
EDEN IAS

HISTORY OPTIONAL
Concept Series by

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01_GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS OF HISTORY

Geographical Factors

- India or Bharatvarsa is bounded on north by Himalayas and on the south by ocean. A part of Jambudvipa, the scriptures called it Bharatvarsa or where the descendants of Bharatas live.
- The name Hindu or India is given by the Persians.
- They call it Sapta-Sindhu, a land watered by the river Sindhu. The ancient name Bharatvarsa has its authenticity in ancient literature that refers to Bharat clan that dominated the large area of the country.
- On the north the huge range of Himalayas render very strong frontier to this country. The other mountains like Hindukush and Vindhyachal have equally played decisive roles in molding the history of land.
- The five passes of Himalayas—Khyber, Bolan, Tochi, Gomal and Kurram served as important ways for invasion and migrations that influenced the formation of the history of the land. Khyber and Bolan passes are the major ones. Rig-Veda refers to Tochi-Kurram pass used by Aryan invaders.



- These five natural routes, known as five fingers, connect Iran and central Asia with India. The passes eased the movement and the invaders used these to conquer the land ultimately changing the entire court of history and moulding the civilisation.
- Hindukush range has two passes-Qora-Kotal and Dandan-Shikan that connect Western Afghanistan and Hari Rud valley with Balkh (Bactria). This route facilitates the eastward movement towards Kabul. Between Kabul and Kandahar, a series of valleys and mountain passes offer several ways to Punjab frontiers.
- The Huns, Persians, Greeks, Sakas, Turks and Afghans entered the country through these passes. They not only politically dominated the land but also influenced the culture and the society.
- The vast coastline had activated the maritime activities and led to the establishment of a number of harbours. The trade relations with Rome, China, Malaysia, and South-east Asia were developed.
- The plains of north India were fertile land that rendered prosperity to the country
- The various races that entered the region as invaders settled down here. In course of time they lost their identity. The Indian society is a mixture of various races like Aryans, Dravidians, Persians, Greeks, Turks, Mughals, Huns, Sakas, Kushans, etc. This led to the formation of a composite culture in India.

Important passes:



02_MEGALITHIC CULTURES

A megalith is a stone which is larger in size and has been used to construct a monument or a structure. The monument or the structure has been constructed either alone or together with other stones. Megalithic has been used to describe buildings built by people living in many different periods from many parts of the world. The construction of this type of structures took place mainly in the Neolithic and continued into the Chalcolithic Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age.

Apart from the ethnic affinities and possible migration, the chronology of megaliths in India still poses certain problems. Wheeler (1948) assigned a date for the megalithic culture approximately to the 2nd Century B.C. Gordon and Haimendorf (as quoted by Srinivasan and Benerjee 1953:114) proposed dates between c. 700 to 400 B.C. Seshadri (1956) dated them between 6th century B.C. to 1st century A.D. Sundara (1969-70) proposed a date at c. 1100 B.C. for Terdal in Karnataka. Sundara and Aiyappan (1945) extended antiquity of the megaliths as far back as the Indian Neolithic times. The Chalcolithic-megalithic contact period in Maharashtra goes back to c. 700 B.C. Megaliths of Vidarbha is dated to the 6th or 7th centuries B.C.

Megalithic Sites:

- As with the descriptive accounts, the first excavation of Megalithic monuments also took place more than a century ago. In the last quarter of the 19th century, **Dr. Jagor** first excavated in the classic site of **Adicanallur** in the **Tirunelveli** district, Tamil Nadu.
- The extensive site of **Junapani**, near Nagpur in Maharashtra was also excavated on a small scale by **Rivett-Carnac (1879)**.
- In the later years of the 19th century, **Alexander Rea (1902-03)** excavated a number of megalithic sites in South India.
- The classic site of **Adichanallur** was also reexcavated in 1903-04 by Louis Lopicque.
- By the end of the first quarter of the 20th century, a number of Megalithic sites had been excavated. However, the first attempt to place the South Indian Megaliths in a chronological framework was by **Sir Mortimer Wheeler (1948)**, who excavated the sites of **Brahmagiri** and **Chandravalli** in Karnataka in 1944.
- An extension of the South Indian Megaliths to **Vidarbha** has come to light by the excavation at Junapani and subsequent full-fledged excavations at **Khapa** and **Muhurjhari**. The excavations at Khapa and Mahurjhari and another site at **Naikund** have supported that the megaliths belonged to a particular section of the community or people in each region.
- At **Khapa**, situated on the left bank of the river **Krishna** there are a number of megaliths in the form of stone circles, whereas on the opposite side at **Takeghat** there is a habitation site. This, at present on the evidence of C-14 date from Takalghat, is placed around 556 B.C. Takalghat megalithic culture is believed to be similar to that of Hallur in Karnataka.
- Compared to **Khapa, Mahurjhari** from Nagpur is considered as a megalithic haven. With Junapani, it is said to have more than 300 stone circles.
- Altogether three localities have been identified at **Mahurjhari**. These are- In **Locality-I**, megaliths yielded iron axes, daggers, copper bowls, bells, bangles, numerous beads of semi-precious stones, black-and-red pottery and gold leaves. In **Locality-II**, the megaliths yielded several copper bangles, iron axes, chisels, gold spiral, iron nails etc. This locality seems to be more important because a human skeleton found associated with large number of objects and painted blackand-red potsherds, which were placed near the various parts of the interred body. In **Locality-III**, megaliths yielded full length human skeletons with iron and copper objects, including those for the horse. Gold ornaments and painted pottery belonged to a family or persons who were rich and important- probably warriors of a high status.
- A new dimension to the megalithic problem in India was revealed with the discovery of megaliths in the districts of **Banda, Allahabad, Mizapur and Varanasi** located in south-eastern Uttar Pradesh. The monuments called as

