

APPOLO STUDY CENTRE

DELHI SULTANS

DELHI SULTANS	7th TERM I	Unit 2 : Emergence of New Kingdoms in North India
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7th Term - 1

Unit -II

Emergence of New Kingdoms in North India

Introduction:

- There are plenty of stories that speak of the valour and chivalry of Rajputs. Rajput states formed a collective entity that was called Rajputana. Chittor was prominent and had become the rallying point for all Rajput clans. It was small compared to Malwa and Gujarat. Yet the Rajputs ruled over these states. In commemoration of the victory of Rana of Chittor over Malwa, the Jaya Stambha, the tower of victory, was built in Chittor. The Pratiharas and the Palas had established their powerful kingdoms in western India and in eastern India respectively. By the 9th century, the Pratihara dynasty had progressed to such an extent that it called itself the sovereigns of Rajasthan and Kanauj. The decline of Pratihara kingdom led to the rise of Palas in Bengal and Chauhans in north-western India. India's Islamic period might have begun in the immediate context of Arabs' conquest of Sind (A.D. (CE)712) rather than in A.D. (CE)1200. But the resistance shown by the kings of Kanauj, especially of Yasovarman (A.D. (CE)736) and later by the Rajput chiefs and kings who held Kanauj and most of northern India until the middle of the 10th century made it impossible.

Origin of the Rajputs

- The word 'Rajput' is derived from the Sanskrit word Rajputra, which means 'scion of the royal blood'. After the death of Harsha in A.D. (CE) 647, various Rajput clans established kingdoms in different parts of northern and central India. The Rajputs trace their pedigree far back into the past. Their three principal houses are the Suryavanshi or the Race of the Sun, the Chandravanshi or the Race of the Moon and the Agnikula or the Race of Fire God. Among those who claimed descent from solar and lunar lines, Chandelas of Bundelkhand were prominent. Tomaras were ruling in the Haryana region. But they were overthrown by the Chauhans in the 12th century.
- Thirty-six royal Rajput clans were listed by the Oriental scholar James Tod in A.D. (CE) 1829. Among them four claimed a special status: the Pratiharas, the Chauhans, the Chalukyas (different from the Deccan Chalukyas), known as Solankis, and the Paramaras of Pawars. All the four clans were of the Agnikula origin.

Pratiharas

The Pratiharas or Gurjara Pratiharas, one of the four prominent clans of the Rajputs, ruled from Gurjaratra (in Jodhpur). In the 6th century A.D. (CE), Harichandra laid the foundation of the Gurjara dynasty. Nagabhata I was the first and prominent ruler of Pratiharas. In the 8th century, he ruled over Broach and Jodhpur and extended his dominion upto Gwalior. He repulsed the invasion of the Arabs of Sind from the east and checked their expansion. He was succeeded by Vatsaraja, who desired to dominate the whole of North India. His attempt to control over Kanauj brought him into conflict with the Pala ruler Dharmapala.

- There was a prolonged tripartite struggle between the Gurjara Pratiharas of Malwa, the Rashtrakutas of Deccan and the Palas of Bengal, as each one of them wanted to establish their supremacy over the fertile region of Kanauj. In the process, all the three powers were weakened
- Vatsaraja's successors Nagabhata-II and Rambhadra did not do anything impressively. Mihirabhoja or Bhoja, son of Rambhadra, within a few years of his accession, succeeded in consolidating the power of the Pratiharas. As a strong ruler, Bhoja was able to maintain peace in his kingdom. The Arab menace was firmly tackled by him. After Bhoja, the Pratihara Empire continued its full glory for nearly a century.
- Having successfully resisted the Arabs, the Pratiharas turned their attention towards the east and by the end of millennium, they ruled over a large part of Rajasthan and Malwa. They also held Kanauj for some time. The Rajputs fought each other endlessly in the 11th and 12th centuries. Taking advantage of these internecine quarrels, many local kings succeeded in making themselves independent.

Palas

Dharmapala (A.D. (CE) 770 - 810)

- Gopala, who founded the Pala dynasty, did not have royal antecedents. He was elected by the people for his superior capabilities. During his reign from 750 to 770, Gopala laid the foundations for the future greatness of this dynasty in Bengal. Dharmapala, his son, made the Pala kingdom a powerful force in northern Indian politics. He led a successful campaign against Kanauj. He was a great patron of Buddhism. He founded Vikramashila Monastery, which became a great centre of Buddhist learning.

- Dharmapala was succeeded by his son, Devapala, who extended Pala control eastwards into Kamarupa (Assam). Devapala was also a great patron of Buddhism. He gifted five villages to Buddhists. He also constructed many temples along with monasteries in Magadha. According to the historian R.C. Majumdar, 'The reigns of Dharmapala and Devapala constitute the most brilliant chapter in the history of Bengal.'
- After Devapala, five rulers ruled the region insignificantly. The kingdom attained unprecedented glory when Mahipala ascended the throne in 988.

Mahipala I (988 - 1038)

- Mahipala I was the most powerful ruler of the Pala dynasty. He is called the founder of the second Pala dynasty. The decline of Pratiharas gave the Palas an opportunity to take a leading role in north Indian affairs. But he could not extend his domain beyond Banaras because of the impressive campaigns of the Chola king from the South, Rajendra Chola. Mahipala restored the old glory of the Palas. He constructed and repaired a large number of religious buildings at Banaras, Sarnath and Nalanda.
- The Pala dynasty declined soon after the death of Mahipala and gave way to the Sena dynasty.

The Chauhans

- The Chauhans ruled between A.D. (CE) 956 and 1192 over the eastern parts of the present-day Rajasthan, establishing their capital at Sakambari. This Rajput dynasty was founded by Simharaji, who was popularly known as the founder of the city of Ajmer.
- The Chauhans were the feudatories of the Pratiharas and staunchly stood by them to check the Arab invasions. The last of Chauhan kings, Prithviraj Chauhan, was considered the greatest of all Chauhan rulers. He defeated Muhammad Ghori in the first battle of Tarain fought in 1191. However, he was defeated and killed in the second battle of Tarain in 1192.

There is a long epic poem Prithvirajraso, composed by the bard Chand Bardai, a few centuries later. The story goes like this: The daughter of the King of Kanauj was to marry. A suyamwara (the bride choosing the bridegroom of her choice) was held to enable her to choose her husband. But she was in love with Prithviraj and desired to marry him. Prithviraj was the enemy of her father. In order to insult him, the King of Kanauj had not only denied him an invitation but had placed a statue of Prithviraj as

door keeper at the entrance to his court. To the shock of everyone assembled, the princess rejected the princes present and garlanded the statue of Prithiviraj, indicating her choice. Prithiviraj, who had been hiding in the vicinity, jumped in and rode away with the princess in a horse. Later both of them were married.

Contribution of Rajputs to Art and Architecture

Art

- Rajput courts were centres of culture where literature, music, dance, paintings, fine arts and sculpture flourished. A specific style of Rajput painting – often focusing on religious themes emerged at Rajput courts. Their style of painting is called ‘Rajasthani’. The Rajasthani style of painting can be seen at Bikaner, Jodhpur, Mewar, Jaisalmer (all in Rajasthan).

Architecture

- The Rajputs were great builders. Some of the important examples of the Rajput buildings are the strong fortresses of Chittorgarh. Ranathambhor and Kumbhalgarh (all in Rajasthan), Mandu, Gwalior, Chanderi and Asirgarh (all in Madhya Pradesh).
- The examples of domestic architecture of the Rajputs are the palaces of Mansingh at Gwalior, the buildings at Amber (Jaipur) and lake palaces at Udaipur. Many of the Rajput cities and palaces stand among the hills in forts or by the side of beautiful artificial lakes. The castle of Jodhpur in Rajasthan is perched upon a lofty rock overlooking the town.
- The temples the Rajput rulers built have won the admiration of art critics. The temples in Khajuraho, the Sun temple in Konark, the Dhilwara Jain temple constructed in Mount Abu and Khandarya temple at Madhya Pradesh are illustrious examples of their architecture.
- The Khajuraho in Bundelkhand has 30 temples. The shikharas of the Khajuraho temples are most elegant. The exterior and interior parts of the temples are adorned with very fine sculptures. These temples are dedicated to Jain Tirthankaras and Hindu deities like Shiva and Vishnu.
- There are sixteen Hindu and Jain temples at Osian, which is 32 miles away from Jodhpur.
- The Jain temple at Mount Abu has a white marble hall and a central dome of 11 concentric rings and richly carved vaulted ceiling and pillars.

- The Raksha Bandan (Rakhi) tradition is attributed to Rajputs. Raksha

(protection) Bandhan (to tie) is a festival that celebrates brotherhood and love. It is believed that if a woman ties a rakhi around the wrists of male members, it means they are treating them like brothers. Such men are placed under an obligation to protect them.

- Rabindranath Tagore started a mass Raksha Bandhan festival during the Partition of Bengal (1905), in which he encouraged Hindu and Muslim women to tie a rakhi on men from the other community and make them their brothers. The exercise was designed to counter British efforts to create a divide between Hindus and Muslims.

Contribution of Palas to Culture

- The Palas were adherents to the Mahayana school of Buddhism. They were generous patrons of Buddhist temples and the famous universities of Nalanda and Vikramashila. It was through their missionaries that Buddhism was established in Tibet. The celebrated Buddhist monk, Atisha (981-1054), who reformed Tibetan Buddhism, was the president of the Vikramashila monastery. The Palas also maintained cordial relations with the Hindu-Buddhist state of the Shailendras of Sumatra and Java.
- Under Pala patronage, a distinctive school of art arose, called Pala art or Eastern Indian art. Pala artistic style flourished in present-day states of Bihar and West Bengal, and also in present-day Bangladesh. It was chiefly represented by bronze sculptures and palm-leaf paintings, celebrating the Buddha and other divinities. The Pala bronze sculptures from this area played an important part in the spread of Indian culture in Southeast Asia.

Advent of Islam

- Islam as a religious faith originated at Mecca in Arabia. The founder of Islam was Prophet Muhammad. The followers of Islam are called Muslims. An Islamic state, especially the one ruled by a single religious and political leader, was known as 'Caliphate'. Caliph means a representative of the Prophet Muhammad. Two early Caliphates were 'Umayyads' and the 'Abbasids'. Both the Umayyads and the Abbasids expanded their rule separately by their conquests and by preaching the principles of Islam.
- In the 8th century India, the Arab presence appeared in the form of a Muslim army that conquered the Sind. But their further expansion was made impossible by the kings of Gangetic plains and the Deccan. By the end of the 9th century, with the decline of the Abbasid Caliphate, the Arab garrisons in India and elsewhere threw off Caliph's control and began to rule independently.

