



International Journal of Advanced Research in Arts, Science, Engineering & Management

Volume 10, Issue 5, September 2023



INTERNATIONAL
STANDARD
SERIAL
NUMBER
INDIA

Impact Factor: 6.551

Economic Life of Protohistoric Man in Ghaggar [Saraswati Belt] During 3rd Millenium BC in Northern Rajasthan

Dr. Sunita Meena

Professor, Dept. of History, Government Deaf and Dumb College, Jaipur, Rajasthan, India

ABSTRACT: The Ghaggar river which is also known as ancient Saraswati river is noted for her mysterious disappearance. The scholars from different field are studying the river channel since the 18th century. Archaeologists were intrigued by the Ghaggar river channel due to the presence of archaeological sites all along the river basin. Explorations in the past resulted in locating hundreds of archaeological sites, particularly Harappan culture sites. A large number of Harappan sites along Ghaggar banks is evidence that Harappan culture flourished richly on Ghaggar river than on Indus river.

KEYWORDS-Ghaggar,river,archeologists,explorations,culture

I. INTRODUCTION

The material remains of the past can be studied with the help of archaeology. Archaeology is a science that enables us to systematically dig the successive layers of old mounds and to form an idea of the material life of the people of the past on the basis of remains found there. Archaeology is very important to study prehistory i.e. the period before the invention of writing. History is basically based on written material. Although writing was known in India by 2500 BC in the Indus culture, its script has not so far been deciphered[1,2,3]. Thus, though the Harappans knew how to write but the historians have not been able to read it. Their culture is placed in the period called proto-historic phase. The first script to be deciphered was Brahmi which was used in the Ashokan inscriptions and it belongs to the third century BC. Excavations have brought to light the tools of early humans in India going as back as seven lakh years. The excavated sites belonging to the Harappan period show the layout of the settlements and the form of the houses in which people lived, the type of pottery, tools and implements they used and the kind of cereals they consumed . In south India some people were buried along with their tools, weapons, pottery and other belongings under big and heavy stones. These graves are known as megaliths. By digging them we learn about the life of people who lived in the Deccan and south India before the third century BC.[5,7,8] The dates of remains found in excavations are fixed by various methods. The most important of them is the Radiocarbon or Carbon 14 (C14) dating method. Carbon 14 is a radioactive carbon present in all living objects. It decays, like all radioactive substances, at a uniform rate when the object is dead. By measuring the loss of C14 content in an ancient object (wood or bone) its age can be determined. The history of climate and vegetation is known through an examination of plant residues, and especially through pollen analysis. On this basis it is suggested that agriculture was practised in Kashmir and Rajasthan around 7000–6000 BC. [9,10,11]The nature and components of metal artefacts can also be analysed scientifically, and consequently the mines from which metals were obtained are located and stages in the development of metal technology identified. The geological studies provide an idea of the history of soil, rocks etc, where prehistoric man lived. Human history cannot be understood without an idea of the continuing interaction between soils, plants and animal, on one hand, and humans, on the other. Taken together with archaeological remains, geological and biological studies act as important sources for the reconstruction and development of human history. Indigenous literature can be supplemented by foreign accounts. To India came Greek, Roman and Chinese visitors, either as ambassadors or travellers or to seek religious knowledge from time to time.[12,13,15] They have left behind an account of the things they saw. To the court of Chandragupta Maurya came a Greek Ambassador called Megasthenes who wrote Indika. Its original text is lost but parts of it have been preserved in fragments quoted by subsequent Greek writers. When read together, these fragments, furnish valuable information not only about the administration but also social classes and economic activities of the Mauryan period. Greek and Roman accounts of the first and second centuries mention many Indian ports and commodities of trade between India and the Roman Empire. The Periplus of the Erythrean Sea and Ptolemy's Geography, both written in Greek, provide valuable data in this regard. Of the Chinese travelers, mention may be made of Fa-hsien and Hsuan Tsang. Both of them were Buddhist and came to this country mainly to visit the Buddhist shrines and to study Buddhism. Fa-hsien who came to India in the fifth century AD describes the conditions in India in the age of Guptas whereas Hsuan Tsang presents a similar account of India in the seventh century during the time of king Harshavardhan. Hsuan Tsang also describes in

detail the glory of Nalanda University (Bihar) during his times. It was suggested, particularly by western scholars that ancient Indians had no sense of writing history, But it is not true. Actually, Indian's sense of writing history was different from that of the Westerners. The people from the West recorded events in chronological order while the ancient Indians wrote in a different manner. It can be seen in the texts called the Puranas where four different ages called Krita, Treita, Dvapara and Kali are mentioned. And in each age we get detailed lists of the rulers and dynasties. Besides, a large number of inscriptions have been discovered. These give genealogies of kings of various dynasties and also refer to their achievements. It shows that Indians had the basic knowledge of time (period) and space where events were taking place. [17,18,19]Modern research in ancient India history began in 1765 when East India Company took control of Bengal and Bihar. In order to administer the Hindu law, Manu Smriti the ancient Indian text on law was translated into English in 1776. These initial efforts of the British to understand ancient laws and customs culminated in the establishment of Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1784. Under its aegis and that of several other such societies Hindu religious and classical texts were translated into English. The greatest impetus to Indological studies was given by Max Mueller, a German born scholar. Soon the British realized that they needed an intense knowledge of Indian scriptures and social systems to rule them better. Even the Christian missionaries felt the need to know more about Indian laws and customs in order to convert them and help the British strengthen their rule. While translating the texts, western scholars wrote about Indian unwillingness to change and they being accustomed to despotic rule. In 1904, [20,21,22]Vincent A Smith wrote Early History of India. It was the first systematic history of ancient India. In this book his approach to history was pro British and he tried to justify the British rule in India. It served as good propaganda material for the perpetuation of despotic British rule. The Indian scholars, especially those who had received Western education, were upset about the way the British were presenting India history to their advantage. Guided by the Nationalist ideas some of them took upon themselves the task of rewriting history to show to the world the true glory of Indian culture. Two notable nationalist historians were R.G. Bhandarker (1837–1925) and V.K. Rajwade (1869–1926) who reconstructed social and political history with the help of various sources.[23,27,25]

II. DISCUSSION

The history of human settlement in the west Indian state of Rajasthan dates back to about 5,000 years ago. Around 1400 BC, the Matsya tribe occupied the region. Parts of Rajasthan also belonged to the site of the Indus Valley Civilization. The early medieval period saw the rise of many Rajput kingdoms such as the Chauhans of Ajmer, Sisodias of Mewar, Gurjara-Pratihara and the Rathores of Marwar, as well as several Rajput clans such as the Gohil and the Shekhawats of Shekhawati. While Jat kingdoms include the Johiya of Jangaladesh, the Sinsinwars of Bharatpur State, as well as the Bamraulia clan and the Ranas of Dholpur.^{[1][2][3]}

The Gurjara-Pratihara Empire acted as a barrier for Arab invaders from the 8th to the 11th century, it was the power of the Pratihara army that effectively barred the progress of the Arabs beyond the confines of Sindh, their only conquest for nearly 300 years.

Statue of Maharana Pratap in City Palace, Udaipur.

