



Ancient History *Of* Rajasthan

5,00,000 BC To 1200 AD





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Palaeolithic-Old Stone Age in Rajasthan

5,00,00 BC – 10,000 BC

Man is said to have appeared in the early Pleistocene in Africa about 3 million (30 lakh) years ago. In **India**, based on recent evidence, man is said to have appeared 1.4 million (14 lakh) years back at Bori, Maharashtra. This man had **no** knowledge of **cultivation** and **house building till 9000 years B.C.**

From their first appearance to beginning of 3000 BC man used tools & implements only made up of stone and so early phase of human existence has been called as Stone-Age. Based on nature of stone tools and nature of change in climate the stone-age is divided into **Palaeolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic** age period to study history till 1000B.c.

The Palaeolithic age has been further divided into 3 sub-ages namely:

- 5,00,000 BC - 1,00,000 BC: **Lower Palaeolithic or Early Old Stone Age**
- 1,00,000 BC - 40,000 BC: **Middle Palaeolithic or Middle Old Stone Age**
- 40,000 BC - 10,000 BC: **Upper Palaeolithic or Later Old Stone Age**

Now, this article we shall discuss in detail the *Palaeolithic or Old- Stone Age in Rajasthan* and start with:

1. Lower Palaeolithic or Early Old Stone Age (5,00,000 BC - 1,00,000 BC)

Acheulian-Handaxes

- Special characteristic stone tools - Handaxe and cleaver.
- Raw materials used for making stone tools included - quartzite, quartz and basalt.
- The sites of early stone age discovered in Rajasthan have been identified as belonging to Acheulian culture, named after French site of St. Acheul which was the *first effective colonization of the Indian subcontinent*.
- The Acheulian culture was a hunter-gatherer culture.
- Sites of lower-palaeolithic age are located in *Nagaur and Didwana of Rajasthan*, Barkhera, Bhimbetka and Putlikarar in Raisen district of Madhya Pradesh.



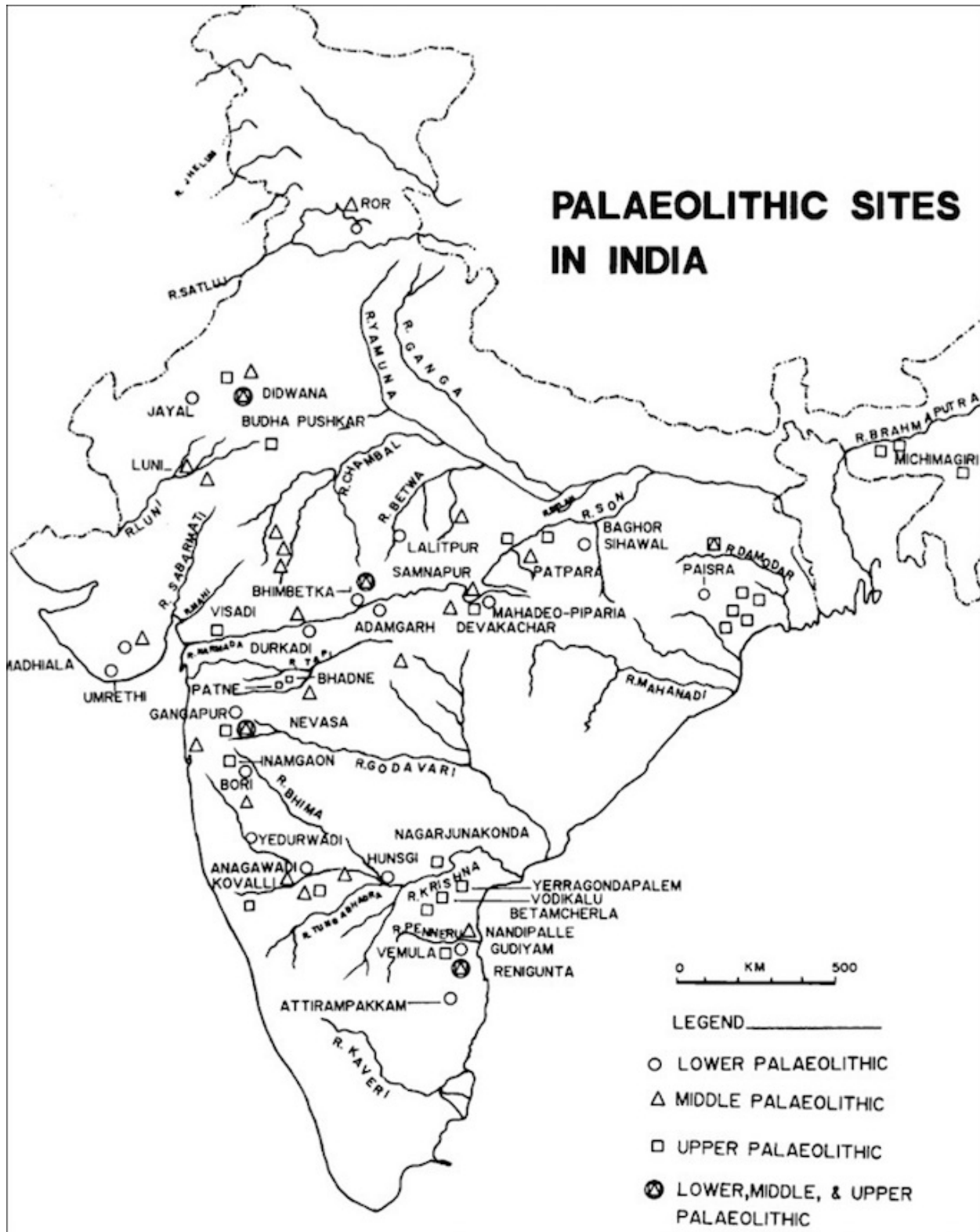
2. Middle Palaeolithic or Middle Old Stone Age (1,00,000 BC - 40,000 BC)

- The Acheulian culture of old stone age was slowly transformed into the middle Palaeolithic by giving some of the tool types and by developing new tools & technology.
- Special characteristic of stone tools - Flakes.
- In comparison to the lower Palaeolithic era, the tools in middle Palaeolithic became smaller, thinner and lighter.
- New raw materials used for making stone tools included fine-grained siliceous rocks like *chert* and *jasper*.
- In Rajasthan, sites of Middle Palaeolithic age are located at Luni valley, around Didwana, Budha Pushkar.

3. Upper Palaeolithic or Later Old Stone Age (40,000 BC - 10,000 BC)

- The tools of Upper Palaeolithic Era are further refined upon the lower and middle periods and show a marked regional diversity with respect to the refinement of techniques and standardization of finished tool forms.
- Special characteristic of stone tools of Upper Palaeolithic age – Flakes and blades.
- One important discovery is of the *Ostrich egg shells* at over 40 sites in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra, which shows that ostrich, a bird adapted to arid climate.
- The upper Palaeolithic settlements also show a distinct trend of being associated with *permanent sources of waters*.
- Society was 'Band Society' - small communities, usually consisting of less than 100 people. They were nomadic to some extent moving from one place to another.
- The earliest form of art by humans also belongs to upper Palaeolithic period in the form of rock paintings (Bhimbetka).
- Sites of Upper Palaeolithic age in Rajasthan included Chittorgarh, Kota and basins of rivers Wagon, Kadamli, Sabarmati & Mahi.

Map of Old Stone Age Sites in India:



Mesolithic-Middle Stone Age in Rajasthan

10,000 BC – 5,000 BC

The last stage of Old Stone age or Palaeolithic Age was followed by Mesolithic or Middle Stone Age in Rajasthan (in India). The transition from the Palaeolithic period to Mesolithic period is marked by transition from Pleistocene period(2.58 million years ago - 10,000BC) to Holocene (10,000 BC - till now) and favorable changes in the climate. The climate became warmer and humid and there was expansion of flora and fauna contributed by increased rainfall. This led to availability of new resources to humans.

Tools of Mesolithic Age:

- The tools of Mesolithic age were smaller in size and better in finishing (more geometric) than the Palaeolithic age and are called as Microliths.
- The main tool types are backed blades, obliquely truncated blades, points, crescents, triangles and trapezes.
- Some of the microliths were used as components of spearheads, arrowheads, knives, sickles, harpoons and daggers.
- Use of bow and arrows for hunting has been documented by Mesolithic man in rock art of the period.

Changes in Society of Mesolithic Age:

- **Domestication of Animals & Farming:**
 - The early period of Mesolithic age was based on the hunting, fishing and food gathering, slowly domestication of animals and cultivation of crops made their way into human life.
 - The earliest evidence of domestication of animals has been provided by Adamagarh in Madhya Pradesh and Bagor in Rajasthan.
 - The first animals to be domesticated were dog, cattle, sheep and goat and the first crops to be cultivated were wheat and barley.



- **Nomadism to Sedentary settlements:**
 - The favourable climate, better rainfalls, warm atmosphere and increased food security led to reduction in nomadism to seasonally sedentary settlement and increased population.
 - They moved to new areas such as nearby rivers which provided water.
 - First human colonization of the Ganga plains took place during this period.
- **Beginning of customs:**
 - The mesolithic age saw beginning of the tradition of various ways of intentional disposal of the dead.
 - Mesolithic human burials have been found at Bagor in Rajasthan, Langhnaj in Gujarat, Bhimbetka in Madhya Pradesh etc.
- **Emergence of Arts:**
 - The rock painting of Mesolithic period is found in Adamgarh, Bhimbetka of Madhya Pradesh and Pratapgarh, Mirzapur of Rajasthan.
 - The paintings are made mostly in red and white pigments, made from the nodules found in rocks and earth. (Red made by minerals of iron oxide and white by limestone)
 - The subject matter of the paintings are mostly wild animals and hunting scenes, though there are some related to human social and religious life such as sex and child birth.



Mesolithic sites in Rajasthan:

- The Pachpadra basin, Sojat Area & Tilwara of Rajasthan are rich Mesolithic sites and lot of microliths have been discovered.
- However, Bagor is the largest mesolithic site in India.

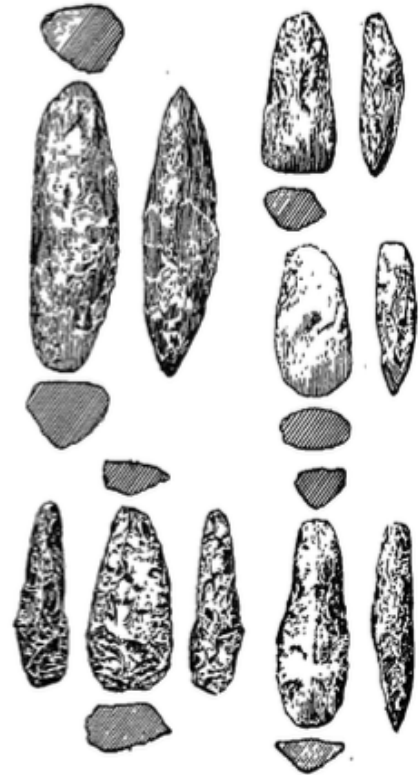
Neolithic Age in Rajasthan

5,000 BC – 1,000 BC

Neolithic or new stone age, which followed mesolithic age was the last phase of stone age. The Neolithic period began around 10700 to 9400 BC in *Tell Qaramel in Northern Syria*. In South Asia the date assigned to Neolithic period is 7000 BC and the earliest example is *Mehrgarh Culture*.