- The Turkish governor, Alp-Tegin, was one among them whose capital was Ghazni (Afghanistan). His successor and son-in-law Sabuktigin wanted to conquer India from the north-west. But only his son Mahmud succeeded in this endeavour.

Arab Conquest of Sind and its Impact

- In A.D. (CE) 712, Muhammad bin Qasim who was the commander of the Umayyad kingdom invaded Sind. Qasim defeated Dahir, the ruler of Sind, and killed him in the battle. The capital of Sind, Aror, was captured. Qasim extended his conquest further into Multan. He organised the administration of Sind. The people of Sind were given the status of 'protected subjects'. There was no interference in the lives and religions of the people. But soon Qasim was recalled by the Caliph.
- The Arab scholars visited Sind and studied many Indian literary works. They translated many Sanskrit books on astronomy, philosophy, mathematics and medicine into Arabic. They learnt the numerals 0 to 9 from India. Until then, the people in the West did not know the use of zero. Through the Arabs, Europe gained more knowledge in mathematics. The importance of zero was learnt by them from India. It is believed that the people in the West and the Arabs learnt the game of chess only from the Indians.

Mahmud of Ghazni (A.D. (CE) 997 -1030)

- Mahmud is said to have conducted 17 raids into India. At that time, North India was divided into number of small kingdoms. One of them was Shahi kingdom, which extended from Punjab to Kabul. The other important kingdoms were Kanauj, Gujarat, Kashmir, Nepal, Malwa and Bundelkhand. The initial raids were against the Shahi kingdom in which its king Jayapala was defeated in 1001. After his defeat, Jayapala immolated himself because he thought that this defeat was a disgrace. His successor Anandapala fought against Mahmud but was defeated in the battle of Waihind, near Peshawar, in 1008. As a result of his victory at Waihind, Mahmud extended his rule over Punjab.
- The subsequent raids of Mahmud into India were aimed at plundering the rich temples and cities of North India. In 1011 he raided Nagarkot in Punjab hills and Thaneshwar near Delhi. Gujarat. In 1024 A.D. (CE) Mahmud marched from Multan across Rajaputana and defeated the Solanki king Bhimadeva I and plundered Anhilwad. Mahmud is said to have sacked the famous temple of Somanath, breaking the idol. Then he returned through the

Sind desert. That was his last campaign in India. Mahmud died in 1030 A.D. (CE) The Ghaznavid Empire roughly included Persia, Trans-Oxyana, Afghanistan and Punjab.

Muhammad of Ghor (1149 - 1206)

- Muhammad of Ghor or Muhammad Ghori started as a vassal of Ghazni but became independent after the death of Mahmud. Taking advantage of the decline of the Ghaznavid Empire, Muhammad Ghori brought Ghazni under his control. Having made his position strong and secure at Ghazni, Muhammad turned his attention to India. Unlike Mahmud of Ghazni, he wanted to extend his empire by conquering India. In 1175 Muhammad captured Multan and occupied whole of it in his subsequent expeditions. In 1186 he attacked Punjab and captured it.

The Battle of Tarain (1191 - 1192)

- Realising the grave situation in which they were caught, the Hindu princes of North India formed a confederacy under the command of Prithviraj Chauhan. Prithviraj rose to the occasion and defeated Muhammad in the battle of Tarain near Delhi in 1191. This was called the first battle of Tarain. To avenge this defeat, Muhammad made serious preparations and gathered a huge army. He arrived with his large force in Lahore via Peshawar and Multan. He sent a message to Prithviraj, asking him to acknowledge his supremacy and become a Muslim. But Prithviraj rejected the proposal and prepared his army to resist the invader. Many Hindu kings and chieftains also joined him. In the ensuing second battle of Tarain in 1192, Muhammad thoroughly routed the army of Prithviraj who was captured and killed.
- The second battle of Tarain was a major disaster for the Rajputs. Their political prestige suffered a serious setback. The whole Chauhan kingdom now lay at the feet of the invader. The first Muslim kingdom was thus firmly established in India at Ajmer and a new era in the history of India began. After his victory over Prithviraj at Tarain, Muhammad returned to Ghazni to deal with the threat from the Turks and the Mongols. After the death of Muhammad in 1206, his most capable general Qutb-ud-din Aibak who had been left behind in India took control of Muhammad's territories in India and declared himself as the First Sultan of Delhi.

Unit -IV

The Delhi Sultanate

Introduction

- During the eleventh century, the Turkish horsemen pillaged northern India and due to their persistent campaigns, they succeeded in seizing political control of the Gangetic plain by the next century. Though the success of their conquests could be attributed to their audacity and ferocity, their success is really due to the failure of Indians to defend themselves and their territories. Indians viewed each other with distrust, failing to take note of the success of Islam in early years of its spread. The superior military might of Muslim soldiers was yet another factor that contributed to success in their conquests. In this lesson, we discuss how Turkish warriors set about founding and consolidating their Islamic rule till the advent of Babur.

Slave Dynasty (1206 - 1290)

- Muslim rule in India was established by Muhammad Ghori in 12th century A.D. (CE). As he had no sons, he nurtured special slaves called bandagan (a Persian term used for slaves purchased for military service). These slaves were posted as governors and they were later raised to the status of Sultans. After Ghori's death in 1206, one of his slaves Qutb-ud-din-Aibak who had been left behind by Muhammad Ghori to govern the territories he had conquered, proclaimed himself ruler of the Turkish territories in India. He laid the foundation of the Slave Dynasty. This dynasty is also known as Mamluk dynasty. Mamluk is an Arabic word meaning "slave". Qutb-ud-din-Aibak, Shams-ud-din-Iltutmish and Ghiyas-ud-din-Balban were the three great Sultans of this dynasty. The Slave Dynasty ruled over the sub-continent for about 84 years.

Qutb-ud-din-Aibak (1206 - 1210)

- Qutb-ud-din-Aibak began his rule by establishing Lahore as the capital of his kingdom. Later he shifted his capital to Delhi. He was active all through his rule in Delhi conquering new territories and suppressing rebellions. He personally led military campaigns to the central and western Indo-Gangetic plain (north India) and left the conquest of the eastern Gangetic Plain (Bihar, Bengal) to the care of Bakhtiar Khalji. Aibak built the Quwwat-ul-Islam Masjid (mosque) in Delhi. This mosque is considered to be the oldest in India. He also laid the foundation of the Qutb-Minar, but he was unable to complete it. It was later finished by his son-in-law and his successor Iltutmish. Aibak died of injuries received during an accidental fall from a horse, while playing polo in 1210.

Iltutmish (1210 - 1236)

- Aibak's son Aram Shah proved incompetent and so the Turkish nobles chose Iltutmish, the son-in-law of Aibak as the Sultan, who served as a military commander of Aibak. Iltutmish firmly established his control over the territories by suppressing rebellions. It was during his reign that the threat of Mongols under Chengiz Khan loomed large over the frontiers of India. He averted the impending danger by refusing to provide shelter to the Kwarezm Shah Jalal-ud-din, who had been driven out by Chengiz Khan. In order to counter the possible attack of the Mongols, Iltutmish organised Turkish nobility into a select group of 40 nobles known as chahalgani or The Forty.
- Iltutmish granted iqta (land) to members of his army. Iqta is the land granted to army officials in lieu of a regular wage. The iqta holder is called the iqtadar or muqti who had to provide the Sultan with military assistance in times of war. The iqtadar collected revenue from his iqta to meet the cost of maintaining his troops and horses.
- Iltutmish completed the construction of the Qutb-Minar, which had been started by Aibak. Iltutmish died in April 1236 after ruling for 26 years.

Razia (1236 - 1240)

- As the most capable son of Iltutmish, Rukn-ud-din-Firuz, was dead, Iltutmish nominated his daughter Razia Sultana as his successor to the throne of Delhi. Razia was an able and brave fighter. But she had a tough time with Turkish nobles as she favoured non-Turkish nobles. She also faced the situation of the ferocious Mongols raiding Punjab during her reign.
- Razia made an Ethiopian slave named Jalal-ud-din Yakut as her personal attendant and started trusting him completely. This led to a revolt of the Turkish nobles who conspired against her and got her murdered in 1240.

Ghiyas-ud-din Balban (1266 - 1287)

- After Razia, three weak rulers in succession ascended the throne. After them came Ghiyas-ud-din Balban. Balban abolished The Forty as it was hostile to him. He established a department of spies to gather intelligence about the conspirators and the trouble makers against his rule. He dealt with insubordination and defiance of royal authority sternly. Tughril Khan, a provincial governor in Bengal, who raised a banner of revolt against Balban, was captured and beheaded. He was ruthless in dealing with enemies like Meos of Mewat (a Muslim Rajput community from north-western India). Balban, however, took care to maintain cordial relationship with the Mongols. He obtained from Hulagu Khan, a grandson of Chengiz Khan and

the Mongol viceroy in Iran, the assurance that Mongols would not advance beyond Sutej.

- Balban built forts to guard his empire against the Mongol attacks. He patronised the famous Persian poet Amir Khusru. Balban died in 1287. Balban's son Kaiqubad turned out to be weak. In 1290 Malik Jalal-ud-din Khalji, the commander of the army, assumed the office of Naib (a deputy to the Sultan) and ruled the kingdom in the name of Kaiqubad. Then one day, Jalal-ud-din sent one of his officers and had Kaiqubad murdered. Jalal-ud-din then formally ascended the throne. With him began the rule of Khalji dynasty.

Khalji Dynasty (1290 - 1320)

Jalal-ud-din Khalji (1296 - 1316)

- There were many military campaigns during the reign of Jalal-ud-din. But they were mostly organised and led by his nephew, Ala-ud-din, the governor of Kara. One significant military expedition was against the Deccan kingdom Devagiri. Ala-ud-din, after defeating the Yadava king Ramachandra, plundered the city and returned with huge wealth. Ala-ud-din treacherously killed Jalal-ud-din after buying off the prominent nobles and important commanders with the wealth he had brought from the Deccan and declared himself as the Sultan of Delhi in 1296.

