



## **MEDIEVAL ARCHAEOLOGY OF LOWER SAHIBI BASIN**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The investigation of these facets is required in order to present an account that is complete as well as up to date of the archaeological settlements in the Lower Sahibi basin. The cultures that were discovered in this region throughout the course of explorations not only brought attention to the region's rich archaeological history, but also dealt with the function of contemporary societies in which characteristics of cultures that came before them are still practiced. In order to gain an understanding of the traditional ways of living, the ethnographic data collected from communities that are actively engaged in artisan activities in the current day is utilized.

**KEYWORDS:-** Lower Sahibi Basin, Medieval Period

### **INTRODUCTION**

Archaeologists classify the time period known as the Middle Ages into three distinct periods: the Early Medieval (600–1200 A.D.), the Medieval (1200–1700 A.D.), and the Late Medieval (1700–1857 A.D.). In north India, the ruins of kingdoms such as the Vardhana, Mokharis, Gurjara Pratihara, and Chauhana are the primary components of the Early Medieval archaeological period. The material relics of these dynasties are virtually identical to one another. Excavations were carried out at a significant number of sites dating to this time period. Sadly, archaeologists have not focused a great deal of their attention on the material from this time period. The only artifacts that have been discovered from this time period are some pottery that have a knife-edged bowl, a lipped jug, and spouted pots. The other artifacts include sculptures representing the Brahmanical, Buddhist, and Jaina religious sects; carved votive tablets; bull and horseman types of early medieval coinage; and early Devanagari script inscriptions, among other things.

Archaeology of the Middle Ages is the study of material remains from the time period beginning with the introduction of Islamic influences and ending with the founding of the East India Company. The archaeology of medieval India could be considered its own distinct branch due to the significant differences between the remains from this time period and those of the cultures that came before it. In Mehta's (1979) research, one of the most significant aspects of this distinction pertains to the architectural shapes and buildings. It has not yet

been possible to fully utilize the unlimited data that is of critical importance. A. Cunningham (1862-65: viii), who recorded all the existing remnants with a ground plan of every building or ruin, detailed notation, drawing, and sections of all objects of importance, is the person who is credited with putting the most focus on the archaeological evidence from this time period. Research conducted during this time period focused on the evolution of human settlements, in particular medieval forts and towns. In India, the sixties of the previous century saw the emergence of this discipline, albeit in a very limited capacity. The meticulous recording and examination of a great amount of archaeological evidence belonging to medieval India, which is, incidentally, already threatened with the destruction as a consequence of the current process of urban expansion, is of the utmost importance.

During the Late Historical/Early Medieval or Medieval periods, the royal structures, temples, and mosques that were constructed became an emblem of Indian archaeology. There was very little care paid to the artifacts uncovered in excavations pertaining to the Early Medieval or Medieval periods, and they were placed in godowns in an unsystematic manner. In the published reports, this content was rarely included at all (Gaur 1983). These data relevant to the Early Medieval and Medieval periods have been disregarded by modern archaeologists in their research. The groundbreaking research that R.N. Mehta (1979) conducted at Champaner is generally credited as being the impetus for the resurgence of interest in the field of medieval archaeology.

