UNIT 9: COLONIAL INTERVENTION: THE CHANGES

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9.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Dear learner, after going through this unit, you will be able to:

1. Explain the nature and significance of European settlements such as the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French in India.
2. Examine the process through which trading companies, especially the English East India Company, transformed themselves from commercial enterprises into political and territorial powers in India.
3. Analyse the growth and nature of European trade in India and evaluate its impact on Indian markets, commercial networks, and the colonial economy.

9.2 INTRODUCTION

The period of European settlements in India marked a major turning point in the country's economic, political, and social history. Beginning with the arrival of the Portuguese at the end of the fifteenth century, various European powers such as the Dutch, English, and French established trading settlements along the Indian coast. Initially attracted by India's rich trade in spices, textiles, and other valuable commodities, these powers gradually expanded their commercial activities and sought political influence. Their competition for trade led to conflicts, alliances with Indian rulers, and the establishment of fortified settlements. Over time, European commercial interests transformed into territorial ambitions, particularly in the case of the English East India Company, which eventually emerged as the dominant colonial power in

India. The period also witnessed important changes in agriculture, trade, taxation, and administration, laying the foundation for the colonial economy and the rise of British rule in India.

9.3 EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA

The arrival of the Europeans in India marked a significant turning point in the country's economic, political, and cultural history. The establishment of European settlements in India marked the beginning of a new phase in Indian history. For centuries, India had maintained trade relations with Europe through overland and maritime routes controlled mainly by Arab merchants. However, the discovery of a direct sea route to India around the Cape of Good Hope in the late fifteenth century revolutionized international trade. It enabled European nations to bypass traditional middlemen and establish direct commercial contacts with India. As a result, the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French arrived in India in succession and founded trading settlements. Their competition for trade gradually developed into political rivalry, eventually leading to the establishment of British rule in India. Beginning with the Portuguese at the end of the fifteenth century, several European powers established trading settlements and gradually sought political influence in different parts of India.

THE PORTUGUESE IN INDIA

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to establish direct contact with India through the sea route. The arrival of the Portuguese navigator Vasco da Gama at Calicut, Malabar Coast in 1498 marked the beginning of European maritime expansion in Asia. Initially, Vasco da Gama secured commercial privileges from the Zamorin of Calicut. After Vasco da Gama, Portuguese navigators such as Pedro Alvares Cabral established trading factories in India. Their success was facilitated by the decline of the Delhi Sultanate and the Bahmani Kingdom and by the absence of strong naval powers in India. The main opposition they faced came from Arab merchants who dominated the Indian Ocean trade. The foundations of Portuguese power were strengthened under Francisco de Almeida, the first Governor of Portuguese possessions in India. A major architect of Portuguese power in India was Afonso de Albuquerque. As Governor of Portuguese India (1509–1515), Albuquerque sought to create a permanent Portuguese empire in the East. He captured Goa in 1510, Malacca in 1511, and Ormuz in 1515. Goa became the headquarters of Portuguese administration in India. Albuquerque also encouraged intermarriage between Portuguese settlers and local people to strengthen Portuguese influence. Their possession was limited to Goa, Daman and Diu.

By the mid-sixteenth century, the Portuguese possessed an extensive maritime empire stretching from East Africa to Southeast Asia. The Portuguese profoundly influenced Indian agriculture and food culture by introducing several new crops from the Americas. These included potato, tomato, pineapple, maize, chilli, papaya, guava, peanuts, avocado, and cashew nut. Many of these crops later became integral parts of Indian cuisine. They also introduced tobacco, which eventually became an important commercial crop in India. The famous Alphonso mango, regarded as one of the finest mango varieties in the world, was developed through grafting techniques introduced by the Portuguese and was named after the Portuguese governor Afonso de Albuquerque.

THE DUTCH IN INDIA

The Dutch followed the Portuguese into the Indian Ocean. The Dutch East India Company was established in 1602 through a charter. Vereenigde Oost Indische Compagnie (VOC) was the original name given to the Dutch East India Company when it was founded. The Dutch paid more interest to the Far East because they were primarily interested in spice trade. The company aimed to control the lucrative spice trade of Southeast Asia and challenge Portuguese dominance. They captured Amboyna from the Portuguese in 1605 and established its supremacy in the spice islands. They conquered Jakarta in 1619, blockaded Goa in 1639 and ousted the Portuguese from Ceylon in 1658.