Ala-ud-din Khalji (1296 - 1316)

- Ala-ud-din Khalji consolidated the Delhi Sultanate. The range of his conquests is impressive: in the Punjab (against the Mongols), in Rajasthan and in Gujarat. With his northern frontiers secure, he sent his chief lieutenant Malik Kafur into the southern parts who took even the distant Madurai in 1310. The Yadavas of Devagiri, the Kakatias of Warangal, the Hoysalas of Dwarasamudra and the Pandyas of Madurai accepted Ala-ud-din's suzerainty.

- **Sack of Chittor (1303):** When Ala-ud-din's army overwhelmed the Rajput army in Chittor and in the context of threat of defeat, the men and women of the fortress, in accordance with their old custom, performed the rite of jauhar. According to this custom, left with no other way to survive, the men would go out and die in the field of battle and women would burn themselves on a pyre.

- Ala-ud-din's political and administrative reforms were as impressive as his military conquests. Ala-ud-din undertook a survey of the agrarian resources around his capital and fixed a standard revenue demand. He entrusted the task of collecting the revenue to the military officers. This measure deprived the local chiefs and rajas of their time memorial privilege. Ala-ud-din established a system of forced procurement of food grains for Delhi and other garrison centres. The procurement prices were fixed and grain collected as tax was stored in state granaries. In order to ensure the enforcement of his new regulations, he employed spies who were responsible to report to him directly.
- Ala-ud-din died in 1316. The failure of his successors to retain power led to the seizure of power by Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq, who founded the Tughluq dynasty.

Tughluq Dynasty (1320 - 1324)

- One of the major tasks of Ghiyas-ud-din as the Sultan was to recover the territories that the Sultanate had lost during the turmoil following the death of Ala-ud-din. Ghiyas-ud-din Tughluq sent his son Jauna Khan to fight against Warangal. Jauna Khan defeated Pratabarudra of Warangal and returned with a rich booty. With this looted wealth, Ghiyas-ud-din is said to have laid the foundation of the city Tughluqabad near Delhi. However, as Ala-ud-din treacherously killed his uncle, Jauna Khan was said to have killed his father and ascended the throne with title Muhammad-bin-Tughluq in 1325.

Muhammad-bin-Tughluq (1325 - 1351)

- Muhammad-bin-Tughluq was a learned man. Yet he was a person of cruelty. Ala-ud-din had conquered, looted and left the old ruling families as his dependents. In contrast, Muhammad Tughluq dreamt of making the whole of the subcontinent his domain. With the view to facilitating extended sovereignty, he shifted his capital from Delhi to the centre of the kingdom, namely Devagiri. He also changed its name to Daulatabad. When Muhammad himself decided that the move was a mistake, he ordered a return to Delhi as the capital again. When Ibn Battuta, the Morocco traveller who was with the Sultan, returned to Delhi, he found Delhi 'empty, abandoned and had but a small population'.

- It was a 40-days march to Daulatabad from Delhi. Many people left. Some hid themselves. When they were found, they were punished cruelly, even though one was a blind man and another a paralytic. Describing the city as

spreading over eight or ten miles, a historian observed: 'All was destroyed. So complete was the ruin that not a cat or a dog was left among the buildings of the city in its palaces or in its suburbs.'

- Tughluq changed the Ala-ud-din's system of revenue collections in grain and ordered that land revenue, which was increased, should henceforward be collected in money. This proved disastrous during famines. When he discovered that the stock of coins and silver was inadequate for minting, he issued a token currency in copper. Counterfeiting soon became order of the day and, as a result, the entire revenue system collapsed. Trade suffered as foreign merchants stopped business. This forced Sultan to withdraw the token currency and pay gold and silver coins in exchange. This move led the state to become bankrupt. Tughluq increased land tax in the Doab region, which triggered peasant revolts. As the revolts were cruelly dealt with, peasants abandoned cultivation, which resulted in the outbreak of frequent famines.
- Tughluq ruled as Sultan for 25 years. During his long reign, he had to face many revolts of the provincial governors. The Governors of Awadh, Multan and Sind revolted and declared themselves independent. In South India, several states arose. The new Daulatabad and the conquered territories around them were declared independent sultanate called Bahmani. Its founder after whom it was named, was a soldier formerly in Tughluq service. Madurai was proclaimed a separate sultanate in 1334. Bengal became independent in 1346. Tughluq died on 23 March 1351.

Firoz Shah Tughluq (1351 - 1388)

- Firoz, the son of Ghiyas-ud-din's younger brother, succeeded Muhammad-bin-Tughluq. Firoz could neither suppress revolts nor win back the provinces that had broken away. He also showed no interest in re-conquering the southern provinces. He refused to accept an invitation (c. 1365) from a Bahmani prince to intervene in the affairs of the Deccan. Firoz rewarded Sufis and other religious leaders generously and listened to their advice. He also created charities to aid poor Muslims, built colleges, mosques, and hospitals. He adopted many humanitarian measures. He banned inhuman punishments and abolished taxes not recognised by Muslim law.
- He promoted agriculture by waiving off the debts of the agriculturalists and constructing many canals for irrigation. He laid out 1200 new gardens and

restored 30 old gardens of Ala-ud-din-Khalji. He had built new towns such as Firozabad, Jaunpur, Hissar and Firozpur.

- Despite adopting a peaceful approach and taking efforts to organise the Sultanate well, he had to spend his last days in unhappiness. His own son Muhammad Khan revolted against him and Firoz Shah died in September 1388, at the age of 83.

Timur's Invasion (1398)

- The sacking and massacre by Tamerlane or Timur of Delhi came a decade after Firuz Shah Tughluq died. As a ruler of the region around Samarkand in Central Asia, Timur had occupied some parts in the north-west of India. Taking advantage of India's weakness, he entered India in December 1398 and plundered Delhi. Punjab, besides the Delhi city, was the province that suffered most by Timur's raid. Timur, apart from carrying huge wealth in the form of gold, silver, jewels, also took along Indian artisans like carpenters and masons to work on monuments in Samarkand.

Sayyid Dynasty (1414 - 1451)

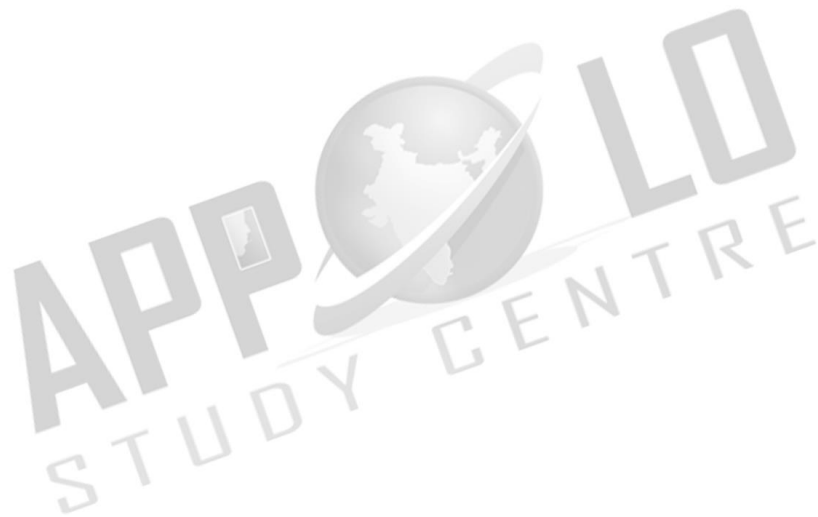
- Though the Sultanate fragmented into a number of independent kingdoms, it endured for 114 years more, till the Mughal invasion. Before leaving Delhi, Timur had left behind his representative Khizr Khan as the governor of the territories he had conquered (Delhi, Meerut and Punjab). He founded the Sayyid Dynasty in 1414, which lasted till 1451. The last ruler of this dynasty, Ala-ud-din Alam Shah, abdicated the throne in 1451. This gave Bahlol Lodi, then the governor of Sirhind (Punjab), the opportunity to become the new Sultan of Delhi, leading to the establishment of Lodi dynasty.

Lodi Dynasty (1451 - 1526)

- In 1489, Bahlol Lodi was succeeded by his son Sikandar Lodi. Sikandar was a patron of arts and learning. He founded the city of Agra and made it his capital. He died in 1517 and was succeeded by his son, Ibrahim Lodi, who was defeated by Babur in 1526 in the Panipat battle. Thus the Lodi dynasty and the Delhi Sultanate were ended by Babur who went on to establish the Mughal Empire in India.

- **Islamic art and architecture:** The mansions of high-ranking Muslim nobles, soldiers and officials were built first in cities and the neighbourhoods. Around them, the mosques in the imperial style were constructed by successive Muslim regimes in Delhi. Mosques and Madrasas looked

architecturally different. The graceful decorations of doorways and walls with lines from the Koran made a distinct appearance in these buildings. The shape of all these buildings was Persian, while the decoration was Indian. So, it is called Indo-Saracenic architecture. Qutb Minar, Alai-Darwaza, Quwwat-ul Islam Masjid, Moth-ki-Masjid, the tombs of Iltutmish, Balban and the forts of Daulatabad and Firozabad were all constructed in this style



11th Volume 1

Advent of Arab and Turks

Introduction

- The period from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries (1200-1550 CE) saw the arrival of Islamic institutions and Islamic culture in India. Historians have interpreted the history of this period from differing perspectives. Conventionally the regimes of the Sultanate have been evaluated in terms of achievements and failures of individual Sultans. A few historians, critiquing this personality oriented history, have evaluated the Sultanate as having contributed to material and cultural development, leading to the evolution of a composite culture in India. Historians focusing on history of class relations, have argued that the medieval state served as the agent of the ruling class and hence, the regimes of the Sultanate were diminutive in their institutional advancement when compared with the Great Mughals. Thus there is no consensus yet amongst scholars in determining the true nature of the Sultanate.
- The two-fold objective of this lesson are: (a) to introduce the students to a conventional study of rulers, events, ideas, people and their conditions under the Sultanate, and (b) to structure the content in such a way that the students examine it critically and raise new questions.

Advent of Arabs: The Context

- The geographical location of Arabia facilitated trade contact between India and Arabia. As sea-faring traders the pre-Islamic Arabs had maritime contacts with the western and eastern coasts of India. While there were south Indian settlements in the Persian Gulf, Arabs too settled in Malabar and the Coromandel Coast. Arabs who married Malabar women and settled down on the West Coast were called Mappillais (sons-in-law). Arab military expedition in 712 and subsequent Ghaznavid and the Ghori military raids, intended to loot and use the resources seized to strengthen their power in Central Asia, created a relationship of the conqueror and the conquered. Following the invasion of Afghanistan by Khurasan (Eastern Iran) Shah and later by Chengiz Khan severed the ties of North India Sultanate with Afghanistan. Mongol invasions destroyed the Ghurid Sulatanate and Ghazni, and cut into the resources of Sultan Nasir-ud-din Qubacha (1206-1228), the ruler of Uchch and Multan. Thus the Sultan Iltutmish had the opportunity of expanding his

influence in northern India that enabled Muslim rulers to rule Indian provinces with Delhi as capital for about four centuries.