After Matsya rule fell, the area was known as Rajputana around the time when the Kachwaha clan migrated to the region.^[4] The Kachwahas continued to assist their Rajput allies in many battles including the First Battle of Tarain and later in the disastrous Second Battle of Tarain, both occurring in the 12th century. The last time the Kachwahas fought for the Rajputs was under the Mewar leader Rana Sanga of Chittor in the Battle of Khanwa in 1527.^[5]

Prithviraj Chauhan led a coalition who defeated the Ghurid army; the Gohils and Sisodia of Chittor, who continued to resist the Mughals against heavy odds eventually gave rise to the leadership of Maharana Pratap in the 16th century, both men became a symbol of Rajput valour.^[6]

The British made several treaties with rulers of Rajasthan and also made allies out of local rulers, who were allowed to rule their princely states. This period was marked by famines and economic exploitation. After Indian Independence in 1947, the various princely states of Rajasthan were integrated.

Periods of Rajasthan's history

Pre-historic Period (Stone Age)

- Early Stone Age (c. 10,00,000 – 1,00,000 BCE)
- Middle Stone Age (c. 1,00,000 – 40,000 BCE)
- Later Stone Age (c. 40,000 – 5000 BCE)

Proto-historic Period

- Copper Age (c. 5000 – 3500 BCE)
- Bronze Age (c. 3500 – 1500 BCE)[28,29,30]

Iron-Age

- Vedic Period (c. 1500 – 600 BCE)

Ancient-Period

- Ancient Kingdoms of Rajasthan lasted from c. 700 BCE to 300 CE
- In this period Rajasthan was ruled by Kingdoms like Sivi, Salwa, Malava and others.
- These kingdoms also ruled under Maurya Empire & Kushan Empire (c. 300 BCE – 300 CE)

Classical period

- Classical period of Rajasthan lasted from c. 300 to 650 CE
- Many Kingdoms of Rajasthan ruled independently under Gupta Empire & Pushyabhuti dynasty from (c. 300 – 650 CE)

Rajput period

- Many Rajput and other Kingdoms (not only Rajput many others also) ruled in Rajasthan from (c. 650 – 1200 CE)

Medieval period

- Struggles with Muslim Kingdoms from (c. 1200 – 1526)

Mughal influences

- Influences from the Mughal Empire (c. 1526 – 1720)

Maratha influences

- Influences from the Maratha Empire (c. 1720–1817)[31,32,33]

British influences

- Influences from the British Empire (c. 1817 – 1948)

Post-independence period

- Unification of Rajasthan (c. 1948 – 1956)

Ancient civilizations of Rajasthan

Indus Valley civilisation sites

Sindhu–Saraswati civilization, or the Indus Valley civilisation, was a Bronze Age civilisation in the northwestern regions of India, lasting from 3300 BCE to 1300 BCE, and in its mature form from 2600 BCE to 1900 BCE.



Map showing the Indus Valley civilisation during its mature phase

- Baror (Sri Ganganagar) and Karanpura (Hanumangarh) are major Indus-Valley Civilization sites of Rajasthan. Kalibangān (Hanumangarh)

Kalibangān is a town located in Tehsil Pilibangān in Hanumangarh district. It is also identified as being established in the triangle of land at the confluence of Drishadvati and Sarasvati River. The prehistoric and Pre-Mauryan character of Indus Valley civilization was first identified by Luigi Tessitori at this site. Kalibangan's excavation report was published in its entirety in 2003 by the Archaeological Survey of India, 34 years after the completion of excavations[35,37,38].



The mound known as the Citadel forms part of the ruins of Kalibangān

The report concluded that Kalibangan was a major provincial capital of the Indus Valley Civilization. Kalibangan is distinguished by its unique "fire altars" and world's earliest attested "ploughed field". It is around 2900 BCE that the region of Kalibangan developed into what can be considered a planned city.

The Kalibangan pre-historic site was discovered by Luigi Pio Tessitori, an Italian Indologist (1887–1919). He was doing some research in ancient Indian texts and was surprised by the character of ruins in that area. He sought help from John Marshall of the Archaeological Survey of India.[39,50,51]

The excavation unexpectedly brought to light a twofold sequence of cultures, of which the upper one (Kalibangan I) belongs to the Harappan, showing the characteristic grid layout of a metropolis and the lower one (Kalibangan II) was formerly called pre-Harappan but is now called "Early Harappan or antecedent Harappan". Other nearby sites belonging to IVC include Balu, Kunal, Banawali etc.^{[7][8]}

Ganeshwar (Sikar and Jhunjhunu)

Ganeshwar is located near the copper mines of the Sikar-Jhunjhunu area of the Khetri copper belt in Rajasthan. The Ganeshwar-Jodhpura culture has over 80 other sites currently identified.^[9]

The period was estimated to be 3000–2000 BCE. Historian Ratna Chandra Agrawala wrote that Ganeshwar was excavated in 1977. Excavations revealed copper objects including arrowheads, spearheads, fish hooks, bangles and chisels. With its microliths and other stone tools, Ganeshwar culture can be ascribed to the pre-Harappan period.

Ganeshwar saw three cultural phases:

- Period 1 (3800 BCE) which was characterized by hunting and gathering communities using chert tools
- Period II (2800 BCE) shows the beginnings of metal work in copper and fired clay pottery
- Period III (1800 BCE) featured a variety of pottery and copper goods being produced.^[10]

Matsya Kingdom (c. 1200–345 BCE)

Matsya Kingdom was one of the solasa (sixteen) Mahajanapadas (great kingdoms). Painted Grey Ware culture (PGW) chiefdoms in the region were succeeded by Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW) from c. 700–500 BCE, associated with the rise of the great mahajanapada states (mahajanapada states Kuru, Panchala, Matsya, Surasena and Vatsa)^[11]

It was located in central India near Kuru. It was founded by Matsya Dwaita, a son of the great emperor Uparachira Vasu.^[12]

Geography



Vedic period kingdoms. In right Matsya Kingdom located

To the north of Central Matsya was Kuru. Kuru territories like Yakrilloma were located to the east. To its west was Salwa, and to its northwest was Mahoththa. Nishada, Nishadha, and Kuru territories like Navarashtra were located in south of Matsya.^[13]

History and in Kurukshetra War

The entire Matsya royal family came to fight for the Pandavas in the Mahabharata war. Virata came with his brothers, Uttara, and Shankha. Shweta also came from the south with his son Nirbhita.^[52]



A scene of Kurukshetra War

On the first day, Uttara died fighting Shalya. At the death of his half-brother, Shweta was infuriated and started wreaking havoc in the Kuru armies. Bhishma came and killed him. On the seventh day, Dronacharya killed Shankha and Nirbhita. On the fifteenth day, Dronacharya killed Virata. All of Virata's brothers also died fighting Dronacharya. The remnant of the Matsya army was slaughtered at midnight by Ashwastamma on the eighteenth day.^[14]

By the late Vedic period, they ruled a kingdom located south of the Kurus, and west of the Yamuna river which separated it from the kingdom of the Panchalas. It roughly corresponded to Jaipur in Rajasthan, and included the whole of Hindaun, Alwar with portions of Bharatpur as well as South Haryana. The capital of Matsya was at Viratanagari (present-day Bairat) which is said to have been named after its founder king, Virata.^[15]

Matsya Union

In the modern era, another United States of Matsya was a brief union of four princely states of Bharatpur, Dholpur, Alwar and Karauli temporarily put together from 1947 to 1949.^[16] Shobha Ram Kumawat of Indian National Congress was the first and last chief minister of the State from 18 March 1948 until 15 May 1949.^[16] Maharaja of Dholpur became its Rajpramukh.