The Dutch established trading centres at Pulicat, Surat, Masulipatam, Nagapattinam, Cochin, and Chinsura in Bengal. Their commercial activities were extensive, and they quickly displaced the Portuguese from many areas of the Indian Ocean. They acquired a monopoly in spice trade in the 17th century and traded between India and the Far East. However, the Dutch concentrated primarily on Indonesia and the Spice Islands of Indonesia. India was important to them mainly as a source of textiles and other goods required for trade in Southeast Asia. Consequently, they never attempted large-scale political expansion in India. The growth of English power gradually weakened Dutch influence. Their decisive defeat at the Battle of Bedara (Niderra) in 1759 ended Dutch political ambitions in India. Thereafter, they remained primarily traders and eventually lost most of their possessions.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q1. Vasco da Gama arrived at Calicut in the year _____.

Q2. The original name of the Dutch East India Company was ____.

Q3. The famous Alphonso mango was named after _____.

Q4. The Dutch political ambitions in India ended after their defeat in the Battle of _____.

Answer 1: 1498.

Answer 2: Vereenigde Oost Indische Compagnie (VOC)

Answer 3: Afonso de Albuquerque.

Answer 4: Bedara (Niderra)

THE ENGLISH IN INDIA

The most significant European power in India was the English East India Company. It was founded on 31 December 1600 when Elizabeth I granted a royal charter to the Company, giving it exclusive rights to trade in the East Indies. The first English ship reached Surat in 1608 under Captain William Hawkins. Hawkins visited the court of Mughal Emperor Jahangir seeking permission to trade. Though initial efforts were unsuccessful, English fortunes improved after their naval victory over the Portuguese at the Battle of Swally (1612). In 1615–1618, Sir Thomas Roe secured

important trading privileges from Jahangir. The Company established factories at Surat, Agra, Ahmedabad, and Broach.

The three major settlements later became the pillars of English power were Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. In 1640, the English acquired Madras from the Raja of Chandragiri and built Fort St. George. Madras became the centre of English activities in South India. Bombay came into English possession in 1668 after it was transferred by King Charles II, who had received it as part of the dowry of his Portuguese wife. Bombay developed into an important commercial and naval centre.

In 1690, Job Charnock established a settlement at Calcutta. Fort William was built there, making it the headquarters of English activities in eastern India. The decline of the Mughal Empire after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707 created opportunities for further English expansion. During the eighteenth century, the Company faced competition from the French East India Company. A series of conflicts between the British and the French, combined with the political instability caused by the decline of the Mughal Empire, enabled the British to strengthen their position. The decisive turning point came with the Battle of Plassey (1757), where Robert Clive defeated Siraj al-Dawlah and secured control over Bengal. This was followed by the Battle of Buxar (1764), which extended British influence into Bihar and firmly established the Company's political authority. Following these victories, the East India Company gradually transformed from a trading organization into a territorial and colonial power. Through military campaigns such as the Mysore Wars, Maratha Wars, and Sikh Wars, the British expanded their control across southern, western, and northwestern India. At the same time, many princely states were brought under indirect British rule through treaties and alliances. Although these states retained nominal autonomy, they accepted British political supremacy and often granted commercial and strategic concessions. Some princely states were later annexed directly through policies such as the Doctrine of Lapse and annexation, as seen in the cases of Jhansi and Awadh.

For administrative convenience, the territories under direct British control were organized into the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, which became the foundations of British governance in India. As territorial expansion continued, new provinces such as Punjab were created. Administrative authority was initially vested in the governors of the presidencies, but later reforms by the British Parliament centralized power in the office of the Governor-General. Princely states were supervised by British-appointed Residents or Agents, ensuring effective control over both directly and indirectly ruled territories. Thus, British settlements evolved from modest trading centres into the administrative and political foundations of British colonial rule in India.

