatched Malik Kafur to Devagiri in order to put down Sangama and annex his kingdom. Kafur reached the Yadava capital in 1312 and Sangama took to flight. The Muslim general took over the administration of the state. The small state of Kampili, however, resisted Muslim authority. Malik Kafur led an expedition against that state but it was ineffective. Allauddin died in 1316 and Kafur was involved in internal troubles at Delhi.

*Mubarak Shah.* There was confusion and disorder at Delhi after the death of Allauddin. Malik Kafur first set up a dummy on the throne and then tried to usurp the throne himself but was assassinated. Ultimately Prince Mubarak became the Sultan. Harapala, a son-in-law of Yadava Ramachandra, took advantage of the confusion at Delhi, occupied Devagiri and proclaimed himself its independent ruler. Sultan Mubarak himself invaded Devagiri in 1318, captured and killed Harapala. The Devagiri kingdom was formally annexed to the empire of Delhi. Prataparudradeva, the ruler of Warangal also took advantage of the death of Allauddin and withheld payment



of annual tribute to Delhi. Sultan Mubarak despatched a general named Khusru Khan to Warangal to set matters right. When the general reached the Kakatiya capital Prataparudradeva paid him all arrears and purchased peace.

### THE TUGHLAKS

*Ghiasuddin.* There was confusion once again in Delhi after the death of Mubarak Khilji. There were rebellions all over Maharashtra and Prataparudradeva of Warangal renounced his allegiance to Delhi. There was a change of dynasty and the Tughlaks replaced the Khiljis. Sultan Ghiasuddin, the first ruler of the new dynasty, realised the mistake of allowing the Hindu rulers of the Dakkan to remain nominally subordinates of Delhi and otherwise in full enjoyment of their sovereign powers. He therefore decided to reduce them and annex their territory. In 1321 he gathered a large army and sent it against Warangal under the command of his son, Prince-Ulugh Khan. This army entered the Kakatiya empire and assailed several of its strongholds. Prataparudradeva fought many engagements with the invaders and ultimately shut himself up in his capital. Ulugh Khan besieged Warangal for eight months. Dissensions arose in the Muslim camp and a large part of the army deserted. The Kakatiya forces sallied forth from the city and attacked the besiegers. Ulugh Khan was defeated and could escape to Devagiri only with great difficulty. On hearing of this the Sultan sent reinforcements to his son and commanded him to attack Warangal once again. Prataparudradeva was off his guard. He did not expect this fresh attack and neglected properly garrisoning and provisioning his capital. Thus when Ulugh Khan reappeared before the city in November 1322 he was thoroughly unprepared. The Muslim general besieged Warangal as usual. Prataparudradeva was able to resist for

five months. When he found that further opposition was useless he surrendered. Ulugh Khan captured the Kakatiya king and sent him prisoner to Delhi but the monarch died on the way in 1323. A Muslim governor was stationed in the city. After this Ulugh Khan invaded Ma'bar and took its ruler prisoner. He then marched against the Ceded Districts and made some conquests there. From there he reached the east coast and took Rajahmundry and its neighbourhood. Leaving a Muslim subordinate in this region, he marched farther north and plundered Jajnagar in Orissa.

*Muhammad Tughlak.* Soon after returning from this successful expedition in the Dakkan, Ulugh Khan killed his father and ascended the throne of Delhi, assuming the title, Sultan Muhammad. Maharashtra and Telingana were included in the empire of Delhi by this time but Dwara-samudra and Kampili remained outside it. Bahauddin Gurshasp, the governor of Gulburga, rebelled in 1327 and, being defeated in two engagements, fled to Kampili. The king of Kampili gave him shelter. On hearing this Sultan Muhammad moved to Devagiri and sent two expeditions against Kampili. Both of them ended disastrously. Undaunted by this the Sultan sent a third expedition under Malik Zada. The King of Kampili was killed fighting desperately at Hosadurga. His capital was plundered by the Muslims and several of his officials, including Harihara and Bukka, were taken prisoners and sent to the Sultan. Bahauddin fled to the Hoysala kingdom but its ruler Ballala III handed him over to Malik Zada and swore allegiance to the Sultan.

The power of the Sultan reached its climax in 1328 and his empire extended up to the end of the territory of Ma'bar. The conquests in the south were divided into five provinces—Tilang, Maharashtra, Ma'bar, Kampili and Dwarasamudra. There were Muslim governors in each of

the provinces. In 1335 the Sultan divided Telingana into two provinces, eastern and western. Very soon, however, the integrity of the Sultan's dominion in the Dakkan was shaken. Immediately after his departure to Northern India in 1324 the Nayakas of the Kakatiya empire rallied together and elected a certain Prolayanayaka as their leader. The confederates rose in rebellion, drove away the Muslim governor at Rajahmundry and liberated the east coast. Later on they began to rule their respective provinces independently. Prolayanayaka established himself at Rekapalli in the Eastern Ghats. This was followed by a serious rebellion in Kampili. In 1328 Somadeva, a powerful local chieftain, conquered many strongholds in the province and brought the government of the Sultan there to a standstill. Taking advantage of this, the Hoysala King Ballala III renounced his subordination to the Sultan and launched a number of attacks against the Muslim provinces in the neighbourhood. Unable to put down the rebellion in the south, the Sultan released from prison Harihara and Bukka, the two brothers captured in the Kampili campaign, and converted them to Islam. He made Harihara, the governor of the Kampili province and commissioned him to put down the rebellion. The brothers returned to Kampili and systematically reconquered the entire province and annexed, in addition, much territory around it. In 1334 Sayyad Jalaluddin, the governor of Ma'bar, rose in rebellion and declared his independence. On hearing this the Sultan marched to the Dakkan with the intention of proceeding to Ma'bar. But while he was halting at Warangal, plague broke out and his army was destroyed. The Sultan himself was affected and beat a hasty retreat. This was the signal for fresh revolts. Kapayanayaka, a cousin of Prolayanayaka, organised a grand confederacy of all the Hindu potentates of the Dakkan for the purpose of driving away the Muslims and liberating the country. Ballala III,

Harihara and Vema, the founder of the Reddi kingdom, all joined the confederacy. Kapaya led the confederate forces against Warangal, defeated its governor and occupied eastern Telingana. Very soon after this incident, Harihara renounced his allegiance to the Sultan, founded the famous city of Vijayanagara in 1336 and began his independent rule. The Sultan was preoccupied with other troubles and could not counteract this rebellious activity. Thus, four out of the six provinces in the Dakkan were lost. When in 1347 Zafar Khan, the leader of another rebellion, founded the Bahmani kingdom at Gulburga, the Dakkan was entirely lost for the Sultanate of Delhi.

## CHAPTER XIII

### THE POST-KAKATIYA PERIOD

THE FALL of Warangal in 1323 had important consequences. The empire of the Kakatiyas, the only powerful state in the Dakkan that could resist repeated invasions of the Muslims, collapsed suddenly. Of the two other states that remained, the kingdom of Kampili was too small to assume leadership and unite the Dakkan. The Hoysala King Ballala III was too much engrossed in difficulties. Thus the Dakkan was practically left without leaders. Sultan Muhammad Tughlak was mainly concerned with the conquest of the area to the west of the Eastern Ghats. The Bahmani Sultans, whose power was founded in 1347, were confined to the west of Telingana for a long time and their efforts, at a later time, to conquer the east coast and south-eastern Dakkan did not bear fruit. Thus the coastal region between the Eastern Ghats and the Bay of Bengal was practically independent and out of the control of the Muslim rulers. It had its own history from 1323 to 1485. This period may, for the sake of convenience, be designated the post-Kakatiya period.

*Liberation Movements.* After the capture of Warangal Prince Juna made lightning raids into southern Dakkan and Ma'bar, captured Rajahmundry on the Godavary in the East and returned to Delhi through Kalinga and Orissa. This shocked the subordinates of the former Kakatiya empire and they were stupefied for the time being. The maladministration of the occupied territories by the subordinates of Muhammad Tughlak and the tyranny and merciless oppression to which the people were subjected roused the Nayakas of the Andhra country from their stupor and goaded them on to revenge. They united under the leadership of Prolayanayaka, invaded Rajahmundry,

and drove away the Muslim governor of the place. After this, Kapayanayaka became the leader and completed the liberation of the east coast. This was accomplished in 1325. Thereafter the Nayakas became independent in their respective provinces and a number of small independent principalities came into existence. Prolaya Vema, one of these Nayakas, founded an independent kingdom in 1325 and it flourished for nearly a century. The Velamas set up another principality in the Nalgonda district of Hyderabad State. Somadeva, a Kshatriya chieftain in the Ceded Districts, made extensive conquests and carved out a principality for himself. Another chieftain, named Musunuri Prolayanayaka, founded an independent state in the Eastern Ghats with Rekapalli as his headquarters. He was followed by his famous cousin Kapayanayaka, the Kanya nayak of the Muslim historians. Kapaya organised a confederacy of the leading chieftains of the time and with their aid conquered Warangal from the subordinates of the Sultan in 1335. This was followed by the foundation of the famous city of Vijayanagara in 1336 by Harihara and the loss of the southern provinces to the Sultanate of Delhi. Northern and western Dakkan were lost very soon after the foundation of the independent Bahmani kingdom in 1347. Maharashtra and part of Karnataka were included in this new kingdom and there was hardly any attempt made by the people of those regions to resist or extinguish Muslim rule. The Andhra districts in eastern Dakkan took the lead in this matter and maintained their independence under various dynasties.

*The Reddis of Kondavidu* 1325—1424. Prolaya Vema, 1325—1353 who belonged to the Panta family of Reddis, founded this kingdom in 1325. He was a distinguished general of the last Kakatiya king, Prataparudradeva, and played a prominent part in that monarch's wars. He took possession of the coastal region between the Krishna

in the north and the Pennar in the south and the wide tract of land comprising Srisailam and Ahobilam in the Karnul district. He ruled over it from Addanki. He patronised a famous Telugu poet named Errapragada, who completed the Telugu *Mahabharata* and composed the *Ramayana* and the *Harivamsa*. Vema was followed by his son Anapota (1353—64). This king had to contend against many enemies. The Ganga King of Kalinga in the north led an expedition and came up to the Krishna in 1353. Anapota retaliated by invading the trans-Godavary region in 1356. The Bahmani Sultan pressed through Telingana, reached Amaravati on the southern bank of the Krishna in the Reddi territory and broke the idol in that temple in 1360. This invasion was repelled by Anapota. The Velamas followed in its wake and inflicted a momentary defeat on the Reddi forces. In 1363, Bukkaraya I of Vijayanagara invaded the Reddi kingdom from the south and conquered parts of the Nellore and Karnul districts. Anapota shifted the capital from Addanki to Kondavidu and fortified the hill fortress. He was succeeded by his brother Anavema (1364—86). This Reddi king was a great conqueror. He reconquered the territory formerly taken by Bukka I. Crossing the Krishna he annexed part of the dominion of the Velamas. In the north he crossed the Krishna and the Godavary and conquered the Ganga kingdom up to Simhachalam in the Vizagapatam district. Anavema was succeeded by his nephew Kumaragiri (1386—1403). This king was a great scholar and was fond of celebrating *Vasantotsavas*. The administration of the kingdom was in the hands of his able brother-in-law Kataya Vema. Taking advantage of the weakness of Kumaragiri, the Vijayanagara King Harihara II, annexed the Reddi territory in the Karnul district and came up to Vinukonda in the heart of the kingdom. Kataya Vema persuaded him to accept favourable terms and con-

cluded a treaty. After this, Vema undertook a famous campaign towards the north in order to make good the loss of territory in the south. He captured a number of strongholds in the Ganga kingdom and went up to the Chilka Lake. In 1399 the Gajapati made an attempt to recover part of this territory but was defeated at Simhachalam and repelled. Subsequently, Kumaragiri assigned the newly conquered region to his brother-in-law with Rajahmundry for its headquarters. In 1400, while Kataya Vema was away in the north, Harihara II conquered some more territory in the south. Very soon there was trouble at Kondavidu and Kumaragiri had to leave it and spent his last days near Rajahmundry. He was a great scholar and wrote a critical work on dance named *Vasantarajiya*. At his instance Kataya Vema wrote a commentary in Sanskrit on the famous plays of Kalidasa. Kumaragiri was succeeded at Kondavidu by a cousin of a collateral branch, Pedakomati Vema (1403—1420). He developed serious rivalry with Kataya Vema who, after the death of Kumaragiri, became independent master of Rajahmundry and the northern territories. Harihara II died in 1404 and there was a disputed succession at Vijayanagara. The Reddi King took advantage of it and made an alliance with the Bahmani Sultan. The allies attacked the Vijayanagara dominions simultaneously and Vema reconquered all the Reddi territories in the Guntur, Nellore and Karnul districts. Meanwhile a chieftain named Annadeva became powerful in the south of Godavary and harassed the Reddi kingdoms of both Kondavidu and Rajahmundry. Allada, a general of Kataya Vema and guardian of his family since his death in 1414, invited Vijayanagara to help. Annadeva invoked the aid of the Bahmani Sultan. Both Devaraya I of Vijayanagara and Sultan Feroz Shah Bahmani invaded the east coast. Two pitched battles were fought on the southern bank of the Godavary during



1415—1417. The Vijayanagara armies were crushed. Devaraya besieged Panagal in the Nalgonda district and the Sultan rushed up for its relief. Padakomati Vema made another attempt to invade Rajahmundry but was defeated by Anada. The Velamas attacked him in 1420 and he was killed in an encounter. This Reddi king was a great scholar and wrote several works on music and rhetoric. He was the patron of the celebrated Telugu poet Srinatha. He was followed by his son Racha Vema (1420—1424). This ruler oppressed the people and was utterly unfit to sit on the throne. He was assassinated by his subordinates. With him ended the Reddi kingdom of Kondavidu. It was soon annexed by the rulers of Vijayanagara.

*The Reddis of Rajahmundry* (1403—1445). This kingdom originated as a fief granted by the Kondavidu king Kumaragiri to his generalissimo Kataya Vema. After the death of Kataya Vema, his subordinate, Allada, placed his son Kumaragiri on the throne and administered the kingdom on his behalf. When Kumaragiri died prematurely he made Kataya Vema's daughter and his own daughter-in-law, Anitalli, the ruler and acted as her representative. He took a leading part in repelling the Bahmani invasion in 1415—17. In 1418 Hushang Shah, the Sultan of Dhara, invaded but was repelled. This Reddi chieftain died in 1420. The administration was then taken over by his elder son Vema and conducted on behalf of the younger son Virabhadra, husband of Anitalli. Vema invaded Kalinga, conquered numerous places in it and re-established the frontier at Simhachalam. The Ganga kingdom of Kalinga collapsed in 1435 and Kapilesvara Gajapati became the ruler of Orissa. This king invaded the Rajahmundry kingdom in 1444 but a Vijayanagara army sent by Devaraya II saved it from extinction. Kapilesvara conquered this principality finally in 1445. Vema and Virabhadra were good lovers of learning and patronised the Telugu poet Srinatha.

*The Velamas* (1325—1455). These chieftains played a prominent part in the politics of the Dakkan for over a century after the fall of Warangal. They belonged to the Padmanayaka section of the Velama community and the Recherla family. Singama I of this family was a nayaka, under Kakatiya Prataparudradeva and governed the Nalgonda district from Devarakonda. He proclaimed his independence like all other Nayakas in 1325. He was a contemporary of the famous Kapayanayaka who became the ruler of Warangal and Telingana from 1335. Singama resisted Kapaya's attempts at subjugation of Velama territory. He was followed by his son Anapotanayaka (1360—1384). This ruler expanded his territory considerably by fighting with many neighbouring chieftains. He killed Kapayanayaka, the king of Warangal, in 1369, occupied all his territory and became the ruler of Telingana. He had to carry on incessant fights with the Bahmani Sultans in the west, the Reddis of Kondavidu in the east and the Rayas of Vijayanagara in the south. After the death of Allauddin I Bahmani, he allied himself with the Raya and demanded the return of Kaulas by Muhammad Shah. A Bahmani general named Bahadur invaded Telingana and marched upto Bhongir. The Sultan sent a second expedition and besieged Filampatan but was repelled. There was a third invasion and this time Anapota was defeated. He had to cede Golconda and its neighbourhood to the Sultan and purchase peace. Shortly after this the Velama dominion was divided into two, Anapota retaining the northern half with Rajakonda as its headquarters and his cousin Mada obtaining the southern half which he governed from Devarakonda, the family seat. In the next generation Singa II and Vedagiri I were important. Annadeva, the chieftain on the southern bank of the Godavary on the coast, was driven out by Anavema, the Reddi king of Kondavidu. The chieftain sought the help of the Velamas,

who were the sworn enemies of the Reddis. Singa's son, Prince Anapota, invaded the Reddi dominion and killed Anavema in 1386. When Kataya Vema conquered Ramagiri in the Velama territory during the course of his Kalinga campaign in the reign of Kumaragiri, the Velamas invaded Kalinga and penetrated up to Simhachalam and defeated the Ganga king who came to defend it. Alarmed at the combination of these powerful Velama chieftains and the Bahmani Sultan, their suzerain, Harihara II of Vijayanagara, sent an invasion into Telingana in 1384. This army came up to Warangal but was resisted there. In the battle that ensued at Kottakonda, the allies defeated it and put it to flight. In 1397 there was a second Vijayanagara invasion but that too was repelled. Anapota II and Mada II of the next generation continued the warring traditions of the Velama family. One of their subordinates killed Kataya Vema of Rajahmundry in an encounter. Anapota played a prominent part in the battles in the Godavary region in the east-coast during 1415—1417. He inflicted a defeat on the retreating army of Vijayanagara near Kondavidu. He also attacked Dharanikota and killed Macha, brother of the Reddi king Pedakomati Vema. The Bahmani Sultan's alliance with the Reddi king enraged the Velamas and they sought the friendship of Vijayanagara. They helped the Raya in the siege of Panagal in 1417—19 and in the routing of the Sultan's forces. They followed up this victory and attacked Medak in the Bahmani territory. In the east the Velamas invaded Kondavidu and killed its king Pedakomati Vema. Of the next generation of Velama chiefs Linga and Singa III were famous. Linga was a great fighter. When the Bahmani Sultan invaded Vijayanagara territory in 1425 Linga helped his ally, the Raya and fought the Muslim armies at Toragal, Badami and Etgir. Suddenly, however, he withdrew from the fighting and returned home. This be-

haviour of his estranged the Raya. In 1427 the Velama chief ravaged the Guntur and Nellore districts in Vijayanagara territory. Remembering the active help rendered by him formerly to the Raya, the Bahmani Sultan, Ahmad Shah, sent an invasion into Telingana under Azim Khan. The Muslim general besieged Warangal and killed Anapota. He reduced its neighbourhood after four months of fighting. When, however, the Sultan was busy fighting with the rulers of Malva and Guzerat, the Velamas reconquered this territory. Hence in 1433 the Sultan sent a fresh expedition into Telingana. Rajakonda was conquered and its ruler Singa III submitted. Linga also acknowledged the suzerainty of the Sultan. When, subsequently, Jalal Khan, a Bahmani official, rebelled at Balakonda, Linga rendered the Sultan valuable help. The succession of Humayun Shah to the Bahmani throne was ominous to the Velamas. When he actually sent an army and besieged Devarakonda, Linga was reduced to desperate straits. He appealed to the Gajapati king, Kapilesvara, who was already powerful on the east coast, for help. The Gajapati sent an army and relieved the siege of Devarakonda. The Gajapati prince Hamvira, who was in charge of this army launched a campaign into Telingana. He took Rajakonda and Khammammet and captured Warangal in 1460 defeating Mahmud Gawan, the famous general-minister whom the Sultan left behind. Shortly after this Linga passed away and with him the independent history of the Devarakonda branch of the Velamas comes to an end. Linga's cousin, Singa III was a great scholar and had the title *Sarvajna*. He composed a standard work on rhetoric named *Rasarnavasudhakara*. He was the patron of the famous Telugu poet Potana, the author of the Telugu *Bhagavata*. After the capture of Rajakonda by the Bahmanis, this chieftain retired to Bellamkonda in the Guntur district and lived there till 1455. The Velama

chiefs of subsequent generations lived in the Vijayanagara empire and passed through strange vicissitudes of fortune. They ceased to be a factor of importance in the politics of the Dakkan.