- Though it is customary to describe this period as the Muslim period, the rulers of medieval India came from different regions and ethnicities: Arabs, Turks, Persians, and Central Asians were involved militarily and administratively. Iltutmish was an Olperli Turk and many of his military slaves were of different Turkish and Mongol ancestries brought to Delhi by merchants from Bukhara, Samarkhand and Baghdad. There were some slaves of other ethnicities as well (notably Hindu Khan, captured from Mihir in Central India) but Iltutmish gave them all Turkish titles.
- The Sultanate (1206–1526) itself was not homogenous. Its rulers belonged to five distinct categories: (a) Slave Dynasty (1206-1290) (b) Khalji Dynasty (1290-1320) (c) Tughlaq Dynasty (1320-1414) (d) Sayyid Dynasty (1414-1451) and (e) Lodi Dynasty (1451-1526).

Sources for the Study of Delhi Sultanate

- **Al-Beruni:** Tarikh-Al-Hind (Indian Philosophy and Religion written in Arabic)
- Minhaj us Siraj: Tabaqat-i-Nasiri (1260) (World Islamic History written in Arabic)
- **Ziauddin Barani:** Tarikh-i-Firoz Shahi(1357) History of Delhi Sultanate up to Firuz Tughlaq
- **Amir Khusrau:** Mifta Ul Futuh (Victories of Jalal-ud-din Khalji); Khazain Ul Futuh (Victories of Allauddin Khalji - Texts in Persian)
- **Tughlaq Nama** (History of Tughlaq dynasty in Persian)
- **Shams-i-Siraj Afif:** Tarikh i Firuz Shahi (after Barani's account of Delhi Sultanate in Persian)
- **Ghulam Yahya Bin Ahmad:** Tarikh-i- Mubarak Shahi (Written in Persian during the reign of Sayyid ruler Mubarak Shah)
- **Ferishta:** History of the Muslim Rule in India (Persian)

- Persian chronicles speak about the Delhi Sultanate in hyperbolic terms.

Their views dealing with the happenings during the period of a certain Sultan were uncritically appropriated into modern scholarship.

– Sunil Kumar, *Emergence of Delhi Sultanate*

The Arab Conquest of Sind

- The Arab governor of Iraq, Hajjaj Bin Yusuf, under the pretext of acting against the pirates, sent two military expeditions against Dahar, the ruler of Sind, one by land and the other by sea. Both were defeated and commanders killed. Hajjaj then sent, with the Caliph's permission, a full-fledged army, with 6000 strong cavalry and a large camel corps carrying all war requirements under the command of his son-in-law, a 17-year-old Muhammad Bin Qasim.

Muhammad Bin Qasim

- Muhammad Qasim marched on the fortress of Brahmanabad where Dahar was stationed with a huge army. Dahar's wazir (Prime minister) betrayed him, which was followed by the desertion of a section of his forces. The predecessors of Dahar, the Brahmin rulers of Sind, had usurped power from the earlier Buddhist ruling dynasty of Sind and, with the patronage of Dahar Brahmins, had occupied all higher positions. This led to discontentment and therefore Dahar lacked popular support. In this context it was easy for Muhammad Qasim to capture Brahmanabad. Qasim thereupon ravaged and plundered Debal for three days. Qasim called on the people of Sind to surrender, promising full protection to their faith. He sent the customary one-fifth of the plunder to the Caliph and divided the rest among his soldiers.
- The Arab conquest of Sind has been described as a "triumph without results" because it touched but a fringe of the country, which, after Qasim's expedition had a respite from invasions for about three centuries.

Mahmud of Ghazni

- In the meantime, the Arab empire in Central Asia had collapsed with several of its provinces declaring themselves independent. One of the major kingdoms that emerged out of the broken Arab empire was the Samanid kingdom which also splintered, leading to several independent states. In 963 Alaptigin, a Turkic slave who had served Samanids as their governor in Khurasan, seized the city of Ghazni in eastern Afghanistan and established an independent kingdom. Alaptigin died soon after. After the failure of three of his successors, the nobles enthroned Sabuktigin.

- Sabuktigin initiated the process of southward expansion into the Indian subcontinent. He defeated the Shahi ruler of Afghanistan, Jayapal, and conferred the governorship of the province on Mahmud, his eldest son. When Sabuktigin died in 997, Mahmud was in Khurasan. Ismail, the younger son of Sabuktigin had been named his successor. But defeating Ismail in a battle, Mahmud, aged twenty-seven, ascended the throne and the Caliph acknowledged his accession by sending him a robe of investiture and by conferring on him the title Yamini-ud-Daulah ('Right-hand of the Empire').

• To Arabs and Iranians, India was Hind and the Indians were 'Hindus'. But as Muslim communities arose in India, the name 'Hindu' came to apply to all Indians who were not Muslims.

Mahmud's Military Raids

- Mahmud ruled for thirty-two years. During this period, he conducted as many as seventeen military campaigns into India. He targeted Hindu temples that were depositories of vast treasures. Though the motive was to loot, there was also a military advantage in demolishing temples and smashing idols. The Ghaznavid soldiers viewed it also as a demonstration of the invincible power of their god. The religious passions of Mahmud's army expressed itself in slaughter of 'infidels' and plunder and destruction of their places of worship. However, there is little evidence of any large scale conversion of people to their faith. Even those who became Muslims to save their lives and properties, returned to their original faith when the threat of Ghaznavid invasion ceased.
- After defeating the Shahi king Anandapala, Mahmud went beyond Punjab, penetrating deep into the Indo-Gangetic plain. Before reaching Kanauj, Mahmud raided Mathura. In later historiography, of both the British and Indian nationalists, Mahmud is notorious for his invasion of the temple city of Somnath (1025) on the seashore in Gujarat. Many scholars argue that these plundering raids were more of political and economic character than of religious chauvinism. Desecration of temples, vandalising the images of deities were all part of asserting one's authority in medieval India. Mahmud's raids and his deeds fit this pattern, though their memories went into the creation of communal divide.
- This apart, the plundering raids of Mahmud were meant to replenish the treasury to maintain his huge army. The Turks relied on a permanent, professional army. It was built around an elite corps of mounted archers who

were all slaves, bought, trained, equipped, and paid in cash from the war booty taken alike from Hindu kingdoms in India and Muslim kingdoms in Iran.

- Persian sources contain exaggerated claims about the wealth seized from these raids. For instance, it is claimed that Mahmud's plunder of the Iranian city of Ray, in 1029, brought him 500,000 dinars worth of jewels, 260,000 dinars in coins, and over 30,000 dinars worth of gold and silver vessels. Similarly, Mahmud's raid on Somnath is believed to have brought in twenty million dinars worth of spoils. Romila Thapar points out that those who had suffered from these predatory invasions seemed to maintain a curious silence about them, as Hindu and Jain sources available on Somnath expedition do not corroborate the details or viewpoints found in Arab chronicles.
- Such plundering raids were economic and iconoclastic in nature, and communal character was attributed to them later. They represented the kinds of disasters that were inseparable from contemporary warfare and the usual plundering nature of rulers of the medieval period. The history of the Ghaznavid dynasty after the death of Mahmud is a story of endless clashes over succession between brothers, cousins, and uncles. There were, however, exceptions like Sultan Ibrahim who ruled for over forty-two years and his son Masud who ruled for seventeen years. The everhanging threat from Ghuris from the north and the Seljuq Turks from the west proved to be disastrous for the kingdom. The later rulers of Ghaznavid dynasty could exercise their authority only in the Lahore region and even this lasted only for three decades. In 1186 Ghuri prince Muizzud- din Muhammad invaded Punjab and seized Lahore. The last ruler Khurav Shah was imprisoned and murdered in 1192. With his death the Ghaznavid house of Mahmud came to an end.

Muhammad Ghori

- If Ghaznavid invasions were intended for loot, the Ghurids enlarged their scope to establish garrison towns to ensure the regular flow of plunder and tribute. Muizzuddin

- Al-Beruni, mathematician, philosopher, astronomer, and historian, came to India along with Mahmud of Ghazni. He learned Sanskrit, studied religious and philosophical texts before composing his work Kitab Ul Hind. He also translated the Greek work of Euclid into Sanskrit. He transmitted Aryabhata's magnum opus Aryabattiyam (the thesis that earth's rotation around its axis creates day and night) to the West. He was the inter-civilizational connect between India and the rest of the world.

- Muhammad of the Ghori dynasty, known generally as Muhammad Ghori, invested in territories he seized. Through the 1180s and 1190s Ghori established garrisons in the modern provinces of Punjab, Sind, and Haryana. These centres of military power soon attracted the in-migration of mercenaries in search of opportunities. These mercenaries were recruited to organize fiscal and military affairs of the Sultanate. The Sultan's military commanders in north India were drawn from his elite military class. Specially trained in warfare and governance these slaves were different from agrestic (related to land\field labour) and domestic slaves. Lahore, then Uchch and Multan were initially considered significant centres of power. In 1175 Ghori headed for the city of Multan which he seized from its Ismaili ruler. The fort of Uchch fell without a fight. The Chalukyas of Gujarat inflicted a crushing defeat on Muhammad Ghori at Mt. Abu (1179). After this defeat Ghori changed the course of his expedition, consolidating his position in Sind and the Punjab.

Prithviraj Chauhan

- Ghori attacked the fortress of Tabarhinda (Bhatinda), a strategic point for the Chauhans of Ajmer. The ruler of Ajmer Prithviraj Chauhan marched to Tabarhinda and faced the invader in the First Battle of Tarain (1191). Prithviraj scored a brilliant victory in this battle but failed to consolidate his position believing this battle to be a frontier fight, and did not expect the Ghurids to make regular attacks. Ghori was wounded and carried away by a horseman to safety. Contrary to the expectations of Prithviraj Chauhan, Muhammad Ghori marched into India in the following year (1192). Prithviraj underestimated the potential danger of the enemy. In the Second Battle of Tarain, one of the turning points in Indian history, Prithviraj suffered a crushing defeat and was eventually captured. Ghori restored him to his throne in Ajmer. But on charges of treason he was later executed, and Ghori's trusted general Qutb-din Aibak was appointed as his deputy in India.