cairns (A cairn: is a man-made pile (or stack) of stones.) and **cists** (A cist: is a small stone-built, coffin-like box used to hold the bodies of the dead.) are comparatively sparsely distributed near the junction of the northeast slope of the Vindhyas, and in the Ganga plains. It has been found at all excavated sites at Varanasi, Allahabad, Mirzapur and Banda, that their makers dug fairly deep pits, deposited the funerary goods and covered them with hemispherical cairns of boulders bounded by stone circle. In case of a cist, a similar pit was dug and a box-like chamber was prepared with orthostats. The box was packed with small stones, and covered with massive single stone slab resting directly on the four uprights.

ing orientation of the bodies or the graves have been observed. In the Vidarbha region horses were buried with the dead, possibly after sacrifice, and this may have been a local ethnic tradition. However, the tradition of erecting megaliths is still found among the tribals living in Northeastern, Eastern, Central and South India. The reasons behind the erection of megaliths are not very clear.

In this situation, we can derive some clues on the megaliths' associations by observing the practices of the tribes who still include megaliths in their religious beliefs, for example, the Gadabas, Gonds, Kurumbas, Marias, Mundas, Savaras, Garos, Khasis, Nagas, Karbis, Tiwas, and Marams. These groups still construct megalithic manuments for the dead. 'Megalithism' may be considered as a living tradition.

- Interestingly, unlike in the south, the Allahabad megaliths reflect the cultural change. The basic types- cairns, stone circles and cists-remain the same, but the grave goods consist, instead of microliths, iron objects like sickle, adze, arrowhead and dagger.
- On the opposite bank of the **River Belan** at **Koldihwa** and **Khajuri** megaliths belonging to chalcolithic cultures were found, lying between cultures of Varanasi and Kotla of Allahabad.
- Megaliths have also been discovered at **Waztal**, about 12 kms from the **Matau Spring**, and **Brah**, about 9 kms from **Martand** in Kashmir. At both the sites a number of huge standing stones were found. But these are scattered around without any regular plan.
- It is interesting to note that in spite of the local variations, the inhabitants used, right from the beginning up to the end, a Black-and Red Ware. For nearly 1500 years the technique of making of pottery, its decoration and firing did not change and the way of life of the people remained the same.

Burial Rituals and Social Organization :

The above description of the megalithic culture shows that the megalithic communities were dominated by religious and supernatural beliefs. This is evident from the elaborate objects associated with the burials. Different burial tradition could indicate different social and ethnic groups, but so far no fixed regional conventions regard-

03_IRON AGE

We study the Iron Age culture here because Megalithic culture is very much a part of Iron Age. The Iron Age in the Indian subcontinent succeeded the Late Harappan culture. The main divisions of Iron Age in India are the Painted Grey Ware (PGW) culture (1100 to 350 BC) and the Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW) culture (700 to 200 BC).

Iron Age in India brings one to the threshold of ancient history. This culture had recorded history. Literary accounts of the contemporary period are recorded in Vedas, Upanishads and other Brahmanic literatures. A combination of archaeological evidences and such literary accounts have become a standard method of dealing with Iron Age culture in India.

Historical kingdoms of the Iron Age:

- Iron Age India (1200-272 BC)
- Maha Janapadas (700-300 BC)
- Magadha Empire (648-424 BC)
- Nanda Empire (424-321 BC)
- Maurya Empire (Pre-Ashoka) (321-272 BC)

With the exception of the earliest phase of the Rigveda, most of the Vedic period, falls within the early part of the Indian Iron Age around 12th to 6th centuries BC.

Gangetic Valley:

The colonization of Ganga basin by iron users can be taken as one of the best evidence of second urbanization in India. Urban centres, which mushroomed around Indus, Ghaggar and its tributaries during 2600 BC to 1500BC were generally deserted after this time. Evidence of full fledged adoption of iron, however, is not seen until another 2 to 3 centuries.

Painted Grey Ware Culture:



Early phases of this culture are associated with copper and bronze. The phase, which corresponds with Northern Black Polished ware phase in Ganga valley, has yielded iron tools but stone tools also continued. The Painted Grey Ware culture (PGW) is an Iron Age culture of Gangetic plain, lasting from roughly 1000 BC to 600 BC. It is contemporary to, and is a successor of the Black and red ware culture. It probably corresponds to the later Vedic period. It is succeeded by Northern Black Polished Ware from ca. 500 BC.

The first large-scale and effective use of iron in India is associated with this culture. The PGW culture is found in the Indo-Gangetic Divide and the upper Ganga-Yamuna doab, the ancient Aryavarta and Madhyadesa.