*The Rayas of Vijayanagara* (1336—1485). The rulers of the newly founded kingdom of Vijayanagara played an important part in the history of eastern Dakkan. The city of Vijayanagara was founded in 1336 by Harihara, the son of Sangama, and his descendants ruled over the kingdom till 1485. Sangama was a native of the Kakatiya empire and seems to have lived in the neighbourhood of Guntur. His sons, Harihara and Bukka, entered service under Prataparudradeva, the Kakatiya monarch of Warangal and were the guards of his treasury. When Warangal fell in 1323 they fled to Kampili and entered service under its ruler. When that city was captured by the armies of Sultan Muhammad Tughlak in 1327 the brothers were taken prisoners and sent to Delhi. There was a serious rebellion at Kampili next year and the local Tughlak governor could not cope with it. The Sultan then released Harihara and Bukka, converted them to Islam and sent them to Kámpili in order to put down the rebellion there. The brothers succeeded admirably in this task and conquered much territory round Kampili. The Sultan made them its rulers. Subsequently there were many rebellions all over the Dakkan. The fall of Warangal in 1335 gave great courage to Harihara. He apostatized from Islam, sought the help of the famous ascetic, Vidyaranya, founded the city of Vijayanagara in 1336 and declared his independence. He ruled till 1355 and was followed by his brother Bukka I (1351—79). The expansion of the Vijayanagara kingdom into the Dakkan was begun systematically by the third ruler, Harihara I (1380—1404). His son, Prince Devaraya was governor of the province of Udayagiri, in the Nellore district for twenty-six years. He launched this

aggression. The presence of the Velamas in the north as subordinate allies of the Bahmanis and of the Reddi kingdom on the east coast worried the prince. He sent one expedition into Telingana and fought the battle of Kottakonda. In 1390 he sent a second expedition against the Velamas and personally led another into the Bahmani territory and penetrated up to Alampur in the Karnul district. Seven years later, his brother, Bukka, besieged Panagal, defeated the Muslims and captured it. As early as 1384 Devaraya had annexed the Karnul and Nellore districts and part of Guntur in the Reddi territory. He ascended the Vijayanagara throne and ruled for sixteen years (1406—1422). During the interval of three years before his accession there was civil war at Vijayanagara. The Kondavidu king, Pedakomati Vema, took advantage of it and occupied all the territory previously taken by Devaraya while governor of Udayagiri. This territory was, however, reconquered for Vijayanagara in 1414. In 1415 Devaraya sent an army in aid of his ally Annadeva and was involved and defeated in the war on the bank of the Godavary. He besieged Panagal between 1417—19 and took it after inflicting a crushing defeat on the Bahmani Sultan. This monarch was followed by Devaraya II (1425—1446). Devaraya II annexed the Kondavidu after the death of Racha Vema, in 1425. The Krishna became the northern border of the Vijayanagara empire and the Reddi rulers of Rajahmundry were his relatives. Devaraya kept up the Rajahmundry kingdom as a buffer state between his own dominions and those of the Gajapatis. In the time of Mallikarjuna (1447—65), Vijayanagara territory in eastern Dakkan was overrun by the powerful Gajapati king Kapilesvara. In 1450 the Gajapati besieged and captured the capital city itself. During the next five years he captured Rajahmundry and Kondavidu and conquered the whole of Telingana. Mallikarjuna was succeeded by

Virupaksha II (1465—85). This ruler was a weakling. His general, Saluva Narasimha, repelled the Gajapati forces and occupied the coastal region from Nellore to the Krishna, including Kondapalli and Masulipatam between 1470—75. There was a civil war in the Gajapati territory after the death of Kapilesvara in 1470. Hamvira, one of the contestants, obtained Bahmani help and succeeded in occupying the Gajapati throne. He ceded Rajahmundry and Kondavidu to the Sultan who invaded and occupied them. Meanwhile, Hamvira was driven out and Purushottama seized the Gajapati throne. He marched to the south and reconquered the entire region from the Bahmani subordinates. There was a civil war at Vijayanagara at this time. Saluva Narasimha, a subordinate, deposed the last ruler of the Sangama dynasty and crowned himself king in 1485. The Bahmani kingdom also fell on evil days about this time and Sultan Muhammad Shah IV was overwhelmed by difficulties. Hence the Gajapatis could consolidate their conquests to the south of the Godavary and the Krishna.

## CHAPTER XIV

### THE BAHMANI KINGDOM

THIS was the first independent Muslim state of the Dakkan. It was founded in 1347 and flourished for about a century and half. The foundation of this kingdom was the consequence of the foolish policy of repression followed by Sultan Muhammad Tughlak. He introduced the system of tax farming and collected taxes with unnecessary violence. This caused much discontent and many rebellions broke out. The Sultan made matters worse by declaring war against an entire class of subordinates in 1344. These subordinates were the Yuzbashi or the centurions. The centurions in Guzerat took up the challenge and rebelled. When early next year the Sultan came down to the south the rebels gathered at Daulatabad and were joined by the centurions of the Dakkan. The rebels easily overpowered the Governor of Daulatabad and instituted one among themselves as the king of the Dakkan under the title Nasiruddin Shah. The Sultan marched to Daulatabad and laid siege to it. A few centurions escaped under the lead of Hasan, *alias* Zafar Khan and fled to Gulburga. The Sultan reduced Daulatabad but was soon called away to Guzerat, wherein a fresh rebellion broke out. A general was sent to Gulburga against the escaped centurions but could do nothing. Taking advantage of the Sultan's departure from Daulatabad, Zafar Khan obtained help from Kapayanayaka, the ruler of Warangal, attacked Bidar and occupied it driving away its Muslim governor. He then marched to Daulatabad. Nasiruddin Shah met him at Nizampur, on the way, and abdicated. The assembled centurions elected Zafar Khan king on 9th September, 1347.

*Allauddin I* (1347—1358). On being elected king Zafar Khan assumed the title of Allauddin Hasan Gangu



Bahmani and made Gulburga his capital. The new kingdom included Gulburga, Bidar and Berar. It was surrounded by powerful states and the Sultan had to wage many wars against them. He turned his attention first towards Maharashtra. In one campaign he conquered Mahur and other strongholds. Subsequently, Bhum, Akalkot and Mundargi were taken. The forces of Sultan Muhammad Tughlak stationed at Daulatabad were won over. The Bahmani armies entered Konkan and took the ports of Goa and Dabhol. The Sultan put down an army mutiny at Sagar and took on this occasion, Kalabgur, Mudhol and Miraj. He came into conflict with the ruler of Warangal also. Two expeditions were sent against this principality. On the first occasion the ruler was defeated, ceded Kaulas and agreed to pay annual tribute. The second expedition resulted in the annexation of the territory between Bhongir and Kohir to the Bahmani kingdom. In 1347 while proceeding to put down the mutiny at Sagar, the Sultan sent a general named Mubarak Khan to plunder the neighbouring territory of the Raya of Vijayanagara. Mubarak laid siege to Raichur and captured it but was defeated by the forces of Harihara I and was forced to give up further penetration into Vijayanagara territory. Elated with these successes Allauddin assumed the title of Alexander II and entertained wild ambitions of making conquests up to the Cape Comorin but abandoned these schemes at the instance of well-wishers. In 1358 he marched towards Malva with the object of conquering it but changed his object and turned towards Guzerat. While still on the way he fell ill, returned to his capital and died on 11th February, 1358.

*Muhammad Shah I* (1358—1377). Allauddin was succeeded by his son Muhammad. The Bahmani kingdom consisted at this time of four provinces—Berar, Daulatabad, Bidar and Gulburga. The new Sultan re-organised the

administration of the kingdom. He set up a number of officials at the centre like the Vakil-u-Sultanat of the Lieutenant of the Kingdom, the Peshwa or his assistant, the Vazir-i-Jumla or the Minister of Finance, the Vazir-i-Ashraf or the Minister for Foreign Affairs, the Kotwal or the Chief of Police and the Sadr-i-Jahan or the Chief Justice. He also enrolled a bodyguard consisting of officers, esquires and gentlemen troopers. Muhammad Shah was drawn into serious conflicts with the two neighbouring kingdoms of Vijayanagara and Warangal. This Sultan minted his own gold coins in preference to those of the rulers of Vijayanagara and Warangal which were then in circulation in the Bahmani kingdom. Bukka I, the Raya of Vijayanagara and Anapota I, the Velama chieftain, who became the ruler of Warangal after killing Kapayanayaka, allied with each other. The Raya demanded the return of the Raichur doab and the ruler of Warangal demanded the return of Kaulas, both of which had been conquered by Allauddin. Muhammad Shah gave evasive answers and played for time. Meanwhile the ruler of Warangal obtained an army from Vijayanagara and attacked Kaulas. The Sultan besieged Filampatan and captured it. He then proceeded to Warangal and forced its ruler to pay a heavy indemnity of 100,000 gold *huns*. He came home devastating the western districts of the kingdom of Warangal in 1362. Two years later a second expedition had to be led against this kingdom. Its ruler intrigued with Feroz Tughlak, the Sultan of Delhi. One Bahmani army was sent, as a measure of retaliation, against Warangal and Golconda and laid siege to both the places. The Sultan himself came to this region with another army and ravaged it for two years. Ultimately the ruler of Warangal made peace with the Sultan in 1364 ceding him Golconda and its neighbourhood. Encouraged by this success the Sultan issued a draft on the Vijayanagara treasury for

payments to be made to his musicians and dancers. The Raya retaliated by entering the doab and taking Mudgal. Sultan Muhammad went down himself and re-conquered the fort. A pitched battle was fought at Kauthal early in 1367 and the Vijayanagara forces were defeated. The Sultan won in a second engagement fought before the Raya's capital. Horrified at the terrible slaughter perpetrated by the Sultan, the Raya made peace. The Sultan died in 1377.

*Mujahid* (1377—1378). Muhammad was succeeded by his eldest son Mujahid who was headstrong and impetuous. Immediately after his accession he asked the Raya of Vijayanagara to return to him the doab between the Tungabhadra and the Ghataprabha. The Raya made a counter-demand. The Sultan marched to the south and attacked the Raya who was encamped on the Tungabhadra near Gangavati. The king of Vijayanagara fled, pursued by the Sultan, and eluded him for many months. Ultimately he entered his capital and shut himself up in it. Mujahid besieged the city and took its outer defences but had to retreat on account of the failure of his uncle Daud to hold a position. On the return march he stormed Adoni. While Mujahid was still on the way Daud got him murdered on the night of April 15, 1378.

*Daud* (1378). This Sultan could not enjoy for long the power that he had obtained by treachery. Many subordinates of the kingdom refused to recognize his suzerainty. The Raya advanced into the doab and took Raichur. At the instigation of Mujahid's sister Daud was assassinated while at prayer and his son was blinded.

*Muhammad II* (1378—1397). The people and the nobles of the kingdom raised to the throne Prince Muhammad, the younger son of Sultan Allauddin. This ruler was a great lover of peace and learning. He extended an invitation to the great poet Hafiz. A number of schools

were established all over the kingdom. When there was a severe famine the Sultan organised efficient relief measures. The Raya of Vijayanagara was strengthening his position in the south. He sent his son, Prince Devaraya, as the Governor of the north-western provinces. The prince led an expedition into the Bahmani territory in 1390 and advanced up to Alampur on the Tungabhadra. In 1397 the Vijayanagara armies besieged and conquered the fort of Panagal. Sultan Muhammad died in April, 1397 and there was much confusion at the capital. His elder son, Ghiasuddin was enthroned immediately but was blinded and deposed after a reign of one month and twenty-six days. His younger brother Shamsuddin was raised to the throne next but was soon deposed by Feroz.

*Feroz Shah* (1397—1422). This Sultan was a grandson of Allauddin. He was a vigorous and efficient ruler and had an eventful reign. Trouble broke out even in 1398. Harihara II of Vijayanagara invaded the doab with a large army. The Kolis, a tribe on the northern bank of the Krishna, rebelled. In the north Narsingh, the Ghond Raya of Kherla, invaded Berar. The Sultan marched to the south and put down the Kolis. Early in 1399 he led a surprise attack against the Vijayanagara armies in the doab, defeated them and obtained a heavy indemnity from the Raya. Feroz then proceeded to the north and attacked Narsingh near Ellichpur. The latter fought desperately but was defeated. His capital was taken. Shortly after this the Sultan built the town of Ferozabad on the bank of the Bhima and lived in it. Meanwhile there was a disputed succession at Vijayanagara after the death of Harihara II and ultimately Devaraya I ascended the throne in 1406. The new Raya invaded the doab and took Mudgal. Sultan Feroz led a counter attack, took Adoni and Bankapur and reached Vijayanagara. The Raya made peace with him. In 1415

the Sultan invaded Telingana. There was a dispute between the Reddi kings of Kondavidu and Rajahmundry. The rivals invited the help of Devaraya and Sultan Feroz and these rulers readily sent their armies to the coast. There were two pitched battles on the southern bank of the Godavary. Devaraya's forces were defeated and his ally, the Reddi king of Rajahmundry, was killed. The Sultan was much elated by this and thought of marching beyond the river. Meanwhile Devaraya besieged Panagal in 1417 and diverted his attention. The Sultan rushed to the south and laid a counter-siege. There was prolonged fighting for two years. In 1419 the Sultan was defeated and beat a hasty retreat. Feroz soon lapsed into a life of pleasure and resigned himself into the hands of unworthy favourites. His brother Ahmad deposed him in 1422 and usurped the throne.

*Ahmad Shah* (1422—1436). This Sultan was involved in wars with the rulers of Vijayanagara, Telingana and Guzerat. Vira Vijaya, the Raya of Vijayanagara, entered the doab at the head of a large army in 1423 and ravaged it. The Sultan marched to the region, made a surprise attack, and put the Hindus to flight. Entering Vijayanagara territory in hot pursuit, Ahmad devastated the country and slew thousands of innocent people. When he appeared before the walls of Vijayanagara, the Raya sued for peace and accepted humiliating terms. In 1425 Sultan Ahmad invaded Telingana and annexed it to his kingdom killing its ruler and capturing Warangal. Three years later he led a campaign against the Sultan of Malva and while returning, saw Bidar and shifted his capital to this town, renaming it Ahmedabad. In 1430 he started an unprovoked war with Guzerat. In the first campaign the Bahmani forces were defeated in three pitched battles. The Sultan himself led a second campaign but this ended in desultory fighting. A large number of

foreigners were invited into the Bahmani kingdom in this reign and employed in high positions in the army and administration. The native or Dakkanī section resented this policy. There were also religious differences between these two sections; gradually, therefore, they drifted into enmity, competed for power and even fought pitched battles openly in the streets.

*Allauddin II* (1436—1458). He was the eldest son of Ahmad Shah. His reign witnessed bitter rivalry between the Dakkanī and foreign sections. The new Sultan, who had already married a princess from Khandesh, espoused a Hindu wife, developed a fancy for her and neglected the former. The Sultan of Khandesh took offence and invaded Berar. The Dakkanī party advised caution but the foreigners under the lead of the governor of Daulatabad attacked the invader and defeated him. Pleased at this achievement, the Sultan honoured the foreigners by assigning them places to the right of the throne. In 1443 Mallikarjuna, the Raya of Vijayanagara, invaded the doab, captured Mudgal, Raichur and Bankapur and laid waste the Bahmani territory up to Bijapur. Sultan Allauddin marched to the south and retrieved these losses. In 1446 the Dakkanī section drew a group of foreigners into Konkan and got them defeated by the local people. They thus discredited their rivals and got back the places of honour. On coming to know of the truth, the Sultan dismissed all Dakkanī officials and restored the foreigners. In 1456 Jalal Khan, an official in Telingana, rose in rebellion but was put down by the famous minister Mahmud Gawan at Balakonda.

*Humayun* (1458—1461). He was the elder son of Allauddin II. He could ascend the throne only after overcoming the opposition of his younger brother. This Sultan was cruel and profligate. Important events were taking place on the east coast at this time. Kapileśvara, the famous Gajapati king of Orissa, conquered the east coast by rapid

marches and even successfully besieged the city of Vijayanagara. He was waiting for an opportunity to march beyond the Eastern Ghats. In 1459 Jalal Khan once again rose in rebellion. The Sultan marched to Balakonda and captured the rebel. After halting at Warangal for a time he went against the Velama ruler of Devarakonda in order to punish him for helping Jalal Khan. The Velamas appealed to Kapileshvara for help. The Gajapati king sent his son, Hamvira, to their rescue. The allied armies inflicted a crushing defeat on the Sultan. Meanwhile the brothers of the Sultan raised a rebellion in the capital. Humayun left Gawan in charge of the defence of Telingana and rushed to the capital. He suppressed the rebellion there with barbarous cruelty. Hamvira inflicted a crushing defeat on Gawan, captured Warangal in 1460 and liberated its people. Shortly after this Humayun fell ill and Gawan was recalled to the capital. The Gajapati army advanced farther, took Gulburga and camped within ten miles of Bidar, the Bahmani capital. A large part of Telingana was annexed to the Gajapati kingdom.

*Nizam Shah* (1461—1463). This Sultan succeeded his father Humayun, as a child. His mother and Gawan conducted the administration on his behalf. The Gajapati armies were still present in Telingana. The ruler of Malva launched an invasion against the Bahmani territory. A battle was fought at Kandhar and the Bahmani army was defeated. The king of Malva pursued them and laid siege to Bidar. Gawan obtained help from the Sultan of Guzerat and succeeded in repelling the besiegers. He invaded Daulatabad once again next year but was driven back. Very soon after this Sultan Nizam Shah died.

*Muhammad Shah III* (1463—1482). This Sultan was a younger brother of Nizam Shah and was placed on the throne as a boy of nine years. Mahmud Gawan became the chief minister and assumed charge of all affairs. His

first important act was the recapture of Kherla from the Sultan of Malva after two years of campaigning. Incidentally Gawan captured Goa. Meanwhile there was a civil war in Orissa after the death of Kapilesvara between his sons Hamvira and Purushottama. Hamvira appealed in 1470 to the Bahmani court for help, promising in return not only to surrender Telingana but also to cede Rajahmundry and Kondavidu on the coast. Malik Hasan was commanded to lead a Bahmani army into Orissa. He succeeded in placing Hamvira on the Gajapati throne. Hasan then marched south and took possession of Rajahmundry and Kondavidu. He was made viceroy of the entire Telugu speaking area and governed it from Rajahmundry. By 1477 there was a change in the situation. Saluva Narasimha, the powerful Vijayanagara general, penetrated up to the Godavary and seized the intervening territory. In Orissa, Hamvira was deposed and his brother Purushottama became the king. The new Gajapati defeated Hasan and captured Rajahmundry. Hence in 1478 Sultan Muhammad marched to the east coast accompanied by Gawan and reduced Rajahmundry. He then proceeded into Orissa and devastated the country. Next the Sultan went to the south and conquered Kondavidu. He stayed at Rajahmundry for three years reorganising the government of Telingana. In 1481 he launched a campaign into South India. He reached Kanchi and plundered its temples. While he was on the return march Saluva Narasimha's men intercepted him at Kandukur, in the Nellore district, and plundered the booty that he was carrying from Kanchi. The Sultan sent Yusuf Adil Khan against Penugonda in Vijayanagara territory and himself proceeded against Masulipatam, a port on the east coast. Masulipatam was taken but Yusuf Adil was defeated and repelled. The Sultan returned to his capital soon after these events. The rivalry between the two



Muslim factions' ran high and Gawan came to be most hated. His enemies incriminated him with a forged letter addressed to the Gajapati king and in a drunken state the Sultan had the faithful old minister beheaded on April 5, 1481. The foreign Muslims feared him, the Dakkanis hated him and everyone disobeyed him. The Raya took Goa in the west. Overcome by humiliation the Sultan took to excessive drinking and died on 26 March, 1482.

*Muhammad Shah IV* (1482—1518). On the death of Muhammad Shah III his son, Muhammad, a boy of twelve years, was placed on the throne by one of the factions at the court. The Bahmani kingdom virtually disintegrated in this reign. There were too many parties and too much intrigue and open fighting. The Sultan was a prisoner in the hands of his ministers. Hasan, Yusuf Adil Khan and Quasim Barid were the most powerful chieftains of the time. Having successfully got rid of one rival, Gawan, Hasan now decided to get rid of Yusuf Adil. He made two attempts to get him assassinated but failed. For twenty days thereafter there was open street-fighting in the capital between the followers of these rival leaders. Ultimately Yusuf Adil retired to Gulburga of which place he was the governor. Hasan carried on the administration for four years. There were rebellions at Daulatabad and in Telingana. Finally Hasan was strangled by an enemy at Bidar while plundering the royal treasury. On the night of 7 November, 1487 a party of the Dakkanis entered the palace in order to murder the Sultan but the latter was saved by his slaves. This was followed by a general massacre of the Dakkanis for three days. In 1490 Malik Ahmad Nizam-ul-Mulk, who had built the town of Ahmadnagar, invited Yusuf Adil Khan of Bijapur and Fatullah Immad-ul-Mulk of Berar to a conference. It was decided that these confederates should proclaim their independence in their respective provinces. Quasim Barid

became the Prime Minister after the death of Hasan. He invited Saluva Timma, the regent at Vijayanagara, to attack Yusuf Adil from the south. The Vijayanagara armies invaded the doab and captured Raichur and Mudgal. Quasim next obtained help from the Nizam Shah and himself attacked Yusuf at Gulburga. Meanwhile, Bahadur, a feudatory in Konkan, rose in rebellion. Sultan Quli, the governor of Telingana, was sent against Bahadur. Disgusted with the wretched state of affairs Yusuf Adil Khan proclaimed his independence in 1495. The unfortunate Sultan continued to be a perpetual prisoner in the hands of one or the other of these contestants for power. In 1512 Sultan Quli returned to Golconda and made preparations for proclaiming his independence. Quasim Barid was succeeded by his son Ali Barid as Prime Minister. In 1514 Yusuf Adil Khan captured the Sultan but the latter escaped to Berar. Ali Barid captured him there and interned him in a villa at Kanthana, near Bidar. Sultan Muhammad Shah died on 7 December, 1518. Immediately Sultan Quli proclaimed his independence at Golconda.

*Last Rulers (1518—1527).* The effete kingdom continued to exist in name for nine years more. After Muhammad's death, a son of his, Ahmad, was placed on the throne and ruled for three years. He was succeeded in 1521 by his brother Allauddin. This Sultan plotted for the murder of Ali Barid but the plot was discovered. Ali Barid deposed and killed him. Waliullah, another son of Muhammad Shah, was then enthroned and ruled till 1524. Ali Barid deposed and killed this ruler also. Finally Kalimullah, the fourth of the brothers, was crowned. This unfortunate prince made a desperate bid for his freedom by inviting the help of Babar, who had just conquered Delhi, in return for the cession of Berar and Daulatabad. This negotiation was discovered. Kalimullah fled, out of fear, to Bijapur and from there to Ahmadnagar. While at

Ahmadnagar he was poisoned and died. With him ended the Bahmani dynasty.

Important events took place outside the Bahmani kingdom during the reigns of Muhammad Shah IV and his successors between 1485—1530. The Sangama dynasty of Vijayanagara came to an end and Saluva Narasimha usurped the throne in 1485. The Gajapati king, Kapilesvara, took advantage of the confusion that prevailed at this time and invaded the coastal region south of the Godavary. He besieged and captured Rajahmundry and Kondavidu. Narasimha opposed him at Udayagiri but was defeated and captured but set free. That fortress also fell into the hands of the Gajapati. Kapilesvara was succeeded in 1496 by his son Prataparudra Gajapati. This monarch set his eyes on Telingana which had been recently ceded to the Bahmani Sultan by Hamvira. Sultan Quli, the founder of the Sultanate of Golconda, was its governor. Prataparudra started an invasion of Telingana in 1500 and went up to the Krishna. Narasimha opposed him. The Gajapati commanded his subordinate, Sitapati, the ruler of Khammamet, to reduce Telingana. Sitapati took Rajakonda and Warangal and conquered the whole of Telingana.

