CHAPTER I
CHAPTER - I

GEOGRAPHICAL CONDITION AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF RAJASTHAN

The state of Rajasthan lies between 23°03' north to 32°12' north of latitudes and 69°30' east to 78°17' east of longitudes and is situated in the western part of India.\(^1\) At present, the province of Rajasthan is the second largest state of India comprising an area of 342,274 square kilometres.\(^2\) On the map, it is an irregular rhombus,\(^3\) its boundaries of north, west and south touched that of former states of Bikaner, Jaisalmer, Banswara and Dholpur. It is bounded on the west and north- west by Pakistan.\(^4\) Its north and north eastern frontier adjoin the Punjab and Uttar Pradesh States, in the east and south-east by Madhya Pradesh and in the south-west by Gujarat.\(^5\) River Chambal forms the boundary between Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh on south-east and divides the Jaipur and Kota region from the Gwalior region.

The relief features of Rajasthan are marked by the Aravali ranges which run across the state from north-east to south-west.\(^6\) The area lying west of Aravallis is covered by vast stretches of sand, that places interrupted by rock outcrops and inliers.\(^7\) East of the Aravallis, the topography is marked by the

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1. V.C. Mishra, *Geography of Rajasthan*, New Delhi, 1967, p.1
3. D. Sharma, *Rajasthan Through the ages (from the earliest times to 1316 A.D)* Bikaner, 1966, p-1
Eastern plain (The Banas) and the South-eastern Pathar which include the Vindhyan Scarpland and the Deccan Lava Plateau. 8

The drainage of Rajasthan is largely determined by the great Indian watershed which divides the drainage into the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea. 9 The watershed runs for considerable distance across the Aravalli axis. 10 The western and southern part of the Aravalli is drained by small streams and their tributaries like the Luni, the Sukri, Banas, Sabarmati and Mahi, while the eastern part is drained by the Banas river with its tributaries and the Chambal river. 11

Extremity of climate is the characteristic of Rajasthan. The 50 cm rainfall line divides this State into two distinct climatic regions. The area west of the Aravallis has long periods of severe drought accompanied by high wind velocity and low relative humidity. 12 East of the Aravallis, the rainfall and temperature distribution show considerable variations. The winter is cold and on the western side, at several places the temperature falls below freezing point and frost occurs. All over the State during summer, heat is intense and scorching. 13

The relief and climatic conditions in Rajasthan have greatly influenced the natural vegetation, soil and agricultural operations. The vegetation in the western arid region is scanty while deciduous and sub-tropical ever green

8. Ibid
9. Ibid., PP. 4-5
10. Ibid.
11. Ibid.
12. Geography of Rajasthan, op. cit., p. 4
13. Ibid.
forests are found in the east and south-east of the Aravallis. The area under forests constitutes about 12.7 percent of the total area in Rajputana.14

Macro regions of Rajasthan State are divided diagonally by the Aravallis into North-West and South-East regions. It consists of four physical divisions.

1. The North-West region.
2. The Aravalli Hills
3. The South-East Region.
4. The South-Eastern Pleateau.

North-West Region-This region consists of sandy arid plain and semi-arid transitional plain. These are characterised by sand dunes. The annual rain-fall in this area is very scanty, even below 5 inches. The area lying below the Aravallis is some what different receiving rainfall between 10 inches and 20 inches.15

The Aravalli Hills- These Aravalli Hills start from Delhi and stretch upto Champaner in Gujarat.16 These are 550 kilometres long and their highest peak, Gurushikhar in Mount Abu, has the height of 1,727 meters.17 The ranges going towards Udaipur and Dungarpur fertile plain about 30 miles wide.18 The five

14. Ibid.
15. Malti Saxena, Impact of the British Sovereignty, op. cit., p. 2
16. Impact of the British Sovereignty, op. cit., p. 2; A Regional Geography, op. cit., p. 521; Geography of Rajasthan, op. cit., p. 30
17. Impact of the British Sovereignty, op., cit., p. 2
18. Ibid., pp. 2-3
important rivers, the Banas, the Luni, the Banganga, the Mahi and the Kakni rise from these hills and fertile the area through which they flow.\textsuperscript{19}

**The South- East Region**—The Eastern portion comprises Jaipur and the areas of Bhilwara, Tonk, Chittaorgarh, Sawai Madhopur, Bharatpur and Alwar. It is irrigated by the Banas and its tributaries, wells, tanks, and some canals.\textsuperscript{20}

**The South- Eastern Plateau**—It receives rains in plenty. It is irrigated by the Chambal and its tributaries.\textsuperscript{21}

Rajasthan also be divided into the following seven Micro Geographical regions.\textsuperscript{22}

1. Western Arid Region.

2. Semi Arid Region.

3. Canal Region.

4. Aravalli Region.

5. Eastern Agro-Industrial Region.


7. Chambal Ravine Region.

**Western Arid Region**—Typical desert conditions are found in this region. It is characterised with little rainfall of about 25 cm annually.