On 15 May 1949, the Matsya Union was merged with Greater Rajasthan,^[17] to form the United State of Rajasthan, which later became the state of Rajasthan on 26 January 1950.^[12]

Gurjara-Pratihara Empire (c. 550–1036 CE)

The Gurjar Pratihara Empire acted as a barrier for Arab invaders from the 6th to the 11th century. The chief accomplishment of the Pratiharas lies in its successful resistance to foreign invasions from the west, starting in the days of Junaid. During the Umayyad campaigns in India (740), an alliance of rulers under Nagabhata I defeated the Arabs in 711 CE, and forced them to retreat to Sindh.^[18] Historian R. C. Majumdar says that this was openly acknowledged by the Arab writers. He further notes that historians of India have wondered at the slow progress of Muslim invaders in India, as compared with their rapid advance in other parts of the world. There seems little doubt that it was the power of the Pratihara army that effectively barred the progress of the Arabs beyond the confines of Sindh, their only conquest for nearly 300 years.^[19]

Pratiharas of Mandavyapura (c. 550–860 CE)



Extension of Pratihara Empire

The Pratiharas of Mandavyapura Pratihāras of Māṇḍavyapura), also known as the Pratiharas of Mandore (or Mandor), were an Indian dynasty. They ruled parts of the present-day Rajasthan between 6th and 9th centuries CE. They first established their capital at Mandavyapura (modern Mandore), and later ruled from Medantaka (modern Merta).

The imperial Pratiharas also claimed descent from the legendary hero Lakshmana. The earliest known historical members of the family are Harichandra and his second wife Bhadra. Harichandra was a Brahmin, while Bhadra came from a Kshatriya noble family. They had four sons: Bhogabhatta, Kakka, Rajjila and Dadda. These four men captured Mandavyapura and erected a rampart there.^[20] It is not known where the family lived before the conquest of Mandavyapura.^[21]

Bauka and Kakkuka were sons of Kakka from different mothers. The Jodhpur and Ghantiyala inscriptions of the two step-brothers give same genealogy of the family, except the last two names. Since these two inscriptions were found not far from each other, it appears that Bauka succeeded Kakka (rather than the two dividing Kakka's kingdom).^[23]

Pratiharas of Bhinmala (Kannauj) (c. 730–1036)



Nagabhata I

Nagabhata I (730–760), was originally perhaps a feudatory of the Chavdas of Bhillamala. He gained prominence after the downfall of the Chavda kingdom in the course of resisting the invading forces led by the Arabs who controlled Sindh. Nagabhata Pratihara I (730–756) later extended his control east and south from Mandor, conquering Malwa as far as Gwalior and the port of Bharuch in Gujarat. He established his capital at Avanti in Malwa, and checked the expansion of the Arabs, who had established themselves in Sind. In Battle of Rajasthan (738 CE), Nagabhata led a confederacy of Pratiharas to defeat the Muslim Arabs who had until then been pressing on victorious through West Asia and Iran.

The Arab chronicler Sulaiman describes the army of the Pratiharas as it stood in 851 CE, "The ruler of Gurjara maintains numerous forces and no other Indian prince has so fine a cavalry. He is unfriendly to the Arabs, still he acknowledges that the king of the Arabs is the greatest of rulers. Among the princes of India there is no greater foe of the Islamic faith than he. He has got riches, and his camels and horses are numerous."^[24]

Mihira Bhoja was the Greatest ruler of dynasty, kingdoms which were conquered and acknowledged his Suzerainty includes Travani, Valla, Mada, Arya, Gujaratra, Lata Parvarta and Chandelas of Bundelkhand. Bhoja's Daulatpura-Dausa Inscription(AD 843), confirms his rule in Dausa region. Another inscription states that, "Bhoja's territories extended to the east of the Sutlej river."

Mahmud of Ghazni captured Kannauj in 1018, and the Pratihara ruler Rajapala fled. He was subsequently captured and killed by the Chandela ruler Vidyadhara.^{[25][26]} The Chandela ruler then placed Rajapala's son Trilochanpala on the throne as a proxy. Jasapala, the last Gurjara-Pratihara ruler of Kannauj, died in 1036.

Pratihara Art

There are notable examples of architecture from the Gurjara-Pratihara era, including sculptures and carved panels.^[27] Their temples, constructed in an open pavilion style. One of the most notable Gurjara-Pratihara style of architecture was Khajuraho, built by their vassals, the Chandelas of Bundelkhand

Māru-Gurjara architecture

Māru-Gurjara architecture was developed during Gurjara Pratihara Empire.

Mahavira Jain temple, Osian

Mahavira Jain temple, Osian temple was constructed in 783 CE,^[28] making it the oldest surviving Jain temple in western India.

Baroli temples complex

Baroli temples complex are eight temples, built by the Gurjara-Pratiharas, is situated within a walled enclosed.^[29]



Ghateshwara Mahadeva temple at the Baroli Temple Complex. The temples were built between the 10th and 11th centuries by the Gurjara-Pratihara dynasty.

Guhila dynasty (c. 551–1303)



Map of the Mewar Region

The Guhila dynasty ruled the Medapata (modern Mewar) region in present-day Rajasthan state of India.

In the 6th century, three different Guhila dynasties are known to have ruled in present-day Rajasthan:

- Guhilas of Nagda-Ahar,
- Guhilas of Kishkindha (modern Kalyanpur),
- Guhilas of Dhavagarta (present-day Dhor).

None of these dynasties claimed any prestigious origin in their 7th century records.^[30] The Guhilas of Dhavagarta explicitly mentioned the Mori (later Maurya) kings as their overlords, and the early kings of the other two dynasties also bore the titles indicating their subordinate status.^[31]^[page needed] By the 10th century, the Guhilas of Nagda-Ahar were the only among the three dynasties to have survived. By this time, their political status had increased, and the Guhila kings had assumed high royal titles such as Maharajadhiraja.

During this period, the dynasty started claiming a prestigious origin, stating that its founder Guhadatta was a mahideva (Brahmin) who had migrated from Anandapura (present-day Vadnagar in Gujarat).^[32]

R. C. Majumdar theorizes that Bappa achieved a highly significant military success, because of which he gained reputation as the dynasty's founder.^[33]

The later bardic chronicles mention a fabricated genealogy, claiming that the dynasty's founder Guhaditya was a son of Shiladitya, the Maitraka ruler of Vallabhi. This claim is not supported by historical evidence.^[34]

According to the 977 CE Atpur inscription and the 1083 CE Kadmal inscription, Guhadatta was succeeded by Bhoja, who commissioned the construction of a tank at Eklingji. The 1285 Achaleshwar inscription describes him as a devotee of Vishnu.^[35] Bhoja was succeeded by Mahendra and Nagaditya. The bardic legends state that Nagaditya was killed in a battle with the Bhils.^[35]

Nagaditya's successor Shiladitya raised the political status of the family significantly, as suggested by his 646 CE Samoli inscription, as well as the inscriptions of his successors, including the 1274 Chittor inscription and the 1285 Abu inscription. R. V. Somani theorizes that the copper and zinc mines at Jawar were excavated during his reign, which greatly increased the economic prosperity of the kingdom. Mahendra was succeeded by Kalabhoja, who has been identified as Bappa Rawal by several historians including G. H. Ojha.^[36] In the mid-12th century, the dynasty divided into two branches. The senior branch (whose rulers are called Rawal in the later medieval literature) ruled from Chitrakuta (modern Chittorgarh), and ended with Ratnasimha's defeat against the Delhi Sultanate at the 1303 Siege of Chittorgarh. The junior branch ruled from Sesoda with the title Rana, and gave rise to the Sisodia Rajput dynasty.