Northern Black Polished Ware Culture and the Second Urbanization:



The Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW) Culture in India is a definite Iron Age Culture, succeeding the Painted Grey Ware Culture. Iron technology accelerated colonization of the middle and lower Ganga valley by farmers around 700 BC onwards. The characteristic pottery of this period is Northern Black Polished Ware. The NBP period saw the emergence of cities and first political entities known as Mahajanapadas in the Ganga plains in the 600 BC.

This period witnessed the second urbanization of India. By 600 BC a number of these Mahajanapadas had been assimilated into the first Indian empire known as the Magadhan Empire with its capital at Pataliputra being located at the place where modern Patna in Bihar is

situated. The Magadhan Empire was succeeded by the Mauryan Empire in the 400 BC. The best known Mauryan emperor, Ashoka, expanded the empire up to Karnataka in the south, Bangladesh in the east and Afganistan in the northwest. He also patronized Buddhism and promoted its spread within the country as well as outside in Sri Lanka and other countries of Asia.

The pillar and rock edicts of emperor Ashoka were written in Brahmi script. Coinage in the form of silver punch-marked coins appeared in this period.

Southern Zone:

Iron Age in this area does not develop any special characteristic of its own like what has been observed in Western Uttar Pradesh. The Iron Age in South India till today is known entirely from a large variety of burials and their accompanying grave goods. Since these graves are mostly megalithic in nature the cultures are traditionally known as 'Megalithic Culture'.

In all Iron Age sites of Deccan India Black-and-Red ware is seen as the common feature of Iron Age and Megalithic culture.

04_DEVELOPMENT OF POTTERY



The art of handling of clay called Pottery was one of the earliest skills known to the Indians. It has come down to our times from pre-historic age. Indian pottery is said to be “the truest to nature, in the directness and simplicity of its forms, their adoption to use, and purest in art, of all its homely and sumptuary handicrafts”.

Pottery plays an important role in studying culture and reconstructing the past. Historically with distinct culture, the style of pottery changed. It reflects the social, economic and environmental conditions a culture thrived in, which helps the archaeologists and historians in understanding our past. It holds significant value in understanding cultures where script was either absent or remains undeciphered. Understanding of presence of fire, cooking, storage, sedentary or migratory populace, social stratification can all be developed via studying pottery.

Evolution of Pottery :-

Neolithic Age



We find the first reference of pottery in this age. Naturally it is hand-made pottery but during the later period footwheel is also used.

Features :-

- Unglazed/unburnished that is having rough surface.
- Handmade coarse grey pottery.
- Material – clay mixed with mica and sand.
- Pottery is devoid of any painting.
- In many cases twisted rice husk cords were impressed into wet clay for decoration.
- Found throughout India including the South. Burzahom – coarse grey pottery.
- Included black-burnished ware, greyware and mat-pressed ware.

Chalcolithic Age

By the second millennium B.C. several regional cultures sprang up in different parts of the Indian subcontinent. These were non-urban, non-Harappan and were characterized by the use of stone and copper tools. Hence, these cultures are termed as chalcolithic cultures. The chalcolithic cultures are identified on the basis of their geographical location. Thus, we have:

- The Banas culture (located in the Banas basin) in Rajasthan,
- Kayatha culture (type site Kayatha on the bank of river Kalisindh, an affluent of the Chambal) and represented by other sites in central India (in the Narmada, Tapi and Mahi valleys),
- Malwa culture (Malwa, and extending into other parts of Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra), and
- The Jorwe culture (Maharashtra).

In addition to cultural material of this phase, found at excavated sites, in parts of Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Rajasthan, Bihar, West Bengal, Orissa and Karnataka are found catches of copper/bronze objects. As these have been found in hoards (about a thousand objects altogether from 85 sites in the above mentioned states) these sites were thought to represent a distinct Copper Hoard culture.

At Saipai (Etawah Distt.) a site in Uttar Pradesh, a copper harpoon has been found in association with a pottery known as Ochre Coloured Pottery (OCP). Though some of the other Copper Hoard sites have yielded OCP, the copper objects are not found in direct association with OCP. As more than a hundred sites have yielded this characteristic pottery in the Ganga-Yamuna doab, these sites are described as belonging to the OCP culture.

OCHRE COLOURED POTTERY CULTURE (2500-1500B.C)



A new pottery type was discovered in trial excavations conducted in 1950 at Bisauli . (Badaun district) and Rajpur Parsu (Bijnor district) in Uttar Pradesh, both of them being Copper Hoard sites. This pottery is made of medium grained clay, underfired and has a wash of ochre (which has a tendency to rub off) ranging from orange to red. Hence, those sites associated with this ware are ascribed to Ochre Coloured Pottery culture (OCP culture).

Ochre Coloured Pottery sites are generally located on river banks. These sites are small in size and the mounds have a low height at many of the sites (e.g. Bahadarabad, Bisauli, Rajpur Parsu, Saipai). This indicates a relatively short duration of these settlements.

The material remains of OCP culture are mostly in the form of pottery. These consist of jars (including storage jars), bowls, ring-footed bowls, flasks, handled pots, miniature pots, basins spouts, etc.