Neolithic Revolution:

- The human settlements in the Mesolithic era got more sedentary and people began settle down in agricultural communities which led to establishment of villages.
- Man for first time domesticated cattle, sheep and goats.
- As efficiency of agriculture improved, man was able to produce surplus food. As a consequence, some people moved away from agriculture and new occupations like dancers , musicians, masonry came up.
- The people of this age used tools & implements of polished stone. Neolithic tool kit was composed of heavy ground tools – pestles, mortars, grinders and pounders – as also axes and sickles which have a characteristic sheen on them, the result of harvesting wild or domesticated plants and grasses.



The use of *pottery and the wheel* and the subsequent invention of crafts like spinning, weaving and bead-making also serve to demonstrate the uniqueness of the neolithic phase. This transition from *hunting-gathering to food production* is called the Neolithic revolution.

Causes of Neolithic Revolution:

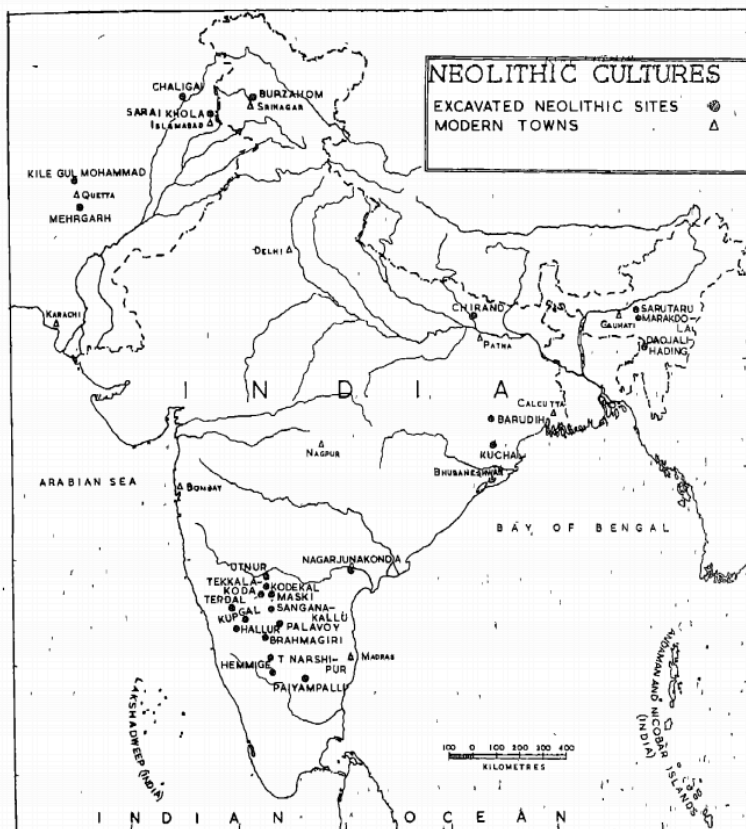
Factors that pushed humans in vastly separated parts to adopt agriculture and animal domestication included:

- Climatic change at the beginning of the holocene period,
- Increasing population density
- Evolving cultural and technological strategies of human groups.

Features of Mehrgarh Neolithic Culture:

Mehrgarh is located on bank of the Bolan River, a tributary of the Indus, at the eastern edge of the Baluchistan plateau overlooking the Indus plain. It is considered as the oldest agricultural settlement in the Indian subcontinent.

- The main domesticated animals in Mehrgarh were cattle, sheep, goat and water buffalo while the main cultivated plants were wheat and barley.
- Houses made in mud and mud-bricks, created rooms to store grains, buried dead under floors of houses where they lived, used ornaments of steatite, turquoise, sea shells etc.
- Domesticated cotton for the first time. Used pottery decorated with images of birds, animals. Learnt use of making stone beads, copper smelting, timber, terracotta, commercial transactions.
- The first evidence in human history for the drilling of teeth in a living person was found in Mehrgarh.



Neolithic Age in Rajasthan

As you can see in map, there are no significant neolithic sites, that fall in modern Rajasthan.

Indus Valley Civilization

3500 BC – 2500 BC

Indus Valley Civilization existed between 3300-1600 BC in three phases namely early, mature and late phases. It was discovered in 1921 and belonged to Bronze Age. Indus Valley Civilization was located on the banks of the river Indus, particularly at the bends that provided water, easy means of transportation of produce and other goods and also some protection by way of natural barriers of the river.

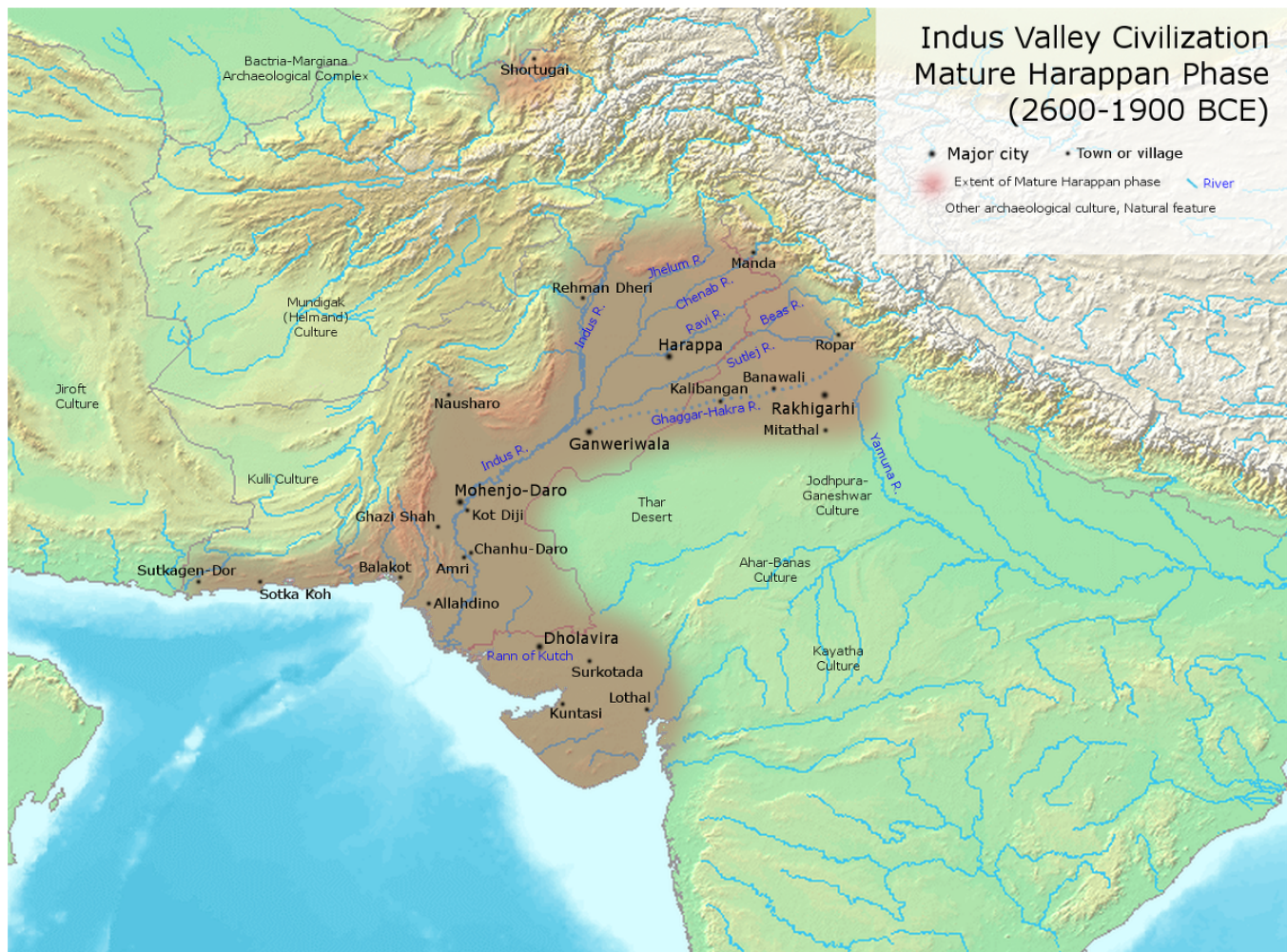


Image Credit: Wikipedia Commons

Sites included Dholavira , Rangpur, Rojdi, Lothal , Sarkotada , Kuntasi, Padri (Gujarat) Kalibangan (Rajasthan), Bhagwanpura, Banawali (Haryana), Diamabad (Maharashtra), Alamgirpur (U.P.), and Mauda (Jammu).

The most unique feature of the civilization was development of Urban Centers

Architecture Snapshot: Mohenjodaro Site

- The settlement is divided into two sections, one smaller but higher other larger but lower.
- Upper is called Citadel and the other Lower Town.

Citadel:

- Citadel has structure most probably used for special public purposes like *Warehouse & Great Bath*.
- 'Granaries' which were used to store grains which give an idea of an organized collection and distribution system.
- 'Great Bath' - public bathing place shows the importance of ritualistic bathing and cleanliness in this culture. It is still functional and there is no leakage or cracks in the construction.
- To watertight bricks, mortar made of gypsum was used.
- Evidence of building of big dimensions which perhaps were public buildings, administrative or business centers, pillared halls and courtyards.

Lower Town

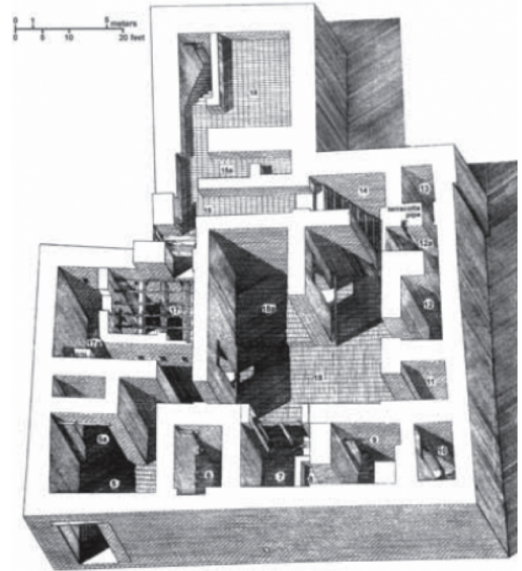
- It was walled, probably to provide security to the people. The fortifications with gateways enclosing the walled cities, also shows that there may have been a fear of being attacked.
- Rectangular grid pattern of layout with roads that cut each other at right angles.
- Used standardized burnt mud-bricks as building material.
- Most complete ancient system of public drainage system yet discovered. The main channels were made of bricks set in mortar and were covered with loose bricks that could be removed for cleaning. In some cases, limestone was used for covers.



- No evidence of temples.

Domestic Architecture:

- Present in Lower Town
- Most of the houses had private wells and bathrooms. The bathrooms had drains connected through wall to the street drains.
- Many of houses were centered on a courtyard with rooms on all sides. The courtyard was probably center of activities.
- There are also no windows in walls on ground floor.