Sisodia dynasty (c. 1326–1948)

The Sisodia dynasty traced its ancestry to Rahapa, a son of the 12th century Guhila king Ranasimha. The main branch of the Guhila dynasty ended with their defeat against the Khalji dynasty at the Siege of Chittorgarh (1303). In 1326, Rana Hammir who belonged to a cadet branch of that clan; however reclaimed control of the region, re-established the dynasty, and also became the propounder of the Sisodia dynasty clan, a branch of the Guhila dynasty, to which every succeeding Maharana of Mewar belonged, the Sisodias regain control of the former Guhila capital Chittor.^[42]^[43]^[44] The most notable Sisodia rulers were Rana Hamir (r. 1326–1364), Rana Kumbha (r. 1433–1468), Rana Sanga (r. 1508–1528) and Rana Pratap (r. 1572–1597). The Bhonsle clan, to which the Maratha empire's founder Shivaji belonged, also claimed descent from a branch of the royal Sisodia family.^[45] Similarly, Rana dynasty of Nepal also claimed descent from Ranas of Mewar.^[46]

Bhati Kingdom of Jaisalmer (c. 600–1949)

Bhati comes from Bhatner and take control of this region. The Maharajas of Jaisalmer trace their lineage back to Jaitsimha, a ruler of a Bhati clan, through Deoraj, a famous prince of the Yaduvanshi Bhati, a Rajput ruler during the 9th century. With him the title of "Rawal" commenced. "Rawal" means "of the Royal house".^[48]

History

According to legend, Deoraj was to marry the daughter of a neighbouring chief. Deoraj's father and 800 of his family and followers were surprised and massacred at the wedding. Deoraj escaped with the aid of a Brahmin yogi who disguised the prince as a fellow Brahmin. When confronted by the rival chief's followers hunting for Deoraj, the Brahmin convinced them that the man with him was another Brahmin by eating from the same dish, something no Brahmin holy man would do with someone of another caste. Deoraj and his remaining clan members were able to recover from the loss of so many such that later he built the stronghold of Derawar.^[49] Deoraj later captured Laudrava (located about 15 km to the south-east of Jaisalmer) from another Rajput clan and made it his capital.^[49]

The major opponents of the Bhati were the Rathor clans of Jodhpur and Bikaner. They used to fight battles for the possession of forts and waterholes as from early times the Jaisalmer region had been criss-crossed by camel caravan trade routes which connected northern India and central Asia with the ports of Gujarat on the Arabian Sea coast of India and hence on to Persia and Arabia and Egypt. Jaisalmer's location made it ideally located as a staging post and for imposing taxes on this trade.^[50]



The Bhati kingdom, marked as Multhan in 800 CE

The Bhati rulers originally ruled parts of Afghanistan; their ancestor Rawal Gaj is believed to have founded the city of Gajni. According to James Tod, this city is present-day Ghazni in Afghanistan, while Cunningham identifies it as modern-day Rawalpindi. His descendant Rawal Salivahan is believed to have founded the city of Sialkot and made it his new capital. Salivahan defeated the Saka Scythians in 78 CE at Kahrora, assuming the title of Saka-ari (foe of the Sakas). Salivahan's grandson Rawal Bhati conquered several neighbouring regions. It is from him that the Bhati clan derives its name.^[51]

Derawar fort

Derawar fort was first built in the 9th century CE by Rai Jajja Bhati, a Hindu Rajput ruler of the Bhati clan,^[52] as a tribute to Rawal Deoraj Bhati the king of Jaisalmer and Bahawalpur.^{[53][54]} The fort was initially known as Dera Rawal, and later referred to as Dera Rawar, which with the passage of time came to be pronounced Derawar, its present name.^[54]



Derawar Fort built by Bhati ruler Rai Jajja Bhati in 9th century

Medieval rule

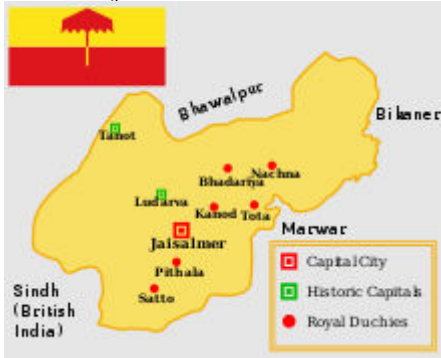
In 1156, Rawal Jaisal established his new capital in the form of a mud fort and named it Jaisalmer after himself.



Rawal Jaisal founder of main Bhati kingdom

The first Jauhar of Jaisalmer occurred in 1294, during the reign of Turkic ruler of Delhi, Alauddin Khalji. It was provoked by Bhatiss' raid on a massive treasure caravan being transported on 3000 horses and mules.^[55]

British Raj



Jaisalmer Kingdom

In 1818, the Rawals of Jaisalmer State signed a treaty with the British, and was guaranteed the royal succession. Jaisalmer was one of the last rajput states to sign a treaty with the British. Jaisalmer was forced to invoke the provisions of the treaty and call on the services of the British in 1829 to avert a war with Bikaner and 10 years later in 1839 for the First Anglo-Afghan War.^[56]

Chahamana (Chauhan) Empire (c. 650–1315)

Chauhan dynasty or Chahamana dynasty was a great power from 6th to 12th century, Chauhan dynasty ruled more than 400 years. Chauhan was a Rajput dynasty that ruled modern parts of Rajasthan, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh and Delhi. They sacrificed all they have & also self for protecting of Motherland from Maleechas. Chahamanas were classified the dynasty among the four Agnivanshi Rajput clans, whose ancestors are said to have come out of Agnikund sacrificial fire pit. The earliest sources to mention this legend are the 16th century recensions of Prithviraj Raso.

Chahamanas of Shakambhari (c. 650–1194)

The Chahamanas of Shakambhari (IAST: Cāhamāna), colloquially known as the Chauhans of Sambhar, were a dynasty that ruled parts of the present-day Rajasthan and its neighbouring areas in India, between 6th and 12th centuries. The territory ruled by them was known as Sapadalaksha. They were the most prominent ruling family of the Chahamana (Chauhan) clan, and were categorized among Agnivanshi Rajputs in the later medieval legends.

The Chahamanas originally had their capital at Shakambhari (present-day Sambhar Lake Town). Until the 10th century, they ruled as Pratihara vassals. When the Pratihara power declined after the Tripartite Struggle, the Chahamana ruler Simharaja assumed the title Maharajadhiraja. In the early 12th century, Ajayaraja II moved the kingdom's capital to Ajayameru (modern Ajmer). For this reason, the Chahamana rulers are also known as the Chauhans of Ajmer.

Territory

As the Chahamana territory expanded, the entire region ruled by them came to be known as Sapadalaksha, or Jangladesh.^[60] This included the later Chahamana capitals Ajayameru (Ajmer) and Shakambhari (Sambhar).^[61] The term also came to be applied to the larger area captured by the Chahamanas. The early medieval Indian inscriptions and the writings of the contemporary Muslim historians suggest that the following cities were also included in Sapadalaksha:- Hansi (now in Haryana), Mandore (now in Marwar region), and Mandalgarh (now in Mewar region).^[62]

History



Anna Sarovar lake Ajmer

The earliest historical Chahamana king is the 6th century ruler Vasudeva.