Jaya Chandra of Kanauj

- Soon Ghori was back in India to fight against the Kanauj ruler Jaya Chandra. When all Rajput chiefs had stood by Prithviraja in his battles against Muhammad Ghori, Jaya Chandra stood apart, as there was enmity between Prithviraj and Jai Chandra, on account of Prithviraj's abduction of Jaya Chandra's daughter Samyukta. So Ghori easily defeated Jaya Chandra and returned to Ghazni with an enormous booty. On the way while camping on the banks of Indus, he was killed by some unidentified assassins.

Rajput Kingdoms

- By the beginning of the tenth century two powerful Rajput Kingdoms Gurjar Pratihara and Rashtrakutas had lost their power. Tomaras (Delhi), Chauhans (Rajasthan), Solankis (Gujarat), Paramaras (Malwa), Gahadavalas (Kanauj) and Chandelas (Bundelkhand) had become important ruling dynasties of Northern India. Vighraharaja and Prithviraj, two prominent Chauhan rulers, Bhoja of Paramara dynasty, Ghadavala king Jayachandra, Yasovarman, Kirti Varman of Chandelas were all strong in their own regions.

- The world famous Khajuraho temple complex consisting of many temples including the Lakshmana temple, Vishwanatha temple and Kandariya Mahadeva temple was built by the Chandelas of Bundelkhand who ruled from Khajuraho.

- The Rajputs had a long tradition of martial spirit, courage and bravery. There was little difference between the weapons used by the Turks and the Rajputs. But in regimental discipline and training the Rajputs were lax. In planning their tactics to suit the conditions, the Turks excelled. Moreover, the Turkish cavalry was superior to the Indian cavalry. The Rajput forces depended more on war elephants, which were spectacular but slow moving compared to the Turkish cavalry. The Turkish horsemen had greater mobility and were skilled in mounted archery. This was a definite military advantage which the Turks used well against their enemies and emerged triumphant in the battles.

Foundation of Delhi Sultanate

The Slave Dynasty

- After the death of Ghori there were many contenders for power. One was Qutb-uddin Aibak, who ascended the throne in Delhi with his father-in-law Yildiz remaining a threat to him for the next ten years. The three important rulers of this dynasty are Qutb-ud-din Aibak, Iltutmish and Balban.

The Slave dynasty is also known as the Mamluk dynasty. Mamluk means property. It is also the term for the Arabic designation of a slave

Qutb-ud-din Aibak (1206-1210)

- Qutb-ud-din Aibak was enslaved as a boy and sold to Sultan Muhammad Ghori at Ghazni. Impressed with his ability and loyalty the Sultan elevated him to the rank of viceroy of the conquered provinces in India. Muhammad Bin Bhakthiyar Khalji, a Turkish general from Afghanistan assisted him in

conquering Bihar and Bengal. Qutb-ud-din Aibak reigned for four years (1206 to 1210 CE) and died in 1210 in Lahore in an accident while playing chaugan.

- Bhakthiyar Khalji is charged with destroying the glorious Buddhist University of Nalanda in Bihar, who is said to have mistaken it for a military camp! Detailed descriptions of Nalanda is found in the travel accounts of Chinese pilgrim Hieun Tsang. The manuscripts and texts in the hundreds of thousands in the Nalanda library on subjects such as grammar, logic, literature, astronomy and medicine were lost in the Turkish depredations.

Iltutmish (1210–1236)

- Shams-ud-din Iltutmish (1210-36) of Turkish extraction was a slave of Qutbud- din Aibak. Many of his elite slaves were also of Turkish and Mongol ancestry. They were brought to Delhi by merchants from trade centres like Bukhara, Samarqand and Baghdad. (There were some slaves of other ethnicities as well). But Iltutmish gave them all Turkish titles. Iltutmish's reliance on his elite military slaves (Bandagan) and his practice of appointing them for the posts of governors and generals in far-off places did not change despite the migration into North India of experienced military commanders from distinguished lineages fleeing from the Mongols.

Shams-ud-din Iltutmish, the slave and son-in-law of Qutb-ud-din Aibak, ascended the throne of Delhi setting aside the claim of Aram Shah, the son of Qutb-ud-din Aibak. During his tenure he put down the internal rebellions of Rajputs at Gwalior, Ranthambor, Ajmer and Jalore. He overcame the challenge of Nasiruddin Qabacha in Lahore and Multan, and frustrated the conspiracy of Alivardan, the Governor of Bengal. He diplomatically saved India by refusing to support the Khwarizmi Shah Jalaluddin of Central Asia against the Mongol ruler Chengiz Khan. Had he supported Jalaluddin, the Mongols would have overrun India with ease. His reign was remarkable for the completion of Qutb Minar, a colossal victory tower of 243 feet at Delhi, and for the introduction. of copper and silver tanka, the two basic coins of the Sultanate period.

- Bandagan is the plural of banda, literally military slaves. They were graded according to the years of service, proximity and trustworthiness. This trust led to their appointment as governors and military commanders. The Ghurid bandagan in North India were the slaves of Muiz-ud- Din Ghuri. Since these slaves were without a social identity of their own they were given new names by their masters, which included the nisba, which indicated their social or regional identity. Slaves carried the nisba of their

master: hence Mu'izz al- Din's slave carried the nisba Mu'izzi and later Sultan Shams-ud-Din Iltutmish's slave were called the Shamsi bandagan.

- Since the dynastic traditions of the 'slave regime' were weak, succession to the throne was not smooth after Iltutmish's death. The monarch was succeeded by a son, a daughter (Sultana Razia), another son, and a grandson, all within ten years, and finally by his youngest son Sultan Nasir al-Din Mahmud II (1246-66). Iltutmish's descendants fought long but in vain with their father's military slaves who had been appointed as governors of vast territories and generals of large armies. They constantly interfered in Delhi politics, dictating terms to Iltutmish's successors. Though Iltutmish's royal slaves (bandagan-i-khas) were replaced by junior bandagan, the latter were not oriented to their master's vision of a paramount, monolithic Sultanate to the same extent as their predecessors. The slave governors located in the eastern province of Lakhnauti (modern Bengal) and the Punjab and Sind provinces in the west were the first to break free from Delhi. Those in the 'core territories' from Awadh-Kara on the River Sarayu in the east, to Samana-Sunam in the Punjab on the west, sought to resist the intervention of Delhi by consolidating their home bases and allied with neighbouring chieftains. After two decades of conflict amongst the Shamsi bandagan and successive Delhi Sultans, in 1254, Ulugh Khan, a junior, newly purchased slave in Iltutmish's reign and now the commander of the Shivalikh territories in the North- West, seized Delhi. He took the title of na'ib-i mulk, the Deputy of the Realm, seizing the throne as Sultan Ghiyas al- Din Balban in 1266.

Balban (1265-1287)

- The political intrigues of the nobility that destabilised the Delhi Sultanate came to an end with the accession of Balban as the Sultan. Assertion of authority by Balban led to constant military campaigns against defiant governors and against their local allies. Barani mentions Balban's campaigns in the regions surrounding Delhi and in the doab. During these campaigns forests were cleared, new roads and forts constructed, the newly deforested lands given to freshly recruited Afghans and others as rent-free lands (mafuzi) and brought under cultivation. New forts were constructed to protect trade routes and village markets.

Raziya Sultana (1236-1240).

- Raziya was daughter of Iltutmish, who ascended the throne after a lot of hurdles put up by the Turkish nobles. According to Ibn Battuta, the Moroccan traveller, 'Raziya rode on horseback as men ride, armed with a bow and quiver, and surrounded by courtiers. She did not veil her face.' Yet

Raziya ruled for only three and half years. The elevation of an Abyssinian slave, Jalal-ud-din Yaqut, to the post of Amir-i-Akhur, Master of the Stables, a very high office, angered the Turkish nobles. The nobles overplayed her closeness with Yakut and tried to depose her. Since Raziya enjoyed popular support, they could not do anything in Delhi. But while she was on a punitive campaign against the rebel governor Altuniya in southern Punjab, the conspirators used that occasion to dethrone her.

Balban and the Problem of Law and Order

- When Balban took over the reins of power the law and order situation in the Ganga, Jamuna Doab regions had deteriorated badly. The Rajput zamindars had set up forts and defied the orders of the Sultan. Meos, a Muslim community from north-western region, living in the heavily forested region around Mewat were plundering the area with impunity. Balban took it as a challenge and personally undertook a campaign to destroy the Mewatis. Meos were pursued and slaughtered mercilessly. In the Doab region the Rajput strongholds were destroyed, jungles cleared. Colonies of Afghan soldiers were established throughout the region to safeguard the roads and deal with rebellions.

Punitive Expedition against Tughril Khan

- Balban was ruthless in dealing with rebellions. He appointed one of his favourite slaves, Tughril Khan, as the Governor of Bengal. But Tughril Khan soon became rebellious. Amin Khan, the governor of Oudh, sent by Balban to suppress the rebellion meekly retreated. Enraged by this, Balban sent two more expeditions, which also suffered defeat. Humiliated by these successive reverses, Balban himself proceeded to Bengal. On hearing Balban's approach, Tughril Khan fled. Balban pursued him, first to Lakhnauti and then towards Tripura, where he was captured and beheaded. Bughra Khan, a son of Balban, was thereupon appointed the Governor of Bengal, who carved out an independent kingdom after the death of Balban. He did not claim the Delhi throne even in the midst of a leadership crisis and his son Kaiqubad's indulgence in debauchery.

Measures against Mongol Threats

- Balban used the threat of Mongols as the context to militarise his regime. The frontier regions were strengthened with garrisoning of forts at Bhatinda, Sunam and Samana. At the same time, he took efforts to maintain a good relationship with Hulagu Khan, the Mongol Viceroy of Iran and a grandson of Chengiz Khan. Balban succeeded in obtaining from him the assurance that Mongols would not advance beyond Satluj. Halagu Khan reciprocated this

gesture by sending a goodwill mission to Delhi in 1259. However, Muhammad Khan, the favourite son of Balban, who was given the charge of governor of Multan to protect the frontiers from Mongol aggression, was killed in an encounter. Saddened by this tragedy, Balban fell ill and died in 1286.