The other objects comprise terracotta bangles; beads of terracotta and carnelian; terracotta animal figurines and cart wheels with a central knob; stone querns and pestles; and bone points.

HARAPPAN POTTERY



Polished Ware Pottery with rough surface :-

- Both polished and unpolished type of pottery existed
- Pottery generally has a red surface and is wheel thrown although handmade ones
- too exist
- Polished wares were well fired.
- Most of the pottery is polychrome meaning more than two colours are used to
- colour the pottery.
- Most of the pottery is utilitarian. Such potteries usually have flat bases
- Geometrical design along with paintings depicting flora and fauna are observed
- Perforated pottery was also found may be used for straining liquor.
- Pottery throughout the civilization was uniform (mass thrown) revealing some
- form of control and leaving less space of individual creativity
- Presence of luxurious pottery obtained from certain sites reveals economic
- stratification in the society

BLACK AND RED WARE CULTURE

Excavations at Atranjikhera in the early 1960s revealed a distinct horizon, sandwiched between OCP and PGW levels. This horizon has a characteristic pottery called Black and Red Ware (BRW).

A similar stratigraphic sequence has been discovered in the 1970s at Jodhpura and Noh in Rajasthan. The characteristic features of this pottery are the black colour inside and near the rim on outside, and red colour, over the rest of the body.

This colour combination, it is believed, has been produced by inverted firing. The pottery is mostly wheel turned, though some pots are also handmade. It is made of the clay and has a fine fabric with thin walls. Black and Red Ware pottery with paintings has also been found at sites in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal. But in the BRW of the doab area there is absence of paintings.

It is important to note that Black and Red Ware with some variation from region to region has a wide distribution. It occurs from Rupa in the north to Adichanallur in the south, and from Amra and Lakhahwal in the west to Pandu-Rajar-Dhibi in the east. It also covers a vast time span: from 2400 B.C. to the early centuries of the Christian era.

PAINTED GREY WARE CULTURE

The Vedic Era saw the emergence of Painted Grey Ware (PGW) Culture. The Rig Vedic sites have PGW but iron objects and cereals are absent. Hence it is considered a pre-iron phase of PGW. On the other hand, the Later Vedic sites are considered iron-phase of PGW. This pottery is an Iron Age pottery found in Gangetic plain and Ghaggar – Hakra valley, lasting from roughly 1200 BC – 600 BC. Mathura was the largest PGW site.

Since the first discovery of Painted Grey Ware (PGW) at Ahichchhatra in 1946, a huge number of sites have been brought to light in different parts of north India. Out of these 30 sites have been excavated. Some of the well known excavated sites are Rupa (Punjab), Bhagwanpura (Haryana), Noh (Rajasthan) Alamgirpur, Ahichchhatra, Hastinapura, Atranjikhera, Jakhera and Mathura (all in Uttar Pradesh).

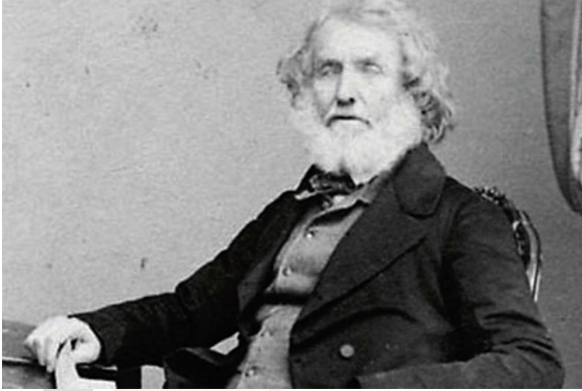
- Pottery is wheel made, out of well lavigated clay and has a thin core:
- It has a smooth surface, grey to ash-grey in colour.
- It is painted in black and sometimes in a deep chocolate colour on the outer as well as inner surface.
- It has nearly 42 designs and the most common types are bowls and dishes

NORTHERN BLACK POLISHED WARE

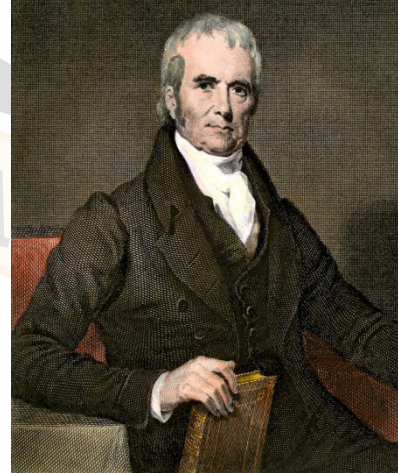
Like the preceding cultures the Northern Black Polished Ware culture is identified by its distinctive pottery. This ware was first discovered at Taxila in 1930 and because of its black lustre its discoverer then took it as 'Greek Black Ware'. Since then nearly 1500 NBP sites have come to light. They expand from Taxila and Udgram in the north-west to Talmuk in east Bengal and Amravati (Andhra Pradesh) in the south.