The Gajapatis consolidated their strength in the coastal area and maintained undisturbed a firm hold on the region beyond the Ghats. There was another political revolution at Vijayanagara, consequent on the death of Saluva Narasimha. The Tulu dynasty came into power but the first two rulers had plenty of trouble. Ultimately Krishnadevaraya ascended the throne in 1509 and ruled till 1529. The reign of this monarch is a memorable epoch in the history of the Dakkan and South India. His famous conquests not only enhanced the glory and prestige of the Vijayanagara empire but also humbled the Muslim rulers of the effete kingdom of the Bahmanis and the

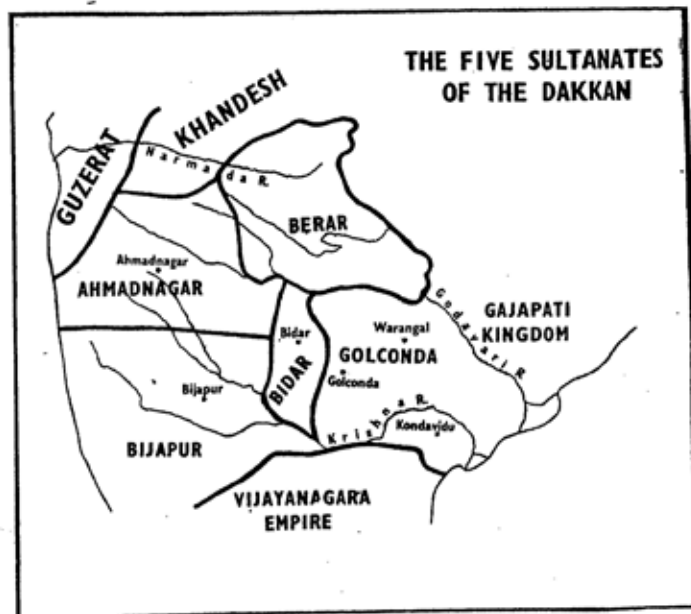
Sultans of the principalities that were newly founded. Sultan Muhammad Shah Bahmani proclaimed a *jihad* and invaded the Raichur doab in 1510 accompanied by the other Muslim chieftains. Krishnaraya opposed the confederates and inflicted a crushing defeat on them at Diwani. He pursued the retreating enemy with relentless vigour. Yusuf Adil Khan of Bijapur opposed him at Kovilkonda but was defeated and killed in an engagement and the place was taken. Shortly after this the people of Belgaum appealed to Krishnaraya to liberate them from the clutches of the Sultan and he undertook a second expedition on that account. After these successes the monarch turned his attention towards the east coast. Having decided to reconquer that region he started his famous eastern campaign. He invaded Udayagiri, the southern most outpost of the Gajapatis, in 1513 and captured it after a prolonged siege of eighteen months. The Gajapati who came to relieve the fort was defeated and pursued up to Kondavidu. Then came the turn of Kondavidu. This fortress was captured after a siege of eight months and entrusted to the care of Saluva Timma. Crossing the Krishna, the Raya laid siege to Kondapalli. The Gajapati came down once again but was defeated and driven away. After this success Krishnaraya sent an invasion into Telingana. Sitapati, who held it on behalf of the Gajapati, offered stiff resistance but could not deter the Vijayanagara armies from overrunning and conquering the region. The Raya marched on, took Rajamundry and entered the Ghat region. Once again Sitapati opposed him at Potnur but was beaten. The victorious army of Vijayanagara reached Simhachalam. Encouraged by these successes Krishnaraya marched farther and laid siege to Cuttack, the capital of the Gajapati. At last Prataparudra Gajapati, beaten in every battle and reduced to a miserable position, sued for peace. He offered the hand of his own daughter to the Raya

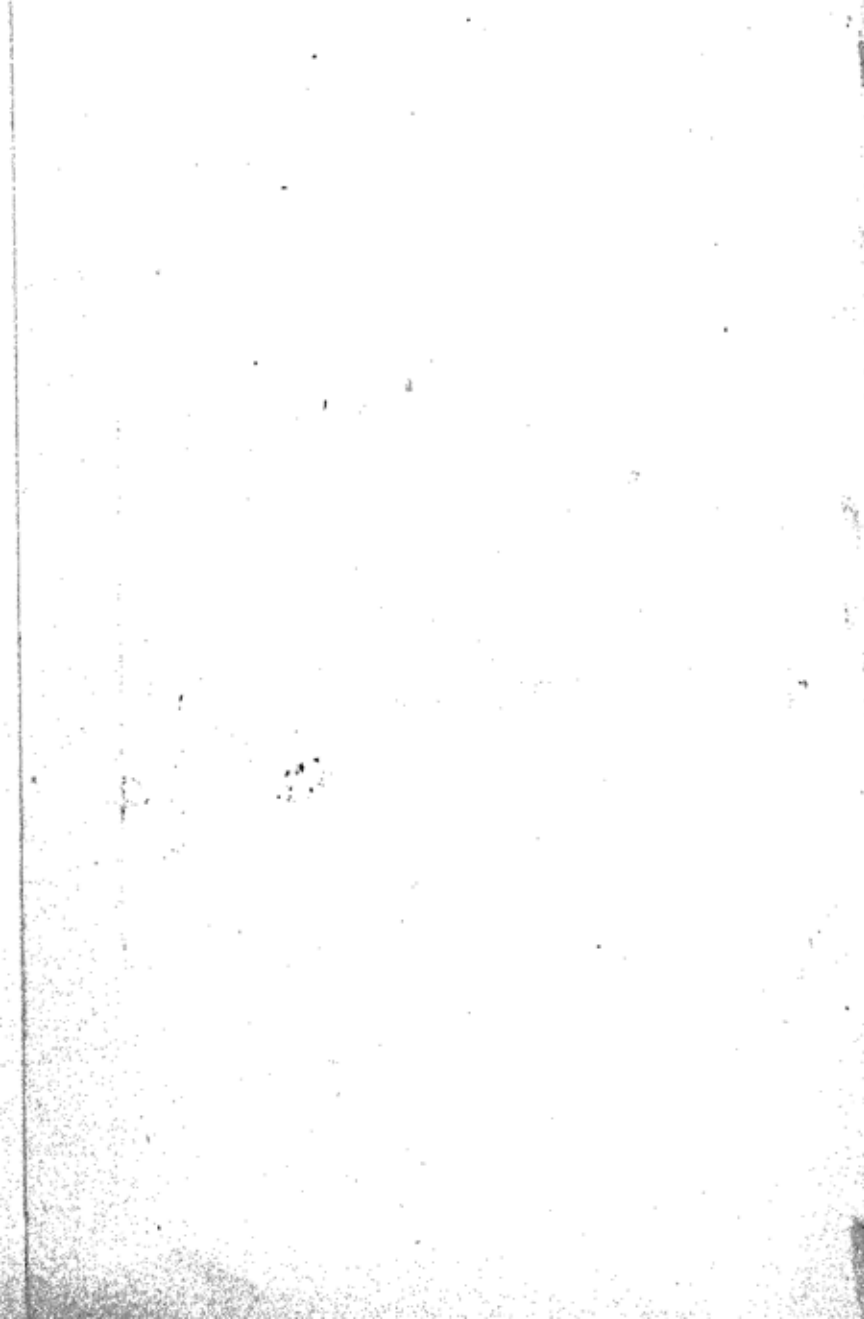
and gave him many valuable presents. Krishnaraya returned to the Gajapati all the places conquered by him to the north of the Krishna and returned home in 1517.

Krishnaraya made an attempt to save the Bahmani dynasty which was in its death throes. As early as 1510 he invaded the doab and took Raichur. He then crossed the Krishna, entered Bijapur territory and conquered Gulburga. Marching farther he captured Bidar, liberated and restored the Bahmani king Muhammad Shah and assumed the title *Yavanarajyasthapanacharya*. Once again in 1520 after his famous success in the battle of Raichur, the Raya entered Bijapur territory and took Sagar and Gulburga. Finding a number of Bahmani princes in a jail at Gulburga, he liberated them. This help, however, was of no avail and the Bahmani dynasty was doomed. Krishnaraya, like the great statesman that he was, refused to take direct and intimate interest in the tangled politics of the Muslim rulers of the Dakkan and thus imperil the safety and peace of his own empire. His only concern was to rescue the doab and prevent its annexation to the Muslim states. His successor Ramaraya reversed this policy of caution and moderation and paid a heavy penalty for it in the battle of Tallikota in 1565.

The Bahmani kingdom broke up even during the lifetime of Sultan Muhammad Shah IV. Ahmad Nizam-ul-Mulk of Ahmadnagar, Yusuf Adil Khan of Bijapur and Fatullah Imad-ul-Mulk of Berar declared their independence in 1490. Quasim Barid of Bidar did not actually make a declaration but was independent for all practical purposes. Sultan Quli of Golconda too did not formally renounce his nominal subordination to the Bahmanis till 1518.

*Government of India,  
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## CHAPTER XV

### THE FIVE SULTANATES OF THE DAKKAN

THE INDEPENDENT Sultanates of Bijapur, Golconda, Ahmadnagar, Berar and Bidar rose even during the lifetime of Muhammad Shah IV Bahmani. Berar and Bidar were absorbed into the neighbouring states but the other three continued to flourish for a longer time. Of these three Ahmadnagar was annexed to the Mugal empire earlier. Bijapur and Golconda survived into the reign of Aurangzeb who finally annexed them to the Mugal empire. The history of these Sultanates is full of mutual jealousies, prolonged intrigues and frequent fights. Their histories are mixed up. Ahmadnagar and Bijapur were the principal rivals. Bidar was always trying to foment trouble between these two states for the sake of her own safety. Golconda was trying to hold the balance of power. The rulers of these kingdoms indented frequently on Vijayanagara help and Ramaraya of that kingdom became virtually the dictator of Dakkan politics for a time. Then came the inevitable reaction. The Sultans realised the folly of their disunion and of invoking the frequent intervention of the Hindu power of the south. They united temporarily and destroyed Vijayanagara in the battle of Tallikota. Once this danger was put down the Sultans relapsed into their former condition of strife and discord. Bijapur and Golconda received additional strength by annexing the western and eastern parts respectively of the Vijayanagara empire in the south.

#### BIJAPUR

*Yusuf Adil Shah* (1489—1510). Yusuf Adil was the founder of this state. He was originally the governor of Gulburga under the Bahmanis. He defied Sultan Muhammad



Shah IV, took possession of the territory between Goa, Sholapur, Gulbarga and the Krishna and proclaimed his independence. He came into conflict very soon with Quasim Barid, the Bahmani minister, and defeated him at Kinjuty in 1497. He captured Sultan Muhammad and made a matrimonial alliance with him. Ali Barid, son of Quasim, attacked Yusuf Adil but was defeated on the bank of the Bhima. Yusuf changed over to the Shia faith in 1502. The other Sultans declared a *jihad* against him. He was able to put them down after three months of incessant fighting. It was during the reign of this Sultan that Vasco da Gama, the famous Portuguese discoverer of the route to India, landed at Calicut. Yusuf waged unsuccessful fights with these foreigners.

*Ismail I* (1510—1535). This Sultan succeeded to the throne while young. Kamal Khan, a Dakkan, became the regent. The struggle with the Portuguese, started in the previous reign, terminated and the foreigners permanently occupied Goa in 1510. In the same year, Krishnaraya, the famous emperor of Vijayanagara, occupied the doab and took Raichur. He marched further north, took Gulbarga, invaded Bidar and released Sultan Muhammad Shah. He entered Bijapur territory once again at the request of the Hindus of Belgaum. Party spirit ran high and Kamal Khan was murdered. Asad Khan was made the minister and a decree was issued prohibiting all Dakkanis from holding offices in the state. The struggle between Ismail and Ali Barid continued. Krishnaraya invaded the doab with a large army in 1520, inflicted a crushing defeat on the Bijapur forces and recaptured Raichur which was taken by Ismail while the emperor was away making conquests on the east coast. The emperor invaded the Bijapur dominion once again in 1523 captured Gulbarga and liberated the Bahmani princes incarcerated in the city. Next year Ismail married a sister

of Burhan Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar but the two rulers soon went to war with each other for the possession of Sholapur which was intended to be part of the dowry of the princess. Burhan made an alliance with Bidar and Berar and lead a joint attack against Bijapur in 1525. Two years later Ismail gave his sister in marriage to the Sultan of Berar and won him off from the alliance. He then attacked the armies of Burhan and Amir Ali Barid of Bidar and captured the city of Bidar. Krishnaraya of Vijayanagara died in 1529. Ismail invaded the doab shortly thereafter but was opposed by the Araviti chief Appalaraya. He overcame this opposition easily and took Raichur and Mudgal. After returning to the capital Ismail negotiated with Amir Ali and gave back Bidar to him on condition that he should be given Kalyani and Kandhar in exchange. Amir Ali refused to fulfil his part of the agreement and invaded Bijapur with the help of Burhan and the Sultan of Golconda. Asad Khan, the Bijapur Minister, defeated Burhan at Naldurg and broke up the invasion. Ismail then proceeded against Golconda territory and besieged Nalgonda. He was, however, killed in the siege. After his death his son Mallu was placed upon the throne. The nobles opposed him. Taking advantage of this trouble Achyutaraya, the ruler of Vijayanagara, occupied the doab.

*Ibrahim* (1535—1558). Ibrahim became the Sultan of Bijapur after Mallu was deposed. This Sultan had a stormy reign. Burhan Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar made strenuous efforts to oust him and the intervention of Ramaraya of Vijayanagara was freely and frequently sought. Immediately after his accession Ibrahim proclaimed the Sunni faith and raised a number of Dakkanis to important positions. He made Canarese and Marathi the official languages. Taking advantage of the usurpation of the Vijayanagara throne by Venkatapati Raya, Ibrahim

sent an invasion into the doab but this was repelled by the Raya's brother Venkatadri. The Sultan was involved in a protracted war with the other Sultans during 1540—43. Burhan, aided by Amir Ali Barid of Bidar, invaded Bijapur territory and took Sholapur and Parenda and neared Belgaum. Ibrahim fled to Gulburga. The invaders burnt Bijapur. They came and attacked Gulburga but were repelled. Undaunted by this Burhan invited Ramaraya and the Sultan of Golconda and with their aid invaded Bijapur. Ibrahim defeated Jamshid Qutb Shah twice, pursued him up to the gates of his capital, Golconda, and dealt successfully with the other allies. In 1554 there was fresh trouble. Ibrahim gave quarter to two refugees from Ahmadnagar and Berar. They instigated him to invade Ahmadnagar taking advantage of the death of Burhan and the accession of Husain. Ibrahim listened to their advice and invaded Ahmadnagar. He was opposed at Sholapur. There was treachery within his ranks and he was obliged to retreat. During his absence from the capital, his enemies proclaimed his brother Abdulla, Sultan. Ibrahim appealed to Ramaraya, obtained his help and put down his enemies. In 1556 the Sultan went to war with the Portuguese but could gain nothing. He died in 1558.

*Ali Adil I (1558—1580).* One of the first acts of the Sultan was the reversal of the policy of his predecessor. He proclaimed the restoration of the Shia faith and brought back the foreign Muslims. Ibrahim Qutb Shah of Golconda and Husain Nizam Shah invaded Gulburga. Ali obtained help from Ramaraya and repelled these enemies. Sholapur and Kalyani were still in the possession of the Nizam Shah. Making this the excuse Ali obtained help from Ramaraya once again and invaded Ahmadnagar. Anxious to maintain balance of power, the Qutb Shah joined these allies now. The allied forces marched into the heart of the

Nizam Shahi dominion and inflicted many defeats on its ruler. Ramaraya compelled the Nizam Shah to cede Kalyani. The Qutb Shah deserted his allies, suspecting that they were becoming too powerful, and joined Ahmadnagar. He and the Nizam Shah besieged Kalyani but were defeated. The Bijapur and Vijayanagara armies besieged Ahmadnagar and ravaged its neighbourhood. By 1564 the influence of Ramaraya was supreme and he became the arbitrator of the quarrels of the Dakkan Sultans. He became haughty and over-bearing and ill-treated these Sultans. At last Ibrahim Qutb Shah, impressed by the undesirability of allowing his influence to grow any more, invited all the Sultans to form a league. The Sultan of Berar kept aloof but the others responded. The rulers of Bijapur, Golconda, Bidar and Ahmadnagar joined their forces and marched into the doab. Ramaraja, who knew of these happenings, also advanced into the region. The two armies met at Rakkas-Tagadi near Tallikota. The Vijayanagara armies fought valiantly but there was a sudden turn in the tide of the war. Ramaraja was killed and his head was paraded on a spear. His armies fled in confusion. The Muslim army pursued them, entered Vijayanagara, stayed there for six months and destroyed that famous city. Immediately after their return from the south Ali Adil Shah and the Nizam Shah invaded Berar in order to punish its ruler for keeping aloof. The Sultan of Berar bribed Ali and broke up the invasion. The rulers of Bijapur and Ahmadnagar invaded the Portuguese territory and besieged Goa and Chaul but were defeated. In 1576 they entered into an agreement with each other according to which Bijapur was to annex Karnataka and Ahmadnagar to take Berar and Bidar. In pursuance of this agreement Bijapur conquered western Karnataka. Ali was killed by a eunuch in 1580.

*Ibrahim II* (1580—1626). This Sultan was enthroned

while he was nine years old. His aunt, Chand Bibi, was his guardian and Kamil Khan, a Dakkani, was the regent. There ensued a two-sided struggle between the Dakkanis and the foreigners and between Chand Bibi and successive regents. Ahmadnagar and Golconda took advantage of this and attacked Naldurg in Bijapur territory twice. They then became bolder and attacked Bijapur itself but were repelled. In 1591 Sultan Ibrahim invaded Ahmadnagar but was defeated in the battle of Dharaseo. Next year the Nizam Shah retaliated by attacking Bijapur. In 1595 the Mugal prince Murad invaded Ahmadnagar. Forgetting the old rivalry at this juncture, the Nizam Shah appealed to Bijapur for help. Sultan Ibrahim sent an army but the Mughals defeated it in the battle of Sonepet in 1597. The Sultan of Bijapur made peace by giving his daughter in marriage to the Mugal prince. Taking advantage of the chaotic condition of the Vijayanagara kingdom at the time and of the weakness of Ramadeva Raya, Ibrahim sent an invasion under Abdul Wahab Khan against Karnul in 1624. The Khan was able to annex the fort and its dependent territories after hard fighting. Sultan Ibrahim annexed Bidar in 1620 with the sanction of Shah Jahan. After the death of Malik Ambar the Sultan invaded the Nizam Shahi territory but was repelled.

*Muhammad Adil Shah* (1626—1650). After the death of Sultan Ibrahim, his eldest son was crowned but was blinded and deposed. Mustafa Khan, a powerful general, then set up on the throne Muhammad who was fifteen years old. Very soon serious differences arose between Mustafa and Randaula Khan, a famous general, the former favouring subordination to the Mughals and the latter opposing it. The Mugal emperor Shah Jahan sent Asaf Khan against Bijapur in 1631. The Khan took Balki and Gulburga and laid siege to Bijapur itself. He was obliged, however, to raise the siege on account of a famine and shortage of

supplies and retreated through Miraj and Sholapur. Next year another Mogul general, Mahabat Khan, took Parenda and made it an imperial outpost. In 1636 Shah Jahan demanded fresh submission by Bijapur, expulsion of all the Marathas who had recently helped Ahmadnagar and payment of an annual tribute of two million *huns*. Shahji Bhonsla, the father of the great Sivaji, entered Bijapur service about this time. Aurangzeb was the Mugal viceroy in the Dakkan between 1637—44 and this was an uneventful period. So the Sultan, having no worry from the Mughals, turned his attention to the south. Venkata-pati III, the Raya, was engrossed in troubles. Randaula Khan invaded Malnad and Karnataka and annexed large tracts of land. The chief of Ikkeri was subjugated and Vellore, the headquarters of the Raya, was threatened. The north-eastern part of the Karnul district was also annexed. In 1646 the Sultan had to face a new danger. Sivaji, son of Shahji, the Bijapur governor of Karnataka, became aggressive and captured his father's estates including important strongholds like Torna, Chakan, Kondana, Supa and Purandhar. He then entered Bijapur territory and took many forts like Kalyan. The Sultan imprisoned Shahji as a measure of retaliation but Sivaji got his father released through the intervention of Shah Jahan. Aurangzeb returned to the Dakkan as its viceroy once again in 1651. Sivaji became more aggressive and took some more forts in the Sultan's territory. Muhammad Adil Shah died amidst these troubles in 1656.

*Ali Adil Shah II* (1656—1672). This Sultan succeeded to the Adil Shahi throne as a youth of eighteen years. He had to face many difficulties and powerful enemies. Aurangzeb, the Mugal viceroy, who was waiting for an opportunity to pounce upon Bijapur, wrote to the emperor that Ali was not the rightful heir, and that the state of Bijapur has lapsed to the empire. Shah Jahan

ordered the invasion of Bijapur. Aurangzeb marched against Bijapur territory in 1657 and took Bidar, Kalyani and Gulburga. He reached Bijapur and besieged the city. The emperor came to know the truth about the claims of Ali Adil Shah and ordered his son to stop fighting and make peace. It was agreed that the Mugals should retain all their conquests and receive a heavy indemnity from Bijapur. Very soon after this Aurangzeb was involved in the war of succession and ascended the Mugal throne in 1658. Meanwhile Sivaji continued his aggressions. The Sultan despatched Afzal Khan against him but that general came to grief. More forts were taken by the Maratha leader. At last in 1661 Shahji arranged a truce between his son and the Sultan. Aurangzeb, now the Mugal emperor, sent Raja Jay Singh in 1666 to invade Bijapur. Two years later Ali was compelled to cede to the emperor Sholapur and its territory.

*Sikandar* (1672—1686). This was the last of the Sultans of Bijapur. He came to the throne when five years old. The kingdom was held by four powerful generals who were at war with each other. Sivaji took advantage of it and captured Panhala, Visalghad and other forts in Bijapur territory and crowned himself in 1673. Five years later he made a treaty with the Sultan of Golconda for the partitioning of Karnataka. Meanwhile the anti-Mugal element became stronger at Bijapur. The Mugals were annexing bits of Bijapur territory between 1684—1685. Finally, Aurangzeb ordered the last Mugal siege of Bijapur and the city was surrounded on 11 April, 1685. The emperor himself came to the city on 13 July, 1685 and prosecuted the siege vigorously. The city surrendered on 22 September. Sultan Sikandar was captured and granted a pension of one lakh. He died in 1700 at Satara. This was the end of the Adil Shahi kingdom of Bijapur.