The Ana Sagar lake in Ajmer was commissioned by the Chahamana ruler Arnoraja. The subsequent Chahamana kings faced several Ghaznavid raids. Ajayaraja II (r. c. 1110–1135) repulsed a Ghaznavid attack, and also defeated the Paramara king Naravarman. He moved the kingdom's capital from Shakambhari to Ajayameru (Ajmer), a city that he either established or greatly expanded.^[63] His successor Arnoraja raided the Tomara territory, and also repulsed a Ghaznavid invasion. However, he suffered setbacks against the Gujarat Chaulukya kings Jayasimha Siddharaja and Kumarapala, and was killed by his own son Jagaddeva.^[64]



Bisaldeo temple commissioned by Vighararaja IV

Arnoraja's younger son Vighararaja IV greatly expanded the Chahamana territories, and captured Delhi from the Tomaras. The most celebrated ruler of the dynasty was Someshvara's son Prithviraja III, better known as Prithviraj Chauhan. He defeated several neighbouring kings, including the Chandela ruler Paramardi in 1182–83, although he could not annex the Chandela territory to his kingdom.^[65] In 1191, he defeated the Ghurid king Muhammad of Ghor at the first Battle of Tarain. However, the next year, he was defeated at the second Battle of Tarain, and subsequently killed.^[66]

Muhammad of Ghor appointed Prithviraja's son Govindaraja IV as a vassal. Prithviraja's brother Hariraja dethroned him, and regained control of a part of his ancestral kingdom. Hariraja was defeated by the Ghurids in 1194. Govindaraja was granted the fief of Ranthambore by the Ghurids. There, he established a new branch of the dynasty.^[67]

Cultural achievements



The Harshnath temple was commissioned by the Chahamana rulers

The Chahamanas commissioned a number of Hindu temples, several of which were destroyed by the Ghurid invaders after the defeat of Prithviraja III.^[68]

Multiple Chahamana rulers contributed to the construction of the Harshanatha temple, which was probably commissioned by Govindaraja I.^[69] According to Prithviraja Vijaya:

- Simharaja commissioned a large Shiva temple at Pushkar^[70]
- Chamundaraja commissioned a Vishnu temple at Narapura (modern Narwar in Ajmer district)^[71]
- Prithviraja I built a food distribution centre (anna-satra) on the road to Somnath temple for pilgrims.^[72]
- Someshvara commissioned a number of temples, including five temples in Ajmer.^{[73][74]}

Vighararaja IV was known for his patronage to arts and literature, and himself composed the play Harikeli Nataka. The structure that was later converted into the Adhai Din Ka Jhonpra mosque was constructed during his reign.^[75]

Chahamanas of Naddula (c. 950–1197)

The Chahamanas of Naddula, also known as the Chauhans of Nadol, were an Indian dynasty. They ruled the Marwar area around their capital Naddula (present-day Nadol in Rajasthan) between 10th and 12th centuries. The Chahamanas of Naddula were an offshoot of the Chahamanas of Shakambhari. Their founder was Lakshmana (alias Rao Lakha) was the son of the 10th century Shakambhari ruler Vakpatiraja I. His brother Simharaja succeeded their father as the Shakambhari ruler.^[77] The subsequent rulers fought against the neighbouring kingdoms of the Paramaras of Malwa, the Chaulukyas, the Ghaznavids.^[78] The last ruler Jayata-simha was probably defeated by Qutb al-Din Aibak in 1197.^[79]

Chahamanas of Jalor (c. 1160–1311)

The Chahamanas of Jalor, also known as the Chauhans of Jalor in vernacular legends, were an Indian dynasty that ruled the area around Jalore in present-day Rajasthan between 1160 and 1311. They branched off from the Chahamanas of Naddula, and then ruled as feudatories of the Chaulukyas of Gujarat. For a brief period, they became independent, but ultimately succumbed to the Delhi Sultanate at the Siege of Jalore.

The Chahamanas of Jalor descended from Alhana, a Chahamanana king of the Naddula branch. Originally, the Jalore Fort was controlled by a branch of the Paramaras until early 12th century. The Chahamanas of Naddula seized its control during Alhana's reign. Kirtipala, a son of Alhana, received a feudal grant of 12 villages from his father and his brother (the crown-prince) Kelhana. He controlled his domains from Suvarnagiri or Sonagiri, the hill on which Jalore Fort is located. Because of this, the branch to which he belonged came to be known as Sonagara.^[80]

Chahamanas of Ranastambhapura (c. 1192–1301)



Rani Haveli

The Chahamanas of Ranastambhapura were a 13th-century Indian dynasty. They ruled the area around their capital Ranastambhapura (Ranthambore) in present-day Rajasthan, initially as vassals of the Delhi Sultanate, and later as sovereigns. They belonged to the Chahamanana (Chauhan) clan, and are also known as Chauhans of Ranthambore in vernacular Rajasthani bardic literature.



Naulakha Gate

The Chahamanana line of Ranastambhapura was established by Govindaraja, who agreed to rule as a vassal of the Ghurids in 1192, after they defeated his father, the Shakambhari Chahamanana king Prithviraja III. Govindaraja's descendants gained and lost their independence to the Delhi Sultanate multiple times during the 13th century. Hammira, the last king of the dynasty, adopted an expansionist policy, and raided several neighbouring kingdoms. The dynasty ended with his defeat against the Delhi Sultan Alauddin Khalji at the Siege of Ranthambore in 1301.

Medieval and Mughal periods (c. 1000– c. 1720)

Rajputs before and after Ghurid invasions



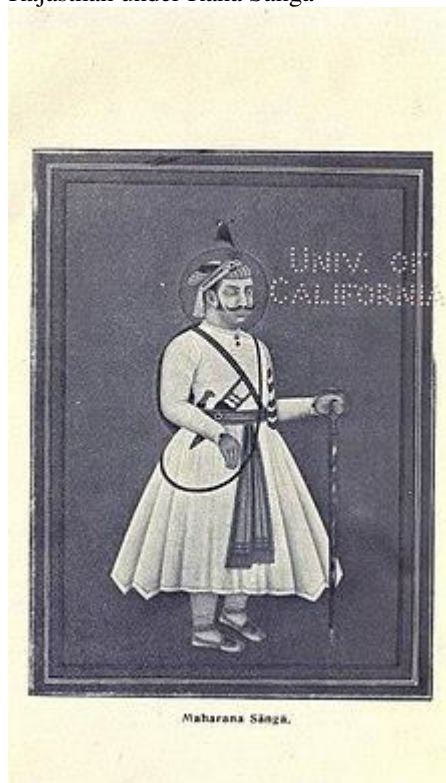
Prithviraj Chauhan a 12th-century Rajput king of Ajmer and Delhi who united several Rajput states and repel a Ghurid Invasion of India in 1191.^[83]

In the 12th century before Ghurid invasions much of the Indo-Gangetic Plain region were ruled by the Rajputs.^[84] In 1191 Rajput king of Ajmer and Delhi Prithviraj Chauhan unified several Rajput states and defeat the invading Ghurid army near Tarain in First Battle of Tarain, however the Rajputs did not chase the Ghurids and let Mu'izz al-Din escape.^[85] As a result, in 1192, Mu'izz al-Din return with an army of an estimated strength of 120,000 Turks, Afghans and Muslim allies and decisively defeated The Rajput Confederacy at Second Battle of Tarain, Prithviraj fled the battleground but was captured near the battle site and executed. The defeat of Rajputs in the battle begins a new chapter in Rajasthan and Indian history as it not only crush Rajput powers in Gangetic Plain but also firmly established a Muslim presence in northern India.^[86] In the fatal battle Malesi a Kachwaha Rajput and ally of Prithviraj lead the last stand for the Rajputs against Ghurids and died fighting after Prithviraj tried to escape.^[87]

Over the next four centuries there were repeated, though unsuccessful, attempts by the central power based in Delhi to subdue the Rajput states of the region. The Rajputs, however, despite common historical and cultural traditions, were never able to unite to inflict a decisive defeat on their opponents.^[88]

The Sisodia Rajputs of Mewar led other kingdoms in its resistance to outside rule. Rana Hammir Singh, defeated the Tughlaq dynasty and recovered a large portion of Rajasthan. The indomitable Rana Kumbha defeated the Sultans of Malwa, Nagaur and Gujarat and made Mewar the most powerful Hindu kingdom in Northern India.