THE FRENCH IN INDIA

French settlement in India began in 1673 with the establishment of early settlements under the French East India Company. They established settlements at Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Karaikal, Mahe, and Yanam. Under the leadership of Joseph FranCois Dupleix, French influence expanded considerably during the mid-eighteenth century. The most significant French settlement was Pondicherry, which developed into the administrative, commercial, and political centre of French India. The governance of French possessions was supervised by the Council Supérieur

(Sovereign Council), established at Surat in 1670 and later transferred to Pondicherry in 1701. This body functioned as both an administrative and judicial authority and was headed by a Governor appointed by the French East India Company. The French actively participated in Indian politics and supported rival claimants in regional succession disputes. However, their ambitions brought them into direct conflict with the English.

ANGLO-FRENCH RIVALRY

The struggle between the English and the French for supremacy in India culminated in the three Carnatic (Karnataka) wars that were fought between 1746 to 1763. These wars demonstrated the growing involvement of European powers in Indian political affairs. Despite initial successes under Dupleix and Bussy, the French were ultimately defeated by the English. The decisive defeats during the Third Carnatic War ended French political ambitions in India.

First Carnatic War (1746–1748): The First Carnatic War was an extension of the War of Austrian Succession (1740–48) in Europe. England and France became enemies in Europe, and their rivalry extended to India. It marked the beginning of direct Anglo-French military confrontation in India.

Course of the War

- It started in 1745 when the French ships were captured by the English navy. The French, under La Bourdonnais and Dupleix, retaliated by capturing Madras in 1746, demonstrating their early naval and military superiority in the region.
- The English appealed to the then Nawab of Carnatic, Anwaruddin, to help them against the French. However, despite Anwaruddin's intervention, The French refused to release Madras.
- The Battle of St. Thome, fought between the French forces and the Nawab's army, ended in a decisive defeat for the Nawab, revealing the inadequacy of traditional Indian military tactics when confronted with European trained armies.
- Finally, the end of the Austrian Succession War in Europe also ended the First Carnatic war in 1748.

Results:

- The war ended in 1748 with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle also called Treaty of Aachen.
- Madras was given back to the English by the French.

Second Carnatic war (1749-1754): Unlike the first war, the second Carnatic War was not simply a reflection of European conflict but was deeply rooted in Indian succession disputes.

Course of the War

- After the death of the Nizam-ul-Mulk, the Nizam of Hyderabad, a war for succession broke out in the south between Nasir Jung (son of the Nizam) and his nephew Muzaffar Jung (grandson of the Nizam through his daughter).

- Anwaruddin, the Nawab of Carnatic was against Chanda Sahib, who was a claimant to the throne of Carnatic.
- The French supported the claims of Muzaffar Jang and Chanda Sahib in the Deccan and Carnatic, respectively, while the English sided with Nasir Jang and Anwar-ud-din.
- In 1749, Anwaruddin confronted the forces of Chanda Sahib and the French at the Battle of Ambur where he was defeated and killed.

Results

- Dupleix was criticised by the French authorities because of heavy losses. He was called back to France and was replaced by Charles-Robert Godeheu.
- The Treaty of Pondicherry was signed and as per the treaty, the English and the French were to indulge only in commercial activities in India and not interfere in sub-continental political affairs.

Third Carnatic War (1758–1763) This war was part of the global Seven Years' War (1756–63), which elevated Anglo-French rivalry.

Course of the War

- The War was sparked off by the capture of Chandernagore by the English under Clive and Watson.
- In 1758, the French army under French General, Count Thomas Arthur de Lally captured the English forts of St. David and Vizianagaram in 1758. The English became offensive and inflicted heavy losses on the French fleet under Admiral D'Ache at Masulipatnam.
- The decisive battle of the Third Carnatic War was won by the English on January 22, 1760 at Wandiwash in Tamil Nadu which was known as the **Battle of Wandiwash.**
- General Eyre Coote of the English forces decisively defeated the French army led by Count de Lally. Pondicherry was captivated by the English on January 16, 1761.
- French lost Pondicherry, Gingee and Mahe and therefore its power was greatly reduced.
- Count Lally was taken as prisoner of war and returned to France where he was imprisoned and executed in 1766.