**Indus Valley Sites in Rajasthan:**

- Kalibangan
- Baror
- Karanpura

Kalibangan

Kalibangan is a part of the ancient Indus Valley Civilization, located in present [Hanumangarh](#) district. The site was discovered by *Luigi Pio Tessitori*, an Italian Indologist and linguist. After Independence in 1952, *Amlānand Ghosh* identified the site as part of Harappan Civilization and marked it for excavation. Later, during 1961-69, excavation were carried out by *B. B. Lal & Balkrishna Thapar*.

Kalibangan has settlements belonging to:

- Pre-Harappan Period from the 3500 BC – 2500 BC.
- Harappan Period from the 2500 BC – 1500 BC

Features of Pre-Harappan Settlement:

- The pre-Harappan settlement was a fortified parallelogram, the fortification wall being made of mud-bricks.

- The houses within the walled area were also made of mud-bricks.
- The distinctive trait of this period was the pottery which was significantly different from that of the succeeding Harappans.
- *An outstanding discovery was a ploughed field, showing a cross-grid of furrows, the southeast of the settlement outside the town-wall. This is perhaps the earliest ploughed field excavated so far.*

Features of Harrapan Period:

Town Planning:

- During the Harappan period, the structural pattern of the settlement was changed. There were now two distinct parts: the *citadel on the west* and the *lower city on the east*.
- The citadel was situated on a higher level and looked like fortified parallelogram. It consisted of two equal but separately patterned parts. The fortification was built throughout of mud-bricks. The southern half of the citadel contained some five to six massive platforms, some of which may have been used for religious or ritual purposes. The northern half of the citadel contained residential buildings of the elite.
- The lower city was also fortified and within the walled city, there was a *grid of streets* running north-south and east-west, dividing the area into blocks. The houses were built of mud-bricks, baked bricks being confined to drains, wells, sills, etc.
- Beside the above two principal parts of Kalibangan, there was also a third one, situated 80 m east of the lower city. It consisted of a modest structure, containing *four to five 'fire-altars'* and as such could have been used for ritualistic purposes.
- Of the finds obtained from this excavation, a cylindrical seal and an incised terracotta cake are quite significant.

Burial

- The cemetery of the Harappans was located to the west-southwest of the citadel.
 - Three types of burials are found:
 - Extended inhumation in rectangular or oval grave-pits
 - Pot-burials in a circular pit
 - Rectangular or oval grave-pits containing only pottery and other funerary objects.
-

Terracota:

- The best terracota figure from Kalibangan is that a charging bull which is considered to signify the "realistic and powerful folk art of Harappan Age".

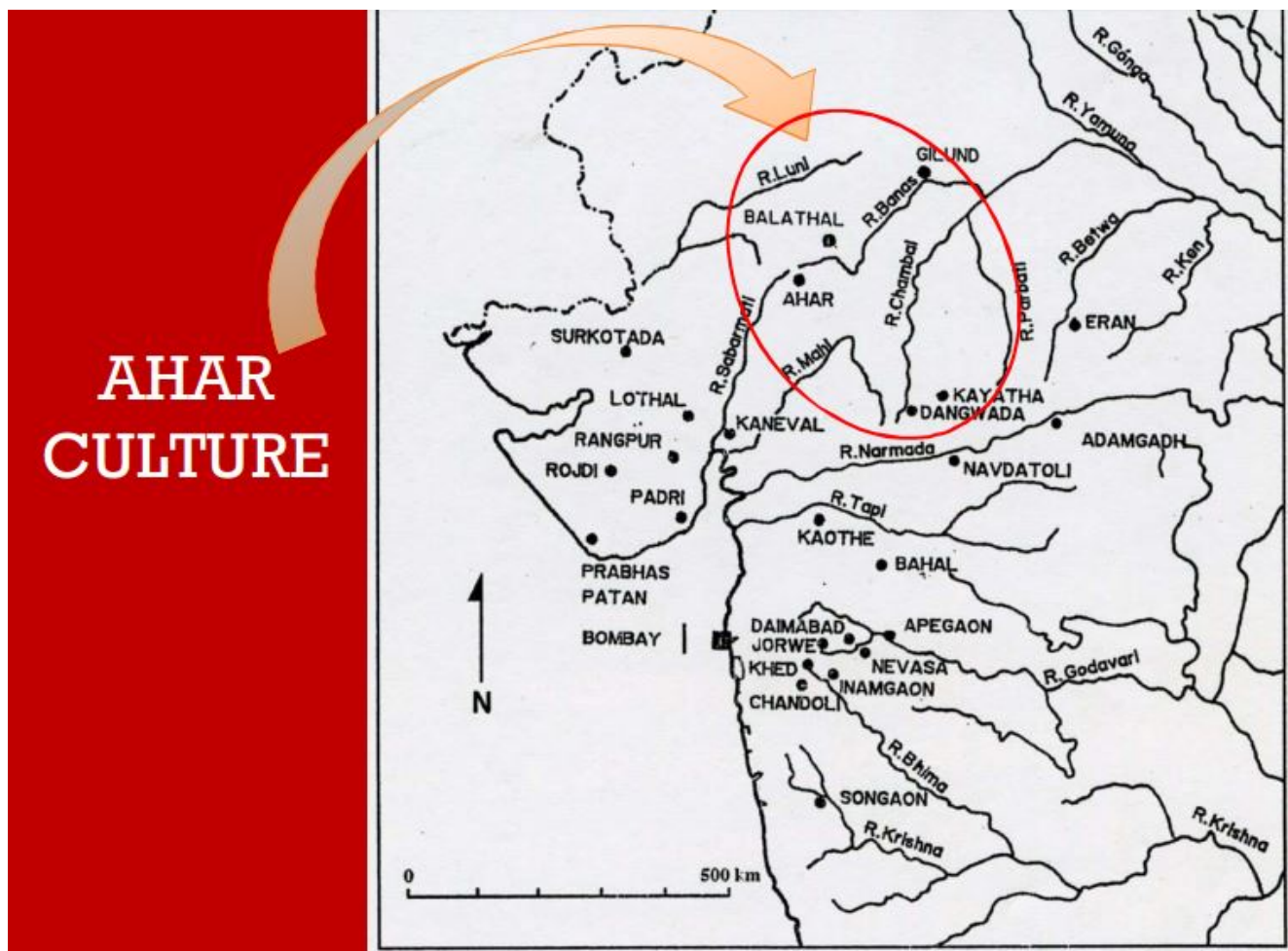
Seals:

- Most noteworthy is a cylindrical seal, depicting a female figure between two male figures, fighting or threatening with spears.

Ahar-Banas Culture of Rajasthan

A number of *Chalcolithic cultures* have been discovered in northern, central and western India. These included:

- The *Ochre-Coloured Pottery (OCP) culture* in the Punjab, Haryana, north-east Rajasthan and upper Ganga-Yamuna doab.
- The *Narhan culture* and its variants in the northern Vindhyas and the middle and lower Ganga valley.
- The *Ahar culture* in the Mewar region of Rajasthan.
- The *Kayatha and Malwa cultures* in the Malwa region of western Madhya Pradesh.
- The *Jorwe culture* in western Maharashtra.



Ahar-Banas Culture

The **Ahar culture**, also known as the **Banas culture**, is a *Chalcolithic Culture* of southeastern Rajasthan, lasting from 3000 to 1500 BCE, contemporary and adjacent to the [Indus Valley Civilization](#). The main distribution of this culture seems to be concentrated in the river valleys of Banas and its tributaries namely Berach and Ahar.

More than 90 sites of the culture have been identified till date, out of which, *Gilund, Ahar, Ojiyana and Balathal* are prominent sites. These sites of Ahar culture provide important information about the transformation of life from hunting-gathering to agriculture in the Mewar region.

Features of Ahar-Banas Culture:

Houses:

- People lived in single, double & multi-roomed rectangular, square or circular houses.
- The houses were made of stones, mud bricks, the walls being plastered with mud.

Pottery:

- Typical Ahar pottery is a Black-and-Red ware (BRW) with linear and dotted designs painted on it in white pigment and has limited range of shapes, which include bowls, bowls-on-stands, elongated vases and globular vases.

Economy & Subsistence:

- The subsistence of Ahar-Banas people was based on cultivation, animal rearing and hunting. They sustained on a number of crops, including wheat and barley.
- The people of Ahar culture had trade links with the Harappans.

Technology:

- The technology of Ahar people was mostly based on copper. They exploited the copper ores of the Aravalli Range to make axes and other artefacts.
- However, the Neolithic trend of using polished stone tools continued in this period also and microlithic tools of silicious material were also very common.

Important Sites of Ahar-Banas Culture:

- [Gilund](#)
 - Ahar
-

- Ojiyana
- [Balathal](#)
- [Pachamta](#) (Because, Excavation done in 2015)

*** Important Note:**

Please note use of words Indus Valley "Civilization" but Ahar-Banas "Culture" . We did not use Ahar-Banas Civilization. Why?

Because Ahar-Banas is Culture and not Civilization. So what is the difference between Civilization & Culture?

- Culture is by definition smaller than a civilization. Civilization includes (technology, forms of government etc, and even culture)
- Culture can grow and exist without residing in a formal civilization whereas a civilization will never grow and exist without the element of culture. Hence, Culture is earlier or a pre-condition for civilization to develop.
- All Societies have culture but only a few have Civilization (example, Indus Valley Civilization).

Gilund (Rajsamand):

Gilund is an archaeological site in [Rajsamand](#) district. There are three major rivers in the area which include the *Kothari, Banas, and Berach*. Excavation carried out at the site during 1959-60 by *B.B.Lal* revealed two mounds labelled as 'eastern' and 'western' mounds. The site is part of Ahar-Banas chalcolithic culture.

Features of Ahar-Banas Culture at Gilund:

- Gilund was occupied from approximately 3000-1700 BCE. These years of occupation can be divided into two Periods:
 - Early Ahar-Banas 3000-2000 BCE.
 - Late Ahar-Banas 2000-1700 BCE

Period I:

- Period I is chalcolithic in character on account of the presence of a few microliths along with copper.
-

- All through the period the residential houses are made of mud brick, the walls being plastered with mud. Within the houses are noticed circular clay-lined ovens and open mouthed *chulhas*.
- The characteristic Pottery of Period I is *Black-and-Red Ware*, painted over with linear and curvilinear designs in a creamish-white pigment, other wares include plain and painted black, burnished grey and red wares.
- Among the Teracotta figurines particularly noteworthy are the bull figurines with a prominent hump and long horns.

Period II

- Period II of Gilund seems to have begun about the middle of the 1st millennium B.C., as indicated by the presence of bowls and dishes of grey ware.
- In the successive strata have been found Sunga and Kushana bowls in red ware, sprinklers in the Red Polished Ware, bowls in kaolin ware and knife-edged bowls in red ware, indicating that this occupation continued up to the end of the 1st millennium A.D.

Balathal (Udaipur)

Balathal is an archaeological site of Ahar-Banas Culture located in Vallabhnagar tehsil of [Udaipur](#) district of [Rajasthan](#). It is located on banks of Katar river. The site was discovered by V. N. Misra during a survey in 1962-63.