**Semi Arid Region**—It lies west of the Aravallis and runs from north-east to south-west.\textsuperscript{23} Luni and its tributaries provide drainage in the southern part of

\textsuperscript{19} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{20} Ibid., p. 3
\textsuperscript{21} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{22} Geographical of Rajasthan, op. cit., p.169.
\textsuperscript{23} Ibid, p. 170.
this region while Northern parts of this region are characteristically an area of interior drainage. Most of the drainage is concentrated on the Sambhar lake, famous for salt production. This region experiences rainfall between 25 to 50 cm, which is in even to the whole region.\(^\text{24}\)

**Canal Regions**- Canal Regions covers north-western part of the State, though this area is a part of Western Arid Region, construction of canals (Rajasthan Canal, Ganga Canal in Ganganagar has changed its geographical condition and subsequently has influenced its economy greatly.\(^\text{25}\)

**Aravalli Region**- Aravalli Region is the most distinctive region in Rajasthan.\(^\text{26}\) The south western part of the State is dominated by the presence of Aravalli range.\(^\text{27}\)

**Eastern Agro-Industrial Region**- It lies east of Aravalli ranges, Northern side of this region touches the boundary of Uttar Pradesh and Haryana.\(^\text{28}\)

**The South Eastern Agricultural Region**- It is situated to the east of the Aravalli ranges.

**Chambal Ravine Region**- It stretches along the river Chambal which forms the boundary between Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh.\(^\text{29}\) This River is the

\(^{24}\) *Ibid*, p. 171.


\(^{26}\) *Impact of British Sovereignty*, op. cit., p. 2; *Geography of Rajasthan*, op. cit., p. 173.

\(^{27}\) *Geography of Rajasthan*, op. cit., p. 174


\(^{29}\) *Geography of Rajasthan*, op. cit., p. 177
largest river in the Rajasthan. The Kali Sindh, Mej, Parwan, Parbati and Banas are its important tributaries.

The climate of Rajasthan is mainly dry. Winter is cold, in the northern part of the in south. About ninety percent of the rainfall occurs during the monsoon period, while in western Rajasthan it scarcely averages more than 12 cm a year. In Southern Rajasthan, rainfall is much heavier as it receives the monsoon not only from Arabian Sea but also from the Bay of Bengal. North receives 20 cm and even less. This Rainfall is generally erratic. The whole of this area is very sandy. In eastern Rajasthan, rainfall is about 73 cm. The climate of Rajasthan, has been divided into three major conventional seasons as follows:-

1. Hot weather season (March to mid June).
2. The season of general rains (mid June to September)
3. The cold weather season (October to February).

Soil:

Soil is one of the most important natural resources. An intimate knowledge of soil is a pre-requisite for all agricultural operation and planning.

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30. Ibid.
31. B.L. Gupta, *Trade and Commerce in Rajasthan during the 18th Century*, Jaipur, 1987, p. 4
32. D. Sharma, *Rajasthan through the Ages (from the earliest Times to 1316 A.D)*, Bikaner, 1966, p. 6
33. Ibid.
34. Ibid.
35. *Geography of Rajasthan*, op. cit., p. 43.
Types of Soils:

The soils of the State have been divided into the following seven groups.36

- Desert Soil
- Grey and Brown (Desert) Soil
- Red and Yellow Soil
- Ferruginous Red Soil
- Mixed Red and Black Soil
- Medium Black Soil
- Alluvial Soil

**Desert Soil**

Among all these soils, the desert soil occupies the largest area in Rajasthan. The whole of the State west of the Aravallis up to the States border with Pakistan in the west is covered by sand, hillocks and rock out crops. The whole of this tract is ill watered and unproductive.37