The period from 400 to 1000 A.D. is one that is defined by decline and degeneration practically everywhere in the country, with the exception of the east. During this time period, a new social order came into being, and regionalism came to the forefront as a result of the establishment of petty kingdoms and the subsequent internecine warfare that ensued between rival regional powers. There were roughly forty-nine different states, ranging in size from Pala to Partihara to Rastrakuta, and conflict was commonplace among them. Later on, during the beginning of the 8th century, Arab conquerors took control of Sind. In the 10th century, the Turks established themselves as a dominant force across most of Central and Western Asia, and they began to carve out kingdoms for themselves. They were able to conquer Persia, and as a result, their way of life was profoundly impacted by the culture and customs of the Persian people. As a result of the Turks' initial invasion of India, which took place between the late 10th and early 11th centuries, Punjab was subject to Turkish control. After then, during the latter half of the 12th century and the early part of the 13th century, there was a string of Turkish invasions that persisted up until the foundation of the Delhi Sultanate. At this period, the Chauhana dynasty was in control of northern India, and Prithviraja-III (1176-1192 A.D.) was the most powerful emperor in the Chauhana dynasty. During this time period, Mohammad Gauri arrived and engaged in combat with Prithviraja-III at Taraori in the year 1191 A.D. Mohammad Gauri was successful in overcoming his opponent in this conflict. However, the year after that (1192 A.D.), Prithviraja-III suffered a major loss, and he was defeated in the second battle of Taraori, where he was also killed. Following Prithviraja-III's defeat and subsequent death in this battle, the political fortune of the region took a new turn, and almost all of the regions in northern India fell into the hands of foreign invaders. These invaders established their own dynasty, which came to be known as the Slave dynasty, and began ruling over this region under the name of the Delhi Sultanate. The establishment of the Sultanate heralded the beginning of a new period in the annals of history pertaining to Medieval India. Since the Mamluk Sultans were responsible for establishing Turkish control in India, they are deserving of more attention and in-depth study than has previously been given to them. The country witnessed not only the gradual shaping of a state system, but also the beginning of many factors that would eventually constitute the composite culture and society of Medieval India (Habibullah 1961). Trade

and crafts received a stimulus, and many new towns rose as centers of administration, trade, and crafts. During this time period, there were also developments made in other technological areas. It only took a few centuries for Islam to become the second most popular religion in India, and it has adherents in every region of the country. Islam first gained popularity in Arabia.

In 1206, shortly after the untimely passing of Ghori, Qutbuddin Aibek faced a challenge from Yaloz, the governor of Gazni, and Qubaicha, the governor of Punjab. He was victorious over Yaloz and was able to drive him to Kuhistan (Briggs 1966: 112-113). Then, Aibek moved the capital to Lahore and established military installations in Sirsa, Hansi, Thanesar, Rohtak, Sonapat, Rewari, and Mewat (Yadav 1981: 32). During the limited reign of four years that he had, he did not undertake any new conquests, and instead focused his attention entirely on establishing law and order. As a result, Shamsuddin Iltutmish was the actual one who established the Sultanate. He made Delhi his empire's capital. He was an exceptional king during the Medieval period in India, and the history of Muslim dominion in India begins with him. His contribution to the development of the administration of the Sultanate was quite significant. In light of the fact that none of his sons would be qualified to lead the state, he named Razia as his successor.

Minhaj referred to her as "a sovereign endowed with all the admirable features and necessary qualifications for kings" while he was describing her. Her successors proved to be inept rulers, and the nobility eventually ousted them from power. In the year 1266, the chief noble of the Turuk people, Balban, took advantage of the circumstances and usurped the crown for himself. The restoration of law and order was one of his first priorities after he took office. Alauddin Khalji's ascent to the throne marked the beginning of the imperial period of the Sultans' rule, which began when the Khalji family took control of the government. He adopted Balban's strategy of 'blood and iron' to combat the Mongols because he believed that defense, expansion, and consolidation could all go hand in hand. The weak heirs of Alauddin were the ones who ended up ascending to the throne, and Sultan Ghiyasuddin Tughluq established a new dynasty in the Sultanate. Muhammad bin Tughluq, who succeeded him as Sultan of Delhi, was a notable figure in the history of the Delhi Sultanate. He was an outstanding scholar not only of Persian and Arabic, but also of astronomy, philosophy, mathematics, medicine, logic, and other fields of study. He had a strong belief in the geopolitical unity of India and worked toward the goal of removing all obstacles, both politically and culturally. Following the reign of Muhammad bin Tughluq, the crown was offered to Firoz Shah Tughluq, and it was under his administration that the populist method to government was implemented. The most significant accomplishment of his leadership was the establishment of canals, which helped to advance agricultural development. During the reign of Firoz Shah Tughlaq, the region of the Lower Sahibi basin fell under the control of the central government. At the same time, a big canal was excavated from the river Satlaj and stretched all the way to Jhajhar, which is a distance of 48 kroh (Firishta, Lithographed edition, volume 1: 262; compare James Burgess 1894: 130). Five canals were built in the current state that is comprised of Punjab and Haryana, and an irrigation levy that was equal to ten percent of production was levied. At a later point in time, the Saiyids and the Lodis took control of Delhi.