This ancient site was occupied during two cultural periods: *the Chalcolithic and the Early Historic*. Excavation at Balathal revealed a Chalcolithic period stretching from 3000 to 1500 BC and an Early Historic period dated to 5-3 century BC

Chalcolithic Phase (3000 -1500 BC):

- Balathal was part of the Ahar-Banas Complex and can be connected to other Ahar-Banas culture sites through artifacts that have been discovered.
- The period is characterized by well-planned structures. The houses found at the site are square or rectangular made of mud brick and stones.
- Stone objects including saddle querns, mullers, rubber stone, hammer stone and copper objects including choppers, knives, razors, chisels and tanged arrowhead have been found.

- It has been determined that the people practiced agro-pastoralism, which is a mixture of both farming and herding animals. [Pottery](#) at the site has been thoroughly analyzed and tells much about life at this ancient site.

After the Chalcolithic period the site was abandoned for a long time till the Early Historic period.

Early Historic Phase (5 - 3 BC):

- Excavation of early historic phase produced the evidence of large-scale use of iron implements, suggesting its important role in the economy of that period.
- The people lived in wattle and daub houses and the floors were made of mud and stone rammed together.
- Iron working in the form of furnaces with iron slags and abundant objects like nails, arrow head, lamps, needle, hoe, spatula, knife etc. are found on site.

Most peculiar item:

A skeleton was found buried at Balathal believed to be 4,000 year old skeleton of a man believed to be 37 years when he died. The skeleton it provides the oldest *evidence of leprosy* in human beings.



Pachamta:

Recently in 2015, excavation were carried out at Pachamta, a village 100 km from Udaipur in Rajasthan, under a project called the Mewar Plains Archaeological Assessment.

Pachamta belongs to the Ahar-Banas culture in the Mewar region, which was contemporaneous with the early and mature Harappan culture. The Ahar culture, datable to 3,000-1,700 BCE, was chalcolithic, and its people had trade links with the Harappans.

Artefacts such as perforated jars, shell bangles, terracotta beads, shells and the semi-precious stone lapis lazuli, different types of pottery and two hearths have been found during excavation.

OCP Culture of Rajasthan

The Ochre Colored Pottery or OCP culture is defined by the type of similar Ochre Pottery found at different sites. In 1951, B.B. Lal carried out small digs at *Bisauli and Rajpur Parsu villages in Bijnor district of Uttar Pradesh* at spots where copper hoards had reportedly been discovered earlier. While B.B. Lal did not find any new copper objects, he came across weathered *ochre-coloured pottery (OCP)*, and on that basis he suggested a probable correlation between the hoards and this pottery. Since then as many as 950 sites of OCP culture have been discovered from the different parts of western Uttar Pradesh, Haryana and Rajasthan.

Further, because of their discovery in groups, they have also been labelled as *Copper Hoard Culture*.

The highest number of the OCP sites in Rajasthan are found in the district of Sikar followed by Jaipur, Jhunjhunu, Alwar and Bharatpur.

Features of OCP Culture:

- The hoards comprise a variety of objects like flat axes with splayed sides and convex cutting edges, shouldered axes, bar celts, double-edged axes and antenna-hilted swords.
- The pottery is ill-fired, ochrish red in colour, and heavily weathered, with the slip peeling off. The shapes comprise storage jars, vases, basins, bowls, dishes-on-stand and miniature pots; they are considerably similar to the Harappan pottery shapes.
- Occasionally the pottery is decorated with incised designs, graffiti and paintings in black pigment.
- OCP settlements are small in size and have thin habitation deposit. This indicates that habitation on them was of short duration. Because of the small size of excavations very little is known of the economy and material culture associated with this pottery.
- Evidence was found regarding cultivation of rice and barley, domestication of cattle, rammed earth floors, post-holes, baked and unbaked bricks, terracotta human figurines and bangles, and beads of stone and bone.



Important Sites of OCP Culture:

In Rajasthan, Ochre Colored Pottery sites have been discovered at:

- [Ganeshwar](#) (Sikar)
- Jodhpura (Jaipur)

Ganeshwar (Sikar)

Ganeshwar is a village in Neem Ka Thana Tehsil in the Sikar District. Excavations have revealed ancient sites, with remains of a 4000 years old civilization. The site is located at source of river Kantali, which used to join river Drishadvati, near Soni-Bhadra on the north.

Historian Ratan Lal Mishra wrote that, Red pottery with black portraiture was found which is estimated to be belonging to 2500–2000 BC was found when Ganeshwar was excavated in 1977.

Ganeshwar is located near the copper mines of the Sikar-Jhunjhunu area of the Khetri copper belt in Rajasthan. It mainly supplied copper objects to Harappa.

- Copper objects, microliths & pottery were found throughout the deposits.
- Copper objects included arrowheads, spearheads, fish hooks, bangles and chisels.
- Microliths, discovered here, represent a highly evolved geometric industry, the principal tool-types being blunted-back blades, obliquely-blunted blades, lunates, triangles and points. The raw materials employed for the industry included quartz, garnet, and occasionally jasper.
- The Pottery found represents OCP culture and includes storage jars, vases, basins, bowls, lids and miniature pots.

Rajasthan During Vedic Period

1500 BC – 500 BC

The cities of the Harappan Culture had declined by 1500 B.C. Around this period, the speakers of Indo-Aryan language, *Sanskrit*, entered the north-west India from the Indo-Iranian region. Initially they would have come in small numbers through the passes in the northwestern mountains. Their initial settlements were in the valleys of the north-west and the plains of the Punjab.

Later, they moved into Indo-Gangetic plains. As they were mainly a cattle-keeping people, they were mainly in search of pastures. By 6th century B.C., they occupied the whole of North India, which was referred to as Aryavarta. The original home of the Aryans is a debatable question and there are several views.

This period between 1500 B.C and 600 B.C may be divided into:

- The Early Vedic Period or Rig Vedic Period (1500 B.C -1000 B.C) and
- The Later Vedic Period (1000B.C - 600 B.C).

Why it is called Vedic Period ?

The word 'Veda' is derived from the root 'vid', which means to know. In other words, the term 'Veda' signifies 'superior knowledge'. The Vedic literature consists of the four Vedas – *Rig, Yajur, Sama and Atharva*.

- The Rig Veda is the earliest of the four Vedas and it consists of 1028 hymns.
- The Yajur Veda consists of various details of rules to be observed at the time of sacrifice.
- The Sama Veda is set to tune for the purpose of chanting during sacrifice. It is called the book of chants and the origins of Indian music are traced in it.
- The Atharva Veda contains details of rituals.

Rig Vedic Age or Early Vedic Period (1500 - 1000 B.C.)

- There were several tribal kingdoms during the Rig Vedic period such as *Bharatas, Matsyas, Yadus and Purus*. The head of the kingdom was called as rajan or king.
- The Rig Vedic polity was normally monarchical and the succession was hereditary. The king was assisted by purohita or priest and senani or commander of the army in his administration.
- There were two popular bodies called the Sabha and Samiti. The Sabha seems to have been a council of elders and the latter, a general assembly of the entire people.

Social Life:

- The Rig Vedic society was patriarchal. The basic unit of society was family or graham. The head of the family was known as grahapathi.
- Monogamy was generally practiced while polygamy was prevalent among the royal and noble families.
- Women were given equal opportunities as men for their spiritual and intellectual development. There were women poets like Apala, Viswavara, Ghosa and Lopamudra during the Rig Vedic period.
- Women could even attend the popular assemblies. There was no child marriage and the practice of sati was absent.
- Both men and women wore upper and lower garments made of cotton and wool.
- Chariot racing, horse racing, dicing, music and dance were the favourite pastimes.
- The social divisions were not rigid during the Rig Vedic period as it was in the later Vedic period.

Economic Condition:

- The Rig Vedic Aryans were pastoral people and their main occupation was cattle rearing. Their wealth was estimated in terms of their cattle.
 - When they permanently settled in North India they began to practice agriculture. With the knowledge and use of iron they were able to clear forests and bring more lands under cultivation.
 - Carpentry was another important profession and the availability of wood from the forests cleared made the profession profitable. Carpenters produced chariots and ploughs.
-

- Workers in metal made a variety of articles with copper, bronze and iron. Spinning was another important occupation and cotton and woolen fabrics were made. Goldsmiths were active in making ornaments.
- The potters made various kinds of vessels for domestic use.
- Trade was another important economic activity and rivers served as important means of transport. Trade was conducted on barter system. In the later times, gold coins called nishka were used as media of exchange in large transactions.

Religion:

- The Rig Vedic Aryans worshiped the natural forces like earth, fire, wind, rain and thunder.
- The important Rig Vedic gods were Prithvi (Earth), Agni (Fire), Vayu (Wind), Varuna (Rain) and Indra (Thunder).
- There were also female gods like Aditi and Ushas.
- There were no temples and no idol worship during the early Vedic period.
- Prayers were offered to the gods in the expectation of rewards. Ghee, milk and grain were given as offerings. Elaborate rituals were followed during the worship.

- The king performed various rituals and sacrifices to strengthen his position. They include Rajasuya (consecration ceremony), Asvamedha (horse sacrifice) and Vajpeya (chariot race).
- The kings also assumed titles like Rajavisvajanan, Ahilabhuvanapathi, (lord of all earth), Ekkrat and Samrat (sole ruler).
- In the later Vedic period, a large number of new officials were involved in the administration in addition to the existing purohita, senani and gramani. They include the treasury officer, tax collector and royal messenger.
- At the lower levels, the village assemblies carried on the administration. The importance of the Samiti and the Sabha had diminished during the later Vedic period.

Social System:

- The four divisions of society (Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas and Sudras) or the Varna system was thoroughly established during the Later Vedic period.
- Position of women declined, they were still considered inferior and subordinate to men. Women also lost their political rights of attending assemblies.
- Child marriages had become common.

Economic Condition:

- Iron was used extensively in this period and this enabled the people to clear forests and to bring more land under cultivation. Agriculture became the chief occupation. Improved types of implements were used for cultivation. Besides barley, rice and wheat were grown.
- Metal work, leather work, carpentry and pottery made great progress. In addition to internal trade, foreign trade became extensive. The Later Vedic people were familiar with the sea and they traded with countries like Babylon.
- Vaisyas also carried on trade and commerce. They organized themselves into guilds known as ganas.
- Besides *nishka* of the Rig Vedic period, gold and silver coins like *satamana* and *krishnala* were used as media of exchange.

Religion:

- Gods of the Early Vedic period like Indra and Agni lost their importance.
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- Prajapathi (the creator), Vishnu (the protector) and Rudra (the destroyer) became prominent during the Later Vedic period.
- Sacrifices were still important and the rituals connected with them became more elaborate. The importance of prayers declined and that of sacrifices increased.
- Priesthood became a profession and a hereditary one. The formulae for sacrifices were invented and elaborated by the priestly class. Therefore, towards the end of this period there was a strong reaction against priestly domination and against sacrifices and rituals. The rise of Buddhism and Jainism was the direct result of these elaborate sacrifices.
- Also, the authors of the Upanishads, which is the essence of Hindu philosophy, turned away from the useless rituals and insisted on true knowledge (jnana) for peace and salvation.