Results

- The Third Carnatic War proved to be the decisive conflict in the Anglo-French struggle in India. It concluded with the Treaty of Paris in 1763, under which Pondicherry and Chandernagore were restored to the French; however, their activities were restricted strictly to trade.

- Although France regained its trading settlements, it permanently lost its political and military influence in India after the war. The French, like the Portuguese and Dutch, were reduced to controlling only small enclaves and engaging in limited commercial activity.
- The war established the English East India Company as the dominant European power in the Indian subcontinent.

Other European Trading Companies included the Danes who entered India as traders in 1616 but did not have any ambition to establish an empire there. In 1620, they acquired the port of Tranquebar from the Nayak of Tanjore and constructed a fort there. However, their commercial ventures were constrained by limited financial and military resources. The Danes also established trading posts at Masulipatam, Porto Novo, and Serampore (1755). The Swedish East India Company (1731) and the Flanders merchants who established the Ostend Company in 1722 did not have any significant impact on Indian trade.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q5: The English East India Company was founded on _____.

a. 31 December 1600
b. 31 December 1608
c. 1 January 1601
d. 31 December 1612

Q6: Which treaty ended the Third Carnatic War in 1763?

a. Treaty of Pondicherry
b. Treaty of Paris
c. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle
d. Treaty of Allahabad

Q7: Which French settlement became the administrative and political centre of French India?

a. Chandernagore
b. Karaikal
c. Pondicherry
d. Mahe

9.4 TRADE AND TAXATION

Trade With the Portuguese

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to establish a strong trading presence in India and enjoyed a monopoly over the profitable Eastern trade for nearly a century. They set up important trading centres at Goa, Cochin, Diu, and Daman. Since they were superior in naval power, they combined commerce with military force which enabled them to dominate the Indian Ocean and control key maritime trade routes. Taking advantage of rivalries among Indian rulers, they established forts and trading

posts along the Malabar Coast and sought to eliminate Arab competition through naval warfare. Francisco de Almeida introduced the **Blue Water Policy**, the main objective of which was to establish Portuguese supremacy over the Indian Ocean by maintaining a strong naval force. Through this policy, the Portuguese sough to protect their trade routes, destroy Arab shipping, and monopolize the lucrative spice trade between India and Europe. **The Cartaz System** was a naval licensing system introduced by the Portuguese in the Indian Ocean. Under this system, all merchant ships had to obtain a cartaz (pass or permit) from Portuguese authorities to sail and trade. Ships without a cartaz could be seized, and their goods confiscated.

Before their arrival, Arab merchants enjoyed a monopoly over several lucrative trades, particularly the horse trade, which was crucial for Indian kingdoms such as Vijayanagar and the Bahmani Sultanate. High-quality horses imported from Arabia and Central Asia were essential for maintaining strong cavalry forces. The Portuguese broke this Arab monopoly after gaining control of the Strait of Hormuz and gradually took over the horse trade through their base at Goa. Their ability to supply quality horses strengthened their commercial and political influence in India, and they entered into agreements with the rulers of Vijayanagar for regular horse supplies. Under the leadership of Alfonso de Albuquerque, who captured Goa in 1510, the Portuguese expanded their influence from Hormuz in the Persian Gulf to Malacca and the Spice Islands of Indonesia. They attempted to maintain a monopoly over Asian trade through military conquest, piracy, and plunder. They formed alliances with rulers of Cochin, Cannanore, and Quilon and eventually established their supremacy along parts of the Western Coast. Alongside their commercial activities, they pursued an aggressive policy of Christian missionary work and often resorted to forcible religious conversions, which created resentment among the Indian population. Despite their harsh methods, the Portuguese maintained their position for about a century due to their command of the seas, disciplined administration, and the absence of strong Mughal authority in South India. However, their power gradually declined. They were expelled from Hugli in Bengal in 1631 after a conflict with the Mughals, and their influence in Gujarat and the Arabian Sea weakened because of the growing strength of the English and the Dutch. The Portuguese extended cultivation of pepper in the Malabar region and the production of other valuable spices such as ginger and cinnamon also increased to meet the rising demand from European markets. The expansion of maritime trade created a greater demand for coir ropes, rigging, and cordage, which were essential for ships. As a result, there was a systematic increase in the planting of coconut groves, from which coir was obtained. Similarly, in the textile-producing regions of Gujarat, the Coromandel Coast, and West Bengal, European demand began to stimulate greater production of cotton textiles. Initially, these textiles were mainly exported for household use in Europe rather than for clothing. Some of the cloth was also re-exported to European colonies and used as clothing.

