

PART SIX

MODERN INDIA AND PAKISTAN

1498	Vasco da Gama rounds the southernmost tip of Africa and land on the Malabar coast.
1600	Queen Elizabeth grants charter to "certain adventurers for the trad
ía,	of the East Indies."
1690	Calcutta founded by an agent of the English East India Company
1742-1754	Dupleix Governor of Pondichéry for French East India Company
¹ 757	Clive's victory at Plassey gives English control of Bengal.
1784	Asiatick Society founded in Calcutta under Sir William Jone
¥	(1746–1794).
1799-1803	Abū-Tāleb (1752–1806?) visits England and Europe.
1815-1830	Rāmmohun Roy (1772–1833) active in religious controversy an
agra:	social reform in Calcutta.
1818	Defeat of Marāthā Peshwa ends effective Indian resistance t
Miles -	British rule.
1827-1831	H.L.V. Derozio (1809-1831) teaches at Hindu College, Calcutt
1828	Rāmmohun Roy founds Brāhmo Samāj.
1833	East India Company deprived by Parliament of all commercia
	functions.
1835	English system of education introduced, following Macaulay
1843	recommendation.
1943	Debendranāth Tagore (1817–1905) re-establishes the Brāhm
_0	Samāj. Mutiny of Sepoy troops and widespread rebellion in Norther
1057–1050	India.
i) 1858	East India Company's rule replaced by that of a viceroy appointe
1050	by the British crown.
1865	Keshub Chunder Sen (1843–1884) secedes from the Brāhm
1005	Samāj.
1875	Swami Dayānanda (1824–1883) founds the Ārya Samāj at Bom
ด้านี้สำนักการการการการการการการการการการการการการ	bay, Syed Ahmad Khān (1817–1898) founds Muhammadan Anglo
	Oriental College at Ālīgarh.
1877	Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India.
1879	Keshub Chunder Sen proclaims the New Dispensation.
1885	Indian National Congress inaugurated in Bombay.
1886	Death of Sri Rāmakrishna (born 1834).
1893	Mohandās K. Gāndhi (1869–1948) begins twenty year's work a
	lawyer in South Africa.
1894	Death of Bankim Chandra Chatterjee (born 1838).

1897	Swami Vivekānanda (1862–1902) receives triumphant welcome on return to India; founds Rāmakrishna Mission.
	Death of Justice M. G. Rānade (born 1842).
1901	Death of Justice W. G. Kanade (both 1042).
1905	Partition of Bengal arouses nationalist agitation, in which Su-
	rendranāth Banerjea (1848–1926), Bāl Gangādhar Tilak (1856–
	1920), Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), Brahmabandhab Upa-
	dhyāy (1861-1907) and Aurobindo Ghose (1872-1950) take
	prominent part.
1906	Muslim League founded.
1907	Indian National Congress split by quarrel between Moderates and
~3~1	Extremists.
1909	Morley-Minto Reforms grant Muslim demand for separate elector-
1909	ates.
	Partition of Bengal annulled. Transfer of the Indian capital from
1911	Calcutta to Delhi announced.
	Rabīndranāth Tagore awarded Nobel Prize for his Gītāñjali.
1913	Death of G. K. Gokhale (born 1866).
1915	Moderate, Extremist and Muslim League leaders agree on demand
1916	for a national legislative assembly to be elected on a communal
	basis.
1919	Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms provide for legislative assembly to
	begin in 1921. Amritsar massacre.
1920	Death of Tilak. Gandhi starts first nation-wide civil disobedience
	movement (suspended in 1922 after outbreaks of violence).
1920-1924	Khilafat Movement, led by Muhammad Alī (1879–1930).
1930	Muhammad Iqbāl (1873–1938) proposes separate state for India's
	Muslims.
1930-1934	Second nation-wide civil disobedience movement.
1935	Government of India Act grants provincial self-government.
1940	Muslim League, under President Muhammad Alī Jinnāh, de-
-340	mands creation of sovereign Muslim state.
1941	Subhās Chandra Bose (1897-1945) escapes to join the Axis powers.
	Congress rejects Cripps' offer, demands British quit India.
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1945-1947	government prepares to grant India complete self-government.
	India, under Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru (1889-), and
1947	Pakistan, under Prime Minister Liāquat Ālī Khān (1895–1951)
	Pakistan, under Finne minister maquat in independent deminions
_	become independent dominions. Gāndhi assassinated in New Delhi. Death of Muhammad Ālī Jin-
1948	
	nāh (born 1876).
. 1950	India becomes a republic within the Commonwealth.
1951-1952	Congress Party wins national elections. First Five-Year Plan begins

Pakistan adopts Islamic Constitution.

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CHAPTER XXI

THE OPENING OF INDIA TO THE WEST

The spreading of European power and civilization over the entire surface of the globe in recent centuries can be viewed as a continuing series of intrusions into the cultures of the non-European world. Nowhere in Asia have the effects of this penetration been more profoundly felt than in India. Because she was the first to receive the impact of European expansion, and the only major civilization on the continent to fall directly under foreign rule, the influence of the West on her life and thought has been deep and lasting.

