INTRODUCTION

Military is an essential and inseparable organ of a state. War is an instrument of state policy. A country may co-exist without war but no state could survive without military in any age. Many Empires in different parts of the world were built and demolished in the past through the military. Capacity to wage war and win battles depends upon the composition, strength and ability of military and leadership. The greatness of Alexander rests largely on his military prowess which enabled him to build his empire in three continents. The Mughals built a vast and powerful empire in India with the help of their military organisation whose technology was far more superior to the native military. Similarly Napoleon Bonaparte, who hailed from an ordinary family, was able to make France as the mistress of Europe through his military might. Great Britain, comparatively a small country set up a great overseas empire and stood as the queen of seas for several centuries due to its strong military, particularly navy. Even today military skill of a country profoundly contributes to its greatness and status in the international arena.

The military originated out of necessity and inherent nature of man. Several philosophers believed that man was essentially selfish and he moved to action due to his desire, passion and appetites. These characteristic features of man forced him to confront with the fellow men. In the past man lived with constant fear expecting danger from his neighbours. He had to

---

protect his personal belongings, his women and himself and it necessitated him to act as soldier. Since man is gregarious in nature, he began to live in groups or flocks in course of time. One group needed protection from the attack of another group and each formed its own army. Every able bodied man acted as a soldier once upon a time. The weapons of man were not distinguishable from the instruments of his ordinary life in the earliest times. His personal tools and weapons were interchangeable. The stone-axe which was used to bring down a tree or to make hallow out of canoe, was also used as weapon in combat. Similarly a hunter used spear or arrow to supply food to his family and the same was used as weapon when he went to war. During the New Stone Age, man was able to produce metal weapons which could be used in his fightings. The early man used weapons for offensive purposes and in the course of time defensive weapons were added to them. Time to time changes occurred in the weapon system that greatly influenced the nature of warfare and the organisation of the army.

It is believed that the armies first appeared as early as 3500 B.C. Pictures and artifacts found at ancient historical sites revealed that organised fighting groups with uniform dress and orderly moving existed in the prehistoric times. The first historical evidence for an army organisation could be traced from the Sumarians in the fourth millennium B.C. The materials found in one of the royal graves of Ur, depicted infantry, armed with short spears. The soldiers wore conical helmets and their body was

---

4 Nathaniel Platt and Muriel Jean Drummoned, Our World Through Ages, p. 17.
protected with thick cloaks. They also used four wheeled chariots made of wood and drawn by asses for war. Egypt seemed to have possessed army even before the Sumarians. Four kinds of armed forces, viz., warrior caste for king’s bodyguard, provincial troops served outside the capital, mercenaries and corvee or forced levy served in the ancient Egyptian army. But in Egypt the armies were employed for plundering expeditions and slave raids and they never fought pitched battles in ancient times. Egyptians introduced the quasi-conscription. As a result of it king Rameses II (1292-1225 B.C.) was able to organize the military of one million men. Egyptians considered army not as a drain on national revenue but as an economic instrument to build the wealth of the king.

In Babylonia from the ancient times kings held a regular army. The soldiers were recruited from the exclusive soldier class who were granted lands on hereditary basis for their war service. The Code of Hammurabi, issued by the Babylon king Hamurabi (2123 - 2081 B.C.), prescribed the methods of the recruitment of the soldiers and the duties of the army. Chariots and archery played a prominent role in the Babylonian military. The Assyrian civilisation (900 - 300 B.C.) bestowed a great attention on the organisation of an army and all political, economic and cultural life was subordinated to the support and perfection of the army. As it faced attack from all sides, the king’s bodyguard was strengthened by a mass conscription. Well equipped and drilled, the Assyrian army emerged as the

---

7 Everyman’s Encyclopaedia, Vol. 1, p. 420.
8 J. E. Swain, A History of World Civilisations, p. 72.
most formidable and was prepared for aggression and conquest. Developed as military state, the provinces of Assyrian empire were left under the military commanders. Cavalry was organised as the best fighting force under the Assyrians. Persians following Assyrians, organised a strong army around the sixth and fifth centuries B.C. Chariots, archers, and cavalry constituted backbone of the Persian military. Before the sixth century B.C. disciplined and well equipped armies developed in Egypt, China, Assyria and Persia. Subsequently a better organised army developed in Greece and Rome where discipline became the basic feature of the military.