The Khaljis (1290-1320)

Jalal-ud-din Khalji (1290-1296)

- As Balban' son Kaiqubad was found unfit to rule, his three-year-old son Kaymars was placed on the throne. As there was no unanimity on the choice of a regent and a council to administer the empire, the contending nobles plotted against each other. Out of this chaos a new leader, Malik Jalal-ud-din Khalji, the commander of the army, emerged supreme. While he ruled the kingdom for some time in the name of Kaiqubad, he soon sent one of his officers to get Kaiqubad murdered and Jalal-ud-din formally ascended the throne. However, Jalal-ud-din faced opposition on the ground that he was an Afghan and not a Turk. But Khaljis were indeed Turks settled in Afghanistan before the establishment of Turkish rule and so they were Afghanized Turks. Jalal-ud-din won many battles and even in old age he marched out against the Mongol hordes and successfully halted their entry into India (1292).
- Ala-ud-din, a nephew and son-in-law of Jalaluddin Khalji, who was appointed governor of Kara, invaded Malwa and this campaign yielded a huge booty. The success of this campaign stimulated his urge to embark on a campaign to raid Devagiri, the capital city of the Yadava kingdom in Deccan. On his return he arranged to get Jalaluddin Khalji murdered and captured the throne.

Ala-ud-din Khalji (1296-1316)

Ala-ud-din and Nobles

- Ala-ud-din spent the first year of his rule in eliminating the enemies and strengthening his position in Delhi. Soon he turned his attention to establishing a firm hold over the nobles. He dismissed several of his top officers. He was particularly severe with the nobles who had shifted loyalty and opportunistically joined him against Jalal-ud-din.

- The term Mongol refers to all Mongolic-speaking nomadic tribes of Central Asia. In the twelfth century, they had established a very large kingdom, which included most of modern-day Russia, China, Korea, south-east Asia, Persia, India, the Middle East and Eastern Europe, under the leadership of Chengiz Khan. Their phenomenal success is attributed to their fast horses

and brilliant cavalry tactics, their openness to new technologies, and Chengiz Khan's skill in manipulative politics.

Mongol Threats

- Mongol raids posed a serious challenge to Ala-ud-din. During the second year of his rule (1298), when Mongols stormed Delhi, the army sent by Ala-ud-din succeeded in driving them back. But when they returned the following year with more men, people of the suburbs of Delhi had to flee and take refuge in the city. Ala-uddin had to meet the problem head-on. In the ensuing battle, Mongols were routed. Yet raids continued until 1305, when they ravaged the doab region. This time, after defeating them, the Sultan's army took a large number of Mongols as prisoners and slaughtered them mercilessly. But the Mongol menace continued. The last major Mongol incursion took place in 1307-08.

Military Campaigns

- The inability of the Sultanate to effectively harness the agrarian resources of its North Indian territories to sustain its political ambitions was evident in its relentless military campaigns in search of loot and plunder. Ala-ud-din's campaigns into Devagiri (1296, 1307, 1314), Gujarat (1299-1300), Ranthambhor (1301), Chittor (1303) and Malwa (1305) were meant to proclaim his political and military power as well as to collect loot from the defeated kingdoms. It was with the same plan that he unleashed his forces into the Deccan. The first target in the peninsula was Devagiri in the western Deccan. Ala-ud-din sent a large army commanded by Malik Kafur in 1307 to capture Devagiri fort. Following Devagiri, Prataparudradeva, the Kakatiya ruler of Warangal in the Telengana region, was defeated in 1309. In 1310 the Hoysala ruler Vira Ballala III surrendered all his treasures to the Delhi forces.
- Malik Kafur then set out for the Tamil country. Though Kafur's progress was obstructed by heavy rains and floods, he continued his southward journey, plundering and ravaging the temple cities of Chidambaram and Srirangam as well as the Pandyan capital Madurai. Muslims in Tamil provinces fought on the side of the Pandyas against Malik Kafur. Malik Kafur advised them to desert so that he would not have any occasion to spill the blood of his fellow Muslims. Though there are exaggerated versions about the amount of booty he carried, there is no denying the fact that he returned to Delhi with an enormous booty in 1311. After Malik Kafur's invasion, the Pandya kingdom suffered an eclipse and a Muslim state subordinate to the Delhi Sultan came to be established in Madurai. In 1335 the Muslim Governor of Madurai Jalal-

Alauddin Asan Shah threw off his allegiance to Delhi kingdom and declared his independence.

- The nobles belonging to aristocratic classes were bestowed with privileges and powers in the feudal era. They formed the bedrock of the king's authority, as they had to provide the king with armed forces in times of external threat or emergency. They occupied a position next only to the king in status and rank. Enjoying high social status and commanding vast resources they at times became strong enough to challenge the king.
- In the Delhi Sultanate, nobles were drawn from different tribes and nationalities like the Turkish, Persian, Arabic, Egyptian and Indian Muslims. Iltutmish organized a Corps of Forty, all drawn from Turkish nobility and selected persons from this Forty for appointments in military and civil administration. The Corps of Forty became so powerful to the extent of disregarding the wishes of Iltutmish, and after his death, to place Rukn-ud-Din Firoz on the throne. Razziya sought to counter the influence of Turkish nobles and defend her interest by organizing a group of non-Turkish and Indian Muslim nobles under the leadership of Yakut, the Abyssinian slave. This was naturally resented by the Turkish nobles, who got both of them murdered. Thus in the absence of rule of primogeniture, the nobles sided with any claimants to the throne and either helped in the choice of the Sultan or contributed to the de-stabilization of the regime. The nobles were organized into several factions and were constantly engaged in conspiracies. Balban therefore abolished the Corps of Forty and thereby put an end to the domination of "Turkish nobles". Alauddin Khalji also took stern measures against the "Turkish nobles" by employing spies to report to him directly on their clandestine and perfidious activities.

Ala-ud-din's Internal Reforms

- The vast annexation of territories was followed by extensive administrative reforms aimed at stabilising the government. Ala-ud-din's first measure was to deprive the nobles of the wealth they had accumulated. It had provided them the leisure and means to hatch conspiracies against the Sultan. Marriage alliances between families of noble men were permitted only with the consent of the Sultan. The Sultan ordered that villages held by proprietary right, as free gift, or as a religious endowment be brought back under the royal authority and control. He curbed the powers of the traditional village officers by depriving them of their traditional privileges. Corrupt royal officials were dealt with sternly. The Sultan prohibited liquor and banned the use of intoxicating drugs. Gambling was forbidden and

gamblers were driven out of the city. However, the widespread violations of prohibition rules eventually forced the Sultan to relax the restrictions.

- Ala-ud-din collected land taxes directly from the cultivators. The village headman who traditionally enjoyed the right to collect them was now deprived of it. The tax pressure of Ala-ud-din was on the rich and not on the poor. Ala-ud-din set up the postal system to keep in touch with all parts of his sprawling empire.

Sultan's Market Reforms

- Ala-ud-din was the first Sultan to pay his soldiers in cash rather than give them a share of booty. As the soldiers were paid less, the prices had to be monitored and controlled. Moreover, Ala-ud-din had to maintain a huge standing army. In order to restrict prices of essential commodities, Ala-ud-din set up an elaborate intelligence network to collect information on black-marketing and hoarding. The transactions in the bazaars, the buying and selling and the bargains made were all reported to the Sultan by his spies. Market superintendents, reporters and spies had to send daily reports on the prices of essential commodities. Violators of the price regulations were severely punished. If any deficiency in weight was found, an equal weight of flesh was cut from the seller's body and thrown down before his eyes!

Ala-ud-din's Successors

- Ala-ud-din nominated his eldest son Khizr Khan, as his successor. However, Ala-ud-din's confidant at that time was Malik Kafur. So Malik Kafur himself assumed the authority of the government. But Kafur's rule lasted only thirty-five days as he was assassinated by hostile nobles. Thereafter there were a series of murders which culminated in Ghazi Malik, a veteran of several campaigns against the Mongols, ascending the throne of Delhi in 1320 as Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq. He murdered the incumbent Khalji ruler Khusrau and thereby prevented anyone from Khalji dynasty claiming the throne. Thus began the rule of the Tughlaq Dynasty, which lasted until 1414.

The Tughlaq Dynasty

Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq (1320-1324)

- Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq followed a policy of reconciliation with the nobles. But in the fifth year of his reign (1325) Ghiyas-uddin died. Three days later Jauna ascended the throne and took the title Muhammad bin Tughlaq.

Muhammad Bin Tughlaq (1324-1351)

- Muhammad Tughlaq was a learned, cultured and talented prince but gained a reputation of being merciless, cruel and unjust. Muhammad Tughlaq effectively repulsed the Mongol army that had marched up to Meerut near Delhi. Muhammad was an innovator. But he, unlike Ala-ud-din, lacked the will to execute his plans successfully.

Transfer of Capital

- Muhammad Tughlaq's attempt to shift the capital from Delhi to Devagiri in Maharashtra, which he named Daulatabad, was a bold initiative. This was after his realization that it was difficult to rule south India from Delhi. Centrally located, Devagiri also had the advantage of possessing a strong fort atop a rocky hill. Counting on the military and political advantages, the Sultan ordered important officers and leading men including many Sufi saints to shift to Devagiri. However, the plan failed, and soon Muhammad realised that it was difficult to rule North India from Daulatabad. He again ordered transfer of capital back to Delhi.

Token Currency

- The next important experiment of Muhammad was the introduction of token currency. This currency system had already been experimented in China and Iran. For India it was much ahead of its time, given that it was a time when coins were based on silver content. When Muhammad issued bronze coins, fake coins were minted which could not be prevented by the government. The new coins were devalued to such an extent that the government had to withdraw the bronze coins and replace them with silver coins, which told heavily on the resources of the empire.

Sultan's Other Innovative Measures

- Equally innovative was Muhammad Tughlaq's scheme to expand cultivation. But it also failed miserably. It coincided with a prolonged and severe famine in the Doab. The peasants who rebelled were harshly dealt with. The famine was linked to the oppressive and arbitrary collection of land revenue. The Sultan established a separate department (Diwan-i-Amir Kohi) to take care of agriculture. Loans were advanced to farmers for purchase of cattle, seeds and digging of wells but to no avail. Officers appointed to monitor the crops were not efficient; the nobility and important officials were of diverse background. Besides, the Sultan's temperament had also earned him a lot of enemies.
- Ala-ud-din Khalji had not annexed distant territories knowing full well that they could not be effectively governed. He preferred to establish his suzerainty over them. But Muhammad annexed all the lands he conquered.