In the first battle of Panipat, which took place in 1526, Babur handed Abraham Lodi a humiliating loss, which marked the beginning of Mughal power. Babar did not get to experience the benefits of his triumph because he passed away not long after his victory in Agra (Rizvi 1960: 466-469). After the second battle of Panipat, Akbar established the true basis for Mughal power in India and created the framework for their empire. In the realm of administration, he conducted ongoing research and trials. In addition, he made Persian the official

language of Mughal India and standardized both the administrative structure and the system of weights and measures that were used. Following Akbar's reign, Jahangir continued the same administrative system, but he also issued a dozen new ordinances intended to improve governance and the general welfare of the population. The administrative system, the arts, and the built environment all saw significant advancements during the reign of Shah Jahan. As a result, historians consider this time period to be the peak of the Mughal empire. The names Akbar, Jahangir, and Shahjhan were referenced in the inscriptional records of the Mughal period, and contemporary architecture highlights the characteristics of the Mughal activities in the region (James Burgess 1894: 130-134). Following in Shah Jahan's footsteps as Mughal emperor, Aurangzeb took the throne. But the unjust policies that Aurangzeb pursued against Jats, Sikhs, Rajputs, and a great number of other supportive clans caused the political climate to be ripe with the potential for uprising, and it was seen everywhere. Following Aurangzeb's reign, the Mughal Empire eventually fell apart and broke up into a number of smaller nations that were each ruled by a handful of feudatories.

In the later part of the Mughal era, during the reign of Emperor Faroksher, the Jagir (or governorship) of Haryana was awarded to Rukkan-ud-daula. After that, in the year 1732, the control of the province was transferred to the Nawab of Farakhnagar. In the year 1754, Bhadur Khan Biluch was awarded the territories surrounding Bahadurgarh. These territories included the surrounding area. In the year 1761, Taj Muhammad Khan became his successor. The Jats took control of Jhajjar, Badli, and Farakhnagar in 1762 and maintained that control until 1771, when Musa Khan captured the region from Bharatpur. In the year 1772, Najaf Khan ascended to the throne of Delhi. At this point in time, Taj Muhammad Khan and Amir Ali Khan held control over Bahadurgarh, and they also had Pargana of Mandauthi under their control. It was the spouse of the famed Begum Samru (Zebunnissa) who controlled Jhajjar at the time. In 1794, George Thomas became her successor and was given the paraganas of Jhajjar and Beri as a reward for his service. He constructed the Jehazgarh (Georgegarh) fort at Husainganj, which is located on the boundary of the Jhajjar tahsil. In 1801, Maharaja Scindia and his general M. Perron, who was also the Governor of the Doab, were envious of his advancements, and Maharaja Scindia gave M. Perron the order to attack. Together, Lowis Bourquien and Captain Smith launched an assault on Jehazgarh and laid siege to the palace. During this conflict, Thomas positioned his base of operations behind the sand ridge that was located to the south of the fort. M. Perron set up his tent on the sand hills that are located above the settlement of Palra, while Lowis Bourquien picked the position that faces north. Thomas and several of his chief officers left the camp, and he was forced to fly away to Hansi in the middle of the night (Gazetteer of the Rohtak District 1883-84: 19-20). After the Marathas were completely driven out of the area, the region of Jhajjar was granted to Nawab Nijabat Ali Khan, and the region of Bahadurgarh was given to Nawab Ismail Khan, his brother. Nawab Abd-us-Samad Khan of Dujana was awarded the territory that included the tahsils of Rohtak, Beri, and Maham. The land that was controlled by the Dujana family was at one time greater in size than the all of the Jhajjar area. The Nawab of Jhajjar, Abd-ur-Rahman Khan, commissioned Lator on to construct the Palace in Jehanara garden to serve as his house. Lator on also constructed the tank at Chhuchhakwas. In the year 1855 A.D., the Nawab began the process of making a formal settlement of his area. However, by the time the mutiny broke out, the settlement had only spread to the two tahsils of Jhajjar and Badli (Gazetteer of the Rohtak District 1883-84: 23-24).