Even before the evolution of army in Greece and Rome, the Indians had developed an advanced military system. The people of the Indus Valley Civilisation laid the foundation for the Indian military. Excavations at various sites revealed that they were acquainted with numerous kinds of weapons, like, spears, knives, short swords, arrow-heads, and axes of various types. Arrow-heads made of copper, bronze and stone were used in plenty. In addition to these, baked clay missiles, mace heads of alabaster and metal blades with two ends of cutting edge were also used as weapons of war. Most of the weapons, produced in the Indus Valley were offensive in nature.

After the fall of the Indus Valley Civilisation, the Aryans organised military in India according to their necessity. War was an essential

---

9 Edward D' Cruz, *A Survey of World Civilisation*, p. 29.
institution of Aryans during the Rig Vedic Age. They frequently fought against the aborigines and also against one another to protect their cattle. In fact their political organisations-state and kingship grew out of the necessities of war. Social organisation and religious customs of the Aryans also encouraged wars. They created a special social class, called Kshatriyas to wage war for them. The Aryans of the Vedic period had no regular army. In times of war, on the call of the king, the masses forming militia attended with their own arms and weapons. The military of the Vedic Age comprised foot soldiers, called patti and charioteers, called rathins. Elephants were not used in wars, but cavalry was introduced in the later period. Using coats of mail, metal helmets, shields as defensive, the Aryans used bows and arrows, swords, spears, axes, lances and slings as offensive weapons. Poisoned arrows were often used in warfare. Military organisation took a definite shape in India during the Nanda and Mauryan periods. Cavalry and elephantry became the cardinal units of Indian army under them. Besides effective organisation, a systematic military administration came into force under the Mauryas.

While the Mauryas reigned supreme in the north an advanced polity and culture developed in the southern part of India. Popularly known as the Sangam period, kings of three dynasties, known as Chera, Chola and Pandya ruled Tamil Nadu. The Chera kingdom, consisted of major part of

Travancore, Cochin, South Malabar, South Canara, Salem and Coimbatore.

During the Sangam age an advanced military forces flourished under the Chera kings. War was glorified and the king and the people derived pride and satisfaction from the adventurous deeds of their soldiers. Even women went to the battlefield to encourage their men in fighting. Death in the battlefield was looked upon as a great honour. In order to glorify the death of a soldier in a battlefield, a hero stone called *virakal* was erected in his memory. The soldiers rejoiced whenever they heard the sound of the drum, thinking that they were invited to the battlefield.

It was the duty of the king to organise and lead an army into the battlefield. Successful, courageous and well organised military was the prime wealth of the king. Called *tanai*, *senai* and *padai*, the military of the Cheras in the Sangam period was divided into four sections, viz., chariots, elephants, horses and foot soldiers. Elephants played a conspicuous role in the Chera military as these animals were abundant in the hilly tracts of the Chera kingdom. The prominent Chera king Senguttuvan mostly depended upon his elephants for his victories in the wars.

Apart from the traditional four-fold divisions, the Chera military had other sections too. The prevalence of navy was testified by the military exploits of the Chera kings Nedum Cheralathan and Vel Kelu Kuttvan. Poet

---

18 *Purananuru* : 89.
19 *Thirukural*: C. 77, k. 1.
20 T V. Mahalingam, *South Indian Polity*, p. 256.
Kapilar praised the services of the Chera navy\textsuperscript{21}. Besides these regular army, Chera kings raised militia during the times of war\textsuperscript{22}. Spies, cart and carriages, dancing girls, musicians, jesters accompanied the Chera military when it proceeded towards the battle field\textsuperscript{23}. The chief weapons of war of the Cheras were bow and arrows, sword, spear, battle sling and club. For the defensive purposes they also erected moats and forts surrounded by forests as vanguard. Almost all the kings were valiant fighters and personally conducted the military operations in the wars.