The decline of Portuguese trade was caused by several factors, including Portugal's small population, weak economy, autocratic government, technological backwardness in shipping, and policy of religious intolerance. After Portugal became dependent on Spain in 1580, its position further weakened. The defeat of the Spanish Armada by England in 1588 opened the way for the English and Dutch to enter the Eastern trade. Eventually, the Portuguese lost their commercial monopoly, while the

Dutch gained control of Indonesia and the British emerged as the dominant power in India.

TRADE WITH DUTCH

The Dutch East India Company (VOC), established in 1602, pursued a distinctly mercantilist policy aimed at securing a monopoly over Asian trade. The Dutch government granted the company extensive powers, including the right to wage war, make treaties, acquire territories, and build forts. Within a short period of their arrival on the Coromandel Coast, the Dutch obtained significant commercial privileges, including exemption from the **chhapadalali** (stamp duty on textiles), a tax that was otherwise imposed on all traders. This concession provided the VOC with a competitive advantage over both indigenous merchants and rival European companies. In Gujarat, however, Dutch commercial expansion was initially hindered by Portuguese opposition and the strong administrative control exercised by the Mughal state. Their position improved considerably after obtaining a farman from Prince Khurram (later Emperor Shah Jahan) in 1618, which granted them official trading rights, protection, and exemption from certain transit duties.

They established factories and trading centres at Surat, Broach, Cambay, Ahmedabad, Cochin, Nagapatam, Masulipatam, Chinsura, Patna, and Agra. The Dutch traded mainly in cotton textiles, cotton yarn, indigo, saltpetre, spices, and silver. Gujarat's textile industry supplied the markets of Southeast Asia, particularly the Indonesian Archipelago, while indigo from Bayana and Sarkhej became an important export to Europe. The profitability of the indigo trade was exceptionally high, often yielding returns of nearly 200 percent. To ensure a steady supply, the VOC occasionally advanced capital directly to cultivators, enabling them to pay land revenue before harvest. This practice represented an early form of commercial intervention in agrarian production and reflected the growing integration of agriculture with international trade. The Mughal authorities, however, regarded Dutch involvement in agricultural financing as a potential challenge to state control over revenue and commerce. Consequently, during the 1630s, efforts were made to establish a Mughal monopoly over indigo production and trade, forcing the VOC to discontinue its direct system of advances. The episode highlights the tension between the expanding commercial ambitions of European trading companies and the fiscal interests of the Mughal state. In addition to commodity trade, the Dutch played an important role in regional financial networks by transferring silver from Persia and other Asian markets to India, thereby facilitating large-scale commercial transaction. The relationship between the Dutch and Indian authorities was generally based on negotiation and mutual benefit. They often received customs concessions and protection from Mughal officials. For example, after assisting Mughal authorities during Shivaji's sack of Surat in 1664, the Dutch obtained a one-year exemption from customs duties in their Gujarat factories. Beyond trade, the company contributed to technological and commercial changes in India. The company promoted the international marketing of pepper, introduced improvements in textile weaving, dyeing, and printing techniques, and helped connect Indian production centres to global markets. Nevertheless, from the mid-eighteenth century onward, Dutch influence in India declined steadily. The high costs of maintaining a monopoly, the limitations of VOC mercantilist policies, and the company's growing reluctance to employ military force reduced its effectiveness in an increasingly competitive political

environment. As the English East India Company adopted a more aggressive commercial and territorial strategy, the Dutch gradually lost their prominence, marking the decline of Dutch commercial power in India.