During this time period, the area surrounding the Lower Sahibi basin was home to a substantial population. It is demonstrated by the discovery of 198 sites from this time period in more recent explorations. The majority of the sites from this time period have been damaged as a result of agricultural operations, fast urbanization, and a lack of understanding regarding heritage. Some of the locations in this region have had part or all of

their surface area consumed by the existing village settlements. Ceramics, other types of discoveries, works of art and architecture, coins, and inscriptions are all examples of the ruins that have been discovered. During this time period, new kinds of ceramics were developed and produced, including as bowls with knife edges, containers with spouted openings, glazed ware, and Chinese pottery. The latter kind were reserved exclusively for usage by royal families and noble families. Beads, sling balls, glass bangles, and terracotta animal figures are just examples of the varied artifacts that were discovered. Sculptures dating back to this time period have been discovered in places such as Beri, Mohanbari, Badli Khanpur, Khudan, Jhanswa, and Dhanisthal, amongst other locations. The vast majority of these sculptures are discovered in a fragmented state. Mohanbari, Beri, and Badli are the locations where architectural remnants of ancient temples have been discovered. These sites are known as Badli, Beri, and Badli respectively. Jhajjar town, Bhadurgarh, Jhazgarh, Dujana, Badli, Bahu, Talav, and a number of other nearby villages all have mosques. Jhajjar, Hasanpur, Mitraon, Salahawas, and Bahu are all places that you can visit to see tombs and Chhatris. In the bazaar of Bahadurgarh, one can make out the remains of the ancient entryway to the fortified settlement that dates back to the late Mughal Empire. Coins and inscriptions have also been reported as having been found in the region, in addition to these remains.

## OBJECTIVE

1. Research on the archaeology of the Middle Ages in the Lower Sahibi Basin
2. To conduct research on the archaeological sites that have been found in the Lower Sahibi basin

## TRENDS IN EARLY HISTORIC RESEARCH

The earliest epoch in the history of the Indian subcontinent for which there is evidence of writing is considered to be the Early Historic period. These include inscriptions pertaining to ceremonies, politico-religious treatises (such those found in the Ashokan carvings), pharmacological texts and linguistic systems, and a beautiful kind of verse from a region far to the south that is referred to as the Sangam writing. Archeological investigations are given a new lease on life by printed traditions, which also provide a large-scale, authentic framework for comprehension. Archeological study, on the other hand, will typically center its attention on point-specific facts, such as metropolitan areas, ports, strict bases, and engravings. In any event, each and every one of these specific locations might be utilized to think about the ways in which historical political coalitions were founded on systems that had recently been established and perpetuated through trade and through close cooperation. H.P. Beam (2012), for example, encourages having a look at local settings and constrained states of situation in the ongoing medicines of the Ashokan proclamations. He says this is important. The differences between the provinces are striking: the Brahmagiri region of the southern subcontinent has stone monuments but no urban areas; Girnar has trade but no structures; and Orissa has proclamations related with urban areas, including one engraving for the central portion of the walled site of Jaugadh. The recognition of the ever-changing interrelationships between humans and their environments constitutes yet another important core idea. The examination of scenes has been utilized somewhere else on the planet to address the manners in which societies and their environments are ordinarily established. The investigation of scenes is a method of inquiry that enables specialists to recognize the presence of shared social, monetary, and ceremonial links over an area regardless of whether political ties are powerless, dispersed, or challenged (Anscheutz et al., 2001). For both urban and strict places in South Asia, the foci of the investigation have been on South Asia's Buddhist communities. In South Asia, the monsoon and the region's intricate network of rivers are two of the most prominent symbols associated with water. Questions



about farming and water also address a developing area of modern interest in the archeological sciences; these are questions about manageability.