- The most characteristic feature of NBP Ware is its glossy surface.
- It is turned on a fast wheel and is made of well levigated clay.
- The core of the pottery in some cases is as thin as 1.5mm.
- Made of fine fabric and served as tableware for richer class. Considered deluxe pottery only found with the elites revealing societal stratification which was a result of Brahmanical hegemony.
- Found in Ahichatra, Hastinapur (both in UP), Navdatoli (Madhya Pradesh) Classified into two groups – bichrome and monochrome.
- Monochrome pottery has a fine and thin fabric. Potted on fast wheel and have a strikingly lustrous surface. 90% of this type is jet black, brownish black and bluish black and 10% have colours like pink, golden, brown among others.
- Bichrome pottery is found less. It shows all the features of monochrome except that it shows combination of two colours.

05_INDUS VALLEY CIVILIZATION



Alexander Cunningham



John Marshall

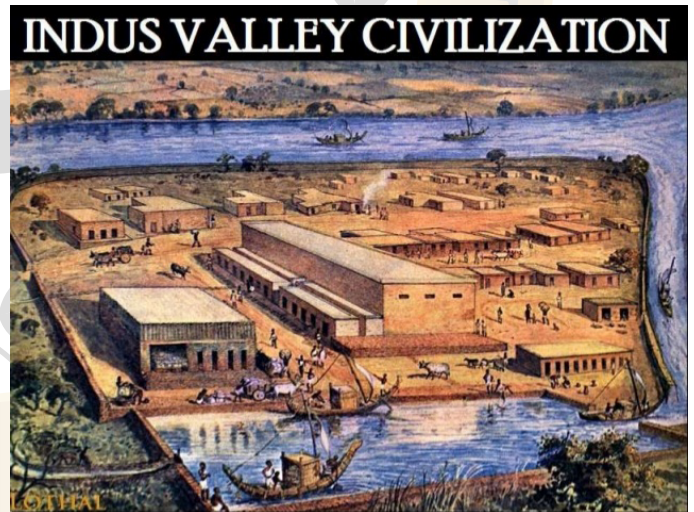


Charles Masson

In 1826 an English man Charles Masson visited a village named Harappa in Western Punjab (now in Pakistan). He noted the remarkably high walls, and towers of a very old settlement. He believed that this city belonged to the times of Alexander the Great. In 1872, a famous archaeologist Sir Alexander Cunningham came to this place. The people of the surrounding areas told him that the high mounds of Harappa were parts of a thousand year old city.

It had been ruined because of the wickedness of its king. Cunningham collected some archaeological objects from this site but he could not determine to which period of history they really belonged. He simply believed that these objects were probably from outside India, Thus, he concurred with the opinion of the people of the village that the city was about a thousand years old.

In 1924, when another archaeologist John Marshall reported about Harappa he talked about the discovery of a long forgotten civilization. This civilization was as old as the civilizations of Egypt and Mesopotamia.



Scholars named it the 'Indus Valley Civilization' because initially most of the settlements were discovered in the plains of the river Indus and its tributaries. Archaeologists however prefer to call it the 'Harappan Civilization'. This is because in archaeology there is a convention that when an ancient culture is described, it is named after the modern name of the site which first revealed the existence of this culture.

When we use the term "The Harappan Civilization" we are referring to a large number of cities, towns and villages which flourished in the 3rd millennium

B.C. These cities and villages had formed a network of interaction over a large geographical space. This geographical space would roughly cover the areas of modern day Rajasthan, Punjab, Gujarat, Pakistan and some of the surrounding areas. If we study the remains left by the people who lived in these areas before the emergence of the Harappan civilization, we can have some idea of how cities emerged. Scholars believe that there was a time in human past when cities did not exist and people lived in small villages. There are evidences to suggest that the forefathers of the Harappans were living in villages and small towns. Some of them engaged in pastoral nomadic activities, and some went in for trade. The Harappan civilization represents the culmination of a long period of evolution of agricultural and semi-nomadic communities.

The earliest evidence for the emergence of agricultural communities comes from a place called Mehrgarh, near the Bolan pass in the Baluchistan province of Pakistan. Beginning as a seasonal camp the place turned into a settled village in the 5th millennium B.C. itself. People in this place were growing wheat, barley, cotton and dates and tending sheep, goat and cattle. Mehrgarh is located at the place where the alluvial plains of the Indus join the uneven hilly plateau of the Indo-Iranian border land.

By the middle of the 3rd millennium B.C. many small and large villages had sprung up around the Indus, Baluchistan and Afghanistan area. The better known settlements among them are Kili Ghul Muhammad in Baluchistan and Mundigak in Afghanistan. In the Indus flood plains villages like Jalilpur near Harappa had come into existence. Once these agriculturists learnt to exploit the highly fertile flood plains of the Indus there was a sudden expansion in the size and numbers of villages.

This led to an increase in the number of settlements in Sindh, Rajasthan, Baluchistan and other areas

There are indications of the existence of pastoral nomadic communities in this period in the form of seasonal settlements. The interactions with these groups seem to have helped agriculturists exploit resources from other regions as the pastoral nomads are known to engage in trading activities over the areas they cover during their travels. All this led to the development of small towns. The period of this new development is called 'the Early Harappan' because of certain uniformities found all over the Indus.