**Grey Brown (Desert) Soil**:

The Region of this soil lies west of the Aravallis axis and is characterised by vast stretches of sandy plain including hillocks and rock out crops. The fertility of this soil increases towards the east and northeast. The soil is saline and alkaline and has a high pH. value.38

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37. *Geography of Rajasthan*, op. cit., p. 60.
Red and Yellow Soil:

Red and Yellow soil occur together in the western part of the Rajasthan in this area. 39 This soil has good moisture holding capacity. In the northern part of this area mainly in Ajmer, it is sandy and the clay content varies between 3 and 9 percent. 40

Ferruginous Red Soil:

This soil occupies the central and southern part of the Udaipur district and the whole of Dungarpur district. This red soil has been formed from ancient crystalline and metamorphic rocks. In different areas the red soil greatly differs in depth and fertility. 41

Mixed Red and Black Soil:

This soil is found is the eastern parts of the districts of Udaipur, Chittaurgarh, Dungarpur, Banswara and Bhilwara. The pH value of the soil is neutral to alkaline. 42

Medium Black Soil:

This soil is most commonly found in the south-eastern part of the state. Soil in this region is black and deep and some alluvium of finer particles is noticed. Vertical cracks of varying sizes are present and internal drainage is fairly good. 43

39. Ibid., p. 61
40. Ibid.
41. Ibid., p. 62
42. Ibid.
43. Ibid., pp. 62-63
Alluvial Soil:

Alluvial soils occupies the north-eastern part of the state mainly the areas of Alwar, Bharatpur, Jaipur and Sawai Madhopur and of Ganganagar. This soil is red coloured and deficient in lime, phosphoric acid and humus.44

The most of the Jaipur state is having fairly level and open, although its surface is crossed and diversified by groups and ranges of hills, and by isolated peaks. The centre of the state is an elevated table-land of triangular form, from, 1,400 to 1,600 feet above sea level.45 Therefore, no region or country could develop on the lines contrary to what naturally provided, Jaipur state cannot be an exception to this natural endowment to a great extent influenced the economy of Jaipur state.46

The most conspicuous physiographic feature of Rajasthan is the Aravalli range. Rajasthan is geographically divided into two natural but unequal zones naturally i.e. semi arid zone of south and southeast and arid zones of north and northwest. Jaipur state falls in the semi arid zone of south-east. In this region, the ecological balance between man and environment is intrinsically interwoven. Any variation in the climate and rainfall could ruin crops and some time made the living conditions very difficult and resulted into famine. The present day districts of Jaipur, Sawai Madhopur, Karouli, Alwar and Bharatpur constitute the eastern Rajasthan. Jaipur has different ecological pattern with

46. Rajasthan documents such as *taqsim*, *arsattas*, *chitthis* provide a valuable information about the geography of all regions.
variations in temperature, rainfall, soil pattern and irrigation pattern as compared to the dry western zone.\textsuperscript{47} However, its semi aridity creates a lot of problem under its extreme temperature and uncertain rainfall.\textsuperscript{48} Water is the main limiting factor, making the rain dependent farming a fluctuating one. Thus, agriculture had always been a gamble in this zone.

To the west of Jaipur State, lie the central Aravalli range and the Bana River, which constitutes the southern boundary of eastern Rajasthan.\textsuperscript{49} \textit{Akbar Nama} refers to the green meadows and mountains as well as Jungles.\textsuperscript{50} In the words of Abul Fazl, \textit{to the south and south east of Amber, there was a fertile plain towards the Kishangarh border, either open or thick Jungles dotted here or there in the hills.}\textsuperscript{51} The region is characterised by a diverse variety of alluvial soils varying both in texture from clay loam to sandy and tints from pale brown, yellowish brown to dark brown.\textsuperscript{52} To the north and west of present Jaipur, the soil is generally sandy but occasionally stiff clayey soil mixed with gravel is also found, southwards, the soil is for the most part, rich and fertile and the tract to the extreme south enclosed by the bends of Bana river consisting of rich alluvium loam and is the most fertile area.\textsuperscript{53}

The general drainage of the eastern region of Rajasthan follows the slope of the land towards the east and southeast of Aravalli Range. The Bana,
one of the most important river which watered the soils of a large area of Bana plain and formed the boundary between Udaipur and Ajmer and Later between the state of Jaipur and Karauli. However, this river was unbearable during floods. Its chief tributaries were Berach, Lathare, Khari, Mansi, Dhol and Morel irrigating a larger tract. The Basins of the major rivers and their tributaries form the micro regions within the border of geographical zone of the Bana plain. The Morel basin characterized by scattered hills and high water table in the foothill zone incorporates the core area of erstwhile Jaipur state. In contrast to the yellow soil of the most fertile Gambhir and Banganga Basins, the Moral basin has inferior brown soil with a high proportion of cultivable waste.