## **LOWER SAHIBI BASIN MEDIEVAL ARCHAEOLOGY**

The study of fossils throughout the Middle Ages can be separated into three distinct time periods: the Early Middle Ages (600–1200 AD), the Middle Ages (1200–1700 AD), and the Late Middle Ages (1700–1857 AD). In north India, the Early Medieval old examinations often featured the rest of the parts of the Vardhana, Mokhari, GurjaraPratihara, and Chauhana lines. The content that these organizations are required to make available is, for the most part, relative. The vast majority of the time period's regions were found to have been uncovered. Unfortunately, archeologists have not paid a great deal of consideration to the material from this time period. The most important collection from this time period is the one of ceramic creations, which includes spouted pots, lipped compartments, and cutting edge edged bowls. A variety of items, such as representations of Brahmanical, Buddhist, and Jaina groups, cut votive tablets, bull and horseman sort of early medieval coins, and etchings in early Devanagari content, etc., have been found.

The study of material remains from the time beginning with the emergence of Islamic impacts and ending with the founding of the East India Company is what is known as medieval obsolete inquiry. The age-old examination of Medieval India as an alternative branch may be legitimized concerning the checked differentiation in remnants of this period from the main social orders. This differentiation can be shown in the remains of the period. According to Mehta (2010), one significant factor that contributes to this divergence is the process of developing the structures and structures. The unfathomable amount of information with critical importance has been kept a secret.

### **The beginnings of recorded history**

By the middle of the first thousand years before the common era (bce), the people who lived on the Indian subcontinent had flourishing systems of urban areas, cities, and exchange ports that were organized along regional political lines. The Ganges Plain and the northern part of the subcontinent are home to 16 city-states that have been verified by historical archives and given the name mahajanapadas. In the Gangetic heartland, in the sixth century before the common era, the recorded originators of Buddhism and Jainism were conceived, and they set moving acts of self-actualizing rigid norms that developed to have a worldwide effect.

At the beginning of the Early Historic period, which lasted from the third century before the common era to the fourth century after it, there was a concurrent development of urbanism, Buddhist and Jain ceremonial practices, and exchange that began to connect together the populaces of the subcontinent and to stretch out those contacts to the Arabian Peninsula, Central Asia, and Southeast Asia. These developments occurred at the same time as the main composed writings that were preserved as engravings on stone and potsherds. Although there were, all things considered, locations and designs during the Early Historic period, the vast majority of studies on this time period has focused on urban populations and strictly established enterprises. The strict foundations featured Buddhist and Jain localities with their own architecture. This architecture included religious communities for nuns and priests, stupas (reliquaries at a variety of scales from many meters high to modest, compact votive contributions), and chaityas (get together corridors).

## **CONCLUSION**

However, it has been noted that when the slope becomes level, as seen in Haryana and Delhi, the stream will generally change its course, whereas if there should be an occurrence of a more extreme angle, it has a constant route. Although the slope legally governs the course of the canal, it has been seen that when the slope becomes level, the stream will generally change its course. In spite of the fact that Sahibi is only sporadically a stream, the western bank of the Yamuna river is home to a number of sizable lakes and other bodies of water that resemble lakes. These are the water reserves that are typical of the region. In addition to recharging these water wells, this water also has an effect on the quality of the ground water. Despite the fact that a significant amount of the surrounding area is influenced by salty water, there is access to potable (or sweet) water in the areas surrounding these setups. There are a few extra discouragements in the zone that are currently being utilized for farming, in addition to the depression that was revealed earlier. The presence of archeological hills in close proximity to these depressions is evidence that these areas formerly contained water channels. The Lower Sahibi basin is home to a significant number of historical and archaeological sites.

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