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AUTHORITARION POLICY OF MUGHALS

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Abstract

The Mughal emperors (or Great Mughals) were despotic rulers who relied upon and held sway over an outsized number of ruling elites. The imperial court included officers, bureaucrats, secretaries, court historians, and accountants, who produced astounding documentation of the empire's day-to-day operations. The elites were organized on the idea of the mansabdari system, a military and administrative system developed by Genghis Khan and applied by the Mughal leaders to classify the nobility.

Keywords: Mughal Emperor, Dynasty.

Introduction

The Mughal dynasty was notable for its quite two centuries of effective rule over much of India; for the power of its rulers, who through seven generations maintained a record of bizarre talent; and for its administrative organization. An extra distinction was the attempt of the Mughals, who were Muslims, to integrate Hindus and Muslims into a united Indian state. Ruling as large a territory because the Indian subcontinent with such a diversity of individuals and cultures was a particularly difficult task for any ruler to accomplish within the middle Ages. Quite in contrast to their predecessors, the Mughals created an empire and accomplished what had hitherto seemed possible for less than short periods of your time. From the latter half the sixteenth century they expanded their kingdom from Agra and Delhi, until within the seventeenth century they controlled nearly all of the subcontinent. They imposed structures of administration and concepts of governance that outlasted their rule, leaving a political legacy that succeeding rulers of the subcontinent couldn't ignore. Today the Prime Minister of India addresses the state on Independence Day from the ramparts of the Red Fort in Delhi, the residence of the Mughal emperors.

The greatest flourishing of northern Indian culture, art, and imperial strength undoubtedly happened during the reign of the Mughal monarchs of the 16th and 17th centuries. The Mughals were Central Asian descendants of the good Mongol warriors Ghengis Khan and Timur. The Mughals seized power and persisted thereto by using various methods. The system of state employed by the Mughals was also efficient in helping the Mughals to carry on to their power. But the Mughals didn't flourish too long, after the new ruler Aurangzeb took control.

The Mughals gained power and were ready to hold on thereto by Akbar s expert use of diplomacy.

Akbar added new territory to the Mughal Empire. Alongside new territory came diverse ethnicity and problems. To stop problems Akbar secured the allegiance of the various populations within his empire. At the peak of his political power, Akbar ended the taxes on non-Muslims and permitted Hindus to create new temples, creating religious tolerance. He also secured Hindu support by negotiating peace treaties.

Review of Literature

Dr. Shahina Bano, (2015) This article investigates the "pre-history" of the colonial and postcolonial personal (status) laws of India, which tie religious identity with legal status, particularly in matters of family law. It examines the concept of law and legal jurisdictions in Mughal India (1526-early eighteenth century; officially 1857): a unique political formation in which an Islamic state ruled over a populace which was predominantly non-Muslim. Using Mughal official orders, Persianlanguage legal documents produced between the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries, and Persianlanguage legal formularies, the article proposes that despite frequent local delegation, the Mughals, their officials, and their subjects did not conceive of law as divided up into several religion-based jurisdictions.

Naeem U. Din, (2016) Many dynasties ruled in India in medieval period, but Mughals were magnificent in all of them and his Empire is considered one of the classic periods of India's long and legendry history. This powerful dynasty holds up the same value in medieval history like Safavids and Ottoman dynasty. Babur, the ruler of Fargana was founder of Mughal Empire in India. His life was full of struggling and disturbance. Even he captured Samarqand for two times but could not stay there for more than hundred days and he lost his native land too. But he never bowed in front of the circumstances nor did he give up. He stood up again to change his destiny with his limited source and this time his eye was on Hindustan.

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S. Levi, (2016) The great grandson of Tamerlane and Genghis Khan, was the first Mughal emperor in India. He confronted and defeated Lodhi in 1526 at the first battle of Panipat, and so came to establish the Mughal Empire in India. Babar (Baynes, 1878) ruled until 1530, and was succeeded by his son Humayun. Mughal presence in India is from 1526 to 1857 - 330 years. Mughal rule over India (well, at least most of Indian areas and population) was from 1560 to 1740. 180 years to be precise. After 1740, Mughal rule was only nominal before it was abolished by British in 1859. Mughal Rule (Emperors of the Peacock Throne, 2007) began in 1526 when Babar defeated Sultan Ibrahim Lodi and captured Delhi and Agra.