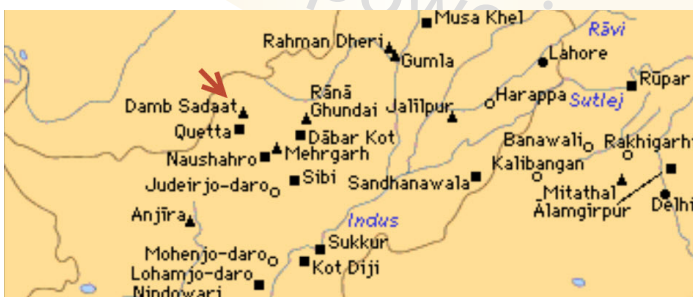
06_ THE EARLY HARAPPAN PERIOD

Southern Afghanistan



- In Southern Afghanistan there is a place called Mundigak: It seems to have been located on a trade route. That is why in the early Indus period, the inhabitants of this place were using artifacts which show affinities with some Iranian towns on the one hand and some Baluchistan towns on the other. Making an humble beginning as the camping site of some nomadic groups, the place grew into a township of impressive proportions.
- There is evidence of a defensive wall with square bastions of sun dried bricks. A large building with rows of pillars has been identified as a palace. Another large structure looks like a temple.
- A variety of potteries have also been discovered at this place. They were using naturalistic decorations showing birds, ibex, bull and Pipal trees. Terracotta female figurines similar to those found in
- contemporary sites in Baluchistan have also been found.
- They were also using bronze shafthole azes and adzes. Such semi precious stones as lapis-lazuli and steatite show their contacts with Iran and central Asia since these stones are not available locally.

Quetta Valley



To the South east of Mundigak is the Quetta valley. Here, in a place called Damb Sadaat, large houses having brick walls belonging to the beginning of the 3rd millennium B.C. have been discovered. Varieties of painted potteries similar to those of Mundigak have also been found. These people were using clay seals and copper objects also. These discoveries indicate the presence of a prosperous community which had solved its food problem and established trading contacts with region Far away.

Similarly, from the surrounding areas there are reports of distinct art and pottery traditions. In a place called Rana Ghundai people were using finely made painted pottery with friezes of humped bulls in black. The pottery showed distinct parallels with those of the Quetta valley. Another excavated site Periano Ghundai has yielded female figurines of a distinctive type.

The Indus Area

By the middle of the 4th millennium B.C. the Indus alluvial plains become the focal point of change. Many small and large settlements came into existence on the banks of the Indus and Ghaggar-Hakra. This area became the core region of the Harappan civilization.

1. AMRI:



The Sind province corresponding to the lower Indus plains showed interesting development. At the site of Amri the habitations show people living in houses

of stone and mud brick. They had constructed some kind of a granary also. They painted such animal motifs as the humped Indian bulls on their pottery. This motif was very popular during the 'Mature Harappan' phase. They had fortified their settlements before the coming of the Harappan civilization.

2. KOT DIJI



➤ Opposite Mohenjodaro on the left bank of the river Indus is the site of Kot Diji. The people living here in the 'Early Harappan' period had a massive defensive wall built around their settlement. The most interesting finds are their pottery. They were using a wheel-thrown pottery having decorations of plain bands of dark brownish paint. This kind of pottery has been reported from the pre-Harappan habitations in far flung places like Kalibangan in Rajasthan and Mehrgarh in Baluchistan.

➤ The Kot-Diji variety of pottery has been found along the entire stretch of the river Indus where settlements belonging to the pre-urban and urban phase of the Harappan civilization have been reported.

➤ This movement towards similar methods of decorating pottery indicates greater communication among the people of the Indus plains. It also anticipates the process of the convergence of cultures seen in the Harappan Civilization. Many of the designs on the pottery were carried over to the urban phase. At the same time certain other earthen vessels showed similarity with those of Mundigak. This shows the enlarged interaction sphere of the early Harappan sites.

3. Mehrgarh:



➤ Earlier we talked about the site of Mehrgarh. In the period preceding the Harappan urbanisation, the people of Mehrgarh had established a prosperous township.

➤ They used to make various kinds of beads of stone. Lapis-lazuli, one of the precious stones used by them is found only in the Badakshan region of Central Asia.

➤ Many seals and sealings have been reported.

➤ Similarities in the designs of potteries, terracotta figurines and objects of Copper and stone indicate that these people were in close contact with the neighboring towns of Iran. However, most of the pottery used by the people of Mehrgarh was similar to the ones used in the neighbouring settlements of Damb Sadaat and the Quetta Valley. These parallels indicate a close interaction among the surrounding communities.

4. Rahman Dheri:



If we follow the river Indus northwards we come across some more settlements which give us an idea of how people lived in 'Early Harappan' times. At a place called Rahman Dheri an 'Early Indus' township has been excavated. Oblong in shape with houses, streets and lanes laid out in a planned fashion, it is protected by a massive wall. Here too, beads of turquoise and lapis lazuli have been found.