This physiographical feature of the region determined the pattern of its rural settlement. Comparing the physiography of Tonk peneplain, the Morel basin encouraged the construction of wells; hence the extent of cultivation was not limited.

The erratic nature of the rainfall also affected the progress of agricultural production. The region receives between 50 and 100 cm of rainfall annually most of it, is concentrated in the monsoon month of July to

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54. Ibid., p. 135.
55. The Rajputana Gazetteer, Vol. I, Calcutta, 1879, p. 34
58. Ibid., pp. 216-217.
September and about 10 to 20 percent of it during winter season. Thus precarious nature of rainfall was the most significant constraint on agricultural production. Particularly, the crops grown in the *rabi* or winter harvest are wholly dependent on the artificial irrigation with the exception of the limited stretches of seasonally inundated land. The situation became worse quite often with the prevalence of strong dry southwest winds which blow here with great force during the critical months of sowing causing the failure of crops.

It is important to bear note that with a fair supply of moisture, loamy soils produced crops are far superior. Also owing to greater evaporation of light soils, frequent watering of soil is required to renew its supply of moisture. The effect of irrigation can best be seen in an instance where by in village Singrampur of *pargana* Chatsu which had been deserted for 100 years, was rehabilitated quickly an agricultural operations resumed with the help of migratory peasants as soon as a non masonry well was constructed there in 1733 A.D. In the absence of any snow fed rivers on the one hand and the erratic nature of rainfall on the other, the only viable alternative option for irrigation was to tap the underground waters through artificial methods of irrigation, particularly in the Morel basin where the water table was within 50 m of surface, facilitated the digging of wells—both earthen brick lined wells.

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63. Arzdasht, Bhadva Sudi, 8, Rajasthan state Archives Bikaner, V.S,1774/1717 A.D.
64. *India, A Regional Geography*, op. cit., p. 56.
Historical Background of Jaipur State

Amber, also known as Jaipur was one of the important states of the Rajputana. It is situated in the north-eastern and eastern part of Rajasthan, lying between 25°41' and 28°34' north and 74°41' and 77°13' east. In 1901, its area was 15,579 square miles and it was consequently the fourth largest region of the Rajputana States. In the first census held in 1881, the population of the State was 25.27 lakhs. It rose to 28.23 lakhs in 1891. It came down to 26.27 lakhs in 1901. The sudden fall in the population was due to the great famine of 1899-1900. The State is bounded on the North by Bikaner, Loharu, and Patiala, while its detached district of Kot Kasim adjoins the Rewari tahsil of Gurgaon (in Haryana) and Nabha area of Punjab; on the west by Bikaner, Jodhpur, Kishangarh, and Ajmer; on the South by Udaipur, Bundi, Tonk, Kotah, and Gwalior; and on the east by Karauli, Bharatpur, and Alwar.

Amber State was ruled by Kachhwaha clan of Rajputs who claimed their descent from Kusha. Amber State had produced great rulers such as Man Singh, Mirza Raja Jai Singh and Sawai Jai Singh (1699-1743), the founder of city of Jaipur in 1728.

During the region of Akbar, Bharmal (1548-1574) the Chief of Amber was the first to accept the supremacy of the Mughals.\(^70\) In 1562, a matrimonial alliance was made between Mughals and Amber rulers. Subsequently Mughals started giving high \textit{mansabs} to the Amber rulers and in lieu they played important role in the expansion and administration of the Mughal Empire. During the declining years of the Mughal Empire, the chaotic conditions created by the incursions of Marathas into Rajputana, Sawai Jai Singh, through his efforts elevated his state above all the principalities in the region. He was chiefly remarkable for his scientific knowledge and skill. He caused many mathematical works to be translated into Sanskrit, and he erected observatories at Jaipur, Delhi, Banaras, Mathura, and Ujjain, shifting his capital from Amber, he lay out and built the present city of Jaipur in 1728.\(^71\) Jai Singh was one of the most remarkable men of his age. Soon after Jai Singh’s deaths, the Jats of Bhratpur, after several successful encounters along with the Jaipur chief, annexed a portion of the State, and the defection of the chief of Macheri (now Alwar), about 1790, further reduced the limits of the territory. By the end of the century Jaipur had fallen, into great confusion, being distracted by internal broils and impoverished by the exactions of the Marathas.\(^72\)