Therefore, at the end of his reign, while he faced a series of rebellions, his repressive measures further alienated his subjects. Distant regions like Bengal, Madurai, Warangal, Awadh, Gujarat and Sind hoisted the flags of rebellion and the Sultan spent his last days fighting rebels. While he was frantically engaged in pursuing a rebel leader in Gujarat, he fell ill, and died at the end of his 26th regnal year (1351).

Firuz Tughlaq (1351–1388)

- Firuz's father, Rajab, was the younger brother of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq. Both had come from Khurasan during the reign of Ala-ud-din Khalji. Rajab who had married a Jat princess had died when Firuz was seven years old. When Ghiyas-ud-din ascended the throne, he gave Firuz command of a 12,000 strong cavalry force. Later Firuz was made in charge of one of the four divisions of the Sultanate. Muhammad bin Tughlaq died without naming his successor. The claim made by Muhammad's sister to his son was not supported by the nobles. His son, recommended by Muhammad's friend Khan-i Jahan, was a mere child. Under such circumstances, Firuz ascended the throne.

- The vizier of Firuz Tughlaq, the famous Khan-i- Jahan, was a Brahmin convert to Islam. Originally known as Kannu, he was captured during the Sultanate campaigns in Warangal (present-day Telangana).

Conciliatory Policy towards Nobles

- Firuz Tughlaq followed a conciliatory policy towards the nobles and theologians. Firuz restored the property of the owners who had been deprived of it during the reign of Muhammad Tughlaq. He reintroduced the system of hereditary appointments to offices, a practice which was not favoured by Ala-ud-din Khalji. The Sultan increased the salaries of government officials. While toning up the revenue administration, he reduced several taxes. He abolished many varieties of torture employed by his predecessor. Firuz had a genuine concern for the slaves and established a separate government department to attend to their welfare. The slave department took care of the wellbeing of 180,000 slaves. They were trained in handicrafts and employed in the royal workshops.

Firuz Policy of No Wars

- Firuz waged no wars of annexation, though he was not averse to putting down rebellions challenging his authority. There were only two Mongol incursions during his times, and both of them were successfully repulsed. His

Bengal campaign to put down a rebellion there, however, was an exception. His army slew thousands and his entry into Odisha on his way helped him extract the promise of tribute from the Raja. A major military campaign of his period was against Sind (1362). He succeeded in routing the enemies on the way. Yet his enemies and a famine that broke out during this period gave Sultan and his army a trying time. Firuz's army, however, managed to reach Sind. The ruler of Sind agreed to surrender and pay tribute to the Sultan.

Religious Policy

- Firuz favoured orthodox Islam. He proclaimed his state to be an Islamic state largely to satisfy the theologians. Heretics were persecuted, and practices considered un-Islamic were banned. He imposed jizya, a head tax on non-Muslims, which even the Brahmins were compelled to pay. Yet Firuz did not prohibit the building of new Hindu temples and shrines. His cultural interest led to translation of many Sanskrit works relating to religion, medicine and music. As an accomplished scholar himself, Firuz was a liberal patron of the learned including non-Islamic scholars. Fond of music, he is credited with establishing several educational institutions and a number of mosques, palaces and forts.

- Jizya is a tax levied and collected per head by Islamic states on non Muslim subjects living in their land. In India, Qutb-ud-din Aibak imposed jizya on non-Muslims for the first time. Jizya was abolished by the Mughal ruler Akbar in 16th century but was re-introduced by Aurangzeb in the 17th century.

Public Works

- Firuz undertook many irrigation projects. A canal he dug from Sutlej river to Hansi and another canal in Jumna indicate his sound policy of public works development.
- Firuz died in 1388, after making his son Fath Khan and grandson Ghiyas-uddin as joint rulers of Delhi Sultanate.
- The principle of heredity permitted for the nobles and applied to the army weakened the Delhi Sultanate. The nobility that had regained power got involved in political intrigues which undermined the stability of the Sultanate. Within six years of Firuz Tughlaq's death four rulers succeeded him.

Timur's Invasion

- The last Tughlaq ruler was Nasir-ud-din Muhammad Shah (1394-1412), whose reign witnessed the invasion of Timur from Central Asia. Turkish Timur, who could claim a blood relationship with the 12th century great Mongol Chengiz Khan, ransacked Delhi virtually without any opposition. On hearing the news of arrival of Timur, Sultan Nasir-ud-din fled Delhi. Timur also took Indian artisans such as masons, stone cutters, carpenters whom he engaged for raising buildings in his capital Samarkhand. Nasir-ud-din managed to rule up to 1412. Then the Sayyid and Lodi dynasties ruled the declining empire from Delhi till 1526.

Sayyid Dynasty (1414-1451)

- Timur appointed Khizr Khan as his deputy to oversee Timurid interests in the Punjab marches. Khizr Khan (1414-21) went on to seize Delhi and establish the Sayyid dynasty (1414-51). The Sayyid dynasty established by Khizr Khan had four sultans ruling up to 1451. The early Sayyid Sultans ruled paying tribute to Timur's son. Their rule is marked for the composing of Tarikh-i-Mubarak Shahi by Yahiya bin Ahmad Sirhindi. By the end of their rule the empire was largely confined to the city of Delhi.

- In the entire history of the Delhi Sultanate there was only one Sultan who voluntarily abdicated his throne and moved to a small town away from Delhi, where he lived for three full decades in contentment and peace. He was Alam Shah of the Sayyid dynasty. – Abraham Eraly,

The Age of Wrath

Lodi Dynasty (1451-1526)

- The Lodi Dynasty was established by Bahlol Lodi (1451-1489) whose reign witnessed the conquest of Sharqi Kingdom (Bengal). It was his son Sikander Lodi (1489-1517) who shifted the capital from Delhi to Agra in 1504. The last Lodi ruler Ibrahim Lodi was defeated by Babur in the First Battle of Panipat, which resulted in the establishment of Mughal Dynasty.

Administration of the Sultanate

State and Society

- The Sultanate was formally considered to be an Islamic State. Most of the Sultans preferred to call themselves the lieutenant of the Caliph. In reality, however, the Sultans were the supreme political heads. As military head, they wielded the authority of commander-in-chief of the armed forces. As judicial head they were the highest court of appeal. Balban claimed that he ruled as

the representative of god on earth. Ala-ud-din Khalji claimed absolute power saying he did not care for theological prescriptions, but did what was essential for the good of the state and the benefit of the people.

- The Delhi Sultanate deserves to be considered an all-India empire. Virtually all of India, except Kashmir and Kerala at the far ends of the subcontinent, and a few small tracts in between them had come under the direct rule of Delhi towards the close of Muhammad bin Tughlaq's rule. There were no well-defined and accepted rules of royal succession and therefore contested succession became the norm during the Sultanate. The Sultans required the holders of iqta's (called muqtis or walis) to maintain troops for royal service out of the taxes collected by them. Certain areas were retained by the Sultans under their direct control (khalisa). It was out of the revenue collected from such areas that they paid the officers and soldiers of the sultan's own troops (hashm-i qalb).
- The territorial expansion was matched by an expansion of fiscal resources. The tax rent (set at half the value of the produce) was rigorously sought to be imposed over a very large area. The fiscal claims of hereditary intermediaries (now called chaudhuris) and the village headmen (khots) were drastically curtailed. The continuous pressure for larger tax realization provoked a severe agrarian uprising, notably in the Doab near Delhi (1332-34). These and an ensuing famine persuaded Muhammad Tughlaq to resort to a scheme of agricultural development, in the Delhi area and the Doab, based on the supply of credit to the peasants.
- Military campaigns, the dishoarding of wealth, the clearing of forests, the vitality of inter-regional trade - all of these developments encouraged a great movement of people, created a vast network of intellectuals and the religious-minded. These factors also made social hierarchies and settlements in the Sultanate garrison towns and their strongholds far more complex. Through the fourteenth century the Sultanate sought to control its increasingly diverse population through its provincial governors, muqti, but considerable local initiative and resources available to these personnel, and their propensity to ally with local political groups meant that they could often only be controlled fitfully and for a short period, even by autocratic, aggressive monarchs like Muhammad Tughlaq.
- The Turko-Afghan political conquests were followed by large-scale Muslim social migrations from Central Asia. India was seen as a land of opportunity. The society in all stages was based on privileges with the higher classes

enjoying a better socio-economic life with little regard of one's religion. The Sultans and the nobles were the most important privileged class who enjoyed a lifestyle of high standard in comparison to their contemporary rulers all over the world. The nobility was initially composed of the Turks. Afghans, Iranians and Indian Muslims were excluded from the nobility for a very long time.

- The personal status of an individual in Islam depended solely on one's abilities and achievements, not on one's birth. So, once converted to Islam, everyone was treated as equal to everyone in the society.
- Unlike Hindus who worshiped different deities, these migrants followed monotheism. They also adhered to one basic set of beliefs and practices. Though a monotheistic trend in Hinduism had long existed, as, for example in the Bhagavad Gita, as noted by Al-Beruni, its proximity to Islam did help to move monotheism from periphery to the centre. In the thirteenth century, the Virashaiva or Lingayat sect of Karnataka founded by Basava believed in one God (Parashiva). Caste distinctions were denied, women given a better status, and Brahmans could no longer monopolise priesthood. A parallel, but less significant, movement in Tamil Nadu was in the compositions of the Siddhars, who sang in Tamil of one God, and criticised caste, Brahmans and the doctrine of transmigration of souls. Two little known figures who played a part in transmitting the southern Bhakti and monotheism to Northern India were Namdev of Maharashtra, a rigorous monotheist who opposed image worship and caste distinctions and Ramanand, a follower of Ramanuja.

Economy

- The establishment of the Delhi Sultanate was, however, accompanied by some important economic changes. One such change was the payment of land tax to the level of rent in cash. Because of this, food-grains and other rural products were drawn to the towns, thereby leading to a new phase of urban growth. In the fourteenth century, Delhi and Daulatabad (Devagiri) emerged as great cities of the world. There were other large towns such as Multan, Kara, Awadh, Gaur, Cambay (Khambayat) and Gulbarga.
- The Delhi Sultans began their gold and silver mintage alongside copper from early in the thirteenth century and that indicated brisk commerce. Despite the Mongol conquests of the western borderlands, in Irfan Habib's view, India's external trade, both overland and oceanic, grew considerably during this period.

