Invasion of Mughals in India: A Review
Vivek Yadav
Independent Scholar
JS University, Shikohabad

Abstract: The great grandson of Tamerlane and Genghis Khan, was the first Mughal emperor in India. He confronted and defeated Lodhi in 1526 at the first battle of Panipat, and so came to establish the Mughal Empire in India. Babar (Baynes, 1878) ruled until 1530, and was succeeded by his son Humayun. Mughal presence in India is from 1526 to 1857 - 330 years. Mughal rule over India (well, at least most of Indian areas and population) was from 1560 to 1857. 180 years to be precise. After 1740, Mughal rule was only nominal before it was abolished by British in 1859. Mughal Rule (Emperors of the Peacock Throne, 2007) began in 1526 when Babar defeated Sultan Ibrahim Lodi and captured Delhi and Agra. Then he defeated Rana Sanga and next captured Gwalior. Different historians give different dates for end of Mughal Empire (Naimur Rahman Farooqi (1989).) and the best view is that it ended in 1740. Aurangzeb died in 1707 and almost instantly the empire began breaking up.

Keywords: Mughal rule, Invasion of Mughals, Mughal presence in India, Mughal emperor in India

[i] Important provinces like Bengal and Hyderabad effectively became independent.

[ii] Marathas conquered many territories belonging to Mughals, for example, the whole of Maharashtra, Gujarat, and parts of MP were conquered by them.

[iii] Sikhs also acquired effective control over territories in Punjab at the cost of Mughals.

Finally in 1739 Nadir Shah (The Sword of Persia, 26 June 2007) attacked Mughal Emperor Mohd Shah and defeated him. He took the most valuable asset of Mughals - the Peacock Throne and carried it to Iran. He also carried away the Kohinoor (Anita Anand, 2017) and Darya-i-noor diamonds. In fact the Mughal Emperor was forced to surrender keys of his treasury to Nadir Shah.

Even though while going back Nader Shah(Michael, 2010) gave all territories east of Indus back to Mohd Shah, Mughals were no more the pre-dominant power in India because they had already lost majority of Mughal territory since Aurangzeb’s death. By 1940 Marathas were the dominant political power in India.

As Per British Historians: They often say that Bahadur Shah Zafar was last Mughal ‘Emperor’ but that is meaningless. Zafar was a small king, receiving pension from Marathas / British and his territories were limited the wall surrounding Shahjahanabad. Precise statement is that Mughal Empire began in 1526 and ended in 1740 that is it lasted for 214 years.

Mughal dynasty, Mughal (Cambridge History of India, 1928) also spelled Mogul, Arabic Mongol, Muslim dynasty of Turkic-Mongol origin that ruled most of northern India from the early 16th to the mid-18th century. After that time it continued to exist as a considerably reduced and increasingly powerless entity until the mid-19th century. The Mughal dynasty was notable for its more than two centuries of effective rule over much of India, for the ability of its rulers, who through seven generations maintained a record of unusual talent, and for its administrative organization. A further distinction was the attempt of the Mughals, who were Muslims, to integrate Hindus and Muslims into a united Indian state.

Fig 1. Map-India at mughal time
Battles of Panipat, (1526, 1556, 1761), three military engagements, important in the history of northern India, fought at Panipat, a level plain suitable for cavalry movements, about 50 miles (80 km) north of Delhi. The Mughal Empire ruled parts of Afghanistan and most of the Indian Subcontinent between 1526 and 1857. The empire was founded by the Mongol leader Babur in 1526, when he defeated Ibrahim Lodi, the last of the Afghan Lodi Sultans at the First Battle of Panipat, where they used gunpowder for the first time in India.

First Battle of Panipat (1526)

An overwhelmingly outnumbered Mughal force prevailed at Panipat. This was due to the resourcefulness of its commander, Babur, demonstrated in his use of field fortifications and his instinctive sense of the value of the firepower of gunpowder. The victory enabled him to lay the foundations for the Indian Mughal Empire. A descendant of Timur, Babur became a refugee at the age of twelve when the Uzbeks seized Samarkand in 1494. At age fifteen he was back with his own warband. He laid siege to his home city, but without success. Undaunted, he headed south into Afghanistan. Capturing Kabul in 1504, he made it his base for raids into Central Asia’s Transoxania region. Increasingly, however, he found himself tempted by the unimaginable wealth of India. In the years that followed, he mounted a series of incursions into the Punjab.