Rajasthan under Rana Sanga



Rana Sanga a 16th-century king of Chittor and head of the Rajput Confederacy in northwestern India. He defeated the Sultan of Delhi, Malwa and Gujarat in 18 major battles and established his supremacy over Rajasthan, Malwa and Gujarat.^[89]

In 1508 Rana Sanga ascended the throne after a long struggle with his brothers. He was an ambitious king under whom Mewar reached its zenith in power and prosperity. Rajput strength under Rana Sanga reached its zenith and threatened to revive their powers again in Northern India.^[90] He establish a strong kingdom from Satluj in Punjab in the north until Narmada River in south in Malwa after conquering Malwa and from Sindhu river in west until Bayana in the east. In his military career he defeated Ibrahim Lodhi at the Battle of Khatoli and manage to free most of Rajasthan along with that he establish his control over parts of Uttar Pradesh including Chandwar, he gave the part of U.P to his allies Rao Manik Chand Chauhan who later supported him in Battle of Khanwa.^[91] After that Rana Sanga fought another battle with Ibrahim Lodhi known as Battle of Dholpur where again Rajput confederacy were victorious, this time following his victory Sanga conquered much of the Malwa along with Chanderi and bestowed it to one of his vassal Medini Rai. Rai ruled over Malwa with Chanderi as his capital.^[92]

Sanga also invaded Gujarat with 50,000 Rajput confederacy joined by his three allies. He plundered the Gujarat sultanate and chased the Muslim army as far as capital Ahmedabad. He successfully annexed northern Gujarat and appointed one of his vassals to rule there. Following the victories over the sultans, he successfully established his sovereignty over Rajasthan, Malwa and large parts of Gujarat.^[89] In his campaign of Gujarat the Rajputs destroyed around 200 mosques and burnt down several Muslim towns. According to Chaube the campaign was brutal, in which Rajputs kidnapped many Muslim women as captives and sold them in the markets of Rajasthan.^[93]

According to Gopinath Sharma the campaign not only enhanced Sanga's fame but also due to the Rajputs' religious bigotry in Gujarat Sanga became an eyesore to Muslim.^[94] After these victories, he united several Rajput states from Northern India to expel Babur from India and re-establish Hindu power in Delhi.^[95] He advanced with an army of 100,000 Rajputs to expel Babur and to expand his territory by annexing Delhi and Agra.^[96] The battle was fought for supremacy of Northern India between Rajputs and Mughals.^[97] However the Rajput Confederation suffered a disastrous defeat at Khanwa due to Babur's superior leadership and modern tactics. The battle was more historic and eventful than First Battle of Panipat as it firmly established Mughal rule in India while crushing re-emerging Rajput powers. The battle was also earliest to use cannons, matchlocks, swivel guns and mortars to great use.^[98]

The battle also marks the last time in medieval India where the Rajputs stood united against a foreign invader. Although the exact casualties are unknown, it is estimated that all Rajput Houses lost many of their close allies in the battle.^[5]

Rana Sanga was removed from the battlefield in unconscious state from his vassals Prithviraj Singh I of Jaipur and Maldeo Rathore of Marwar. After regaining consciousness he took an oath to never return to Chittor until he defeated Babur and conquer Delhi. He also stopped wearing a turban and use to wrap up cloth over his head.^[99] While he was preparing to wage another war against Babur he was poisoned by his own nobles who opposed another battle with Babur. He died in Kalpi in January 1528.^[100]

After his defeat, his vassal Medini Rai was defeated by Babur at the Battle of Chanderi and Babur captured the capital of Rai kingdom Chanderi. Medini was offered Shamsabad instead of Chanderi as it was historically important in conquering Malwa but Rao refuse the offer and choose to die fighting. The Rajput women and children committed self-immolation to save their honour from the Muslim army. After the victory Babur capture Chanderi along with Malwa which was ruled by Rai.^[101] However Babur gave control of Malwa to Ahmed Shah a descendant of Malwa Sultan whose entire Kingdom of Malwa was annexed by Sanga. In this way Babur reinstated Muslim rule in Malwa.^[102]

Jat Empire of Jangaladesh (c. 11th–15th century)

Jangladesh, also known as Janglu, was a historical region in north, north-western and north-eastern Rajasthan state in northern India. It included the present-day districts of Bikaner, Churu, Ganganagar, and Hanumangarh. It was bounded on the south by Marwar and Jaisalmer regions, on the east by Ajmer-Merwara region.^[103]

Most of Jat clans in Rajasthan had to accept Rathore suzerainty due to Rao Bika's invasion of Jangladesh. Bika led an army of 300 Rajput warriors and subjugated all of the Jat clans of northern Rajasthan. Bika also saved the Jats from the Bhati Rajputs and acted as their buffer. The Godara Jats and Charans were loyal supporters of Bika.^[104]

Jat king Pandu Godara of Ladhadia was in love with Malki Kaur, daughter of Jat Raja Raisal Beniwal of Raslana and Princess Malki Kaur also loved him. But her father got her married to Phula Saharan, the Jat king of Bhadag princely state. Princess Malki sent a message through her spy to King Pandu Godara that he should take her, taking this message, Pandu Godara attacked Bhadag with his army and he went away with Malki. Due to his work, other Jat rulers attacked the principality of Pandu Godara and Pandu alone could not fight with them, so he took the help of Rao Jodha 's son Rao Bika , with his help he escaped from Ladhadia but his principality was lost to Ladhadia. After heavy loss, Godara Jats established a new princely state Shekhsar. Established and Pandu Godara donated his entire princely state to Rao Bika in return for his help, which later came to be known as Bikaner state , from here the Jat dynasty ended on Jagladesh and the Rajput dynasty started.^{[104][12]}

Mughal interference



Suraj Mal was ruler of Bharatpur, some contemporary historians described him as "the Plato of the Jat people" and by a modern writer as the "Jat Odysseus", because of his political sagacity, steady intellect and clear vision.^[105]

The Mughal Emperor Akbar expanded the empire into Rajputana in the 16th century. He laid siege to Chittor and defeated the Kingdom of Mewar in 1568. He also laid siege to Ranthambore and defeated the forces of Surjan Hada in the same year.

Akbar also arranged matrimonial alliances to gain the trust of Rajput rulers. He himself married the Rajput princess Jodha Bai. He also granted high offices to a large number of Rajput princes, and maintained cordial relations with them, such as Man Singh, one of the navaratnas. However, some Rajput rulers were not ready to accept Akbar's

dominance and preferred to remain independent. Two such rulers were Udai Singh of Mewar and Chandrasen Rathore of Marwar. They did not accept Akbar's supremacy and were at constant war with him. This struggle was continued by Rana Pratap, the successor of Udai Singh. His army met with Akbar's forces at the Battle of Haldighati where he was defeated and wounded. Since then he remained in recluse for twelve years and attacked the Mughals from time to time.

Mughal influence is seen in the styles of Rajput painting and Rajput architecture of the medieval period.