The age of the later Cheras (800 – 1102 A.D.) constituted a landmark in the political and military history of Cheranad. The rulers known as Kulasekharas continuously maintained a well equipped army besides a strong navy. They held naval base at Kandalur Salai, Quilon and Vilinjum which were destroyed by the military expeditions of Raja Raja and Rajendra Chola during the eleventh century A.D.\textsuperscript{24}. The failure of the Cheras at the hands of the Cholas led to the introduction of compulsory military training in the Cheranad. The common people were enlisted for military service and were trained in the use of arms in \textit{kalaris}\textsuperscript{25}. Coupled with that, the emergence of administrative units \textit{nudu} and \textit{desam} under the Kulasekharas, paved the way for the greater role of militia in the military system of Travancore.

\textsuperscript{21} \textit{Puranamuru}, 126.
\textsuperscript{22} M. E. Manickavasagom Pillai, \textit{Culture of Ancient Cheras}, p. 216.
\textsuperscript{23} When Cheran Senguttuvan proceeded towards northern expedition his military comprised elephants-500, cavalry-10000, chariots-100, spies-1000, cart and carriages 20000, dancing girls-102, musicians 208, and jesters-100. J. Alasiar, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 26.
\textsuperscript{24} T.A.S., Vol. VI., pp. 1-3.
\textsuperscript{25} A. Sreedhara Menon, \textit{A Survey of Kerala History}, p. 164.
Travancore, the erstwhile Chera kingdom, stood as Venad till the end of seventeenth century. Rama Varma Kulasekhara (1090-1102 A.D.) the last Chera ruler of Mahodayapuram, was the founder of Venad royal family. The Kulasekhara line of family ruled the Venad or Travancore kingdom upto 1949. Emerged as popular state under the renowned Marthanda Varma and Rama Varma, Travancore styled itself as the princely state during the British rule in India.

Travancore, the anglicized form of Tiruvithamkur, coined from the term of Tiruvithamkode which was the name of one of its former capitals in Southern Travancore. The term Tiruvithamkode is derived from the Sanskrit word Srivarthanapuri or Srivazhumkode meaning a place where the Goddess of prosperity dwells. Travancore was known by several names at different times viz., Malayalam, Parasurama Kshetram, Karma-bhumi, Cheram, Keralam, Malanad, Malavaram, Malabar, Venad, Vanchi-Desam and Thiru-Adi-Desam. Travancore is the major part of Kerala state.

The princely state Travancore was situated at the extreme south western portion of the Indian Peninsula touching the Arabian sea and the Indian Ocean. Looked as irregular triangle, Travancore is located between $8^\circ 4'$ and $10^\circ 21'$ north latitude and between $76^\circ 13'$ and $77^\circ 38'$ east longitude. The maximum length of the kingdom from north to south is 174 miles and maximum breadth was 75 miles. The narrowest breadth was 30 miles and the average breadth of state measured forty miles. It had a coastal line of 168 miles and the total length of the boundary line stretched

---


to 559.75 miles\textsuperscript{28}. The total area of the state was measured at 7606.30 square miles. In area, Travancore stood five times more than the size of Cochin State (1412 sq.m), larger than Tirunelveli (5381 sq.m.) and Malabar (6002 sq.m) and smaller than Coimbatore (7804 sq.m) and Madurai (8789 sq.m) of the British districts. In 1921 the total population of the kingdom stood as 4006062. Among the native states of India, Travancore ranked seventh in terms of area and third in terms of population after Hyderabad and Mysore\textsuperscript{29}.