These territories had for three centuries belonged to a Muslim empire, the Delhi sultanate. Although its prestige had been badly damaged by Timur’s triumph of 1398, it remained a powerful presence in northern India. At this time, the sultanate was under the control of an Afghan elite. A capricious and divisive ruler, Sultan Ibrahim Lodi had alienated many of his nobles. It was indeed a local lord in Hindustan who, in 1523, invited Babur to undertake a full-scale invasion.

Fig 2. First Battle of Panipat

Although he clearly was attracted by the idea of invasion, Babur (Cambridge University, Chisholm, Hugh, 1911) was in no hurry. His army numbered only 10,000 men, so he made sure that they were well equipped and superbly trained before committing to his assault on Hindustan. He took the time to train them in the use of gunpowder weapons, while making sure their skills in traditional steppe warfare were not neglected. Only at the end of 1525 did he embark on his invasion.

His army swept aside the Afghan force that marched out to meet it, so Sultan Ibrahim himself led a second army into the field, taking up a position at Panipat, to the north of Delhi. On 12 April 1526, Babur found himself confronted with an enormous multitude: 100,000 men and 1,000 elephants. Unfazed, he set about constructing an impromptu fortress on the open plain, tying 700 carts together and fronting them with earthen ramparts as protection for his cannon and for his musketeers with their matchlocks. As the days passed and a hesitant Sultan Ibrahim stayed his attack, Babur was able to consolidate his position still further. He dug trenches and felled trees, constructing barriers to the left and right, while leaving gaps through which his cavalry could charge.

On 21 April, Ibrahim finally made his move. His troops surged forward, only to be brought up short by Babur’s fortifications. As they milled about in confusion, the Mughal cavalry came wheeling in from the wings: the sultan’s force was effectively surrounded. At this point, Babur’s gunners opened up their bombardment from behind their barrier, firing at point-blank range into this close-packed mass. Unable either to advance or retreat, the Afghan army was cut down cruelly.

Not only was Babur now the undisputed ruler of Hindustan, but also the road to Delhi and the domains of the sultanate lay wide open. On the basis of this victory, he was able to establish a glorious new ruling line. In honor of its founder’s Timurid origins and of the Mongol antecedents of Timur himself this was to be known as the Mughal, or Mogul, dynasty. This victory marked the beginning of the Mughal Empire in India. Losses: Mughal, unknown; Afghan, 20,000–50,000. Second and Third Battles of Panipat (1556, 1761). The Mughal Empire’s expansion, stalled after the death of its founder Babur in 1530, began anew under Babur’s grandson, Akbar. Fighting on a field that had proved so propitious for his grandfather, the young Akbar won a vital victory over the powerful Hindu ruler, Hemu.

Babur’s son Humayun had encountered serious setbacks, even losing his kingdom after it was conquered by the Pashtun warlord Sher Shah Suri in 1540. Rebuilding his forces in exile, he eventually took back his realms fifteen years later, leaving his son and successor, Akbar, with a great empire.
To the east of Akbar’s realms, the Suri general Hemu had set himself up as a strongman ruler; calling himself a king, he built a powerbase in Bengal. Aged just thirteen, Akbar seemed singularly ill-equipped to cope with this threat. However, he had rare gifts and the support of his guardian, the accomplished general Bairam Khan. Hemu had unstoppable momentum, it seemed having already taken Agra and the strategic fortress of Tughlaqabad, in October 1556 he captured Delhi. Too late to save the city, Akbar’s army let it go and stopped on the plains to the north, at Panipat.

On 5 November 1556, the scene was set for the Second Battle of Panipat. Repeated elephant charges failed to break the resolve of the outnumbered Mughal soldiers. An inspiring figure, Hemu led from the front, perched high up on an elephant, an important talisman for his troops. He was also a tempting target for the Mughal archers, and initially they showered him with shafts to no avail, so impregnable was the head-to-foot armor he was wearing. Eventually, though, one arrow found its way in through an eyeslit and killed him. Seeing their leader fall, the Hindus broke and fled.