Jat State of Bharatpur (c. 1722–1948)



The founder of Bharatpur kingdom, Badan Singh Jat

Bharatpur State, also known as the Jat State of Bharatpur, and historically known as the Kingdom of Bharatpur, was a Hindu Kingdom in the northern part of the Indian subcontinent. It was ruled by the Sinsinwar clan of the Hindu Jats. At the time of the reign of King Suraj Mal (1755–1763), the revenue of the state was 17,500,000 rupees per year.^[106]

The formation of the state of Bharatpur was a result of revolts by the Jats living in the region around Delhi, Agra, and Mathura against the Mughals. Conflict between Jats and Rajputs for zamindari rights also complicated the issue, with Jats primarily being landowners, whereas Rajputs were primarily revenue collectors. The Jats put up a stiff resistance but by 1691, Raja Ram Sinsini and his successor Churaman were compelled to submit to the Mughals. Rajaram who also exhumed and burned the remains of Akbar is known for setting up a small fort at Sinsini. It was the key foundation of this kingdom.^[107]

The most prominent ruler of Bharatpur was Maharaja Suraj Mal. He captured the important Mughal city of Agra on 12 June 1761. He also melted the two silver doors of the famous Mughal monument Taj Mahal. Agra remained in the possession of Bharatpur rulers till 1774. After Maharaja Suraj Mal's death, Maharaja Jawahar Singh, Maharaja Ratan Singh and Maharaja Kehri Singh (minor) under resident ship of Maharaja Nawal Singh ruled over Agra Fort.^[108]

Maratha influences (c. 1720–1817)

Since the 1720s, the Maratha Empire began expanding northwards, led by Peshwa Baji Rao I of Pune.^[109] This expansion finally brought the newly founded Maratha Empire in contact with the Rajputs. Some Rajput Kingdoms willingly accepted Maratha suzerainty, while others held some resistance. Rajasthan witnessed several campaigns by the Marathas, mostly under military leadership of Holkars and Scindhias.^[110]

Jat State of Dholpur (c. 1806–1949)

Historically known as the Kingdom of Dholpur, was a kingdom of eastern Rajasthan, India, which was founded in AD 1806 by a Jat ruler Rana Kirat Singh of Gohad. After 1818, the state was placed under the authority of British India's Rajputana Agency. The Ranas ruled the state until the independence of India in 1947, when the kingdom was merged with the Union of India.^{[111][112]}

Very little is known of the early history of the state. According to tradition a predecessor state was established as Dhavalapura. In 1505 neighboring Gohad State of Rana Jats was founded and between 1740 and 1756 Gohad occupied Gwalior Fort. From 1761 to 1775 Dholpur was annexed to Bharatpur State and between 1782 and December 1805 Dholpur was again annexed by Gwalior. On 10 January 1806 Dholpur became a British protectorate and in the same year the Ruler of Gohad merged Gohad into Dholpur.^{[42][14]}

III. RESULTS

The Ghaggar is a seasonal, endorheic river of India which is only fed during the monsoon period. It rises in the Siwalik Mountains in Himachal Pradesh and flows through Haryana, Punjab and Rajasthan, it is trapped by the Ottou Dam, built in 1896-97, forming an artificial lake.



The artificial Otlu lake marks the difference between the Ghaggar and Hakra rivers

Downstream the river is called Hakra¹, it then disappears into the sands of the Thar desert. The dry bed continues towards the Arabian Sea via the Nara Canal.

History

During the last ice age, the river received the waters of several important Himalayan rivers, including those of the Yamunâ, today a tributary of the Ganges, until an estimated period ranging from 49,000 BC AD to 10,000 BC AD². Until 4600 BC AD, the watercourse received the waters of the Sutlej river which now flows into the Indus². Following a movement of land, the Sutlej joins the Beas³ river; Sediments from the Beas-Sutlej River were observed in the lower part of the Hakra bed, around Ganweriwala, for a millennium before this arm of the Hakra also dried up.

Many sites of the Indus Valley Civilization have been found all along the bed of the Ghaggar-Hakra couple, which means that they are often identified with the Sarasvati River of the Veda.

Desertification due to drying up of Sarasvati river



Vedic and present-day Gagghar-Hakra river-course, with Aryavarta/Kuru

Kingdom, and (pre-)Harappan Hakra/Sutlej-Yamuna paleochannels as proposed by Clift et al. (2012) and Khonde et al. (2017).^[a]

1 = ancient river

2 = today's river

3 = today's Thar desert

4 = ancient shore

5 = today's shore

6 = today's town

7 = dried-up Harappan Hakra course, and pre-Harappan Sutlej paleochannels (Clift et al. (2012)).

10,000-8,000 years ago a paleo channel of Ghaggar-Hakra River - identified with the paleo Sarasvati River, after confluence with Sutlej flowed into the Nara river - a delta channel of the Indus River, changed its course, leaving the

Ghaggar-Hakra as a system of monsoon-fed rivers which did not reach the sea and now ends in the Thar desert.^{[11][12][13][14]}

Around 5,000 years ago when the monsoons that fed the rivers diminished further, the Indus Valley Civilisation (IVC) prospered in this area,^{[11][13][14][b]} with the rise of numerous IVC urban sites at Kalibangan (Rajasthan), Banawali and Rakhigarhi (Haryana), Dholavira and Lothal (Gujarat) along this course.^[15]

4,000 years ago when monsoons diminished even further, the dried-up Hakra become an intermittent river, and the urban Harappan civilisation declined, becoming localized in smaller agricultural communities.^{[11][c][13][12][14]}

Originating from the Morni Hills, the Tangri joins its southern tributary called the Balaiali River (which originates near the south of the Morni Hills) near Chajju Majra, south of Kharar. Near Panjokhra, southeast of Ambala, the Tangri River divides into two streams that flow north and south of Ambala. Further downstream near Segti and Segta villages, the Tangri River joins its tributary called the Amri River (also known as the Dadri River and the Shahzadpur Wali River, which originates near Rataur)) after Amri has already collected its own tributary called the Omla River.^[7]

- Ghaggar, 250 km^[5]
 - Kaushalya river, 20 km,^[5] tributary of the Ghaggar which converges in Panchkula
 - Markanda river, 90 km,^[5] eastern tributary of the Ghaggar
 - Dangri river (Tangri), 70 km,^[5] western tributary of the Markanda
 - Balaiali river, eastern tributary of the Dangri
 - Amri river (Dadri River or Shahzadpur Wali river), eastern tributary of the Dangri
 - Omla river, tributary of the Amri river
 - Numerous other streams in Yamunanagar district
 - Sarsuti, ? km,^[5] eastern tributary of the Ghaggar
 - Chautang, 9 km,^[5] eastern tributary of the Ghaggar

Several archaeologists have identified the old Ghaggar-Hakra River with the Sarasvati river, on the banks of which the Indus Valley civilisation developed

IV. CONCLUSION

Protohistory is a period between prehistory and written history during which a culture or civilization has not yet developed writing, but other cultures have already noted the existence of those pre-literate groups in their own writings. For example, in Europe, the Celts and the Germanic tribes are considered to have been protohistoric when they began appearing in Greek and Roman sources.

Protohistoric may also refer to the transition period between the advent of literacy in a society and the writings of the first historians. The preservation of oral traditions may complicate matters, as they can provide a secondary historical source for even earlier events. Colonial sites involving a literate group and a nonliterate group are also studied as protohistoric situations.

The term can also refer to a period in which fragmentary or external historical documents, not necessarily including a developed writing system, have been found. For instance, the Proto-Three Kingdoms of Korea, the Yayoi^[1] and the Mississippian groups, recorded by early European explorers, are protohistoric.