TRADE WITH THE ENGLISH

The English entered the Eastern trade in search of the enormous profits that the Portuguese were earning from spices, silk, cotton textiles, precious stones, porcelain, and other luxury goods. During the sixteenth century, however, England was too weak to challenge the naval supremacy of Portugal and Spain. The situation changed after the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, which established England as a rising maritime power and opened the sea route to the East. In 1599, a group of English merchants known as the Merchant Adventurers formed an association to trade with the East. On 31 December 1600, Queen Elizabeth I granted them a Royal Charter, creating the English East India Company and giving it the exclusive right to trade in Asia. The Company's first voyage was made in 1601 to the Spice Islands of Indonesia. In 1608, Captain Hawkins arrived at the court of Emperor Jahangir to obtain trading privileges. Hawkins was at first treated favourably and received a mansab and jagir. However, due to Portuguese influence at the Mughal court, he failed to secure permanent concessions and was eventually forced to leave.

Realising that Portuguese power had to be challenged, the English engaged them in naval warfare. They defeated the Portuguese fleet at the Battle of Swally near Surat in 1612 and again in 1614. These victories impressed the Mughal authorities, who hoped to use the English as a counterbalance to Portuguese naval dominance. As a result, the English were granted permission to establish factories at several places on the western coast of India.

A major turning point came in 1615 when Sir Thomas Roe arrived at Jahangir’s court as the official ambassador of King James I. Through diplomacy, negotiation, and strategic pressure, Roe obtained an imperial farman that granted the English the right to trade and establish factories throughout the Mughal Empire. This greatly strengthened the position of the East India Company in India. The English also faced competition from the Dutch. Both powers struggled for control of the lucrative spice trade in Southeast Asia. The Dutch ultimately dominated Indonesia and forced the English to withdraw from the Spice Islands. By the agreement of 1667, the English gave up their claims in Indonesia, while the Dutch agreed not to interfere with English settlements in India. This encouraged the English to concentrate all their efforts on India, which eventually became the centre of their commercial and political activities in Asia. The Company gradually expanded its network of factories across India. By 1623, it had established factories at Surat, Broach, Ahmedabad, Agra, and Masulipatam. In South India, the political situation was favourable because there was no strong central authority after the decline of the Vijayanagara Empire. In 1639, the English obtained Madras from a local ruler and built Fort St. George, which became an important centre of trade and administration.

In Eastern India, the Company opened factories in Orissa in 1633 and obtained permission to trade at Hooghly in Bengal in 1651. Soon, factories were established at Patna, Balasore, Dacca, and other commercial centres. These settlements helped the English gain access to the rich textile and agricultural products of Bengal and Bihar.

The acquisition of Bombay in 1662 further strengthened the Company's position. The island was transferred to King Charles II of England as part of the dowry of a Portuguese princess and was later handed over to the East India Company. Bombay eventually replaced Surat as the Company's principal trading centre on the western coast.

France was among the last major European maritime powers to enter the East Indian trade during the seventeenth century. Nearly sixty years after the English (1600) and Dutch (1602) East India Companies had been established, both of which were already setting up numerous trading posts along the Indian coastline, France still did not possess a stable trading organisation or a permanent base in the East. The French East India Company was founded on 1 September 1664 as a commercial and colonial enterprise intended to compete with the English and Dutch trading companies in Asia. On 4 September 1666, the French secured a royal mandate from Emperor Aurangzeb to trade through the port of Surat. Important commercial stations of the French included Mahe, Karaikal, Balasore, and Kasimbazar.

TRADE WITH THE FRENCH

The French entered the Indian trade during the reign of Louis XIV under the guidance of Jean-Baptiste Colbert, who sought to challenge the dominance of the Dutch and English in the lucrative Eastern trade. To achieve this objective, the French East India Company (Compagnie des Indes Orientales) was established in 1664. The company aimed to establish direct commercial relations with India and thereby reduce France’s dependence on foreign intermediaries for Indian textiles, spices, and other luxury goods. The first French commercial success came when French representatives secured a farman from Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb in 1666, granting them permission to establish a factory at Suvali near Surat and to trade on terms similar to those enjoyed by the English and the Dutch. By 1668, the French had established their first factory at Surat. They further expanded their activities after obtaining trading privileges from Shivaji, enabling them to establish a factory at Rajapur in 1668. Additional trading centres were set up at Raybag, Mirjan, Balliapatam, Tellicherry, Ponnani, Calicut, and Mahe along the western coast. On the eastern coast, the French established important settlements at Masulipatam (1669) and Pondicherry (1673–74), which later became the headquarters of French activities in India. They also acquired Karaikal (1739) and Yenam on the Coromandel Coast. In Bengal, French commercial establishments were founded at Chandernagore, Dacca, Kasimbazar, and Balasore, while Patna emerged as another important centre of French trade.