## GOLCONDA

*Sultan Quli* (1518—1543). The Qutb Shahi kingdom of Golconda was founded by Sultan Quli, an inhabitant of Hamdan, in Persia, who migrated to the Bahmani kingdom. Sultan Muhammad Shah IV enrolled him in his body-guard. Sultan Quli rose from position to position and became the Governor of Telingana with his headquarters at Golconda. He was a trusted official of the Sultan and remained loyal to him, though other grantees of the kingdom proclaimed their independence. At last out of disgust Sultan Quli declared himself an independent ruler in 1518. This was the time when the famous Vijayanagara emperor Krishnadevaraya had finished his conquests on the east coast and returned to his capital. Sitapati, Raja of Khammammet, was powerful in Telingana. Sultan Quli went to war with him and captured Ghanpara and Kovilkonda and the districts of Ellore and Bezwada on the east coast. In 1530 after the death of Krishnaraya, the Sultan attacked Kondavidu. Two years later the Adil Shah and the Nizam Shah made a treaty according to which the former was empowered to occupy Bidar and Golconda. The two rulers besieged Nalgonda in Golconda territory in 1534 but the siege was raised suddenly on account of Ibrahim Adil Shah's illness. Sultan Quli lived to the ripe old age of ninety-two and was assassinated at the instigation of his son Jamshid on 2 September, 1543.

*Jamshid* (1543—1550). This Sultan further expanded the Golconda kingdom by annexing Kaulas and Ashunabad. Alarmed at the growing power of Bijapur Jamshid joined the combination organised by the Raya and the Nizam Shah and invaded Bijapur with his two allies. Asad Khan, the Bijapur minister, defeated him twice, destroyed his fort of Kakni and pursued him up to the gates of Golconda. After the death of Jamshid in 1550



the foreign section enthroned his son Subhan, a mere boy and made Saif Khan, the regent. The other nobles and the Naigwaris defied the new Sultan and invited Ibrahim, brother of Jamshid, who was a refugee at Vijayanagara, to come and take the Qutb Shahi throne.

*Ibrahim* (1550—1580). This Sultan was a younger son of Sultan Quli. He fled from Golconda on the accession of Jamshid and ultimately reached Vijayanagara, where Ramaraya, the *de facto* ruler, treated him kindly. After ascending the throne he made Jagadevarao, the leader of the Naigwaris, the minister. Sultan Ibrahim had an eventful reign. He followed the traditional policy of maintaining the balance between Bijapur and Ahmadnagar. In 1558 there was a dispute between the two states about Sholapur. Ramaraya of Vijayanagara helped Ali Adil Shah and together they invaded Ahmadnagar. At Ramaraya's instance Ibrahim joined the allies. While the siege was in progress Ibrahim started secret negotiations with the Nizam Shah and deserted the allies. He induced Ramaraya to raise the siege and promised to cede him Kondapalli on the east coast. Then he joined the Nizam Shah and besieged Kalyani in Bijapur territory. Ramaraya proceeded against Kalyani and despatched his brother, Venkatadri, to ravage the southern districts of Golconda territory. On his return march Ramaraya halted at Tarpully, very near Golconda, and devastated the neighbourhood. The Vijayanagara governor of Kondavidu was instructed to occupy Kondapalli and Masulipatam in Golconda dominions. Sitapati and Vidiadri, two enemies of Golconda, were induced to invade Ellore and Rajahmundry. Taking advantage of this, Ibrahim sent an army against Kondavidu and himself proceeded in that direction through the Karnul district. The Vijayanagara subordinates defeated both the Muslim armies, crossed the Krishna and took a number of enemy forts. At the instance of their

leader the Naigwaris surrendered Kovilkonda, Panagal and Ganpara. At last Ibrahim sued for peace. He got back Kovilkonda. In 1561 Husain Nizam Shah gave his daughter in marriage to Ibrahim and concluded a strong alliance. Then he besieged Kalyani. The rulers of Bijapur, Berar, Bidar and Vijayanagara opposed the besiegers and defeated them. Then they besieged Ahmadnagar for a second time. Ibrahim realised the danger of inviting Ramaraja frequently to interfere in the affairs of the Sultans and organised a confederacy of the Muslim rulers. Then came the battle of Rakkas-Tagadi or Tallikota near the confluence of the Krishna and the Malaprabha. The defeat of the Vijayanagara armies in the battle of Tallikota crippled the Hindu empire of the south. The Rayas of the Aravidu dynasty, which came into power, were beset by numerous troubles. The Sultans of Bijapur and Golconda took advantage of this and appropriated the territories of the empire by systematic conquest. Prataparudra Gajapati, the king of Orissa, died about this time and his dominions were also plunged into confusion. Ibrahim Qutb Shah took advantage of both these events and made annexations both in the south and the east. Even before the battle of Tallikota, he had despatched two expeditions to the east coast and conquered the Rajahmundry region. After his return from the battle he sent some more invasions and made conquests upto Kasimkota. He started the conquest of Vijayanagara territory on the coast in 1579. His general Murahari Rao crossed the Krishna, entered Karnul and took many forts in the eastern part of that district. Another Golconda general, Hyder-ul-Mulk, proceeded towards Kondavidu and captured many strongholds in the Guntur and Nellore districts.

*Muhammad Quli* (1580—1612). This Sultan continued the policy of his predecessor and sent repeated invasions into the trans-Godavary region. A certain Mukunda Bahu-

balendra became powerful in that region and reconquered the greater part of the Vizagapatam and Ganjam districts. Sultan Muhammad fought with him and acquired his territory up to Kasimkota. In the south he enlarged the Qutb Shahi dominions in the Cudapa and Karnul districts taking advantage of the troubles of the Vijayanagara ruler, Venkata II, in 1580. In 1591 Akbar, the great Mugal emperor, sent a mission to Golconda and Bijapur asking for their admission. Sultan Muhammad flattered the vanity of the emperor by sending rich presents. He built a new city named Bhagnagar which afterwards became famous as Hyderabad. He erected the Char Minar in 1593. An embassy was received by him from the court of Persia.

*Muhammad* (1612—1626). As Sultan Muhammad Quli had no direct heirs, his son-in-law Muhammad was enthroned after him. He was a contemporary of the Mugal emperor Jahangir. The Mugals invaded Ahmadnagar and its ruler appealed to the other Muslim rulers of the Dakkan for help in 1617. Sultan Muhammad and the Adil Shah of Bijapur responded to this appeal and helped Malik Ambar of Ahmadnagar. The Mugals defeated Malik Ambar in 1620 and took Ahmadnagar. Jahangir collected a fine of five million rupees from Bijapur and Golconda as punishment for their aid to Ahmadnagar. This Mugal conquest of the northern Sultanate was soon followed by the rebellion of Shah Jahan against his father Jahangir. Sultan Muhammad prudently refused to help this rebel prince.

*Abdulla* (1626—1672). Sultan Muhammad was succeeded by his son Abdulla. Shah Jahan, the contemporary Mugal emperor, pursued a vigorous policy of aggression towards the Dakkan states. Abdulla pursued a policy of caution and conciliation towards the Mugals. In 1636 the emperor stationed Mugal troops on the Golconda border and demanded that the Shia practices at Golconda should be discontinued and that the Shah of Persia's name should be

removed from the daily prayers. Shah Jahan also commanded that his own name should be included in the Friday prayers and that coins should be struck in his name. Golconda was also required to pay an annual tribute of two lakh *huns* and help the Mugals whenever Bijapur attacked them. Sultan Abdulla complied with all these demands and made peace with Shah Jahan. He then turned his attention to the south. Alarmed at the rapidity with which Bijapur was enlarging its dominions in Karnataka, the Sultan sent an invasion into that region and annexed Armugam and Pulicat to the south of Nellore. His famous minister, Mir Jumla, led another invasion in 1644 and conquered large tracts in the Karnul district. Next year the general annexed Nellore and Cudapa. In 1648 Mir Jumla took another expedition to the south and annexed the Chingelput district, winning the battle of Wandiwash against the Nayaks of Madura and Mysore. By 1656 Mir Jumla's power and influence became a menace. The Sultan commanded him to transfer all his conquests in the south to the state and on his refusal arrested his son. Mir Jumla appealed to Aurangzeb, the Mugal viceroy in the Dakkan. Aurangzeb obtained the permission of Shah Jahan and sent his own son Prince Muhammad with an army against Golconda. The prince came to Hyderabad and the Sultan fled to his capital and shut himself up in the citadel. Aurangzeb himself arrived subsequently and besieged Golconda. Sultan Abdullah sent envoys to the emperor offering allegiance and protesting against the high-handed action of Aurangzeb. The emperor sent orders to his son commanding that the siege should be raised. Thus Golconda escaped danger for the time being.

*Abul Hasan* (1672—1687). Abdulla was succeeded by his son-in-law Abul Hasan, popularly known as Tana Shah. This Sultan was helped and advised by the Brahman brothers, Akkanna and Madanna. Sivaji, the great Maratha

king, came to Hyderabad in 1677 at the head of a large army and opened negotiations with Abul Hasan. A treaty was concluded and the Sultan agreed to finance Sivaji's project of conquering Karnataka. It was agreed that Bijapur also should be invited to join the alliance and the conquests equally divided. When Bijapur was invaded by Emperor Aurangzeb in 1685 Abul Hasan sent help to the Adil Shah. Aurangzeb sent a detachment of his troops under Prince Shah Alam against Golconda. The prince besieged the fort and Abul Hasan sued for peace. He paid one crore of rupees as indemnity and agreed to pay two lakhs of *huns* a year as tribute. He also ceded to the Mugals the forts of Serum and Malkhed and promised to dismiss Akkanna and Madanna, the Hindu advisers. Next year, after the conquest of Bijapur, Aurangzeb turned his attention towards Golconda. He led his armies in person and reached the city in January, 1687. Golconda was besieged and the Qutb Shahi forces fought valiantly. The siege lasted for eight months. At last Abul Hasan surrendered. He was captured and sent a prisoner to Daulatabad. The Golconda kingdom was annexed to the Mugal empire.

#### AHMADNAGAR

*Ahmad* (1490—1509). The independent Sultanate of Ahmadnagar was founded by Ahmad in 1490. He was at that time a governor of the Bahmani Sultan Muhammad Shah IV.

*Burhan I.* (1509—1552). This Sultan came frequently into conflict with the rulers of Bijapur. During the course of the struggle that ensued for the possession of the person of the unfortunate Bahmani Sultan, Muhammad Shah, between Amir Ali Barid of Bidar and Ismail Adil Shah of Bijapur, Burhan supported Amir Ali. Kalimullah, the last of the Bahmanis fled to Ahmadnagar in 1522 and died

there. The ancestors of Burhan hailed from Pathri, situated in Berar, and Burhan asked the Sultan of Berar to cede him that place in exchange for some territory. When the ruler of Berar refused Burhan took Pathri by force in 1518. In 1524 Ismail Adil Shah gave his sister in marriage to Burhan but this matrimonial alliance led to a quarrel between the two rulers on account of Sholapur which was supposed to form part of the dowry of the Bijapur princess. Burhan obtained help from Bidar and Berar and invaded Bijapur next year. Ismail tried to break up this combination by giving another of his sisters in marriage to the Sultan of Berar and helped him to reconquer Pathri. Burhan and the ruler of Bidar invaded Berar, recaptured Pathri and took Mahur in addition. The Sultan of Berar invited Bahadur, the powerful ruler of Guzerat, to come to his help. Bahadur took Ahmadnagar and Daultabad and returned to Guzerat inflicting a humiliating peace on Burhan. Ismail Adil Shah invaded Kalyani and Kandhar and defeated Burhan. These two rulers made a treaty in 1532 agreeing that Burhan should annex Berar and that Ismail should take Bidar. Enmity broke out soon when Burhan renewed his alliance with Bidar. He invaded Bijapur territory in 1542 and took Parenda, Sholapur and Belgaum. He was defeated, however, in the battle of Gulburga. The Nizam Shah then changed his policy. In 1543 he turned towards Vijayanagara, formed an alliance with Ramaraja and induced him to invade Bijapur from the south while he himself attacked it from the north. The same tactics were repeated next year. In 1547 the allies invaded Sholapur and Kalyani. Five years later Burhan helped Ramaraja to take the doab and himself took Sholapur and ravaged Bijapur.

*Husain* (1553—1565). There was a disputed succession at Ahmadnagar after the death of Burhan Nizam Shah. The leaders of two rival factions reached Bijapur and

induced Ibrahim Adil Shah to invade Ahmadnagar in 1554. Husain repelled this invasion with the help of the Sultan of Berar. Ali Adil Shah, who succeeded Ibrahim, changed the policy, made an alliance with Ramaraya and sought his help, in reconquering Sholapur. Husain married a sister of the ruler of Berar and strengthened his position through this alliance. Ramraya with the Sultans of Bijapur and Golconda invaded Ahmadnagar in 1558, defeated Husain and inflicted a humiliating treaty upon him. Sholapur and Kalyani were taken. Husain made another attempt to strengthen himself by giving his daughter in marriage to Ibrahim Qutb Shah. Ramaraya and Ali Adil Shah invaded Ahmadnagar again in 1562, and inflicted another defeat on Husain. When Ibrahim Qutb Shah organised a confederacy against Ramaraya in 1563 Husain joined it. A double alliance was concluded between the Bijapur and Ahmadnagar rulers. A sister of Ali Adil Shah was married to Murtaza, son of Husain and Chand Bibi, daughter of Husain, was married to Ali Adil. Husain died soon after his return from the battle of Tallikota in 1565.

*Murtaza II.* (1565—1588). This Sultan invited Ali Adil to help him in the conquest of Berar quoting the treaty of 1532 but the Adil Shah deserted him during the course of the invasion in 1566. Hence Murtaza invaded the Adil Shahi dominion next year, took Kondhana and Bir and defeated the Bijapur forces in the battle of Dharur. These two rulers patched up their quarrels in 1570 and invaded Goa and Chaul but were defeated by the Portuguese. Murtaza then resumed his conquest of Berar in 1572, besieged Narnala for two years and completed the annexation of that state. He was murdered by his son Husain in 1588.

*Sultans.* Husain, the patricide, had hardly been on the throne a year when he was deposed and murdered by his

nobles. Ismail, a nephew of Murtaza, was then enthroned. He fell into the hands of Jamal Khan, a Muslim of the Mahdavi sect, who introduced his own religion. Ibrahim II of Bijapur invaded Ahmadnagar and rescued his widowed sister from the clutches of this fanatic. Meanwhile Burhān, father of the Sultan, invaded Ahmadnagar, killed Jamal Khan in the battle of Rohankhed, captured the Sultan and usurped the throne in 1591. During his short rule of four years, Sultan Burhan restored the Shia faith and recalled all the foreign Muslims who had left the state on the accession of Ismail. When Burhan died in 1595, Ibrahim, another son of his, was enthroned. This unfortunate ruler invaded Bijapur and was killed in an encounter. Chaos and confusion engulfed Ahmadnagar after this event. Chand Bibi returned and tried to evolve order out of this confusion. But the situation became worse. Chand Bibi set up Bahadur, an infant son of Ibrahim, as the Sultan. Ikhlās Khan, a powerful general, proclaimed another claimant named Ahmed. The African party sponsored the claims of an anonymous individual named Moti Sha. Manju, another rival leader, appealed to prince Murad, son of the Emperor Akbar and the governor of Guzerat, to intervene in the affairs of Ahmadnagar. Akbar, who was waiting for this opportunity, commanded the prince to invade the state. The Mugal army came and besieged Ahmadnagar. The Sultans of Bijapur and Golconda sent help but it was ineffective. Ultimately Chand Bibi sued for peace and agreed to surrender Berar to the Mughals. Murad raised the siege and left for Guzerat. There was some trouble during the course of the Mugal occupation of Berar and so the imperial troops invaded Ahmadnagar state once again in 1599. The emperor and Prince Daniyal besieged Asirgarh. Meanwhile Chand Bibi was murdered at Ahmadnagar. The



Mugals invaded the city in April, 1600 and took it. Bahadur was sent a prisoner to Gwalior.

*Murtaza II.* (1608—1630). There was peace in Ahmadnagar till 1608. In that year Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian slave, rose to power and set up Murtaza as the Sultan in the southern part of the Ahmadnagar state which was not occupied by the Mugals. Ambar exhibited remarkable tact and ability. He reorganised the administration and cowed down Bijapur, Bidar and Golconda. He employed the Maratha guerillas in his armies. He then captured Ahmadnagar city from the Mugal subordinates and obtained Kandhar from Bijapur. Taking advantage of the pre-occupation of Jahangir, the contemporary Mugal emperor, Ambar reconquered the Ahmadnagar territory and the southern districts of Berar. He then attacked Burhanpur and Mandu in Mugal territory. Jahangir sent Shah Jahan to the Dakkan. The prince advanced up to Paithan on the Godavary and Ambar sued for peace. The Mugal prince left the Dakkan in 1622. Malik Ambar took advantage of it, attacked Golconda and levied a subsidy from that state. He also plundered Bidar and besieged Bijapur. A Mugal army ultimately rescued these states from the depredations of Malik Ambar. This great general died in 1626. Fath Khan, son of Ambar, then took charge of the Sultan and Hamid Khan, the Minister, induced the Mugal general Khan Jahan to surrender Ahmadnagar and the southern districts of Berar. Alarmed at this Shah Jahan invaded Ahmadnagar in 1630 A.D. Doubtful of the loyalty of the Sultan, Fath Khan killed him and enthroned his young son Husain.

*Husain III.* (1630—1633). The Mugals besieged Daulatabad wherein Fath Khan and the new Sultan took refuge. Fath Khan surrendered in 1633 and was allowed to walk out of the citadel with the puppet Sultan. The state of Ahmadnagar was annexed to the Mugal empire.

*Murtaza III* (1536). Shahji Bhonsla, the powerful Maratha Jagirdar, set up Murtaza, a scion of the Nizam Shahi family, as Sultan and opposed the Mugals. Khan Zaman, the Mugal general, took all the Jagirs of Shahji and captured his protégé, Murtaza in 1636. Shahji surrendered. This was the end of the Nizam Shahi dynasty.

#### BERAR

The Immad Shahi kingdom of Berar was founded in 1490 and flourished till 1571 when it was conquered and annexed by Ahmadnagar. Subsequently it was ceded by that state to emperor Akbar.

*Fatullah*. (1490—1504). This sultan founded the state, defying Muhammad Shah Bahmani IV. The only event of importance in his reign was an alliance with Guzerat in 1493 against Bahadur Gilani who was plundering Guzerat ships on the Arabian Sea.

*Allauddin*. (1504—1529). This sultan refused to join the *Jihad* declared by the other Muslim rulers against Ismail Adil who introduced the Shia faith in his state. When the Adil Shah invaded Ahmadnagar in 1510 in order to replace Burhan Nizam Shah, Allauddin helped him but the allies were defeated in the battle of Rahuri. Allauddin fled to Khandesh and his kingdom was laid waste by the Bijapur armies.

*Darya*. (1529—1561). This sultan was drawn into the prolonged conflict between Bijapur and Ahmadnagar. At first in 1542 he joined the Adil Shah against the Nizam Shah and the Barid Shah but changed sides and helped Ahmadnagar. He was defeated in the battle of Sonpet. Subsequently, Husain Nizam Shah married the daughter of Sultan Darya and strengthened the alliance. During the first siege of Ahmadnagar by Bijapur and its allies he stood by the Nizam Shah but was defeated. When

in 1562 Kalyani was besieged by the combined armies of Ahmadnagar and Golconda, Darya prudently joined Bijapur, Bidar and Ramaraya in the counter siege.

*Burhan.* (1529—1561). This sultan was placed on the throne while yet an infant. Tufal Khan, the minister, was the *de facto* ruler. He refused to join the other Muslim rulers on the eve of the battle of Tallikota in 1565. After the battle was over the Adil Shah and the Nizam Shah invaded Berar in order to punish the state. They penetrated up to Ellichpur, the capital. Tufal Khan offered the Adil Shah fifty elephants and a large sum of money and bought him off. Ahmadnagar and Bijapur made a treaty in 1571 and under it Ahmadnagar was to annex Berar. Accordingly the Nizam Shah invaded Berar. Tufal Khan offered resistance but was pursued from place to place. In the end he and the young Sultan shut themselves up in the fort of Narnala. The Nizam Shah laid siege to it for two years. Finally the fort surrendered in 1574. Tufal Khan and the Sultan were captured and imprisoned. Berar was annexed to Ahmadnagar.

### BIDAR

The Sultanate of Bidar was founded by Amir Ali Barid in 1490 and flourished till 1620 when it was annexed by Bijapur.

*Amir Ali.* (1490—1542). This first Sultan was famous as 'the Fox of the Dakkan'. He functioned as an independent ruler after the flight of Kalimullah, the last Bahmani Sultan, to Ahmadnagar. Surrounded by powerful states Bidar had to make frantic efforts to preserve its independence and individuality. Amir Ali was afraid of Bijapur and helped the Nizam Shah in his fights with Bijapur for the possession of Sholapur and Pathri. Ismail Adil Shah invaded Bidar in 1527 and confined Amir

Ali in the fortress of Udgir. He was captured and humbled by the Adil Shah, and compelled to surrender Bidar to him after the death of Krishnaraya in 1530. When the Adil Shah succeeded in taking the doab, he restored Bidar to Amir Ali in exchange for Kalyani and Kandhar. The Sultan of Bidar continued the Bijapur alliance and helped Ismail Adil Shah in his siege of Nalgonda in 1534. Subsequently, however, he changed sides and befriended the Nizam Shah. He helped him in the capture of Parenda, Sholapur and Belgaum and in the burning of Bijapur. He shared with the Nizam Shah the crushing defeats at Gulbarga and Daulatabad. He fled to the hills and died among them in 1542.

*Ali Barid.* (1542—79). This Sultan joined the alliance between Golconda and Vijayanagara and took part in the allied attack against Bijapur territory in 1543. The Nizam Shah invaded Bidar in 1544 as a measure of retaliation and took Ausa, Udgir and Kandhar. Once again Ali went over to the side of Bijapur. He helped the Adil Shah in the first siege of Ahmadnagar. He also joined the combination of Muslim rulers in 1564 and took an active part in the battle of Tallikota.

*Ibrahim* (1579—1620). This ruler was the last of independent Sultans of Bidar. Bijapur annexed Bidar in 1620 and with that the Barid Shahi dynasty came to an end.