Vedic Age or Iron Age in Rajasthan:

From 1000 BC, Iron was used in Gandhara in Pakistan. Around same time, use of iron appeared in eastern Punjab, Western UP and Rajasthan. The Vedic literature mentions the *Matsyas* and the *Salvas* as located near the river Saraswati and there is evidence to believe that by the close of the Vedic age Rajasthan had become fully colonized by the Vedic tribes.

The relics of Painted Grey ware culture have been reported from the dried-up beds of Saraswati and Drshadvati rivers. There is also evidence of Painted Grey Ware (PGW) from Noh (Bharatpur), Jodhpur (Jaipur), Viratnagar (Jaipur) and Sanari (Jhunjhunu). These sites represent the growth of Iron Age in Rajasthan.

Rajasthan During Mahajanpada Period

600 BCE -300 BCE

The end of Vedic India is marked by linguistic, cultural and political changes. By the 6th century BCE, the political units consolidated into large kingdoms called Mahajanapadas. The age is also referred to as period of second urbanization.

The term "Janapada" literally means the *foothold of a tribe*, in Pāṇini's "*Ashtadhyayi*", *Janapada* stands for country. The Pre-Buddhist north-west region of the Indian sub-continent was divided into several Janapadas demarcated from each other by boundaries. Each of these Janapadas was named after the Kshatriya tribe (or the Kshatriya Jana) who had settled therein. Ancient Buddhist texts like the *Anguttara Nikaya* make reference to sixteen Mahajanpadas and republics which had evolved and flourished in Indian Sub-Continent.



Image Credits: Wikipedia Commons

Rajasthan during Mahajanpada period:

The modern state of Rajasthan was also part of several Mahajanpadas mentioned below:

Matsya Mahajanpada

- The modern districts of [Jaipur](#), [Alwar](#) & [Bharatpur](#) formed part of Mahajanpada of Machcha or Matsya.
- The capital of Matsya was at *Viratanagari* (present-day Bairat), which is said to have been named after its founder king, Virata.
- The kingdom came under the control of the neighboring *Chedi Kingdom* in the 5th century.

Saurasena Mahajanpada

- The capital of Saurasena janpada is located near modern day Mathura.
- It covers region of [Alwar](#), [Bharatpur](#), [Dholpur](#) & [Karauli](#).

Kuru Mahajanpada

- The capital of Kuru Janpada was Indrapath.
- It covered parts of northern [Alwar](#) region.

Rajasthan after Alexander Invasion (326 BC)

Because of Alexander's invasion in 326 BCE tribes of South Punjab especially Malav, Shivi and Arjunayan migrated to Rajasthan. Punjab and Rajasthan became the nucleus of a number of oligarchies, or tribal republics whose local importance rose and fell in inverse proportion to the rise and fall of larger kingdoms. According to coins recovered, the most important politically were the Audambaras, Arjunayanas, Malavas, Kunindas, Trigartas, Abhiras, Yaudheyas and Shibis (Shivi).

Arjunayana

- Arjunayanas had their base in the present-day *Bharatpur-Alwar* region.
- They emerged as a political power during the Shunga period (c. 185 – c. 73 BCE).

Rajnaya

- Different scholars have ascribed different regions to Rajnaya janpada, based on coins. Cunningham suggested their region as near Mathura, Smith suggested former *Dholpur* state as original home of Rajnaya and Rapson ascribed them in same region as of Arjunayanas & Kings of Mathura.

Shivi or Shivi

- Shivi gana covered present districts of [Udaipur](#) & [Chittorgarh](#).
- The Shibis (Shivi) migrated from the Punjab to Rajasthan and settled at Madhyamika (later Nagri), located near Chittaurgarh.
- Nagri was excavated in 1904 A.D by D. R. Bhandarkar

Malavas

- The Malavas are actually mentioned in the *Mahabhashya* of Patanjali.
- According to D. R. Bhandarkar, they initially lived in the Punjab; later, they migrated to eastern Rajasthan (*Jaipur & Tonk*), and finally to region in Madhya Pradesh, which is known as Malwa after them.

- Their capital in Rajasthan was Nagar, located in Tonk.

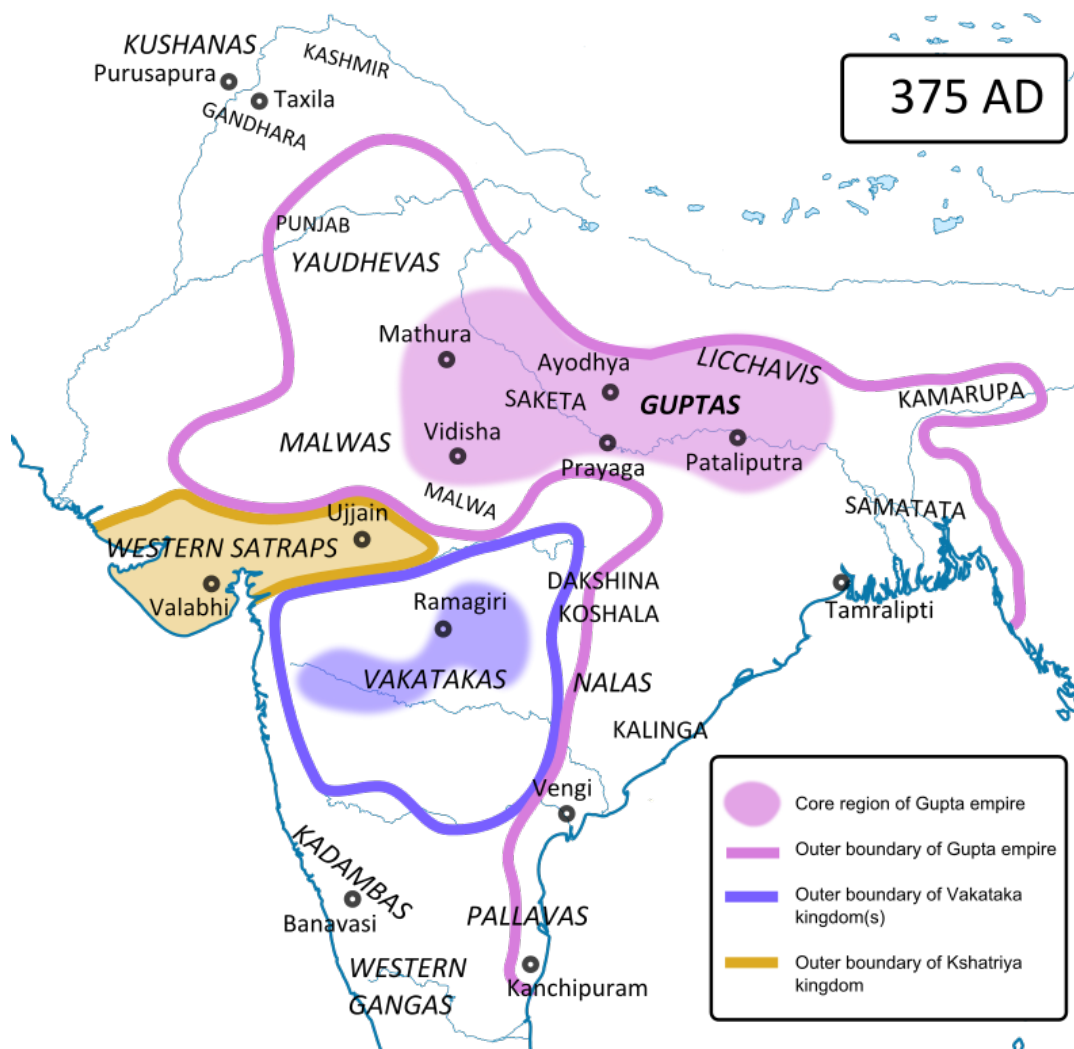


Image source: Wikipedia Commons

Shalva

- It was situated in *Alwar* district

Yodheya or Yaudheyas

- **Yaudheya** or **Yaudheya Gana** was an ancient confederation who lived in the area between the Indus river and the Ganges river. Present *Ganganagar* & *Hanumangarh* districts formed part of their gana.

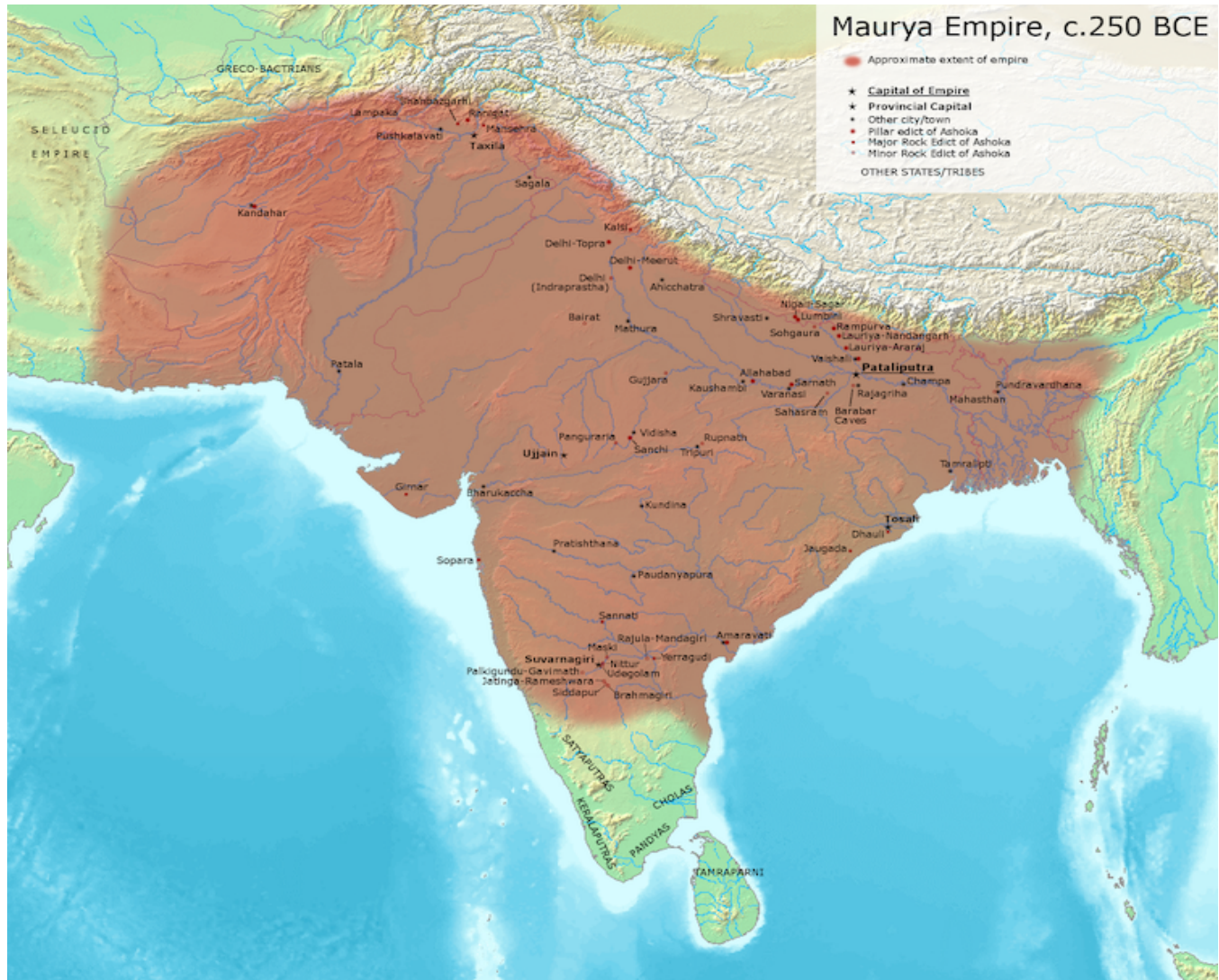
- They find mention in Pāṇini's Ashtadhyayi and Ganapatha.
- Later, the Junagadh rock inscription (c. 150 CE) of Rudradaman I acknowledged the military might of the Yaudheyas.