Mughal Society

A silver coin made during the reign of the Mughal Emperor Alamgir II. The Indian economy remained as prosperous under the Mughals as it was, because of the creation of a road system and a uniform currency, together with the unification of the country. Manufactured goods and peasant-grown cash crops were sold throughout the world. Key industries included shipbuilding (the Indian shipbuilding industry was as advanced as the European, and Indians sold ships to European firms), textiles, and steel. The Mughals maintained a small fleet, which merely carried pilgrims to Mecca, imported a few Arab horses in Surat. Debal in Sindh was mostly autonomous. The Mughals also maintained various river fleets of Dhows, which transported soldiers over rivers and fought rebels. Among its admirals were Yahya Saleh, Munnawar Khan, and Muhammad Saleh Kamboh. The Mughals also protected the Siddis of Janjira. Its sailors were renowned and often voyaged to China and the East African Swahili Coast, together with some Mughal subjects carrying out private-sector trade.

Cities and towns boomed under the Mughals; however, for the most part, they were military and political centres, not manufacturing or commerce centres. Only those guilds which produced goods for the bureaucracy made goods in the towns; most industry was based in rural areas. The Mughals also built Maktabs in every province under their authority, where youth were taught the Quran and Islamic law such as the Fatawa-e-Alamgiri in their indigenous languages.

The Bengal region was especially prosperous from the time of its takeover by the Mughals in 1590 to the seizure of control by the British East India Company in 1757. In a system where most wealth was hoarded by the elites, wages were low for manual labour. Slavery was limited largely to household servants. However some religious cults proudly asserted a high status for manual labour.

The nobility was a heterogeneous body; while it primarily consisted of Rajput aristocrats and foreigners from Muslim countries, people of all castes and nationalities could gain a title from the emperor. The middle class of openly affluent traders consisted of a few wealthy merchants living in the coastal towns; the bulk of the merchants pretended to be poor to avoid taxation. The bulk of the people were poor. The standard of living of the poor was as low as, or somewhat higher than, the standard of living of the Indian poor under the British Raj; whatever benefits the British brought with canals and modern industry were neutralized by rising population growth, high taxes, and the collapse of traditional industry in the nineteenth century.

Conclusion

By the time of the Mughals, cities had grown in importance. The expanding economy now needed urbanization and a fixed market in order to succeed. Earlier, there were usually weekly markets where people from surrounding regions would congregate at a particular place on a particular day. Once the economy started growing, many trade centres developed which soon grew into prosperous cities. Many Indian cities of that time, according to travelling foreigners, were better than those in Asia and Europe. Communication and transport facilities had also improved during the time of the Mughals and Sher Shah. There were several metalled highways reaching various places of the empire. River transport was also important, especially those which were navigable throughout the year. River transport was a cheap and fast way of transporting goods over long distances. Bridges were also constructed to speed up the movement of land transport. Such initiatives and conditions were important contributing factors to the development of the economy.

Agriculture continued to remain an important part of the economy, but the crops and techniques still remained largely unchanged. Irrigation was largely absent although some areas did have access to canals and water works. A variety of food and cash crops were grown. The textile industry was booming and hence there was tremendous demand for cotton and silk which were important cash crops. Tobacco, introduced sometime in 1604 also became an important cash crop. One negative aspect of the Mughal administration was that they did not make any major efforts in agricultural development. Hence the citizens were subject to various famines, which had devastating results. With no assistance from the centre, the situation was usually grim. Quite often severe famines led to large scale migration of the population within the empire, and in some cases they even left India. Some Mughal emperors did try initiatives to alleviate the problems, but most of the

time it was a case of too little too late. These famines had a detrimental effect on the economy.

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