## CHAPTER XVI

### THE MUGALS AND THE MARATHAS

WHILE the independent Sultanates of the Dakkan were pursuing their careers of internecine warfare, events of far-reaching consequences were taking place in the Dakkan. Akbar, the great Mugal emperor, consolidated the position of his family and expanded his dominion all over Northern India by conquest and statesmanship. He was waiting for an opportunity to expand his empire into the Dakkan. The disturbed politics and intense party strife in the state of Ahmadnagar gave him the opportunity to interfere in Dakkan politics and this paved the way for the Mugal conquest of this region. As Mugal expansion and aggression in the Dakkan assumed more and more serious proportions in the seventeenth century, another powerful factor, the Marathas, rose into prominence. Ultimately Dakkan history in this century assumed less and less the shape of Mugal conquest of the Dakkan states and more and more the nature of a deadly Mugal-Maratha contest.

#### AKBAR

The State of Ahmadnagar was torn asunder by party factions in the closing years of the sixteenth century. Rival parties set up rival Sultans and embarked on a bitter struggle. Ultimately Murad, the Mugal prince and the Governor of Guzerat, was requested to intervene. Akbar, who was anxiously waiting for this opportunity, accorded ready sanction. Khan Khanan was to invade Ahmadnagar from Malva and Murad from Guzerat. The Mugal armies entered the state and laid siege to the capital in 1597. Finding resistance useless Chand Bibi offered to cede Berar to the Mugals and the siege of Ahmadnagar was raised.

This only led to further troubles. The Mugals proceeded at once to occupy Berar but met with considerable opposition. The Bijapur forces which came to the rescue of Ahmadnagar were defeated in the battle of Sonpet. Prince Murad died in May, 1599 and this was followed by troubles in the Mugal army. The soldiers became mutinous and many Mugal conquests were lost. Akbar offered the command of the Dakkan forces to prince Salim but the latter declined the offer. Prince Daniyal was then sent to the Dakkan and arrived here in January, 1600. Akbar himself moved down to Burhanpur in order to be nearer the scene of action. The Mugals encountered stiff opposition from the ruler of Khandesh and besieged Asirgarh. Abul Fazl was appointed governor of this region and the imperial forces focussed their full attention on Ahmadnagar. Chand Bibi, the gallant defender of the city, was murdered and the city was left in a helpless condition. The Mugal forces ultimately reduced the city on 28 April. Further progress of Mugal aggression was stopped on account of the rebellion of Salim and the consequent departure of the emperor to the north.

### JAHANGIR

Jahangir's reign witnessed more fighting with the state of Ahmadnagar. The emperor was preoccupied with troubles during the early years of his reign. Taking advantage of it Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian slave, proclaimed Murtaza, as the Nizam Shah and began consolidating what remained of the Ahmadnagar state. Jahangir was comparatively free by 1608 and despatched Man Singh to the Dakkan in that year to safeguard Mugal interests. Prince Parvez, Asad Khan and Khan Khanan were sent next year but the Mugal generals quarrelled among themselves. Malik Ambar took full advantage of this situation and reconquered the city of Ahmadnagar from a Mugal

commander. In 1611 the emperor despatched a large army to the Dakkan under Khan Jahan, Man Singh and Abdulla Khan. The Maratha guerillas of Malik Ambar defeated Abdulla and chased him into Guzerat. The Mugal armies suffered many other defeats. Events took a more serious turn by 1616. Malik Ambar gathered greater strength and obtained help from the southern Sultanates. The Mugal general Shah Nawaz led a vigorous attack and defeated him in the battle of Roshangon near Jalna. After the departure of this general to the north Ambar recaptured many strongholds. At last Jahangir sent Prince Khurram to the Dakkan. Khurram surrounded Ambar on all sides and pressed on him. Finally Malik Ambar submitted and agreed to surrender Ahmadnagar, Ahmadabad, Burhanpur and the Balaghat. The Sultan of Bijapur also tendered his submission. Jahangir was immensely pleased with the achievements of Khurram and conferred upon him the title of 'Shah Jahan.' After the departure of this Mugal Prince Malik Ambar asserted himself once again and reconquered the lost territory. Aided by the Sultans of Bijapur and Golconda he harassed even Burhanpur and Mandu in Mugal territory. Shah Jahan was sent to the Dakkan once again in 1620. He destroyed Khirki, the new capital of the Nizam Shah and reconquered much of the territory taken by Malik Ambar. He restored peace and order and reorganized the administration of Mugal Dakkan. He returned to the north in 1621 and was afterwards engrossed by serious rivalry with Nurjahan. Meanwhile Ambar became aggressive and undid the work of Shah Jahan. He was able to secure a valuable ally in Shahji of the Bhonsla family, who was destined to play a prominent part in subsequent years. Three years later Shah Jahan rebelled against his father and ran to the Dakkan as a fugitive. Malik Ambar offered him hospitality and used him in his campaigns against the Mugals.

Alarmed at this Jahangir despatched a strong force to the Dakkan and a Bijapur contingent also came to its help. Akbar defeated the allies in the battle of Bhatavdi in November, 1624. He died two years later and prince Parvez too died very soon. Khan Jahan was then sent as Mugal governor of the Dakkan.

### SHAH JAHAN

Events of remarkable importance took place in the Dakkan during the reign of Shah Jahan. Khan Jahan Lodi, a Mugal general, was commissioned by the emperor to recover the Balaghat region from the Sultan of Ahmadnagar but could not do so. He was therefore replaced by Mahabat Khan. Khan Jahan suspected the emperor's good faith and rose in rebellion in 1629. Defeated in northern India he fled to the Dakkan and sought the protection of the Nizam Shah. The ruler of Ahmadnagar received him warmly and assigned to him the strong fortress of Bir. Shah Jahan came to the Dakkan in order to put down this rebellion. He sent one army to the Guzerat border and another to Telingana in order to prevent supplies and succour from reaching the rebels. The bulk of the Mugal army was concentrated in southern Berar. A Mugal contingent besieged Bir and drove out Khan Jahan. The Khan then took refuge at Daulatabad. Another Mugal army surrounded Ahmadnagar and ravaged its neighbourhood. Alarmed at this the Nizam Shah drove the Khan out of Daulatabad. The rebel was pursued wherever he went, defeated in two engagements and was finally killed in a third encounter in 1631.

The operations against Khan Jahan brought the Mughals inevitably into conflict with Murtaza Nizam Shah. Azam Khan launched a campaign against the Ahmadnagar state and took Dharur and Parenda while another general, Nasir Khan, captured Kandhar and cleared Berar of all enemies.



Nasik and Sangamner also fell. In the midst of these victories Shah Jahan sustained a serious loss in the death of his wife, Mumtaz Mahal, in June, 1631 and returned to his capital, leaving Asaf Khan in charge of the war. Very soon after the emperor's departure Fath Khan, son of Malik Ambar, killed Murtaza Nizam Shah and set up Husain as the Sultan of Ahmadnagar. He then opened negotiations with Asaf Khan for his own personal advancement. Asaf Khan was replaced by Mahabat Khan who, in 1633, besieged Daulatabad and forced Fath Khan and his protégé, Husain Nizam Shah, to surrender. The unfortunate prince was taken prisoner and sent to Gwalior and the state of Ahmadnagar was annexed to the Mugal empire.

These Dakkan campaigns also brought the Mughals into conflict with the Marathas. A number of Maratha leaders like the Jadhavs and the Ghorpades were occupying influential positions in the states of Bijapur and Ahmadnagar. The Bhonslas purchased a number of villages near Verul and many lands between the Godavary and the Bhima. Maloji of this family was patronised by the Nizam Shah and assigned a jagir between Poona and Supa. Maloji was succeeded in 1621 A.D. by his famous son Shahji who continued in the service of Ahmadnagar. Malik Ambar recognised the talents and ability of Shahji and made him a close confederate. In 1625 A.D. Shahji fell out with Ambar and joined service under the Sultan of Bijapur. Fath Khan, who came to power after the death of his father, Malik Ambar, recalled Shahji. Shahji served Murtaza Nizam Shah faithfully for four years. When Murtaza got Lukhji Jadav, the father-in-law of Shahji, assassinated in 1630, Shahji went over to the Mugal side and accepted a Mansab from Shah Jahan together with many jagirs. When in 1632 Fath Khan murdered Murtaza Nizam Shah the Mugal governor of the Dakkan assigned to him as a reward the jagirs previously given to Shahji.

Provoked by this injustice Shahji deserted the Mugals and went over to Bijapur. He offered to capture Daulatabad and make it over to the Adil Shah and obtained a Bijapur army. By the time, Shahji arrived at Daulatabad, the fort was already being besieged by the Mugals and his efforts to divert the siege proved futile. The fort finally surrendered to the Mugals in June, 1633 and Husain Nizam Shah was taken prisoner. Undaunted by this Shahji decided upon opposing the Mugals. He fetched a scion of the ruling family of Ahmadnagar and proclaimed him king. The Mugal general Mahabat Khan took up this challenge and conducted a number of campaigns against the Maratha chieftain. Shahji moved from place to place with his protégé and eluded him. Shah Jahan himself came to the Dakkan once again in 1636 A.D. and camped at Daulatabad. He sent an army against Bijapur and threatened to extinguish the state. The rival parties in that state made up their differences and came to terms with the emperor. They agreed to desert Shahji and help the Mugals in putting him down. Having thus weaned away this powerful ally, the emperor ordered his armies to pursue Shahji vigorously. Important forts like Ausa, Udgir, Junnar and Poona were taken and Shahji was besieged in Mahuli. Having no other alternative, the Maratha chieftain submitted in 1637. He was allowed to retain some jagirs to the south of the Godavary and to join Bijapur service. His protégé the Nizam Shah, was captured. This was the first trial of strength between the Mugals and the Marathas and it ended in triumph for the former.

Shah Jahan sent his son Aurangzeb as Viceroy to the Dakkan in 1637 and the prince stayed here till 1644. This period was uneventful. Aurangzeb's attention was concentrated on the course of events at the capital and he took very little interest in the affairs of the Dakkan. He left the Dakkan suddenly in 1644 and went to the

capital in order to see his sister who had a serious burning accident.

The departure of Aurangzeb coincided with the rise of the great Maratha leader Sivaji to fame. Born of Shahji Bhonsla and his first wife, Jijabai, in 1627 he spent many years wandering from place to place along with his father who was then evading the armies of Shah Jahan. Ultimately, after making peace with the Mugals, Shahji sent Jijabai and Sivaji in 1637 to live at Poona under the care of Dadaji Khondadev. Here Sivaji grew up under the inspiration of his pious mother and secured the loyalty and devotion of the Mavlis. Dadaji gave his young ward valuable training in the management of Shahji's Jagirs. Sivaji was impressed even at this young age with the urgent need for the liberation of the country from foreign yoke and the preservation of Hindu religion and culture. He paid a visit to his father Shahji at Bangalore where he was the Bijapur Viceroy and heard glorious accounts of the empire of Vijayanagara. This added fresh strength to his determination to free the country from Muslim oppression. Sivaji was disgusted with his father for the latter's devotion to the State of Bijapur in spite of the anti-Hindu policy of its rulers. Returning to Poona, Sivaji gathered and trained a small army and consolidated his resources. He was in possession of all the jagirs of his father in the Poona district yielding a revenue of 40,000 *huns*. He made his first debut in 1644 and captured the fort of Torna. With the money that was obtained in this raid he built the fort of Rajghad. Encouraged by this success he made repeated raids and captured Chakan, Purandhar, Supa, Baramati and Javli by 1656, and more than doubled his territory and income. While Sivaji was thus marching from victory to victory Aurangzeb was sent to the Dakkan as its viceroy for the second time in 1651 and stayed on till 1658. He was busy during this period in

reorganising the administration of the Mugal Dakkan and strengthening his own resources for the future fight for the Mugal throne. He set his greedy eyes on Bijapur and Golconda which were gradually decaying and decided upon appropriating their wealth for his own aggrandisement. Since Sivaji's depredations into Bijapur territory served his purpose admirably Aurangzib did not take serious notice of Sivaji's aggressions. Sivaji too prudently avoided conflict with the Mugals at this stage. Taking advantage of Aurangzeb's invasion of Bijapur in 1656, after the death of Muhammad Adil Shah, Sivaji launched another offensive against Bijapur, entered north Konkan and took Kalyan, Mahuli and other places. While the Mugals were still busy with the invasion of the Bidar region, Sivaji made bold and raided the districts of Ahmadnagar and Junnar in 1657. After the conclusion of the Bijapur campaign, the Mugals attacked Sivaji and he prudently submitted. Very soon after this incident Aurangzeb was involved in the war of succession and hence this first conflict between Sivaji and the Mugals ended without any serious consequences.

#### AURANGZEB

Aurangzeb emerged successful out of the war of succession with his brothers, seized the Mugal throne, deposed his father Shah Jahan and became the emperor in 1658. His long reign of nearly half a century was eventful and the Dakkan occupied much of his time and attention. The first half of the reign witnessed the bitter rivalry with Sivaji while in the latter half the emperor was in the Dakkan annexing Bijapur and Golconda and prosecuting a disastrous war with the Marathas.

Sivaji's success in north Konkan roused the indolent Sultan of Bijapur to action and Afzal Khan was sent to put down the troublesome Maratha. Sivaji met the Khan

at Pratapgad in 1659, killed him and routed his forces. He followed up this victory by entering south Konkan and occupying the Kolhapur district. In May, 1660 Aurangzeb sent his uncle Shayista Khan as governor of the Dakkan. The Khan occupied Poona and took Chakan. His efforts at occupying north Konkan proved fruitless and he rested at Poona. Meanwhile Sivaji made fresh conquests in south Konkan and strengthened his position. On 15 April, 1663 he made a raid on Poona with masterly cunning, surprised the Mugal army and put Shayista Khan to flight. Next year he attacked the city of Surat, plundered the English, Dutch and French factories and obtained a booty worth ten million rupees. Aurangzeb sent Raja Jaya Singh of Ambar to the Dakkan in 1665 in order to subjugate Sivaji. The Raja captured Purandhar and ravaged the neighbourhood. Finding resistance useless, Sivaji submitted to him and concluded the treaty of Purandhar on 22 June agreeing to surrender twenty-three forts, to recognise the suzerainty of the emperor and to send a Maratha contingent to aid Mugal campaigns in the Dakkan. In the third week of May, next year, Sivaji visited the Mugal court at the persuasion of Jaya Singh. Contrary to his expectations the great Maratha leader was imprisoned at Agra but escaped from the prison through a stratagem on 29 August and reached home after three months of wandering in the Mugal empire in disguise. For three years after this incident he kept the peace with the Mugals. Aurangzeb too reconciled himself to his powerful adversary, conferred on him the title of *Raja* and granted a jagir to his son, Sambhaji. Sivaji started a vigorous offensive against the Mugals in 1670 and recovered with marvellous rapidity all the forts ceded by him five years earlier. He then plundered Surat for a second time and obtained rich plunder. Encouraged by these successes he launched further attacks and raided the Mugal districts

of Baglan, Khandesh, Berar and Aurangabad capturing many important fortresses. He even fought many open battles with the Mugal armies and crushed them. Eminent Mugal generals like Dilir Khan and Bahadur Khan, failed to check this rapid expansion of Sivaji's territory. The death of Ali Adil Shah II of Bijapur in 1672 facilitated his further aggressions. Sivaji marked the climax of his glory and power by crowning himself in public at Rajghad on 16 June, 1674 and assuming the titles of *Chatrapati* and *Maharaja*. In 1677 he invaded Karnataka and conquered many places. This great Maratha succeeded in establishing and maintaining an independent state, *Swarajya*, in open defiance of the mighty Mugals and shattered the despondency of the people of the Dakkan. He passed away on 14 April, 1680.

Sivaji had two sons, Sambhaji and Rajaram, by two different wives. Soon after his death a powerful faction set up Rajaram as the Chatrapati, though Sambhaji, the elder was the rightful heir. After a few weeks' struggle Sambhaji gained the throne of his father. He continued Sivaji's policy of aggrandisement and rivalry with the Mugals. Burhanpur and Khandesh were raided in the early months of 1681. Prince Akbar, son of Aurangzeb, rebelled against his father and sought refuge at the Maratha court. Sambhaji invited a plague upon his head by giving shelter to this prince. Aurangzeb left Northern India in July, 1681 and reached the Dakkan in May of next year. He then launched a serious offensive against the Marathas and Prince Akbar. This fight was continued next year also. In 1684 Prince Shah Alam raided Konkan and inflicted severe losses on the Marathas, while other generals conquered many important forts. Sambhaji lapsed into a life of licentiousness and his court was torn into numerous factions. He was not able therefore to take advantage of the Mugal preoccupation with the siege of

Bijapur during 1685—87. Desultory fighting continued till 1689. In February of that year Sambhaji was captured at Sangamesvar and taken to the emperor along with his followers. Aurangzib got them tortured and finally put to death on 21 March.

The Marathas crowned Rajaram, the step-brother of Sambhaji, at Rajghad but the Mugals soon besieged it. Rajaram escaped to Ginjee in the south. The Mugals captured the fortress and took Sambhaji's son Sahu prisoner. Aurangzeb conquered Bijapur on 22 September, 1686 and Golconda on 2 October, 1687. He then proceeded to Brahmapuri on the river Bhima and stayed there for four years, occupying the southern districts of the two conquered states and keeping an eye on Rajaram. Meanwhile the Marathas recovered from their shock and a peoples' war was launched against the Mugals. Ramachandra Bavdekar, the Minister of Rajaram, assumed dictatorial powers and sent out numerous plundering expeditions. Santa and Dhana, two Maratha generals, entered Karnataka and harassed the Mugal armies there, to the relief of Rajaram who was besieged in Ginjee. After three years of strenuous effort the Mugals succeeded in taking Ginjee in January, 1698 but Rajaram escaped from it and reached Visalaghada in Maharashtra. The Maratha captains under the direction of Ramachandra turned the tables on the Mugals and recaptured a number of forts in their home land. They inflicted a crushing defeat on the enemy at Dodderi in December, 1695 and killed the famous Mugal general Qasim Khan. Another general, Himmat Khan, was defeated and killed in a battle at Basavapattana in January, 1696.

Rajaram died on 12 March, 1700 and there was a disputed succession. He had two wives, Tarabai, who begot Sivaji and Rajasbai, who begot Sambhaji. These queens crowned their respective sons as kings and the

Maratha captains ranged themselves on either side. The Marathas had by now practically recovered all their territories, from the Mugals and this civil war at this stage appeared ominous. Aurangzeb left his camp at Brahmapuri in the south, reached the neighbourhood of Satara and launched an offensive against the Marathas. Satara, Parli and Panhala were taken at great cost. Wardhangarh, Chandan, Nandgir and Vaudan fell next. Khelna and Sinhagad, Rajghad and Torna were also captured by 1704. In February, 1705 the emperor began the siege of another stronghold, Wagingere and captured it after four months of strenuous effort. This was his last victory on this side of the grave. He then marched to Ahmadnagar harassed by the enemy. The Marathas turned the tables once again and recovered all the forts taken by Aurangzeb at heavy cost and even surrounded his camp at Ahmadnagar. The aged and worn out emperor fell ill and died on 3 March, 1707.



## CHAPTER XVII

### THE PESHWAS AND THE NIZAMS

THE HISTORY of the Dakkan in the eighteenth century is of absorbing interest. The death of Aurangzeb constitutes an important turning point. The forces of disruption which were already active broke forth with terrible violence and the entire country was plunged into anarchy and confusion. There were frequent disputed successions at Delhi and the successors of the great emperor became mere pawns in the nefarious schemes of astute self-seekers. The Marathas revived rapidly after the death of Aurangzeb and the Peshwas assumed leadership of this virile nation and became, in a surprisingly short time, the dominant all-India power. In the south of the peninsula the French and the English traders started systematic aggrandisement on the one side and a deadly mutual warfare on the other. Nizam-ul Mulk, the Subedar of the Dakkan, constituted the Mugal subhas into an independent kingdom and pursued a career of expansion. For a long time the Peshwas and the Nizams carried on a bitter struggle and ultimately the English, who triumphed over all other rivals, subjugated the Nizam and obliterated the Peshwas.

Sahu, son of Sambhaji, was coronated Chatrapati on 12 January, 1708 having overcome the opposition of his aunt Tarabai. In the council of ministers constituted by him was an intelligent and brilliant Brahman named Balaji Visvanath who was made the Peshwa. Sahu was away for a long time from his home and unacquainted with the political trends of the Dakkan. Balaji Visvanath understood the situation very well and easily realised that Sahu was not likely to be an effective ruler and that the power of the Mugals in the north was fast crumbling. He exploited the situation to the fullest advantage and made

himself the most prominent man in Maharashtra. The emperor Bahadur Shah died in 1712 and Farruksiyar was raised to the throne. The new emperor was soon involved in troubles and the Sayyid brothers, Hasan Ali and Husain Ali, became his dreaded enemies. He made frantic appeals to Nizam-ul-Mulk and the Marathas to pull him out of the grip of his ministers. Balaji Visvanath negotiated a treaty with the unfortunate emperor proposing very advantageous terms, viz. that the *Swarajya* of Sivaji should be handed over to Sahu, that the Marathas should be permitted to collect the Chauth and the Sardeshmukhi in the six southern subhas, that they should supply the emperor 15000 troops in order to keep the peace and pay him an annual tribute of ten lakhs of rupees. Farruksiyar was deposed and Muhammad Shah became the emperor in February, 1719. The new emperor ratified the treaty made by Farruksiyar. Having thus re-established the political independence of Maharashtra and having forged the two mighty weapons of Chauth and Sardeshmukhi for the future Maratha aggression, Balaji Visvanath died on 2 April, 1720. He was succeeded by his famous son Bajirao I.

Important events were taking place elsewhere in the Dakkan. Chin Qilich Khan *alias* Nizamu-ul-Mulk was appointed Subedar of Mughal Dakkan by emperor Farruksiyar in 1713. Two years later he was recalled to Delhi, replaced by Husain Ali, one of the Sayyid brothers, and sent to Malva. In 1720 Nizam-ul-Mulk fell out with the Sayyid brothers, left Malva and reached the Dakkan. He took Asir and Burhanpur and defeated a pursuing army in the battle of Khanwa. Later he worsted the deputy of the Sayyid brothers, left Malva and reached the Dakkan. He was called back to Delhi once again after the fall of the Sayyid brothers and appointed by the emperor Muhammad Shah as the Vazier. He was, however, disgusted

with the emperor and his utter incapacity, left the capital, reached the Dakkan in June, 1724 and stayed at Aurangabad. The emperor instigated Mubariz Khan, the governor of Hyderabad, to drive away Nizam-ul-Mulk. The governor marched to the north and Nizam-ul-Mulk proceeded to the south. They met at the village of Sankarkedla and fought a decisive battle on 11 October. Mubariz Khan was defeated and killed. Nizam-ul-Mulk hereafter assumed the attitude of an independent ruler, shifted to Hyderabad on 16 January, 1725 and made it his capital. Muhammad Shah saved his grace by conferring on him the title of Asaf Jha and re-appointing him Subedar of the Dakkan.