Note:

- The region surrounding modern districts of Bikaner & Jodhpur was referred to as Jangaladesh during Mahajanpada period.

Maurya Rule in Rajasthan (321-184 BCE)

Part of modern day Rajasthan was under occupation of Maurya Rule. The ruins of the Bijak-ki-pahadi, a Buddhist Chaitya from the 3rd century BCE located in Bairat, are the oldest free-standing Buddhist structures in India.



Maan Mori, of the Maurya dynasty ruled the kingdom till 734 AD when he was killed by Bappa Rawal of the Guhilot clan. Born as Kalbhoy, Bappa Rawal was the founder of a dynasty, which later comes to rule Mewar.

Sakas (1st AD)

The Indo-Scythians are a branch of the Sakas who migrated from southern Siberia into Bactria, Sogdia, Arachosia, Gandhara, Kashmir, Punjab, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Rajasthan, from the middle of the 2nd century BCE to the 4th century CE.

The first Saka king in India was Maues or Moga who established Saka power in Gandhara and gradually extended supremacy over north-western India.



Western Satraps

The Western Satraps (35-405 CE) were Saka rulers of modern Gujarat, southern Sindh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh states.

They were successors to the Indo-Scythians and were contemporaneous with the Kushan Empire, which ruled the northern part of the Indian subcontinent.



Rajasthan In Gupta Period

Before the rise of Gupta's, Rudrasimha II, of the Western Satraps, ruled Rajasthan. Samudra Gupta defeated Rudrasimha II in 351 A.D to capture the southern part of Rajasthan.

Various Sculptures of Gupta Period are found in Ajmera (Dungarpur), Abhaneri (jaipur), Mandore, Osiyan (Jodhpur), Neelkanth, Sacheli (Alwar) & Kalyanpur, Jagat (Udaipur).



Huna Empire in Rajasthan

In 503 C.E, Huna King Toranmal defeated Gupta's and occupied Rajasthan.



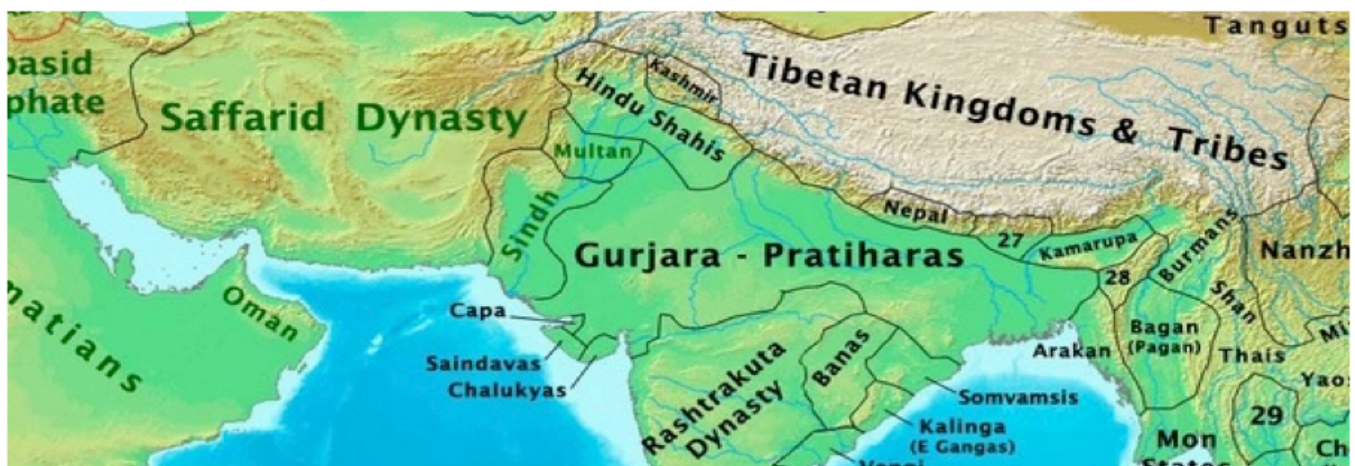
Vardhana Empire

After the downfall of the Gupta Empire in the middle of the 6th century, North India was split into several independent kingdoms. Prabhakara Vardhana, who belonged to the Pushyabhuti family, extended his control over neighbouring states. Around 606 CE, Harsha Vardhana ascended the throne and ruled till 647 C.E.



Gurjara Kingdom

From 550 to 1018 AD, the Gurjars played a great part in history of Northern India nearly for 500 years. The Gurjara-Pratihara King Nagabhata I won Kannauj and established rule over most of Rajasthan. The capital of their Kingdom was Shreemal, which is the old name of Bhinmal in Jalore.



The Origin of Rajputs

The term Rajput starts coming in use from the 6th Century AD. The origin of the Rajputs is the subject of debate. There are four main streams of thought on origin of Rajputs:

Foreign origin theory of Rajputs

This theory says that the Rajputs are descendents of the races like Sakas, Kushanas, Hunas etc. Dr. VA Smith, Col. James Todd, William Crooks supported this theory. The main argument of James Todd behind the foreign origin of the Rajputs was that these people worshipped Fire and Fire was the main deity of the Sakas and Hunas.

Mixed Origin Theory

This theory as put forward by Dr. DP Chatterjee says that Rajput is a mixed race. Some of them were descendents of the Aryans while some of them were from the foreign races such as Hunas, Sakas etc.

Kashtriya theory of origin

This theory was propounded by Gauri Shankar Ojha and says that the Rajputs are NOT from the foreign origin and they are descendents of the mythological Khatriya Heroes like Rama. The theory divides the Rajput based on their lineage as Suryavanshi & Chandravanshi, which they trace from Surya and Chandra. They worship fire as the Aryans did and worship of fire was not the tradition of the Foreigners only.

Agnikula Theory

This theory comes from the Prithvirajraso of Chandarbardai. According to this theory, Rajputs were the result of Yagya performed by Hrishikesh Vashistha at "Guru Shikhar" in Mount Abu. The four Rajput clans from Agnikunda are Chauhans, Chalukyas, Parmaras and Pratiharas. *Muhnot Nainsi & Suryamal Mishran* also support this theory

Pratihars of Mandore

Mandore is an ancient town, and was the seat of the Pratihars of Mandavyapura, who ruled the region in the 6th century CE. The origin of the dynasty is described in two inscriptions: the 837 CE Jodhpur inscription of Bauka and the 861 CE Ghantiyala (or Ghatiyala) inscription of Kakkuka.

Raja Harishchandra Pratihara is described as the founder of the clan. He had four sons: Bhogabhatta, Kakka, Rajjila and Dadda. Nagabhata, fourth in line from Harichandra, moved his capital from Mandavyapura to Medantaka (modern Merta).

Rudolf Hoernlé assumed a period of 20 years for each generation, and placed the dynasty's founder Harichandra in c. 640 CE. *Baij Nath Puri* placed Harichandra in c. 600 CE. *R. C. Majumdar*, on the other hand, assumed a period of 25 years for each generation, and placed him in c. 550 CE.[7] The following is a list of the dynasty's rulers and estimates of their reigns, assuming a period of 25 years:[2]

- Harichandra alias Rohilladhi (c. 550 CE)
- Rajjila (c. 575 CE)
- Narabhatta alias Pellapelli (c. 600 CE)
- Nagabhata alias Nahada (c. 625 CE)
- Tata and Bhoja (c. 650 CE)
- Yashovardhana (c. 675 CE)
- Chanduka (c. 700 CE)
- Shiluka alias Silluka (c. 725 CE)
- Jhota (c. 750 CE)
- Bhilladitya alias Bhilluka (c. 775 CE)
- Kakka (c. 800 CE)
- Bauka (c. 825 CE)
- Kakkuka (c. 861 CE)

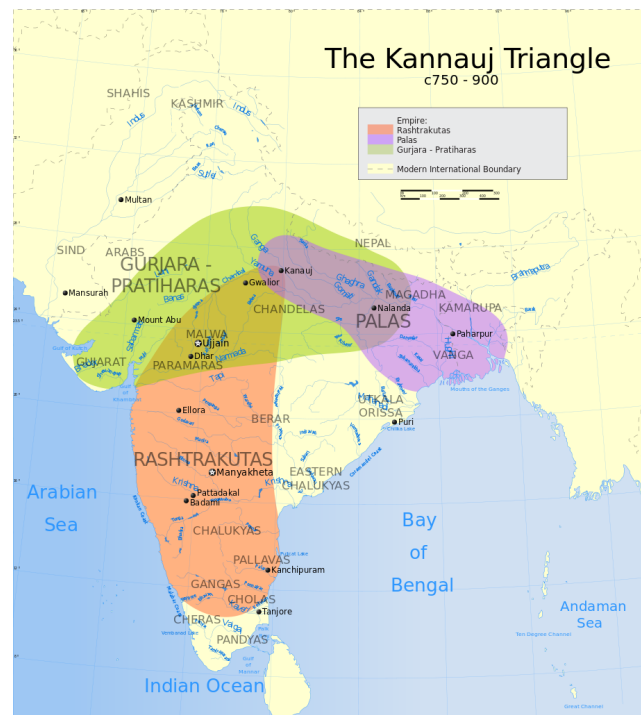
After the disintegration of the Gurjara-Pratihara empire, one branch of Pratihars continued to rule at Mandore. In 1395 CE, a princess of this branch married Rao Chunda of Rathore clan. As a result, Rao Chunda received the Junagarh fort in Mandore in dowry, and moved his capital to the site. The town remained the Rathore capital until 1459 CE, when Rao Jodha shifted his capital to the newly founded city of Jodhpur

Pratihars of Bhinmal (Jalore)

The strongest of the Gurjara-Pratihira branch was the one at Bhinmal, under king Vyaghramukh. The Gurjar clan, which ruled at Bhinmal was known as Chapas (this name is a short version of Chapotkrisht, sanskrit word which means excelled in archery or strong bowmen). As per the records of Heun Tsang, the famous astronomer and mathematician Bramhagupta was in the court of Vyaghramukha.