The kingdom was bounded on the north by the Cochin state and Coimbatore, on the east by Madurai and Tirunelveli districts and south and west by Indian Ocean and Arabian sea respectively. The state stood unassailable and well protected by the natural frontier of the Western Ghats on the east and the Arabian Sea in the west. The Western Ghats begins immediately south of Kandeish valley, runs close to the coast along the western edges of Deccan towards the south\textsuperscript{30}. The mountainous ramparts stood as a natural bulwark which prevented easy accessibility of foreign invaders. The impregnable mountain barrier left Travancore untouched by many conquerors of India. The Western Ghats reaching 900 to 2400 mts above sea level, are steep with a number of peaks. However about a dozen passes connect Travancore with the eastern territory. Among them Achchancoil, Aryankaooo in the north and Aramboly in the south provided a link with the east. The Aramboly pass pierced through the southern part of

\textsuperscript{28} Revenue Settlement of Travancore 1883 – 1911 A. D. (1058 – 1068 M. E.). p. 3.
\textsuperscript{29} Census of India – 1921, Vol. XXV, part-I, p. 3.
\textsuperscript{30} Encyclopaedia of Asia, Vol. 2, p. 79.
the mountain on the plain and provided a highway route between the erstwhile British territory and Travancore. It paved way for several expeditions from the eastern coast rulers\textsuperscript{31}. Nevertheless the Western Ghats which filled the full length of the state, is covered with impenetrable jungles.

The kingdom was studded with hills, jungles, plains, rivers and lagoons. The geographical features created a varied scene and left Travancore as the most picturesque kingdom in South India\textsuperscript{32}. The forests covered one third of the area of the kingdom. It provides a variety of woods such as teak, ebony, blackwood, rosewood, jack etc. There are numerous backwaters and lagoons which are connected together with canals. It provides an excellent communication link which help for the prosperous inland trade. The notable among them are Anjengo, Ashtamudi, Chittari, Bekkal, Kayamkulam, Kodungallur, Vembanad, Veli, Kumbala, Kavvayi and Kayamkulam. The rivers make the country green and prosperous. Periyar, Pamba, Kallada, Kulaka, Muvattupuzha, Ravamana, Palayar, Thambraparani, Neyyar, Minachill and Vamanapuram are the rivers which facilitate a good deal of agriculture. Monakudi, Colachel, Vilinjum, Veli, Anjengo, Quilon, Kayamkulam, Procaud and Alleppey were the major sea ports of the kingdom but most of the trade was carried out through Alleppey alone\textsuperscript{33}. Since the state was abundant with the hills, rivers and lagoons, the early Travancore rulers were unable to develop cavalry for their military.

\textsuperscript{31} A. S. Ramanatha Ayyar, "The Aruvaymoli Pass or the Open Gateway of Travancore" \textit{Journal of Indian History}, Vol. IV, pp. 3 - 4.

\textsuperscript{32} T. Padmanabha Row, \textit{Thulapurushantaram, A Brief Sketch of Travancore Today}, p. 2.

The geographical features of Travancore produced a favourable climatic condition. The elevated mountains and forests cause enough rain through the monsoon. The southwest monsoon in May and June and the northeast monsoon in October and November bring rains more than enough to the need of the people. The copious rain made the people of Travancore predominantly agriculturists. Most of them were either owners of the land or the cultivating serfs. The chief product of cultivation was paddy. Besides that pepper, cardamom, cloves, tea, arecanuts, tapioca, pine-apple, rubber, timber trees, and coconut were the other important products. Therefore, all sections of the people depended upon land which played a major role in determining the social status of the people.