The war of succession that followed on Sawai Jai Singh’s demise in the year 21 September 1743 A.D between his elder son Ishwari Singh and his younger brother Madho Singh who laid claim on half of his father’s domain,

\(^71\) \textit{Imperial Gazetteer of India}, Vol. XIII, op. cit., p. 386.  
\(^72\) \textit{Ibid.}, p. 386.
brought in Maratha intervention. In May 1748, Peshwa Balaji Rao entered the Kachhwaha territory and defeats Ishwari Singh in the battle of Bagru (August 1748). Ishwari Singh promised to pay five parganas to Madho Singh and a huge sum of money to the Marathas as a price for peace. But Ishwari Singh fell into arrears. When the peshwa's army under Malhar Rao Holkar was marching to Jaipur, Ishwari Singh, totally unnerved and committed suicide (12 December 1750).

Madho Singh occupied the vacant throne on 29 December 1750. The Marathas, in addition to the payment of ransom made a new demand that one-third or at least one-fourth of the territory of Jaipur should be made over to them. Madho Singh, to teach the greedy Maratha a lesson, slew on 10 January 1751 about 3,000 Marathas and wounded 1,000 in the city of Jaipur. The Marathas then compromised on the condition of quick payment of Rs. 10 lakh already agreed upon by Madho Singh, and payment of an indemnity of Rs. 2 lakh for the slaughter of the Marathas. But Madho Singh failed in his promise.

The Marathas again entered the Jaipur territory in October 1753. Madho Singh then agreed to pay Rs. 16.5 lakh (Rs. 15,25,000) as outstanding dues and Rs. 1,25,000 as a present to the Maratha general Raghunath Dada. But he failed to pay full amount. Again the Marathas ravaged Jaipur territory and Madho Singh purchased peace by promising Rs. 5 lakh to the Marathas, but

74. Ibid., p. 40.
again failed to pay. In 1757 the Marathas again invaded Kachhwaha State to extract the promised but long delayed tribute.Holkar and Raghunath Dada plundered the countryside and demanded Rs. 40 to 50 lakh in cash and a large slice of Jaiur territory, but settled for Rs. 11 lakh, out of which Rs. 6 lakh were paid down.\textsuperscript{76}

In 1759, Holkar came to Jaipur to realize the arrears from Madho Singh, which were to the due of Rs. 12 lakh for 1758 and Rs. 9 lakh for 1759. He occupied a portion of the country and disturbed cultivation and commercial traffic.\textsuperscript{77} Holkar defeated the Jaipur army at Lokhari, but had to abandon the Jaipur affair in order to reach Delhi to meet the Afghan menace under Ahmad Shah Abdali.

Soon after the debacle of Panipat, Holkar invaded Rajasthan in October 1761 to counter Madho Singh's offensive nature. The Jaipur diwan Kaniram reopened negotiations with Holkar, but during the negotiations Holkar was suddenly recalled from Rajasthan.\textsuperscript{78}

Madho Singh had by now realised that he was no match against the Marathas. Jat Raja Jawahar Singh was also posing a new threat. Madho Singh therefore decided to conciliate the Marathas. He paid the current instalment of Rs. 5 lakh to Holkar and proposed to issue orders on the bankers for the payment of the balance. Madho Singh died on 5 March, 1768.\textsuperscript{79}

\textsuperscript{76} Letter from Maharaja Madho Singh to Madhar Rao Holkar, Falgun Vadi 7, V.S. 1831/1774 A.D. Statements of Maratha Papers; Also see Sarkar, n. 6, pp. 246-48.
\textsuperscript{77} J.N. Sarkar, No. 6, pp. 248-52.
\textsuperscript{78} Letter from Kedar Rao and Madho Rao Sindhia to Madho Singh, Kartik Vadi 13, V.S. 1819/1762, A.D. statement of Maratha Papers.
\textsuperscript{79} *Fall of the Mughal Empire*, Vol. II, op. cit., pp. 360-61.
Madho Singh’s elder son Prithvi Singh was merely five years old then, and the regency was held by Madho Singh’s widowed queen Chandrawat. The administration was in the hands of Diwan Khushali Ram Bohra and Firoz, an elephant driver. The Kachhwaha nobles, left with no control over administrative affairs, conspired to overthrow Bohra and Firoz. The remaining ten years of Prithvi Singh’s reign therefore witnessed civil commotion and internal disorder resulting in the decline of State control over its administrative apparatus.\(^{80}\)