The first Europeans to reach India by sea were the Portuguese. Their intrepid captain, Vasco da Gama, landed on the Malabar coast in 1498. Seventy-five years later we find them received at the Mughal court by the solicitous Emperor Akbar. In the words of Akbar's biographer: "They produced many of the rarities of their country, and the appreciative Khedive [the Emperor] received each one with special favor and made inquiries about the wonders of Portugal and the manners and customs of Europe. It seemed as if he did this from a desire of knowledge, for his sacred heart is a depot of spiritual and physical sciences. But his boding soul wished that these inquiries might be the means of civilizing (istīnās, i.e. familiarity or sociability) this savage [unsocial] race." Akbar later summoned Jesuit missionaries from Goa to expound the principles of their religion, in which he was much interested, but he laughingly preferred his three hundred wives to the Christian ideal of monogamy.

When the French and British East India Companies first established their tiny trading settlements along the eastern and western coasts of India in the seventeenth century, the great empire of the Mughals still held sway. A century later it had collapsed, and various Muslim and Hindu chieftains were fighting among themselves for possession of its remnants.

⁴Abū'l Fazl, Akbar-Nāma (tr. by H. Beveridge), III, 37.

In protecting their commercial interests the sea-borne Europeans were drawn into the struggle. When in the early nineteenth century the British finally emerged victorious over both the local contenders and their French rivals, they found themselves masters of a population speaking fourteen different major languages, with two-ninths of them following Islam and most of the rest belonging to various Hindu castes and subcastes, and with small minorities professing Sikhism, Jainism, Buddhism, Zoroastrianism, Nestorian Christianity and Judaism. Onto this cultural crazy-quilt the new rulers of India imposed a pattern of their own—not a religious but a secular one. Law and order, efficient government and free trade, were the new gods, and all Indians hoping for worldly success bowed down to them and worshiped them.

While some Indians opposed and the majority ignored the coming of the new order, others actively abetted the opening of their country to the West. Four representative men, each of whom played a notable part in the history of this period and left to posterity written records of his thinking, are considered in this chapter—one a Hindu merchant of the 1740s and 50s, the second a Muslim aristocrat of the early 1800s, the third a Christian of mixed European and Indian ancestry, and the fourth a brāhman scholar-reformer and founder of a new religious movement. The last two were active in Calcutta in the 1820s—just at the time the British were overcoming their earlier reluctance to interfere with established cultural patterns, and shortly before they took the decisive step of introducing English education.

Although these four men came from quite different religious and regional backgrounds, the question of what to do about the Westerner and his culture was in the forefront of their minds. All showed an inclination toward some aspects of the new culture and (except for the Christian) an aversion toward other aspects, but even in their likes and dislikes they differed noticeably. The attitudes which each reveals in his writings therefore give us unique insights into the complexity of Indian society in this crucial period, and furnish us with valuable clues to the later evolution of Indian thought as it responded to the incessant challenge of the West.

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ÄNANDA RANGA PILLAI: HINDU AGENT FOR THE FRENCH

India in the eighteenth century was a land rife with internal dissensions and devoid of any central political power. Muslim governors and Hindu chieftains vied with each other for the remnants of the Mughal empire, while most of the population pursued their traditional occupations in relative indifference to the religious or regional origins of their rulers. Under these circumstances, the scattered seacoast settlements of the European trading companies attracted little attention, except from the Indian merchants who found it profitable to act as intermediaries between the foreign traders and the people of the hinterland.

The Hindu merchant Ananda Ranga Pillai (1709–1761) rose to a position of great trust and influence as chief agent for the French colony of Rondichéry. Thanks to the diary which he kept faithfully for twenty-five years, we have an almost Pepysian record of the life of the tiny settlement and of its leading Indian citizen. Although most of the diary is a rather tedious chronicle of business transactions and political intrigue, we can find in it occasional glimpses of the attitude of an important Hindu toward his French masters and toward his own society.

One striking feature of The Private Diary of Ananda Ranga Pillai is the total absence in its author of national consciousness or sense of political loyalty to fellow Indians, as opposed to Europeans. Trade was his family's hereditary occupation and he therefore entered naturally into a symbiotic relation with the merchants from across the sea. He ardently supported the empire-building ambitions of his sponsor, François Dupleix, and identified the latter's fortunes with his own, regarding Dupleix not as a foreigner but simply as an individual with whom he enjoyed a mutually profitable connection. At the same time Ānanda Ranga remained a staunch and orthodox Hindu, never violating in the slightest the rules of his religion. In this respect he is representative of many generations of Indians from his day down to our own whose interest in things Western remained at the level of externals, and for whom European culture and thought seemed of little importance in comparison with the time-tested value of their traditional beliefs.