Kings of Bhinmal branch of Gurjara- Pratihara:

- **Raja Nagabhata I Pratihara**
 - He was the founder of Bhinmal branch of Pratihara.
 - He formed a triple alliance with Jaysimha & Bappa Rawal to defeat Arabs in Battle of Rajasthan
- **Raja Yashovardhan Pratihara**
- **Raja Watsraj Pratihara**
 - He was the first Pratihara ruler who occupied the Kanauj.
 - He defeated Dharmapala of Gauda country.
 - But he was defeated in the hands of Dhruva of Rashtrakuta dynasty.
- **Raja Nagabhata II Pratihara**
 - He got victory over Kannauj.
 - He was defeated in the hands of Govinda of Rashtrakuta dynasty.
 - He defeated Dharmapala and Chakrayudha in the battle of Mudgagiri.
- **Raja Mihir Bhoj Pratihara**
 - During the period of Mihira Bhoja Kanauj was restored to its former glory.
 - Mihira Bhoja defeated Devapala of Bengal.
 - Suleiman, Arab traveller visited the court of Mihira Bhoja in 851 A.D.
- Raja Mahendrapal Pratihara
- Raja Mahipal Pratihara



- Raja Vinayakpal Pratihara
- Raja Mahendrapal II Pratihara
- Raja Vijaypal Pratihara
- Raja Rajyapal Pratihara
- Raja Trilochnpal Pratihara
- Raja YashPal Pratihara
- He was the last ruler of the dynasty. He ruled from 1027 to 1036. Pratihara dynasty came to end with the invasion of Muhammad of Ghazni.

After the downfall of Pratiharas, their capital Kannauj, was occupied by Gahadwalas (Rathores). Chandradeva, who belonged to Rathore clan of Rajput warriors, defeated Gopala and established the Gahadavala dynasty.

After defeating Prthviraj Chauhan in the second Battle of Tarain, Muhammad of Ghur attacked Jaychand. In 1194, Battle of Chandwar took place in which Muhammad Ghori defeated Jaychand. Soon the kingdom of Gahadwalas was destroyed.

Rao Siyaji, grand son of Jai Chandra, of Kannauj, came to Marwar during his pilgrimage to Dwarka. His son, **Rao Asthan** conquered Pali, and Khed (in western Marwar), but ultimately got killed in battle by Sultan **Jalauddin Khilji** of Delhi.

Rao Chanda/Chundarji, 10th in succession from Siyaji, finally wrested control of Marwar from the Gurjara Pratiharas – and established rule of **Rathores in Marwar**. Jodhpur was the primary state of Rathores but different states (Bikaner, Kishangarh etc) were also founded by different Rathore rulers.

The Chauhan Dynasty

The word Chauhan is the vernacular form of the Sanskrit term Chahamanas. While the earlier versions of Chandbardai's work Prithviraj Raso does not mention Chauhan as born from Agnikunda, the later versions do.

The 15th-century Hammira Mahakavya of Nayachandra Suri & Jayanayak's Prithviraj Vijay consider Chauhanas as Suryavanshi. Pandit Gaurishankar Ojha seconds this opinion.

Based on Bijolia Inscription (1170 CE), Dr. Dasrath Sharma considers that early ancestor of Chauhan was born at Ahichchhatrapura in the gotra of sage Vatsa. Ahichchhatrapura can be identified with modern Nagaur.

Chahamanas probably started out as petty rulers of Ahichchhatrapura. As the Chahamanas territory expanded, the entire region ruled by them came to be known as Sapadalaksha.

In course of time Chauhanas formed ruling dynasties at various places. Major Chauhan dynasties include:

- Chauhanas of Shakambhari
- Chauhanas of Ranthambore
- Chauhanas of Jalore

Apart from these, there are other ruling dynasties that claim Chauhan descent including:

- Haras of Hadoti

Chauhanas of Shakambhari:

- Vasu-deva (c. 6th century CE)
 - Considered as founder of Shakambhari branch of Chauhanas around 551 CE
 - According to a mythical account in Prithviraja Vijaya, he received the Sambhar Salt Lake as a gift from a vidyadhara (a supernatural being).
- Samanta-rajya (c. 684-709 CE); identified as the legendary Manik Rai by R. B. Singh
- Nara-deva (c. 709-721 CE)
- Ajaya-rajya I (c. 721-734 CE), alias Jayaraja or Ajayapala

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- Vighraha-raja I (c. 734-759 CE)
 - Chandra-raja I (c. 759-771 CE)
 - Gopendra-raja (c. 771-784 CE)
 - Durlabha-raja I (c. 784-809 CE)
 - Govinda-raja I (c. 809-836 CE), alias Guvaka I
 - Constructed Harshnath Temple in Sikar
 - Chandra-raja II (c. 836-863 CE)
 - Govindaraja II (c. 863-890 CE), alias Guvaka II
 - Chandana-raja (c. 890-917 CE)
 - Vakpati-raja (c. 917-944 CE)
 - Simha-raja (c. 944-971 CE)
 - Vighraha-raja II (c. 971-998 CE)
 - Durlabha-raja II (c. 998-1012 CE)
 - Govinda-raja III (c. 1012-1026 CE)
 - Vakpati-raja II (c. 1026-1040 CE)
 - Viryarama (c. 1040 CE)
 - Chamunda-raja (c. 1040-1065 CE)
 - Durlabha-raja III (c. 1065-1070 CE), alias Duśala
 - Vighraha-raja III (c. 1070-1090 CE), alias Visala
 - Prithvi-raja I (c. 1090-1110 CE)
 - Ajaya-raja II (c. 1110-1135 CE),
 - Moved the capital to Ajayameru (Ajmer)
 - Repulsed a Ghaznavid attack, and also defeated the Paramara king Naravarman.
 - Arno-raja (c. 1135-1150 CE), alias Ana
-

- Defeated Turkish invaders
- Constructed Anasagar Lake
- Jagad-deva (c. 1150 CE)
- Vighraha-raja IV (c. 1150-1164 CE), alias Visaladeva
 - Expanded the Chauhan territories, and captured Delhi from the Tomaras.
- Aparanga-gangeya (c. 1164-1165 CE)
- Prithvi-raja II (c. 1165-1169 CE)
- Someshvara (c. 1169-1178 CE)
- Prithvi-raja III (c. 1178-1192 CE)
 - Better known as Prithviraj Chauhan
 - Defeated Mohd. Ghori in first **Battle of Tarain in 1191**

Battles of Tarain: 1191 & 1192

The Battles of Tarain, also known as the Battles of Taraori, were series of two battles fought in 1191 and 1192 A.D between Prithviraj Chauhan III of Ajmer and Ghurid ruler Mu'izz al-Din Muhammad or Mohd. Ghori. The battles were fought near the town of Tarain (Taraori), near Thanesar in present-day Haryana.

Mohd. Ghori:

Mohd. Ghazni established the Ghaznavi empire with capital at Ghazni. After his death, Ghazni was Oghuz Turks. Ghori, defeated the turks and laid foundation of Ghurid empire. After having made his position strong and secure at Ghazni, Muhammad Ghori turned his attention to India.

In 1175, Muhammad Ghori captured Multan and occupied whole of Sind in his subsequent expeditions. He turned south across the desert towards Anhilwara (modern day Patan, in Gujarat). In 1178, suffered defeat in the Battle of Kayadara (Gujarat), from ruler of Gujarat, Bhimdev Solanki II (ruled 1178–1241). As a result, Ghori retreated back to Multan.

In 1186 he attacked Punjab, and defeated Khusru Malik and added Malik's empire to his dominions. Ghori returned back to Ghanzi to help his brother, only to return in 1191.

The first Battle of Tarain (1191)

In 1191, Ghori proceeded towards India through the Khyber Pass and captured a fortress of Bathinda. This brought him on northwestern frontier of Prithvirāj Chauhān's kingdom. Realising their grave situation, the Hindu princes of north India formed a confederacy under the command of Prithviraj Chauhan. Prithviraj's army, led by his vassal prince Govind Tai marched on to Bhatinda and met his enemy at a place called Tarain (also called Taraori).

Ghori was wounded in personal battle with Govind Tai and so Ghori's army retreated, giving victory to Prthviraj Chauhan. However, Prithviraj did not pursue Ghori's army, not wanting to invade hostile territory or misjudging Ghori's ambition, instead electing to retake the fortress of Bhatinda.

Alternatively it has also been mentioned that, Ghori's army surrendered and Muhammad was made prisoner. Muhammad of Ghor begged for mercy and Prithviraj pardoned him.

Hence, Prithviraj Chauhan won the First Battle of Tarain, held in 1191.

**After the First Battle:**

Ghori return to Ghazni, and started preparations to avenge the defeat. When he reached Lahore, he sent his envoy to Prithviraj to demand his submission, but the Chauhan ruler refused to comply.

The Second Battle of Tarain (1192)

In 1192, Ghori challenged Prithviraj and a battle ensued at the same place (Tarain). Both Ghori and Prithviraj increased their army's strength. But Ghori changed his tactics as he didnot want to engage t in [melee](#) combat with with disciplined Rajput warriors. He divided his huge troop into 5 parts and four units were sent to attack the Rajput flanks and rear. Hoping for Rajput attack, Ghori ordered his fifth unit to fast retreat. As Ghori expected, the Rajput's charged the fleeing Ghurid unit. The Ghurids then sent a fresh cavalry unit of 12,000 and they managed to throw back the Rajput advance.

Ghori won the second Battle of Tarain.

Regarding, fate of Prthviraj after second battle, two stories emerge.

- The first story says that Prthivraj Chauhan was captured in the battle field and executed.

The second story:

The second story, the more famous one in Rajasthan, is based on poem written by Prithviraj's court poet Chandbardai. The story says that Mohammad Ghori attacked Prithviraj Chauhan unfairly at night, defeated his armies and captured him. Later Chauhan was taken to Ghor and presented in the court. Ghori ordered Prithvi to lower his eyes to which Prithvi retorted that the eyelids of Rajputs are lowered only on his death. Feeling insulted, Ghori blinded the rajput prince.

Chandbardai entered the court of Mahmud of Ghori in a disguise. Chand Bardai told Ghori that Prithviraj was a very skilled archer, and he could take aim based only on sound, and did not even need to look at his target. Ghori disdained to believe this and asked for the display.

When Prithviraj was given a bow and arrows into his hand and asked to take aim. Sighting opportunity, Chandbardai recited in a poetic stanza the location where Ghori sat. The stanza are:

*"Char bans, chaubis gaj, angul ashta praman,
Ta upar sultan hai, Chuke mat Chauhan."*

(Four measures ahead of you and twenty four yards away as measured with eight finger measurement, is seated the Sultan. Do not miss him now, Chauhan).

Getting the direction and location Prithviraj shot his arrow through Ghori and killed him.

Consequences of Second Battle of Tarain on India:

The second battle of Tarain was a decisive battle. It was a major disaster for the Rajputs and their political prestige suffered a serious setback. In 1193, Ghori's general Qutub-Din Aibak, took over Ajmer and soon established Ghurid control in northern and central India. Son of Prithviraj was moved to Ranthambore (laid foundation of chauhan kingdom there). Further, In 1194, Battle of Chandwar took place, in which Aibak defeated Gahadavala ruler Jayachandra. In conclusion, the Battles of Tarain and Chandawar laid the foundation for establishment of Turkish rule in India.

Bakhtiyar Khilji extended the domain of empire to Bihar destroying Universities of Nalanda & Vikramshila in the process. Later in 1202, his army completed the occupation of Hindustan by taking the province of Bengal.

Causes for the failure of Hindu kingdoms:

The most important cause for the downfall of Hindu Kingdoms was that the lack unity. They were divided by factions and Rajput Kingdoms were engaged in eternal mutual conflicts. It was the result of

these conflicts that Jai Chandra did not help, Prithvi Raj Chauhan in putting up a united front against invaders.