- An important aspect of Islam in India was its early acceptance of a long term coexistence with Hinduism, despite all the violence that occurred in military campaigns, conquests and depredations. The conqueror Mu'izzuddin of Ghor had, on some of his gold coins, stamped the image of the goddess Lakshmi. Muhammad Tughlaq in 1325 issued a farman enjoining that protection be extended by all officers to Jain priests; he himself played holi and consorted with yogis.
- The historian Barani noted with some bitterness how 'the kings of Islam' showed respect to 'Hindus, Mongols, Polytheists and infidels', by making them sit on masnad (cushions) and by honouring them in other ways, and how the Hindus upon paying taxes (jiziya-o-kharaj) were allowed to have their temples and celebrations, employ Muslim servants, and flaunt their titles (rai, rana, thakur, sah, mahta, pandit, etc), right in the capital seats of Muslim rulers

Trade and Urbanization

- The establishment of the Delhi Sultanate revived internal trade, stimulated by the insatiable demand for luxury goods by the sultans and nobles. Gold coins, rarely issued in India after the collapse of the Gupta Empire, began to appear once again, indicating the revival of Indian economy. However, there is no evidence of the existence of trade guilds, which had played a crucial role in the economy in the classical age. The Sultanate was driven by an urban economy encompassing many important towns and cities. Delhi, Lahore, Multan, Kara, Lakhnauti, Anhilwara, Cambay and Daulatabad were the important cities that thrived on the mercantile activities of Jain Marwaris, Hindu Multanis and Muslim Bohras, Khurasanis, Afghans and Iranians. The import-export trade flourished well both through overland and overseas. While the Gujaratis and Tamils dominated the sea trade, the Hindu Multanis and Muslim Khurasanis, Afghans and Iranians dominated the overland trade with Central Asia.

Industrial Expertise

- Paper-making technology evolved by the Chinese and learnt by the Arabs was introduced in India during the rule of the Delhi Sultans. The spinning wheel invented by the Chinese came to India through Iran in the fourteenth century and enabled the spinner to increase her output some six fold and enlarged yarn production greatly. The subsequent introduction of treadles in the loom similarly helped speed-up weaving. Sericulture was established in Bengal by the fifteenth century. Building activity attained a new scale by the large use of brick and mortar, and by the adoption of the vaulting techniques.

Education

- Certain traditions of education were now implanted from the Islamic World. At the base was the maktab, where a schoolmaster taught children to read and write. At a higher level, important texts in various subjects were read by individual pupils with particular scholars who gave instruction (dars) in them. A more institutionalized form of higher education, the madrasa, became widely established in Central Asia and Iran in the eleventh century, and from there it spread to other Islamic countries. Usually the madrasa had a building, where instruction was given by individual teachers. Often there was a provision of some cells for resident students, a library and a mosque. Firoz Tugluq built a large madrasa at Delhi whose splendid building still stands. From Barani's description it would seem that teaching here was mainly confined to "Quran-commentary, the Prophet's sayings and the Muslim Law (fiqh)." It is said that Sikander Lodi(1489- 1517) appointed teachers in maktab and madrasas in various cities throughout his dominions, presumably making provision for them through land or cash grants.

Historiography

- In addition to secular sciences that came with Arabic and Persian learning to India, one more notable addition was systematic historiography. The collection of witnesses' narratives and documents that the Chachnama (thirteenth-century Persian translation of a ninth-century Arabic original), in its account of the Arab conquest of Sind, represents advancement in historical research, notwithstanding the absence of coherence and logical order of latter-day historiography like Minhaj Siraj's Tabaqat-i Nasiri, written at Delhi c. 1260.

Sufism

- In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, two most influential orders emerged among the sufis: the Suhrawardi, centred at Multan, and the Chisti at Delhi and other places. The most famous Chishti Saint, Shaik Nizamuddin offered a classical exposition of Sufism of prepantheistic phase in the conversations (1307- 1322). Sufism began to turn pantheistic only when the ideas of Ibn al-Arabi (died 1240) began to gain influence, first through the Persian poetry of Jalal-ud-din Rumi(1207- 1273) and Abdur Rahman Jami (1414-1492), and, then, through the endeavours within India of Ashraf Jahangir Simnani (early fifteenth century). Significantly this wave of qualified pantheism began to dominate Indian Islamic thought about the same time that the pantheism of Sankaracharya's school of thought was attaining increasing influence within Vedic thought.

Caliph/Caliphate

- Considered to be the successor of Prophet Muhammad, the Caliph wielded authority over civil and religious affairs of the entire Islamic world. The Caliph ruled Baghdad until it fell before Mongols in 1258. The Caliphs then ruled in Egypt until the conquest of Ottomans in 1516- 17. Thereupon the title was held by Ottoman Sultans. The office of Caliph (Caliphate) ended when Ottoman Empire was abolished and Turkish Republic established by Mushtafa Kemal Attaturk in the 1920s.

Caste and Women

- The Sultans did not alter many of the social institutions inherited from 'Indian Feudalism'.
- Slavery, though it had already existed in India, grew substantially in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Both in war and in the event of default in payment of taxes, people could be enslaved. They were put to work as domestic servants as well as in crafts. The village community and the caste system remained largely unaltered. Gender inequalities remained practically untouched. In upper class Muslim society, women had to observe purdah and were secluded in the zenana (the female quarters) without any contact with any men other than their immediate family. Affluent women travelled in closed litters.
- However, Muslim women, despite purdah, enjoyed, in certain respects, higher status and greater freedom in society than most Hindu women. They could inherit property from their parents and obtain divorce, privileges that Hindu women did not have. In several Hindu communities, such as among the Rajputs, the birth of a girl child was considered a misfortune. Islam was not against women being taught to read and write. But it tolerated polygamy.

Evolution of Syncretic Culture

- The interaction of the Turks with the Indians had its influence in architecture, fine arts and literature.

- Sultan Firoz Tughlaq was reputed to possess 180,000 slaves, of which 12,000 worked as artisans. His principal minister, Khan Jahan Maqbul possessed over 2000 women slaves.

Architecture

- Arch, dome, vaults and use of lime cement, the striking Saracenic features, were introduced in India. The use of marble, red, grey and yellow sandstones added grandeur to the buildings. In the beginning the Sultans converted the existing buildings to suit their needs. Qutb-ud-din Aibak's Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque situated adjacent to Qutb Minar in Delhi and the Adhai din ka Jhopra in Ajmer illustrate these examples. A Hindu temple built over a Jain temple was modified into Quwwat-ul-Islam mosque. Adhai din ka Jhopra was earlier a Jain monastery before being converted as a mosque.
- With the arrival of artisans from West Asia the arch and dome began to show up with precision and perfection. Gradually local artisans also acquired the skill. The tomb of Balban was adorned with the first true arch and the Alai Darwaza built by Alaud-din Khalji as a gateway to the Quwwatul-Islam Mosque is adorned with the first true dome. The palace fortress built by Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq and Muhammad bin Tughlaq in Tughlaqabad, their capital city in Delhi, is remarkable for creating an artificial lake around the fortress by blocking the river Yamuna. The tomb of Ghiyasuddin Tughlaq introduced the system of sloping walls bearing the dome on a raised platform. The buildings of Firuz Tughlaq, especially his pleasure resort, Hauz Khas, combined Indian and Saracenic features in alternate storeys, displaying a sense of integration.

Sculpture and Painting

- Orthodox Islamic theology considered decorating the buildings with animal and human figures as un-Islamic. Hence the plastic exuberance of well-carved images found in the pre-Islamic buildings was replaced by floral and geometrical designs. Arabesque, the art of decorating the building with Quranic verses inscribed with calligraphy, emerged to provide splendor to the building.

Music and Dance

- Music was an area where the syncretic tendencies were clearly visible. Muslims brought their musical instruments like Rabab and Sarangi. Amir Khusrau proclaimed that Indian music had a preeminence over all the other music of the world. The Sufi practice of Sama, recitation of love poetry to the accompaniment of music, was instrumental in promotion of music. Pir Bhodan, a Sufi saint, was considered a great musician of the age. Royal patronage for the growth of music was also forthcoming. Firuz Tughlaq evinced interest in music leading to synchronisation by translating an Indian Sanskrit musical work Rag Darpan into Persian. Dancing also received an impetus in the official court. Zia-ud-din Barani lists the names of Nusrat

Khatun and Mihr Afroz as musician and dancer respectively in the court of Jalaluddin Khalji.

- Qutb Minar, originally a 72.5 metre tower when completed by Iltutmish, was increased to 74 metres by the repairs carried out by Firuz Shah Tughlaq. The Minar is facilitated by 379 steps and it is magnificent for the height, balconies projecting out marking the storeys, the gradual sloping of the tower and the angular flutings creating a ribbed effect around the tower.

Literature

- Amir Khusrau emerged as a major figure of Persian prose and poetry. Amir Khusrau felt elated to call himself an Indian in his Nu Siphir ('Nine Skies'). In this work, he praises India's climate, its languages - notably Sanskrit - its arts, its music, its people, even its animals. The Islamic Sufi saints made a deep literary impact. The Fawai'd-ul-Fawad, a work containing the conversations of Sufi Saint Nizam-ud-din Auliya was compiled by Amir Hassan. A strong school of historical writing emerged with the writings of Zia-ud-din Barani, Shams-ud-din Siraj Afif and Abdul Malik Isami. Zia-ud-din Barani, emerged as a master of Persian prose. Abdul Malik Isami, in his poetic composition of Futuh-us-Salatin, records the history of Muslim rule from Ghaznavid period to Muhammad bin Tughlaq's reign.
- Persian literature was enriched by the translation of Sanskrit works. Persian dictionaries with appropriate Hindawi words for Persian words were composed, the most important being Farhang-i-Qawas by Fakhr-ud-din Qawwas and Miftah-ul-Fuazala by Muhammad Shadiabadi. Tuti Namah, the Book of Parrots, is a collection of Sanskrit stories translated into Persian by Zia Nakshabi. Mahabharata and Rajatarangini were also translated into Persian.
- Delhi Sultanate did not hamper the progress of Sanskrit Literature. Sanskrit continued to be the language of high intellectual thought. The Sanskrit schools and academies established in different parts of the empire continued to flourish. The classical Sanskrit inscription (Pala Baoli) of 1276 in Delhi claims that due to the benign rule of Sultan Balban god Vishnu sleeps in peace in the ocean of milk without any worries. The influence of Arabic and Persian on Sanskrit literature was felt in the form of translations. Shrivara in his Sanskrit work Kathakautuka included the story of Yusuf and Zulaika as a Sanskrit love lyric. Bhattavatara took Firdausi's Shah Namah as a model for composing Zainavilas, a history of the rulers of Kashmir.