5. Punjab and Bahawalpur:

- In western Punjab, Harappa is well known. During one of the excavations, habitations preceding the urban phase have been discovered. Unfortunately they have not been excavated as yet. The pottery found here seems to have similarities with the Kot Dijian ware. Scholars believe that these habitations represent the 'Early Harappan' phase in Harappa.
- In the Bahawalpur area about 40 sites of the 'Early Harappan' period have been located in the dry bed of the Hakra river. Here too the 'Early Harappan' is characterised by the Kot Dijian type of pottery

We have stressed upto the similarities found in the cultural traditions of diverse agricultural communities living in and around the Indus regions in the Early Harappan period. Beginning with small agricultural settlements the areas of Baluchistan, Sind, Punjab and Rajasthan saw the emergence of distinct regional traditions. However, the use of similar kinds of potteries, representations of a horned diety and finds of terracotta mother goddesses show the way to the emergence of a unifying tradition. The people of Baluchistan had already established trading relations with the towns of Persian Gulf and Central Asia. Thus, the 'Early Harappan' anticipate many of the achievements of the Harappan civilization.

07 EMERGENCE OF THE HARAPPAN CIVILIZATION

- In the backdrop of these processes of technological and ideological unification emerged the Harappan Civilization. The particular mechanisms of the birth of the civilization are obscure because we have not read their script and a lot many more excavations need to be carried out.
- Scholars generally believe that the Harappa, Ghaggar, Mohenjodaro axis represents the heartland of the Harappan Civilization.
- The settlements of Sutka-koh and Sutkagen-Dor on the Makran coast represent the driest part of the hilly Baluchistan region. They are the known western boundaries of the Harappans.
- The eastern borderlands of the Harappan Civilization are represented by such settlements as Bargaon, Manpur and Alamgirpur in U.P. Manda in Jammu and Ropar in Punjab represent the northern extremities of the Harappans in India. The settlements of Daimabad in Maharashtra and Bhagatruv in Gujarat might have formed the southern frontier of the Harappans.
- The Harappan Civilization seems to have covered a very large area. Its area was larger than those of the contemporary Civilizations of Mesopotamia and Egypt.
- What is intriguing however is the fact that there are no clusters of sites around Harappa. In Harappa a substantial section of the population was engaged in activities other than food production. These activities could relate to administration, trade, craft work or religion.
- The location of Harappa in isolation can be explained by 'the fact that it was located in the midst of some important trade routes which are still in use. These routes connected Harappa with Central Asia, Afghanistan and Jammu.

2. Mohenjodaro:



IMPORTANT CENTRES OF HARAPPAN CIVILIZATION

1. Harappa



- Harappa was the first site to be excavated. From the 1920s onwards archaeologists like Dayaram Sahni, M.S. Vats and Mortimer Wheeler carried out excavations at Harappa. It is located on the bank of the Ravi in Western Punjab.
- Mohenjodaro, located in the Larkana district of Sind on the bank of the river Indus is the largest site of the Harappan Civilization. Most of the information regarding the town planning, housing, seals and sealings of this Civilization comes from Mohenjodaro.
- Excavations began at this site in 1922, with R.D. Banerjee and Sir John Marshall taking up the work. Later on Mackay and George Dales also conducted excavations.
- Excavations show that people lived here for a very long time and went on building and rebuilding houses at the same location. As a result of this the height of the remains of the building and the debris is about seventy five feet. Ever since the time of occupation there were regular floods at Mohenjodaro. These floods caused deposition of alluvial soil. Historians have found the deposition of nearly 7 layers of alluvial soil because of which the site is often referred as 'Mound of Dead People', which is the meaning of this site in Sindhi Language.

3. Kalibangan:



The settlement of Kalibangan is located in Rajasthan along the dried up bed of the river Ghaggar. Kalibangan was excavated in the 1960s under the guidance of B.K. Thapar. This place has yielded evidence for the existence of Pre-Harappan and Harappan habitations. We have found the evidence of Earthquake from this site. Among the other finds from this site are Camel's bones, Fire altars, Wooden drainage system, wooden plough, copper ox etc.

- In Gujarat settlements such as Rangapur, Surkotada and Lothal have been discovered. Lothal is located in the coastal flats of the Gulf of Cambay.
- This place seems to have been an outpost for sea-trade with contemporary West Asian societies.
- Its excavator S.R. Rao claims to have discovered a dockyard here.
- We have the evidence of the rice, Fire altars, Chess playing, ivory weight balance etc.

4. Lothal:

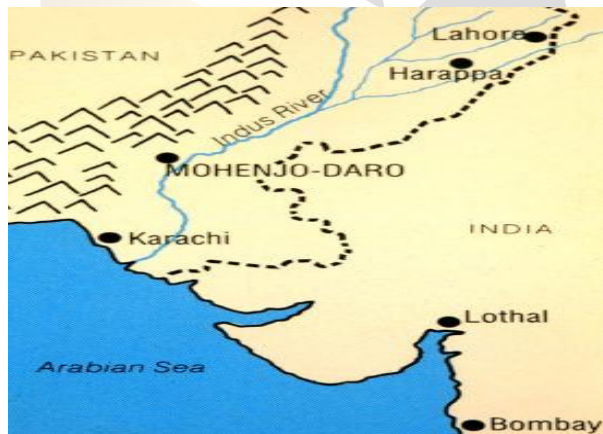


Lothal Dockyard

5. Sutkagen-Dor:



- Sutkagen-Dor is located near the Makran coast which is close to the Pakistan-Iran border. At present the settlement is land-locked in dry inhospitable plains.
- The town had a citadel surrounded by a stone wall built for defence. Its location in an inhospitable area can only be explained by the need of sea-port for trading.