India was often described as a “creditor country,” as European nations had to bring large quantities of silver and gold to purchase Indian goods due to the strong self-sufficiency of the Indian economy and the limited demand for European products.

The French East India Company imported precious metals such as gold and silver, along with commodities like copper, lead, quicksilver and tin. Raw and branched corals, amber, vermillion, ivory, alum, and sulphur. They also brought luxury goods, wine, woollen and linen fabrics, and various miscellaneous items. The French supplied Shivaji with arms and ammunition. There was a great demand for Indian merchandise like textile fabrics and spices in the French market. The French exported from India cotton, muslin, silk cloths, spun cotton (yarns) and raw silk. Indigo, saltpetre. Between

1725 and 1771, French exports from India were valued at approximately 344 million livres. These exports were sold in Europe for over 635 million livres, generating a net profit of nearly 292 million livres, with an average annual profit exceeding 6 million livres. This trade clearly shows that India was a major source of wealth for French commercial activities in Europe.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q8. Name the Taxation Policy introduced by the Portuguese in order to control sea trade.

Q9. Where did the French establish their first factory?

Q10. Who was the first English to arrive at the court of Emperor Jahangir in order to obtain trading privileges.

9.5 LET US SUM UP

- European powers such as the Portuguese, Dutch, English and French arrived in India primarily to participate in the lucrative Eastern trade. Their arrival transformed India's commercial landscape.
- The English East India Company gradually expanded from a trading enterprise into a political power, establishing important settlements at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.
- European trading companies secured farmans, privileges and tax concessions from Indian rulers to facilitate and expand their commercial activities.
- Competition among European powers for trade and territorial control led to conflicts such as the Carnatic Wars, which significantly altered the political situation in India.
- The expansion of European settlements and trade networks brought important economic, political and administrative changes that shaped the course of modern Indian history.

9.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q 1: 1498.
Ans to Q 2: Vereenigde Oost Indische Compagnie (VOC)
Ans to Q 3: Afonso de Albuquerque.
Ans to Q 4: Bedara (Niderra)
Ans to Q 5: a. 31 December 1600
Ans to Q 6: b. Treaty of Paris
Ans to Q 7: c. Pondicherry
Ans to Q 8: Cartaz System
Ans to Q 9: Surat
Ans to Q 10: Captain Hawkins

9.7 FURTHER READING

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9.8 MODEL QUESTIONS

A) VERY SHORT QUESTIONS (Answer each question within 50 words)

Q 1: Who was the first European to reach India by the sea route, and when did he arrive?
Q 2: What was the Blue Water Policy introduced by the Portuguese?
Q 3: Name any four important Dutch trading centres in India.
Q 4: What was the role of the Council Superieur in French India?
Q 5: Name any four crops introduced to India by the Portuguese.
Q 6: What was the significance of the Battle of Plassey (1757)?

B) SHORT QUESTIONS (Answer each question within 150 words)

Q 1: Examine the importance of Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta in the expansion of British power in India.

Q 2: Discuss the transformation of the English East India Company from a trading organization into a territorial power after the Battles of Plassey and Buxar.

Q 3: Trace the growth of Dutch commercial activities in India. Why did the Dutch fail to establish a political empire in India?

Q 4: Discuss the circumstances that led to the arrival of the Europeans in India. Examine the significance of the discovery of the sea route to India.

C) LONG QUESTIONS (Answer each question within 300-500 words)

Q 1: Analyze the trade policies of the Dutch East India Company (VOC) and explain the reasons for the decline of Dutch influence in India.

Q 2: Give a detailed account of the Anglo-French rivalry in India. Discuss the causes, course, and consequences of the Carnatic Wars.

Q 3: Evaluate the administrative, economic, cultural, and maritime contributions of the Portuguese to Indian society.