Secondly, the military methods of Indian Kingdoms were also out of date and inferior to those of Muslims. Indians continued to rely on elephants while the Muslims possessed quick-moving cavalry. More importantly, Ghori had spent the time carefully planning his campaign and his tactics proved a major winner in war.

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- **Govinda-raja IV (c. 1192 CE)**
 - Banished by Hari-raja for accepting Muslim suzerainty;
 - Established the Chauhan branch of Ranthambore
 - Hari-raja (c. 1193-1194 CE)

Chauhans of Ranthambore

The Chauhan lost Ranthambore as a result of defeat of Prithviraja III in battle of Tarain 1192. by Mohd. Ghori. But, Prithviraja's son Govindaraja IV accepted the Ghurid suzerainty, and ruled Ranthambore as his vassal.

- Govinda-raja
 - Son of Prithvi Raja Chauhan III
- Balhana-deva or Balhan
- Prahlada or Prahlad,
- Viranarayana or Vir Narayan,
- Vagabhata, son of Balhana;
 - Known as Bahar Deo in bardic chronicles
- Jaitra-simha or Jaitra Singh
- **Hammira-deva or Hammir Dev**
 - In 1299, he defeated Allauddin Khilji's army led by Ulugh Khan & Nusrat Khan.
 - In 1301, Allauddin Khilji again invaded his kingdom, which resulted in his defeat and death.

Chauhans of Jalore

Pratihara king Vatsaraja was the ruler of Jalore during 8th century. Towards the end of 12th Century, Parmars ruled here. Historians believe that the Jalore fort was built by Parmar rulers. It is known from a stone inscription of 1238 A.D. of fort that Parmar King Biral's-queen Maludevi powered Gold coin on Sindhu King.

Nadol king, Arhan's, youngest son Kirtipala started Chauhan tradition in Jalore. The Chauhan lineage of Jalore is as under:

- Kirtipala (c. 1160-1182 CE)
- Samara-simha (c. 1182-1204 CE)
- Udaya-simha (c. 1204-1257 CE)
- Chachiga-deva (c. 1257-1282 CE)
- Samanta-simha (c. 1282-1305 CE)
- **Kanhada-deva (c. 1292-1311 CE)**
 - Wrote Kanha-Prabandha: Epic elaborating war between Kanha Dev & Alaudin Khilji.

Subsequent Rulers:

- Rathore king Rao Maldev ruled the fort of Jalore in 15th Century.
- During Akbar's rule, Abdul Rahim Khan Khana took it infinitely from Gazni Khan.King.
- Jehangir built the walls of the fort.
- After the death of Aurangzeb it permanently became a part of Jodhpur.

The Kingdom of Mewar

The kingdom of Mewar includes present day districts of Chittorgarh, Rajsamand, Udaipur, Dungarpur, Banswara. The region was originally called Medhpaat and Lord Shiva (Ekling Nath) is called Medhpateshwar (Lord of Medhpaat). Over time, the name *Medhpath* became *Mewar*.

The creators of Mewar's ruling dynasty in Rajputana came originally from the Guhilot clan. Foundation stories claim this clan originated in Kashmir and migrated to Gujarat in the sixth century. In the seventh century they migrated again, to the plains of Mewar, in the area around Magda, which was named after one of the earliest clan leaders.

Guhils of Chittorgarh

- **Guhil**

- He is known as the founder of Guhil dynasty.
- Originally he was born in Anandnagar, Gujarat but in 565 C.E, he established independent city at Nagda (Udaipur).

Bappa Rawal

- Born as Kalbhoj
- Is said to have defeated Maan Mori and laid foundation of Guhilot Dynasty rule in Mewar.
- Formed triple alliance with Nagabhata & Jaysimha to defeat Arabs in **Battle of Rajasthan**.

Battle of Rajasthan : 738 AD

The Battle of Rajasthan is a battle (or series of battles) , taken place in 738 A.D., somewhere on borders on modern Sind-Rajasthan. In this battle, the Gurjar-Hindu alliance defeated the Arab invaders and removed the Arab invaders and pillagers from the area east of the Indus River and protected whole India.

The main Indian kings who contributed to the victory over the Arabs were:

- Gurjara-Pratihara King Nagabhata I
- Jaysimha Varman of the Rashtrakuta Empire
- Bappa Rawal of Hindu Kingdom of Mewar

Background:

By the end of 7th century A.D Islam had become a powerful religion and arabs a power force. Muhammad ibn Qasim captured Iran & Afghanistan. . His successor, Junayd ibn Abd al-Rahman al-Murri, led a large army into the Hindustan region in early 730 CE. Dividing this force into two he plundered several cities in southern Rajasthan, western Malwa, and Gujarat.

Realizing the power of Arab forces, Pratihara king, Nagabhata appealed for showing a united front with Jaysimha Varman of the Rashtrakuta Empire. Jaysimha acknowledged and sent his son Avanijanashraya Pulakesi to support Nagabhata. The two forces, united with the already fighting Rajput forces under Bappa Rawal, at the border of Rajasthan.

The final battle of Rajasthan & Result:

The battle was fought between 5,000-6,000 Rajput-Gurjar Infantry and cavalry facing more than 30,000 Arabs. The Rajputs under Bappa Rawal managed to kill the Arab leader Emir Junaid during the war. In the words of the Arab chronicler Suleiman, *“a place of refuge to which the Muslims might flee was not to be found.”*

The Arabs took a long time to recover from their defeat. Junayd's successor Tamim ibn Zaid al-Utbi organized a fresh campaigns against Rajasthan but failed to get hold of any territories. Thus, the triple alliance of Indian Kingdoms saved Hindustan from Arab invaders, at-least for next 200 years.

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- Khumar (753 – 773)
 - Mattat (773 – 793)
 - Bhratrabhat (773 – 813)
 - Sinha (813 – 828)
 - **Khuman II (828 – 853)**
 - Repelled up to 24 Muslim attacks.
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- Ruled a Golden Age in Mewar.
 - Mahayak (853 – 878)
 - Khuman III (878 – 942)
 - Bhratrabhat II (942 – 943)
 - Allat (943 – 953)
 - Possibly near start of his reign, Allat is driven from Chittor by the Paramara king of Malwa, Munja Raja, who then rules Chittor and is succeeded by his nephew, Raja Bhoj. Allat establishes a new capital at ancient Ahar.
 - (953 – 971)
 - The death of Allat leaves a gap in the succession, and there is no Guhilot leader at all for a total of eight years while the Paramaras attack Ahar. The Paramara king, Vakpati Raj of Malwa, rules Chittor. It takes until 971 for a new Guhilot king to reign.
 - Naravan / Narvahan (971 – 973)
 - Shalivahan (973 – 977)
 - Shaktikumar (977 – 993)
 - Amba Prasad (993 – 1007)
 - Fought against Mahmud Ghazni (Yamin-ud-Dawlah Mahmud).
 - Suchivarma (1007 – 1021)
 - Narvarma (1021 – 1035)
 - Kirtivarma (1035 – 1051)
 - Yograj (1051 – 1068)
 - Bairat / Vairat(1068 – 1088)
 - Hanspal (1088 – 1103)
 - Vairi Singh (1103 – 1107)
 - Vijay Singh (1107 – 1127)
 - Ari Singh I (1127 – 1138)
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- Chittor is again captured by Malwa.
 - **Chaur Singh (1138 – 1148)**
 - The Western Chalukyas attack the Paramaras who hold Chittor.
 - **Vikram Singh / Vikramaditya I (1148 – 1158)**
 - **Karan Singh (1158 – 1168)**
 - The royal family divides, possibly near the end of Karan Singh's reign. His son Rahap establishes the Sisodia branch of the family while another son, Mahap, establishes the Dungarpur kingdom.
 - **Kshem Singh (1168 – 1172)**
 - **Samant Singh (1172 – 1179)**
 - Samant Singh occupies Bagar (in the Dungarpur area) during his reign. After seven years on the throne he is slain by Kirtipal Solanki of Nadol in battle at Ghaggar (Punjab).
 - **Kumar Singh (1179 – 1191)**
 - Possibly relocated capital to Nagda at end of his reign.
 - **Mathan Singh (1191 – 1211)**
 - 1191 – 1192 – Mathan Singh fights in the Battles of Tarain, in which the Chauhan ruler, Prithviraj III, and the Rajput confederation which includes Mewar (the Hindu League) are defeated by the Ghurid Sultan Mohammed Ghuri.
 - 1207 – Chittor is taken and ruled by the Western Chalukyas just as they are facing their own terminal decline.
 - **Padam Singh (1211 – 1213)**
 - **Jait Singh / Jaitra Singh (1213 – 1253)**
 - During his reign, Jait Singh defeats the Malwa Rajputs who rule Chittor, reinstating its fort as the capital of Mewar. This probably occurs shortly after Sultan Iltutmish of Delhi has destroyed Nagda.
 - 1234 – Sultan Iltutmish of Delhi is defeated by Mewar when he invades the region.
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- 1253 – 1261
 - There is an apparent interregnum. No known ruler of Mewar exists during this period, although the circumstances behind the gap are unknown. The relation of the next known ruler of Mewar to his predecessor is also unknown.
- Tej Singh (1261 – 1267)
- 1267 – 1273
 - There is a second apparent interregnum. No known ruler of Mewar exists during this period, and the fate of Tej Singh is unknown, as are the circumstances behind the gap are unknown. It takes six years for Tej Singh's son to ascend the throne.
- Samar Singh (1273 – 1302)
 - Samar Singh builds wall around Mahasati in Chittor. His son, Kumbh Karan, migrates to Nepal (where his descendants become the Nepalese royal family).
- Ratan Singh (1302 – 1303)
 - *Last Guhilot king to rule.*
 - 1303 – 1st Jauhar of Chittor
 - Ala ud din Khilji, Sultan of Delhi, rallied his forces against Mewar, in 1303 AD. The Chittorgarh fort was till then considered impregnable and grand, atop a natural hill. But his immediate reason for invading the fort was his obsessive desire to capture Rani Padmini, the unrivalled beautiful queen of Rana Ratan Singh. The Rana, out of politeness, allowed the Khilji to view Padmini through a set of mirrors. But this viewing of Padmini further fired Khilji's desire to possess her. After the viewing, as a gesture of courtesy, when the Rana accompanied the Sultan to the outer gate, he was treacherously captured. Khilji conveyed to the queen that the Rana would be released only if she agreed to join his harem. But the queen had other plans. She agreed to go to his camp if permitted to go in a Royal style with an entourage, in strict secrecy. Instead of her going, she sent 700 well armed soldiers disguised in litters and they rescued the Rana and took him to the fort. But Khilji chased them to the fort where a fierce battle ensued at the outer gate of the fort in which the Rajput soldiers were overpowered and the Rana was killed. Khilji won the battle on August 26, 1303. Soon thereafter, instead of surrendering

- to the Sultan, the royal Rajput ladies led by Rani Padmini preferred to die through the Rajput's ultimate tragic rite of Jauhar (self immolation on a pyre).
- Administration of the captured state is handed to the ruler of the neighbouring state of Jalore, Maldeo.