The Protohistoric people in Rajasthan were not only involved in giving shape to copper but they also collected the purified metal in the form of ingots. Copper ingots had come to light from Harappan sites as well. Three copper ingots from Mohenjodaro, a bun shaped ingot from Lothal (with 99.81% copper) and copper ingots from Harappan levels of Chanhudaro are just to name a few. A large number of copper and bronze ingots from Susa, which are displayed in Louvre Museum, bear close affinity with ingots from Lothal and Mohenjodaro. The absence of arsenic in Lothal copper ingots, on the contrary found in Ganeshwar-Khetri Copper belt, suggests that perhaps it was imported from some different source. The Varman Copper Hoard (Sirohi) with three different categories of copper ingots is another remarkable contribution. The copper smiths of Varman were quite intelligent as they cut approximately 1.15cm thick copper sheet into three different sizes to serve variable needs and avoid wastage. Some of the Varman copper ingots bear close affinity with Harappan ingots. [53]

REFERENCES

1. See Clift et al. (2012) map Archived 11 October 2021 at the Wayback Machine and Honde te al. (2017) map Archived 14 November 2020 at the Wayback Machine.
2. ^ Political Economy of the Punjab: An Insider's Account. MD Publications, New Delhi. 1997. ISBN 978-81-7533-031-3.

3. ^{^ a b c d e f g h i} Singh et al. 2017.
4. [^] Britannica, Dale Hoiberg, Indu Ramchandani (2000). Students' Britannica India, Volumes 1-5. Popular Prakashan, 2000. ISBN 978-0-85229-760-5. The Ghaggar River rises in the Shiwalik Range, northwestern Himachal Pradesh State, and flows about 320 km southwest through Haryana State, where it receives the Saraswati River. Beyond the Ottu Barrage, the Ghaggar River is known as the Hakra River which loses itself in the Thar Desert. Just southwest of Sirsa it feeds two irrigation canals that extend into Rajasthan.
5. ^{^ a b c d e f g} Clift et al. 2012.
6. ^{^ a b c d} Khonde et al. 2017.
7. ^{^ a b c d e f g h} Giosan et al. 2012.
8. ^{^ a b c d} Maemoku et al. 2013.
9. [^] Sanyal, Sanjeev (10 July 2013). Land of the seven rivers : a brief history of India's geography. Penguin Books. ISBN 978-0-14-342093-4. OCLC 855957425.
10. ^{^ a b} Shanker Sharma, Hari; Kalwar, S. C. (2005). Geomorphology and Environmental Sustainability: Felicitation Volume in Honour of Professor H.S. Sharma. Concept Publishing Company. p. 61. ISBN 978-81-8069-028-0.
11. [^] "Sarasvati: Tracing the death of a river". 11 June 2010. Archived from the original on 26 December 2018. Retrieved 12 June 2010.
12. [^] "Hills of morni.com - Kaushalya dam". Archived from the original on 14 November 2017. Retrieved 13 April 2016.
13. [^] Schuldenrein et al. 2004.
14. [^] McIntosh 2008, p. 20-21.
15. [^] Jain, Agarwal & Singh 2007, p. 312.
16. [^] Dave et al. 2019.
17. [^] Chatterjee et al. 2019.
18. [^] Sinha, Singh & Tandon 2020, p. 240.
19. [^] Stephanie Pappas (28 November 2017), Mystery Solved: How the Ancient Indus Civilization Survived Without Rivers, LiveScience
20. [^] Ratnagar, Shereen (2006). Understanding Harappa: Civilization in the Greater Indus Valley. New Delhi: Tulika Books. pp. 7–8. ISBN 978-81-89487-02-7. If in an ancient mound we find only one pot and two bead necklaces similar to those of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro, with the bulk of pottery, tools and ornaments of a different type altogether, we cannot call that site Harappan. It is instead a site with Harappan contacts. ... Where the Sarasvati valley sites are concerned, we find that many of them are sites of local culture (with distinctive pottery, clay bangles, terracotta beads, and grinding stones), some of them showing Harappan contact, and comparatively few are full-fledged Mature Harappan sites.
21. [^] Sindhav 2016, p. 103.
22. [^] Madella, Marco; Fuller, Dorian (2006). "Palaeo-ecology and the Harappan civilisation of south Asia: A reconsideration". *Quaternary Science Reviews*. 25 (11–12): 1283–1301. Bibcode:2006QSRv...25.1283M. doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2005.10.012.
23. [^] MacDonald, Glen (2011). "Potential influence of the Pacific Ocean on the Indian summer monsoon and Harappan decline". *Quaternary International*. 229 (1–2): 140–148. Bibcode:2011QuInt.229..140M. doi:10.1016/j.quaint.2009.11.012.
24. ^{^ a b c d} Brooke, John L. (17 March 2014). Climate Change and the Course of Global History: A rough journey. Cambridge University Press. p. 296. ISBN 978-0-521-87164-8. Archived from the original on 18 April 2022. Retrieved 1 October 2016.
25. [^] Possehl 2002, pp. 237–245.
26. [^] Staubwasser, Michael; et al. (2003). "Climate change at the 4.2 ka BP termination of the Indus Valley Civilization and Holocene south Asian monsoon variability". *Geophysical Research Letters*. 30 (8): 1425. Bibcode:2003GeoRL...30.1425S. doi:10.1029/2002GL016822. S2CID 129178112.
27. [^] Bar-Matthews & Avner Ayalon "Mid-Holocene Climate Variations" in Brooke (2015).^[24]
28. [^] Gadgil and Thapar (1990), and references therein
29. ^{^ a b} Giosan et al. 2012, p. 1693.
30. ^{^ a b} Giosan 2012, p. 4.
31. ^{^ a b c} Demkina 2017.
32. [^] Anthony 2007, p. 300, 336.
33. [^] Anthony 2007.



34. ^ Bryant 2001, p. 168.
35. ^ Gaur, R. C. (1983). Excavations at Atranjikhhera, Early Civilization of the Upper Ganga Basin. Delhi.
36. ^ Shaffer, J. (1999). Bronkhorst, J.; Deshpande, M. (eds.). Aryans and Non-Non-Aryans: Evidence, interpretation, and ideology. Harvard Oriental Series, Opera Minora 3. Cambridge University Press.
37. ^ Mahabharata 3.80.118, 3.130.3-4, 6.7.47, 9.34.81, 9.36.1-2
38. ^ Indische Alterthumskunde Christian Lassen: Geographie und die älteste Geschichte, H. B. Koenig, 1847, p. 91
39. ^ Sacred Books of the East, 32, 60
40. ^ Oldham 1893 pp.51-52
41. ^ Possehl 1997.
42. ^ Kenoyer 1997.
43. ^ Allchin & Allchin 1982, p. 160.
44. ^ Erdosy 1995, p. 44.
45. ^ Erdosy 1995, p. 266.
46. ^ McIntosh 2008.
47. ^ ^{a b} Possehl 2002.
48. ^ Thapar, Romila (2004). Early India: From the origins to AD 1300. University of California Press. p. 42. ISBN 978-0-520-24225-8.
49. ^ Wilke 2011.
50. ^ Witzel 2001, p. 93.
51. ^ Mukherjee 2001, p. 2, 8-9.
52. ^ ^{a b} Rajesh Kocchar, The rivers Sarasvati: Reconciling the sacred texts Archived 7 May 2016 at the Wayback Machine, blog post based on The Vedic People: Their History and Geography.
53. ^ Kochhar, Rajesh (1999), "On the identity and chronology of the R̥gvedic river Sarasvatī", in Roger Blench; Matthew Spriggs (eds.), Archaeology and Language III; Artefacts, languages and texts, Routledge, ISBN 978-0-415-10054-0
54. ^ Mughal 1997.



INTERNATIONAL
STANDARD
SERIAL
NUMBER
INDIA



International Journal of Advanced Research in Arts, Science, Engineering & Management (IJARASEM)

| Mobile No: +91-9940572462 | Whatsapp: +91-9940572462 | ijarasem@gmail.com |

www.ijarasem.com