Prithvi Singh was succeeded by his younger brother Sawai Pratap Singh, a boy of 13, and the affairs of State fell into worse confusion. In the early years of Sawai Pratap Singh’s reign (1778-81) the State of Jaipur witnessed court intrigues, plunder and usurpation of some parts of Jaipur territory by Rao Pratap Singh Naruka of Macheri (Alwar) and invasion by the Mughal regent Najaf in order to recover the arrears of tribute.\(^{81}\)

Pratap Singh bestowed personal favour and supreme power over his government to a tailor, Rada Ram. The post of diwan alternated between Khushali Ram Bohra and Daulat Ram Haldia. The utter neglect of public administration led to growing localization of authority.

In 1779 the Jaipur Raja paid Rs. 2 lakh to the Mughal Emperor and promised a further sum of Rs. 20 lakh in instalments. Mahadji Sindhia, the regent of the Mughal Emperor, attached the Jaipur territory in 1784 to recover

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the arrears. The Jaipur Raja promised to pay Rs. 21 lakh but paid only Rs. 3 lakh in 1785 and needed *pargana* worth Rs. 1 lakh.

The Jaipur Raja now sought to resist the Maratha’s domination. He forged a defence alliance with Marwar, and ordered the jagirdars not to pay any money to the Marathas and to resist them by force. Mahadji was defeated in the battle of Tunga in 1787.\(^{82}\)

Mahadji avenged his defeat by crushing the Rajput alliance in 1790 in the battle of Patna (20 June 1790). The Jaipur Raja was under severe financial strain and lost control over his subordinate jagirdars. The Marathas captured and plundered his defenceless villages.

Mahadji Sindhia revisited Jaipur territory in December 1790 to negotiate terms of Peace with the Rajputs. Seeking to exploit this weakened kingdom, Holkar too began to raid the Kachhwaha territory through his Pindaris.

In 1799, the Maratha Commander Vaman Rao attached with the Kachhwaha territory for collecting arrears and defeated the Jaipur army in the battle of Fatehpur.

The burden of tribute was as much as the Rajput States could bear, when Holkar and Sindhia fell out, Sawai Pratap Singh in March 1800 repudiated the agreement of 1791. The Maratha general Lakwa Dada defeated the combined forces of the Kachhwahas and the Rathors in the battle of Malpura in April 1800, and Pratap Singh had to purchase peace by agreeing to pay Sindha Rs. 6

\(^{82}\) J.N. Sarkar, No. 6, op. cit., p. 284.
lakh within one month and Rs. 3 lakh after six months. In return the Maratha troops were to vacate the Jaipur territory.\textsuperscript{83}

The political history of the Jaipur (Amber) State from 1750 to 1800 is thus a grim story of growing anarchy, progressive decline of central authority and its loosening control over the State apparatus. The economic strain caused by the Marathas affected almost all sections of the society.

In 1803, in the time of ruler Jagat Singh (1803-1819), a treaty was concluded with Jaipur by the English East India Company. The object of this treaty was to form a league against the Marathas, but the alliance was dissolved in 1805, because Amber ruler did not extend help to EIC against Holkar. The Maratha Commander subsequently tried to end the disputes between Jaipur and Jodhpur for the hand of the daughter of the Udaipur Chief, brought both States to the verge of ruin, while Amir Khan, with his Pindari mercenaries, was exhausting the country. In 1817 negotiations began again, and in 1818 a treaty was signed by which the protection of the EIC was extended to Jaipur and an annual tribute was fixed.\textsuperscript{84}

Main articles of the treaty of alliance signed between English East India Company and Jaipur ruler Jagat Singh in 1818 are as follows:

1. There shall be perpetual friendship, alliance, and unity of interests between the English Company and Jagat Singh, the ruler of Jaipur and his heirs and successors.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{83} Ibid, pp. 285-313.
\item \textsuperscript{84} Imperial Gazetteers of India, Vol. XIII, op. cit., p. 386.
\end{itemize}
2. The English Company will provide protection to the territory of Jaipur.