The stage was thus set. Both Bajirao, the Peshwa and Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Nizam, were able men and both had high ambitions. Their states touched each other in the Dakkan and both had wide interests outside. There arose substantial grounds for conflict. The Marathas claimed the right to levy the Chauth and the Sardeshmukhi over the Nizam's dominions under the firman issued to them by the Mugal emperor in 1719 and the Nizam objected on the ground that this interfered with his authority. The Marathas claimed Karnataka on the ground that it was conquered by them in their struggle with Aurangzeb but the Nizam claimed it on the ground that it formed part of the Mugal empire in the south.

#### BAJI RAO VS. NIZAM-UL-MULK

Nizam-ul-Mulk was a shrewd man and realised that the Marathas would be his greatest enemies. He was a past master of diplomacy and intrigue and used both methods against these rivals. When Bajirao claimed arrears of Chauth in 1720 the Nizam instigated Sambhaji, the rival of Sahu and the ruler of Kolhapur, to make similar

demands and then evaded payment to either party. Sahu reacted by claiming the Nizam's territory between the Godavary and Ahmadabad. The Nizam resisted this claim. There was a minor skirmish in which the Marathas won. While Nizam-ul-Mulk was away at Delhi as Vazier, the Marathas gained Malva and Guzerat. In 1722 Nizam-ul-Mulk quarrelled with the emperor and left for Malva with a view to gaining that province and Guzerat. The Peshwa marched into Guzerat in order to oppose him. A clash was averted by prolonged diplomacy on both sides. The Marathas maintained strict neutrality in the struggle between Nizam-ul-Mulk and Mubariz Khan. The Marathas captured a number of places in Karnataka during 1725—27. The Nizam grew stronger after the battle of Sankar-kedla and openly refused to pay the Chauth. He gathered under his flag many enemies of Sahu including Sambhaji of Kolhapur and made preparations for a fight. The Marathas declared war in October, 1726. The Nizam proclaimed his protégé, Sambhaji, as the Chatrapati and marched towards Poona with a view to installing him in that city. Bajirao retaliated by attacking Burhanpur and Aurangabad. Ultimately both the parties met at Palkhed, twenty miles from Aurangabad, and fought a decisive battle on 25 February, 1727. The Nizam was defeated and made a treaty acknowledging Sahu as the Chatrapati and admitting his right to levy Chauth. Four years later, when Dabhade, the Maratha commander, rebelled, the Nizam supported him but the former was killed in the battle of Dabhoi. Bajirao marched secretly with an army and appeared suddenly before the walls of Delhi in 1737 and left the capital with equal suddenness. The Mugal emperor summoned Nizam-ul-Mulk to the capital and commissioned him to put down the Marathas. Coming to know of this Bajirao made a number of strategic movements, suddenly surrounded the Nizam at Bhopal and

humbled him in December, 1739. The great Peshwa died in March, 1740 and was succeeded by Balajirao.

### BALAJIRAO VS. SALABAT JUNG

The twenty years between 1740—1760 witnessed events of great importance in the Dakkan. The Marathas invaded Karnataka in 1740, defeated Nawab Dost Ali, captured Arcot and Trichinopoly and took Chanda Saheb prisoner. The Nizam invaded this region in 1743 and campaigned for five years recovering the places taken by the Marathas.

Nizam-ul-Mulk died in May, 1748 and Sahu passed away in December, 1749. There was confusion in both Poona and Hyderabad for some time. Tarabai, wife of Rajaram, set up Ramaraja, a posthumous grandson of hers, as the Chatrapati and dominated the government. This led to serious rivalry between her and the Peshwa during 1750—52. At Hyderabad Nazir Jung and Muzaffar Jung fought for the succession. They were both murdered in a campaign in Karnataka during 1750—51. This led to the entry of the French into the politics of the Dakkan. Bussy, the deputy of the French Governor-General, proclaimed Salabat Jang, another son of Nizam-ul-Mulk as the Nizam and was escorting him to Hyderabad. Peshwa Balajirao marched to Panagal and met the new Nizam. After protracted talks it was agreed that the Nizam should pay seventeen lakhs of rupees to the Marathas for their non-intervention in the succession disputes at Hyderabad and three lakhs more for the withdrawal of the Maratha forces from the Aurangabad-Burhanpur region.

The old rivalry was resumed soon after Salabat Jung was established at Hyderabad. Bussy became the dictator of the Nizam and was guided by Ramadaspant and Hyder Jung. The Peshwa seduced Sayid Lashkar Khan

and Shaw Nawaz Khan, two Hyderabad generals, and tried to obtain influence at the court of the Nizam. Ramadas-pant maintained outwardly friendly relations with the Peshwa but secretly encouraged Tarabai to put him down. Balajirao retaliated by occupying many forts in the Nasik district and inviting Ghaziuddin, the eldest son of Nizam-ul-Mulk, who was at Delhi, to come to Hyderabad and claim the throne. A treasure of five lakhs of rupees being conveyed to the Peshwa was plundered by a Hyderabad army. This led to an inevitable fight. The Peshwa marched to the neighbourhood of Aurangabad in October, 1751. Bussy and Salabat Jung moved to the north in November, crossed the Godavary and ravaged the Maratha districts. A decisive engagement was fought at Malthan on 27 November and the Marathas obtained a victory. The Nizam concluded the treaty of Singwa on 6 January, 1752 and the rivals restored mutual conquests.

A sudden complication arose when in the month of April Ghaziuddin arrived in the Dakkan. Having previously invited him to come to the south, the Marathas had to join him. Bussy and the Nizam, who were on the way to Hyderabad, returned to Aurangabad. Before any decisive engagement could take place Ghaziuddin was poisoned and died at Aurangabad. The Nizam started again for his capital. The Marathas followed him closely and surrounded his forces at Bhalki. Having no other go he made peace with the Marathas agreeing to surrender the western half of Berar between the Tapati and the Godavary in addition to Baglan and Khandesh.

Nizam Salabat Jung had a series of difficulties during 1753—57. Bussy tightened his grip over the affairs of Hyderabad and kept the Nizam a virtual prisoner. Nizam Ali, a brother of Salabat Jung, began a career of aggrandisement and obtained much prominence. The Peshwa sent numerous expeditions into eastern and western Karna-

taka and took many important places. He then sent an invasion against Aurangabad in December, 1757. Nizam Ali marched for its defence. The Marathas met him at Sindhkhed and inflicted a crushing defeat on him on 12 December. The Nizam made another treaty ceding territory worth 25 lakhs of rupees including the fort of Naldurg. The rivalry however continued. The Marathas captured Ahmadnagar, Daulatabad, Burhanpur and Bijapur. Nizam Ali led a counter-offensive but was defeated in a battle fought near Udgir in January, 1760. He sued for peace and obtained it by surrendering to the Marathas the four forts mentioned above and other territory worth sixty lakhs of rupees. After this success the attention of the Peshwa was diverted to Northern India. The tragic defeat of the Marathas at Panipat came in January, 1761. Peshwa Balajirao died on 23 June. He was succeeded by Madhavarao.

#### MADHAVARAO VS. NIZAM ALI

The death of Balajirao coming close after the tragedy of Panipat shook the entire Maratha nation and plunged it into confusion. Madhavarao succeeded to the Peshwai as a youth and was under the protection of his mother Gopikabai. His paternal uncle Raghunathrao aimed at the Peshwai and became his bitterest enemy. There was a prolonged struggle between the uncle and the nephew and the Maratha leaders were divided into two groups. Nizam Ali took advantage of this civil strife among the Marathas, entered Maharashtra and besieged Poona. The Marathas closed up their ranks temporarily and opposed him. An engagement was fought at Uruli near Poona. Nizam Ali was defeated and allowed to retreat on agreeing to surrender territory worth forty lakhs of rupees. Soon after his return to Hyderabad Nizam Ali deposed his brother Salabat Jung and became the Nizam.

Two months after the victory at Uruli, Raghunatharao openly defied the Peshwa and obtained the help of Nizam Ali. He then marched on Poona fighting two engagements on the way. Ultimately he captured the Peshwa and kept him in close custody. Alarmed at this the Nizam changed sides and began gathering the enemies of Raghunatharao. He hatched a serious plot to overthrow Ramaraya, the Chatrapati and the Peshwa. The Peshwa used both diplomacy and force. He weaned away Janoji Bhonsle from the Nizam's camp and won over the Nizam's brother, Basalat Jung. His armies ravaged the western districts of Hyderabad and advanced to the neighbourhood of the capital. The Nizam ravaged the Maratha districts on the river Bhima, besieged Poona and laid waste its neighbourhood. Maratha armies rushed to their capital and forced the Nizam to raise the siege. They followed him as he was retreating to Aurangabad and attacked him at Rakshasbhavan on the bank of the Godavary. In the battle that ensued on 10 July, 1763 the Nizam's forces were routed mercilessly on one bank of the river while the Nizam had to remain a miserable spectator of this tragedy from the other bank. Negotiations were started and a treaty was finally concluded on 20 September at Aurangabad. Peshwa Madhavarao died on 18 November, 1772 and was succeeded by Narayanarao who was just seventeen years old. Raghunatharao continued his struggle for the Peshwa and opposed Narayanarao also. This unfortunate Peshwa was murdered on 30 August, 1773 eight months after assuming office, at the instigation of Raghunatharao.

#### MADHAVARAO NARAYAN VS. NIZAM ALI

The murder of Narayanarao created a very serious situation in Maharashtra. Raghunatharao immediately assumed the title of Peshwa and began running the



administration. He had very few friends and was the most hated man in the country. He marched to Bidar in November, 1773 and made a treaty of friendship with the Nizam. Unfortunately for him, Gangabai, the widow of the Peshwa, begot a son named Madhavarao Narayan on 18 April, 1774. Eminent Maratha leaders like Nana Fadnis, Sakaram Bapu, Mahadji Sindhia and Tukoji Holker proclaimed the infant Peshwa and constituted a regency on his behalf. Raghunatharao was defeated at Wasad, ran to Surat and sought refuge with the English Government of Bombay. From there he plotted for the overthrow of Madhavarao Narayan and his own elevation to the Peshwai. This brought the English on to the scene and a series of complicated transactions that constituted the First Maratha war (1774—82). The council of regency resisted this English intervention admirably and made an honourable settlement through the Treaty of Salbai in 1782. The tact and diplomacy of Nana Fadnis and the skilled generalship of Mahadji saved the Maratha nation from imminent destruction. The relations between the Marathas and the Nizam were cordial during this critical period. Nizam Ali even joined a grand confederacy with the Marathas, Hyder Ali of Mysore and the Bhonsle of Nagpur organised by Nana Fadnis.

In the years that followed the First Maratha War, Tippu, son of Hyder Ali and the ruler of Mysore, constituted a great menace to the Nizam, the Marathas and the English. In 1784 the Marathas and the Nizam entered into an alliance, proceeded to the border of Mysore and made hostile demonstrations. Four years later these two powers joined the Tripartite Alliance with the English against Tippu. Once the Mysore wars were over, the amity disappeared. The Marathas demanded payment of the Chauth which fell into arrears for many years and the Nizam refused payment. This led to hostilities which culminated

in the battle of Kharla fought in January, 1795. The Nizam was defeated in this decisive battle. Madhavarao Narayan died in October of that year and Bajirao II, son of Raghunatharao, became the Peshwa. The New Peshwa soon developed enmity towards the great statesman Nana Fadnis and this rivalry lasted till the latter's death in March, 1800. Nizam Ali died in 1803.

## CHAPTER XVIII

### THE HYDERABAD STATE

THIS IMPORTANT Indian State was founded by Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Mugal Subedar of the Dakkan and its history as an independent unit begins in 1724. The rulers of this state, known as the Nizams, were the rivals of the Peshwas for a long time. Hyderabad was also connected with the fortunes of the English and the French in India. The Nizams became the faithful allies of the English and survived many catastrophes. After the establishment of British paramountcy in India Hyderabad remained the biggest native state and enjoyed a position of special importance.

*Nizam-ul-Mulk.*—This Mugal nobleman was originally appointed Subedar of the Dakkan in the first two decades of the eighteenth century. He was transferred to Malva in 1724. Growing suspicious of the Sayyid brothers, who were then ministers of the Mugal emperor he decided upon strengthening his position. He then left Malva and marched into the Dakkan. This was a decisive step. He soon occupied the Dakkan districts in the face of keen opposition and established himself at Aurangabad. The Mugal emperor, unable to check him, re-appointed him Subedar of the Dakkan and conferred upon him the title of Asaf Jah. Nizam-ul-Mulk began functioning as an independent ruler from this time onwards. The Dakkan subha at this time covered a large area extending from the Tapati in the north to Trichinopoly in the south excluding western Dakkan which was included in Maratha territory. On the east coast there were a large number of zamindars who paid tribute to the Subedar on behalf of the emperor. There was a governor at Rajahmundry to look after the affairs of the

coastal region. In South India the Raja of Trichinopoly and the Nawab of Karnataka were the subordinates of the Subedar. There was trouble in the south in 1744. Safdar Ali, the Nawab of Karnataka, was murdered and there was considerable disorder. The Nizam marched to the south, appointed Anwar-ud-din as the Nawab and restored peace and order. He received at this time an envoy from the English Governor of Madras and treated him kindly. Later when hostilities broke out between the English and the French in the south the Nizam helped the former. Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah died at a ripe old age in 1748 leaving behind him six sons and a daughter.

*Nasir Jung*.—Ghiasuddin, the eldest son of Nizam-ul-Mulk, being away at Delhi, his second son Nasir Jung proclaimed himself the Nizam. His sister's son Muzaffar Jung, opposed his succession. The dispute between the uncle and the nephew brought the English and the French on to the scene. Dupleix, the French governor of Pondicherry, was entertaining wild ambitions of building an Indo-French empire and waiting for an opportunity to put his plans into execution. He was an adept at intrigue and cunning. Muzaffar Jung appealed to Dupleix for help against his uncle. He also induced Dupleix to obtain the release of Chanda Saheb, from the Maratha prison and allied himself with him. These two allies marched into Karnataka and contacted Dupleix. With his help they attacked Muhammad Ali, the rightful heir to the Nawabi of Karnataka after the death of Anwar-ud-din, and defeated him in the battle of Ambar. Muzaffar Jung immediately proclaimed himself the Nizam and appointed his friend Chanda Saheb Nawab of Karnataka. Muhammad Ali took refuge in Trichinopoly. The English, who became apprehensive of the growing power of the French, allied themselves with Muhammad Ali in the south and Nasir Jung at Hyderabad. Nasir Jung marched to the south in 1750 and besieged the fort of

Ginjee with the aid of the English. Chanda Saheb, Muzaffar Jung and a French contingent came to rescue the fort. Very soon, however, Muzaffar Jung was deserted by his allies and surrendered to his uncle on the promise of clemency. Dupleix did not take the defeat so easily. Nasir Jung imprisoned his nephew contrary to his promise. The subordinate Nawabs of Cudapa, Karnul and Savanur resented this treachery of the Nizam. Dupleix secretly instigated these Nawabs to rise against the Nizam while openly pleading with Nasir Jung for considerate treatment to his nephew. He also got ready a strong French contingent and sent it to occupy Ginjee taking advantage of the withdrawal of the Nizam to a distance. The French army occupied the fort without much difficulty. Coming to know of this Nasir Jung returned and laid siege to it. The Nawab of Cudapa shot him dead during the course of the fighting.

*Muzaffar Jung.*—Muzaffar Jung marched at once to Pondicherry and was warmly received. Dupleix proclaimed him Nizam amidst scenes of splendour and merriment. The new Nizam expressed his gratitude to Dupleix by making him Nawab of all the territory south of the Krishna, raising him to the status of a mansabdar of 7000 and granting him a jagir worth one lakh a year. He also agreed to be guided by Dupleix in all matters. Dupleix gave Muzaffar Jung a strong body-guard of 200 Europeans and 2000 Sepoys and sent him to Hyderabad under the escort of the famous officer Bussy. While the party was passing through the territories of Cudapa there arose an altercation during which the Nawab of Karnul killed Muzaffar Jung.

*Salabat Jung.*—Undaunted by this Bussy proclaimed Salabat Jung, a brother of Nasir Jung, Nizam and conducted him safely to Hyderabad. The new Nizam who owed his elevation to Bussy depended entirely upon the Frenchman and the latter dominated the Hyderabad politics of the time. The officials of Hyderabad became jealous of

the growing power of Bussy and made continued efforts to overthrow him. Bussy went to Masulipatam on the east coast for a short time in 1753 in order to recoup his health. Syed Lashkar Khan, the minister of the Nizam, took advantage of this opportunity, scattered the French forces of Bussy in the districts and removed the Nizam to Aurangabad. Coming to know of these developments Bussy rushed up to the capital, reassembled his army and restored order. The Hyderabad minister then refused payment of the French forces pleading lack of funds. Bussy retaliated by obtaining from the Nizam the five Northern Circars on the coast in lieu of the cost of maintenance of the French army. Very soon, however, Bussy was beset by other difficulties, Dupleix was recalled and left the scene of his activities and ambitions in India. Muhammad Ali, the Nawab of Karnataka, defied the authority of the Nizam. Hyder Ali rose to power in Mysore and threatened both the Nizam and the Marathas. Godhieu, the successor of Dupleix, recognised Muhammad Ali as the Nawab of Karnataka. The Nizam blamed Bussy for all these developments and dismissed him from his service while the latter was away at the instigation of Shah Nawaz Khan who was now the minister. Bussy returned to Hyderabad, stationed his forces in the Charmahal and fortified it. Shah Nawaz made several attempts to dislodge Bussy but they were of no avail. A relief force arrived from Masulipatam. The Nizam was constrained to restore Bussy to his former position. In 1757 A.D. Bussy had to go to the coastal districts once again. Shah Nawaz made another attempt to oust Bussy. He made Nizam Ali, a brother of Salabat Jung, the governor of Berar and handed over the administration of the state to him. Basalat Jung, another brother, was made the governor of Bellary and the keeper of the Privy Seal. Bussy returned to Hyderabad and successfully put down this combination. This proved to be the climax of

his glory. War broke out very soon between England and France in Europe and their representatives in India started hostilities. The governor of Pondicherry summoned Bussy to the south with all his forces in order to join the French attack on Madras. Bussy hid the real cause of his departure very carefully and skilfully moved out of the state and reached the coast. The Raja of Vizianagaram, one of the tributary zamindars in the Vizagapatam district, suggested to Lord Clive, the English governor of Bengal, the desirability of an invasion of the Circars at this juncture and promised his support. Clive approved of this idea and immediately despatched Colonel Forde. Forde and the Raja started the occupation of the Circars and defeated a French army in the battle of Kundur. Having come to know of this the Nizam came to the coast with a large army. Meanwhile Forde besieged Masulipatam for nine days and reduced it. Before the Nizam could take any effective action there came the news of the rebellion of Nizam Ali at Hyderabad. Salabat Jung was in a critical position. Bussy who had been his protector all along was no longer on the scene. Nizam Ali's attitude became menacing. External help became absolutely essential. Therefore the Nizam made peace with the English whom he came to oppose. A formal treaty was concluded in May, 1759. This treaty marks the end of French influence in Hyderabad and inaugurates the era of English influence. The Nizam agreed under this treaty to cede to the English the Masulipatam Circar with eight districts and the Nizamapatam Circar with two districts as an *inam* and undertook to drive the French from his dominions and never to entertain them again in the future. Having thus settled matters with the English the Nizam returned to Hyderabad. He found his brother Nizam Ali unassailable and was obliged to make him the prime minister. Nizam Ali deposed Salabat Jung in 1761 and became the Nizam.

*Nizam Ali.*—The rule of this Nizam was eventful. In 1766. Clive applied to the Mugal emperor and obtained from him *Sannad* bestowing the Northern Circars upon the English and sent General Calliaud to occupy them at once and explain matters to the Nizam. Nizam Ali became righteously indignant at this but was pacified by Calliaud. He concluded a treaty ratifying the grant of the Circars and agreeing to receive a rent of nine lakhs a year and the English agreed to maintain a body of their troops in order to help the Nizam. Two years later Hyder Ali of Mysore persuaded the Nizam to join him in an invasion of Karnataka. The allies were defeated in a battle near Trichinopoly and the Nizam concluded another treaty with the English. In 1799 there were further conflicts between Nizam Ali and the Company. In that year Hyder sent an army against Cudapa which was originally in his dominion but was taken by Basalat Jung. The English governor of Madras took advantage of the consequent discomfiture of Basalat Jung and opened negotiations with him. It was proposed that Basalat Jung should lease the Kondavidu Circar to the Company for a fixed annual rent and dismiss the French army which he had with him and that the English should supply him their own contingent for his protection. Basalat Jung agreed to these proposals and dismissed his French force. The Nizam was offended at this transaction effected without his sanction and took the dismissed French force into his service. The Company was in arrears of rent for the Circars for two years and was not in a position to pay. The Governor of Madras sent Holland to negotiate with the Nizam. The Nizam refused to remit the arrears and to send away the French contingent. He appraised the Supreme Government at Calcutta of the situation. The Calcutta Government strongly reprimanded the Government of Madras for their high-handed action. The Madras Government resented this and recalled Holland.