The third battle (Jan. 14, 1761) ended the Maratha attempt to succeed the Mughals as rulers of India and marked the virtual end of the Mughal empire. The Maratha army, under the Bhao Sahib, uncle of the peshwa (chief minister), was trapped and destroyed by the Afghan chief Aḥmad Shah Durrānī. Following the decline of the Mughal Empire after the death of Emperor Aurangzeb, the Maratha Confederacy had expanded rapidly, threatening the Afghan Durrani Empire, ruled by Ahmad Shah Durrani. Ahmad declared a jihad and launched a campaign that captured large parts of the Punjab. The Marathas responded by raising a large army, under the command of Sadashivrao Bhau, and recaptured Delhi. Ahmad’s campaign was aimed at starving the Maratha army of its supplies. At the same time, he led an army of 40,000 into the south to trap the Maratha army in the Punjab.

Cut off and starving, Bhau decided to break Ahmad’s blockade, spawning the two armies to face off at Panipat. The former attempted to pulverize the latter’s army with a massive artillery bombardment and then utilize his superiority in numbers to break the Durrani blockade and move south in a defensive posture. However, he was undermined by rivalries within his ranks and the need to protect many civilians. Durrani launched a surprise attack before the artillery had inflicted serious damage and Bhau’s nephew was killed. The Maratha commander entered the battle to recover his nephew’s body, but his troops thought him dead and their morale plummeted. The smaller Durrani army took advantage and routed them. Bhau escaped, to die sometime later, but the Maratha army had been destroyed and the unity of the empire was broken.

This began 40 years of anarchy in northwestern India and cleared the way for later British supremacy. Losses: Maratha, 40,000 casualties and 30,000 captured of 80,000; Durrani, 5,000 casualties of 40,000–75,000. Aurangzeb, also spelled Aurangzeb, Arabic Awrangzib, kingly title Ḍālamgīr, original name Muhī al-Dīn Muhammad, (born November 3, 1618, Dhod, Malwa [India]—died March 3, 1707), and emperor of India from 1658 to 1707, the last of the great Mughal emperors. Under him the Mughal Empire reached its greatest extent, although his policies helped lead to its dissolution. Aurangzeb was the third son of the
emperor Shah Jahān and Mumtāz Maḥal (for whom the Taj Mahal was built). He grew up as a serious-minded and devout youth, wedded to the Muslim orthodoxy of the day and free from the royal Mughal traits of sensuality and drunkenness. He showed signs of military and administrative ability early; these qualities, combined with a taste for power, brought him into rivalry with his eldest brother, the brilliant and volatile Dārā Shikōh, who was designated by their father as his successor to the throne. From 1636 Aurangzeb held a number of important appointments, in all of which he distinguished himself. He commanded troops against the Mughals and the Persians with distinction (1646–47) and, as viceroy of the Deccan provinces in two terms (1636–44, 1654–58), reduced the two Muslim Deccan kingdoms to near-subjection.

When Shah Jahān fell seriously ill in 1657, the tension between the two brothers made a war of succession seem inevitable. By the time of Shah Jahān’s unexpected recovery, matters had gone too far for either son to retreat. In the struggle for power (1657–59), Aurangzeb showed tactical and strategic military skill, great powers of dissimulation, and ruthless determination. Decisively defeating Dārā at Samugarh in May 1658, he confined his father in his own palace at Agra. In consolidating his power, Aurangzeb caused one brother’s death and had two other brothers, a son, and a nephew executed.

**Emperor of India**

Aurangzeb’s reign falls into two almost equal parts. In the first, which lasted until about 1680, he was a capable Muslim monarch of a mixed Hindu-Muslim empire and as such was generally disliked for his ruthlessness but feared and respected for his vigor and skill. During this period he was much occupied with safeguarding the northwest from Persians (Edward G. Browne, 1722–1922) and Central Asian Turks and less so with the Maratha chief Shivaji, who twice plundered the great port of Surat (1664, 1670). Aurangzeb applied his great-grandfather Akbar’s recipe for conquest: defeat one’s enemies, reconcile them, and place them in imperial service. Thus, Shivaji was defeated, called to Agra for reconciliation (1666), and given an imperial rank. The plan broke down, however; Shivaji fled to the Deccan and died, in 1680, as the ruler of an independent Maratha kingdom.