Lothal Geographical Position

08_MATERIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HARRAPAN CULTURE

Town-Planning



- Archaeologists like Mortimer Wheeler and Stuart Piggot believed that the Harappan towns had a remarkable unity of conception. This was suggested by the division of each town into two parts. In one part was a raised citadel where the rulers were staying, in the other part of the town lived the ruled and the poor.
- The Harappan towns were located on the floodplains of rivers, on fringes of deserts or on sea coast. This meant that people living in these different regions faced different kinds of challenges from nature. Their adaptation to environment would introduce diversity in their town-planning and life style too.
- The settlements of Harappa, Mohenjodaro and Kalibangan show certain uniformities in their planning. These cities were divided into a citadel on the west side and a lower town on the eastern side of the settlement. The citadel was built on a high podium of mud brick. The citadel seems to have contained large structures which might have functioned as administrative or ritual centres. The lower city contained residential areas.
- In Mohenjodaro and Harappa the citadel was surrounded by a brick wall. At Kalibangan both the citadel and the lower city were surrounded by a wall, streets ran from north to south in the lower city and cut at right angles. Obviously, this kind of alignment of streets and houses represents conscious town planning.
- In Harappa and Mohenjodaro baked bricks were used for buildings. In Kalibangan mud bricks were used. In settlements like Kot Diji and Amri in Sind there was no fortification of the city.
- The site of Lothal in Gujarat also shows a very different layout. It was a rectangular settlement surrounded by a brick wall. It did not have any internal division into citadel and lower city. Along the eastern side of the town was found a brick basin which has been identified as a dockyard by its excavator.
- The site of Surkotada in kutch was divided into two equal parts and the building materials were basically mud bricks and lumps of mud.
- Harappans were using baked and unbaked bricks of standard size. This shows that it was not the individual house owners who made their own bricks, but that brick making was organized on a large scale

Housing Pattern:

- The average citizen seems to have lived in the blocks of houses in the lower city. Here too there were variations in the sizes of houses. It could be single room tenements meant for slaves like the ones discovered near the granary in Harappa.
- There were other houses complete with courtyards and having upto twelve rooms. The bigger houses were provided with private wells and toilets. These houses had much the same plan-a square courtyard around which were a number of rooms.
- The entrances to the houses were from the narrow lanes which cut the streets at right angles. No windows faced the street. This meant that the roadward facing of the house would be like a row of brick walls.

Tools and Implements:



Harappan Tools



The tools and implements used by the Harappans also show a striking degree of uniformity in designs and in technique of production. They were using tools made up of copper, bronze and stone. The basic tools types were flat axe, chisels, knives, spear heads and arrowheads for the copper and bronze implements. In the later stages of the Civilization they were also using daggers, knives and flat tangs. They were familiar with the techniques of casting bronze and copper. Stone tools were also in common use. They were produced on a large scale in factory sites like Sukkur in Sind and then sent to various urban centres.

Arts and Crafts:



Works of art give us an insight into how the society relates itself to its surroundings. They also give us an idea of how it views nature, human beings and divinity.

Probably, the most famous art piece from the Harappan Civilization is the bronze dancing nude figure discovered in Mohenjodaro. With head drawn backwards, drooping eyes and the right arm on the hip and the left arm hanging down the figure is in a dancing stance. She is wearing a large number of bangles, and her hair is plaited in an elaborate fashion. It is considered a masterpiece of the Harappan art.



The two little toy carts of bronze are also fairly well known objects. Although, one was discovered in Harappa and the other at Chanhudaro a distance of over 650 km they are identical in design.



The stone sculpture of a bearded head found in Mohenjodaro is another well known piece of art. The face is bearded with the upper lip shaved. The half closed eyes might indicate a state of meditation. Across the left shoulder is a cloak carved in relief with trefoil pattern. Some scholars believe that it is the bust of a priest.



The Harappans used remarkably beautiful beads made of such precious and semi-precious stones such as agate, turquoise, carnelian and steatite. The processes of making these beads are clear from the finds of a workshop in Chanhudaro. In these processes the stone was first sawn into an oblong bar, then flaked into a cylindrical shape and polished. Finally it was bored either with chert drills or with bronze tubular drills. Gold and silver beads have also been found. The commonest material used for making beads was steatite. In Mohenjodaro was also discovered a hoard of jewellery consisting of gold beads, fillets and other ornaments. Small dishes of silver too, have been found.

More than 2000 seals have been found from the Harappan settlements. They are considered 'the outstanding contribution of the Indus Civilization' to ancient craftsmanship. They were generally square in shape and made of steatite but some round seals have also been found. The designs on the seals include a wide range of animals associated with groups of signs in a semi-pictographic script. Some seals have only scripts carved on them and some others bear human and semi-human forms. Some seals show the use of various kinds of geometric patterns. The animal motifs used are the Indian bison, the Brahmani bull, rhinoceros, tiger and elephant. A series of composite animals are also shown. Seals could have also been used for exchange of goods between distant cities. The seal of a horned deity sitting in a yoga posture and surrounded by animals has been identified with the god Pashu

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