The social order of the kingdom in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was based upon feudal structure. The caste system prevailing in those days, strengthened the division of the society on feudal lines. Brahmins who held a large chunk of lands as original owner, stayed on the top of the social ladder. They considered themselves above the king in social position and enjoyed liberty of action. Acting as chief counsellors of the king, the Brahmins held higher positions in the Government. The Ambalavasies and Kshatriyas stood below the Brahmins in the social hierarchy but they were few in number. Nayars who formed the majority of the population, were the dominant section of the society below the Brahmins. As principal owners of the land, the Nayars were the privileged


class in Travancore. They formed the nobility of the country and held all the Government offices. Fighting was considered as their prerogative, most of the Nayars stood either as commanders of the army or soldiers. A few among them emerged as chieftains who stood as saviour as well as trouble makers to the kings of Travancore. Vellalar and Chetties were below the Nayars in the social ladder. Below them were Nadars, Ezhavas, Parayas and Pulayas who were the unprivileged polluting castes in the social structure of Travancore. The Government jobs were denied to them and they were not allowed even in to the premises of the temples. Though they constituted a large section, most of them were landless. The Nadars and Ezhavas were treated above the Parayas and Pulayas in the social hierarchy. They were involved in various labourious occupations, tilling the land and occasionally rendering *ulium* service to the Government. The Parayas and Pulayas perched on the lowest strata of society and thrived as soil slaves doing all the menial services. While their masters – Brahmins and Nayars acted as counsellors, priests, officers and soldiers, the slaves along with all their family members meekly cultivated the lands for them. Their condition was most wretched and miserable. Untouchability was widely practised and in case any one from the untouchable castes touched the privileged class people, the former was cut down instantly. Similarly the fishermen generally lived on the coastal regions and various hill tribes lived in hills and forests also led a pitiable and secluded life. However the arrival of the

---

Europeans caused the conversion of unprivileged people to the Christianity and modernization of Travancore started in the nineteenth century.

The present study "Military System in Travancore (1729-1947)" is based on a hypothesis which guides the exploration of data and the organisation of thesis. It is proposed to peep into the early military system of Travancore and its features. The organisation and development of the army under Marthanda Varma and his successor Rama Varma and the formation of a standing army constituted the basis for the study of second chapter. Supposition for the third chapter is the ways and means adopted by the English to abolish the military of Travancore. Revival of the army which was gradually transformed into a fighting force becomes root of the fourth chapter. The different wings of the military constituted the hypothesis for the fifth chapter of study. The English Officers and Travancore Government's joint management of the military force and whose service conditions formed the root of the study of the sixth chapter.

Sources of Information

The study on the "Military System of Travancore" is based upon a variety of source materials available in different Archives and libraries. Primary data related to the topic are found at Kerala State Archives, Tamil Nadu Archives and National Archives of India. Original data are supplemented by secondary data. Interviews with retired military personalities and field study also helped to construct the thesis.

Files in the Kerala State Archives, Thiruvananthapuram provided a lot of information regarding the organisation and growth of Nayar Brigade.
Cover file in seven parts, confidential section files, political department files and general section files in six volumes, throw much light on the various aspects of the Nayar Brigade. Affairs related to the military were found scattered in all the above sections of files and most of them are in a brittle and dilapidated condition. A careful searching of the index of above files and patient reading of the brittled manuscripts enabled to get many pieces of vital information on the functioning of the Nayar Brigade. The correspondences between the kings and Dewans, Dewans and Residents and Dewans and Commandants of the Nayar Brigade shed light on the duties of the military, their pay and other benefits.

Several printed reports, orders and documents preserved in the Archives also supplied valuable information on the organisation of the military. The Nayar Brigade Standing Orders and Regulations of 1911 revealed the organisation details, rules and regulations of the military duties of officers and soldiers. The Military Medical and Veterinary Code brought to light the functioning of the military hospital and medical wing of the Brigade. The Acts and Proclamations, passed and published by the Government of Travancore helped to know the latest organisational developments in the Brigade. Periodical changes in the military organisation of the Nayar Brigade were found in the Travancore Government Gazette. The Administrative Report of Travancore Government, published year by year, furnishes information on the development of army in the later half of nineteenth and twentieth centuries. It is further supported by the statistical reports of Government of Travancore. The Travancore Archaeological Series, based on inscriptions collected in Travancore area, supply information on
the militia chieftains and their role in the kingdom. The *Mathilakam* records, though in vernacular language, throw some light on the military of Marthanda Varma.