3. Jagat Singh, ruler of Jaipur and his heirs and successors, will act in subordinate co-operation with the English Company and acknowledge its supremacy further, the said ruler chiefs and States.

4. The Jaipur ruler and his successors, will not negotiation with any chief or State, without the sanction of the English Company.

5. The ruler of Jaipur will not commit aggressions on any one.

6. Tribute shall be paid in perpetuity by the ruler of Jaipur in the English Company according to the following details:

   First year : Tribute excused because of devastation caused in last years.

   Second year : Four lakhs

   Third year : Five lakhs

   Fourth year : Six lakhs

   Fifth year : Seven lakhs

   Sixth year: Eight lakhs

   Afterwards eight lakhs rupees annually, until the revenues of the Jaipur State exceed forty lakhs, when revenue exceeds forty lakhs, five sixteenths of the excess shall be paid in addition to the eight lakhs above mentioned.

7. The State of Jaipur will furnish troops according to its means, at the order of the English Company.
8. The ruler of Jaipur will remain absolute rulers of the country and English civil and criminal administration will not be introduced in their State.85

Jagat Singh died in December, 1818, and was succeeded by a Posthumous Son, Jai Singh III (1820-35), during whose minority the State was a scene of corruption and misgovernment. A rebellion in the Jaipur city in the latter part of 1820 led to the deputation for the first time of a British officer to reside at the capital. In 1835, on the succession of Maharaja Ram Singh (1835-1880), a serious disturbance in the city took place, in which one British Officer was killed and other was wounded. This led British Government to take measures to maintain order. A council of regency, consisting of five of the principal nobles, was formed under the superintendence of the British Political Agent, to whose decision all measures of importance were submitted. The army was reduced and every branch of the administration reformed. The tribute, fixed by the treaty of 1818 at 8 lakhs, was subsequently considered excessive; and in 1842 a remission was made of over 46 lakhs of arrears,86 and the annual tribute was reduced to 4 lakhs. Maharaja Ram Singh received full powers in 1851. During the revolt of 1857, he placed the whole of his available military power at the disposal of the political agent, and helped English East India Company in crushing it. For this service, he was rewarded with the grant of the

pargana of Kost Kasim. In 1862 Amber ruler Ram Singh, obtained the privilege of adoption. For his praiseworthy behaviour and literality during the famine of 1868 in Rajputana he received an addition of two guns to his solute for life; at the imperial assemblage at Delhi in January, 1877, his personal solute was raised to 21 guns, and he became a counsellor of the Empress. He died in 1880 without male issue.\textsuperscript{87} Maharaja Ram Singh was an intelligent ruler, and took great interest in opening up roads through his State and also in education. Moreover, he much extended irrigation, and gave his capital the benefits of gas and water works. On his death-bed he nominated as his successor Kayam Singh, the younger brother or the Thakur of Isarda and a descendant of the second son of Maharaja Jagat Singh. The British confirming the selection, Kayam Singh succeeded in 1880 under the name of Sawai Madho Singh II (1880-1922). He was born in 1862, and in consideration of his youth, the administration was at first conducted by a council under the joint presidency of the Maharaja and the political agent. He was invested with full powers in 1882, and had worthily followed in the footsteps of his adoptive father. In 1887 his solute was raised from 17 to 19 guns as a personal distinction.\textsuperscript{88}

Among his important works, mentioned he raised the imperial service Transport crops in 1889-90. He also constructed numerous irrigation works, hospitals, and dispensaries. He made a gift of 20 lakhs as an endowment to the

\textsuperscript{87} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{88} Imperial Gazetteers of India, Vol. XIII, op. cit., p. 387.
Indian people's famine relief trust; finally he also visited in 1902 to attend the
coronation of King Edward VII.

Rulers of Amber State during 18\textsuperscript{th} and 19\textsuperscript{th} century:\textsuperscript{89}

1. Jai Singh II (1699-1743)

2. Ishvari Singh (1743-1750)

3. Madho Singh (1751-1768)

4. Prithvi Singh (1768-1778)

5. Pratap Singh (1778-1803)

6. Jagat Singh (1803-1819)

7. Jai Singh III (1820-1835)

8. Ram Singh (1835-1880)