The Supreme Government appointed Holland as their nominee at Hyderabad. Hereafter the Nizam came under the direct jurisdiction of the Supreme Government. In 1789 Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, concluded a treaty with the Nizam according to which the English undertook to supply the Nizam their troops at his cost whenever he wanted them and he agreed not to employ them against the allies of the English *viz.*, the Marathas, the Nawab of Karnataka and the Rajas of Tanjore and Travancore. War broke out soon between the company and Tippu Sultan of Mysore. The Nizam and the Marathas helped the English in this war and at its conclusion the Nizam obtained Gurramkonda, Gooty and the doab districts. Nizam Ali helped the English in the last Mysore war also and obtained territory worth twenty-five lakhs of rupees. He also figured in the second Maratha war as an ally of the Company and received in return Berar, Daulatabad, Jalna and the region near Ajanta. The Nizam's position in relation to the English was finally settled in 1800 when he was drawn into the subsidiary alliances of Lord Wellesley. The English agreed to station eight battalions at Hyderabad for the use of the Nizam and the latter agreed to cede to them the districts of Cudapa, Karnul, Anantapur and Bellary in lieu of the cost of maintenance of the army. The Nizam also agreed not to make peace or war with any other power without the consent and sanction of the English. This subsidiary treaty deprived the Nizam of his sovereignty and made him a permanent subordinate of the English. Even his internal autonomy was seriously impaired in subsequent years on account of the interference of the British Residents.

*Sikandar Jah.*—The regime of this Nizam witnessed important events. The East India Company finally triumphed over its only rival, the Marathas, and established its paramountcy by 1818. The Karnataka, Mysore and Maratha wars made the English masters of large tracts of

land in the Dakkan and the two cessions of territory by the Nizam resulted in the Hyderabad state being surrounded on all sides by the territory of the Company. The presence of the British Resident at Hyderabad acted as a further check on the Nizam. Raja Chandu Lal was the prime minister of the state for nearly thirty years and Russell was the resident for a long time. Nizam Sikandar Jah was not interested in the administration and pursued a life of ease and pleasure. Several people took advantage of his weakness and fully exploited it. The administration broke down completely and there was financial ruin. The Resident found the army of the Nizam in a worthless condition and set about reorganising it. This required plenty of money and the prime minister was asked to supply it. The Nizam too required large sums of money for his pleasures. Chandu Lal kept on supplying both parties with all the funds they asked for as the only means of guaranteeing his own continuation in power. About this time two enterprising brothers named Palmer started a banking concern in Hyderabad under the name of William Palmer & Co. They also invested large sums of money in trade. The company became very popular in a short time and one of the other partners married a ward of the Governor-General. Both Russell and Chandu Lal applied to this Company for loans and got them in plenty. In a few years' time Palmer & Co. became a menace in the state. Metcalfe, who was appointed Resident in 1820, surveyed the situation and recommended to the Supreme Government the winding up of Palmer & Co. and the dismissal of the Prime Minister Chandu Lal. The Government of India advanced sixty lakhs of rupees to the Resident on behalf of the Nizam for the clearance of the latter's debt to the company. The Nizam remitted the *peshcus* of the Circars permanently in repayment of this loan. Sikandar Jah died in 1829.

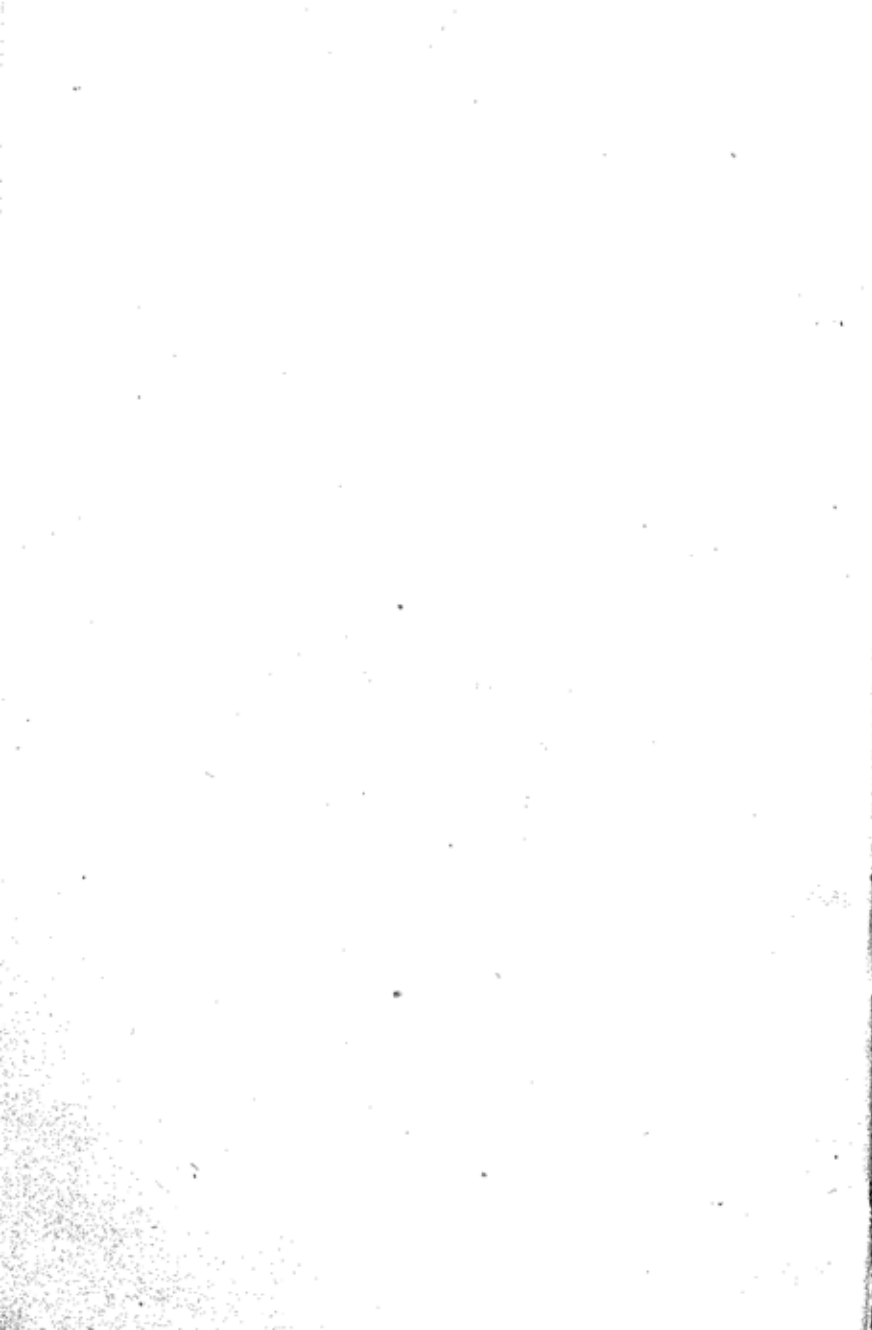
*Nasir-ud-Daula.*—General Fraser was the Resident at

Hyderabad during the regime of this Nizam. He found that the army reorganised by Russell was a white elephant and recommended its abolition. He encompassed the resignation of Chandu Lal. The Nizam spent two crores of rupees from his own treasury and cleared part of the state debt in 1843. Ten years later he handed over Berar and the Raichur doab to the English in settlement of other outstanding debts. In the same year Salar Jung became the Prime Minister of the State. The Nizam died in 1857 during the critical days of the Mutiny.

*Afzal-ud-Daula*.—This Nizam succeeded to the *Gadi* as a minor. Salar Jung and Shams-ul-Umra were his regents. There were minor disturbances in Hyderabad city but they were effectively put down on account of the prevalence of perfect concord and co-operation between the Prime Minister and the Resident. Salar Jung preserved peace in the state in the disturbed atmosphere of 1857-58. He then reorganised the entire administration of the state. His reforms inaugurated a new era in the history of Hyderabad.

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# GENERAL INDEX

## A

*Abhilashitarhachintamani*, 56  
 Abdul Wahab Khan, 104  
 56  
 Abhiras, 26, 29  
 Abul Fazl, 121  
 Adipurana, 49  
 Adityavarman, 38  
 Afzal Khan, 106  
 Agastya, 10, 12  
 Agastya (poet), 65  
 Ailas, 11  
 Aitareyabrahmana, 3  
 Akkanna, 111, 112  
 Alexander II, 86  
 Ahupas, 38  
 Ananda gotra, 31  
 Andhras, 3, 5, 9, 12, 15, 17,  
 20, 21, 22, 28  
 Andhras of Sripavata, 28  
 Anitalli, 78  
 Annadeva, 77, 79, 83  
 Aparajita, 42  
 Appalaraya, 101  
 Appayika, 37  
 Arabs, 46  
 Aravidu dynasty, 109  
 Asad Khan, 100, 107  
 Asaf Khan, 104  
 Azim Khan, 81  
 Adil Shahs, 100-106; Yusuf  
 Adil, 93-5, 99, 100;  
 Ismail I, 112, 113, 117,  
 118; Ibrahim I, 101, 114;  
 Ali Adil I, 102, 103, 114;  
 Ibrahim II, 103, 104, 114,  
 115; Muhammad Adil,  
 104-5; Ali Adil II, 105,  
 106, 108; Sikandar, 106

## B

Badapa, 51  
 Bahadur, 79, 95  
 Bahadur of Guzerat, 113  
 Bahadur Khan, 129  
 Bahauddin Gurshasp, 71  
 Bahmanis, 74, 83, 85-98;  
 Allauddin I, 79, 85, 87,  
 88, 89; Muhammad Shah  
 I, 79, 86-8; Mujahid,  
 88; Daud, 88; Muham-  
 mad II, 88, 89; Feroz  
 Shah, 77, 89, 90; Ahmad  
 Shah, 81, 90, 91; Alla-  
 uddin II, 91; Humayun,  
 81; Nizam Shah, 92;  
 Muhammad Shah III, 92,  
 93; Muhammad Shah IV,  
 84, 94-100, 107, 112, 117;

Ahmad, 95; Allauddin 95;  
 Waliullah, 95; Kalimulla,  
 95, 112, 118  
 Ballala III, 68  
 Banas, 34, 50  
 Barid Shahs, 118-119; Amir  
 Ali, 119; Ali Barid, 95,  
 100, 101; Ibrahim, 119  
 Basalat Jang, 130, 145, 147  
 Bavarin, 12  
 Bhadrabahu, 16  
 Bhagiratha, 35  
 Bhupati, 59  
 Bhandarkar, 2  
 Bharasivas, 29, 34  
 Bharata, 11  
 Bhaskaracharya, 59  
 Bhaskararamayana, 65  
 Bhillama, 58  
 Bijjala, 56, 62  
 Bilhana, 56  
 Bhojas, 5, 15, 17, 21  
 Bhonslas—  
 Shahji, 105, 106, 117,  
 122, 124, 125, 126; Sivaji,  
 4, 105, 106, 111, 112,  
 126-30, 133; Rajaram,  
 129, 130, 136; Sambhaji,  
 128-30, 132, 134, 135;  
 Sahu, 130, 132, 135, 136  
*Brakmanas*, 9  
 Brihaccharanas, 12  
 Brihatkatha, 24  
 Brihatpalyanas, 32; Deva-  
 varman, 32; Hastivarman,  
 29, 32  
 Buddha, 18

## C

Calliaud, 147  
 Chalukyas—  
 —of Badami—Pulikesin I,  
 36; Kirtivarman, I, 36,  
 37; Mangalesa, 37;  
 Pulikesin II, 16, 31, 33,  
 37, 38, 39, 40; Vikra-  
 maditya I, 38, 39; Vina-  
 yaditya, 39; Vijaya-  
 ditya, 39; Vikramaditya  
 II, ; Kirtivarman I,  
 139, 46, 47  
 —of Kalyani—Taila II, 51,  
 52; Satyasraya, 52, 53;  
 Jayasimha I, 53-55;  
 Somesvara I, 53, 54, 61;  
 Somesvara II, 54, 55;  
 Vikramaditya VI, 53-6,  
 62; Somesvara III, 56;  
 Jagadekamalla II, 56;  
 Taila III, 56, 62  
 —of Vengi—Vishnuvar-  
 dhana I, 38-40; Jaya-

simha I, 40; Vijaya-  
 ditya I, 40, 41;  
 Vijayaditya II (Naren-  
 dramrigaraja), 41, 48;  
 Vijayaditya III (Guna-  
 ga), 41, 42, 49; Cha-  
 lukya Bhima I, 42, 49;  
 Vijayaditya IV, 42;  
 Ammaraja I, 42, 43;  
 Chalukyabhima II, 43,  
 50; Ammaraja II, 43,  
 51, 61; Badapa, 51;  
 Saktivarman, 43, 44, 53;  
 Vimaladitya, 44; Raja-  
 raja, 44; Vijayaditya  
 (VII), 44  
 Chalukya Vikrama Era, 56  
 Chanakya, 15  
 Chandasaheb, 136, 143, 144  
 Chand Bibi, 104, 114, 115,  
 120, 121  
 Chandela, 50  
 Chandraditya, 38  
 Chandulal, 150  
 Changadeva, 59  
 Chasthana, 26  
*Chaturvargachintamani*, 60  
 Chin Qulich Khan, 133  
 Clive, 146, 147  
 Cornwallis, 148  
 Cutus, 27, 28, 31, 34;  
 Vinukada, 34; Sivas-  
 kanda naga Satakarni, 34

## D

Dabhade, 135  
 Dadaji Khondadev, 126  
 Damanaka, 29  
 Danarnava, 43  
 Dandin, 40  
 Danyal, 115, 121  
 Demetrius, 23  
 Dharmapala, 48  
 Dilir Khan, 129  
 Dost Ali, 136  
 Duplex, 143-145  
 Dutch, the, 128  
 Dakshinapathapati, 4, 23  
 Dravidas, 9

## E

Eastern Ganges, 33  
 East India Co., 148  
 English, the, 128, 132, 140,  
 142, 143, 144, 146, 147,  
 148, 150  
 Errapragada, 76

## F

Fakruddin Juna, 64  
Fath Khan, 116, 124  
Forde Col., 146  
Fraser, 149

## G

Gajapatis, 83, 84  
—Kapilesvara, 78, 81, 83;  
84, 91, 92, 93; Hamvira,  
81, 84, 92, 93, 96; Puru-  
shottama 84; Pratapa-  
rudra, 96, 97, 109  
Gangas Western, 40, 41, 42,  
47, 48  
Gangas of Kalinga, 63  
Gangabai, 140  
Gangasarasasamgraha, 49  
Ghiasuddin, 137, 143  
Ghorpades, 124  
Godhien, 145  
Gopikabai, 138  
Gunabhadra, 49  
Gunadhy, 24  
Guptas, 21; Samudragupta,  
5, 29, 31, 32, 33;  
Chandragupta II, 34, 35  
Gurjaras, 41  
Gurjarapratiharas, 41, 48

## H

Haft, 88  
Haihayas, 39  
Hala, 22, 24  
Hamid Khan, 116  
Harivamsa, 76  
Harshavardhana, 37, 38  
Hasan, 85, 94, 95  
Hasan Ali, 133  
Hemadri, 2, 59, 58, 60  
Hieu Tsang, 38  
Himmat Khan, 130  
Hoysalas, 56, 58, 59  
Husain, 124  
Hushang Shah, 78  
Hyder Ali, 140, 145, 147  
Hyder Jang, 136  
Hyder ul Mulk, 109

## I

Ikhlas Khan, 115  
Ikshvakus, 11, 13, 14, 27, 28,  
30, 31, 32, 34; Chamta-  
mula I, 30; Purisadatta,  
30; Chamtamula II, 30  
Ilwala, 10  
Immad Shabs, 117-118;  
Fathulla, 94, 117; Allaud-  
din, 117; Burhan, 118

## J

Jadhavs, 124  
Jagadevarao, 108  
Jahana, 39  
Jalal Khan, 81, 91, 92

Jamal Khan, 115  
Janoji Bhonsla, 139  
Jayakesin, 55  
Jijibai, 126  
Jinasena, 49  
Jinendrayakeraana, 39  
Jnanesvar, 58, 60  
Juna, 67, 74

## K

Kadambas, 31, 34, 35-38  
Kakatiyas—58, 59, 61, 63,  
64, 66, 74, 82; Gandyana,  
61; Beta I, 61; Prola I,  
61; Beta II, 62; Prola  
II, 62; Rudradeva, 56,  
59, 62; Mahadeva, 59,  
62, 63; Ganapatideva, 45,  
59, 62, 63; Rudramba,  
63, 64; Prataparudra-  
deva, 60, 61, 64, 69, 70,  
75, 79  
Kalachuris, 37, 52, 56, 58  
Kalidasa, 34, 35, 77  
Kalingas, 3, 13, 15, 16, 20  
Kamal Khan, 100  
Kanvas, 24  
Kanyanayak, 75  
Kapayanayaka, 72, 73, 75,  
79, 85, 87  
Karka, 49  
Katyayana, 9  
Kavirajamarga, 49  
Keralas, 1, 5, 9, 38, 39, 48,  
50, 53, 55  
Khan Jahan, 116, 122, 123  
Khan Zaman, 120, 121  
Khan Zaman, 117  
Kharavela, 23  
Khurram, 122  
Khusru I, 38  
Khusru Khan, 70  
Khwaja Haji, 68  
Kosalas, 37  
Krishnavarman, 4  
Kshaharatas, 25  
Kubera, 29  
Kushans, 24, 26

## L

Lakshmidhara, 59  
Latas of Guzerat, 37  
Lukhji Jadhav, 124

## M

Macha, 80  
Machiavelli, 15  
Mahadji Sindhia, 140  
Mahabaf Khan, 105, 123-5  
Mahadevabhikshu, 18  
Maharathis, 34, 46  
Mahaviracharya, 49  
Mahendra, 29  
Mahipala, 50  
Mahishakas, 9  
Mahmud Gawan, 81, 91-4

Malavas, 39, 41  
Malik Ambar, 104, 110, 116,  
121, 124  
Malik Hasan, 93  
Malik Chajju, 64  
Malik Kafur, 60, 64, 68, 69  
Malik Zada, 71  
Mallu, 101  
Maloji, 124  
Manasollasa, 56  
Manju, 115  
Man Singh, 121, 122  
Mantaraja, 29  
Marathas, 105, 120, 124, 125,  
131, 133, 134, 135, 136—  
138, 145, 148  
Matharnakula, 33  
Mauryas, 16, 18, 19, 20, 23,  
29, 37; Chandragupta,  
15, 16, 20; Bindusara,  
16, 17; Asoka, 5, 13, 16,  
17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 46  
Maurvas of Konkan, 37  
Mayara Sarman, 31, 34, 35  
Mavlis, 126  
Metcalfe, 149  
Mir Jumla, 111  
Mitakshara, 56  
Marco Polo, 64  
Moriyar, 16  
Mori Shah, 115  
Mubarak Khan, 86  
Mubari Khan, 134, 135  
Mugals—Babar, 95; Akbar,  
110, 115, 117, 120, 121,  
123; Jahangir, 110, 116,  
121, 122, 123; Shah  
Jahan, 104, 105, 110, 111,  
116, 123—127; Aurangzeb,  
99, 105, 106, 111, 112, 125,  
126—128, 130, 131; Baha-  
dur Shah, 133; Faruk-  
shiyar, 133; Muhammad  
Shah, 133, 134  
Muhammad, 111  
Mukundabahalendra, 109,  
110  
Mularaja, 52  
Mulikinatis, 12  
Mumtaj Mahal, 124  
Munja, 52  
Murad, 104, 115, 120, 121  
Muraharirao, 109  
Mustafa Khan, 104  
Mutibas, 9, 12  
Muttarasa, 48

## N

Nagabhatta, 48  
Nagarjuna, 26  
Nagas, 27, 34  
Nagavamsis, 40, 41  
Nala, 5  
Nalas, 29, 37  
Nana Fadnis, 140, 141  
Nandas, 15, 20  
Narasimha, 58

Narsingh, 89  
 Nasikyās, 9  
 Nasir Khan, 123  
 Nasiruddin Shah, 85  
 Nawab of Cudapa, 144  
 Nawab of Karnatak, 143.  
 145, 148  
 Nawab of Karnul, 144  
 Nizams—Nizam ul Mulk,  
 132—137, 142, 143; Nasir  
 Jang, 136, 143, 144;  
 Muzafar Jang, 136, 143,  
 144; Salabat Jang, 136,  
 138, 144, 145, 146;  
 Nizam Ali, 137—141,  
 145—148; Nasir-ud-daula,  
 149; Afzal ud daula, 150  
 Nizams—Nizam ul Mulk,  
 132—137, 142, 143; Nasir  
 Jang, 136, 143, 144;  
 Muzafar Jang, 136, 143,  
 144; Salabat Jang, 136,  
 138, 144, 145, 146;  
 Nizam Ali, 137—141,  
 145—148; Nasir-ud-daula,  
 149; Afzal ud daula, 150  
 Nizams—Nizam ul Mulk,  
 132—137, 142, 143; Nasir  
 Jang, 136, 143, 144;  
 Muzafar Jang, 136, 143,  
 144; Salabat Jang, 136,  
 138, 144, 145, 146;  
 Nizam Ali, 137—141,  
 145—148; Nasir-ud-daula,  
 149; Afzal ud daula, 150

## P

Pahlavas, 30  
 Pallavas, 21, 27, 30, 31, 32,  
 34, 35, 37, 39, 40, 42, 48,  
 50; Sivaskandavarman,  
 31; Vishnugopa, 29, 31;  
 Kumaravishnu 31; Simha-  
 varman, 31; Mahendra-  
 varman, 31, 38; Nara-  
 simhavarman, 38; Para-  
 mesvaravarman, 39;  
 Nandipota Varman, 39  
 Pandae, 11  
 Pandu, 11  
 Pandyas, 1, 2, 5, 9, 39, 48,  
 50, 63  
 Panini, 9  
 Peripplus, 2  
 Peshwas—Balaji Visvanath,  
 132, 133; Bajirao I,  
 133, 134, 135; Balaji  
 Rao, 136, 137, 138;  
 Madhavarao, 138, 139;  
 Madhavarao Narayan,  
 139, 140, 141; Raghu-  
 natharao, 138, 141;  
 Bajirao II, 141  
 Pitenikas, 5, 15, 17, 21  
 Prabhavati Gupta, 34  
 Prataparudrayasobhu-  
 shana, 64  
 Prolayanayaka, 72, 74, 75  
 Portugese, 100, 102, 114  
 Ptolemy, 11  
 Pujyapada, 39  
 Pulindas, 5, 9, 15, 17, 21  
 Pushyamitra, 23

## Q

Quasim Khan, 130  
 Qutab Shahs, 107—112;  
 Sultan Quli, 15, 96, 98,  
 107, 108; Jamshed, 102,  
 107, 108; Subhan, 108;  
 Ibrahim, 102, 103, 114;  
 Mummud Quli, 109;  
 Mahamad, 110; Abdulla,  
 110, 111; Abdul Hasan,  
 111, 112