Records preserved in the Tamil Nadu Archives, Chennai helped to carry on the study on right perspective. The Secret Sundries relating to the Travancore rebellion of 1809 shed much light on the military during the time of Velu Tampi. It contained various correspondences between the Government of Travancore and the Government of Madras, secret reports and intelligence letters on the strength of the military of Travancore. The Political Consultations and Military Consultations provided certain precious information on the military of Travancore. The English official reports, known as the Anjengo Consultations, Letters to Tellicherry and Military Country Correspondence form a veritable source of information on the military of Travancore on the eighteenth century. These records portrayed the position of Travancore according to their point of view. The most useful collection of documents is the selection from the records of Madras Government on the Nayar Brigade. Many letters between Travancore Government and English authorities, Memorandums of the Commandants of the Nayar Brigade, Minutes of Consultation, letters between English authorities in India and Britain and the General Orders upto the year 1898 helped to construct the history of the Nayar Brigade. Atichison's collection of documents, William Logan's collection of documents furnish information about the relation between Travancore Government and British Government on military affairs. The Foreign Secret Consultation Proceedings and Foreign Political Consultation Proceedings contain pieces of information on the
military affairs of Travancore during the later half of eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The primary sources of information were corroborated and supplemented with many secondary works. Among the secondary sources, travel accounts of foreigners on Travancore possess a first hand and direct information on the military systems. They recorded and narrated what they saw personally. The Book of Durate Barbosa of seventeenth century, Philip Baldaeus' A Description of East India coasts of Malabar and Coromondal and also Isle of Ceylon of seventeenth century and Fra Bartholomeo's A Voyage to East Indies of the eighteenth century portray the contemporary militia and military organisations and its nature in a vivid manner. Robert Orme's A History of Military Transactions of British Nation in Indostan, W. J. Wilson's History of the Madras Army (1746-1826) and Col. James Welsh's, Military Reminisences furnish accounts on the nature and character of the Travancore army men. Mark De Lannoy's Kulasekara Perumals of Travancore and William Logan's Malabar Manual provide certain information on the military of Travancore. P. Shungoonny Menon's History of Travancore, V. Nagam Aiya's The Travencore State Manual, T.K. Velu Pillai's The Travancore State Manual, K.P. Padmanabha Menon's History of Kerala, C. M. Agur's Church History of Travancore and A. Sreedhara Menon's several works amply corroborate many facts with the original data on the military. Journals like the Kerala Society Papers, Journal of Kerala studies, Calcutta Review and the Travancore Information and Listener are also consulted.
Organisation of Thesis

The thesis has been broadly classified into six chapters besides introduction and conclusion. An attempt is made in the introduction to trace the importance and hypothesis of the study at its proper historical perspective. It also analyses the origin and development of the military in different parts of the ancient world and Travancore. Attention is also paid to trace the background of Travancore and its people. Analysis of source material for the present study becomes a part of the introduction.

The first chapter entitled 'Early Military System in Travancore' deals with the military and its characteristic features, before the reign of Marthanda Varma. The military of those time was militia whose origin goes back to the eleventh century A.D. The study analyses the origin of the militia system. The militia served under different categories of feudal lords who rendered military service to the king at the time of necessity. The king held his own militia, a section of which formed the chauer or suicide squad. Numerous martial practices that flourished in Travancore, encouraged and kept up the military qualities and fighting capacity of the militia-men. Kalari, a kind of gymnasium, specially served to the needs of the militia who obtained various kinds of military training. The military system made Nayars a martial class in the society. The fighting weapons of militia which were numerous in kind, stood as traditional in nature. Unfortunately the early military system was the cause for the constant erosion of power and authority of the king.
The growth and organisation of the systematic army under the reign of two sovereigns became the matter of study under the second chapter, 'Military under Marthanda Varma and Rama Varma (1729-1798)'. It seeks to analyse the factors and necessities that induced king Marthanda Varma to think of a formation of regular army. Frustrated and dissatisfied with the militia, the king tried to form an army of the Maravas and few Nayars. Having success with that move and his victory over the Dutch in Colachel, he formed a standing army with the help of De Lannoy, a French general who had deserted from the Dutch army in 1741. With his expertise the king strengthened the defence system of kingdom, by repairing several forts with granite slabs on massive basis including Padmanabhapuram, Udayagiri, Vattakottai and Gunpowder forts. To cope with the needs of the army, production of traditional and modern weapons started on a grand scale besides acquiring modern weapons from the English, the French and the Dutch. Rama Varma, his successor also continued the same military policy and enhanced the strength of the army over a lakh. But his association with the English paved the way for the stationing of English military for the defence of Travancore. A gloom descended on the standing army of the native kingdom and precipitated its downfall.