After about 1680, Aurangzeb’s reign underwent a change of both attitude and policy. The pious ruler of an Islamic state replaced the seasoned statesman of a mixed kingdom; Hindus became subordinates, not colleagues, and the Marathas, like the southern Muslim kingdoms, were marked for annexation rather than containment. The first overt sign of change was the reimposition of the jizya, or poll tax, on non-Muslims in 1679 (a tax that had been abolished by Akbar). This in turn was followed by a Rajput revolt in 1680–81, supported by Aurangzeb’s third son, Akbar. Hindus still served the empire, but no longer with enthusiasm. The Deccan kingdoms of Bijapur and Golconda were conquered in 1686–87, but the insecurity that followed precipitated a long-incipient economic crisis, which in turn was deepened by warfare with the Marathas. Shivaji’s son Sambhajirao was captured and executed in 1689 and his kingdom broken up. The Marathas, however, then adopted guerrilla tactics, spreading all over southern India amid a sympathetic population. The rest of Aurangzeb’s life was spent in laborious and fruitless sieges of forts in the Maratha hill country. Aurangzeb’s absence in the south prevented him from maintaining his former firm hold on the north. The administration weakened, and the process was hastened by pressure on the land by Mughal grantees who were paid by assignments on the land revenue. Agrarian discontent often took the form of religious movements, as in the case of the Satnamis and the Sikhs in the Punjab. In 1675 Aurangzeb arrested and executed the Sikh Guru (spiritual leader) Tegh Bahadur, who had refused to embrace Islam; the succeeding Guru was in open rebellion for the rest of Aurangzeb’s reign. Other agrarian revolts, such as those of the Jats, were largely secular.

In general, Aurangzeb ruled as a militant orthodox Sunni Muslim; he put through increasingly puritanical ordinances that were vigorously enforced by multasibs, or censors of morals. The Muslim confession of faith, for instance, was removed from all coins lest it be defiled by unbelievers, and courtiers were forbidden to salute in the Hindu fashion. In addition, Hindu idols, temples, and shrines were often destroyed. The rest of Aurangzeb’s life was spent in laborious and fruitless sieges of forts in the Maratha hill country. Aurangzeb’s absence in the south prevented him from maintaining his former firm hold on the north. The administration weakened, and the process was hastened by pressure on the land by Mughal grantees who were paid by assignments on the land revenue. Agrarian discontent often took the form of religious movements, as in the case of the Satnamis and the Sikhs in the Punjab. In 1675 Aurangzeb arrested and executed the Sikh Guru (spiritual leader) Tegh Bahadur, who had refused to embrace Islam; the succeeding Guru was in open rebellion for the rest of Aurangzeb’s reign. Other agrarian revolts, such as those of the Jats, were largely secular.

**Timeline of Mughal Empire and southern India**

**1526-1556:** Period of Babar and Humayun. Early Mughal emperors of Mughal Empire struggled to keep control on Delhi. During this period Southern India was ruled peacefully by Vijayanagar Empire

**1556-1605:** Period of the Great Akbar. While Akbar was able to consolidate and northern part of India till Malwa (Present Madhya Pradesh), he did not expand in Deccan. In this time period, Remains of Delhi Sultanat (Rulers of Northen India before Mughals arrived) had formed Deccan Sultanat (Ahmednagar, Bijapur, Golkonda sultanat). They formed an alliance and fought against Vijay Nagar Empire, after few battles Vijay Nagar Empire fell and most of the southern part of India was ruled by Deccan Sultanat.

**1605-1657:** Jahangir and Shah Jahan. Both rulers did not conquer south part of India from Deccan Sultanat. However during Shah Jahan's reign Ahmednagar Sultanat fell and other two sultanat (Bijapur -> Adil Shah) and (Golkonda -> quotb shah) were forced to recognize Mughal authority. They were still rulers of southern India though.
1657-1707: Great Aurangzeb came to Mughal Throne. He sought more control over Deccan sultanat. In 1681, tired of Maratha's guerrilla wars and afraid of their expansion, he moved to south with huge army. He annexed both Bijapur and Golkonda sultanat. So you can say for Period of 1685-1707 Mughal were the actual rulers of south India.

After 1707: After Aurangzeb's death, was of succession between his children and grand-children broke out. This weakened Mughal Empire. Mughal's generals in Hyderabad and Bengal declared their independence. We know these generals and Nizam of Hyderabad and Bengal. Nizam of Hyderabad who ruled most of the southern India along with Marathas.

Throughout the period of Mughals, Mysore kingdom existed, though size of their empire kept on varying. After weakened Mughal Empire and formation of Hyderabad kingdom by Nizam, Kingdom of Mysore was expanded by Hyder Ali and Tipu sultan.

Conclusion
This paper found on this issue the Mughal invasion in India has very critical phase. Many different time Mughal win the battle by his ruling power there is some main battle like panipat battle first second and third. Ultimately British won everything by start of 19th century. After while a new era come for the India for their democratic expansion.

References