## R

Rajaditya, 50  
 Raja Jaya Singh, 106, 128  
 Rajasbai, 130  
 Raja of Tanjore, 148  
 Raja of Trichinopoly, 143  
 Raja of Vizianagaram, 146  
 Rama, 2, 3, 10  
 Ramaraja, 98, 99, 101, 102,  
 103, 108, 109, 113, 118,  
 144  
 Ramayana, 2, 10  
 Ramakasyapa cotra, 33  
 Ranganatharamayana, 65  
 Rasarnavasudhakara, 81  
 Rashtrakutas, 40, 41, 45, 48,  
 49; Dantidurga, 39, 46;  
 Krishna I, 47, 47;  
 Govinda II, 41, 47, 48;  
 Dhruva, 47, 48; Govinda  
 III, 41, 48, 49;  
 Amoghavarsha, I, 41, 49;  
 Krishna II, 42, 49;  
 Indra II, 49, 50; Govinda  
 IV, 50; Amoghavarsha  
 III, 50; Krishna III,  
 43, 50, 51; Karka II,  
 51, 52; Amoghavarsha  
 II, 50; Amoghavarsha  
 IV, 51  
 Rashtrikas, 15, 17, 22, 23,  
 27  
 Rudradaman, 26  
 Rudrasena, 34  
 Rathikas, 5, 21, 29, 46  
 Recherla family, 79  
 Reddis—of Kondavidu: Pro-  
 laya Vema, 73, 75, 76;  
 Anapota, 76; Anavema,  
 76, 79, 80; Kumara-  
 giri, 76, 77, 78, 80;  
 Pedakomati Vema, 77,  
 78, 80, 83; Racha  
 Vema, 78, 83  
 —of Rajahmundry, 78;  
 Kataya Vema, 76, 77,  
 78, 80; Allada, 77, 78;  
 Vema, 78; Virabhadra,  
 78  
 Richikas, 9  
 Rudradaman, 26  
 Rudrasena, 34  
 Russell, 149, 150

## S

Sabaras, 5, 9, 12, 17, 21  
 Saffar Ali, 143  
 Sahadeva, 2  
 Sabu, 132  
 Saif Khan, 108  
 Saisunagas, 15, 20  
 Sakas, 24  
 Sakaram Bapu, 140  
 Salankayanas, 32; Devavar-  
 man, 32; Hastivarman,  
 29, 32  
 Salar Jang, 150  
 Saluva Timma, 95, 97  
 Samprati, 22  
 Sangama, 82  
 Sangitaratashkara, 59  
 Sankila, 42, 49  
 Sapatasati, 24  
 Sarjnadeva, 59  
 Santa, 130  
 Sarvavaraman, 24  
 Satakarna, 28, 34  
 Satavahana, 20, 21, 24, 25,  
 26, 28, 30, 33, 34, 36;  
 Satavahana, 21, 22;  
 Simuka, 20—3; Krishna  
 II; Satakarni I, 23;  
 Satakarni II, 22, 23;  
 Kuntala, 24; Pulomavi  
 I, 22, 24; Hala, 22, 24;  
 Gautamiputra, 22, 25,  
 26; Pulomavi II, 26;  
 Yajna Sri, 22, 26;  
 Pulomavi II, 21  
 Satvas, 11  
 Saurasenas, 11  
 Sayyid Brothers, 133, 142  
 Sayyid Lashkar Khan,  
 136, 145  
 Sayyid Jalaluddin, 72  
 Sendrakas, 39  
 Setubandha, 34  
 Shah Alam, 112  
 Shah Nawaz, 122  
 Shah Nawaz Khan, 125,  
 127  
 Shamsuddin, 89  
 Shams-ul-umra, 150  
 Shayista Khan, 128  
 Silharas, 47  
 Sitapati, 96, 97, 107, 108  
 Sodhala, 59  
 Somadeva, 72, 75  
 Stambha, 48  
 Sultans of Delhi—Khiljis—  
 67—70; Jalaluddin, 67;  
 Allauddin, 60, 64, 66, 67,  
 68; Mubarak Shah, 64,  
 66, 69, 70; Tughlaks—  
 70—73; Ghiasuddin, 64,  
 70; Muhammad, 66, 71,  
 74, 85, 86; Feroz, 87  
 Suktimuktavali, 59  
 Sungas, 23  
 Suttanipata, 12  
 Svamidatta, 29



## T

Tarabai, 130, 132, 136, 137  
 Taranath, 16  
 Telugu, 61, 63, 65  
 Telugu Cholas, 63  
 Telugu Mahabharata, 44, 76  
 Telugu Bhagavata, 81  
 Tippu, 140, 148  
 Traikutas, 26, 29  
 Trilochana Pallava, 36  
 Tukoji Holkar, 140  
 Tulu Dynasty, 96

## U

Udhras, 9  
 Ulugh Khan, 64, 70  
 Upendra, 50

## V

Vachaspathimistra, 59  
 Vaidumbas, 42  
 Vakatakas, 27, 28, 29, 32,  
 33, 34, 35, 36; Vindhya-  
 sakti, 33; Pravarasena,  
 33; Rudrasena, 34;  
 Harisena, 34; Prithvisena,  
 35  
 Varahamihira, 11  
 Vasantarajya, 77

Vasco da Gama, 100  
 Vatsaraja, 48  
 Vayupurana, 1, 2  
 Vedantakalpataru, 59  
 Velamas, 75, 76, 78, 79, 81,  
 82, 83; Singama I, 79;  
 Anapota I, 79, 80, 87;  
 Singa II, 79; Vedagiri I,  
 79; Anapota II, 81;  
 Mada II, 80; Linga, 80,  
 81; Singa III, 80, 81  
 Venkata II, 110  
 Venkataadri, 102, 108  
 Venkatapatiraya, 101, 105  
 Videhas, 12  
 Vidiadry, 108  
 Vidyanaatha, 64  
 Vidyaranya, 82  
 Vijayaditya, 5, 36  
 Vijayanagara, 82-84; Hari-  
 hara I, 82, 86; Bukka I,  
 71, 76, 82, 87; Hari-  
 hara II, 76, 77, 80, 89;  
 Devaraya I, 77, 82, 89;  
 Devaraya II, 78, 83, 89,  
 90; Mallikarjuna, 65, 88;  
 Virupaksha II, 83;  
 Saluva Narasinha, 84, 93,  
 96; Krishnaraya, 4, 96,  
 97, 98, 100, 101, 107, 119;  
 Achyutaraya, 101;  
 Ramadevaraya, 104  
 Vijayarka, 56

Vijayanesvara, 56  
 Vikramanekadevacharita, 56  
 Viranarasimha, 56  
 Visaladeva, 59  
 Vishnukundins, 31, 32, 33,  
 34; Vikramendra  
 Varman, 32; Madhaya-  
 varman, 31, 32; Indra-  
 bhattaraka, 32  
 Visvamitra, 9  
 Visvanatha, 65  
 Vyaghraraja, 29

## W

Wellesley, 148  
 William Palmer & Co., 149

## Y

Yavanas, 25  
 Yadavas, 57-60; Mallugi,  
 Bhillama, 58; Jaitugi,  
 58, 59, 62; Singhana,  
 59; Krishna, 59; Maha-  
 deva, 59; Ramachandra,  
 60, 69; Sankara, 60, 68,  
 69; Harapala, 60, 69  
 Yuzbhashi, 85

## Z

Zafar Khan, 66

# GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX

## A

Achalapura, 49  
Addanki, 76  
Adoni, 89  
Ahmadabad, 122, 135  
Ahmadnagar, 94, 95, 96, 99,  
101, 102, 103, 104, 108,  
109, 110, 112, 114-118,  
120, 121, 122, 124, 125,  
127, 131, 138  
Ahobilam, 76  
Ajanta Range, 3, 148  
Akalkot, 86  
Alampur, 83, 89  
Allahabad, 11, 60, 66, 67  
Amaravati, 14, 18, 26, 76  
Ambur, 143  
Anamakondavishaya, 62  
Andhra, 3, 5, 6, 15, 16, 74  
Andhradesa, 30  
Andhrapatha, 29, 31  
Annegiri, 56  
Aparanta, 25  
Arabian Sea, 117  
Arcot, 136  
Aruvanadu, 5  
Aruvadadalainadu, 5  
Ashunabad, 107  
Asika, 25  
Asir, 133  
Asirgarh, 115, 121  
Assaka, 12, 15, 25  
Aurangabad, 129, 134, 135,  
136, 138, 139, 142, 145  
Ausa, 119, 125  
Avanti, 9  
Ayodhya, 5, 11, 36

## B

Badami, 10, 31, 38, 39, 46,  
51, 80  
Baglana, 137  
Balaghat, 122, 123  
Balakonda, 81, 91  
Balki, 104  
Bangalore, 126  
Bankapura, 89, 91  
Baramati, 126  
Basavapattana, 130  
Bastar State, 53  
Bay of Bengal, 7, 69, 74  
Belgaum, 97, 100, 102, 113,  
119  
Bellamkonda, 81  
Bellary, 145, 148  
Bellary Dist., 20, 53  
Bengal, 6, 146  
Berar, 5, 20, 21, 25, 33, 34,  
46, 80, 91, 95, 98, 99, 101,  
102, 103, 113, 114, 115

Bezwa, 107  
Bhagnagar, 110  
Bhatavdi, 123  
Bhatiprolu, 14, 18  
Bhima River, 89, 100, 124,  
130, 139  
Bhongir, 86  
118, 120, 121, 123, 129,  
137, 145, 148, 150  
Bhopal, 135  
Bhroach, 13  
Bhum, 86  
Bidar, 86, 90, 94, 95, 98,  
99-102, 103, 104, 106,  
107, 109, 118, 119, 140  
Bidar Dist., 46  
Bijapur, 91, 94, 98, 106,  
108-115, 118, 121-126,  
127, 130, 138  
Bijapur Dist., 52  
Bir, 123  
Bombay, 4, 33, 140  
Brahmagiri, 5  
Bundelkhand, 34  
Burlanpur, 110, 121, 122,  
129, 133, 135, 138

## C

Cambay, 41  
Calcutta, 147  
Calicut, 100  
Ceded districts, 63, 71, 75  
Central Provinces, 47  
Chakan, 105, 126, 128  
Chakrakuta, 41, 53  
Chandan, 131  
Chandraguptapattana, 16  
Charmahal, 145  
Charminar, 110  
Chaul, 103, 114  
Chedi, 37, 39, 42, 49, 50,  
52, 53, 55, 59  
Chilka Lake, 77  
Chingelpet district, 111  
Chitaldurg district, 18  
Circars, 146, 149  
Comorin Cape, 9, 86  
Cudapa, 144, 147, 148  
Cudapa District, 5, 30, 110  
Cutch, 9  
Cuttack, 97

## D

Dachinabades, 2  
Dabhoi, 135  
Dabhol, 86  
Dakhinabade, 1  
Dakhinabade, 12  
Dchinabada, 1  
Dakshina, 1  
Dakshinakosala, 11

Dakshinapada, 1  
Dakshinapatha, 1, 2, 3, 5,  
9, 28  
Damira, 2  
Dandaka, 2, 3, 7, 9, 10, 12,  
18  
Dantapura, 12, 18  
Danur, 52  
Dasama, 9  
Daulatabad, 2, 85, 86, 92,  
94, 95, 112, 113, 119, 123,  
125, 138, 148  
Deccan, 1  
Delhi, 66-70, 74, 95, 132,  
133, 135, 137  
Devarakonda, 79, 81, 92  
Devanshtra, 29, 33  
Dharnaikota, 80  
Dharaseo, 104  
Dharur, 114, 123  
Dharwar district, 56  
Dhauri, 18  
Diwani, 97  
Dodderi, 130  
Dravida, 2, 5, 6  
Dwarsamudra, 66, 68, 71

## E

Eastern Ghats, 3, 4, 6, 7,  
21, 41, 72, 74, 75, 92  
Ellichpur, 46, 89, 118  
Ellore, 107, 108  
England, 146  
Erandapalli, 33  
Etgir, 80

## F

Filampatan, 79, 87  
Ferozabad, 89

## G

Gangavati, 88  
Ganjam district, 110  
Ganpara, 107  
Ghataprabha, 88,  
Girikottura, 29, 33  
Girikottura, 29, 33  
Goa, 25, 59, 86, 93, 94,  
100, 103  
Godavary, 1, 2, 7, 12, 13,  
20, 32, 33, 43, 62, 63, 66,  
74, 76, 77, 79, 80, 83,  
84, 90, 93, 96, 116, 124,  
125, 135, 137, 139  
Golconda, 3, 4, 79, 87, 95,  
96, 99, 101, 103, 104, 107,  
108-112, 114, 115, 116,  
118, 119  
Gooty, 148

Gulbarga, 71, 73, 86, 92, 95,  
98, 99, 100, 102, 113, 119  
Guntur, 40, 82  
Guntur district, 18, 28, 30,  
31, 77, 81, 83, 109  
Gurramkonda, 148  
Guzerat, 6, 49, 50, 52, 58,  
81, 85, 86, 90, 92, 113,  
115, 117, 120, 123, 132  
Gwalior, 116, 124

## H

Hosadurga, 71  
Hyderabad, 4, 25, 33, 134,  
136-9, 142, 144, 145, 146,  
150  
Hyderabad State, 46, 58, 62,  
75, 142, 149

## I

Ikkori, 105  
Indus, 13

## J

Jaitungaramesvara, 5  
Jainagar, 71  
Jalna, 122, 148  
Jaugada, 5, 18  
Jhausi, 11  
Junnar, 125, 127

## K

Kakni, 107  
Katabgur, 86  
Kalinga, 3, 5, 8, 9, 12, 13,  
15, 17, 18, 20, 23, 29, 33,  
34, 37, 42, 43, 74, 76, 78,  
80  
Kalyan, 105, 127  
Kalyana, 2  
Kalyani, 52, 53, 54, 55, 58,  
61, 62, 66, 101, 102, 103,  
106, 108, 109, 113, 114,  
118, 119  
Kampili, 66, 54  
Kampili kingdom, 74  
Kanchi, 38, 48  
Kandukur, 109  
Kanthana, 95  
Kanouj, 48, 50  
Kara, 60, 66, 67  
Karad, 9  
Karnataka, 3, 4, 6, 52, 58,  
66, 75, 103, 105, 106, 111,  
112, 129, 130, 134-137,  
143, 147, 148  
Karnul, 109, 144, 148  
Karnul district, 18, 76, 77,  
83, 105, 108, 110, 111  
Kashmir, 59  
Kasimkota, 109, 110  
Kathiawar, 25  
Kauthalva, 95  
Kaveri, 38

Khammammet, 81, 96, 107  
Khandesh, 47, 117, 121, 129,  
137  
Khanwa, 133  
Khelna, 131  
Kherla, 89, 93  
Khyber, 6  
Kim, 37  
Kinjuty, 100  
Kirnapura, 49  
Kishkindha, 9  
Kohir, 86  
Kolhapur, 47, 56, 59, 128,  
134, 135  
Kolliapaka, 53, 61,  
Kondana, 105  
Kondapalli, 7, 84, 97, 108  
Kondapur, 21  
Kondavidu, 7, 76-80, 83, 84,  
90, 93, 95, 97, 107, 108,  
147  
Konkan, 8, 37, 47, 59, 86,  
91, 95, 127, 128, 129  
Koppam, 54  
Kottakonda, 80, 83  
Kovilkonda, 97, 107, 109  
Krishna, 2, 7, 30, 31, 32, 38,  
41, 54, 58, 75, 76, 84,  
89, 96, 97, 98, 100, 105,  
109, 144  
Kudalsangamam, 54  
Kukura, 25

## L

Lakkundi, 58  
Lattalura, 46  
Latur, 46

## M

Madhyadesa, 1, 9, 11, 33  
Madhyapradesh, 5, 11, 33  
Madras, 143, 147  
Madura, 11, 111  
Magadha, 15, 23, 24  
Maharashtra, 2, 6, 20, 22, 25,  
39, 52, 66, 71, 86, 133,  
139  
Mahe, 37  
Mahendragiri, 7, 11  
Mahuli, 125, 127  
Mahur, 86, 113  
Malaprabha, 58  
Malkhed, 53  
Malnad, 105  
Malthan, 137  
Malva, 26, 33, 47, 50, 58,  
59, 81, 86, 133, 135  
Mandu, 116, 122  
Manimangalam, 38  
Maski, 5, 18  
Masulipatam, 93, 145, 146  
Medak, 80  
Miraj, 105  
Mudgal, 88, 89, 91, 95, 101  
Mudhol, 86  
Mudivemu, 5

Mulaka, 25  
Musi, 41, 47  
Musungi, 53  
Mysore, 47, 140  
Mysore State, 25, 66

## N

Nagarjunakonda, 7, 18, 30  
Naldurg, 101, 104  
Nalgonda, district, 75, 78,  
79, 101, 107, 119  
Nandigir, 131  
Naneghat, 23  
Narmada, 2, 7, 37  
Narnala, 114, 118,  
Nasik, 26, 38  
Nellore, 84, 111  
Nellore district, 30, 40, 42,  
76, 82, 83, 93  
Niravadyapura, 42  
Nizampatam, 146  
Nizampur, 85  
Nolambavadi, 48, 53

## O

Orissa, 71, 74, 91, 93, 109

## P

Paithan, 2, 11, 21, 116  
Palkhed, 135  
Panagal, 80, 83, 89, 90, 109,  
136  
Pandhavati, 2  
Pandulena, 26  
Panhala, 106, 131  
Panipat, 138  
Pataliputra, 15, 20, 24  
Pathri, 113, 118  
Pattadakal, 19  
Parenda, 102, 105, 113, 119,  
123  
Pariyala, 38  
Parli, 131  
Patna, 59  
Pennar, 5, 63, 76  
Persia, 38  
Peruvalanallur, 39  
Peruvangura, 42  
Pishtapura, 29  
Penugonda, 93  
Podiyil hill, 16  
Pondicherry, 143, 144, 146  
Poona, 124, 125, 126, 128,  
135, 136, 138, 139  
Potana, 81  
Potnur, 97  
Pratapad, 128  
Pratisthana, 11  
Prayaga, 1  
Pulicat, 111  
Pullalur, 38  
Pundi, 53  
Pundur, 54  
Punjab, 1, 11, 24  
Purandhar, 105, 126, 128  
Puri, 37

Rahuri, 117  
 Raichur, 86, 88, 91, 95, 98,  
 100, 101  
 Raichur doab, 87, 97, 130  
 Rajahmundry, 43, 71, 72, 74,  
 77, 78, 80, 83, 84, 90,  
 93, 96, 97  
 Rajakonda, 79, 81, 96  
 Rajaputana, 25  
 Rajgad, 126, 129, 130, 131  
 Rakkasatagadi, 103, 109  
 Rakshasbhuvan, 139  
 Ramagiri, 80  
 Ramesvaram, 50  
 Rattappadi, 52, 54  
 Rekappalli, 72, 75  
 Revatidwipa, 37  
 Roshangaon, 122

## S

Sabbi district, 62  
 Sahyadri, 2  
 Salbai, 140  
 Sanchi, 24  
 Sangamaesvar, 130  
 Sankarkhedla, 134, 135  
 Satara, 38, 47, 106, 131  
 Saurashtra, 22, 25  
 Savantwadi, 38  
 Savanur, 144  
 Secunderabad, 4  
 Seistan, 23  
 Setu, 2  
 Sholapur, 100, 101, 102, 105,  
 106, 113, 118, 119  
 Siddhapura, 5, 18  
 Simhachalam, 66, 76, 77, 78,  
 80, 97  
 Simhagad, 131  
 Sinkhed, 138  
 Sonpet, 104, 117  
 Sopara, 5, 9, 13

Soratur, 58  
 Sravanabelgola, 13  
 Sravasti, 12, 15  
 Sripavata, 28  
 Srisaillam, 34, 62, 76  
 Supa, 105, 124, 126  
 Surat, 6, 128  
 Surparaka, 9  
 Suvarnagiri, 17, 18

## T

Tagara, 2  
 Takkolam, 50  
 Tallikota, 98, 99, 103, 109,  
 114, 118  
 Tamilaham, 2, 5  
 Tanjore, 50  
 Tapati, 3, 51, 142  
 Telingana, 4, 58, 60, 71-74,  
 76, 79-83, 90-97, 107,  
 123  
 Tilang, 71  
 Tirunelveli, 16  
 Tondaimandalam, 39, 50  
 Toragal, 10  
 Travancore, 148  
 Trichinopoly, 136, 142, 147  
 Tripavata, 35  
 Tripuri, 59  
 Torna, 105, 126, 131  
 Tungabhadra, 48, 64, 88, 89

## U

Uchchangi, 35  
 Udayagiri, 82, 83, 96, 97  
 Udgir, 119  
 Ujjain, 24, 26, 30  
 Upparapalli, 68  
 Uttala, 9  
 Uttarapatha, 5, 6  
 Uruli, 138, 139

## V

Vadugavali, 5  
 Vadugu, 5  
 Vandan, 131  
 Vanavasi, 4, 28, 29, 30, 31,  
 34, 35, 36, 54, 55, 56  
 Vellore, 105  
 Vengi, 29, 31-34, 38, 40-45,  
 48-54, 61  
 Verul, 124  
 Vidarbha, 5, 7, 9, 12, 15,  
 23, 25  
 Vidisa, 23, 33  
 Vijayanagara, 61, 66, 73,  
 75-78, 79, 80-84, 86-89,  
 92, 95, 97, 99, 100, 101,  
 103, 104, 107-110, 113,  
 119, 126  
 Vijayapuri, 28, 30  
 Vinasina river, 1  
 Vindhya, 1, 5, 6, 9, 10,  
 12, 13, 29, 33, 41, 67  
 Vinukonda, 76  
 Virajapuri, 42  
 Visalgad, 106, 130  
 Vizagapatam district, 76, 110,  
 146  
 Vatap, 36

## W

Wagingera, 131  
 Wandiwash, 111  
 Warangal, 39, 61-64, 66, 70,  
 72, 73, 74, 75, 79, 80, 82,  
 85, 86, 90, 92, 96  
 Wardhangar, 131  
 Wasal, 140  
 Western Ghats, 2, 6, 7

## Y

Yerragudi, 5, 18

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