'Dismantling of Military' forms the basis of the third chapter. It describes the situation and factors which led to the dissolvement of the traditional army, in 1804. The Government of Travancore and the Dewan Velu Tampi unwittingly succumbed to the pressure of the English. The Carnatic Brigade was left alone under the king and the English took the responsibility for the defence of the kingdom. Resident Col. Macaulay's
diplomacy led to the conflict between the Government of Travancore and the English on the question of the abolition of the remaining Travancore army, the Carnatic Brigade. With a view to challenging English army, an elaborate military preparation was initiated in the Kingdom at the effort of the Dewan. Weapons were manufactured in different parts of the country. But the British brought its forces from different directions and annihilated the native army in a number of battles, despite a strong resistance from the Travancore forces.

The fourth chapter, 'Revival of the System' deals with the formation of the Nayar Brigade and its history. Frantic efforts of the queens Rani Lakshmi Bayi and Rani Parvathi Bayi succeeded the creation of an army of 2350 in 1819 with the permission of the English. Though it was destined for ceremonial, guard and detachment duties, the English did not like the growth of the force. During the years 1826, 1830, and 1863 the strength of the force was reduced to the position around 1500. However manned and drilled by the British officials, it grew up gradually as the modern force. It fulfilled the needs of the kingdom performing numerous internal defence and civil duties assigned by the Government. In 1935 the Nayar Brigade was converted into 'Travancore State Forces' and subsequently joined the Indian State Forces Scheme.

The chapter, 'Organisation of Nayar Brigade' brings to light the organisation of the different wings of the army. Formed as two battalions, the Nayar Brigade rose into four battalions with a number of auxiliary units. A detachment of artillery and band was organised and attached with the second battalion and latter they grew up as independent units. With a view
to improving the standards and qualifications of the soldiers an Army School and Gentlemen Cadet's School served under the military department. The civilian staff of the military looked after the correspondence and service affairs of the army.

The European or English military officials held the commanding positions in the army. Modification in the structure of the army could be done only with the permission of the British Government of Madras. The Commandant who was deputed from the English army, took the charge of entire forces. He carried out his duties under the guidance of Dewan, the representative of the Government of Travancore. From 1935 onwards the native men were given promotion on the European lines. Recruitment to the army was not up to the mark in the beginning but in course of time it was brought to the standard of the Indian Army. In the later stage recruitment and selection were extended to all communities. Training and discipline of the army was standardized in the course of time to the level of Indian army. These are elaborately dealt with in the chapter 'The Management of the Nayar Brigade'.

The military of Travancore witnessed transition in the modern age. Started as militia, the Travancore army rose to the position of standing army under Marthanda Varma, the greatest sovereign of Travancore. Moulded and shaped further, the standing army was effectively improved in strength, production of weapons and strategy during the reign of his successor, Ramavarma. The newly organised military helped the kingdom in its expansion and political supremacy in Malabar. But unfortunately the failure of the political leadership caused the destruction of the national army and
formation of a different kind of military under the supervision of the English. When the force developed into a well organised army, it had to be merged with the independent Indian army. Thus the Travancore forces had a chequered career in the modern period.